UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA

EFFECTS OF SECTORAL COMPONENTS OF ECONOMIC GROWTH, GENDER AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE COMPOSITION ON POVERTY IN NIGERIA

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By

ALHAJI BUKAR MUSTAPHA

Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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February 2016

Chairperson : Rusmawati Said, PhD
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This study investigates three independent but related issues. First, it examines the effects of sectoral components of economic growth on poverty in Nigeria. It is generally agreed that economic growth, which is supported by structural change, would lead to rapid poverty reduction. The study employs static panel data regression to analyze the data. The results show that rural agricultural growth and urban wholesale/retail sector growth exert significant influence on poverty reduction, while growth in the industrial and services sectors has less influence on poverty reduction. In general, the change in the structure of the economy has not been effective in reducing poverty in Nigeria. The results also do not seem to suggest that the low poverty reduction of the structural change is associated with income inequality. Thus, there is a need for policies directed towards expanding investment in the agricultural and the labor-intensive export manufacturing sector to complement the agricultural sector. The second objective of the study examines the impact of gender and socioeconomic characteristics of household heads on poverty in Nigeria. Logistic regression techniques are employed to analyze the data. The results show that the chances of households being poor are lower for female-maintained families and households with high female-to-male ratios, while larger household size and high dependency ratios increase the chances of household heads being poor. Therefore, the analyses of the results do not warrant leaving male-headed families out of the special anti-poverty programs. The third objective is to investigate the effects of public expenditure composition via growth, employment and wages on poverty reduction. This will help in identifying the most effective pro-poor sectors for the efficient allocation of scarce resources. The study uses Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) techniques. The results show that public expenditure on education, health and agriculture exerts a positive impact on poverty. The study also indicates that the public expenditure categories have directly and indirectly affected the rate of poverty while the indirect effects of transport and infrastructure expenditure are insignificant. The study concludes that for the effective performance of public expenditure, there is a need to increase the proportion of the investment part of the expenditure.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk ijazah Doktor Falsafah

KESAN KOMPONEN SEKTORAL DALAM PERTUMBUHAN EKONOMI, GENDER DAN KOMPOSISI PERBELANJAAN AWAM TERHADAP KEMISKINAN DI NIGERIA

Oleh

ALHAJI BUKAR MUSTAPHA

Februari 2016

Pengerusi : Rusmawati Said, PhD
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Kajian ini menyiasat tiga isu bebas tetapi berkaitan. Pertama, kajian ini memeriksa kesan perubahan struktur ke atas kemiskinan di Nigeria. Secara umumnya dipersetujui bahawa pertumbuhan ekonomi yang disokong oleh perubahan struktur akan membawa kepada penurunan kadar kemiskinan dengan segera. Oleh itu, tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk menyiasat hubungan daripada perspektif sektoral. Ini akan membantu untuk memahami kesan perubahan struktural terhadap penurunan kemiskinan dalam ekonomi. Kajian ini menggunakan regresi panel data statik bagi menganalisis data. Hasil analisis menunjukkan pertumbuhan pertanian luar bandar dan pertumbuhan sektor borong/runcit bandar mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan terhadap penurunan kemiskinan, manakala sektor industri dan perkhidmatan kurang mempengaruhi penurunan kadar kemiskinan. Secara umumnya, perubahan struktural kurang berkesan dalam mengurangkan kemiskinan di Nigeria. Dasar ekonomi diperlukan bagi mengembangkan pelaburan dalam sektor pertanian dan juga bagi memberi perhatian yang khusus terhadap sektor pembuatan intensif-buruh untuk eksport bagi melengkapkan sektor pertanian.

Objektif kedua adalah untuk memeriksa kesan gender dan ciri-ciri sosioekonomi ketua isi rumah terhadap kemiskinan di Nigeria. Teknik regresi logistik digunakan bagi menganalisis data. Hasil kajian menunjukkan kemungkinan isi rumah menjadi miskin adalah rendah bagi keluarga yang diurus oleh wanita serta isi rumah yang mempunyai nisbah wanita yang tinggi sebagai anggota keluarga, manakala saiz isi rumah yang lebih besar serta kadar pergantungan yang lebih tinggi akan meningkatkan kemungkinan ketua isi rumah menjadi miskin. Perbezaan gender dalam pemilikan tanah telah menghalang penurunan kadar kemiskinan, pemerkasaan wanita melalui hak undang-undang serta hak mengakses dan mengawal sumber masih jauh lagi dalam proses membendung kemiskinan dalam kalangan wanita. Oleh itu, analisis hasil kajian ini tidak menjamin keluarga yang diketuai oleh lelaki dapat ditinggalkan dalam program-program khas membasmi kemiskinan.

Objektif yang ketiga adalah untuk menyiasat kesan pelbagai jenis perbelanjaan awam (misalnya, perbelanjaan kerajaan untuk pendidikan, kesihatan, pertanian dan sebagainya) terhadap penurunan kemiskinan dengan memfokuskan kepada pertumbuhan ekonomi, pekerjaan dan upah. Oleh itu, objektif kajian ini adalah untuk menyiasat kesan komposisi perbelanjaan awam melalui pertumbuhan, pekerjaan dan gaji terhadap penurunan kemiskinan. Ia juga menganalisis kesan langsung dan tidak langsung terhadap penurunan kadar kemiskinan. Ini dapat membantu mengenal pasti dan mengesan sektor pro-miskin secara efektif bagi memperuntukan sumber-sumber yang terhad secara berkesan. Kajian ini menggunakan teknik regresi tidak berkaitan (RTB). Hasil kajian menunjukkan perbelanjaan awam dalam pendidikan, kesihatan dan pertanian memberi kesan positif kepada kemiskinan. Tambahan pula, hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa jenis-jenis perbelanjaan awam memberi kesan kepada kadar kemiskinan secara langsung dan tidak langsung. Manakala, kesan tidak langsung daripada pengangkutan dan perbelanjaan infrastuktur adalah tidak penting. Secara perbandingan, kesan bahagian pelaburan dalam perbelanjaan awam secara relatifnya lebih tinggi berbanding perbelanjaan keseluruhan. Kajian ini menyimpulkan bagi meningkatkan prestasi perbelanjaan awam, bahagian pelaburan awam perlu ditingkatkan.

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I certify that a Thesis Examination Committee has met on 17 February 2016 to conduct the final examination of Alhaji Bukar Mustapha on his thesis entitled "Effects of Sectoral Components of Economic Growth, Gender and Public Expenditure Composition on Poverty in Nigeria" in accordance with the Universities and University Colleges Act 1971 and the Constitution of the Universiti Putra Malaysia [P.U.(A) 106] 15 March 1998. The Committee recommends that the student be awarded the Doctor of Philosophy.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADP	Agricultural Development Projects
UN	United Nations
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
HDI	Human Development Index
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics Nigeria
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programs
DFRRI	Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural infrastructure
NAPEP	National Poverty Eradication Program
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
NPC	National Population Commission Nigeria
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
ADP	Agricultural Development Program
NALDA	National Agricultural Land Development Authority
ACGS	Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme
NACRDB	Nigerian Agricultural, Cooperative and Rural Development Bank
SGRP	Strategic Grains Reserves Program
DFID	Department for International Development
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
NCS	National Consumer Survey
HNLSS	Harmonized Nigeria Living Standard Survey
GHS	General Household Survey
SUR	Seemingly Unrelated Regression
PSU	Primary Sampling Units
EA	Enumeration Areas
WDI	World Development Indicators

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The rural-urban income gap, gender inequality and disproportionate public expenditure allocation pose significant challenges towards poverty reduction in the developing countries. To confront these challenges, the international community, coming together under the auspices of the United Nations (UN), has adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) with explicit objectives of rural development, eliminating poverty and promoting gender equality and women's empowerment. Consequently, the global Human Development Index (HDI) and economic growth have improved, and the percentage of the population living below the poverty line has been significantly reduced.

