

**VULNERABILITY TO POVERTY AND LIVELIHOOD SECURITY AMONG RURAL
HOUSEHOLDS IN SOUTHWESTERN NIGERIA**

BY

AYINDE, Yewande Omolara

MATRIC NO. 174461

B.Ed Agric Science (Ondo), M.Sc. Agricultural Extension and Rural Development (Ibadan)

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ABSTRACT

Global economic meltdown exacerbates rural household vulnerability to poverty with attendant impact on rural livelihood security. Rural households have engaged in diverse livelihood activities to secure their livelihood, which comprised of economic and non-economic indicators. However, previous studies had independently focused on vulnerability to poverty, livelihood diversification, and livelihood security. Therefore, vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security among rural households in southwestern Nigeria were investigated.

A four-stage sampling procedure was used. Osun, Ogun and Ekiti States were purposively selected due to prevalence of poverty incidence. Thereafter, two rural Local Government Areas (LGAs) were randomly selected from the selected states and three communities from each of the selected LGAs were randomly sampled to give a total of 18 communities. Using sampling proportionate to size, 342 Households were sampled. Interview schedule was used to collect data on head of households (HH) personal characteristics, social group participation, coping strategies, vulnerability to poverty (material, economic and social deprivations) and livelihood security (economic, food, health, housing and education securities). Indices of social group participation (low, 0.00-2.48; high, 2.49-16.24), coping strategies (low, 0.00-7.45; high, 7.46-24.00), material (low, 9.00-25.49; high, 25.50-36.00), economic (low, 0.00-11.53; high, 11.54-18.00) and social deprivations (low, 0.00-33.73; high, 33.74-66.00) and overall vulnerability to poverty (vulnerable, 0.00-0.52; not vulnerable, 0.53-1.00) were generated. Also, indices of economic (insecure, 0.04-1.00; secure, 1.01-11.43), food (insecure 9.00-18.68; secure, 18.69-27.00), health (insecure, 1.18-5.97; secure, 5.98-18.08), housing (insecure, 0.00-2.49; secure, 2.50-7.22) and education (insecure, 0.00-7.42; secure, 7.43-14.53) securities as well as overall livelihood security (insecure, 4.39-16.40; secure, 16.41-31.0) were generated. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics, Chi-square, Pearson product moment correlation, ANOVA and regression analysis at $\alpha_{0.05}$.

Respondents were aged 48.8 ± 15.9 years and were mostly male (64.3%). Most respondents were married (80.1%) with household size of 6.8 ± 3.4 persons, while 37.1% had primary education. Social group participation was low for 50.9% of the households. Coping strategies was high for 53.2% of the households. Households had high levels of material (46.2%), economic (62.3%) and social (49.1%) deprivation components of vulnerability to poverty, while 49.4% were vulnerable to poverty. More than half of the households (51.5%) were livelihood insecure with 64.0, 62.9, 55.6, 64.3 and 51.2% being economic, food, health, housing and education insecure, respectively. There was significant relationship between HH educational qualification ($\chi^2 = 4.008$) and livelihood security. Also, there were significant correlations between coping strategies ($r = -0.150$), vulnerability to poverty ($r = -0.112$) and livelihood security. Vulnerability to poverty was significantly higher in Ogun (0.56 ± 0.19) than Ekiti (0.51 ± 0.15) and Osun (0.51 ± 0.18) States. However, livelihood security was significantly higher in Ekiti (20.9 ± 5.10) than Ogun (19.6 ± 5.32) and Osun (16.8 ± 4.45) States. Economic deprivation ($\beta = -0.135$) was significantly related to livelihood insecurity in southwestern Nigeria.

Economic component of vulnerability to poverty engendered livelihood insecurity in southwestern Nigeria. It is therefore, recommended that capacity building on livelihood activities should be intensified among rural households in order to improve livelihood security.

Keywords: Economic deprivation, Vulnerability to poverty, Health security, Rural households

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“And once the struggle is over, you won’t remember how you made it through, or how you managed to survive. You won’t even be sure whether the struggle is really over. But, the certainty is when you come out of the struggle, you won’t be the same person who walked in. That’s the uniqueness all about.”Haruki Murakami

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I love you all
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DEDICATION

To God Almighty, the sole administrator of the Universe,
the beginner and the end who sustained me throughout the course of the programme

And

To my parent Chief S.A Ayinde and Mrs F.A Ayinde

Who nurtured and built in me not only a foundation, but a complete task of academic attainment.

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out under my supervision, by AYINDE, Yewande Omolara of the Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria

Date

Supervisor,

Prof. O. B. Oyesola

B.Sc, M.Sc, Ph.D (Ibadan)

Department of Agricultural Extension and
Rural Development, Faculty of Agriculture
University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
CARE	International Relief and Development Organizations
CSDH	Commission on Social Determinant for Health
CHS	Commission on Human Security
DFID	Department for International Development
ECHP	European Community Household Panel
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HAI	Healthcare-Associated Infections
HFIAS	Household Food Insecurity Access Scale
HLS	Household Livelihood Security
HVI	Household Vulnerability Index
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SSNs	Social Safety Nets
SSNPs	Social Safety Net Programmes
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WFP	World Food Programme

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0

1.1 Background of the study

Household livelihood security (HLS) has been described as adequate and sustainable access to income and resources in meeting household basic needs. These can also be referred to as productive resources to meet household livelihood requirements which includes; economic, food, health facilities, housing, educational prospect as well as participation in community services and incorporating societal values sufficiently (Frankenberger, Drinkwater and Maxwell, 2000). Food security is a vital component of human development and also one of the subset objectives of livelihood resources. This is because generally need food for survival or sustenance. Besides, rural household are primarily the food producer of the nation, since they mainly engaged in farming activities, but they have been constrained by fluctuation in food supply in meeting the population demands due to production relative problems such as climate changes, seasonality and inadequacy of fund etc. This led to a distinction among the rural households, by enabling them to pursue other livelihood activity alternatives in order to generate more income. Thus, creating more options either to buy food from market to complement failure in household food demand or to expand their scale of production in an attempt to meet the food requirement supply for the purpose of gaining access to means of livelihood productive resources in terms of income, food, health, housing and education.

Sometimes, members of household choose to deprive themselves at present times due to the fact that they want to acquire productive resources for not only immediate times, but to meet future livelihood as a factor of reduced vulnerability to poverty. Although, being trapped in low-wage income generating activities, low-skilled work, inadequate food and shelter, deprivations of basic education and health care services could necessitate livelihood insecurity. That is, the rural households that are vulnerable to economic dislocation are likely prone to ill health and failure occurrences of other livelihood productive resource. This could also limit their participation in social group within the communities which is liable to less development of the communities, since social group participation is a function of a secure social capital of livelihood.

In rural development studies, household livelihood security cannot be addressed or discussed in isolation without emphasis on livelihood, since the co-existence of the two concepts are relative

to rural poverty (Ellis, 2000). Meanwhile, the concept of livelihood as defined by Ellis (2000), is that livelihood is made up of the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities necessary for a means of gaining a living. In other words, livelihood is a process of accessing various livelihood assets or capitals, such as financial, natural, human, social and physical assets through their potential capabilities (skills, training and education) to effectively strategize through various livelihood activities (e.g farm, off-farm and non-farm both micro and small enterprise) for the purpose of ascertaining/ earning a living. Yet, households who pursue their living through this dimension have mindset or fulfilling a purpose of achieving certain livelihood outcomes (e.g. income generation to ascertain resources to secure livelihood and reduced vulnerability to poverty etc.) (Chamber and Conway, 1992). Also, livelihood can also serve as way of procuring strategies for providing food and cash which constituted a range of activities either through on-farm or off-farm livelihood activities. Thus, individual household are entitled of having several possible sources of livelihood through various strategies. Entitlements can be in terms of rights, privileges that an individual or household has in acquiring assets or possessions in a legal, supporting, and social fabric of live (Purosottam, 2000). Whereas, entitlements of the household's may be sustained through investing or savings of such household, particularly not only economic resources to acquire physical assets, but with inclusion of other resources in terms of food, education, health and housing. Conversely, such household may eventually worse off due to deficiency of those resources.

One of the largest International Relief and Development Organizations, CARE, in 2004 reported HLS in the livelihood context, that is, households mobilise and acquire assets of different types in terms of human, economic, physical, etc. which are highly ranging from biological reproduction, participation in markets, inheritance practices through adopted methods in pursuing them from both public and private institutions. This is further explained especially in the local context that participation in marketing activities refers to engaging in any income-producing based activities which may translates to earnings either through wages or salaries (in-cash). These income-producing activities also include self-engagement without salaries from either private or public body, family work with no pay and economic activities that are strictly home-based (in-kind) which could influence access to productive resources or the entire livelihood security. Biological reproduction can be acquired when being able to raise children in a unit household, for them to build up and keep hold of the skills acquired through training and

other prospects from their immediate family. This tends to be a value addition to the entire household since livelihood is worth more than just making income. Also, community based programmes can be through private and public institutions, since their aim is to bring policies that are of great importance to such targeted communities for them to derive a better sustainable livelihood. It is in this vein that, there is need to assess individual households as regards to income generating activities they involved and much more they are able to pursue less deprivations on economic, social and material positions and at the same acquire other productive reoureces in terms of food, health, education and housing from their income earnings.

Households exist within physical and institutional environments, which can vary overtime. This is because each unit constitutes social being and they are subject to change. For this reason, assets accessibility of individual household unit ranges across and possessions are differently pursued. For instance, occurrence of sudden shock in a particular household makes the immediate household unit vulnerable to unexpected risk which can hinder their desired livelihood security outcome. Rural households also make decisions about the allocation of assets between consumption, production (in terms of crop choice, labour and technology adopted) income generation and as well as exchange activities in order not to shortchange their earnings, which could influence the security level of livelihood resources. But, in the case of rural households in southwestern Nigeria, labour utilisation falls more directly on family for them not to overburden their income. That is, the division of household labour between production and income generation falls more on their children since parents still attend to some responsibilities on them, which they have to pay back by helping their parents in order to cater for their immediate family needs. (Ayinde and Oyesola, 2015). With a reversed relationship, most of rural youth relocate to cities in search for money (out-migration) because they tend not to add burdens on their parents so as to manage the income resources generated by those parents to finance the small household unit.

Though, lives and livelihoods of households and the strategies they deploy in the face of risks and shocks make people vulnerable to poverty. Department for International Development, DFID (2000) explained poverty to be not just a question of low income, but also include other dimensions such as bad health, poor educational access, lack of social services, etc., as well as a state of vulnerability (deprivations) and feelings of powerlessness in general. Also, the nexus of

poverty, vulnerability and livelihood insecurity could be traced to lack of command over essential commodities for human development or deprivation on wellbeing which subject the household to risk of becoming poor (if not currently poor). This might necessitate predisposed factor of rural household to hazard of vulnerability to poverty and consistently fall back on livelihood insecurity of the entire household. However, the amount of capability the household has will definitely assess the degree of impact of any stress it experiences (Moser, 1998 and Bebbington, 1999). Thus, it may be safe to say that livelihood insecurity may occur when there is an interaction between an already vulnerable household and an adverse situation/or deprivation of social, economic and material. Whereas, the extent of damage that the deprivations will have on the household will be dependent on both the severity of the adverse situation and the level of household productive resources in terms of economic resources that is available to mobilise food they eat, house they live, education they attain and health they secure at the time, hence, this can serve as response they employ in accessing reduced vulnerabilities towards achieving a secured livelihood.

Going by the opinion of Bidani and Richter (2001) definition of vulnerability that, it changes overtime, thereby consistent with the trends of poverty making people to be livelihood insecure. As an illustration, vulnerability may be seen as likelihood that a household will be poor in the nearest future if not presently poor especially when the vulnerability of a group of population is to be assessed differently (Chaudhuri, 2003) and when nothing is done to access less deprivation they are liable to be livelihood insecure. Also, in both policy and academic discourse, the response to risk, shock and vulnerability uncertainty has been largely ignored as one of the aspects of sustainable livelihood (Prowse, 2003). However, the vulnerability risk management and coping strategies peculiarity is based on the decision-making strategy to respond to shock, threat and stress associated with the risk of deprivations that could necessitate insecure productive resources. Thus, coping mechanism could be a justification for the households that are either poor or deprived to access a secure livelihood. This deepens the understanding of this study with a way of analysing vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security among rural households in southwestern, Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the research problem

In developing nations like Nigeria, one of the most serious global problems of sustainable development is the effect of vulnerability to poverty on livelihood security. This is so alarming among the policy makers, scholars, state and non-state actors, including NGOs, social groups and the poor (Duze, Mohammed and Kiyawa, 2008). However, their source of concern is on the attempt to tackle the issues and also curb its effects on the security state of rural livelihood, since problems relative to livelihood insecurity cannot be understated among the populace. Over the years, studies carried out in different parts of sub-saharan Africa, Nigeria inclusive, have shown that there is an agreement among the science community that, vulnerability to poverty and livelihood insecurity is widespread in most rural areas. This has posed a serious threat on the rural populace which adversely affects the sustainability of rural development in developing nations.

Several factors such as the global economic meltdown/ crisis, inaccessibility of natural resources, environmental degradation, climate changes, HIV/AIDS, rapid population growth, trade liberalization effects and globalization negative effects etc. (Ellis, 2006; Baro and Deubel, 2006) have been adduced to exacerbate household vulnerability to poverty and livelihood insecurity. Yet, Nigeria was rated as the third poorest country in the world with most Nigerians living below poverty line (World Bank, 2014) which are most domiciled in the rural areas. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS, 2012), about 60.9% of Nigerians in 2010 were living in 'absolute poverty', while the incidence of poverty in the rural areas is highest among rural households in which the head is engaged in agriculture as the main source of income due to agrarian nature of rural economy.

Studies have shown that variations in seasonal changes at similar year cycles could pose some serious problems in improving rural livelihood activities in their ecological zones (Mearns, 1996) as this could not be under human control. This negatively influences the production of food crop at both planting and harvesting stage. Also, Alayande and Alayande (2004) opined that households face different kinds and magnitude of risk that may lead to a wide variation in their income from year to year, including loss of productive assets that could increase vulnerability to poverty translating to livelihood insecurity. For instance, when there are no enough resources to respond to risk and shock related to rural household livelihood activities, they tends to be more vulnerable to poverty and when nothing is done, they remain in such state, which could translate

to insecure livelihood. This happens to be a great challenge to face predisposed factors to poverty in terms material condition, social and economic position deprivations that could necessitate insecurity problem of livelihood, not only food shortage, but other resources to pursue a secure livelihood.

Meanwhile, household who lack access and right over productive resources are prone to economic instability, losses or failure in accessing quality and quantity of nutritious food intake leading to health defects while the ill school-aged children might temporarily or permanently stopped from schooling, leading to illiteracy level (educational insecurity) of such household. This was corroborated by Sanzidur and Shaheen (2010), who asserted that literacy rate is lower in rural areas. Thus, it's a reflection that the resources in the study area are being congested, since rural population is on the verge of uncontrollable child birth which does not commensurate with the available social services to access productive resources.

According to CARE and World Food Programme (2002), female-headed families, the homeless, street children, pensioners and elderly are the most vulnerable groups to food insecurity in both rural and urban areas. This assertion could be invariably due to the marginalization of these groups of people. Also, the growing population not corresponding with household farmer efforts of commercialization of food supply in meeting the food demand of the increasing populace, which could subject them to a state of insecurity. Meanwhile, it is quite imperative to analyse the risk enclosed with vulnerability to poverty among the rural households having focused on the understanding of relative social realities and decision patterns (Blaikie *et al.*, 1994; Ellis, 2000) in order to mediate or mitigate the risk of becoming poor in a way to address poverty and as well as improving the security state of their livelihood.

Hence, it would rather helpful to have a good understanding of the different nature and sources of risk faced by households, provided that it is generally accepted that households respond differently to shocks, pressures, threats and risks (Dercon, 2002), whereas, the households uncertainty of future occurrences, is by far heightened by the degree and kind of response given by the household. According to Chaudhuri (2003), the potential ambiguity of uncertainty of future that households face stems from the numerous sources of risk that could pose a threat to the security of their livelihoods. These include; issues of harvests failure and inflation of food prices leading to food insecurity, unsustainable diverse livelihood portfolios and household head

illness could fall back on their income earnings leading to economic insecure (Dessalegn and Akilu, 2003). Also, instability of income could influence the quality of house the household live in, since there will be no fixed income to comfortably earn a good living and as well determine the level of social group participation of an individual household head in the community as one's economic situation in terms of financial buoyancy could serve as a motivating factor. Thus, these approaches are based on household response to the degree of sources of risk to secure productive resources. Therefore, it can be deduced that people that lack access to productive resources have an identification of living below the poverty line which is dependable on their sustenance.

It is in this view that it become necessary to indicate some of the scenarios associated with vulnerability to poverty that might lead to negative result of livelihood security in the rural areas of southwestern, Nigeria. These are; threats of herdsmen encroaching rural household farms eventually leading to low yield, shock of climate changes, that is, influence of flood both on their farms and residents as well as stresses of bad infrastructures leading to poor transportation network of their farm produce which could generate a risk of becoming poor especially when there are no alternatives to respond to those situations, they probably become livelihood insecure even across gender.

Having discussed the relative problems associated with vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security, it is quite important to reflect some of the related independent studies on livelihood and vulnerability to poverty which have been done, among which Osawe (2013) reported livelihood vulnerability and migration decision making nexus: case studies from rural households in Nigeria. The result indicated that household assets mediate between the vulnerability that households experience and their decision to embark on migration as an alternative livelihood strategy. Olawuyi and Rahji (2012) also reported analysis of livelihood strategies of household's heads in Ode-Omi kingdom, Ogun-water side local Government area, Ogun state, Nigeria, and the results indicated that the risks and uncertainties of health, mortality, income levels and other hardships are characterised to rural life vulnerability to poverty despite their increasing livelihood strategy and diversity. Also, Oruonye (2011) studied reducing rural poverty and developing livelihood opportunities through irrigation farming in Taraba state, Nigeria. He reported that irrigation infrastructure does not guarantee a reduced poverty and malnutrition

among farming households. However, this thinking helped in developing livelihoods approach in conceptualizing effect of vulnerability to poverty on rural household livelihoods security.

Meanwhile, this study aimed at addressing the underlying causes of threat, shock and stress making households vulnerable to poverty in the immediate and more distant future with an attempt to escape predisposed poverty factors and become livelihood secure. Therefore this study examined the vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security among rural households in the southwestern, Nigeria. Hence, it is against this background that the study provided answers to the following research questions that were posed:

1. What are the personal characteristics of the households in the area of study?
2. What is the level of vulnerability to poverty (in terms of material conditions, economic positions, and social positions) of the households in the area of study?
3. How do the households participate in social group within the community in the study area?
4. What are the coping strategies of households that can mitigate or mediate vulnerability to poverty in the study area?
5. What is the level of livelihood security (in terms of economic, food, health, housing and education) of the households in the study area?

1.3 Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to examine the effects of vulnerability to poverty on rural households livelihood security in southwestern, Nigeria. The specific objectives are to:

1. identify the households personal characteristics in the area of study,
2. examine the household vulnerability to poverty (in terms of material conditions, economic positions, and social positions) in the area of study,
3. ascertain the participation level of households in social group within the community in the study area,
4. investigate the households coping strategies that mitigate or mediate vulnerability to poverty in the study area, and
5. determine the security level of livelihood (in terms of economic, food, health, housing and education) of the households in the study area.

1.4 Research hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

- H₀1: There is no significant relationship between selected personal characteristics of respondents and livelihood security in the study area.
- H₀2: There is no significant difference between female-headed and male-headed households livelihood security in the study area.
- H₀3: There is no significant difference in the livelihood security of households across states in the study area.
- H₀4: There is no significant relationship between the households vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security in the study area.
- H₀5: There is no significant relationship between the households social group participation and livelihood security in the study area.
- H₀6: There is no significant relationship between the households coping strategies and livelihood security in the study area.
- H₀7: There is no significant contribution of livelihood security indicators on the level of livelihood security of rural households in the study area.
- H₀8: There is no significant contribution of vulnerability to poverty indicators on the level of livelihood security of rural households in the study area.

1.5 Justification of the study

The place of livelihood security cannot be discussed in isolation without emphasis on the issue of livelihood. In spite of this, the results of this research assisted households in meeting the production and development of agricultural in the presence of related challenges having built upon the body of knowledge along the path. It has therefore helped in identifying the household basic needs as a derivative subset of a secure livelihood even in presence of risk, shock and threat of vulnerability to poverty in terms of material condition, social and economic position. It is more important to note that the issue of addressing poverty is a way of strategising the resources i.e having a command over the resources in order for the rural household to access an improved standard of living and achieving a secure livelihood.

Many of these rural households earn their living from the entrepreneurial use of natural resources in line with their knowledge, skills and or by participating in the farm, non-farm or off-farm

economy in securing a better livelihood. This limitation of rural households is as a result of many income generating activities being predisposed to improper monitoring of their main occupation (farming activities), which are characterised by low productivity. Despite the fact that rural households primarily engage in agricultural production and marketing, they are still victims of persistent hunger, malnutrition or famine since their scale of production often do not work well for the rural poor households. Thus, the food crisis among urban poor and rural poor are different in terms of exposure, but nevertheless urban poor are less vulnerable to food insecurity than the rural poor. That is, the rural people sell their surplus to urban centres only to meet their household economic shortfalls not bothering on their own consumption. This study therefore helped in strengthening rural households strike a balance in accessing immediate basic needs of their home, since food, education and health is relatively important to their economic state of individual household towards pursuing a secure livelihood.

Furthermore, the study aimed at providing useful baseline information in addressing critical issues to enhance the livelihood security state of rural households and to help them to move-out of poverty when strategies are deployed to negotiate survival through resources of household livelihood security. There exists a shift in humanitarian and development actors having focused on specific measures of livelihood security components, since livelihood differs from livelihood security concept with respect to indicators. Therefore, it remains significant as the potential of this study is to better use vulnerability analysis in poverty reduction strategies to identify specific measures to break the cycle of poverty, as so many households in southwestern Nigeria have a living standard that is lower or just higher than the poverty line (World Bank, 2007). Hence, this study helped to provide better way of responding to predisposed poverty factors that would improve access to resources (economic security, food security, health security and education security) among the insecure rural households. It would also enhance the households to assess their vulnerability to poverty level (material condition, social and economic position) and checkmate both indicators across which would assists in deploying line of attack, whereas, promoting the synergy point of material, economic and social aspects of deprivations in measuring vulnerability to poverty, as to which effectively translates to livelihood security level. This would require constructive policy action in addressing the negative concerns of the indicator of vulnerability to poverty that dictate livelihood insecure households.

The outcome of this study enhanced those that do researches and those that make policies, in assisting to design workable policies on the level of livelihood security among the rural households with respect to their vulnerability to poverty. That is, how vulnerability to poverty affects rural household livelihood security level. The policy focal point is to design interventions and analysing their impact on the household members in order to become secured whether through less or greater assistance. This would also ensure well grounded policies and interventions set aside to address households that are vulnerable to poverty to either move in or move out of poverty circle in their wider social-economy context.

This research hopes to bring into limelight the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of livelihoods insecurity within the households and fill up the gender equity gap among the female and male household-heads through which examining the social (education, health and group participation) and economic (income) inequity in the course of vulnerability to poverty in order to address issues on vulnerability to poverty and draw focus on livelihood security through planning, implementing and strengthening rural development intervention programmes as a way forward in securing livelihood of southwestern, Nigeria.

1.6 Definition of terms

Households: It is the residential unit that basically occupies one or more persons who are related by birth, marriage or adoption of unrelated people who live in the same confinement or dwellings and share meals from the same pot. This also central on economic production, consumption, marketing and inheritance for them to collectively earn and effectively utilize the income, since stable and adequate income is prerequisite of a secure household productive resources in the study area.

Livelihood: livelihood is the means of securing or earning a living. These comprise the capabilities (household possession of potentials in-terms of skills, knowledge, training and health), assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities (both agricultural and non-agricultural) that household required for a means of living in the study area.

Livelihood security: This is the adequate and sustainable access to income and productive resources to meet basic necessities of life. These include; adequate food access, health, shelter/housing, optimum levels of income and education which has to be maintained and sustained in one's life.

Household livelihood insecurity: It is the position of individual household not accessing adequate and sustainable income to meet productive resources (including food, health facilities, education, housing) that is required to secure livelihood and as well as participation in community obligations but not measured as a constituents of livelihood security in the study area. Livelihood outcome is also used in this regards since its position is resulting to the summation of access to income and other resources to bring a secure livelihood.

Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF): SLF is a model of the DFID that reflects a close linkage between livelihoods and vulnerability. These fundamentally explains the livelihood of the poor as regards vulnerability context (shocks, trends and seasonality), influence and access to assets, transforming structures (policies, institutions and processes), livelihood strategies (activities) in a way stimulates livelihood outcomes of improving livelihood and reducing vulnerability to poverty in the study area.

Vulnerability: This is the reaction of household to the degree of response to shocks, threats and stresses that are associated with household livelihood activities.

Poverty: This is a state of not having right and command over productive resources that could render the household to a position of being poor or poverty cycle in the study area.

Vulnerability to poverty: This is the degree of response to poverty factors. That is, the likelihood state of a household of becoming poor due to deprivation of material, social and economic position/conditions. That is, if not currently deprived, or continues to be deprived if currently deprived, especially if nothing is done to respond to predisposed factors of poverty which are associated with their livelihood activities as a main determinant of income generation in order to access and sustain productive resources of a secure livelihood.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Concept of livelihood

Livelihood is a means of capabilities, assets, and activities that are required to make a living (Chambers and Conway, 1992; Ellis *et al.*, 2003). They are dependent on access to assets such as natural, human, social, physical, financial capital. People draw upon their assets through capabilities in combining, transforming, and expanding ways to deploy strategies to pursue meaningful lives (Scoones, 1998; Bebbington, 1999). The dynamic nature of livelihood is relative to human due to their social being. For that reason, people adapt and change their livelihoods with external and internal stressors. Improving living conditions is also vital by revolving assets into employment, dignity and operation that serve as a prerequisite for poverty alleviation and productive livelihoods (Sen, 1981). For instance, livelihood of a household tends to better off when there are capabilities to transform their income generating activities (livelihood portfolios) as a result of acquiring assets in a multitude in order to pursue a living.

Livelihoods are universal which makes both the deprived and less deprived people ascertaining a living. It is however shown from past studies that the adverse events of weather and climatic changes, particularly have an impact among the poor and disenfranchised people because it increasingly threaten rights, capabilities and erode basic needs which in turn reshaping their livelihood (United Nations Development Programme, 2007; Leary *et al.*, 2008; Adger, 2010; Quinn *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, livelihood goes far beyond generating income and much more than employment. This gives exposure to household asset variability, which appears to be a determinant of household crisis coping capacity and external vulnerability risk factors that form a significantly coping mechanism (DFID, 1999). Although, external forces such as unexpected changes causes the households to lose their assets and capabilities which results to adverse effects in pursuing their livelihood and thereby making them to be at greater risk due to uncertainties features. In furtherance, risk of low income generation coupled with increased demands of financial plans often reduce households overall income (Bhattarai, 2005). But, their experience associated with risks differs and they do not have equal measures in addressing them. In the same vein, the impact of risk and shock of vulnerability to poverty is dependable on their

access to resources translating to inadequate access to economic, food, health, education, housing and as well as participating in social group within the community etc.