Figure 1.1 shows that the percentage of people living below the poverty line ($1.25 a day) in the developing world has declined from 43.5 percent in 1990 to 17 percent in 2011, and in 2015, it was expected drop to 13.4 percent. This indicates that the developing countries as a whole have been successful in meeting the MDG target. However, the poverty rates are still high in South Asia (SA) and Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) despite registering a declining trend.

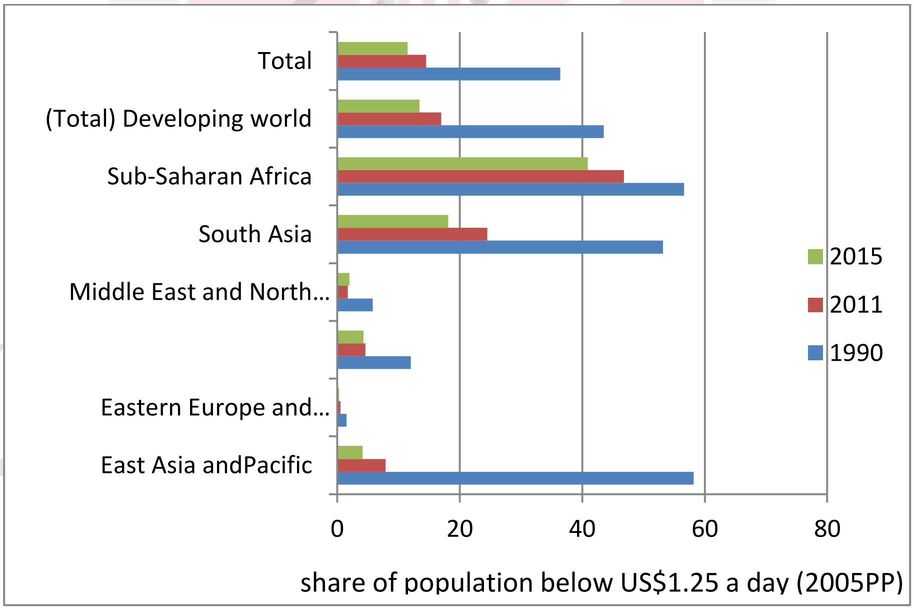

Figure 1.1 Regional Comparison of Poverty Incidence
(Source: author's own computation, using data from the World Bank, 2015)

It is not disputable that the decline in the rates of poverty was lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), with a projected poverty level of 41 percent in 2015 (403.2 million). Moreover, in order to meet the 24 percent target set by 2015, the current poverty rate has to be reduced by 71 percent. On the other hand, the region has experienced an average growth rate of 5.6 percent, excluding South Africa, whose average growth is faster than in many other developing countries. Despite this, extreme poverty remains high in the SSA countries, including Nigeria, a fast-growing economy.

Furthermore, according to a report from the Nigerian British Council (2012), the sheer size of the Nigerian population living below the poverty line may have a significant influence on the achievement of the MDG target in the region. Nigeria is the most populous country in SSA, accounting for one-fifth of the total population in the continent, and 71.5 percent or 120 million of the Nigerian population live below the poverty line, as projected by the National Bureau of Statistics. This implies that Nigeria accounts for 29 percent of SSA's total poor. Therefore, alleviating poverty is crucial not only for Nigeria, but also for the entire region. Many factors are responsible for the growing incidence of poverty in the country. First, the economic growth has not been inclusive due to the concentration of growth in less labor-intensive sectors of the economy (Anyanwu, 2014). Secondly, over-dependence on the oil and gas sector and the lack of investment in the labor-intensive agricultural and manufacturing sectors have been detrimental to the general well-being of the people. Third, neglect of the agricultural sector has adversely affected the agricultural output, as it has caused significant rural-urban migration and also allowed women to be farm managers, but with low capital for expansion. Finally, the urban bias in public investment brought about by the emergence of oil as the pedestal of the economy may also have an adverse impact on poverty.

Recently, the Nigerian government articulated the 'National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy' (NEEDS), which is equivalent to the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), with the objective of wealth creation, employment generation and poverty reduction. Rural development, gender equalization and proper public expenditure management policies have been the important elements of NEEDS. These policies have been identified by the government as essential for achieving the MDG objectives.

The aim of this study is to carry out a comprehensive investigation of the important component of NEEDS. This study differs from previous studies in many respects. First, this study attempts to examine the effects of sectoral components of economic growth on poverty across rural and urban locations. This is of utmost importance because it broadens our understanding of the heterogeneous effects of sectoral growth on poverty reduction across locations, as knowledge of the aggregate growth is not enough to provide practical answers. In recent years, there has been growing skepticism about the potential impact of aggregate growth on poverty reduction in SSA. Both theoretical and practical evidence suggests that aggregate growth is important for poverty reduction, but its sectoral composition of GDP matters. The growth of the labor-intensive sectors (such as agriculture and services) is assumed to play a vital role in reducing poverty because of their considerable share of employment.

Secondly, this study attempts to assess the impact of gender and socioeconomic differences on household poverty using poverty measures that allow us to capture not only income poverty but also the non-income dimension. This is important because using consumption expenditure (expenditure on goods and services by households) in analyzing the gender dimension of poverty may not fully explain household poverty. The gender disparities in access to education, land and employment opportunities are some of the issues for incorporating gender issues in poverty analysis.

Thirdly, this study examines the effects of public expenditure components on poverty reduction. This evaluation has become necessary given the upward trend in poverty incidence despite the increasing trend in government expenditure in the country. The rest of this chapter is structured as follows: Section 1.2 provides the research background; Section 1.3 states the problem statements; Section 1.4 outlines the research objectives; Section 1.5 provides the significance of the study; and the last section, Section 1.6, outlines the organization of the study.

1.2 Research Background

This section provides the background of the research. It discusses Nigeria's demography and rural-urban migration, the rural-urban poverty profile, poverty profiles by gender, structural change and its effects on urban/rural poverty, and gendered poverty.

1.2.1 Geography and Rural-Urban Migration

Nigeria is located in Western Africa, sharing land borders with the Republic of Niger to the north, the Republic of Chad to the northeast and the Atlantic Ocean (Gulf of Guinea) to the south, the Republic of Benin on the west and the Republic of Cameroun to the east. It occupies an area of 923,768 square kilometers (356,669 square miles) and is the most populous country in Africa, with an estimated population of about 177.15 million according to the latest CIA World Factbook (2014). The country accounts for about one-sixth of the people in Africa. The country consists of 36 states and a federal capital territory as shown in Appendix A. Abuja is the national capital of Nigeria, and is located in the centre of the country. The country is divided into six regions: these are the North-East, North-West, North-Central, South-East, South-West and South-South regions. The country has more than 250 ethnic groups. The most populous ethnic groups are the Hausa and Fulani (29%), Yoruba (21%) and Igbo (18%).

As regards trends in rural-urban migration, available statistics suggest that the urbanization rate (the percentage growth of the urban population) was relatively low before the emergence of the oil sector. For example, in the 1930s, only 7% of the population lived in urban centers, and in the 1950s, the urbanization rate was 10%. The rate continued to increase, from 20% in 1970 to 35% in 1990 and to about 51% in 2015. The rural-urban population composition, as shown in Figure 1.2, indicates that Nigeria is rapidly changing from a rural agrarian society to a highly urbanized society.