2.2 Concept of household livelihood security

The approach of livelihood security is an integral part of many working organisations for the poor. This approach was evolved from the entitlement theory of Sen's (1981). Household's entitlement can be referred to establishing control to set income and resource bundles (e.g. assets, commodities) over which livelihoods can be secured. Meanwhile, the concepts and issues related to the theory of entitlements evolution could be eventually led to the development of the broader concept of household livelihood security (HLS). HLS has diverse definitions and they are mainly derived from Chambers and Conway (1992). As stated in their work, the requirements for means of living are capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims, and access) and activities. He therefore asserted that a livelihood is sustainable when it can stand a test of time, coping and recovering from stress and shocks in order to maintain or enhance one's capabilities and assets, and not jeopardizing the next generation livelihood opportunities.

The concept of HLS was adapted in this study as an accessibility to adequate income and assets in meeting the demand of edible food, schooling, health facilities, shelter or housing and as well as participation in social activities as a prerequisite to secure immediate basic needs of the households within the community where individual belongs. In studies conducted by Sanzidur and Shaheen (2010) in determining livelihood security of settlements that are poor in Bangladesh, they found out that people in the settlements appear equally insecure based on five domains used in assessing their livelihood security. It is equally known that the domains of livelihood security ranges from five and nine according to different authors but its peculiarity depends on the geographical differences of location where studies has to be conducted. It is in this view that the domains which stand relevant to this study are economic, food, health, housing, education securities of the rural households.

While, distinguishing the structure of livelihood into characteristics, it can only be achieved with reference to the primary livelihood activity that are been done with indigenous knowledge and locally based, since it becomes difficult at the household level to do that with those with skilled and educated households with different salary ratings as their main source of income. However,

income cannot be understated in livelihood study. Therefore, a study reviewed on rural linkages in structuring their livelihood systems in the Niger-Delta region of Nigeria. This study reported that the identity and peculiarity nature of their environment dictated the vulnerability of the rural dwellers being relative to deficient of sources of income and employment prospects, access to health care accessibility, schooling, water that is safe for drinking etc, leading to situation, when people have access to nutritious and enough food intake that is safe for normal growth and development and as well as accessing an active life or healthy living (Maxwell, 1999; FAO, 2002; Carney, 1998).

Also, livelihood insecurity is a siege of death coupled with the environmental damage emanating from oil exploration is barrier to human existence. The impact of this destruction shut out human population making food insecurity a problem by attacking their dignity suitable for them. The socio-political issue currently unfolding in the area is a burden for both the populace and their socioeconomic activities. Although, sets of material and economic conditions are not enough to dictates the livelihood systems of rural dwellers in Niger-Delta because they must satisfy a large number of human needs such as food, health, education and shelter for them to be livelihood secure. Also, human factors are more likely considered as the need to address interactions with the environment such that any developmental programme could be better sustained because of the adaptability nature of human in order to accept and live with it. Hence, for any livelihood systems could be sustainable and fulfilled in any rural setting, the programmes should conform to the population psychic and cultural fulfillment and not only a question of both physical duration and resources. None the less, there exist a gap of unemployment which is persistent and largely related to agricultural activities and livelihood insecurity because there is little or no formal sources of income in most agrarian part which suggests that insecurity of livelihood. Thus, reliant on agriculture as being less productive in the rural area of Niger-delta thereby many households could not affordably sustain their livelihoods through agricultural practices as primary sources of income for the rural households having a direct influence on other level of resources such as economic, food, health, housing and education securities.

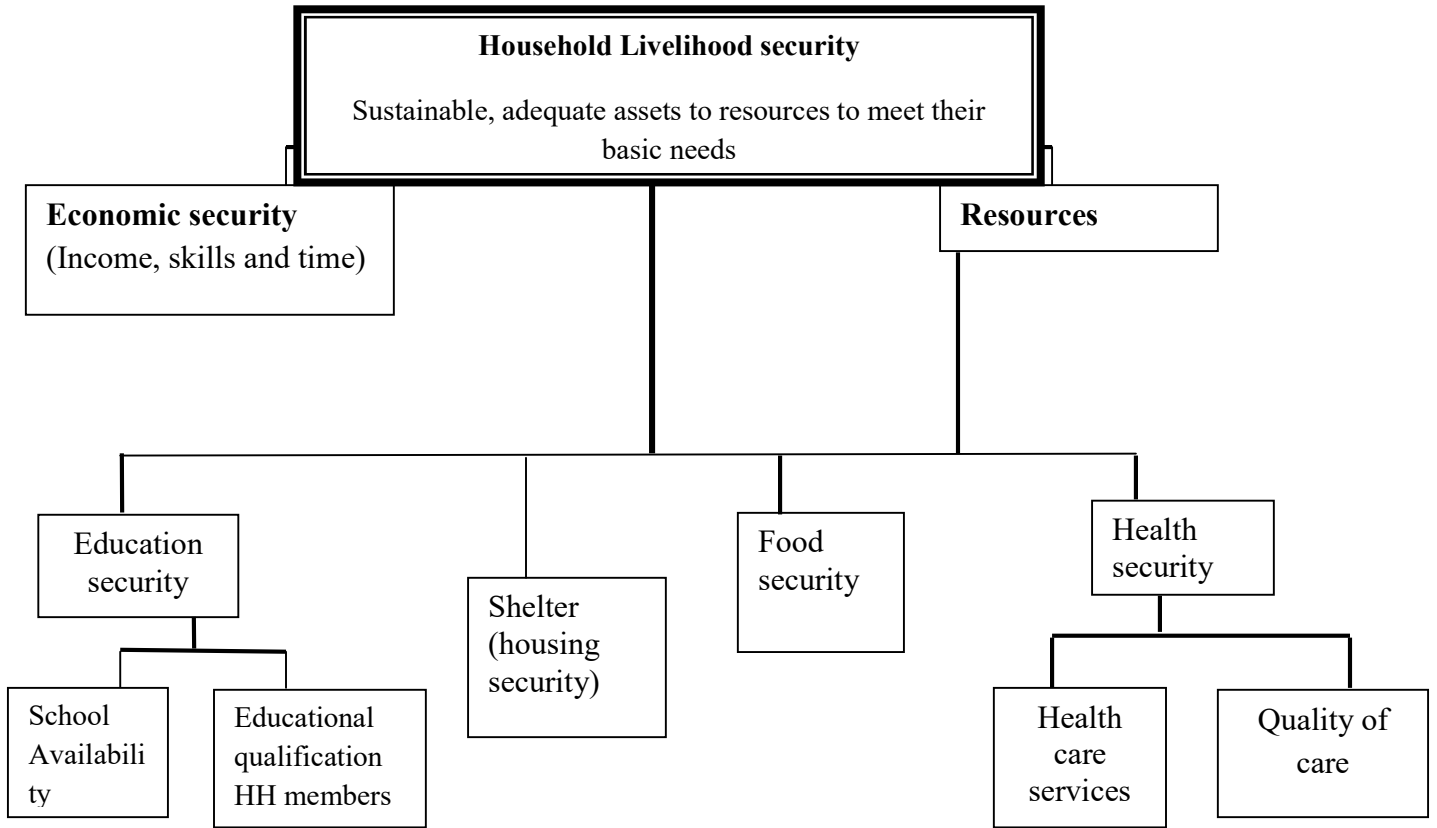


Figure 1: Ladder of livelihood security of a household

Source: Adapted from Frankenberger and McCaston (1998)

2.3 Household food security status

The description of food security can be referred to often accessibility to nutritious food that is safe, to preserve people for healthy and active life (FAO, 1996). In accessing food security, there are four elements that are key which includes: availability, accessibility, utilization, and sustainability. These main components can be better explained, as availability connotes the quantity of food that are physically present on a large scale; accessibility implies that the acquisition abilities in pursuing required quantity of food; sufficiency rate in both quantity and quality is said to be utilization/adequacy of food and as well as sustainability implying that, meeting the demand of food at all times without having tendency of losing such access or trend (Omonona and Agoi, 2007). Young *et al* (2001) asserted that the emergent of food crisis and food related issues could be traced to cases of both malnutrition and mortality especially in children in its study. Meanwhile, different agencies and developmental projects have termed food security/insecurity status and as well considering its measurement along different countries, social groups and classes. Studies have been done on analyzing regions as a whole and countries as regards to food security status. However, the understanding of food that household secure having a state for which policies can be enacted to give effective change of food security profiling, have recently assumed a shift at the national, regional and international level.

In addressing issues of security of food, self sufficiency of food for one self is very germane as a step forward in ascertaining food security. Meanwhile, it is observed areas with high food insecurity issues also form the larger percentage of supposed food sufficient developing economies. It is thereby stated by Okuneye (2001) that, despite the increasing food production level in Nigeria, majority of the people in Nigerians, most especially the rural populace constitutes the largest proportion of food insecure. Also, reported by Oni *et al* (2011) that despite 2.5% of annual growth in food production in Nigeria, food insecurity state at both the national and household level is depressing having recorded an increase from 18% in 1986 to 40% in 2005. Meanwhile, in accessing nutritious and sufficient food, there are relative problems of malnutrition and restrictions to edible food having resultant effects of these changes. Thus, there proclaim examining the need for food security in this study which could be centered on countrywide status of food among rural Nigeria as quite important. This is so, since national food sufficiency as the case maybe adequacy of available food does not brings about the issue of food poverty since access to food is not only a prerequisite or determining food security. Whereas,

one of the focus of this study is to make discoveries of people that are vulnerable to food insecurity.

Yet, food insecurity is seen as a major problem in many places today. But in a case study of Nigeria, malnutrition has been regarded as consequence of food insecurity, which is widespread among the groups that are vulnerable are both women and children especially in the rural areas (Alli, 2005; Sanusi *et al*, 2006; Akinyele, 2009; Ayantoye *et al*, 2011). The increase behind the production of food have despite been reported in Nigeria in the literature (USAID, 2011), as well as Okumadewa *et al* (2005) who affirmed that dreadfulness Nigeria's food insecurity situation despite the increasing level of food importation. This situation is so appalling, due to the fact that the country is part of food deficit (intense food deprived) country thereby listed as one of the forty-two countries with low generating income for food deficit. However, in the course of defining food security by holding on to the definition of FAO (1996) that defines security of food. So far, it is obvious that accessibility to food is a tangible problem of security of food in Nigeria. But, one of the main dimensions of access to food is measuring security of food, which is subjected to the level of income and their purchasing capacity of either an individuals or households. Thus, in Nigeria, food access is limited among rural populace and this limitation may result to malnourishment, as this could be a derivative of the increasing poverty level characterized with the rural populace especially in Nigeria (Oyefara, 2005; Akinyele, 2001). Having said this, the characteristics of poverty is not only a question of inadequate income and wealth, but as well as accessibility to inadequate of food that is available (World Bank, 1991).

The obtainable aptitude required of the household or any nation to access the needed food and maintain the food in order ascertains the nutritional value of that particular food demand at the right time. In achieving food access, it is not just accessing the food physically but also encompasses economic access and sustainability access. Besides food access, influence of household size, schooling, collective earning, output of food crops and enterprise structure of the household can be factored into food security as well as income that are not related to agricultural sources as reported by Oluyole *et al*, (2009) and Akinyele, (2009). A major considering factor in food poverty and/or access is livelihood (Olayemi, 1998). This is because one of the variables of livelihood constitutes various activities they do in acquiring resources that secure life for people to live.

The heart of securing food and reducing poverty are the method deploying in accessing livelihood systems in the context of diverse policy environments. According to Baro (2002) who gave his definition of livelihood systems to be more encompassing through means, processing and relating it with production, as well as strategies adopted to manage the household activities. The resources that determine the character of livelihood system components are values of specific physical and social environments. Securing food alone is not a superior only goal of the population of rural communities, but what necessitate sustainable livelihood, is more central to good life since it effects is built upon other dimension that guarantee a good living. Ayantoye *et al* (2011) stated that both the transition and link that exist between poverty levels and the level of food security in rural Nigeria. However, food insecurity has evolved over time since there is gap in the agricultural sector in producing food surplus to meet the demand of the populace because food is one of the major dependent resources that household needs for survival. In essence, when a household is food secure, the likelihood of other resources to be secure is due to the strength gained from the food intake which enables one to pursue and acquire other resource. Thus, household vulnerable to food security tends to become livelihood insecure.

2.4 Household health security

Health security is a state of living in a healthy environment and at the same time have access to health care services that brings about the quality of care for the population. For many households, health care is a cause for concern in determining livelihood security because it mainly determines activeness in human production level. Asrat and Amanuel (2001) accounted, that some of the respondents who had benefitted from medical scheme have low cost of health care which may probably weigh down their household income. The implication of this is directly proportional to the household resources especially household that frequently utilise health services. It was also assumed that many households with a rethink in seeking medical help had a mindset of limiting the household income or having depletion on the resources of household. Moreover, having access to equal health services are quite not possible among all members of the household in the event of ill health due to limited income access of the household's. Each family would thereby prioritize their needs and values, which will be based on individual decisions. Some decision might be in favour of the main source of income person more than any other members of the family while others may decide on investing on their male children if the

family believes they are its only insurance when they grow old age. Women will likely experience better access to health care than men within the household unit, due to characteristic surrounded with women nature.

From the above, poverty is quite widespread in such area, having more than average of the population who are being considered deprived or core poor. According to literature, the core poor lived in a single apartment in avoidance to slide down the income trend, this actually made them to exploit themselves as a mechanism to cope with the poverty situation. One common form of self-exploitation is by spending less or free from spending on health issues as one of the basic requirement of livelihood security of households, although people with poverty oriented mind do not always spend much on their health. One of it is, to track available minimal cost or free health service which actually contributed to healers that use of traditional method to be the bone of contention the large population. Another one is, not going for medical help at all, even when sick to the point of death and lastly those that fail to purchase the drugs prescribed to them by the physician or going for alternative ones at cheaper rates. CARE and WFP reported that, traditional healers who made use of herbs are alternatively visited by those who cannot afford proper medical services. Likewise, some chose to buy from pharmacy store and visit medical workers that are not registered health practitioners for help.

A considerable bulk of respondents (61.0 %) claimed they utilized health care services in the last one year equivalent to 12 calendar months, out of which more than half of them visited government owned, and closely a third visited private health facilities. Vaguely, men (62 percent) utilized health care services than women (58 percent) in the period in question. Apparently, majority who had been deprived utilized government health facilities as such services provided are at minimal cost and sometimes, services may be rendered without charges for less endowed who seem to be unable to pay. Conversely, the choice of utilizing public or private health facilities is regularly based on availability and accessibility of the services rather than complimentary choice. It is quite evident that public health facilities are more than private one, yet, more people made use of them due to its advantaged.

A concise approach of the recent Demographic and Health Survey conducted in 2000 was based on comparative purposes. The Survey found out that the proportion of urban households who utilised health services a year prior to the survey was 54 percent. Of these, one-third of them

visited non-government facilities while two-third visited government facilities. Out of those who had utilised facilities owned by government, full-fledge visited ones, carried 22 percent had visited hospitals while the option of health centres were made by 52.2 percent of the respondent. But the most interesting part was the fact that, services made were for most who visits government health care facilities as stated in the survey. This is because the services are either at no cost or extremely less rate. Also, the main reason for the visits to health services was on child immunization routines, orientations on infections especially through sexual intercourse, information on breastfeeding and general nutrition among infant, and family planning. The result of the survey indicated that visits of pre-natal, post-natal and delivery care were regular which are attached to financial cost (CSA and ORC Macro 2001).

Furthermore, results on quality of service as regards to the survey conducted in the last three years prior to the survey, revealed that in the past twelve months, half of those who had used the health facilities in the survey, said the quality has advanced, no improvement was ascertained by 23 percent and 22 percent said that it had worsen. Momentously enough, relatively people who thought government services were more had depreciated than private services as regards quality of service. But before articulating the quality of service that such services have improved or not, it denotes that awfulness of quality of the services in the past three years is either less awful today, or there is a development ongoing such that users feel confident of the provided service with qualitative findings in the survey but had no empirical information on such fact.

Based on earlier records, peoples utilized their household earnings to meet immediate family consumptions such as basic needs and health care etc. The little marginal proportion of populations who benefitted medical services, relatively privileged in using from their earnings/income to pay health services that are rendered to them. These groups of people are well known to be fully provided payable work for either in the public sector or in private organizations. As a result, majority considers the significance of a secure health care status through reflecting on two set of objectives. One set considered people with sufficient household income to pursue a secure health, while the other considered affordability of care provided health wisely to a member of household that is sick which is answerable by the household head. The findings indicated that 55 percent claimed their income was not sufficient enough to provide the need for health care, 30 percent ascertained their income was closely sufficient, while the income

was only sufficient for fifteen percent of them. Women were slightly more vulnerable in this regard than men as 58 percent of female against 54 percent male respondents revealed that the income of the household was not sufficient for health care need, while only 13 percent of female, as against 16 percent for men, thought it was sufficient. As noted, in the reaction of the affordability of the health services provided to the respondents as the second aim of the literature reviewed, only 43 percent cannot afford at all to provide for the sick members, only 18 percent affirmed that they are capable of paying the bills to take care for a sick member of their immediate household in most cases, while the rest fell mid-way of the two response options earlier stated. This had been seen as opposition to a backdrop of the increasing cost of medication which respondents were conscious of, and, countless were deficient in improvement of the superiority of services rendered on health care.

Furthermore, about one-third of the study population accounted that their households had been vulnerable in the three years preceding the commencement of the research, whereas impinge on growth of income and render household members worse-off in terms of well-being status. In addition, the cause of the vulnerability was subjected to series of issues but three were predominantly identified, which include; incapacitation due to ill health resulting to loss of job, food commodities inflated prices, and the sudden death of sole provider/ income-earner of the household. Although, people adopted several methods in coping or adapting with the vulnerability occurrences, only method which may be contrasting (as seem not to be a common practice among rural families) is selling household assets. Some women (not necessarily being the household head) can market their jewelry in exchange of money in recovering from the occurrences, but there was no practice that can be extensive in selling off household investment that could enhance household resources. The most imperative coping device that a number of respondents deployed was substantially good to turn to friends, relatives and siblings for financial support either fundable or refundable, and also other kinds of support since it is customary practice in this nation to rely on close relatives and acquaintances in hard times rather than approaching external bodies such as the government, charities based (NGOs), and employers.

It was therefore noted that there was a well-built sense of social cohesion with the deprived and the less privileged among respondents. But the predominant influence was that it was the duty of

Government to come into aid of the needy as well as those who are not capable in meeting their basic requirements of livelihood. In the same vein, it would appear that most people living comfortably had better well-being status than those that are non-judgmental or lenient, capitalist state. Respondents were also asked whether Government should or should not assist the marginalized group, such as the poor, sick, elderly and others, be it partial or complete assistance. Only a little proportion of about 4 percent was of the opinion that, both the poor and the needy do not deserve Government support except for other marginalized groups. It is noteworthy that respondents did make a clear distinction, as to which group was more worthy of assistance. About half of the population thought assistance provided to the poor should be only partial in order to be maginalised rather than complete assistance. In contrast, while smaller proportion thought the sick deserve some assistance, majority thought that all categories of people who are meant to be offered assistance should be adhered to their needs accordingly, but no significant difference existed as regards to gender in terms of assistance. A vital conclusion drawn from the reviewed study was that majority of respondents do not seem to be confident about their security state of their health, since achieving a secure health is one of basic prerequisite of livelihood security. Also, those that fall into lower category bracket of income were seen not to be confident enough than those who fall in the higher bracket of income, while women secure less in that category as against men.

2.5 Household housing/ shelter security

Insecurity of housing has variously been defined in the literature, that having difficulty in paying rent at when due or in advance, most likely half of income are being utilized in paying on housing alone or living in house conditions that is being congested with crowd and vice-versa. According to Harkness and Newman (2005) and Newman, Holukpa, and Harkness (2009), stated that the improved outcomes of livelihood or wellbeing of a particular household is being able to afford a bearable housing with low cost that would frees up income, and having opportunities to spend on other goods that are associated with a secure livelihood. They added in their studies that probably spending too large on housing as a portion of expenses required of a household which tend be a substitution or alternatively for go all other aspects of household's wellbeing.

The precursor to maintain serious difficulties of housing insecurity over time may be holding on to affordable and decent housing. The homeless people do mainly have periods of insecurity state proceeding to become housing dispossessed. Likewise, experiences of many people as regards housing insecurity are known to be either to be experiencing more instability in housing having been home dispossessed at some point, or to becoming dispossessed of housing in the future (Reid, Vittinghoff, and Kushel 2008 and Sosin 2003). Security of housing as a continuum exists along a consistent stable housing to the insecurity state of chronic homelessness.

In this review, an overview insecure housing reveals several important gaps such as difficulty paying rent, captures individuals or doubling up due to hardship in a comparative study between the household that are stably housed and homelessness. Researchers have explicitly used various methods such as eviction, frequent movement from one house to the other, difficult to pay house rent, not paying in advance, convenience, spending half of the income that the household earn on housing, living in where people are much causing inconvenience and as well as doubling up in ascertaining dispositions that can indicate insecurity state of housing (Gilman, Kawachi, Fitzmaurice, and Buka 2003; Kushel, Gupta, Lauren, and Jennifer. 2005 and Pavao, Joanne, Alvarez, Baumrind, Induni and Kimmerling, 2007). Several studies in the past years reported financial constraints to as contributing factor of an individual to move in with others (Kushel *et al.* 2005 and Ma, Gee and Kushel 2008), while other authors consider in their studies that the incidence of evicting people away from their residence or periods of homelessness is insecurity of housing (Drake, Wallach, Teague, Freeman, Paskus and Clark. 1991 and Phinney, Robin, Sheldon, Harold and Kristin. 2007). These various health defect and well-being outcomes in review are connected with the effect of insecurity of housing indicators. Although, a dearth connection has been done to measure these distinct assertions of insecurity or little has been done to identify the most common conditions as an acceptable measure of insecurity of household or the ones with probably associated with more serious risk.

Furthermore, most analyses ability are limited to comment on housing insecurity over time because they examining housing insecurity in cross-sectional measure. The temporal aspects of insecure state of housing are particularly important, since there are rapid changes of the housing among those that earn income at lower level. The effects of household insecurity of housing on

their families may further compounded their problems when considering children that live with their mothers, while reflecting the crucial role of a resident father in their lives. Research confirms the potentials and prospects available to parents that earn low income but desirable to remain connected under the roof to perform their duties as parents in raising their children (Carlson, 2004 and Carlson, McLanahan and Brooks-Gunn 2008). Most young children that their parents are not married yet before giving birth to them, fathers that does not reside in the place with their children and yet being the household head maintain contact (Argys, Laura, Elizabeth, Steven, Steven, Lenna and Elaine, 2006) to have a sense of acceptance to be trained and get involved in daily routines like tasks that household do on daily basis in their house, reading of stories in the literature texts, playing of games, and routines during bedtime (Waller and Swisher, 2006). The consistent ability of a father's to remain stable in a house that his household members are creates on-going conditions that will eventually improve their involvement of parental running's or activities within their households.

2.6 Household vulnerability concept

Vulnerability as a concept means a degree to which a system, that is, social-ecological system is likely to be impaired or being harmed from a perturbation or stress in the natural or social environment (Turner, Kasperson, Matson, McCarthy, Corell, Christenson, Eckley, Kasperson, Luers, Martello, Polsky, Pulsipher and Schiller, 2003). People's livelihoods are fundamentally hindered in a wider availability of assets by critical trends, shocks and seasonality (combination of which makes vulnerability context) over which they have limitation or no control. Stresses and shocks that infringe upon livelihoods are the result of interactions between global forces and local contexts (de Haan, 2000 and de Haan and Zoomers, 2003). Rural households experience fluctuations in resource especially when it is abundant, the seasonal cycles of resource that is utilised and changes in access to those resources, which create conditions that could be challenging. Also, the economic drivers (world markets, unaffordable credit) and those that drives policy (misguided government programs) similarly creates stresses and shock that could negatively impact rural life.

The outcome of vulnerability has been generated from a combination of processes that form the degrees of exposure to a hazard, sensitivity to its stress and impacts, and resilience in the face of

those effects. Vulnerability is a characteristic that considered all people in ecosystems and regions confronting environmental or socioeconomic stresses. Although, the levels of vulnerability widely vary across, this is said to be evident among poorer people having higher prevalence of those characteristics (Kasperson, Kasperson and Dow, 2001). For people who are poor, vulnerability is set as a condition and a determining element prospect of poverty. And this refers to the ability that people possess to avoid, withstand or recover from any harmful happenings that may likely disrupt their lives which the impact may goes beyond their immediate control. These are trends that is, trends that may be surrounded by demographic conditions, trends that resource based and trends in governance; Shocks in terms of human shocks, livestock or crop health shocks, natural hazards (floods or earthquakes, economic shocks and conflicts in form of national or international wars) and Seasonality in terms of prices change based on seasonality of that product, products or employment opportunities and as well as representing part of the framework that furthest lies outside the control of the stakeholder's. Not all trends and seasonality must be considered as negative, they are likely set to be favourable sometimes. This is because trends in new technologies or seasonality of prices could be used as opportunities to secure livelihoods.

Shocks can destroy assets directly (in the case of floods, storms, conflict, etc.). They can also force people to abandon their home areas and dispose assets (such as land) prematurely as part of coping strategies. Examples are; human health shocks, natural shocks, economic shocks, conflict, and crop/livestock health shocks. Recent events have highlighted the impact that international economic shocks, including rapid change in exchange rates and terms of trade, can have on the very poor people or households (Ellis, 2000).

However, 'vulnerability context' draws attention to the fact that households have both external and internal aspect of vulnerability according to Ellis, (2000). The external shock or stress might be drought, failure in market, conflict or forced migration, while the internal aspect of vulnerability do with people's intent capacity to cope with these external shocks. The impact of the external shock on livelihoods depends on the household's vulnerability, which is a combination of the intensity of the external shock, and the households' ability to cope (internal aspect). The context in which vulnerability operates structure people in order to gain magnitude in the existence of environment impacts in directly building upon people's asset status

(Devereux, 2001). Although, there is a growing consensus that most important forms of vulnerability are not only trends, seasonality and shocks in the scientific literature, but also vulnerability to natural disasters, climatic conditions and economic shocks.

Meanwhile, in the developing countries, vulnerability to change of climatic condition, economic shocks and natural disasters most often makes households vulnerable to poverty because they are unforeseen happenings. That is, poor people are generally characterized with low resilience and poor coping mechanisms which contributed more vulnerable to all kinds of hazards coupled with the lack of insurance against these shocks (Makoka and Kaplan, 2008). Literatures have shown the increasing importance of the concept of vulnerability because of the large number of world population that is poor. Vulnerability is concept that needed to be considered in studies that focus growth and development of a nation; this is due to the population increase, rapid urbanisation, degradation of the environment, reoccurrence and extent of disasters that happen naturally. The approach currently used by the international community emphasized on the importance of addressing vulnerability to be more comprehensive. But, social, economic, and material dimensions are the factors that embedded in such approach which takes account in fully address the catastrophic consequences of hazards that vulnerability going to pose on the poor. Thus, moving poor households deeper into poverty and also pushing poor household below the poverty line. Also, Makoka and Kaplan (2008) further explained the comprehensive approach of vulnerability perspectives from different authors, leading to a variety ways to measure it. While some vulnerability measures incorporate exposure to natural disasters, effects of weather and climate, among other measures of vulnerability to poverty as a money-metric one. The factors associated to being vulnerable to poverty measures are economic shocks through occurrence of natural hazards as shocks that come to aid of the household in reducing the low security level of households. In this vein, the future of vulnerability is not only restricted to poor people because poverty are not the same with vulnerability. Additionally, the problems associated with risks, uncertainty and poverty of households could be derived from the term vulnerability in a general context (Blaikie *et al.*, 1994; Ellis, 2000; Oni and Yusuf, 2007). Whereas, the concept of household livelihood distinguished between poverty and vulnerability by some authors in the field of both academic and development discourses. It is relatively argued that the concept of vulnerability and poverty are quite different since concept of poverty is a post happening occurrences measure of well-being (ex-post) while vulnerability is pre-happening analysis of

household's well-being (ex-ante) (Chaudhuri, 2003). Nevertheless, a conceptual linkage coexisted between vulnerability and poverty since the dynamics of vulnerability is not only whether somebody is poor today, but probability of one's becoming poor tomorrow. That is, they are closely related to one another and the reduction efforts on poverty among individuals always have to take into account the different aspects of vulnerability such as social, economic and material deprivation towards ascertaining a considerable state of livelihood security.

2.7 Households deprivation and livelihood security

Social deprivation as a concept is one of the deprivations faced by individual/households and it emphasized on inability of individual to participate fully in the life of their community or society. Although, Levitas, Pantazis, Fahmy, Gordon, Lloyd and Patsios (2007) emphasized a lack of material or financial resources that contributes to lack of social participation to a broader range of social cultural and political activities, literature on social deprivation, social exclusion and health forms part of vast evidence on the social inequalities in health, which incorporates the deprived and excluded groups as well as other social groups that are relatively better off (CSDH, 2008).

Literature have shown that people that are in social group with shortcomings of homelessness, drop out from school and not having job that will bring income for a very long time because they are vulnerable to social exclusion in their community. Thus, translating to poor living conditions. Similarly, People who are relatively poor can experience different types of social exclusion processes, since the extent differ across. However, their exposure to the range and length of deprivations may be limited to their level of income and can be compared with those who are socially excluded (Barnes, 2005).

According to Barrientos, Higgins, Sprunger, Watkins, Rudy and Maier, (2002), social pensions contributed to the income of the households in the overall. Meanwhile, incomes of the household are directly proportional to access to health, support rendered for education acquisition, intake of food that is of good quality, income generation and lessen in-born poverty. This is so particular to households that are found in the generation that do bounce with extreme number of older people and/or children within the households and they often have the pension as the sole source of their income stated as one of the instance made in those countries of southern Africa with universal or near-universal pensions, when being deprived can perpetuate poverty incidence.

Also, the report given by oneself on status of health of women which improves dramatically at 60 years of age as it become eligible for a social pension (HAI, 2004). This consequently improves the status of those receiving health and social pension. This social intervention in developed world is a form of social support for older person to assist their care-giving role in generation of households that bounces. Evidence had shown in South Africa that social pension has been utilized to pay bills on children's health and education as prioritized by older people in receipt of a pension. Considering the height of the receipt of pension, girls that lived with older woman in a household are 3-4 cm taller than the girls in households with older women who do not receive a pension. Also in rural are of Brazil, pensions impact are well-built to increase the enrolment school aged particularly from ages of 12 to 14 years (HAI, 2004) which translates to a better wellbeing and a secure livelihood.

Vulnerability of social risks across the cycle of life of the individual and households indicated that hunger has negative impact on household members, especially on child development. Sridhar and Duffield (2006) asserted that social transfers improve nutritional status among both adults and children and also translate to food security through food production while stabilising local demand for food and encouraging higher-risk/higher-return market enterprise. Also, the evidence is shown by the study of Samson, Lee, Ndlebe, MacQuene, Van Niekerk, Gandhi, Harigaya and Abraham (2004), that household should prioritized spending on food, in order to be food secure translating to a better wellbeing of household members

The dynamism and multidimensionality of vulnerability of the underlying usage of social exclusion are well encompassing in terminology in the European Union (EU) (Atkinson, 1998). This concern is also reflected in Berghman's (1997), that social exclusion involves processes of social dimension creating and underpinning inequalities which informs the state of deprivation and hardship from which it is difficult to escape. The notion of de Haan and Maxwell (1998) in tackling social exclusion goes well beyond a specific concern for deprivation, but with focus and concentration on vulnerability in the form of exposure to risk and insecurity of living conditions for the group or households. In recent years, there are varieties of issues relating to the extent and consequences of flexibility and non-standard forms of work which is related to their relationship in their position in class as addressed by Goldthorpe (2007) and Atkinson (2007). However, reconciliation in disagreements, progress has been made in resolving such disagreement that

could hamper their state of living as reported Goldthorpe (2007). It was observed that there was a broad consensus on social exclusion and those that are being excluded socially or vulnerable to social exclusion as regards to enumerating and being managed so as not to be at risk of poverty. Meanwhile, the availability of the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) goes beyond analysis because of the benefit provided as a prospect of income to address the dynamics of poverty and as well as making provision in assessing the relationship between social class and vulnerability persistent of economic experience within their household. In pursuing this objective, there was a model embarking upon to approach dynamics and multidimensional social exclusion whereby combining recent strategies deployed on towards reducing their level of deprivation and poverty. Tesliuc and Lindert (2004) in general studied the case of Guatemala, while Gallardo (2009) concentrates on Nicaragua with evidence on suggestion of vulnerability, which is widespread among vulnerable households usually out-numbering the number of people who are actually poor. Moreover, these studies identify several characteristics that household exhibits which is associated with social deprivation of vulnerabilities. The characteristics of household head being identified are in terms of gender, schooling attainment, status of their employment and area of where they resides. Also, social deprivation that was high are associated with having a low level of education which could be traced to low socioeconomic background which transforms the level of livelihood security Saunders, Naidoo and Griffiths (2007).

Also, as regards vulnerability to economic, which has been conceived from the general conceptualization that, it is not only in terms of individuals risk of deprivation objective, but also subjective sense of insecurity. In a study done in Southern countries which was reviewed constitutes a distinctive family support welfare system having a crucial role to play with benefit that is uneven and minimalist in nature. The study thereby anticipated that the levels of variation of inequality between systems and extent of differences in their labour market regulation and divisions in and out, within and between systems will directly influence vulnerability level of the economic. Gallie and Paugam (2000) concluded that, secure employment level centered at systems within the group of corporatist and they succeeded in providing protection of their finances. The a-prior expectation of the study was to observe those that are vulnerable to economic generally Southern countries. However, labour markets are rigid in Spain and Italy involving divisions which operate particularly to the disadvantage of younger workers which are combined sharply inside and outside with high levels of intergenerational co-residence. And they

are likely to be differentiated across those countries like Portugal and Greece. But the key variables measured at the level of household were not identified as vulnerable since the disadvantaged people that are younger are being sampled within those households.

This portrays true reflection of Italy as a country where regulation on their labour market is particularly associated with difficulty before being employed other than insecurity of employment, which features so stronger in the case of Spanish. Households that face social exclusion in south Asia are more vulnerable to labour market exploitation and debt bondage than other economically poor families because of religion, ethnicity or caste (Daru and Churchill, 2003). This suggests that economic deprivations are powerful drivers of poverty translating to insecure livelihood. This adversely affects the small scale farmers and casual labourers drastically drop their income, consequently resulting to extra debt and risk, spiraling into chronic poverty. Also, they are liable to ill-health non-meeting social demands for immediate household members and finally, result to a point at which it cannot recover its earlier position and rebuild its assets. Many of these households' deprivations had a complex chain which is difficult to break but might be attributed to unexpected policy.

Beck (2000), asserted that the labour work force instability and potential poverty across the socioeconomic spectrum is an extension of inequality of income in social class categories. Sceptically, however, Goldthorpe (2007) and Atkinson (2007) argue that a range of issues related to the extent and consequences of flexibility and non-standard forms of workforce and their relationship to class position is a downward spiral of welfare or welfare state capacity that may interfere with the scale and effects of social mobility and dependence, on distortion versions of traditional class relationships. However, reconciliation of such disagreements is hampered by the absence of a broad consensus on how those socially excluded/vulnerable/marginalised are to be enumerated, since most deprived household falls within the social category who fails to participate productively in the modern economy (Sen, 2000).

In addition to the aforementioned deprivations that coexist among the households, material deprivation as a concept has been positioned as non-refundable earnings of measuring people's set of living and their susceptibility to poor quality in terms of deprivation and social exclusion (Ward, Hristova and Sanoussi, 2006). Literature showed that both the conception and dimension

of material deprivation, was interpreted to be an extensive sense of not being able to live a decent life (Townsend 1979). Papadopoulos and Tsakloglou (2008) studied multi-dimensional deprivation as regards to exclusion in European Community Household Panel (ECHP) relative to sociology. The study focused on income deficiency, living conditions (which involved considerable factors such as satisfying the living conditions, housing status and the possession that is durable for consumers as a basic necessities) as basic requirements of life (which involved the ability of households to diversify their activities which are considered to explore their basic needs) and denial of social relationship. The results of the research showed that populace has greater likelihood to be socially excluded in the EU affiliate states together with 'South European' as regards to their state of wellbeing than populace in member states with Social Democratic system.

Fusco (2005 and 2006) also used the European Community Household Panel to examine the common characteristics between incomes and multi-dimensional measurements of poverty and the reports were overlapped which is relatively limited. Pursuing a diverse taught, Chakravarty and D'Ambrosio (2006) developed a clear loom in measuring social exclusion by using subgroup decomposable. In the empirical findings of Clark and Senik (2009), who classified the enormity and trend of income relationships between individuals, it was reported that most inhabitants who relate their income with their colleagues, friends and family members resulted to a practical problem of the analysis of poverty and social exclusion which was impossible due to cluster recognition with such features for each category or person. Consequently, the approach was mostly practiced in determining or evaluating relative dispossession/or deprivation of entire country (or a reference population in general). Although, it is infrequent to distinguish indicated clusters via using supplementary criteria, for instance income variety, group category, geographic huddles etc. Van Praag (2010) described a person's position group as the allotment of individuals who have particular traits that a person delineates as a function of his/her wellbeing. A study is not worth to be regarded as a research when it is not meticulously rich especially in the selection of a sample frame at both the abstract and experimental level, probably due to lack of scientific data availability. Literature had shown that this approach had a potential down side since the main concept of social exclusion implies that the group position should collectively stand as a whole rather than a subset of individuals.

Whelan, Layte and Maitre (2002) highlighted relative welfare deprivation as regards to timing and they measure it up pragmatically to long-term poverty, while Tsakloglou and Papadopoulos (2002a and 2002b) exploited the dimension of time in describing social exclusion empirically by relating the concept of chronic cumulative difficulty, that is, a multi-dimensional inert approach using indices of deprivation over a period of time. On the other hand, only few studies investigated social exclusion or multi-dimensional deprivation in a dynamic perspective. For example, Poggi (2007) studied the dynamics of state dependence, i.e. whether generally, a state of social exclusion (or at high risk of multi-dimensional deprivation) at any given time is quite dependable on the experience of social exclusion (or at high risk of multi-dimensional deprivation) in the past. Yet, literature accentuated social exclusion and its dynamism as one of the attributes of welfare deprivation. That is, being excluded or rejected today may pilot an individual into a trap with little or no prospect of escaping exclusion in the future.

According to Atkinson, Cantillon, Marlier and Nolan (2002), only chance factor may be attributed to being at high risk of cumulative relative shortcoming, which certainly does not offer a well-built signal of a chronic relative material deficit. Papadopoulos and Tsakloglou (2016) expressed that the considerable cross-country disparity scrutinized chronic material deprivation from the angle of being in high and average risk in EU countries. As previously stated, chronic multi-facet material deprivation relatively (approximated here by our index of chronic cumulative relative disadvantage) weigh against more income poverty. The panel nature of the EUSILC data used in the survey provided a chance of taken into account the aspects of inter-temporal transfers and income leveling as well as actually examined the aspects of longitudinal poverty in EU countries.

As a result, the similarity at this level and structure of facet of deprivations that are chronic having multiples of such effect relative to poverty in a vertical and longitudinal dimension. Also, the longitudinal derivation of the shares used for poverty trial was on the high side of their household incomes which was adjusted to balance all the groups of the members of the panel to estimate for each year. Then, they were averagely categorised as per person to show the poverty line which was centred on a threshold of 60 percent indicating their median distribution (for each country). Meanwhile, the population at which they fall into high category risk of chronic deprivation relatively to material was derived with a share of poverty rate. This therefore give the

impression that most countries that are at medium risk of deprivation relative to material are much more greater than those within the category that are prone to risk of longitudinal poverty averagely. Generally, the number of people who are probably materially being deprived or relatively at high risk of material deprivation are over-estimated, while people with longitudinal poverty (in terms of income measure and mobility) are better shielded alongside with material deprivation of those who are relative to risk of chronic state. The sets of persons who they have tendency of chronically deprived with relative material and longitudinal poverty has common characteristics. But, the little people who have likelihood to become materially deprived are also poor and they are one third of the people. On the other hand, those that are longitudinally poor have about half of them having tendency to relatively experience deprivation of material indicator of vulnerability at the same time. There is unsurprisingly, significant cross country variation having deprived materially and being poor, and at the same time those longitudinally poor are at high risk of material deprivation.

As stated from the results that these two distinct social phenomena takes into account that policy makers devise policies aimed to alleviate longitudinal poverty and material deprivation, or social exclusion in general. This may perhaps portray knowledge that are not ideal for the aforementioned deprivation being relative to superiority of income and the standard of living in ascertaining quality level of a particular person or household lives. Relatively, policies at times are solely devised according to the characteristics of the targeted groups to be at high risk of deprivation, especially in cases of poverty that are longitudinal by nature and chronically material deprivation relative to vulnerability.

Wave (2007), also opined that both material deprivation and longitudinal poverty differ across gender of household head. That is, sex of the household's reference person, could translate to their state of their possessions and deficiency. In most cases the relative risk dynamics of deprivation in the position of material and poverty that are longitudinal by nature do not substantially differ across but can only differ in increasing extent of risk which may possibly be high compared with the decomposition of groups based on age grading of the head of household's, which is hardly surprising since collection of information among the population are at household level and they are used in calculating the indicators of deprivation and as well as income. In furtherance, Papadopoulos and Tsakoglou (2016) accounted that roughly all

countries under inquiry affirmed that both individual and household head that are not fully employed are prone to higher menaces of chronic material deprivation and longitudinal poverty. In addition, such deprivation was found to be strongly pessimistic and related with educational qualifications of the reference person. Also, those that are at high risk of both types of deprivation are such in the category of single parent households and members of female headed households or by a very young or, to a lesser extent, an elderly person.

However, risks of deprivation tendency are moderately experienced among children and the elderly, as age of a reference person is more important factor of deprivation rather than the individual member of household. Ward (2006) suggested that the extent of material deprivation and financial hardship across the EU is reflected to a limited income-based indicator which it is conventionally used to measure the risk of poverty degree. This is particular to many new member States, where a considerable proportion of the population that live without being able to afford certain consumer goods or a nutritious food at least once every other day in their respective households as reported in the literature. The largest part concerned group of people have income above the risk of-poverty threshold. Also, the same is the case for other indicators of financial hardship, most especially those having outstanding amount of utility bills with no resources to meet unexpected costs. As buttressed by Santos, Lugo, Lopez-Calva, Cruce, and Battiston, (2010) in their studies, households are regarded as being materially vulnerable if deficient in at least one of these dimensions which includes; poor location household's dwellers, congested living room, poor-quality materials shelter, Non-water accommodation, hygienic ease, no registration of school-age children, a household head with a minimum of primary school leaving certificate and a low dependency ratio.

2.8 Livelihood insecurity: Vulnerability and insecurity of economic implications on human

Security in its existence plays a major role in human being sustenance. Although, the prevalent cost of insecurity that the population are battling with in Nigeria is difficult to measure looking at monetary or real terms of lives. However, human and material resources had been massively costly to pay in the lives of Nigeria as corroborated Coupland (2007) who observed that impact of insecurity has by far reaching people's entire lives and well-being state. But where people's

security on livelihood are being assured of, they are prone to having freedom in both physical and mentally realm to get on with the economic activities of building their lives without fear, irrespective of risk and shock associated with their income generating activities. Thus, to experience a state of complete livelihood security is so fundamental (Meddings, 2001) in one's life, because without security, there can be no stable income and other resources rather there will be prevalent fear from being vulnerable to poverty and when it seems that there is no survival could lead to casualty (Hobbes, 1651, cited in Coupland, *ibid*). There are linkages between human and health security, as insecurity leads to the collapse in the health care delivery which has concomitant on the state of people's livelihood security (Mori, Meddings and Bettcher, 2004) since health security is one of the indicators of livelihood security. Having being displaced, deprived of basic daily needs or fear about getting edible food to eat, water for drinking and also care for health are the element that are associated with the effects of insecurity.

Human livelihood entails securing access to food that has required nutrients for the body, water that is clean for drinking, income that is stable including sanitation and housing which could only accessed when there is peace in the mind and areas that they live. For instance, populations that are being displaced are a subject of series of risks to health and they are probably prone to a high mortality rate. Hence, they are mostly deficient in the possession of food to eat, clean water to drink, doing sanitation that due to cause of diseases, and no possibilities of providing a stable economic due to limit of performing livelihood activities. Yet, undernourishment, overcrowding and poor sanitation often add up together to facilitate the emergence of diseases that are communicable and being transmitted to other populations in those area. Whereas, children and the elderly are the ones who suffered this because they are the population groups that are most vulnerable to poverty, especially when peace and development are not met as part of the dimensions of basic conditions. Also, being in a healthy state of living is an indicator to say human livelihood security is attained (Meddings, 2001; Ghobarah, Huth and Russett, 2004; Mori, *et al.*, 2004; Bhadelia, 2005) in order to perform variety of income generating activities that result in high level of income and access to other resources. In contrary, communicable disease can be widely spread while, insecurity exist among human due to instability of such area where medical supplies and equipments become scarce and skilled doctors and nurses being in a state

of fear that situation of insecurity can inhibit health care system, as such facilities are often destroyed leaving no place for people to seek treatment (Mori, *et al.*, 2004).

On the economic impact of insecurity, most agricultural business are meant to be productive if dependent largely on the available land, capital and regular supply of input for production since rural households primarily secure their livelihood on agricultural related activities. Insecurity has cut off the supply of these productive items, hence, jeopardizing agricultural production activities. Besides this, insecurity in terms of climatic changes which affects marketing of harvested product because of flooded soils, destruction of crop cultivation due to whether, loss of harvest which is tantamount to loss of capital has ruined not a few farming enterprises in Nigeria. Thus, livelihood security cannot be achieved without economic growth and development because germane for the nation's development (Achumba, Ighomereho and Akpor-Robaro, 2013) for the purpose of food surplus in meeting the demand of the populace and as well increase the economic status of the producer (farming household). This therefore translates to having a response to risk of being vulnerable to poverty consequently impair or worse-off their livelihood security.

2.9 Household livelihood strategies processes in Nigeria

Livelihood strategies processes are otherwise known as diversity of livelihood activities. Therefore, the act of introducing ranging of investments or goods and services is referred to diversification. On the other hand, diversification of Income is the increase in the number of income sources and ability to strike a balance among the diverse sources of income. Looking at the link of diversification relative to livelihood activities (non-farming and farming activities) in the rural areas, income diversification is often used when expanding from one activity and taking the other as an alternative sources of income. Thus, diversification into non-farm activities usually implies more diversity due to seasonality nature of main income sources of rural households. Apata, Igbalajobi and Awoniyi (2010) revealed that involvement in non-farm activity translate to regular earnings from other labour employment and business investments aside from seasonal farming activities. This further explains that agriculture is characterized by seasonal variations in production as well as longer production cycles, many households diversify into non-farm investments with regular incomes; others also take off-farm employment as part time activities.

Meanwhile, Shittu, Ashaolu and Odunsanya (2005) suggested that income generated by rural farming households' cannot offer them their expected income since activities that are not related to farming contributes about half of the income on the overall. In line with this, Awoniyi and Salman (2012) pointed farming out among the activities that the households do. And that the household are more vulnerable to poverty compared to those who are not involved in unrelated farming activities when compared with farming households that engaged in non-farm income generating activities. Fikru (2008) opined that the income diversification converges on an estimate of roughly 40 percent of African rural household income on average being derived from non-farm sources. The author further revealed that non-farm sector offers potential to absorb a growing rural labour force which slows rural-urban migration, thereby, contributes to national income growth, and promotes a more equitable distribution of income. The greater the degree of diversification of households, the better-off they are in terms of totality of their income (Fikru, 2008). Lending credence to this, Delil (2001) pointed out that farming households who broadened their beneficial exercises to both non-farm and off-farm economy are observed to be in an ideal situation when contrasted with the individuals who restricted their operation to the farm segment, inferring the critical effect of both non-farm and off farm livelihood and income on neediness easing and full time off farm administrators are the individuals from the most noticeably awful destitution ridden groups. Ellis (1998) opined that income sources are primarily grouped into farm, off farm and non-farm income. He recognized two explanations for livelihood diversification: desperation (destitution, absence of benefits, vulnerability, disaster) and; decision and opportunities including proactive family unit systems for enhancing expectations for everyday comforts.

2.10 Livelihood diversification as a way forward to livelihood security

The Food and Agriculture Organization reported that there are more than 214 million people in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) who are vulnerable to chronic hunger (FAO, IFAD and WFP 2014). This assertion could be traced to the distribution of people sustaining their lives on less than \$1.25 a day in this region. But starting from 2008, it was recorded that there was a drop off in the number of people within this group of chronic hunger in the region, yet, remains the highest in the world with proportion of 48.2% in 2010 (World Bank, 2010). In recent years, the forefront goals of both the national and international policy agenda is targeting towards alleviating poverty and at the same time achieving food security in SSA. The pathway to food security is

diversifying into agricultural sector and makes it central in their economies especially in regions where food security is a major challenge and this could be a saving grace on the growth and development of the countries (World Bank, 2008).

Nonetheless, climatic conditions are associated with success and failure of agriculture by its very nature, whereas, very high number of people dependent on rain-fed agriculture since majority could not afford to practice irrigation system of farming and being the rural areas are main producing food for the urban centre's a lot of them practiced traditional method of farming in SSA. However, the implications of climate variability are easy to imagine in the sceneries associated with poverty and vulnerability. Recent researches on global climate change suggest possibilities of increased hazards that are natural occurrences, as well as the variability of climatic parameters such rainfall, temperature etc. (IPCC, 2012) that could impose a threat on their agricultural activities which may consequently affect their livelihood. As a result, it is expected that availability, accessibility, utilization, and stability of food may be potentially deteriorated by climate change since they form the integral part of food security. That is, food security may not be fully achieved due to climate variability (Challinor *et al.*, 2010 and IPCC, 2014).

Households exposed to the risks of weather and other shocks thus, have significant incentives to develop strategies to adapt or cope with the effects of climate variability especially on agricultural production being the mainstay of rural economy (Morton, 2007 and Howden, Soussana, Tubiello, Chhetri, Dunlop, and Meinke 2007). In an attempt to diversify their economy, strategies such as; crop, labour and income diversification are quite important in these contexts in order to spread risk and being able to cope with shortfalls during off seasons. Although, the motivations and outcomes of transitions may vary significantly since the poorest are classified to be incapacitated to deploy effective ways of managing risk. Meanwhile, increasing climate risk could impose constraints upon their farms activities and diversification as a response option to address that. In this sense, they are pushed to diversify as an alternative to cope with the risk of either becoming or remaining poor. In contrast, a wealthier household has capacity to pull diversification by the existence of welfare thereby increasing diversification options, as well as to access them towards attaining a secure livelihood.

Diversification may thus, be considered as a strategy being deliberately deployed by households to either leverage incomes smoothly or to manage risks and also may be an involuntary response to cope with the disaster that could pose a threats, risks and shocks of vulnerability (Bryceson, 1996, Bryceson 1999; Delgado and Siamwalla 1999; Toulmin, Leonard, Brock, Coulibaly, Carswell, and Dea, 2000 and Barrett, Reardon and Webb, 2001). Hence, rural poor engagement in diversifying activities serves as a safety-net in lifting them out of the poverty circle, while the rural wealth can build up asset through the means (Ellis, 1998). In addition, variability of rainfall differs across regions but where it is high, households may come to a decision in preparing to diversify their income as a management of possible risk and shocks. Alternatively, post happenings of climatic shocks can induced or even forced households to diversify due to the negative effects of the happenings (e.g., harvest shortfalls).

Diversification as an approach to manage risk and shock, may likely yield lower average well-being outcomes since its effect may address vulnerability, and as well directly influence income security when an extreme event of climate and other risks push households does occur on their primary occupation (Barrett, Reardon and Webb, 2001; Ellis, 2004; Reardon Berdegúe, Barrett and Stamoulis 2006 and Bandyopadhyay and Skoufias, 2013). For instance, food produces by the households can be potentially reduced when neglecting farm work due to the competition for family labour between farm and off-farm work, but can as well respond to risk associated with climatic variation of farming activities (Huang, Sherman and Lempicki, 2009 and Pfeiffer, López-Feldman and Taylor, 2009). Additionally, there are considerable factors that can drive households to diversify their activities which include; diminishing factor returns (e.g., land productivity reducing returns as population increases), lack of credit, imperfect or missing factor markets, and high cost of transactions of market output that does not favour specialization (Barrett, Reardon and Webb, 2001; Reardon, Berdegúe, Barrett and Stamoulis 2006 and Lay, Nahrloch and Omar Mahmoud, 2009).

On the other hand, as important as diversification appears to livelihood, the transit strategy from subsistence to commercial agriculture is considered to be adequately articulate for rural households engaged primarily in agriculture, often shifting from poor to better livelihood outcomes (Pingali and Rosegrant, 1995). In this context, diversification of livelihood with strategies stems from pull factors, such as higher wage rates and higher income from

entrepreneurial activities, which should be associated with efficiency in their economic life and collective output (Bandyopadhyay and Skoufias, 2013) of a secure livelihood. Household and individuals can diversify livelihood portfolios in different ways. Hussein and Nelson (1999); Ellis (2000); Barrett, Reardon and Webb (2001) suggested that classifications of activities which are severally based on rural livelihood portfolios that the focus have different criteria like farm added with non-farm, on-farm along with off-farm activities local based added with nomadic and self solely work versus wage labour. All these classifications are useful process of livelihood where you set an alternative measure in form of diversification which entails choices that can easily make sense of by nature (De Janvry,1981). Generally, diversification option of enterprise looks attractive because of its capacity that declares promotion in the phase of rural livelihoods in a sustainable approach. Dixon, Gulliver and Gibbon (2001) also spelt out the development approaches of a small-scale enterprise and labour-intensive households' enterprises as the most promising strategy to reduce rural poverty and ascertain security state of livelihood.