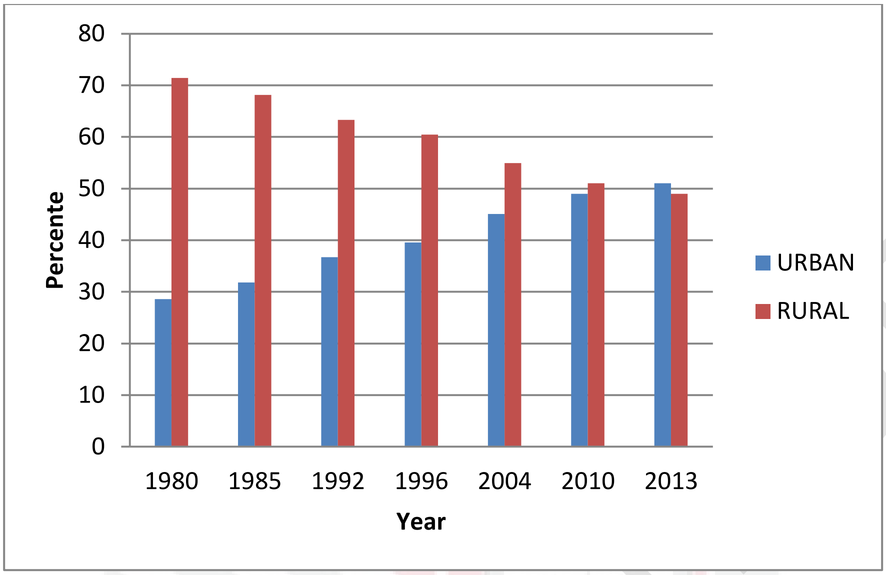

Figure 1.2. Nigerian Urban-Rural Share of Population
(Source: United Nations, 2014)

The observed sluggish exodus of the rural dwellers in earlier periods was due to limited opportunities in the urban areas and the booming of the agriculture sector. As a result, a larger percentage of the population was involved in rural agricultural activities. In recent years, the number of urban dwellers is fast growing, even exceeding the rural population, due to the opening up of more opportunities in urban sectors (Abbas, 2012). The increasing revenue from the oil and gas sector and the creation of additional new states have sped up the urbanization process. Lists of the states, their populations and poverty rates are provided in the appendix. However, the rapid urbanization in Nigeria has not been accompanied by a significant decline in poverty. In fact, it has even intensified urban poverty, as discussed in subsection 1.2.4.

1.2.2 The Nigerian GDP and its Composition

In the last decade, the Nigerian economy has experienced stable growth in both nominal and real GDP, with an average growth rate of 6.4 percent. The GDP per capita is also increasing rapidly, as shown in Figure 1.3.

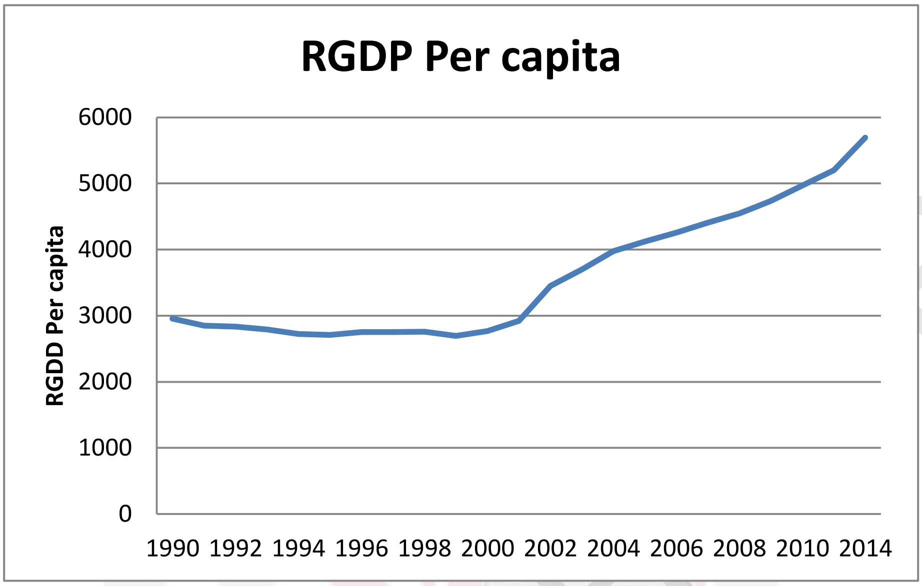

Figure 1.3. GDP per Capita 1990 Constant Prices
(Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2012)

The agricultural and oil and gas sectors have been the major contributors to Nigeria's GDP. However, recently, the percentage-share of the services sector has appreciated greatly due to the inclusion of telecommunications, information technology, online sales, airlines, music and film production, which previously were unaccounted for.

As shown in Table 1.4, the Nigerian economy has undergone substantial changes in the last three decades, from agricultural-based to the oil and gas sector, which dominated the economy. Before the emergence of the oil industry in the early 1970s, agriculture was the major driver of the economy, contributing about 64 percent to the GDP and over 75 percent to the total revenue. However, with the development of the oil and gas sector, the agricultural share of GDP declined from about 64 percent in the 1960s to 20 percent in the 1980s. The sector average shares remained stable until they dropped to 20 percent in 2013 and 2014 due to rebasing.

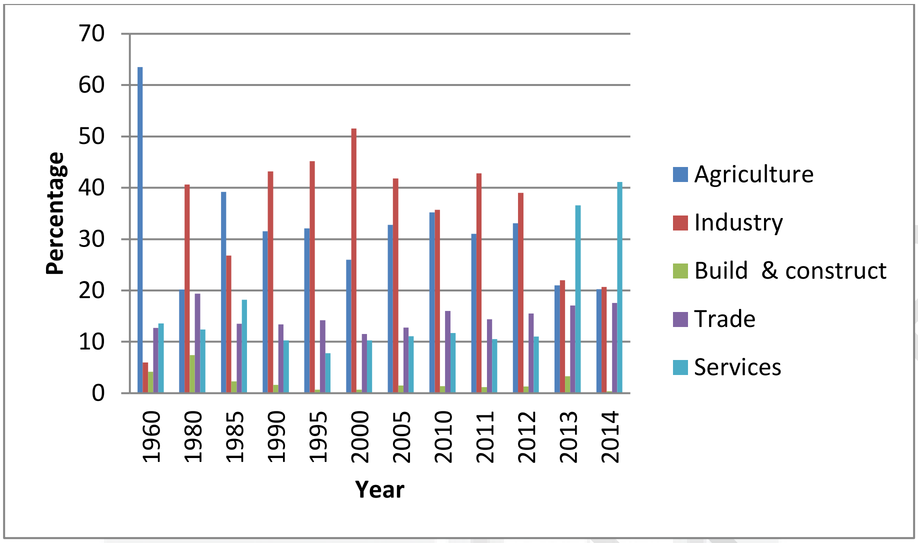

Figure 1.4. Sectoral Share of GDP 1960-2014
(Source: National Bureau of Statistics, from various statistical reports)

The production of subsistence food crops has also declined, and food imports have increased considerably due to the increase in population and low production. The agricultural sector is highly dominated by smallholder farmers, who account for more than 75 percent of the domestic total output (Attah, 2012). The agricultural sector has been neglected due to the growing significance of the oil and gas sector, causing a change in relative prices in favor of non-tradable goods, thus penalizing the agricultural tradable sector. Price incentives to small-scale farmers were also not supportive, as the government marketing boards set low producer prices for cash crops which bore no reasonable relation to their international prices (Oshikoya, 1990). Despite the significant decline in the agricultural sector's output, the sector continues to play an important role and still remains the major employer of the labor force in the country.

The industrial sector consists of the petroleum, mining and manufacturing sectors. The industry's share increased from 6 percent in 1960 to 40.6 percent in 1980, with the oil and gas sector contributing 65 percent of the total shares, while the manufacturing and the mining sectors accounting for about 36 percent of the total industry in 1980. The oil share of the nominal GDP was 37 percent in 2012 and 32.43 percent in 2013. The petroleum industry has been the leading industry not only within the industrial sector but also among the economic sectors of the Nigerian economy. This sector accounted for over 95 percent of total export earnings and about 70 percent of government revenues. However, the oil and gas industry is capital intensive, and the linkage between the petroleum sector and the rest of the economy is very low, indicating a rentier economy whose rent comes exclusively from foreign exchange.