In addition, quite a lot of studies have been done (Barrett, Bezuneh and Abud, 2001; Ellis and Bahigwa,` 2001; Ferreira and Lanjouw 2001 and Escobal 2001) while they indicated that range of farmers that are capable to combine conventional farming activities with innovative rural enterprises enjoyed a wide range of income and secure livelihoods having compared with that of farming household that only derive their income from conventional farming alone or from a combination of wage labourer to another person's farm and conventional farming. But, notwithstanding, rural households that are accessible to some basic conditions to build upon small enterprise development can sustain their livelihoods when being viable. Some of the conditions are access to available reasonable start-up capital enterprise and may comprehend natural (land), human (labor, know-how), financial (saving, credit), physical (infrastructure) and social (cooperative networks) assets depending on the nature of the protection approach against shocks and negative trends such as social welfare and insurance schemes etc. Also, business development services, credit, transport and communication infrastructures and policies enables supportive structures and processes of rural enterprise (Escobal 2001).

Also, access to a well developed market refers to provision of a steady supply of inputs, food and other consumption commodities also an outlet to enterprise outputs. These should constitutes access to information on such market, contracting and other vertical prospects and resilience that

could serve as a response against market failure as well as capacity to change the enterprise according to changes in demand and market contingencies (Woldehanna and Oskam 2001; Barrett, Bezuneh and Abud 2001; Rider Smith, Gordon, Meadows and Zwick. 2001; Abdulai and Crole Rees 2001). In addition, external investments are significantly required in enhancing access to natural resources, credit, education or training, services of infrastructure and fair market outlets are thus needed to develop rural activity viably as an effective component of rural livelihood security and poverty alleviation policies.

2.11 History of social safety nets

The long history of Social Safety Sets (SSNs) as a protective mechanism for the poor can be traced back as far as Ancient Egypt and the Roman Empire. In orderliness, safety net came first in response to adverse effects of structural adjustment in the development discourse during the 1980's (Adato, Ahmed and Lund, 2004). The concept was later popularized in East Asia countries during the economic or financial crisis (Paitoonpong, Abe and Poupongsakorn, 2008).

With globalization in the 1990's, new experiences were acquired causing economic crises worldwide, but subsequently led to the extension of the concept of safety net short term to longer term interventions which is known as social protection. Social protection has long been regarded as institutional mechanisms for resolving domestic issues in developing countries, where it originated to protect people from economic vulnerabilities that present a risk to the security situation and also to support or assist the vulnerable (Norton, Conway and Foster, 2001). In the context of the developing world, social protection is a new term that expands from the concept of short-term safety net programmes, and emphasizes a longer-term development approach, which includes social assistance and insurance especially for the vulnerable ones or poor households of rural communities.

2.12 Safety net programmes against vulnerability to poverty

The occurrence of substantial decline in income due to hardship has been aided with Social Safety Net Programmes (SSNPs). This was governmental programs set up by public measures in order to protect the vulnerable groups in diverse types of economic and social in the society. By and large, SSNPs are tool designed to reallocate poorer settlement in order to transfer resources that would enable them to come out of poverty and as well as, providing to them greater prospect

towards mitigating risk of unforeseen eventualities. In short, issues like uncertain events, poverty, vulnerability as well as insecurity are aimed towards the needful of SSNPs. Safety nets therefore do not only protect individuals from loss of employment, sudden illness, or natural disasters which are associated with transient periods of poverty, but individuals are also being protected from poverty that can exist throughout the generation of such individual. This can be said to be exposure to lack of education and poor health, specifically in childhood. Thus, the programmes of safety net generate a way forwards in reducing poverty in the long run. In other words, the motivation of both equity and efficiency through safety net programme mechanism considers investing in human capital as a form of reducing poverty. SSNPs have its dimensions having covered three different groups who is at risk of the chronic poor (those that are not liable to good living even there are opportunities in doing so); the people that are in a state of temporary poor (transient) and the groups that belong to vulnerable populations (those that do not experience a stable live that can lead to prosperity). The SSNPs appropriateness targeted two approaches in achieving their goal. These are approaches to promotion and protection. Raising the incomes and employment opportunities for the poor ones are undertaken by Promotion approach while the protection approach thereby aimed at reducing the vulnerable ones (Khuda, 2011).

SSNPs targeted towards the right populations which they are regarded as beneficiaries. For reason being, the program is thereby not controversial because the people who promote programmes consider to sort for equity as a way to ensure equal distribution of packages meant for the population which is centered on broad economic benefits in order to achieve development (Alderman and Hoddinott, 2007). In times of crisis and distress, such programme stabilizes the potentiality of social and economic depth of the crisis. It could also serve as a long-term investment by ensuring future benefits on high verge. On the other hand, the critics consider such programmes as nothing other than a way of wasting scarce public resources and hamper the economy, especially in a least developed country like ours where resources are extremely scarce. They added that SSNPs also discourage work and savings but encourage laziness and idleness. In spite of all the criticisms, ILO and WHO, (2009) still estimated a minimum set of transfers which is not costly with per capita terms. Often, such programmes is in countries that are deficient in acquiring resources are only around 2 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP), an amount

which could be better the poor by getting benefits of reallocating unproductive expenses that may possibly offer the little tangible resources (Khuda, 2011).

The two major media of social safety nets since independence in 1971, were food rations and relief of work where 70% of the population lived below the poverty line (Morshed, 2009). With the passage of time, notable progresses were recorded through sophisticated safety net measures in reducing widespread of poverty incidence. The government has merged efforts to eliminate poverty by means of a safety net, directly or indirectly, under the oversight of various ministries. There are quite number of SSNPs services, but still not sufficient enough to lessening the rate of poverty. It is now crucial to scrutinize the impact of the existing safety net programmes on reducing poverty in Bangladesh and identify the kind and sophisticated programmes which would be more suitable for the country socioeconomic condition as it may be replicated for the purpose of this study.

Among the very poor households, 36 percent have escaped extreme poverty, even with the benefit they received as a security net participant, providing clear evidence from the World Bank Group report that social security net programs have a positive impact on global poverty reduction. The social impact of security networks on poverty can be assessed on the basis of data available from 79 countries at the household level, comparing the welfare of those benefiting from safety net programs with what it would have been if they had not received such support. Data from the State of Social Security Networks (Safety Net), 2018 reported that cash and kind transfers, social pensions, public works, and feeding of school children are embedded in safety nets programmes targeted to poor and vulnerable households in order to ensure equality and also reduce the poverty gap of the population by about 45 percent, even if they do not emerge from poverty. The low and middle income countries alike have a grip of positive effects of safety net transfers.

Despite the increased adoption of safety net programmes by countries in recent years, global deficiency are still accounted as regards to coverage of poor and vulnerable people. About 2.5 billion people worldwide are covered by a social safety net, of which 650 million are in the poorest with 20 percent. However, only one out of five persons living in a country with stumpy income is covered by a social safety net. Furthermore, countries at high risk of natural disasters

often have lower safety net coverage that is why safety net has not been fully achieved with decentralization of the targeted goal.

Developing and transition countries spend an average of 1.5 percent of GDP on social safety net programmes. Such programmes are by far exhaustive in terms of fund in many countries because they see the impact they make on reducing poverty. Countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia regions are also introducing flagship of social safety net programmes and are rapidly expanding coverage. For example, in Senegal just for four years, the flagship of National Cash Transfer Programme expanded swiftly from percentage of 3 to 16 of the population, while in the Philippines, the expansion was percentage of 5 to 20 of the population for flagship of Pantawid conditional cash transfer programme since 2010.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) suggested public insurance for the disabled, where 90% of the workforce can be covered, but most countries have no room to do so. This is why so many elders cannot follow their special needs in developing countries in particular, except for the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean, and almost Europe and Central Asia, which have been able to compensate for this to push their economies to 70 percent and 65 percent.

The study tracking development and coverage is positioned as the third in a series of articles on social security nets (safety nets) in the developing world. It helps benchmark individual countries and regions where it stands in terms of evaluating net social security spending, primary performance metrics and effects on poverty reduction and inequality. The analysis presented in the report uses data from the administrative of 142 countries and household survey data for 96 countries as shown in the ASPIRE database. This provides much needed empirical evidences in the sustainable development goals (SDGs) because of the context of an increasing global focus on social protection.

By records, progress has been made for the poor and vulnerable around the world through social safety nets programmes, but much more needs to significantly filled coverage and benefit gaps and the international development community needs to continue working with such countries to

address these disparities in order to assist the vulnerable groups to become livelihood secure for a guaranteed livelihood.

2.13 Theoretical framework and model

The following theories are considered to be relevant for this study:

2.13.1 The livelihood security model

The household livelihood security (HLS) model was carried out in the late 1980s and early 1990, but CARE officially adopted HLS as a programming framework in 1994. The evolution of the concepts and issues related to household food and nutritional security led to the development of HLS since it might be misleading to treat food security as a fundamental need, independent of broader livelihood consideration. This model has been conceptualized with the assumption that in the society, every household must meet their basic requirements (and not just subsistence) of livelihood, which are relatively dependent on the endeavours putting in place from the part of an individual household member on both institutional and public policies because it indicates and emphasizes household action, perceptions and choices. At the household level shown in Figure 2, that there are several livelihood strategies (production, consumption, processing and marketing of economic activities) deployed by the households in the face of the capital resources (natural, human, social and financial) having access and claims over the resources. Therefore, households strategize the resources optimally in the context of shock and stresses of vulnerability since individual economic and social ways of lives are based on risk. Although, the capability of the individual household determines the level at which it could strategize to. In the context of shocks and stresses on either natural resources based, having considered the infrastructures of the environment, historical background, economic structure, cultural and political structure of the environment, to know whether it supports the activities/portfolio to be done, for the purpose of certain livelihood outcomes of such household tend towards a security state of food, health, shelter, education and sometimes assist them to participate in the social group within the community.

Relationship that exists between this model and the concept of household livelihood security ladder is based on the assumption of meeting household basic requirement (income, food, health, education and housing) in declaration of a household being livelihood secure. Meanwhile, the

significance of this model to this study is that individual household boast their capacity along with personal characteristic of the household head (age, marital status and household size etc) possessed in order to strategise economic activities to ascertain or secure income for the purpose of earning survival through food they eat, stability of their health, housing and education acquired that may transform their lives in which may be limited to their choices. In view of this, household could have their way out even in the presence of unexpected shocks and stresses since the context is embedded in a secure livelihood. Therefore, household that are not potentially viable could not strategise adequately and they are liable not to cope with unforeseen situations that of may make them vulnerable to poverty. This may also jeopardize their participation in the community obligations where they belong and translate to overall livelihood security.

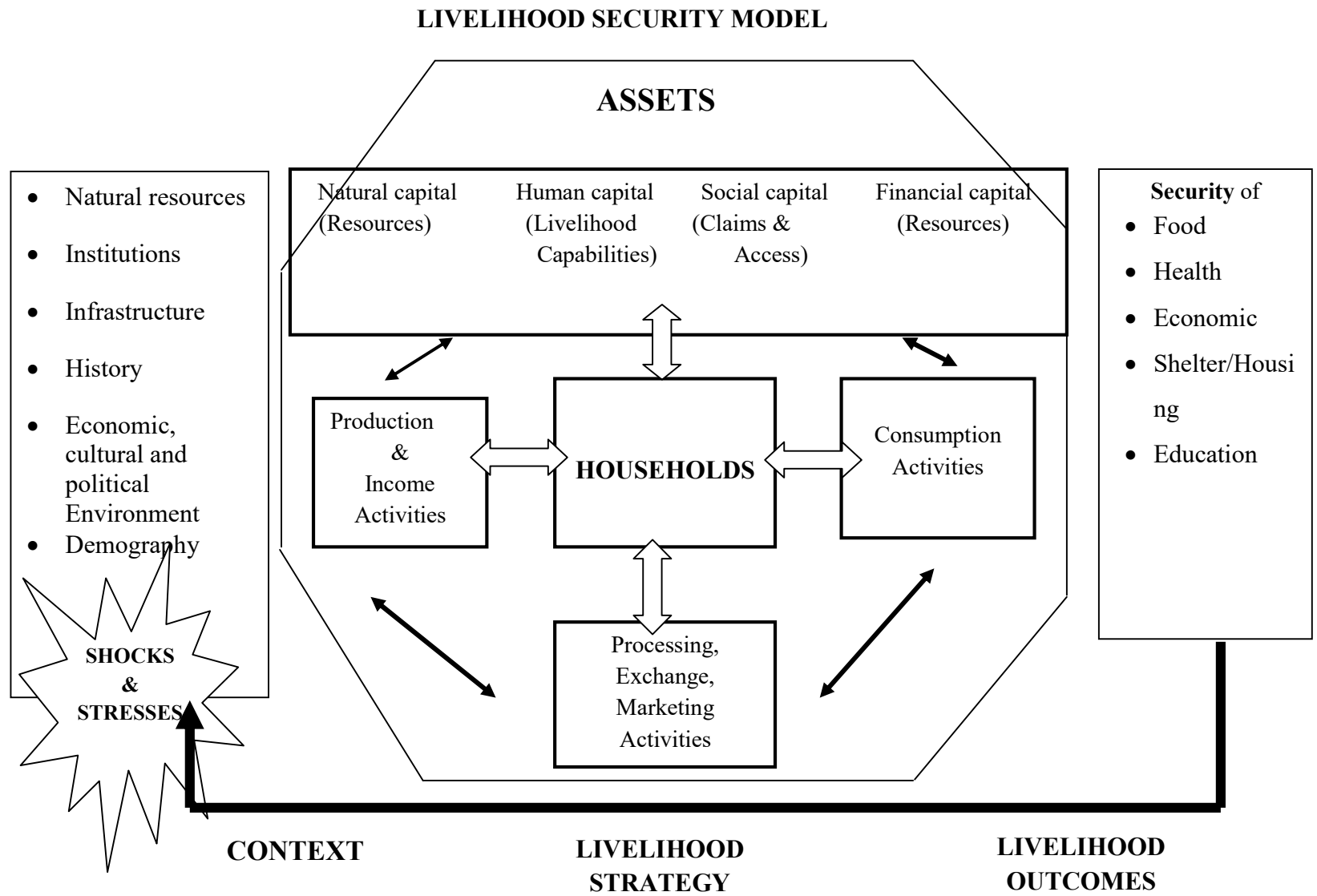


Figure 2: Livelihood Security Model adapted from Afzar Swift, (1989), Carney, (1998), Frankemberger and Drinkwater, (1999)

2.13.2 The entitlement approach

The conceptual categories in the entitlement approach are as follows;

- i. The set of endowment;
- ii. The set of entitlement and
- iii. The mapping entitlement.

The entitlement approach give a clear concept of its categories where *endowment set* is a as the combination of all the resources that are owned legally by a person that conforms to the established standard practices of life. The resources are said to be both tangible and intangible assets. The tangible assets includes; such as land, equipment, animals while the intangibles assets includes; acquired knowledge and skills, labour power, and membership of a particular group in the community. The *entitlement set* can be regarded as the possible combinations of all goods and services (not just the one actually being enjoyed) that a person can legally obtain using the resources of his/her endowment set. The approach adopted in producing, exchanging and transferring the use of resources to get to final goods and services, while E-mapping is also known as *entitlement mapping*. This is simply the connection between endowment set and entitlement set. It is the rate at which the resources of the endowment set being converted into goods and services of the entitlement set.

Entitlement analysis is predicated on the implicit assumption that a food shortage triggers an automatic behavioural response, namely the conversion of endowments into food for survival and other resources for secure livelihood which could invariably tend towards not being vulnerable to poverty. Thus, the "starvation package" of a individual is described as "those bundles of endowments such that the corresponding exchange entitlement sets do not contain bundles that meet their minimum food requirements." (Sen, 1981). For Instance, households anticipated some coping strategies thereby stretching their arms to several livelihood activities for them to be able to earn more income and at the same time consume food at the right time and pursue other resources so as to have a secure livelihood. Likewise they may tend to ration themselves from unexpected expenses that does not add value to the immediate household unit as this could serve as a strategic response to vulnerability that can hinder them from being livelihood secure. In this view, this approach helps the individuals, in making decisions about resource allocation (livelihood strategy distribution, food procurement and intra-household coping strategy) within the household with the people who will face the consequences of these

difficult choices and trade-offs (vulnerability to poverty) leading to livelihood insecurity. Hence, the significance of this entitlement approach based on the contention of this study is that, when households are endowed with several resources in the communities where they belong, the right for such individual household to claim its ownership is through accessibility to those resources along with their personal characteristics (education attained, age and marital status) possessed as a function of efficient utilization of those resources. This could also enhance their abilities to cope with the happenings of vulnerability to poverty surrounded with those resources being endowed with, in order not to hinder their control over those resources since having right to access and total control over resources is a prerequisite of its sustainability in the future. Therefore, the sustainability would translate to a secure livelihood having converted into resources (economic, food, health, housing and education security).

2.13.3 Human security approach

Human Security approach was propounded by scholars such as Mary Kaldor, Kofi Anan, Thomas and Roberts. The concept emerged after the Cold War and was first propounded by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1994. Unlike the traditional goal of national security which emphasised the defence of the state from external threat, the central argument of this approach is that security should focus on the individual because a people centered view of security is required for national, regional and global stability. This is premised on the fact that threats to human life emanate not only from situation of violent conflicts but other non-conflict sources of threats such as poverty, infectious diseases, terrorism, environmental degradation etc (Saliu, Luqman and Abdullahi, 2007).

Human Security is therefore concerned with the protection of people from critical and life threatening dangers. Thomas (2001) sees this approach as 'a state of life that includes essential material requirements.' The Commission on Human Security (CHS) defines it as 'the protection of the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and fulfillment. Haq (1994) in a United Nations Development Programme's Report identified seven categories of threats to human security which include economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security. Also, lack of basic security is the absence of one or more factors that enable individuals and families to assume basic responsibilities and to enjoy fundamental rights.

This situation may become more extended and lead to more serious and permanent consequences. Thus, extreme poverty occurs when the absence of basic protection affects many aspects of people's lives at the same time, when it is prolonged, and when it seriously undermines the chances of people regaining their rights and accepting their obligations in the near future (Wresinski, 1987, quoted in Hulme, Moore and Shepherd, 2001). Hence, the significance of this theory demands strategies to curb insecurity both now and future to articulate sustainable development since the approach argues hunger, poverty and natural disaster that can contribute to individual insecurity. This approach is therefore important at the household level of rural people such that their household characteristics in terms of capacities in size, activeness of head of household age in strategising economic live towards securing basic requirement in an attempt to be livelihood secure. Similarly, rural household condition as regards to human security existence is based on the premise of adequate access to basic necessities that could sustain their immediate household unit. That is, the productivity of individual household depends on their state of human resources (educational level, food intake, health status) and also address their deprivations in terms of material, economic and social way of lives in fulfilling both the immediate and community obligations which could invariably facilitate their contribution to a positive outcome “livelihood security” even in the face of confronted threats, risks and shocks of vulnerability. But, in a situation where there are no attempt to pursue less vulnerability to poverty in terms of material condition, economic and social positions, households tend to have an alternative of negative outcome “livelihood insecurity”.

2.13.4 Sustainable livelihood framework

Sustainable livelihood framework is a valuable scheme for investigating means by which people are able to survive (Chambers and Conway, 1992). This framework permits an escape from previous classification of rural dwellers as farmers or herdsmen, but, the fact is that most rural households have many means of livelihood support. Instead of their weaknesses and needs, the theory emphasizes the potential, competence, capacity and strength of rural dwellers. The theory is also a method of managing all types of capital in relationships with changing systems i.e transforming structures and reducing vulnerability by working with institutions. According to DFID (2005), Sustainable livelihoods are based on the idea that there are factors that impede activities on which people base their livelihoods, thus reducing the livelihood result as shown in

Figure 3. Sustainable livelihood framework presents its components to be spontaneous and simultaneous that does not agree with reality, this necessitates the system approach that suggests that human-made phenomena can be modeled as a set of interrelated components working together to accomplish some kind of process. It is apparent that the purpose of poor people's engagement in the on-farm and off-farm activity is to realize economic benefit that will lift them out of poverty.

Sustainable livelihood and its basis for this study desires to empower the capacity of people in order to earn income that meets both current and future economic and social needs and also minimizes their vulnerability to external stresses and shocks (Ashley and Carney, 1999) in a way of accessing a secure livelihood. Meanwhile, the failure of the income to meet improved standards of living can be regarded as an unsustainable livelihood activity as this could have an influence on livelihood insecurity. Furthermore, the continuity of the economic benefit should be seen in the long term perspective, specifically as long as individuals are engaged in the activity. Thus, the implication of this theory particularly focus on households and how inter-related the resources are to them, in terms of accessibility and effective utilization of those resources. Also, influence of capital assets on household in the face of vulnerability context of trends, shocks and seasonality could expose their livelihood activities to risk, since farming has to be the main livelihood activities in the rural areas, whereas, the strategy they deploy through diversifying their economic activities to other income generating activities, probably non-agricultural related activities with capability and competence in terms of characteristics that the households possesses could strengthen them in acquiring both material (productive tools, land and physical possessions) and non-material assets (in terms of social network, access to education, skills and knowledge) in a sustainable manner. And once there is sustainability there is an opportunity for the household being predisposed to reduce vulnerability to poverty which leans on a secure livelihood and vice-versa.

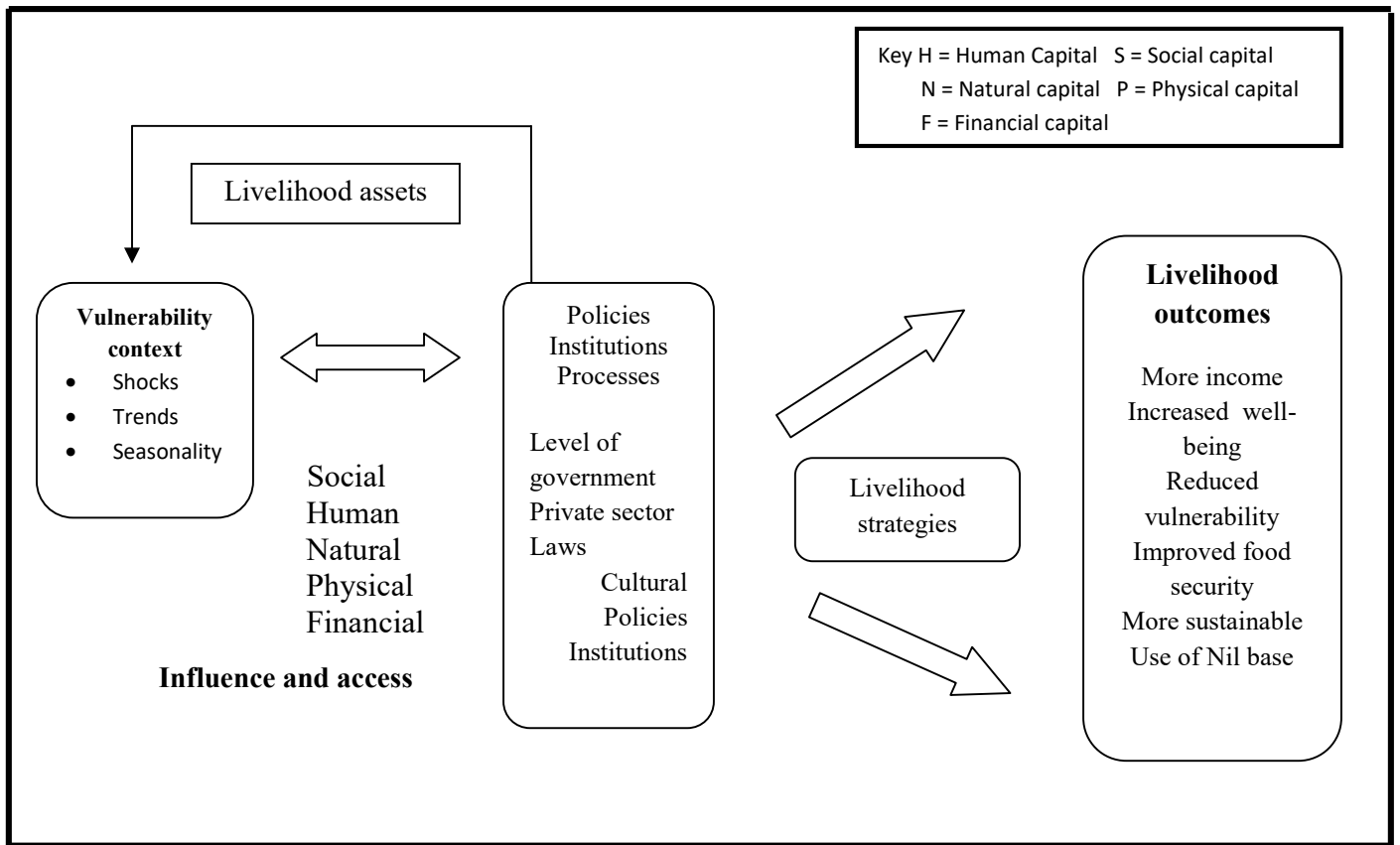


Figure 3: Sustainable Livelihood framework (DFID, 2005)

2.14 Conceptual framework

Conceptual framework is the schematic representation of the inter-relationships that exist between the independent, intervening and the dependent variables identified as important in this study. Therefore, the conceptual framework (Figure 4) was conceived as an interface for three types of variables. It indicates the progression of inter-relationship among variables from the characteristics of the use of analysis up to the final output of the research which is the dependent variable. The independent variables considered in this study were selected personal characteristics (age, educational attainment, household size, occupation, sex and religion of the respondents), vulnerability to poverty (material conditions, economic positions and social positions), social group participation within the community and coping strategies that could mediate or mitigate vulnerability to poverty. All these were measured and directly accountable for the level and its effect on livelihood security (economic security, food security, health security, housing security, education security).

According to Kerlinger (1973), intervening variables are variables which influence other variables of the study; they are government policies especially on social safety net programme that could assist in bringing the poor out of poverty cycle, environmental factors (flooding, climate change), socio-cultural factors and development/intervention programmes e.t.c, which can either influence or indirectly affect the rural households on the basis of livelihood security.

The framework shown in Figure 4 represents the distinction and organizes ideas of inter-relationship of the presumed cause and presumed effect. Personal characteristics are presumed to have an effect on livelihood security that is, personal characteristics directly influence economic security and is also being presumed to determine the variables like food, health, housing security such that the income earned from the occupational engagement could be proportional to other productive resources of the households. That is, how secure the household food would be, since, the type and rationing of food determine how sound their health would be, whether they make use of health care service whenever they experience illnesses. The security state of household income is dependent on the kind of education they pursue for their children and also security level of their housing, since paying too large from household income on shelter could limit adequate access to other resources translating to insecure livelihood. This study also expects that participation level in social group within the community would directly translates to a secure

livelihood. For instance, individual with low socioeconomic status tend not to socialize since, livelihood security affiliations is commonly attached to social capital. Therefore, a poor household could be constrained to participate in social obligations within their community as this could be under influence of other independent variable, which is directly proportional to the level of rural household livelihood security. Although, personal characteristics, vulnerability to poverty (material conditions, economic positions and social positions) and community participation are presumed to interlink with one another since respondents' age sometimes has to do with the experience gained, acquired skills and knowledge to practice their income generating activities, which is also a derivative factor of how livelihood security (economic security, food security, health security, housing security, education security) of the respondent function or operates. Also, respondents' sex may directly relate with social group participation within the community, since community obligations differs across gender. Respondents' coping strategies to vulnerability may likely relate with the level of vulnerability to poverty, since immediate household deploy strategies not to be exposed to risk and shocks of vulnerability in acquiring livelihood resources to pursue a secure livelihood. That is, once the household is not vulnerable to poverty, they as well tends to be livelihood secure.

There is interplay of this independent variable having relationship with the dependent variable because it has an effect on the outcome of the study. Invariably, cultural factors, government policies on social safety net, such as; empowerment programmes and community development programme and environmental factors such as drought, climatic changes, flood et.c (Intervening variable) which are presumed to cumulatively determine their involvement in several income generating activities have seasonality as a constraints to access those income generating activities. This could directly influence their level of livelihood security when there is inability to cope with some of the variables that are not considerably measured, but can be seen as a factor that could constrain the households in accessing a secure livelihood. The outcome of this interplay is expected that the effect of vulnerability to poverty (presumed cause) would be subjected to the level of livelihood security (presumed effect) of the rural households in the study area.

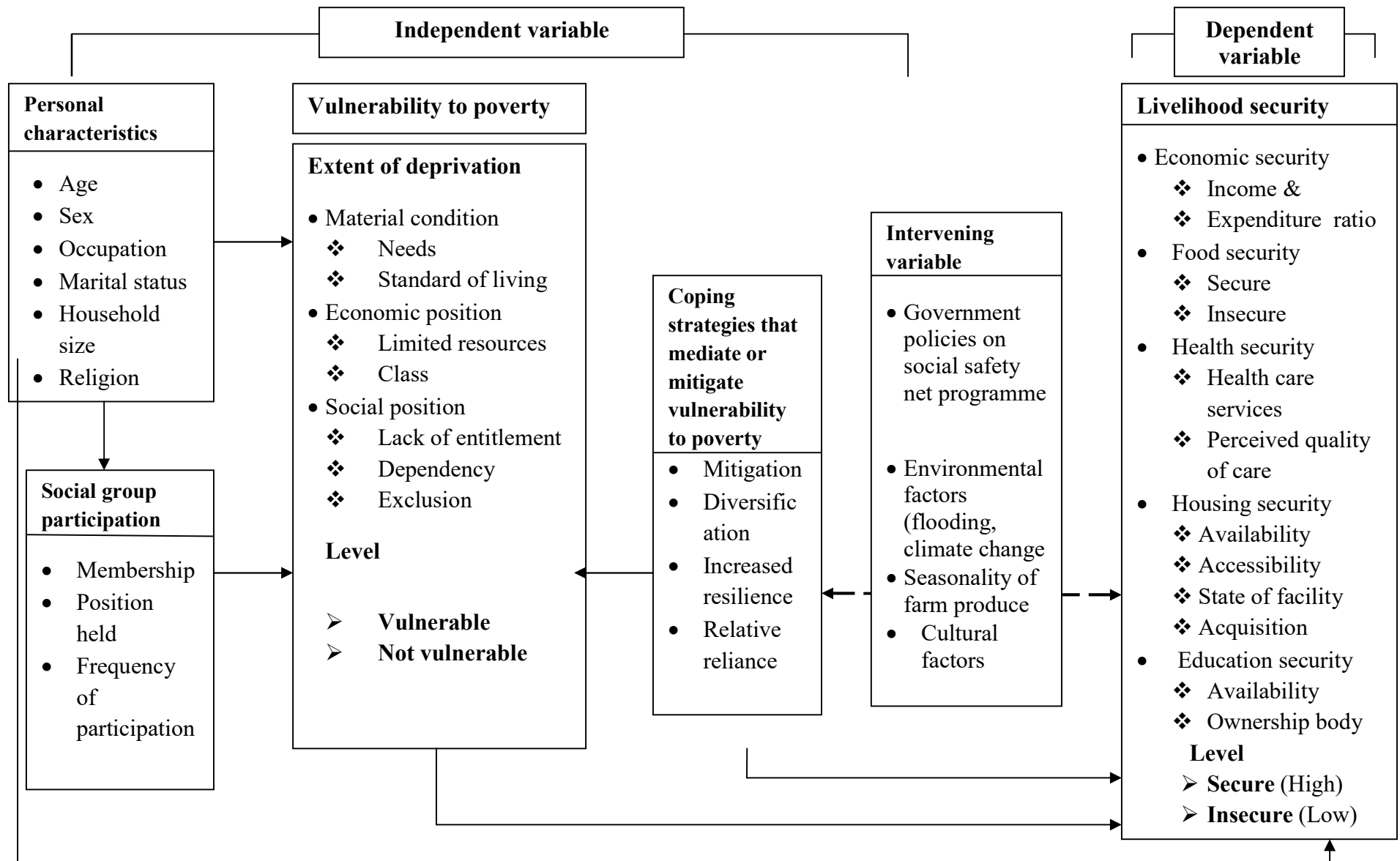


Figure 4: Conceptual framework on vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security among rural households' in southwestern Nigeria

CHAPTER THREE

3.0

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Area of study

This research work was conducted in south-western Nigeria, one of the six agricultural zones (southwest, south-south, southeast, north central, northeast and northwest) in Nigeria. Southwestern Nigeria is positioned between the latitude of $5^{\circ}8'$ and $9^{\circ}10'$ with an area 76,283sq.Km and also representing 12 percent of Nigeria's total land mass. The southwestern of Nigeria constituted six states namely; Lagos, Ogun, Oyo, Osun, Ondo and Ekiti. Each of the state has both rural and urban areas depending on their location. According to 2006 population estimates, it had a provisional population of 27,581,993 people (Federal Republic of Nigeria Official Gazette, 2007).

The surrounding tropical condition is typically high in humidity and temperature. The typical weather of the climate in southwestern Nigeria is predominantly humid with distinct dry and wet seasons. An annual average temperature ranges from 18°C - 24°C during rainy season and 30°C - 35°C during dry seasons. During the dry season, the temperature of this area is relatively high with the around 33°C and low during the rainy season averagely. So also, the amount of the rainfall ranges from 1000 mm to about 2000 mm. This makes the planting of arable crops and tree crops to thrive well. There are tropical rainforest, mangrove forest and guinea savannah vegetation covered the southwestern Nigeria as regards the vegetation. In southwestern part of Nigeria there are many natural resources ranging from land, water bodies, minerals, forests, and agriculture that influence livelihood security of the households. The soils of southwestern states are suitable for cultivating both forest and agricultural crops like oil palm, kolanut, cocoa, rubber, rice, yam, maize and cassava, among others.

The economy in the rural areas of southwest is primarily agrarian with diverse to other non-agricultural activities (trading, blacksmithing, tailoring artisanal jobs, civil service e.t.c.) which dictates the structure of household income earning necessitating household livelihood security.

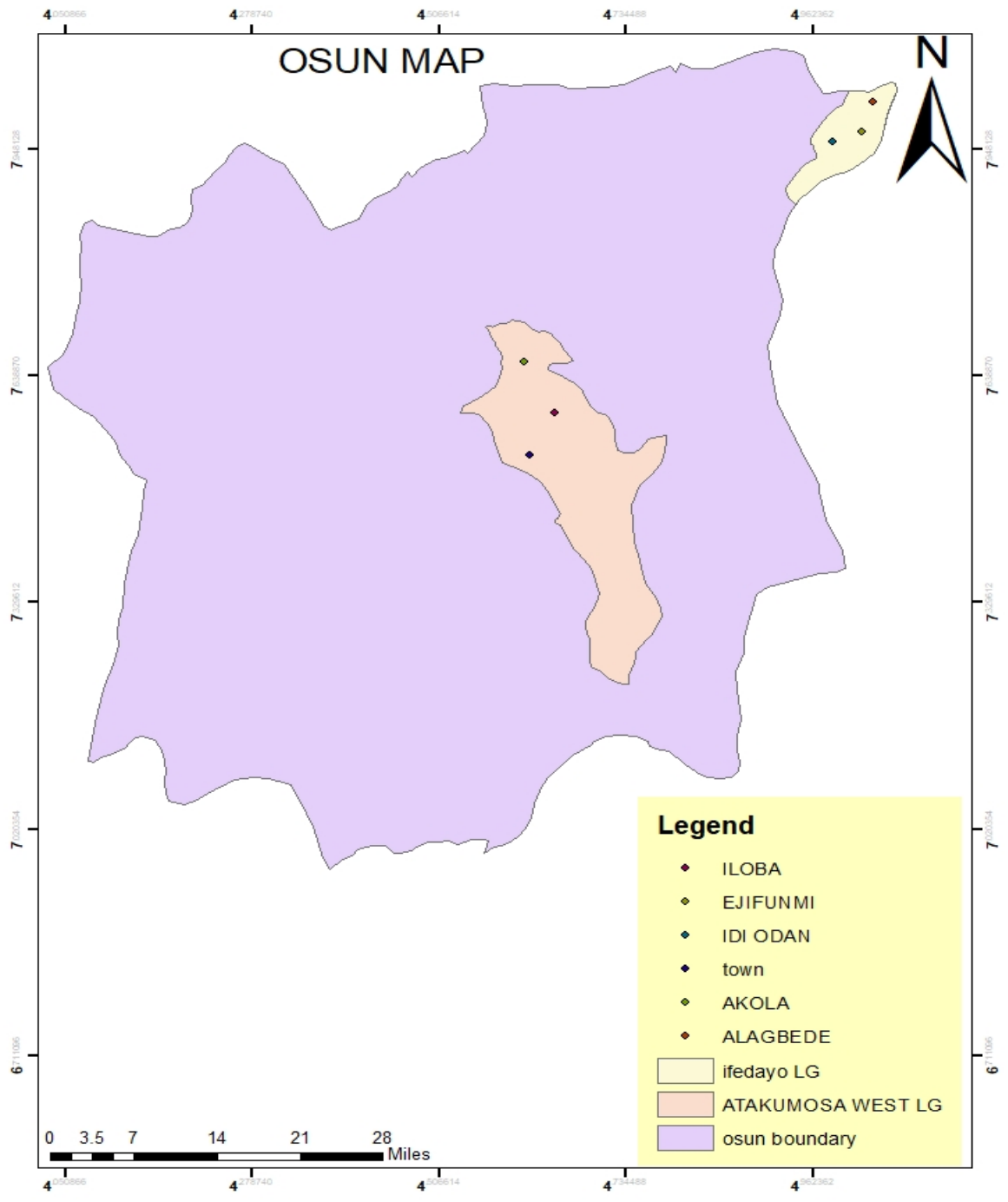


Figure 5: A map showing sampled areas of Osun State, Nigeria

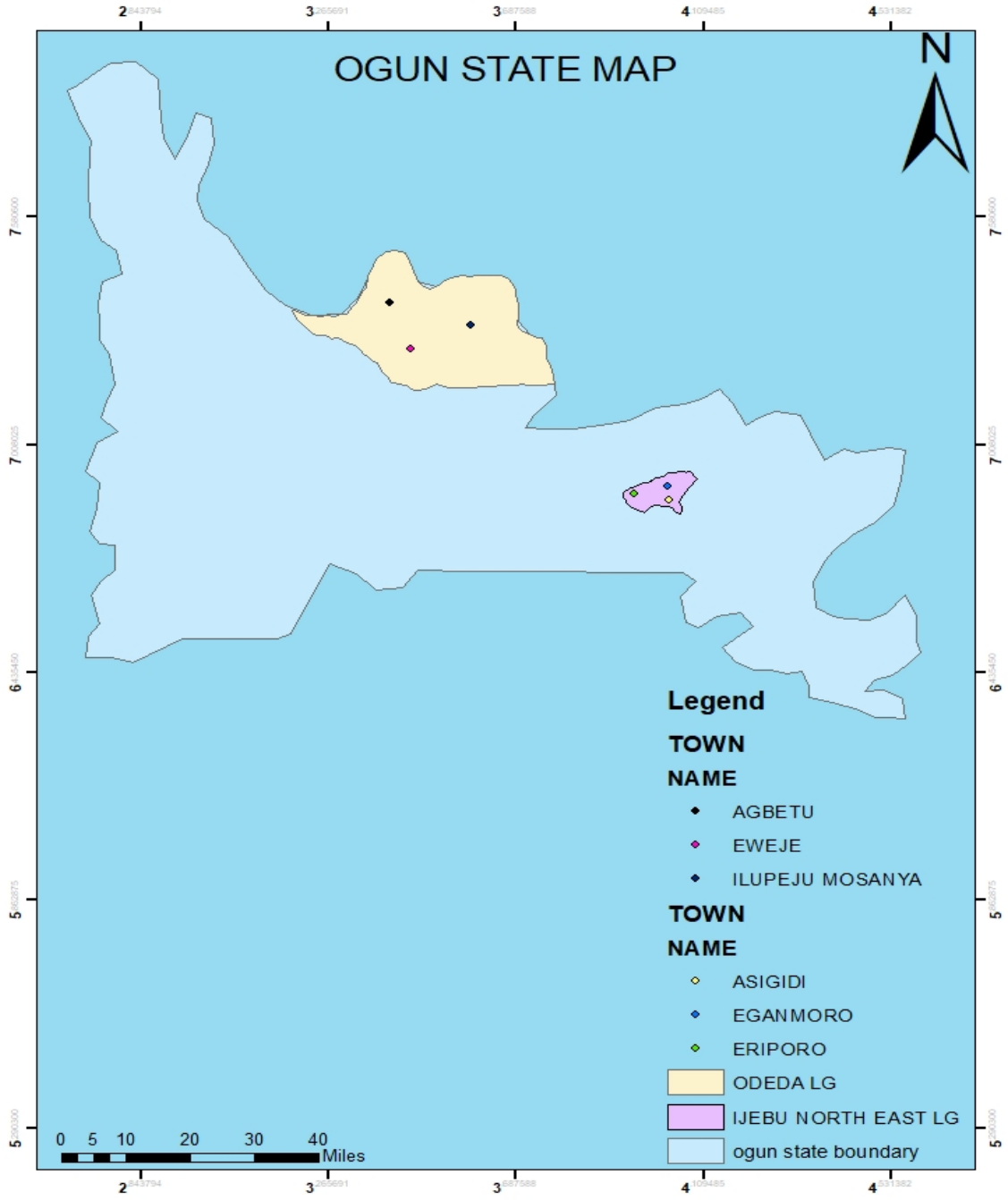


Figure 6: A map showing sampled areas of Ogun State, Nigeria

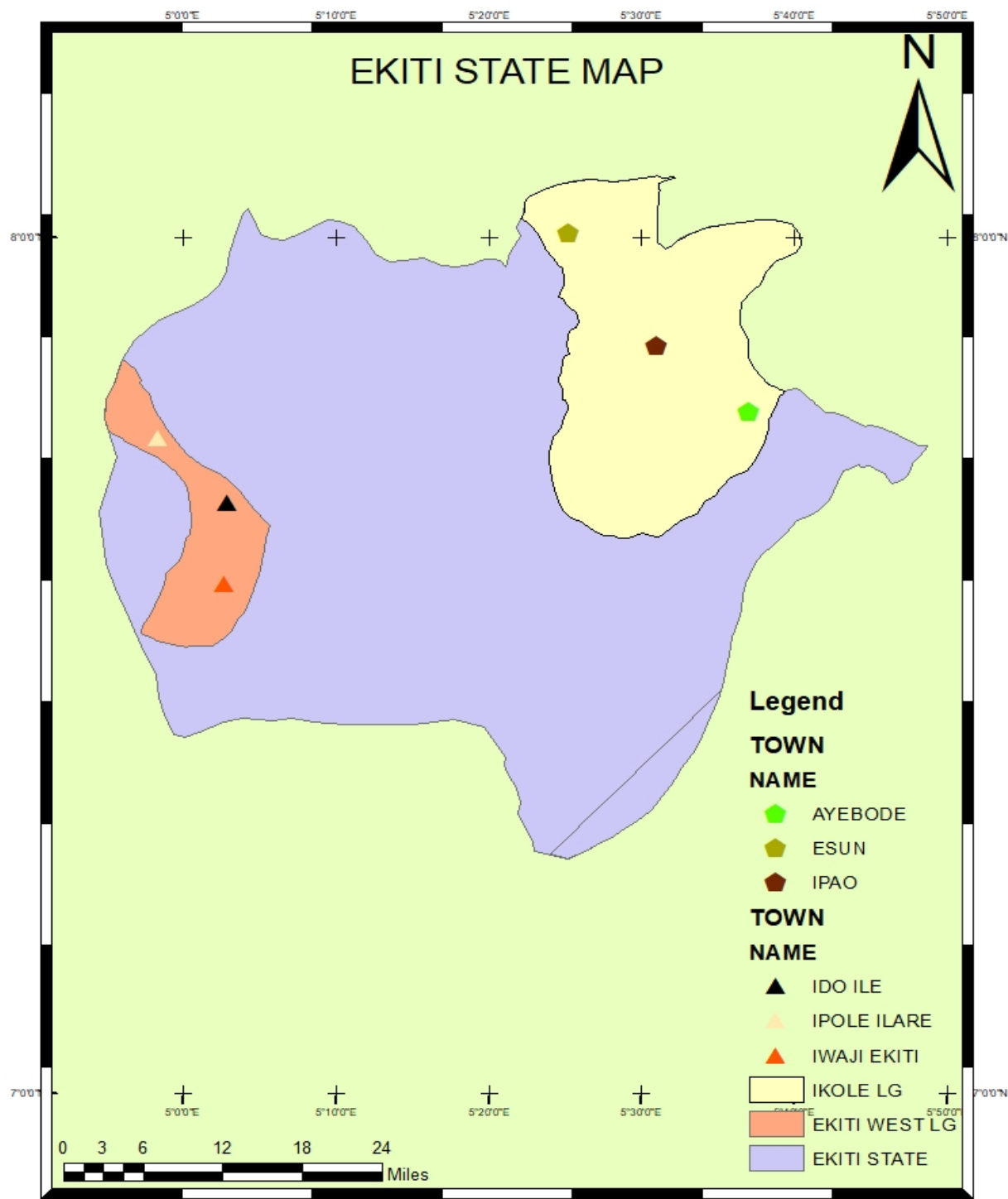


Figure 7: A map showing sampled areas of Ekiti State, Nigeria

3.2 Population of study

The population of the study were rural households of Southwestern, Nigeria.

3.3 Sampling procedure and sample size

A multistage sampling procedure was used to sample rural household heads. The stages are described as follows:

Stage I: Purposive sampling technique was used to select 3 states (Osun, Ogun and Ekiti states) from the 6 states that constitute southwestern Nigeria. The selection was based on a premise of those having the highest prevalence of poverty with respect to Human Development Index to categorize poverty incidence among the southwestern states (NBS, 2005).

Table 3.1: Table showing the incidence of poverty in southwest, Nigeria (1980-2014)

Years	Southwest, Nigeria (%)	Poverty measures
1980	13.4	2/3 mean per capital expenditure
1985	38.6	2/3 mean per capital expenditure
1992	43.1	2/3 mean per capital expenditure
1996	60.9	2/3 mean per capital expenditure
2004	43.0	Food and non-food expenditure

2004 percentage contribution: Osun state- 24.6%; Ogun state-30.9% and Ekiti state- 39.2%

Source: NBS, (2005)

Stage II: Stratification of each selected state into 2 categories of rural and urban L.G.A was done and isolation of rural L.G.A was sampled. Osun state has 30 L.G.As out of which 11 are rural. Ogun state has 20 L.G.As out of which 15 are rural while Ekiti state has 16 L.G.As out of which 12 are rural (National Population Commission, 2006).

Stage III: Fifteen percent of L.G.As were selected from the rural L.G.As in each of the selected states which summed up to 2 rural L.G.As each, in Osun, Ogun and Ekiti states respectively. (Atakumosa-west, Ifedayo; Odeda, Ijebu North East; Ikole and Ekiti-west)

Stage IV: Three rural communities each was randomly selected from each of the selected rural L.G.As. This summed up to 6 communities each in Osun, Ogun and Ekiti states respectively.

Stage V: Proportionate sampling technique was used to select rural households from each of the selected communities to give 114, 111, and 117 rural household in Osun, Ogun and Ekiti states respectively. This summed up to a total sample size of 342 respondents for this study.

Table 3.2: Sampling of rural household heads

Selected states	Stratifies rural L.G.As from each of the selected states	15% of the L.G.As from the total number of rural L.G.As in the selected states	Random selection of rural communities from the selected rural L.G.A	Total number of household in each community selected in each L.G.A	Proportionate sampling to select rural household heads from each of the community in selected rural L.G.A 40%	Total number of selected household heads in each L.G.A
Osun	11	Ifedayo	Alagbede	47	19	114
			Ejifunmi	46	18	
			Idi-Odan	52	21	
		Atakumosa west	Afon	38	15	
			Akola	39	16	
			Iloba	62	25	
Ogun	15	Odeda	Agbetu	55	22	111
			Eweje	53	21	
			Ilupeju-Mosanya	58	23	
		Ijebu North east	Eriporo	28	11	
			Eganmoro	47	19	
			Asigidi	38	15	
Ekiti	12	Ikole	Ayebode	46	18	117
			Ipao	56	22	
			Esun	45	18	
		Ekiti west	Iwaji Ekiti	34	14	
			Ido-Ile	51	20	
			Ipole-iloro	63	25	
Total	49	6	18			342 respondents

3.4 Instruments for data collection

Quantitative data were collected with the use of interview schedule to elicit information from the rural households, represented by the head of household. Also, Qualitative data were conducted using Focus Group Discussion (FGD) guide to elicit data from the groups of the respondents in the study area on all aforementioned objectives of the study.

3.5 Validity of research instrument

Face and content validity of the research instrument were carried out by the experts in the field of rural sociology, Agricultural extension and rural development.

3.6 Reliability of research instrument

A split-half method was used to assess instrument reliability. A pre-test of 40 questionnaires were used in the southwest states other than states that were sampled for this study. This is to sort all ambiguities in the questionnaire. A reliability coefficient of 0.84 was obtainable which was adjudged acceptable for the study.

3.7 Measurement of variable

3.7.1 Personal characteristics of rural households

Age: Actual ages of respondents were to be stated in years. (Interval scale)

Sex: Respondents were to indicate whether they are male or female and scores of 1 and 2 were assigned respectively. (Nominal scale)

Marital status: The respondents were to indicate their status either, single, married, divorced/separated or widowed. (Ordinal scale)

Educational attainment: The respondents were to indicate their highest level of educational attainment they have, no formal education, primary education, secondary education and tertiary education and score of 0, 1, 2 and 3 were assigned respectively. (Ordinal scale)

Household size: Respondents were to state the total number of persons that live under the their roof and eat from the same pot. (Interval scale)

Occupations: Respondents were to tick all occupations they involve in from the list of options provided:

Food crop farming (); Cash/Tree crop farming (); Fruit farming (); Fruit vegetable farming (); Leafy vegetable farming (); Livestock rearing (); Trading/Business (); Agricultural processing (); Unskilled daily-waged labour (); Artisan/Handicraft (); Salary job ()- (Nominal scale)

Religion: Respondents were to indicate their religion from the list provided Christianity (1), Islam (2), Traditional (3), Others (specify) (4)- (Nominal scale)

3.7.2 Vulnerability to poverty of rural households

Vulnerability to poverty was measured adapting the scale of Spicker (1999). This constitutes three clusters and it covers material conditions, economic positions and social positions which is more encompassing rather than a mere loss of income and consumption. Each of these clusters equally have indicators which are needs and standard of living (material conditions); resources, inequality and class (economic positions) and lack of entitlement and exclusion (social positions).

3.7.2.1 Material condition of rural households

This was measured by providing a list of 12 items under the two indicators (Need and standard of living). Some of the items under needs are; adequate household accessories e.g set of chairs and table, television set etc., provision of school materials for school age children, adequate equipments on income generating activities etc. while under standard of living are; good consumption pattern adequacy, acquisition pattern of physical possession, Safe sanitation etc. Respondents were asked the extent of their deprivations under the items provided over the last five years. This was measured with response options of “to a larger extent” (between 100 and 61% of the time), “a lesser extent” (between 60 and 31% of the time), “rarely” (between 30 and 1% of the time) and not at all” (the respondent is not deprived). A score of 3 was assigned “to a larger extent”, 2 was assigned “to a lesser extent”, 1 was assigned to “rarely” and 0 was assigned to “not at all”. The maximum score was 36.00, minimum score was 9.00 and the mean score was 25.50. The mean score generated was used to categorise respondents into high and low material condition. Scores with mean and above were categorized as high material condition while below mean score was categorized as low material condition deprivation.

3.7.2.2 Economic position of rural households

This was measured by providing a list of 6 items under the two indicators (limited resources and class). Some of the items under limited resources are; adequate income due to diversity, stability of income due to climatic changes and equality in distribution of services etc. while items under

class are; relationship to means of production along social class and good social relationship along strata. Respondents were asked the extent of their deprivations under the items provided over the last five years. This was measured with response options of “to a larger extent” (between 100 and 61% of the time), “a lesser extent” (between 60 and 31% of the time), “rarely” (between 30 and 1% of the time) and not at all” (the respondent is not deprived). A score of 3 was assigned “to a larger”, 2 was assigned “to a lesser extent”, 1 was assigned to “rarely” and 0 was assigned to “not at all”. The maximum score was 18.00, minimum score was 0.00 and the mean score was 11.54. The generated mean score was used to categorise respondents into high and low economic position. Scores with mean and above were categorised as high economic position while below mean score were categorised as low economic position deprivation.

3.7.2.3 Social position of rural households

This was measured by providing a list of 22 items under the three indicators (lack of entitlement, dependency and exclusion). Some of the items under lack of entitlement are; access to food, access to social rights, access to labour etc. Under dependency are; dependent on community, dependent on family etc. and under exclusion are; social exclusion among community obligations, economic exclusion on agricultural related activities and marginalization due to lack of right etc. Respondents were asked the extent of the deprivations under the items provided over the last five years. This was measured with response options of “to a larger extent” (between 100 and 61% of the time), “a lesser extent” (between 60 and 31% of the time), “rarely” (between 30 and 1% of the time) and not at all” (the respondent is not deprived). A score of 3 was assigned “to a larger”, 2 was assigned “to a lesser extent”, 1 was assigned to “rarely” and 0 was assigned to “not at all”. The maximum score 66.00, minimum score 0.00 and the mean score was 33.75. The generated mean score was used to categorise respondents into high and low material condition. Scores with mean and above were categorised as high social position while below mean score was categorized as low social position deprivation.

Thereafter, vulnerability index was computed, using Household Vulnerability Index (HVI) as threshold to categorise vulnerability to poverty, to vulnerable and not vulnerable.

To generate Household Vulnerability Index (HVI), individual household indices were determined for this purpose; this is according to Food Agriculture and Natural Resources Policy Analysis Network (2007).

$$\text{Individual household indices} = \frac{\text{Actual value (index)} - \text{minimum value}}{\text{Maximum value} - \text{minimum value}}$$

Therefore, HVI = Average value of individual household indices.

3.7.3 Social group participation of rural households

This was measured by indicating the social group that the respondents participated in, from the list of small groups within the social organisations provided in their respective communities. The response option of yes and no was provided with a score of 1 and 0 respectively. Respondents with response option of “yes” were further asked to indicate the position they held as a member of the small group and as well as response for both their spouse and children were gotten based on this format. The response option ordinary member, committee member and executive member were provided with a score of 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Also, respondents were asked to indicate in actual, their meeting times on monthly basis (interval scale) and was further asked to state the frequency of participation based on the time slated for their meetings having a response option of all the time, every alternate meeting and rarely with a score of 3, 2 and 1 respectively. These were summed up to generate a minimum score of 0, maximum score 16.24 and a mean score of 2.5. Furthermore, the mean score was used to categorize those with secure and insecure social group participation. Above mean score was categorized as high social group participation while below mean score was categorized low social group participation.