The services sector comprises transport, communication, tourism/hotel and restaurant, finance and insurance, real estate and business, government services and social services. The services sector has been one of the most important sectors driving the Nigerian economy. The growth of government services was enhanced by the increase in oil earnings and the creation of new states. The services sector's contribution to GDP averaged 10 percent from 1960 to 2012, until recently, when some activities were included which were previously unaccounted for, making it the highest contributor (41%) to the GDP. The services sector has become the second largest employer of the labor force in the economy after the agricultural sector. Wholesale and retail trade is the leading activity in the services group in terms of its contribution to the total increase in GDP, from 12.6 percent in 1960 to 19.4 percent in 1980. The trade share of GDP contribution declined to 13.4 percent in 1990 and to 11.5 percent in 2000 but increased to 17.15 percent in 2014. The following section will provide a discussion of the Nigerian poverty profile.

It can be seen from Table 1.1 that agriculture is the largest sector in terms of employment in Nigeria over the years. The agricultural sector's share of total employment is about two-thirds in 1990 and this had fallen to only 59 percent by 2015. The second largest employer of labor is wholesale and retail trade sector. The trade sector employed about one-fifth of total workers in 1990 and this had increased slightly, to about 21.3 percent by 2015. The services sector's share of total employment from 1990 to 2015 averaged about 10 percent whereas the share of services sector had increased slightly, to about 16 percent in 2015. The employment share of industrial sector increased from 9.4 percent in 1990 to 15.6 percent in 2014. Overall, we observe that employment in industry, wholesale and retail trade sector and services had increased, employment in agriculture slightly decreased over the period 1990-2014.

Table 1.1 Sectoral shares of employment (%)

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2014
Agriculture	66.5	62.0	58.4	60.8	60.2	59.0
Industry	1.9	3.1	1.1	4.1	4.5	5.4
Wholesale and Retail Trade	19.4	20.5	20.4	17.7	20.93	21.3
Services	9.4	10.4	10.5	10.6	11.4	15.6

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, from various reports.

1.2.3. The Nigerian Poverty Profile

The Nigerian poverty trend, as illustrated in Figure 1.5, indicates that the poverty headcount has increased steadily, from 27.2 per cent in 1980 to 42.7 percent in 1985. The changes in poverty rates have been attributed to many factors, including changes in government revenues due to changes in international oil prices. For instance, the poverty rate increased from 27.2 percent in 1980 to 46.3 percent in 1985. The economy experienced a drastic reduction in government revenue during this period, from USD 26 billion in 1980 to USD 6 billion in 1986, due to the crash in international oil prices. As a result, the economy experienced sluggish and negative growth. In addition, changes in policy adversely affected relative prices and thereby encouraged imports and stifled non-oil production in the country (Mohan, 1996). Another reason given for the worsening poverty was that the reflationary policies implemented seemed to give the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) a human face (Akanji, 2000).

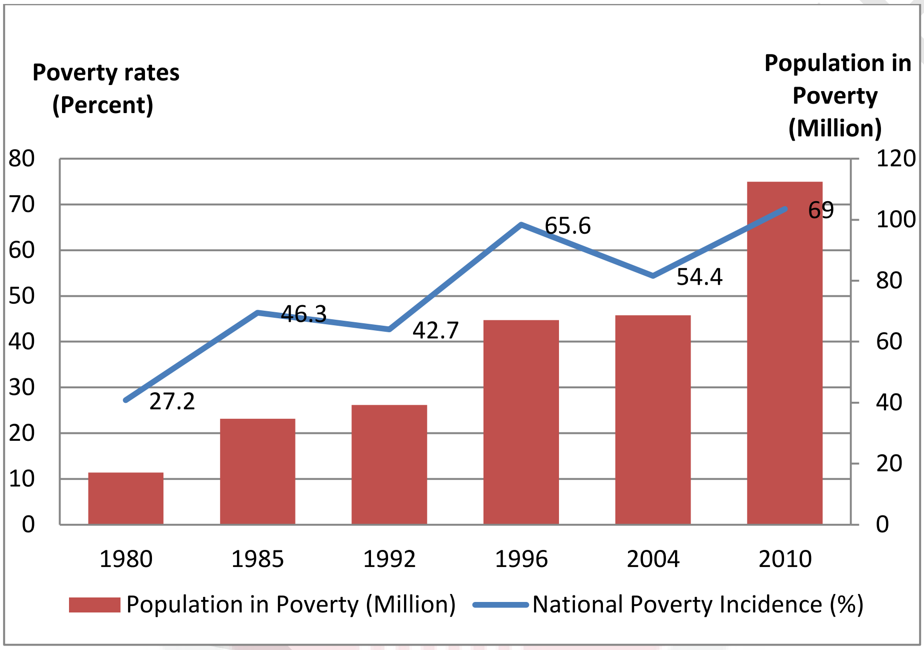

Figure 1.5. Poverty Headcount Trends in Nigeria
(Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2012)

The poverty incidence dropped slightly to 42.7 percent in 1992. This decline was attributed to the trade liberalization policy as part of the SAP, which was initiated in 1986. The policy removed the anti-export bias and thereby encouraged the use of local inputs in the agro-processing and textile manufacturing subsectors, and thus improved manufacturing growth (Onuoha, 2012).). There was also an increase in the cash and food crop production and in the average growth of 3.5 percent in the agricultural sector during this period (Akanji, 2000). In addition, the Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI), implemented in 1986, impacted positively on the lives of the rural poor (Ogwumike, 2002).

Similarly, the poverty rate has declined to 54.4 percent, from 65.6 in 1996. This might be partly due to the restructuring of the poverty alleviation agencies that was carried out to enhance the performance of these agencies and also to remove overlapping functions. The National Poverty Eradication Program (NAPEP) replaced the Poverty

Alleviation Program (PAP), and 470 billion Naira (N) were earmarked for legislative approval. Even before the budget was approved, N10 billion was approved outright to 'relieve poverty' via antipoverty programs and the amount was increased by 150 percent in the following year's budget (Ogwumike, 2002).

However, this progress was not sustained, as the level of poverty increased from 42.7 to in 1992 to 65.6 percent in 1996. It has been observed that the economy has experienced a decrease in real gross domestic product (GDP), and the per capita GDP also fell by 5 percent between 1992 and 1995. The reversal of the exchange rate, fiscal and monetary policies between 1992 and 1994 further worsened the economic situation. There was a sharp increase in the inflation rate (from 44.6 percent in 1992 to 72.8 percent in 1995), as stated in the World Development Indicators (WDI) 2014 report. This worsening economic situation might also explain the increase in the poverty level.

Similarly, the poverty rate increased dramatically, from 54.4 percent in 2004 to 69 percent in 2010, implying that about 113 million people were living in abject poverty. This increase was partly due to the global economic downturn and the fall in the oil price from USD147 per barrel in July 2008 to USD47 per barrel in January 2009. The Nigerian exchange rate depreciated from around N115 per USD in 2008 to around N145-170 in 2009. This caused revenue attribution and led to a contraction in the fiscal allocation, including public spending on social services.

In addition, depreciation in the value of the Naira induced domestic prices to rise rapidly. Food inflation reached 20.9 percent in July 2008 from 8.7 percent in February 2008, while headline inflation (a measure of the total inflation, including food and energy prices) and core inflation (inflation rate measured without food and energy prices, which varies daily with oil prices and is highly volatile) reached 14 percent in July 2008 and 10.4 percent in December 2008.

The effects of the economic crisis, which began to show at the end of the first quarter of 2008, started with the capital market, causing a severe crisis among Nigerian banks, as the market had been predominantly equities-driven, and also affected the real sector due to credits contraction (Soludo, 2009). As a result, real GDP growth fell sharply from 6.4 percent in 2007 to 5.3 percent in 2008 and remained stagnant in 2009. Private investment was severely affected by the economic meltdown as the percentage share of growth capital formation in GDP fell by 0.8 percentage points, from 9 percent in 2007 to 8.2 percent in 2008. This had significantly reversed the course of poverty reduction of the previous period in the country. The national poverty rate increased from 54.4 percent to 69 percent, while the urban and rural poverty headcounts increased from 43.2 percent and 63.3 percent in 2004 to 61.8 percent and 73.2 percent in 2010. The next section will look at the trends in rural and urban areas.

1.2.4 Poverty Trends in Rural and Urban Nigeria

The Nigerian poverty profile indicates that poverty is unevenly distributed across rural and urban locations, as shown in Table 1.2

Table 1.2 Rural urban poverty headcounts

	Urban			**Rural**			**Total**
Year	Poverty rates	Contribution to total poverty		Poverty rates	Contribution to total poverty		Poverty rates
			% change			%change	
1980	17.2	19.6		28.3	80.4		28.1
1985	37.8	25.6	30.6	51.4	74.4	-7.5	46.3
1992	37.5	32.1	25.4	46.0	67.9	-8.7	42.7
1996	58.2	35.5	10.6	69.3	64.5	-5.0	65.6
2004	43.2	35.9	1.1	63.3	64.1	-0.6	54.4
2010	61.8	44.8	24.8	73.2	55.2	-13.8	69.0

Note: the contribution to poverty figures are the author's calculations based on the National Bureau of Statistics, 2012.

The rural-urban poverty trends have been increasing steadily. The incidence of urban poverty increased from 17.2 percent in 1980 to 59.3 in 1996 and declined again in 2004 to 43.2. The rate increased dramatically to 61.8 percent in 2010. On the other hand, the rural poverty rate increased to 51.4 percent in 1985 from 28.3 percent in 1980 and declined slightly to 46 percent in 1992. The incidence increased considerably to 71.7 percent in 1992 before falling to 63.3 percent in 1996, and increased further to 73.2 percent in 2010. The decline in both rural and urban poverty rates between 1996 and 2004, as highlighted earlier, was due to increased government commitment towards poverty alleviation. The government had implemented several antipoverty programs during this period. This is discussed in detail in Section 1.2.6.

The Nigerian poverty trends suggest that the incidence of poverty is higher in rural areas. This implies that Nigerian poverty is essentially a rural phenomenon. An analysis of the rate of change in rural and urban poverty indicates that the growth of urban poverty has been rapid. The urban poverty rate increased sevenfold between 1980 and 1985, while rural poverty increased twofold during the same period. Similarly, the poverty profile indicates that for all the survey periods, the growth rates of the urban poverty headcounts were positive, while the corresponding values for rural growth rates were negative. This implies that there has been steady improvement in the rural areas, despite an increase in absolute terms, as shown in Table 1. This can be attributed to rural-urban migration. The following section will discuss poverty trends by gender.

1.2.5 The Nigerian Poverty Profile by Gender

The male-female poverty trends in Figure 6 indicate that the percentages of male-headed households in poverty have been relatively higher, except in 1980. In 1985, 47.4 percent of males and 39 percent of females lived in poverty. The poverty incidence for both males and females increased significantly, by 76 and 33 percent respectively, between 1980 and 1985. In 2004, the country experienced a decrease in the level of poverty; the incidence of male poverty headcounts was 56.5 percent, while for females it was 36.5 percent. This indicates that the poverty rate for both males and females has declined significantly. However, the rate of decline was relatively larger for women, as it has reduced by 39 percent compared to 10 percent for men.

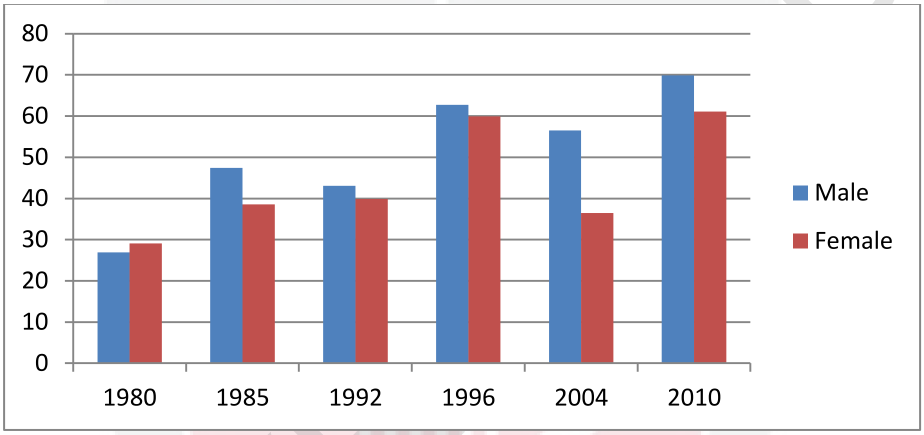

Figure 1.6. Poverty Profile by Gender
(Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2012)

This suggests that the noticeable decline in the overall poverty level in 2004 was influenced by the large fall in the female poverty rate. Similarly, in 2010, the poverty rates for both males and females had increased to 69.90 and 61.12 percent, respectively. The available information revealed that the high rate of poverty among men was partly due to the fact that most male-headed households are polygamous, particularly in poverty-ridden regions. This has also contributed to the large household size among male-maintained families.

Over the years, the government has invested significantly in education and adopted key policy initiatives, including the Blueprint on Women's Education (1986), the Family Support Basic Education Program (1994), Universal Basic Education (1999), the National Policy on Women (2001), the Education For All Fast Track Initiative (2002), the Strategy for Acceleration of Girls' Education in Nigeria (2003) and the Universal Basic Education Act (2004), among others, to boost female enrolment and to address gender disparity in education. Although remarkable progress has been achieved in school enrolment among girls, there are still more school-age girls who are not in school than boys. According to the statistics released by UNESCO, the gross percentage for female primary school enrollment in Nigeria in 2010 was 79.28, while the gross percentage for male enrollment was 87.10. In addition, the value for secondary school enrollment (% gross) was recorded at 41.21 for females and 46.78 for males in 2010. The record is particularly disturbing when it comes to representation of women in parliament and their labor force participation. Although the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) institute for statistics shows that the labor participation rates were 63.3 percent for men and 47.9 percent for women in 2011, just 4.47 of parliamentary seats are currently occupied by women. The number is relatively low when compared with other similar low human development nations, such as Bangladesh and Pakistan, with 19.7 and 21.1 percent respectively (UNESCO, 2010).

1.2.6 Public Expenditure Trends and Composition

This section describes the composition of public expenditure in Nigeria. Government expenditure has been classified into recurrent and capital expenditure. Recurrent expenditure is that part of government spending which does not result in the acquisition of fixed assets. This includes wages, salaries and interest payment on debt services, and expenses on depreciation (on fixed capital) and purchases of goods and services. Capital expenditure is government spending on fixed assets and it consists mainly of buildings and infrastructure: examples include building of roads, hospitals, schools, plant and machinery and so on. This is sometimes referred to as government investment because it will be used over many years.

As shown in Table 1.3, the total government expenditure (which is made up of recurrent and capital expenditure) increased from N11.4 billion in 1981 to N60 billion in 1990 and further to N701 billion in 2000.

Table 1.3 Nominal values of public expenditure in Nigeria (N' billions) 1990-2014

Year	Total Revenue (TR)	Recurrent Expenditure (RE)	% share of Recurrent Expenditure	Capital Expenditure (CE)	% share of Capital Expenditure	Total Expenditure (TE)
1981	13.29	4.8	42.5	6.5	57.5	11.4
1985	15.05	7.5	58.1	5.5	41.9	13.04
1990	98.1	36.2	60.1	24.1	39.9	60.26
2000	1906.1	461.6	65.8	239.4	34.2	701.06
2005	5547.5	1223.7	67.1	519.5	28.5	1822.1
2010	7303.7	3109.3	74.1	883.9	21.1	4194.58
2014	10068.85	3417.58	74.6	783.12	17.1	4578.06

Source: Central Bank of Nigeria

The total expenditure continued to increase significantly, from N4,194 billion in 2010 to N4,578 billion in 2014. However, the recurrent expenditure increased from N4.8 billion in 1981 to N461.6 billion in 2000 and increased further to N3325.1 billion in 2012. Similarly, the capital expenditure increased from N6.6 billion in 1981 to N239.4 billion 2000 and increased further to N874.8 million in 2012. As stated earlier, the development of the oil and gas sector has significantly improved government revenue as well as government expenditure in the country.