3.7.4 Coping strategies to mediate or mitigate vulnerability to poverty of rural households

This was measured by providing a list of 12 items of coping strategies household deploy to ascertain less vulnerability to poverty. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they partake in receiving inheritance earnings, diversification of income generating activities, selling of physical assets, children acquisition of skills, training and education for increased human resources, reduction in food quantity consumption, reliance on help from relatives, accessibility of available social infrastructures, labour source utilization to help in other transiting activities, migration, begging, remittance from friends and family and increase household resiliency as a form of coping strategies to vulnerability to poverty, with response option of never, occasionally

and always with a score of 0, 1 and 2 respectively. Minimum score was 0 while the maximum score was 24.

The level of household coping strategies to vulnerability to poverty was determined using the mean in categorizing respondents' with high and low coping strategies. Mean and above score was categorized as high while below mean score as low.

3.7.5 Dependent variable (Livelihood security of rural households)

3.7.5.1 Economic security of rural households

This was measured using adapted scale from the work of Dessalegn (2002). Lists of the items were provided based on the income and expenditure flow in order to determine the income and expenditure ratio. This was measured using the response options of 'yes' and 'no'. Response option 'yes' was scored 1 and "no" was scored 0. Respondents with 'yes' option was further asked to indicate the actual income they realized in each of the probable source of income. Then, the income level based on the items provided was asked having a response option of 'high', 'medium' and 'low'. Response option of 'high' was scored 3, 'medium' was scored 2 and 'low' was scored 1. The respondents were also asked to indicate the adequacy of the income flow which was provided with the response option of 'very adequate', 'adequate' and 'inadequate' having a score of 2, 1 and 0 respectively. Also, the respondents were asked to indicate the stability of the income flow which was provided with the response option of 'high stability', 'medium stability' and 'Not stable' having a score of 2, 1 and 0 respectively.

For expenditure, this was measured using the response options of 'yes' and 'no'. Response option 'yes' was scored 1 and "no" was scored 0. Respondents with 'yes' option was further asked to indicate the actual expenditure they made on each of probable expenses they made. Then, the expenditure level based on the items provided was asked with a response option of 'high', 'medium' and 'low' having a score of 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Also, the respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of their expenses which was provided with the response option of "Daily", "weekly", "monthly" and "quarterly/annually" having a score of 1,2,3 and 4 respectively which was used to capture the expenses made annually.

The summation of the income and expenditure was standardized to generate the ratio of income and expenditure in each of the household. Thereafter, using ratio 1 as the bench mark to categorise all the scores generated from the income and expenditure ratio into economic insecure and economic secure level. Therefore, respondents having scores below score of 1 was categorised as economic insecure while those above the score of 1 was categorized as having economic secure.

3.7.5.2 Food security of rural households

The extent of household food insecurity was measured, using a scale adapted from FANTA'S Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) of United States Agency for International Development (2012). Nine questions which are also known as domain were given, for the respondents to respond to. This was based on respondents' anxiety over food, quantity and quality (nutrition) to measure extent of household food insecurity. Some of the questions are; Did you worry that your households would not have enough to eat?, Did you or any household member eat just a few kinds of food day after day due to a lack of resources? etc. The response options were never, rarely, sometimes and often. This was measured by assigning a score of 1 to rarely, 2 to Sometimes and 3 to Often. The maximum score was 27.00, minimum score was 9.00 while mean score was 18.68. The level of food security was determined using mean as the bench mark to categorised food security into food secure and food insecure. Respondents with mean and above score were categorised as food insecure and below mean score as food secure.

3.7.5.3 Health security of rural households

This was measured using a scale adapted from the work of Brigit Obrist *et al.* (2007). Respondents were asked to indicate whether they use health care services whenever fall sick having a response option of yes and no with a score of 1 and 0 respectively. Respondents with response option of 'yes' was asked to indicate health care services they patronize as a medium of getting treatment which was measured using five indicators of public health facility, private health facility, drug shop, pharmacies and array of traditions under which symptom items were raised having operationalised as availability, accessibility, affordability, adequacy and acceptability. Availability was measured with response options of yes and no having a score 1 and 0 while the respondents with response option of yes was further asked the level of

accessibility with response options of very accessible, accessible and not accessible having a score of 2, 1 and 0. Affordability was measured with response options of ‘very affordable’, ‘affordable’ and ‘not affordable’ having a score of 2, 1 and 0. Adequacy was measured with a response option of ‘very adequate’, ‘adequate’ and ‘not adequate’ having a score of 2, 1 and 0. Also, acceptability was measured with response options of ‘very acceptable’, ‘acceptable’, and ‘not acceptable’ having a score of 2, 1 and 0. Furthermore, respondents were asked to indicate the perceived quality of care they utilise using five domains which are patient satisfaction and equity, provider compliance, diagnostic accuracy, safety of product and patient compliance. Respondents were asked to answer on a 3 point scale of A – Agree, U – Undecided and D – Disagree. Respondents were to further tick the option that is appropriate to them. The score for positively worded statements are A (3), U (2), D (1) while the scores was reversed for negative statements. The maximum score = 96, minimum score =32. All the scores were ammonized using z-score to standardize the scores which will be used to generate the minimum, maximum and mean scores for health security. The maximum score was 18.08, minimum score was 1.18 while mean score was 5.98. Scores with mean and above was categorized as health secure while below mean score was categorised as health insecure.

3.7.5.4 Housing security of rural households

Respondents were asked to indicate the type of housing they secure from the list of item provided. The response options of yes and no was provided for housing availability having a score of 1 and 0. Respondents with response option of ‘yes’ was further asked the frequency of accessibility having a response option of Always and seldom with a score of 2 and 1 respectively. Also, respondents were asked to indicate the state of facility having a response option of good, fair and poor with scores of 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Furthermore, respondents were asked their mode of acquisition having a response option of owned, inherited and rented with a score of 3, 2 and 1 respectively. The sum of these was calculated to generate a minimum, maximum, mean score. The maximum score was 7.22, minimum score was 0.00 while mean score was 2.50. Using the mean as the benchmark, mean and above score was categorised as house secure while below mean score was categorised as house insecure.

3.7.5.5 Educational security of rural households

Respondents were asked to indicate the type of school that are available from the list of item provided. The response of yes and no were provided for school availability having a score of 1 and 0. Respondents with response option of 'yes' was further asked frequency of accessibility having a response option of often, seldom and rarely with a score of 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Also, the respondents were asked to indicate the ownership body of the schools they have access to having a response option of government owned body and private owned body with a score of 1 and 2 respectively. Then, the respondents were asked to indicate the state of facility having a response option of good, fair and poor with a score of 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Furthermore, respondents were asked their distance covered before getting to school having a response option of 2km less and 2km more with a score of 2 and 1 respectively. Also, respondent was asked to state the educational qualification of household members. This was measured by asking the educational qualification of their spouse having a response option of no formal education, completed adult education, vocational education, primary education, secondary education tertiary education. Then, the respondents were also asked to indicate the educational qualification of their children which was measured in actual. The sum of these was calculated to generate minimum, maximum and mean score. The minimum score was 0.00, maximum score was 14.53 while the mean score was 7.43. Using the mean as the benchmark, mean and above score was categorized as education secure while below mean score was categorized education insecure.

The scores generated from livelihood security indicator namely; food security, economic security, health security, housing security and education security were ammonised by calculating the indices of the indicators. The standard scores for each of these indicators were computed with the use of z-score. The standard scores for the security level of each respondent were summed to form composite total scores for LIVELIHOOD SECURITY. Total livelihood security indicators for each respondent was obtained from the sum of total mean score of each respondent for the above mentioned indicator indices to categorize household data as those that are livelihood secure (low livelihood insecurity) and livelihood insecure (high livelihood insecurity). The generated minimum score was 4.39, maximum score was 31.01 while the mean score was 16.41. The mean score was used as a benchmark to categorize households with those that are secure or insecure. Equal and above mean score was categorized as livelihood secure and below mean score was categorised as livelihood insecure.

3.8 Data analysis

Data were analysed using descriptive (frequency and percentages, mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (chi-square, Pearson product moment correlation, uncorrelated T-test and Analysis of variance) at $p=0.05$ and regression analysis.

H₀₁ was tested using Chi-square/PPMC.

H₀₂ was tested using T-test.

H₀₃ was tested using ANOVA.

H₀₄ PPMC .

H₀₅ was tested using PPMC.

H₀₆ was tested using PPMC

H₀₇ was tested using Logit regression.

The model for the binomial logit regression is expressed thus:

$$\Pr(y_i = j) = \frac{\exp(X_i\beta_j)}{1 + \sum_j^J \exp(X_i\beta_j)}$$

and

$$\Pr(y_i = 0) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_j^J \exp(X_i\beta_j)},$$

Where for the i th individual, y_i is the observed outcome and X_i is a vector of explanatory variables. The unknown parameters β_j are typically estimated by maximum likelihood.

H₀₈ was tested using OLS regression.

3.9 Qualitative method of data collection

This was carried out by sampling respondents randomly across male and female headed households, constituting each of the Focus Group Discussion (FGD). The discussants comprised between 7-9 persons. One FGD was conducted in each of the selected state as a representative for each state to give a total of 3 FGDs carried out in the study area. Data were collected in a local language through the means of recording and note taking. This was further processed and interpreted to English language by the researcher. The following questions were posed on the following sub- headings:

1. Characteristics of the community
 - (i) Religion (ii) Generational (iii) Migrant (iv) Socioeconomic status (v) Ethnic group etc.
2. Livelihood security and vulnerability to poverty
 - i. What are the major productive and income generating activities.
 - ii. What are the environmental problems that can contribute to the vulnerability to poverty.
 - iii. What are the challenges faced that can make people vulnerable to poverty
 - iv. What is the state of health facility that you have access to. And how do people secure health, food, education and housing in your locality.
 - v. Have there been any change in the state of people's living that can make them vulnerable to poverty in the last five years E.t.c.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the study, interpretation and discussion of the data collected for this study. The results are discussed in sections according to the specific objective and hypotheses of the study.

4.1 Households personal characteristics

4.1.1 Age

Age is one of the significant measures when considering people's social outcomes due to their respective expectations, capabilities, success and fulfillment as it's relative to ageing factor (Busiinge, 2010). Similarly, the saddled responsibilities vary significantly as age changes since capacities, aspiration and performance of an individual in her early age of 20's differs significantly from same in her 40's and so on. The result of age distribution on Table 4.1.1 depicts that majority (66.4%) were between the ages of 34- 65years, 18.1% were between the ages of 18-33 years, followed by 15.6% of the respondents who fell between the ages of 66 years and above. The mean age of the distribution was 48.8 ± 15.884 . That is, there is a wide range distribution of the respondents between 33 to 63years. This result indicates that their activeness in their early age of 33 will influence their roles, responsibilities and performance on the security level of their livelihood. Whereas, their performance could significantly fall when shifting from youthful age and attaining adult or older age, which may be directly proportional to the negative outcome of livelihood security as supported by the theory of human security that productivity of individual household depends on their state of human resources, thus, productivity of human could therefore be achievable by age. This corroborates Fadiji and Adeniji (2011) that elderly in the rural Nigeria and other third world countries are often vulnerable due to deterioration in their capacities to perform task in meeting the livelihood security requirements.

4.1.2 Sex

Sex as signified is beyond its literal word (male and female) as differences existed in roles and responsibilities performed in various capacities of household. The priorities by gender vary, which tend towards logical consequences, as females and males have their roles in each of the household unit. Whereas, the capacities to influence livelihood security resulting to less

vulnerability to poverty differs significantly by gender, that is, female headed household and male headed household could only be similar but not the same as characteristics, strength and priorities vary across.

The result of analysis from Figure 8 shows that majority (64.3%) were males, while 35.7% were female in the study area. The observation might be due to the general belief that males are always the head of household except in cases of where marital status of female are recorded as widowed, separated or divorced. Also, as the head of household being the controller of activities of the household unit including the livelihood activities they do, agricultural production happens to be a rural based livelihood activities in Nigeria and supported by the result on Table 4.1.2. This implies that males are the dominant household head and they are actively involved in decision making for the members of household. Result corroborates the assertion established by many studies (Umebali, 2006; Akinola, 2006, Yusuf, 2008, Ogunsumi, 2011) that agricultural production in south-western Nigeria is more of male involvement than female involvement. Ogunsumi (2011) and Olawoye (2014) suggested that male dominated activities are more than female dominated activities in the rural areas of south-western Nigeria. Given this assertion, it is logical to explain that males are the household heads and they have to be focused when bringing a sustainable intervention to promote livelihood security. Therefore, in order to sustain such intervention, the inherent potential of the female headed household should be harnessed with male headed so as to ascertain a reduced vulnerability to poverty and promote the entire livelihood security.

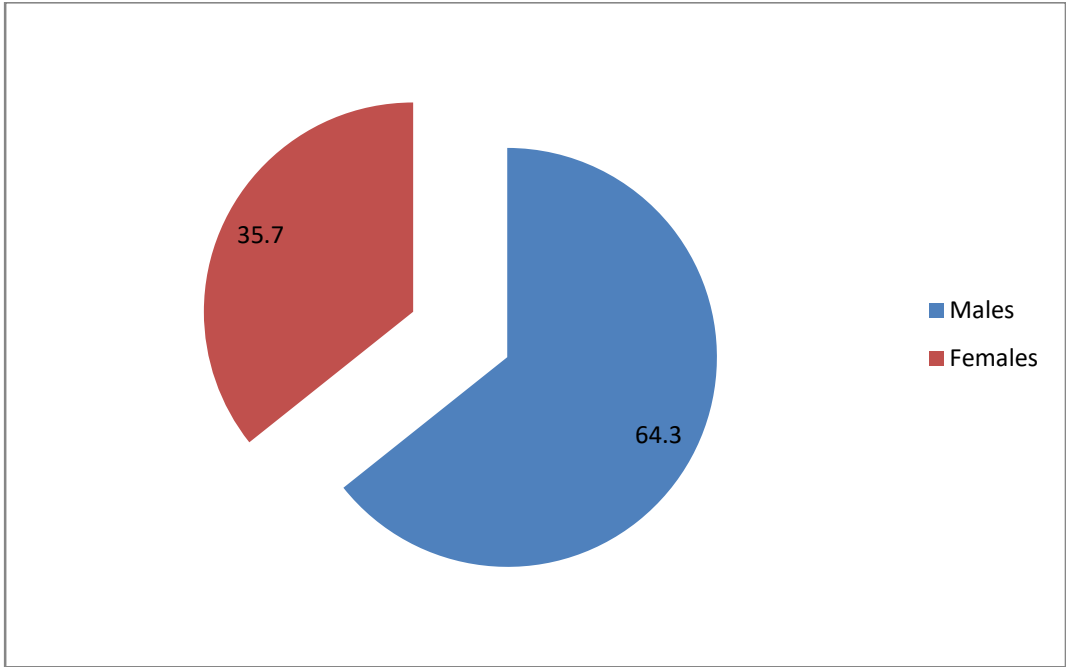


Figure 8: Distribution of households based on sex by personal characteristics

Source: Field Study, 2017

4.1.3 Marital status

The place of marital status cannot be underestimated in this study since roles and responsibilities of an individual vary across their marital status. That is, a married individual has an additional responsibility than a single person, so also being separated or widowed and so on. Thus, the implication of marital status in many social studies is the roles and responsibilities which are directly proportional to vulnerabilities (Oyekale, Adeoti and Baiyegunhi, 2013). That is, roles and responsibilities as well as vulnerability increases in this order, single, married separated, divorced and widowed. A single person has less expenditure on his/ her income than others in the distribution as this translates to ‘the less expenditure of an individual in accessing resources of a secure livelihood.

The result from Figure 9 also reveals that majority (80.1%) in the distribution were married, 10.8% were widowed, 3.8% were single, while 2.6% were divorced and separated, respectively. This implies that majority has higher responsibilities to dispose being the household head and also married. This finding corroborates Ayinde and Oyesola, (2015) and Ademola (2016) that majority of their respondents were married, taking up responsibilities of raising children and household finances with optimum support from spouse and children for securing a better livelihood. On the other hand, widowed and divorced who has zero support from both their spouse family and spouse respectively, tends towards having additional responsibilities leading to insecure livelihood. Thus, a good marriage institution is a poverty reduction strategy since it remains real as entry keeps outweighing exit especially in the rural areas of Nigeria as reported by many social researchers (Adejobi, 2004; Adediran, 2008; Adeloye, 2014). Also, Ekong (2003) opined that marriage facilitates farming activities in rural areas as this is their primary occupation. However, despite the significance of marriage in social context, expenditure increases as household size increases as corroborated by Ajibefun, Ademola and Obioma (2000). That is, increase in household number is now more of higher dependency ratio (liability) than increased human capital especially in this civilized world. The inference is that as the number of household increases, the expenditure tends to increase. Thus, when there is an adequate strategies deployed by the household head and at the same time having support from family members to meet household livelihood security requirement even in the presence of shock, threat and stresses of vulnerabilities, the outcome tends to be positive (high livelihood security), but when there is a shift of imbalance, the outcome tends towards negative outcome (low) of livelihood security.

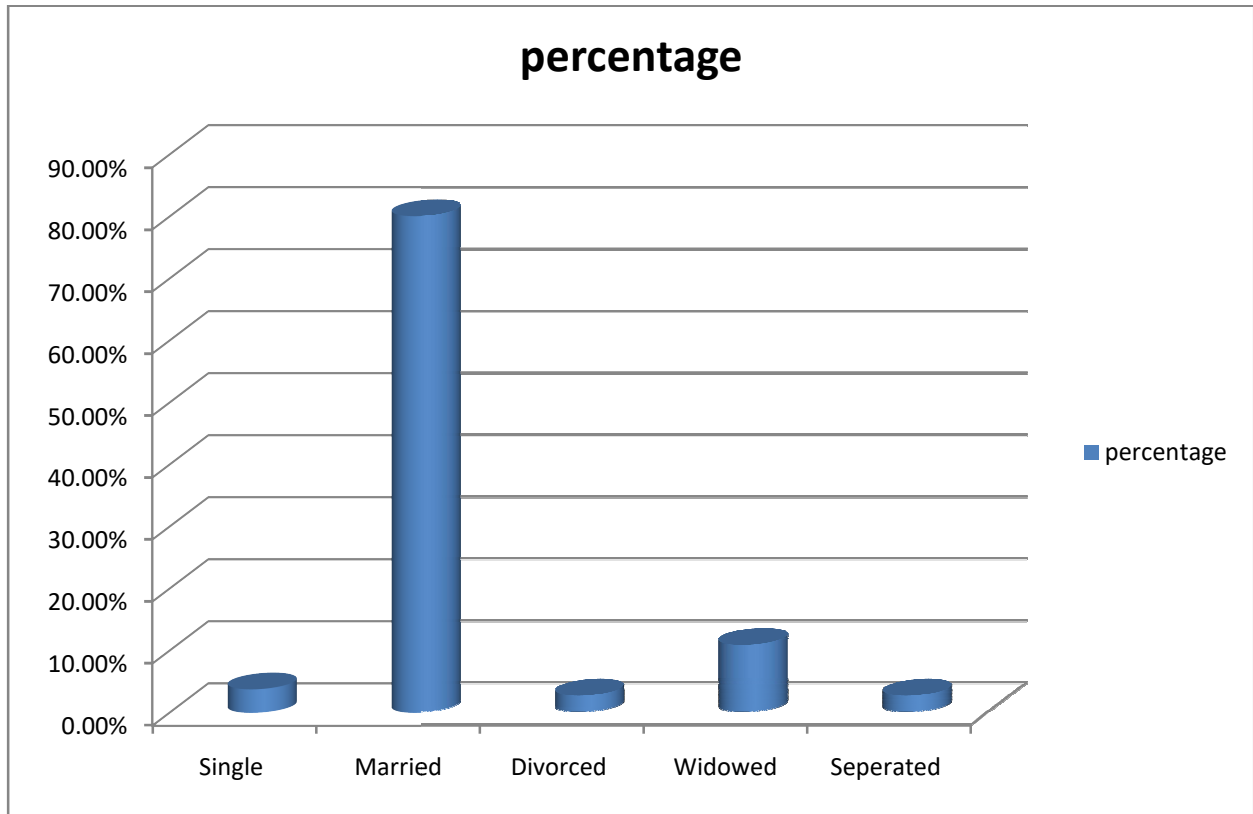


Figure 9: Distribution of households based on marital status by personal characteristics

Source: Field Study, 2017

4.1.4 Educational attainment

Education form a huge part of sustainable development structure, and for any sustainable development in an educational system to be achieved, substantial number of people has to be identified for not just being educated but being literate and sound in transforming numerical values. That is, literacy and numeracy are forms of education that equip individual to be logic in their reasoning, decisions, actions and reactions in a bid to strategize their economic activities towards ascertaining a secured livelihood. Atala and Hassan (2012) stated that literacy and numeracy are expected to increase with formal educational attainment, which is usually classified into primary, secondary and tertiary. As these forms of education have their centralized requirement in well organized classroom settings (teaching and learning), test and examination are used for the purpose of evaluation with specified duration of the programmes before being eligible to be certified. Thus, educational attainments nurture peoples' social and economic outcomes resulting to livelihood security. The results of the analysis from Table 4.1.1 indicates that 37.1% of the respondents completed primary education, 31.0% of them completed secondary education, 11.7% completed tertiary education, while 20.3% had no formal education. This result also buttresses the FGD report of the discussants in Ekiti state;

“Largest proportion of the rural households head had primary education as their highest level of educational qualification” (Ago Aduloju community, 19/07/2017)

This result suggests that most of the respondents' were able to read and write which could influence their abilities to strategize the economic activities towards ascertaining a secure livelihood. But in this case, their level of education is not substantial enough to better strategize their livelihood as compared with the proportion of higher educational qualification. This finding is not in line with that of Ademola (2016) that the highest proportion of the beneficiaries of University based agricultural extension system in the study area had secondary school education.

4.1.5 Household size

Household size is very vital in livelihood security study because the higher the number of household size, the higher they tend to consume resources for livelihood security. Although, there is a common saying that 'there is strength in numbers' which implies that number of children and spouses determines the quality of division of labour of their farming activities, it became a liability on them in this civilized period where children would have to go to school,

therefore, had less time for agricultural activities resulting to non-appreciable yield the household head intend to get. Consequently, the schooling does not only affect their yield, but also impose addition financial responsibilities that could increase expenditures and reduce economic security as one of the components of livelihood security tenable to the state of increase vulnerability to poverty. That is, higher numbers of household size do not only reduce income but increases expenditure and reduces savings and investment that could be accountable for economic resource in accessing adequate basic requirements of livelihood security.

Result of analysis on Table 5.1.1 reveals that majority (69.9%) had household size of 1-7 members, 26.3% had household size that ranged between 8 and 14 members while only few (3.8%) had household size that ranged between 15 and above. The respondents had an average household size of 6.8 in the study area. That result is in line with the findings of Adebayo (2012) and Akinyemi (2015) that majority had an average household size ranged between 5 and 8 persons in the rural areas across vegetation in southwestern, Nigeria. This implies that averagely, most of the respondents' had a large household size and this could impose high dependency ratio on their income, since their financial burdens increases as the household member increase, resulting on the shortfalls of livelihood security. Therefore, poor households may become poorer with no capabilities to provide adequate household basic requirement of livelihood security.

4.1.6 Religion

Religion has been ascribed to some activities that people engaged into and it goes a long way in determining the success of livelihood activities which could translates to vulnerability to poverty. Almost every individual practiced one religion or the other, which serves as a guide that dictates the extent and limit at which individual perform in the household unit and community. Result of analysis in Figure 10 shows that majority (69.1%) were Christians. Furthermore, 28.9% were Muslims while only few (2.0%) were traditional worshippers. This result is in agreement with the findings of FGD in the 3 sampled states as discussants reported that;

“Highest proportion of the population in their individual communities were Christians, minority were Muslims while a few proportion were traditional worshipper”.(01/07/2017)

Meanwhile, the finding is not consistent with the findings of Akinyemi (2015) who reported that majority (50.3%) were Muslims, 48.4% were Christians and 1.3% were traditional worshippers

in both derived savannah and coastal humid forest of southwestern, Nigeria. And also in similar studies where the findings of Ayinde, Oyesola and Oladeji (2015) in Igboora community of Oyo-State, Nigeria asserted that most of the respondents were also Muslims.

This finding indicates religious groups may have a major impact on the household rural dwellers in taking on developmental issues through religious affiliation, since it's a key item of social group participation in an attempt to build and sustain their social capital. Thus, this could invariably translate their livelihood security.

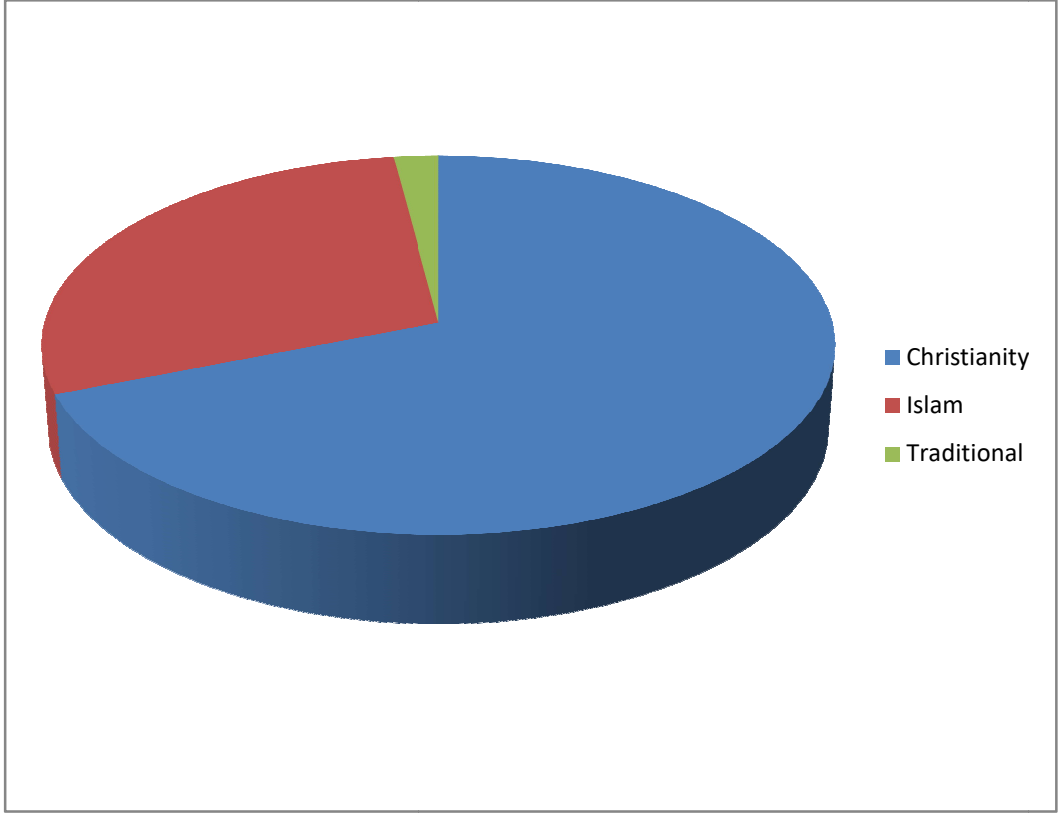


Figure 10: Distribution of households based on religion by personal characteristics

Source: Field Study, 2017

Table 4.1.1: Distribution of households by selected personal characteristics

Variables	Frequency	%	Mean
Age (years)			
18-33	62	18.1	48.8±15.88
34-49	124	36.3	
50-65	103	30.1	
66-81	46	13.5	
82and above	7	2.1	
Total	342	100.0	
Educational attainment			
No formal education	69	20.3	
Primary education	127	37.1	
Secondary education	106	31.0	
Tertiary education	40	11.7	
Total	342	100.0	
Household size			
1-7	237	69.9	6.8±3.41
8-14	90	26.3	
15 and above	13	3.8	
Total	342	100.0	

Source: Field Study, 2017

4.1.7 Occupation

Occupation is often known to be a series of income generating activities, ventures and strategies that an individual performed to impact their economic lives. That is, an individual's occupation is the activity he or she knows and engages in to earn a living. Thus, occupation is directly proportional to income flow of economic security. This implies that the more flexibility and choices of livelihood activities that individual chose and engages in, the better their capacity to cope with shocks, stresses, trends and seasonality of the vulnerability context as this could amount to secured economic state of such individual. Similarly, Olawoye (2000) and Ebitigha (2008) described the prevalence of engagement of rural household in multiple activities (having more than one occupation) to spread risk, cope with insufficiencies, seasonality, compensate failures in credit market, building on complementary and gradual transition to new activities.