Furthermore, the percentage shares for recurrent and capital expenditure suggest that the expenditure share of the capital expenditure has been steadily declining, while recurrent expenditure has been increasing. For example, in 1981, the amount expended on capital investment was 57.5, percent while 42.5 percent was spent on recurrent expenditure. Capital expenditure reduced from 21.1 percent in 2010 to 17.1 percent in 2014 and recurrent expenditure increased from to 74.6 percent.

The significant decline in public capital expenditure in the country may have an adverse impact on the economy. For instance, the macroeconomic literature often associated a reduction in public investment part of the expenditure with lower per capita growth, suggesting an important role for public capital expenditure in economic growth and poverty reduction.

As shown in Figure 1.7, the composition of the expenditure trend shows that the percentage share of social services increased from 9.12 percent in 1990 to 11.72 percent in 2000 and increased further to 23.61 percent in 2014. This substantial increase in social expenditure was mainly due to the increasing need to provide social services and mitigate poverty. However, there have been concerns that the increase in social service expenditure has generally been unable to make a significant impact on poverty reduction in Nigeria.

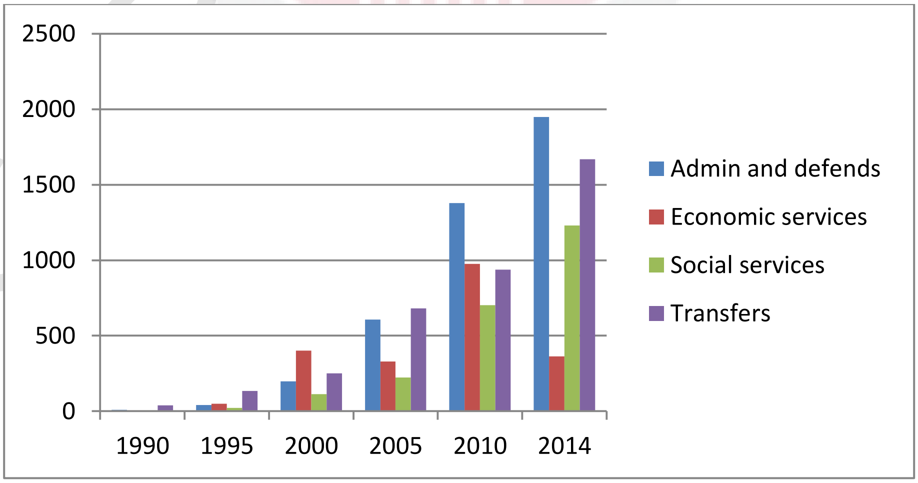

Figure 1.7. Composition of Public Expenditure
(Source: Central Bank of Nigeria, 2015)

Social services constitute an important part of a country's poverty reduction policy. The rising increase in social services such as education, health, transport, water and sanitation because it was believed that such spending would enhance standard of living thereby reduce the level of poverty. Moreover, the disaggregated data on social and economic services in Table 1.4 indicates that massive investments were made in education, health, infrastructure, transport and agriculture.

Table 1.4 Real values of public expenditure in Nigeria (N' billions) 1990-2014

	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2014
Total public expenditure						
Education	634.47	583.79	464.38	1401.2	1200.35	1250.22
Health	167.08	167.45	184.63	377.05	716.85	919.99
Infrastructure	496.26	272.67	277.19	452.15	578.52	2492.22
Transport	273.65	282.39	171.11	210.66	277.63	1752.34
Agriculture	759.77	500.40	252.74	219.75	592.14	907.98
Recurrent Expenditure						
Education	499.62	499.38	343.71	917.16	925.94	982.71
Health	125.14	102.06	121.69	240.82	500.32	635.69
Infrastructure	144.17	87.04	68.05	78.98	264.35	855.16
Transport	93.88	59.13	32.46	48.02	77.80	1106.98
Agriculture	24.40	52.95	81.57	100.26	183.11	200.33
Capital Expenditure						
Education	134.85	84.40	120.66	484.08	274.40	267.50
Health	41.94	65.39	62.94	136.23	216.52	284.30
Infrastructure	352.08	185.62	209.14	373.17	314.17	1637.03
Transport	179.77	223.25	138.64	162.64	199.82	645.36
Agriculture	735.37	447.45	171.16	119.48	409.02	707.65

Source: Central Bank of Nigeria

Furthermore, the data show that since the inception of the National Poverty Alleviation Program (PAP) in 2001, the anti-poverty agency has received a total of N34 billion, including N11.8 billion from budgetary allocation. In addition, it received N4 billion for the procurement of motor tricycles, popularly known as 'Keke NAPEP', for small-scale transportation businesses, particularly for young people, N10 billion from multi-partnership programs from the State Governments and private organizations and N8.2 billion from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

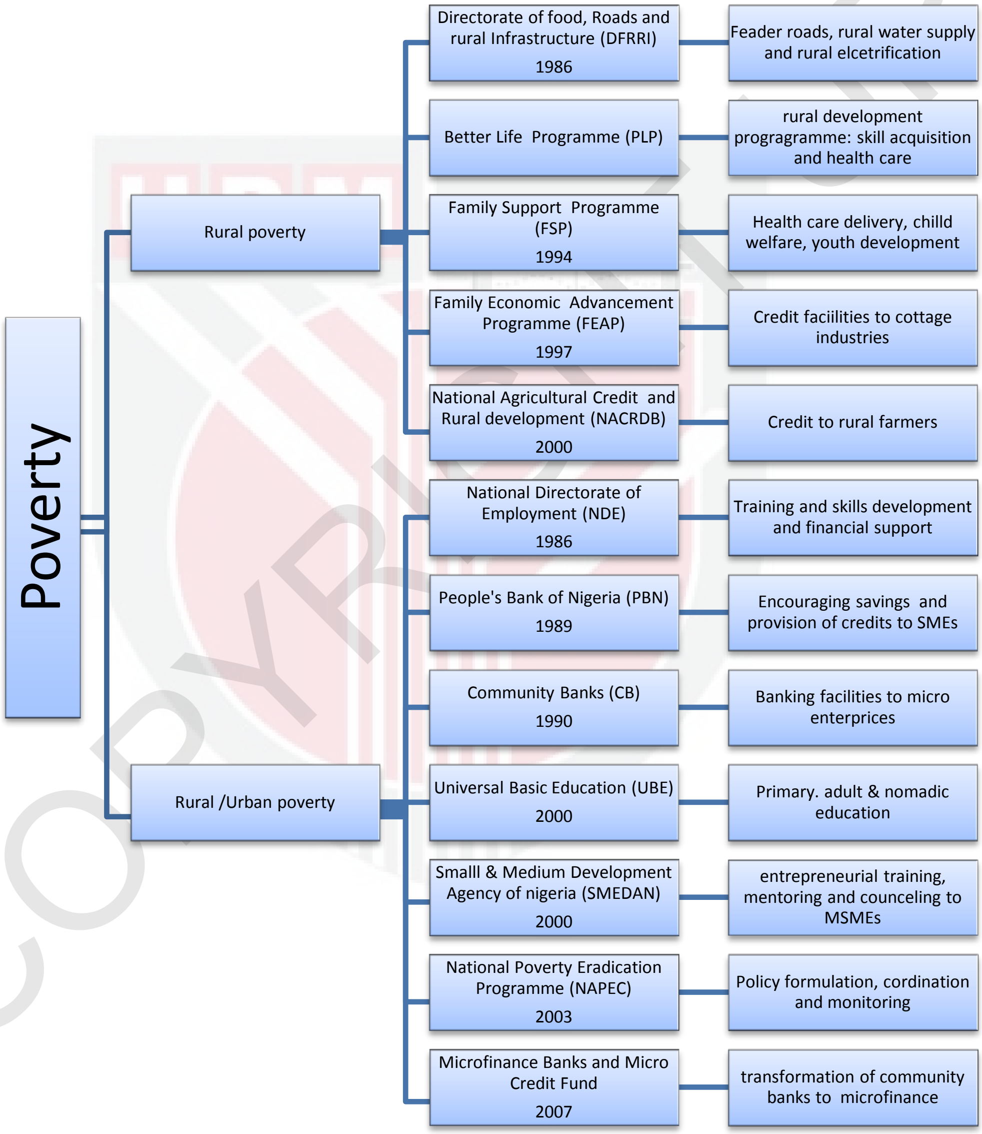

Figure1.8. Nigeria Poverty Alleviation Programs
(Source: Ogwumike, 2002).