The result of analysis from Table 4.1.2 shows that the multiple response of households' different livelihood activities (occupation) in which the respondents engaged. Food crop farming took the lead with 79.5%. This high proportion of households' respondents' involvement in food crop farming could be due to farming being the primary occupation of rural populace which is in tandem with the qualitative report that rural populace engaged in farming activities, making them the food basket of any nation. This finding is in accord with that of Akintola (2008) in Ondo state and Oludipe (2009) in Epe local government area of Lagos state where they found that the largest proportion of rural dwellers are crop farmers. Conversely, this finding is not consistent with that of Ayinde, Oyesola and Oladeji (2015), that majority engaged in artisanal jobs but, still diversify into farming activities. Also, with the findings of Ademola (2016) that the majority of beneficiaries of university based agricultural extension systems are more involved in trading / business, as it could be traced to economic meltdown sceneries when the research was conducted.

Moreover, Table 4.1.2 also depicts that 26.0% were involved in trading as the next majority, followed by artisans (24.9%) and livestock rearing (22.2%). This finding corroborates the FGD report of Orisumbare Alagbede (Osun state rural community) as the discussants explained that;

“Largest proportion of household within the community involved in trading but a few of them also get involved in farming activities together with artisanal jobs” (18/06/2017).

Furthermore, less engaged in as their primary occupation were unskilled daily waged labour (3.5%), salary job (7.0%), fruit farming (10.2%), fruit vegetable farming (13.7%), agricultural

processing (15.5%) who also took the lead in the less engaged occupation. This may be due to the fact that most of the produce harvested, were being converted to edible products for their family consumption. This finding is consistent with the FGDs report in Topon community of Ogun state as the discussant said that;

“Smaller proportion of women engaged in garri processing activities for the purpose of either sell or family consumption” (01/07/2017).



Plate 1: A picture showing one of the women processing cassava into garri granules

However, Table 4.1.2 further depicts that other occupation they engaged in, were cash/tree farming (19.0%) and leafy vegetable farming (15.8%). This result implies that smaller proportion of people engage in cash/ tree crop farming known to be a prominent crop for export, since it requires lengthy period of maturity before harvesting. Those who engaged in cash/tree crop farming make it a means of diversification so as to alternate their earnings for better sustenance towards ascertaining a secure livelihood.

**Table 4.1.2: Distribution of respondents based on occupation by personal characteristics
(*** Multiple response)**

S/N		No		Yes		Total	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
1.	Food crop farming	70	20.5	272	79.5	342	100.0
2.	Cash crop farming	277	81.0	65	19.0	342	100.0
3.	Fruit farming	307	89.8	35	10.2	342	100.0
4.	Fruit vegetable farming	295	86.3	47	13.7	342	100.0
5.	Leafy vegetable farming	288	84.2	54	15.8	342	100.0
6.	Livestock farming	266	77.8	76	22.2	342	100.0
7.	Trading	253	74.0	89	26.0	342	100.0
8.	Agricultural processing	289	84.5	53	15.5	342	100.0
9.	Unskilled daily waged labour	330	96.5	12	3.5	342	100.0
10.	Artisan/ handicraft	257	75.1	85	24.9	342	100.0
11.	Salary job	318	93.0	24	7.0	342	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017



Plate 2: A picture showing the operation of garri processing activities as one of the income generating activities (occupation) among the rural households

Source: Field survey, 2017



Plate 3: A picture showing cross section of cocoa plantation (cash crop) in the study area

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2 Households vulnerability to poverty

4.2.1 Households material condition of vulnerability to poverty

The result of analysis from Table 4.2 reveals that majority were largely being deprived of adequate household accessories (50.9%) and adequate electricity utility within and outside the household (51.8%) under the needs domain of material condition. This implies that the two items were mostly the needs being deprived of. This result also translates to their mean scores 2.40 ± 0.698 and 2.38 ± 0.756 , respectively. This finding is a true reflection of rural household, because there is poor electricity supply in rural areas, of southwestern Nigeria.

Furthermore, the standard of living domain under material condition as presented on Table 5. The result shows the most deprived items based on the mean score; accessibility to physical possession (2.34 ± 0.720), acquisition to physical possession (2.30 ± 0.767) and food consumption pattern adequacy (2.25 ± 0.686). This result could be traced to most households not economically secure to acquire building of their own and other tangible assets (physical assets). Although, most household were food insecure, this could also suggest their level of deprivation on food consumption pattern having being the key items to boost their standard of living. This result corroborate FGD report by the discussant that;

“There was lack of social infrastructure enabling them to improve their economic life in order to enhance or boost the standard of living of the resident” (01/07/2017).

Thus, needs ($\bar{x}=2.29$) as a domain contributed more to the deprivation level of material condition of vulnerability to poverty.

Table 4.2: Distribution of households material condition of vulnerability to poverty

S/N	Items Material condition	Extent of deprivation over the last five (5) years								Mean±SD
		To a larger extent		To a lesser extent		Rarely		Not at all		
I	Needs (\bar{x} =2.29)	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
1.	Adequate household accessories	174	50.9	138	40.4	24	7.0	6	1.8	2.40±0.698*
2.	Provision of school materials for school age children	138	40.4	159	46.5	30	8.8	15	4.4	2.23±0.785
3.	Adequate access to health facility	125	36.5	184	53.8	30	8.8	3	0.9	2.26±0.649
4.	Accessibility to kitchen appliances	124	36.3	178	52.0	33	9.6	7	2.0	2.23±0.701
5.	Adequate equipments on income generating activities	136	39.8	161	47.1	37	10.8	8	2.3	2.24±0.736
6.	Adequate electricity utility within and outside the household	177	51.8	130	38.0	24	7.0	11	3.2	2.38±0.756*
II	Standard of living (\bar{x}=1.96)									
7.	Food consumption pattern adequacy	129	37.7	175	51.2	33	9.6	5	1.5	2.25±0.686*
8.	Accessibility to physical possession	160	46.8	146	42.7	29	8.5	7	2.0	2.34±0.720*
9.	Acquisition pattern of physical possession	156	45.6	146	42.7	28	8.2	12	3.5	2.30±0.767*
10.	Safe drinking water (e.g bore hole)	70	20.5	103	30.1	97	28.4	72	21.1	1.50±1.040
11.	Safe sanitation	54	15.8	174	50.9	75	21.9	39	11.4	1.71±0.867
12.	Reliable source of fuel to cook	53	15.5	157	45.9	93	27.2	39	11.4	1.66±0.875

4.2.1.1: Households level of material condition of vulnerability to poverty

Material condition deprivation refers to lack of physical necessities for a good living or a secure livelihood. Table 4.3 shows that 53.8% of the households had low level of material condition, while 46.2% had high level of material condition. This result implies that most of the households were either less deprived of material condition, or not vulnerable to material condition domain of vulnerability to poverty. That is, being materially less deprived does not influence the level of livelihood security positively, since most of the respondents had low level of livelihood security (51.5%) as shown on Table 4.25. This could be further explained that the standard of living of rural households as an indicator contributed less to material condition deprivation as shown on Table 4.2. Meanwhile, this supposed to positively influence their livelihood security, but due to locality based and subjective adaptability of one's standard of living, which may not translates to positive outcome of a secure livelihood since, there are diverse means of setting standard of securing better livelihood. Hence, households standard of living differs across and may in time vary. For instance, a reliable source of fuel to cook in rural households is not likely to be the same with urban households, due to the environmental and economic differences. In spite of this, their low extent of deprivation on their standard of living as compared to their need indicator still sharpened their materialistic live but rather do not translate to secure livelihood. This corroborates Rao and Min (2017) that material requirement are not sufficient to ensure decent wellbeing nor do they necessarily overcome relative poverty.

Table 4.3: Distribution of households based on level of material condition

	Frequency	%
Low	184	53.8
High	158	46.2
Total	342	100
Mean =25.50		
Minimum =9.00		
Maximum =36.00		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.1.2: Cross Tabulation showing the household material condition (vulnerability to poverty) on livelihood security components

Table 4.4 presents cross tabulation of material condition (vulnerability to poverty) and livelihood security components. The result shows that most of the households' (28.9%) with low material condition were education secure, while most households (26.3%) with high material condition were education insecure. This implies that material condition deprivation had an influence on their education security. That is, the lower their level of material deprivation, the higher their education security since child's education is associated with the materials such as school uniforms, mobility to school and other educational trips. Although, poor people lack material necessities for comfortable life, this does not have negative impact on their choice of securing education for their children, since they strive to acquire literacy education for their children in order for them to become proficient in both reading and writing skill. This consequently translates to their level of education security and overall livelihood security. This corroborates Dorling (2006) who suggested that increase in educational attainment inequality is associated with poor households'.

Cross tabulation of material condition and housing security result on Table 4.4 shows that most households with insecure housing (64.2%) had either low or high material condition deprivation for 32.1%, respectively. This implies that the same proportion of households with low housing security were either less material deprived or more material deprived. This suggests that rural households were housing insecure irrespective of their material deprivation. This result could also be traced to the level of economic insecurity translating to insecure level of livelihood in the study area. The inference of this finding is that household with low material condition deprivations are greatly at an advantage in terms of living conditions.

Also, the result on material condition and health security depicts that 31.9% of the households' being the highest proportion, having high level of material condition were health insecure, while 31.3% households' with low material condition were health secure. This implies that household that are vulnerable to material condition were health insecure. That is, material condition of household affects their health security. This could be better explained with the deprivation depth of household food consumption pattern, both access and acquisition of physical possession as the main items contributing to households standard of living indicator under material condition

deprivation as shown on Table 4.2. This might probably affects their psychological needs contributing negatively to health security.

Cross tabulation result of material condition and economic security shows that most of the households (33.6%) with low material condition were of economic insecure, while households (20.2%) with secure economic had low material condition. This results implies that most households that are not vulnerable to material conditions were economic secure. Thus, material deprivation is directly proportional to economic security despite the fact that material deprivation are non-monetary. This is because economic resources influence material resources since acquiring physical possession goes beyond income. This corroborates the findings of Saunders and Adelman (2006); Beverly(2001) and Pfortner, Andress and Janssen (2011) that material deprivation is beyond effects of income because living standard, wealth/ savings and access to goods outside the market to access material resources have effect on material deprivation.

Furthermore, cross tabulation of material conditions and food security on Table 4.4 shows that most of the households (40.9%) with low material condition were food insecure, while households (24.3%) with high material condition were food secure. This implies that most households that are not vulnerable to material condition or less deprived of material condition were food insecure. That is, those who are able to meet their needs and standard of living were not food secure. This could further be explained based on the categorization results on Table 4.19 as majority (62.9%) were food insecure in the study area. Thus, being materially secure does not translate to food security, since food security exists when people at all times have adequate access to sufficient, safe and nutritious foods in meeting both dietary need and preferences for healthy living (Barrette, 2010).

Table 4.4: Cross tabulation of material condition deprivation and livelihood security components

Livelihood security components	Material condition		Total (%)
	Low (%)	High (%)	
Education security			
Insecure	24.9	26.3	51.2
Secure	28.9	19.9	48.8
Total	53.8	46.2	100.0
Housing security			
Insecure	32.1	32.1	64.2
Secure	21.7	14.1	35.8
Total	53.8	46.2	100.0
Health security			
Insecure	22.5	31.9	54.4
Secure	31.3	14.3	45.6
Total	53.8	46.2	100.0
Economic security			
Insecure	33.6	32.7	66.3
Secure	20.2	13.5	33.7
Total	53.8	46.2	100.0
Food security			
Insecure	40.9	21.9	62.8
Secure	12.9	24.3	37.2
Total	53.8	46.2	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.2. Households economic deprivation of vulnerability to poverty

Table 4.5 presents the result on the two domains of economic positions. These are limited resources and class. The result shows that most of the households are being deprived of limited resources to meet basic needs (2.17 ± 0.813) and adequate income due to diversity (2.15 ± 0.850) under limited resources as a domain. The implication is that most rural household who diversify from their primary occupation are economically viable since they have access to multi-stream income, yet, their income is not sustainable enough to meet basic needs of livelihood security.

Furthermore, the respondents were only deprived of relationship to means of production along social class (1.64 ± 0.820) under the class as a domain. This implies that the level of production differs along household social class. This corroborates the sociological realities that individual belongs to a social class and they tend to function according to their characteristics.

Hence, limited resources ($\bar{x}=2.12$) as a domain contributed more to the level of deprivation of economic position ($\bar{x}=1.85$) of vulnerability to poverty with respect to grand mean score.

Table 4.5: Distribution of households economic deprivation of vulnerability to poverty

Economic position		To a larger extent		To a lesser extent		Rarely		Not at all		Mean±SD
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
(I)	Limited Resources (\bar{x}=2.12)									
1.	Adequate of Income due to diversity	134	39.2	145	42.4	44	12.9	19	5.6	2.15±0.850*
2.	Stability of income due to climatic changes	124	36.3	140	40.9	49	14.3	29	8.5	2.08±0.919
3.	Unlimited resources to meet basic needs	130	38.0	150	43.9	48	14.0	14	4.1	2.17±0.813*
4.	Equality in distribution of services	103	30.1	165	48.2	56	16.4	18	5.3	2.06±0.822
(II)	Class (\bar{x}=1.58)									
5.	Relationship to means of production along social class	44	12.9	161	47.1	106	31.0	31	9.1	1.64±0.820*
6.	Good social relation along strata	37	10.8	144	42.1	118	34.5	43	12.6	1.51±0.848

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.2.1: Households level of economic position of vulnerability to poverty

Table 4.6 indicates that 62.3% of the households had high level of economic position deprivation while 37.7% had low level of economic position deprivation. This implies that most of the households are vulnerable to economic position of vulnerability to poverty. This result suggests that economic position negatively influence the level of livelihood security in the study area since most of the respondents were livelihood insecure. Thus, economic position has an effect on livelihood security of households in the study area since high deprivation of economic position of households does not commensurate their access to other basic requirements. This makes them uncomfortable with their condition and otherwise translates to low level of livelihood security.

Table 4.6: Distribution of households based on level of economic position

	Frequency	%
Low	129	37.7
High	213	62.3
Total	342	100
Mean =11.54		
Minimum = 0.00		
Maximum =18.00		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.2.2: Cross Tabulation showing the households economic position (vulnerability to poverty) on livelihood security components

Table 4.7 presents the cross tabulation of economic position (vulnerability to poverty) and livelihood security components. The result shows that most of the households' (31.3%) with high economic position were education insecure while 31.0% with high economic position were education secure. This implies that economic position deprivation does not influence education security since being economic deprived has nothing to do with the security level of the households education. Perhaps, this may be due to locality specification with majority having primary educational attainment, as well as the availability (90.4%) of primary school out of which majority (88.9%) was government owned. This also corroborates Sylvia (2005) that families headed with less education struggle to attain incomes that meet family budget thresholds referred to as economic deprivation.

Housing security and economic position result on Table 4.7 depicts that most households (43.6%) with high economic position were housing insecure, while most households (18.7%) with high economic position were housing secure. This result implies that economic position is directly proportional to housing security. That is, those households that are less deprived of economic position in terms of resources and class are mostly housing secured. In essence, economic growth promotes the housing security. This corroborates Gibb, O'Sullivan and Glossop (2008) that the capacities to adequately access the right type of house situated in a good location and to an acceptable standard is an essential part of economic healthiness referred to as economic security.

Also, health security and economic result on Table 4.7 shows that most of the households (34.5%) with high economic position were health insecure, while most households (27.8%) with high economic position were health secure. The implication of this result is that the deprivation level of economic position of households affects their health security status. That is, limited access to resources of economic position of a household could also be a limiting factor to health security. Thus, good health status is key to human resources which translate to a secure livelihood. This findings is not in line with Smitha (2005) who affirmed that better access to health facility availability enhance the higher health status of rural households despite lower per capital income.

The cross tabulation of economic position (vulnerability to poverty) and economic security (livelihood security) result on Table 4.7 further indicates that most households (41.2%) with low economic position deprivation were economic secure, while most households (21.1%) with high economic position deprivation were economic secure. This result implies that those that are highly deprived of economic position were economic insecure. That is, economic position deprivation is directly proportional to low level of economic security and vice-versa. Generally, most of the rural households (64.0%) were economic insecure as shown on Table 4.16 and also 62.3% of households had high level of economic position deprivation as shown on Table 4.6. This perhaps, shows that being deprived or vulnerable to economic position could negatively affect the level of economic security of the household. Thus, economic position deprivation had an effect on economic security of rural households.

Furthermore, economic position and food security result on Table 4.7 shows that most households (38.0%) with high economic position were food insecure, while smaller proportion of households (12.8%) with low economic position deprivation were food secure. This implies that the higher the deprivation level of economic position, the lower the households are food secure. This further explains that the economic position of households' influences the level of food security. This corroborates Olarinde and Kuponiyi (2005) that farmers who produce for consumption alone as a result of low income and reduced level of productive resources likely fall into deeper food insecurity or being deprived of secure food.

Table 4.7: Cross tabulation of households economic position deprivation and livelihood security components

Livelihood security components	Economic position deprivation		Total (%)
	Low (%)	High (%)	
Education security			
Insecure	19.9	31.3	51.2
Secure	17.8	31.0	48.8
Total	37.7	62.3	100.0
Housing security			
Insecure	20.8	43.6	64.4
Secure	16.9	18.7	35.6
Total	37.7	62.3	100.0
Health security			
Insecure	19.9	34.5	54.4
Secure	17.8	27.8	45.6
Total	37.7	62.3	100.0
Economic security			
Insecure	25.1	41.2	66.4
Secure	12.6	21.1	33.6
Total	37.7	62.3	100.0
Food security			
Insecure	24.9	38.0	62.9
Secure	12.8	24.3	37.1
Total	37.7	62.3	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.3 Households social position deprivation of vulnerability to poverty

Table 4.8 presents the result on the three domains of social positions deprivation. These domains are lack of entitlement, dependency and exclusion. The result shows that most of the respondents are being deprived of access to credit (2.42 ± 0.879), access to adequate food (2.07 ± 0.869), employment availability for household members (1.94 ± 0.919), access to social rights (1.80 ± 0.922), access to owned house (1.78 ± 1.229) and access to adequate labour (1.78 ± 0.991), respectively under lack of entitlement as a domain. The implication of this is that the level of deprivation is based on how pressing they are. That is, the most prioritized item was access to credit, this is because they do not have access to credit that could assist them on their economic activities and transform their life. The deprivation of credit access could also suggest that the households may not have reliable collateral in getting the credit which makes the credit body deny them on such opportunity. This result corroborates the FGD report of the discussant in Ago Aduloju community of Ekiti state who explained that;

“There was lack of credit access which could enhance households level of production of their livelihood activities” (19/07/2017).

Furthermore, most of the respondents were only deprived of depending on community (1.54 ± 0.888) under dependency as a domain. The implication of this is that, the homogenous nature of rural community only influence the social interaction among them, but does not really has an effect on their livelihood security as a whole.

In addition, most of the respondents claimed they are deprived of, exclusion towards community obligation (1.39 ± 0.956), social exclusion among relatives (1.35 ± 0.957), economic exclusion on agricultural related activities (1.44 ± 0.987) and economic exclusion on non-agricultural related activities (1.27 ± 0.937), respectively, under exclusion as a domain. But, economic exclusion on agricultural related activities took the lead, based on their mean scores. This could be as a result of rural economy being agriculture based and the rating is more objective in negative approach.

Table 4.8: Distribution of households social position deprivation of vulnerability to poverty

I	Social position/orientation	To a larger extent		To a lesser extent		Rarely		Not at all		Mean±SD
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
	Lack of entitlement(\bar{x}=1.78)									
1.	Access to owned house	147	43.0	53	15.5	61	17.8	81	23.7	1.78±1.229*
2.	Access to inherited house	99	28.9	49	14.3	94	27.5	100	29.2	1.43±1.189
3.	Access to rented house	82	24.0	68	19.9	103	30.1	89	26.0	1.42±1.117
4.	Access to land	98	28.7	92	26.9	98	28.7	54	15.8	1.68±1.053
5.	Access to food	129	37.7	119	34.8	82	24.0	12	3.5	2.07±0.869*
6.	Access to social rights	92	26.9	117	34.2	107	31.3	26	7.6	1.80±0.922*
7.	Access to adequate labour	104	30.4	93	27.2	111	32.5	34	9.9	1.78±0.991*
8.	Access to livestock keeping	102	29.8	84	24.6	98	28.7	58	17.0	1.67±1.077
9.	Access to credit	216	63.2	70	20.5	39	11.4	17	5.0	2.42±0.879*
10.	Employment availability for household members	110	32.2	128	37.4	79	23.1	25	7.3	1.94±0.919*
11.	Absence of harvest loss	65	19.0	136	39.8	92	26.9	49	14.3	1.63±0.949
	II Dependency(\bar{x}=1.52)									
12.	Dependent on community	49	14.3	129	37.7	121	35.4	43	12.6	1.54±0.888*
13.	Dependent on family	40	11.7	137	40.1	117	34.2	48	14.0	1.49±0.876
14.	Dependent on friends	41	12.0	137	40.1	118	34.5	46	13.5	1.51±0.872
15.	Social benefits due to lack of means	42	12.3	138	40.4	118	34.5	44	12.9	1.52±0.869
	III Exclusion(\bar{x}=1.15)									
16.	Social exclusion towards community obligations	50	14.6	101	29.5	126	36.8	65	19.0	1.39±0.956*
17.	Social exclusion among relatives	45	13.2	103	30.1	122	35.7	72	21.1	1.35±0.957*
18.	Economic exclusion on agricultural related activities	56	16.4	105	30.7	113	33.0	68	19.9	1.44±0.987*
19.	Economic exclusion on non-agricultural related activities	33	9.6	109	31.9	117	34.2	83	24.3	1.27±0.937*
20.	Marginalisation due to lack of trust	19	5.6	51	14.9	112	32.7	160	46.8	0.79±0.893
21.	Marginalisation due to lack of right	22	6.4	52	15.2	114	33.3	154	45.0	0.83±0.913
22.	Marginalisation due to social class	26	7.6	58	17.0	140	40.9	118	34.5	0.98±0.906

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.3.1: Households level of social position deprivation of vulnerability to poverty

The result from Table 4.9 indicates that slightly more than half (50.9%) of the households had low level of social position deprivation. This implies that most of the respondents were not vulnerable to social position. This results suggests that social position does not positively influence the level of livelihood security of the household in the study area since most (51.5%) of them were livelihood insecure. The implication of this result is that, social networking among the rural household is just a communal default, but not centered on building relationship as a means of capacity building to better their livelihood security. This also buttressed the results on Table 4.13 that households who highly participated in social groups within the community (49.1%) were the same set of respondents who had high (49.1%) level of social position deprivation as shown on Table 4.9. This also infers that those who built relationship among others were being deprived of the advantages/or benefits attached to it, since individual build relationship based on self interest to enhance their social capital. In essence, building of relationships among the households' happens to be a disadvantaged to them and not beneficial. This does not support the assertion of World Bank (2001) that social capital is an essential factor in starting and maintaining durable economic development in globally marginalized areas. Thus, social capital serves as strategic resources for rural development.

Table 4.9: Distribution of households based on level of social position deprivation of vulnerability to poverty

	Frequency	%
Low	174	50.9
High	168	49.1
Total	342	100
Mean =33.74		
Minimum=0.00		
Maximum =66.00		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.3.2: Cross Tabulation showing the households social position deprivation (vulnerability to poverty) on livelihood security components

Table 4.10 presents the cross tabulation of the households social position deprivation (vulnerability to poverty) and the components livelihood security. The results depicts that most of the households (28.7%) with low social position were education insecure, while most households (26.6%) with high social position were education secure. This implies the lower their social position deprivation the lower their level of education security. That is, social position deprivation negatively influences the level of education security. Hence, social position deprivation contributed more to insecure state of education security of the household in the study area.

On housing security, the result shows that most of the households (35.9%) with high social position were housing insecure, while most households (22.5%) with secure housing had low social position deprivation. This result implies that household social position deprivation affects their level of housing security. This result further explained that most of the households' with high level of the housing security falls within the categories of being less deprived of social position (50.9%). This corroborates the assertion of Tesliuc and Lindert (2004) and Gallardo (2013) that social deprivation as a component of vulnerability of poverty is a function of where household resides in for shelter. Hence, the high level of social position deprivation of households contributed more to their level of housing security in the study area.

The result on health security and social position deprivation indicates that most of the households (30.7%) with high level of social position deprivation were health insecure, while most households (27.2%) with low social position deprivation were health secure. This implies that deprivation of social position adversely affects their state of health security. That is, those that are vulnerable to social position do have a low health security which could be attributed to lack of social right (in term of access) of the household as one of the items under social position domain of vulnerability being deprived, as shown on Table 4.8. This further explained that more households face social exclusion in the economic and social orbs of life, endangering their health security. This corroborates European Commission (2009) report that social deprivation exposed people to adverse living conditions that result in health inequalities.

Also, economic security and social position deprivation results on Table 4.10 shows that most of the households (34.8%) with high social position deprivation were economic insecure, while most household (19.3%) with low level of social position deprivation were economic secure. The implication of this result is that economic security enhances wellbeing and reduces vulnerability which enable household to participate in both social and economic life. Those deprived of social position tend to be economic insecure. Hence, deprivation of social position could be directly proportional to economic security since the monetary standard of the households dictates their access to acquire the necessities of social life in terms of physical possession/entitlements and social amenities. This corroborates Cercelaru, (2016); Living Wage Commission (2016); Mays, Marston and Tomlinson, (2016); Mcfarland (2016) and Rankin (2016) who reported that the trials of diverse livelihood activities as a means of poverty reduction pose risk of being counterproductive which undermines the scope on social security and adversely affects economic security of an individual especially in a structural macro-economic policy.