Similarly, many anti-poverty programs were implemented between 1990 and 2010. These programs include the Agricultural Development Programs (ADP), the National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA), the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme (ACGS), the Nigeria Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank Limited (NACRDB) and the Strategic Grains Reserves Programs (SGRP). These programs and their target groups are shown in Figure 8. All these programs aimed at improving skills and capabilities to generate jobs and employment opportunities.

Having discussed the structure of economic growth, the rural and urban poverty profile and the composition of the public expenditure in the country, the discussion will now focus on the structural change process which might influence rural, urban and gendered poverty.

1.2.7 Structural Change and Rural, Urban and Gendered Poverty

One important factor for understanding the evolution of poverty in Nigeria is the structural changes that have occurred over the last three decades. The shift in the sources of national income (from agriculture to oil and gas) and the structural adjustment programs (SAP) are bound to have a profound impact on the economy. The literature acknowledges the importance of shifting an economy that was based on a primary traditional rural agricultural sector to a more modern industrial sector in alleviating poverty rate due to its marginal productivity and intensive use of labor. However, the growth of the industrial sector, which is mainly driven by the oil and gas sector, with low labor intensive production, may have an adverse impact on the economy. It affects employment structure, which may then have an effect on the rate of poverty. For instance, Loayza and Raddatz (2010) argued that any policy distortions that discourage labor employment or encourage capital-bias investment may hamper the poverty reduction impact of economic growth.

It is evident that the Nigerian economy has undergone substantial changes over the years. Prior to the emergence of the oil industry in the early 1970s, the agriculture sector contributed about 63.5 percent to total GDP and 75 percent of the foreign exchange earnings. However, its contribution dropped significantly to 20.2 percent in the 1980s when the oil industry took off and became the main driver of the economy. With this sharp decline in the growth of the agricultural sector, one would expect a significant increase in the poverty level and changes in rural and urban poverty headcounts. It was expected that there would be a rise in the rural poverty headcount and a decrease in the urban poverty rate, but this has not been the case. In fact, the urban poverty rate increased by 120 percent between 1980 and 1985 (from 17.2 percent in 1980 to 37.8 percent in 1985), while the corresponding rate was 82 percent in rural areas (from 28.3 percent to 51.4 percent). Similarly, the percentage increase in poverty rate between 2004 and 2010 was 43 percent in urban areas and 16 percent in rural areas. This indicates that changes in the structure of the economy have had an impact on rural and urban poverty.

Rural poverty is expected to rise due to the decline in agricultural growth as the majority of the poor in rural areas depend on farming for their livelihood. Similarly, the exchange rate reform as part of the trade policy measures introduced in 1986 to improve agricultural output prices and output affected the economy in the short run due to a fall in international commodity prices, which adversely affected the domestic prices and thus lowered relative incomes (Ucha, 2010). The rise in domestic prices encouraged food imports, which led to a decline in large-scale farming, and as a result, the agricultural sector is dominated by traditional smallholder farmers, who account for about 75 percent of the country's total agricultural output.

The decline in commercial agriculture has caused a change in relative prices in favor of non-tradable goods and penalized the agricultural tradable sector. Similarly, the rise in prices and fall in incomes brought about by stabilization policies affected the labor force participation of women in the country (Osuntogun, Edordu and Oramah, 1997). The lag in real earnings from agriculture which increased unemployment among male households has weakened the 'male breadwinner' norm and induced women's participation in the labor market, thus reducing the gender wage gap in the agricultural sector. Amakom and Ogujiuba (2010) argue that among rural workers, females have been found to participate actively in all subsectors of agriculture, particularly in subsistence food production, where they contribute an estimated 60 to 80 percent of the total labor used.

1.3 Problem Statements

One of the issues addressed in this study relates to the heterogeneous effect of the sectoral economic growth components on poverty reduction. It is generally agreed that economic growth is important for poverty reduction; however, the composition of economic growth matters for rapid poverty reduction. Theorists of economic growth have argued that underdeveloped economies tend to benefit more in terms of labor productivity and income growth by diversifying their economies from the subsistence agricultural sector to more modern industrial and services-oriented sectors. That is, the profit maximization motive of the modern sector would induce more growth, through higher rates of accumulation of capital and savings, which will lead to a large-scale labor migration from the traditional subsistence agricultural sector to a more modern industrial sector. As the marginal product of labor is higher in the industrial sector, this will continue until there is no excess labor in the subsistence agricultural sector. This process is assumed to increase income distribution and thus reduce poverty. However, as discussed earlier, the Nigerian economy has experienced a robust increase in economic growth over the years, with the real GDP growth averaging 6.08 percent between 2005 and 2014. This fast growth was associated with an increase in the industry growth, despite the poverty rates have continued to increase from 28.1% in 1980 to 46.3% in 1985; from 46.3% in 1985 to 54.4% in 2004; from 54.4% in 2004 to 69% in 2010; and from 69% in 2010.

On the other hand, the opposing view argued that the agricultural sector, being the main driver of the developing economies and the chief employer of the labor force, is expected to reduce poverty, as investments in this sector would enhance overall economic growth. Although the oil and gas industry is the foundation of the economy, accounting for about 40 percent of the GDP, 95 percent of the export earnings and 85 percent of the government revenue, the agriculture sector has still contributed about 35 percent of the gross domestic product since 1986. However, in spite of the impressive growth in the industrial and agriculture sectors, the poverty rates in the country have continued to increase in both rural and urban areas. The urban poverty headcount increased by more than 43 percent between 2004 and 2010, while the rural poverty rate increased by 15 percent. This suggests that the unprecedented rural-urban migration might have implications for urban poverty. The deterioration in urban well-being has an adverse impact on poverty reduction in both rural and urban locations in the face of growing urbanization. In response to this problem, the first objective of this study proposes to investigate the relationship between sectoral growth components and poverty reduction across rural and urban locations, as knowledge of overall growth might not be enough to explain the situation.

The second issue pertains to the feminization of poverty. There is a valid generalization that female-headed households are more likely to be poor due to gender inequalities in the labor market, political discrimination, time constraints, unpaid work, ageing and lack of access to and control over resources (see Barros, Fox and Mendonca, 1997; Buvinic and Gupta 1997; Bastos, Casaca, Nunes, and Pereirinha, 2009). This has led to calls for governments to pay particular attention to policies that reduce gender inequality and empower women in their attempt to pursue poverty reduction objectives. In this regard, the Nigerian government has established several policies, such as the Blueprint on Women's Education (1986), the Family Support Basic Education Program (1994), Universal Basic Education (1999), the National Policy on Women (2001), the Education for All Fast Track Initiative (2002), the Strategy for Acceleration of Girls' Education in Nigeria (2003), and the Universal Basic Education Act (2004) to overcome this issue. Although some progress has been recorded in terms of women's enrollment in education, attainment and labor market participation, they are still below the required targets.

However, in spite of this wide gender inequality, the incidence of poverty is relatively higher among male-headed households. This contradicts the idea of 'feminized poverty', which calls for the targeting of female-headed households in reducing poverty. Therefore, the feminization of anti-poverty policies in this case remains contentious, and this exceptional experience of having higher numbers of men than women living in poverty in Nigeria should be a serious concern due to two reasons: First, the number of male heads of households is larger than female-maintained families, and sizable number of them are polygamous and hence have larger household sizes and dependency ratios. Therefore, this suggests that the poor male heads of the households will find it difficult to provide good education and training for the children and as a result remain stuck in poverty. This poses serious threat to peace and security of the country. Secondly, the high incidence of poverty among male headed household has an adverse effect on female in the face of increasing women population. Hence, there is a need to understand how the gender and socioeconomic characteristics of household heads contribute to their poverty status, using measures that could be more reflective of gendered poverty.

The third issue pertains to the role of public expenditure composition in poverty reduction, which follows on from the first issue that economic growth is desirable for poverty alleviation, but it does not always translate into poverty reduction. Hence, it has been argued that for developing countries to achieve a rapid poverty reduction objective, it is important to improve on pro-poor expenditures (World Bank, 1990). The United Nations and donor agencies have repeatedly emphasized the importance of increased expenditure on pro-poor sectors and called on governments to identify and expand expenditure for accelerated growth and poverty reduction. In this regard, it is evident that the Nigerian government's expenditure on social services has continued to rise due to the increasing need to provide social services such as education, health, transport and communication. For instance, the government's recurrent expenditure increased from N4.8 billion in 1981 to N461.6 billion in 2000 and increased further to N3325.1 million in 2012, while the capital expenditure increased from N6.6 billion in 1981 to N239.4 billion in 2000 and increased further to N874.8 billion in 2012. Similarly, the composition of the expenditure has shown that there has been a steady increase in the public social services, from 8.4 percent in 1990 to 17.5 percent in 2012.

However, despite the massive government investment in social services, the incidence of poverty has continued to increase. This poses challenges for the country in its aim to reduce poverty. The review of the literature suggests that despite the inter-linkages between government expenditure and poverty, most studies have employed reduced-form equations to analyze the impact of increased education or health public spending on poverty, and as a result, the main ways through which public expenditure affects poverty (that is, public expenditure-growth; public expenditure-employment and public expenditure-wages) are not adequately addressed empirically. Thus, there is a need to trace the links to identify and track the most effective pro-poor sectors for channeling scarce resources.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to investigate how the composition of economic growth, gender and household characteristics and public expenditure composition affects poverty. Specific objectives of this study are as follows:

i. To examine the effects of sectoral components of economic growth on poverty reduction across rural and urban locations.
ii. To investigate the impacts of household heads' gender and socioeconomic characteristics on household poverty in rural and urban areas.
iii. To examine the links between public expenditure composition and poverty – specifically, the roles of economic growth, employment, and wages.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study makes the following contributions to the body of literature: the first objective of this study is that it provides an analysis of the heterogeneous effects of various economic growth components on rural, urban and overall poverty in Nigeria. The disaggregated analyses of sectoral growth on poverty are important, as the poor are unevenly distributed across locations and sectors of occupation. Researchers and policy makers have had strong interest in how the main growth components affect rural and urban poverty. However, in general, this information on Nigeria and Africa is limited (e.g. Martins, 2013). There has been no empirical investigation that allows broadening of understanding of the heterogeneous effects of sectoral growth on poverty reduction in rural and urban areas. Although the role of the agricultural sector in poverty reduction has received considerable research attention (see, for example, Diao, Hazell and Thurlow, 2010; Christiaensen, Demery, and Kühl, 2011), studies on other economic growth components are quite scarce. This study will guide policy makers in promoting the most effective sectors for poverty reduction rather than merely fostering growth *per se*.

The study also improves on previous studies because it recognizes the indirect roles of income inequality and population shift. This is important because it has been argued that the poverty reduction impact of economic growth may be hampered by unfair distribution of income. In addition, Nigeria is known to be plagued by a substantial record of rural-urban migration. Thus, undertaking any research on Nigeria without information on the indirect impact of population shift on poverty could affect the usefulness of such analysis. A number of studies have considered the potential impact of population growth while investigating the impact of economic growth on poverty reduction, while very little attention has been devoted to the impact on change in poverty due to changes in both population shares and poverty level across sectors.

The second objective of this study is to contribute to the existing literature by providing a comprehensive account of the influence of gender and socioeconomic characteristics of household heads on poverty and vulnerability across locations. This study improves on previous studies by using standard of living, wealth, and housing condition dimensions of poverty. More generally, the use of income or expenditure flows as a proxy for welfare is highly contested in the social sciences (Barrett, 2005). Using different dimensions of poverty in analyzing gendered poverty is important, because it can capture not only income poverty but also other dimensions of wellbeing. Another contribution to the existing literature is that previous studies have not considered differences in poverty across rural and urban areas. Hence, this study has also been disaggregated into urban and rural areas, as poverty is unevenly distributed across locations.

The third objective of this study is to contribute to the body of literature by providing an in-depth analysis of the links or mechanisms through which different types of public expenditure affects poverty – specifically, the roles of economic growth, employment, and wages. The previous empirical studies in Nigeria do not incorporated in to their models the noted key factors that are vey significant in reducing poverty. Therefore, the inclusion of the key important variables in this study and the decomposition of government spending according to the various categories will provide the mechanisms through which public expenditure components effects poverty. Furthermore, this work is different from already existing literature in Nigeria because the study attempted to investigate the impacts of investment part of public expenditure. This disaggregated study will better guide policy-makers in identifying and tracking the most effective public expenditure type and for efficient channeling scarce resources.

1.6 Organization of the study

The rest of the thesis is structured as follows: Chapter 2 is the literature review, which provides a review of theoretical and related empirical studies and consists of four main sections. The first section provides a discussion of the theories and empirical evidence regarding sectoral growth and poverty. The literature reviewed in this section suggests that the effects of structural change on poverty reduction vary across regions. The agricultural sector seems to have been more effective in Latin America, South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, while poverty reduction in East Asia is essentially driven by industrial sector growth. This implies that rapid economic growth is important for poverty reduction, but it depends largely on the composition of sectoral growth. The second section provides a review of the relationship between gender and poverty. The theoretical literature reviewed shows that female-headed households are more likely to be poorer than their male counterparts due to gender bias against females. The third section reviews the theoretical and empirical literature on the links between public expenditure and growth and poverty issues, focusing on the aggregate demand model. The literature reviewed in this section shows that although public expenditure reduces poverty directly, its indirect effects might be larger. The last section summarizes the main ideas in the literature.

Chapter 3 discusses the various methodologies used for the analyses. Based on the review, the econometric models are specified to test the hypotheses, and these include the sources and descriptions of data. The growth-poverty model consists of rural and urban equations, and the right-hand side variables for both equations are the sectoral economic growth components. The initial conditions are explicitly incorporated into the model. The gender-poverty model consists of national, rural and urban equations, and probit and logit regression are used to estimate the models. In the case of the public expenditure model, two equations are developed: the total public consumption expenditure equation and public investment expenditures. This model also incorporates the influences of public spending on poverty through economic growth, employment and wages. The models are estimated using seemingly unrelated regression estimation. In addition, the direct and indirect effects of the various public expenditure categories are determined. In total, the model consists of nineteen equations: six growth-poverty equations, nine gender-poverty equations and eight public spending-poverty equations. The poverty-growth equations are estimated using panel data analysis; the gender-poverty equations are estimated using both logit and probit regressions; and the public spending-poverty equations are estimated using seemingly unrelated regression.

The estimated results and analyses of the equations are presented in Chapter 4. The first objective is to investigate the relationship between economic growth components and poverty with the main hypothesis that the composition of economic growth does not matter for poverty changes; that is, the effects of sectoral growth components are the same. In order to attain this objective, the study divides growth into four main sectors: agricultural, industry, services and wholesale/retail trade services. The study includes initial income, inequality and changes in population to control for the potential effects of initial economic conditions and population shift in the model. To analyze the gender-poverty objective, the study employs logit and probit regression from panel general household survey data for 2010/2011. The constructed wealth, standard of living and housing conditions are the indices for measuring poverty. As the third objective, the study examines the relationship between public expenditure and poverty via economic growth, employment and wages using Seemingly Unrelated Regression. Chapter 5 provides the conclusion and policy implications of the study.

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