Furthermore, social position deprivation and food security results on Table 4.10 reveals that most of the households (34.2%) with low social position deprivation were food insecure while, most households (20.4%) with high level of social position deprivation were food secure. This result implies that social position deprivation negatively influence the level of food security. That is, those that are less social position deprived were not food secure for a better sustenance, since food is one of the basic necessities of life. This may be due to many household not meeting their food requirement on their own production because many rural household produce on a small scale and also had low level of social group participation (50.9%) within the communities as shown on Table 4.9. This results does not support the findings of Macintyre, Ellaway and Cummins (2002) that high social capital (low social deprivation) assists rural residents to obtain neighbours more easily in times of need and mobilize for collective action to address food insecurity issues.

Table 4.10: Cross tabulation of households social position deprivation and livelihood security components

Livelihood security components	Social position		
	Low (%)	High (%)	Total (%)
Education security			
Insecure	28.7	22,5	51.2
Secure	22.2	26.6	48.8
Total	50.9	49.1	100.0
Housing security			
Insecure	28.4	35.9	64.3
Secure	22.5	13.2	35.7
Total	50.9	49.1	100.0
Health security			
Insecure	23.7	30.7	54.4
Secure	27.2	18.4	45.6
Total	50.9	49.1	100.0
Economic security			
Insecure	31.6	34.8	66.4
Secure	19.3	14.3	33.6
Total	50.9	49.1	100.0
Food security			
Insecure	34.2	28.7	62.9
Secure	16.7	20.4	37.1
Total	50.9	49.1	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.2.4: Households' level of vulnerability to poverty

Vulnerability is widely used in various areas of knowledge and can be understood as a state of defenselessness against adverse shock on natural disaster that could inflict damage to a particular person, household or system (Levine, 2004 and Alexander, 2012). But in household livelihood security context where poverty is the ends and vulnerability is the means, vulnerable individuals can be classified to be those that are deprived of social, economic positions and material conditions that could hamper household productive resources because they are unable to cope with exposure to shocks, threats and risk of livelihood activities that could led to economic failure and at the long run become poor. Thus, an individual is poor when he/she has no right or claims to access productive resources while vulnerability to poverty when he or she is in the state of likelihood to become poor, if not currently poor or at risk of remaining poor/ poverty cycle if currently poor as operated in the definition of terms of this study.

Result on Table 4.11 reveals that slightly more than half of the respondents (50.6%) were not vulnerable to poverty while 49.4% were vulnerable to poverty over the last five years. This implies that slightly more than half of the respondents were not vulnerable to poverty. This suggests that a very few among others were able to bridge the gap of poverty cycle and they are probably more likely to fall back into cycle of poverty putting them at more risk of livelihood insecure especially when there are no alternative strategies to cope with unforeseen that could pose a threat on their livelihood.

Also, this result could be traced to the result on Table 4.26 that majority (51.5%) were livelihood insecure. This result infers that households that are vulnerable to poverty falls within the range of insecure livelihood, but the little (2.1%) shift of the proportion could be as a result of not meeting the demand of households effort of having been limited to available market on livelihood activities translating to a safe and adequate requirement of livelihood at the present, thereby, causing a very few (2.1%) of them from the state of not vulnerable to a state of becoming livelihood insecure. This corroborates the opinion of Fisher (2010) that livelihood security is likely to be under threatening when rural people are vulnerable to limited available market of social and market infrastructures. Yet, the co-existence of the shift could further explain the level of deprivation of households at current state of not vulnerable, which does not proportionately interpret the sustainability state of their livelihood. This thereby makes them fell

below the threshold of poverty cycle translating to a state of insecure livelihood. It is therefore evident that those that were currently in a state of being vulnerable to poverty could as well move out from the state especially on the attempt of overcoming the posing stress, threat and risk of vulnerability on livelihood security. And also increase the household resilience of diversification in a sustainable approach since vulnerability is not static. That is, the likelihood of either becoming poor, or remaining poor, especially in the current state of being deprived of livelihood productive resources. This thereby buttresses the FGD report by the discussants who explained that;

“There were negative changes on their state of vulnerability to poverty which can be traced to some policies made by the government in the agricultural sector, especially food, agriculture, labour and employment. Meanwhile, some of those policies adversely affect the standard of living of people that are poor at the grassroots. This is because the poor people could not face the consequences of such policies due to higher food prices not corresponding with their income earnings. So also, high minimum wages creates disincentive for the poor since employer pays based on the value of labour produces than a salary based workers not considering the fact that, they are both demanding for market. (Topon community of Ogun state, 01/07/2017).

Table 4.11: Distribution of households based on level of vulnerability to poverty

	Frequency	%
Not vulnerable	173	50.6
Vulnerable	169	49.4
Total	342	100
HVI=0.53		
Minimum=0.0		
Maximum=1		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.3 Households social group participation within the community

Group participation is an involvement of people in social groups to solve problems towards the development of community. It is principally important in affiliation, connectedness of people towards accessing social networks in order to build a secure livelihood. On the other hand, involvement in group participation is directly relative to social capital in which one know how social connection has an influence and/or its effects on livelihood security of a person or household.

Results on Table 4.12 depicts that substantial number of the respondents do not involve in the small groups within the community as regards to their participation. But, out of the few proportion that participated, town/ community has the highest proportion (23.4%), followed by the equal proportion (21.9%) of both religious group and cooperative society respectively, 11.4% participated in social club, while the least (9.6%) among all was age grade/ alumni association. As expected, all individuals belonged to a particular religious setting depending on their religious practice, but in the case of this, an individual should involved in a small group within their religious setting. This could be a reason behind few numbers of people who participated in the religious group and other items as shown on Table 4.12. This result is not in accordance with the findings of Akeweta, Oyesola, Ndaghu and Ademola (2014) and Ademola (2016) that rural dwellers are more associated with religious groups than economic groups like cooperative society.

Participation of household members was also measured as the result shown on Table 5.12 revealed that the proportion of spouses and children that participated in a small groups within the community is a function of social family support towards their respective household unit. Out of the very few numbers of household members that participated, 10.2% of spouses participated in town/community development, 8.8% of them participated in cooperative society, 7.6% participated in the small groups within the religious group they belongs, 2.6% participated in age-grade /alumni group and lastly, 1.8% participated in social group. The number of spouses who participated in groups within the coummunity is quite discouraging, since many social

activities rely on women, so also, cultural and social participation is an accepted part of women's life. But as regards these findings, the turn up of spouses (women) were low. The implication of this could be traced to women level of education and cultural practices, as they may likely not have their own mind of thought than to listen to their husband instructions as the head of the family, as it corroborated FAO (1998) that rural women especially tend to listen to men's suggestion and decisions for everything including their roles and responsibilities. For this reason, household head (men) who actively involved in social groups within their town/ community, tend to influence their spouse to do the same for them to collectively contribute to the development of the community.

Also, for the children, out of the few numbers of children that participated in small groups within the community, none on them belonged to executive members, a few (0.3%) of them belonged to committee member in social group and community development group respectively, while the little proportion left (1.2%, 0.3%, 0.6% and 0.6%) belonged to ordinary members in religious, cooperative, town/community development and age-grade/alumni groups respectively. The highest proportion (1.2%) among others that belongs to religious group is an indication that many of the children like to be actively involved in some groups within the religious setting for instance, children choir group and so on.

Furthermore, the position held by the household head in each of the small groups within the community is presented on Table 4.12 which reveals that many (14.6%, 5.6%, 15.2%, 11.4% and 5.8%) of the household head that participated were ordinary members in the religious group, social group, cooperative society, town/community development group and age-grade /alumni association respectively. Little among them (5.0%, 4.4%, 4.7% and 2.3%) were executive members while only few (2.3%, 1.5%, 4.3% and 0.9%) were committee member in the religious group, social group, cooperative society and age-grade /alumni association respectively. But in the case of town/community development group, household head who belonged to committee member are more than the executive member but less than ordinary members. This may be because there is no enough executive seat to accommodate number of individual that participated in town / community development group where their main interest is to contribute to the development of the community as supported by FGDs report that the discussant in Ekiti state reported that;

“Participation in any social groups within the community and service rendered to the community is based on individual interest” (Ago Aduloju community, 19/072017).

The number of meeting held on monthly basis in each of the small group within the community is presented on Table 4.12, and the result depicts that many of them held meeting between 1-2times in a month, while respondent frequently attended meetings at all the speculated time or scheduled of the meetings for religious group (15.8%), social group (7.6%), cooperative society (12.9%) and town /community development (12.9%) except for age grade /alumni association, where the respondents slightly attended meeting alternately (5.0%) than all the time (4.7%). This could be because age-grade/ alumni association is not on a mission of developing the community directly but more of personal and group development.

In overall, rural areas are homogenous in nature and they tend to build relationship among themselves but reverse is the case in this study, having small number of people compared with the population size who involved in community participation as a means of social networking. However, this result could be traced to the FGDs reports in Osun and Ogun states where discussant explained that;

“No significant social organization existed in the communities that could bind them together except the landlord’s association which is primarily structured for the purpose of community development and membership is restricted to household head who is the owner of the house whether through inheritance or self owned” (Orisumbare Alagbede (08/06/2017) and Topon communities (01/07/2017)).

But only discussant in Ekiti state explained that;

“Significant social groups existed and they include religious, age grade group, cooperative group and committee group respectively. And participation is based on interest”.(Ago Aduloju community, 19/07/2017).

Furthermore, Table 4.13 reveals that 50.9% of the respondents had low level of group participation within the community while 49.1% had high level of group participation within the community. This implies that the community participation serves as mutual connectedness and not necessarily driven aim at safety net to help rural dwellers pursue a better livelihood security. This results still follows the trend of vulnerability to poverty translating to livelihood security

outcome since most of the poor attached social group participation with people of high socioeconomic status.

Thus, the result infers that closely related proportion of the respondents had both high and low level of group participation in the study area, since it is based on individual interest and not as a goal targeting of safety net. This also corroborates the findings of Ademola (2016) that closely related proportion had both high and low level of quality of social capital. Hence, safety net should be more of focus in community activities aligned with the primary aim in order to arouse household interest to participate and also not being restricted to only the household head in order to build capacities of individual towards accomplishing a secure livelihood.

Table 4.12: Distribution of households based on group participation within the community

S/N	Groups within the community	No		Yes		Participation of household member		Position held									No of meetings held monthly		Frequency of participation		
		F	%	F	%	Spouse %	Child (ren) %	Ordinary HH %	Committee			Executive			1-2 %	3&above %	All the time %	Every alternate meetings %	Rarely		
								S %	C %	HH %	S %	C %	HH %	S %	C %						
1.	Religious group	267	78.1	75	21.9	7.6	1.2	14.6	5.8	1.2	2.3	1.8	-	5.0	-	-	18.4	3.5	15.8	4.4	1.8
2.	Social club	303	88.6	39	11.4	1.8	0.3	5.6	1.5	-	1.5	0.3	0.3	4.4	-	-	9.9	1.5	7.6	2.9	0.9
3.	Cooperative society	267	78.1	75	21.9	8.8	0.3	15.2	4.3	0.3	2.0	4.1	-	4.7	0.3	-	19.3	2.6	12.9	8.5	0.6
4.	Town/community development group	262	76.6	80	23.4	10.2	0.9	11.4	6.4	0.6	6.7	-	0.3	5.3	0.3	-	22.2	1.2	12.9	10.2	0.3
5.	Age grade alumni/association	309	90.4	33	9.6	2.6	0.6	5.8	0.9	0.6	1.5	0.9	-	2.3	0.9	-	9.1	0.6	4.7	5.0	-

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 4.13: Distribution of households based on level group participation within the community

	Frequency	%
Low participation (<2.49)	174	50.9
High participation (\geq 2.49)	168	49.1
Total	342	100
Mean =2.49		
Minimum=0.00		
Maximum=16.24		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.4 Households coping strategies to mitigate or mediate vulnerability to poverty

Ellis (2000) defines coping strategies as the method used by households to survive when confronted with unanticipated livelihood failures or shortfalls. Vulnerability entails the relationship between poverty, risk, shocks and efforts to manage both the shocks and risk (Alwang, Siegel and Jorgensen, 2001). Nevertheless, a thorough understanding of these characteristics and priorities set aside for both vulnerable and poor ones is crucial to have an effective strategies to cope with the reduction in the share of those who are currently poor to mitigate their current state and those that are likely to become poor to mediate to resolve in order to become poor (Chaudhuri, Jalan and Suryahadi, 2002). In the same vein, there are some factors being identified by this study that the respondents used as coping strategies towards vulnerability to poverty. Table 5.14 reveals that the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th coping strategies adopted by the respondents was reduction in food quantity consumption (96.6%), diversification of income generating activities (79.0%), children acquisition of informal skills, vocational training and education for increase human resources (74.5%) and increase household resiliency (74.0%) respectively. This could further explained that the respondents strategize through modifying consumption of food by eating less preferred and less expensive food, having multiple portfolio to complement income from their primary occupation, send their children to acquire certain skills and knowledge that is completely different from the livelihood activities that the household head engaged in and sending certain members of the family to live and/or work elsewhere. All this translates to household increasing resilience since it's a mechanism to minimize stressful event that could pose a risk of vulnerability to poverty. This supports the FGD report of the Osun and Ekiti states by the discussants that;

“People diversified their activities as their means of coping strategies to mediate and mitigate vulnerability to poverty as majority mainly engaged in farming and they also diversify into activities like driving, trading, agricultural processing and artisanal jobs” (08/06/2017 and 19/07/2017).

“Also, sending their children to acquire skills, vocational training and formal education is on the verge of making them responsible and self dependent in order for them to be free of financial burdens in the nearest future” (08/06/2017).

Furthermore, the last two coping strategies were begging (20.3%) and migration (30.7%). This could be attributed to those that beg for work before they could eat and they happens to be the migrants who are characterized as being poorer among them, because of lack of access to land to farm in order to meet up with the livelihood security requirements since they are new citizen of the communities. This is in tandem with the FGD report that;

“People with poorer socioeconomic status are the ones who seek for job and at the same time beg for either cash in advance or food and on the long run use it to perform task on their farm” (08/06/2017).

However, result from Table 4.15 reveals the respondents level of coping strategies to mitigate or mediate vulnerability to poverty. Majority (53.2%) of the respondents had high level of coping strategies, while 46.8% of the respondents had low level of coping strategies to mitigate or mediate vulnerability to poverty. The implication of this is that more than half of the respondents have social responses as a tool to offset threats of household vulnerability to poverty, even in the face of hardship. This could also be traced to Table 4.18 as majority sometimes (61.7%) eat fewer meals in the food security distribution as a form of rationing, which also complement the majority (96.6%) who adopted reduction of food consumption as a form of coping strategies on Table 4.14. This could stand as a very common response to secure livelihood since food is a subset of a livelihood security. In the same vein, majority of the household cope with rationing of food consumption despite the fact that food is an indispensable prerequisite for human survival. This corroborates the findings of Adugna and Fikadu (2015) who reported that many rural households in Ethiopia consumed fewer meals, or less food at each meal which is much poorer quality and of more limited variety than normal.

Table 4.14: Distribution of respondents based on coping strategies to mitigate or mediate vulnerability to poverty

S/N	Items	Never		Occasionally		Always		Weighted mean	Rank
		F	%	F	%	F	%		
1.	Receiving inheritance earnings	180	52.6	139	40.6	23	6.7	54.0	8 th
2.	Diversification of income generating activities	101	29.5	212	62.0	29	8.5	79.0	2 nd
	Selling of physical assets	182	53.2	146	42.7	14	4.1	50.9	9 th
4.	Children acquisition of skills, training and education for increased human resources	120	35.1	189	55.3	33	9.6	74.5	3 rd
5.	Reduction in food quantity consumption	58	17.0	238	69.6	46	13.5	96.6	1 st
6.	Reliance on help from relatives	118	34.5	206	60.2	18	5.3	70.8	7 th
7.	Accessibility of available social infrastructures	100	29.2	232	67.8	10	2.9	73.6	5 th
8.	Labour source utilization to help in other transiting activities	109	31.9	216	63.2	17	5.0	73.2	6 th
9.	Remittance from friends and family	192	56.1	132	38.6	18	5.3	49.2	10 th
10.	Migration	251	73.4	77	22.5	14	4.1	30.7	11 th
11.	Begging	278	81.3	59	17.3	5	1.5	20.3	12 th
12.	Increase household resiliency	133	38.9	165	48.2	44	12.9	74.0	4 th

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 4.15: Distribution of households level of coping strategies based on vulnerability to poverty

Level of coping strategies to vulnerability to poverty	Frequency	%
Low (<7.46)	160	46.8
High (\geq 7.46)	180	53.2
Total	342	100
Mean=7.46		
Minimum=0		
Maximum=24		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5 Livelihood security of households

People's essential needs are built on household resources and these are more exclusively determined by sustainability and adequacy of those resources otherwise known as livelihood security components. However, the components cut across livelihood study and the one's isolated for this study were, economic security, food security, health security, housing security and education security. The result of analysis for each of their operationalisation is discussed below

4.5.1 Households economic security status (₦)

4.5.1.1 Households income flow of economic security

Economic security refers to the condition of households or individual having a stable income or other financial resources to support a standard of living now and in the foreseeable future. On the other hand, for any household to be economic secure, it means such household is able to cater and cover its essential needs of the household with income generated and also cover unavoidable expenditures in a sustainable manner. But in a situation where all the essential needs (like food, shelter/housing, access to health, education of children e.t.c.) are not covered, economic insecurity sets in, which is directly proportional to livelihood security.

Results of analysis on Table 4.16.1 shows that majority (81.9%) of the respondents engaged in crop production and earned average annual income of ₦160,301.17. Out of those who earned from crop production, most (36.3%) of them claimed that the income was low. The implication of this is that the farmers are low income earners and the predominant occupation is agriculture in the study area as supported by findings of Olajide and Ladigbolu (2017). Also, households who engaged in and generated income from artisanal jobs (24.9%), earned an average income of ₦43,864.33. Out of the smaller proportion (24.9%), 13.5% of them regarded their income earned from the artisanal jobs as being low. Following this, respondent who engaged in trading (23.4%), earned average income of ₦33,345.03 out of which 14.9% of them claimed the income level was low.

Having considering the result shown, majority engaged in farming (crop production) but some of them diversify their activities in order to generate more income and pursue a secure livelihood. This assertion is in accordance with the finding of FGD that;

“Majority engaged in one major activity but some diversify into artisanal jobs, trading and so on for the purpose of accessing multiple income streams to better their life” (Discussants from Agbo-Aduloju in Ekiti ,19/07/2017 and Orisumbare Alagbede in Osun states, 08/06/2017).

Furthermore, 22.5% of the respondents received remittances of ₦ 18514.62 on annual basis. Whereas, most (10.8%) of them claimed the amount earned was at medium level, these claims could be attributed to the respondents not using their sweat, since it is either gift or inheritance earnings as compared with other probable source of income. 21.1% are involved in livestock enterprise having average income of ₦ 10653.22 and out of which most (11.7%) of them claimed the income earned from the enterprise was at medium level. Despite the smaller proportion who engaged in wages job, they still earn more than those involved in livestock enterprises averagely on annual basis. This could be as a result of farming as their predominant occupation in the study area and most of them who engaged in it, might not have manpower to dominate in both pre-planting and post planting operation, as they probably being pushed/or forced to employ people who they tend to pay on wages.

The least (0.9%) in the distribution was clergy, who earned an average income of ₦ 818.7 and out of which 0.6% of them claimed that the income earned from the job was at medium level. Having considering the adequacy of income earned on Table 4.16.1, none of the respondents claimed that their income is very adequate. This could be due to the fact that none of the respondents are better off to secure livelihood. Whereas, there is a general sayings in economics as a course that says ‘human want are unlimited and insatiable’, the implication of none of them being better off could be supported with the report of FGD which stated that;

“None of the people in the community are better off but they are either poor or with average socioeconomic status” (19/07/2017).

Table 4.16.1 further depicts the stability of income of the respondents in the study area. The result indicates that majority claimed that the income from crop production (42.1%), livestock enterprise (11.1%), remittances (10.8%), artisans (12.8%) and wages job (2.0%) were stable respectively. Only those who involved in trading (10.8%) and processing (2.6%) activities mostly claimed their income earned was not stable. This suggests that, fluctuation of prices occurred in both agricultural produce and non-agricultural products on daily basis translating to instability of their income. This corroborates Richard and Chrystal (2007) finding that farmers

face problems of declining of income most often due to fluctuation in prices of agricultural produce. Market tends to move better especially on market days than other days which connote the instability of income as well. Also, instability of income earned on processing activities signifies seasonality and falling of expected yield. The implication of this result is because all households do not engage and earn from the same livelihood portfolios, therefore, the livelihood tend to vary across.

Table 4.16.1: Distribution of respondents based on economic security (Income flow) (n=342)

S/N	Items	Yes		Income (₦) Mean income in Naira	Income level			Income adequate			Income Stability		
		F	%		High	Medium	Low	Very adequate	Adequate	Inadequate	V.Stab	Stable	Not stable
1.	Crop production earnings	280	81.9	₦ 160301.17	14.0	31.6	36.3	-	44.4	37.4	5.3	42.1	34.5
2.	Livestock enterprise	72	21.1	₦ 10653.22	4.4	11.7	5.0	-	8.2	12.9	0.3	11.1	9.6
3.	Remittances	77	22.5	₦ 18514.62	3.2	10.8	8.5	-	11.9	10.5	2.6	10.8	9.1
4.	Cash from other income generating activities												
I	Artisans	85	24.9	₦ 43864.33	3.8	7.5	13.5	-	11.7	13.2	1.5	12.8	10.5
II	Clergy	3	0.9	₦ 818.7	0.3	0.6	-	-	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3
III	Trading	80	23.4	₦ 33345.03	1.5	6.9	14.9	-	9.6	13.7	2.3	10.2	10.8
IV	Wages job	12	3.5	₦ 17748.54	1.2	1.5	0.9	-	2.0	1.5	0.6	2.0	0.9
V	Processing	14	4.1	₦ 1600.88	0.6	1.2	2.3	-	1.2	2.9	-	1.5	2.6

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.1.2 Households expenditure flow of economic security

Table 4.16.2 presents the results on the expenses made annually by the households. The result shows that majority (96.2%) made expenses on household domestic needs on the average of ₦ 138,659.50 annually. In ascending order, 88.3% of the households' spent ₦48,842.11 on children education bills (school fees, lesson fees, pocket money etc.) averagely on annual basis. 87.7% of the respondents spent ₦ 24,183.33 averagely on purchase of productive assets that could fetch them more money in their income generating activities, 82.2% of them spent ₦ 15,775.43 averagely on health care bills as one of the essential household needs, since there is a general adage that 'health is wealth'. 50.9% spent ₦16,546.78 averagely on remittances given to family and friends, 48.8% spent ₦10,366.67 averagely on ceremony donations since human being are social beings, which they tend to attend ceremonial functions to improve or boost their social capital. The least (45.3%) in the distribution was the respondents that paid average sum of ₦ 25901.46 annually as salary to employee (labour utilization) in their farming activities. This result informs that majority required less labour intensive on their main occupation (farming activities) to avoid payment or financial burdens on salary paid to employee, as they tend to use more of family labour or self labour on their farm, since they do not operate on a large commercial scale of production.

The ratings of the expenses made by the respondent also shown on Table 4.16.2 revealed that majority (68.8%, 50.0%, 49.1%, 41.2%, 30.7%, 28.4% and 27.8%) rated their expenses made on household domestic needs, purchase of productive assets, health care bills, children education bills, ceremony donations, salary paid to employee and remittances given to family and friends as medium level on annual basis, respectively. But, out of those rated as medium level of expenses, majority (68.8 %) still rated household needs as pressing and considering the expenses made to be medium level since most household heads had no other option than to place family needs as a priority because food is one of the essential household needs for survival.

Furthermore, almost half (40.6%) of the respondent that made expenses on children education bills rated it as high level of expenses. This is not supposed to be so, since majority enrolled their children into government schools, considering its availability in the communities as shown on Table 4.24.1. Hence, government school does not attract tuition fee (i.e free education), but the additional transport fare given to the children to pursue their education especially secondary

education which could necessitate high level of expenses rated by the household respondents. This also corroborates the FGD report in Topon community of Ogun state where the discussant explained that;

“There were no available government schools in the community except for neighbouring town” (01/07/2017)

Also, the discussant in the FGD report explained that;

“There was only government primary school situated in the community, so, the school-aged children have to go out of the community to pursue their secondary education” (Ago Aduloju community in Ekiti state, 19/072017).

Therefore, the result infers that the additional expenses could be limiting factor in accessing other basic needs of livelihood adequately which may translate to low level of livelihood security.

Table 4.16.2: Distribution of respondents based on economic security (Expenditure flow) (n=342)

S/N	Items	Yes		Expenses spent (₦) Mean expenditure	Level		
		F	%		High	Medium	Low
1.	Salary paid to employee	155	45.3	₦ 25901.46	15.5	28.4	1.5
2.	Household domestic needs	331	96.2	₦ 138659.50	30.4	68.8	8.2
3.	Health care bills	281	82.2	₦ 15775.43	24.9	49.1	8.2
4.	Purchase of productive assets	300	87.7	₦ 24183.33	26.6	50.0	11.1
5.	Children education bills (school fees, lesson fees, pocket money Hetc.)	302	88.3	₦48842.11	40.6	41.2	6.4
6.	Ceremony donations	302	48.8	₦10366.67	14.9	30.7	3.2
7.	Remittances given to family and friends	174	50.9	₦16546.78	18.7	27.8	4.4

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.1.3 Household level of economic security

Table 4.17 presents the level of economic security in the study area. The result indicates that majority (64.0%) had low level of economic security (economic insecure) while a smaller percentage (36.0%) had high level of economic security (economic secure). This implies that those who are able to have a safe, adequate earnings and strike balance on expenses were less. This could also be affirmed that the higher percentage who are economic insecure could be traced to those who are likely vulnerable to sustainable income. This corroborates Sylvia (2005) that most of the farming households earn income less than the family budget translating to low standard of living. Therefore, those who do not strategize their livelihood tends toward poverty reduction especially when there is relentlessness in their livelihood activities (economic activities). For instance, when one's expenditure is directly proportional to one's income, such individual still have a safe economic security, but in a situation where a shift set in having more expenditure than income, there is propensity of such individual to become livelihood insecure. Also, the results translate that the lesser percentage were able to cope in spite of shock, risk and threat of vulnerability that could limit their income, they still strike a balance in sustaining their income over their expenditure to have a secure economic.

Table 4.17: Distribution of households based on level economic security

	Frequency	Percentage
Economic insecure	219	64.0
Economic secure	123	36.0
Total	342	100.0
Mean=1.01		
Minimum= -0.04		
Maximum=11.43		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.2 Households Food security status

Food security exists in a situation when people at all times, have adequate access (in terms of physical, social and economic) to sufficient, safe and nutritious foods that meet their dietary needs and food preferences for a healthy living (Barrett, 2010). There are many factors to be considered in today's global environment that exacerbate food security, that is why food security is better explained by describing food insecurity. Whereas, food insecurity is either a temporal decline short fall of food (Transitory food insecurity) or a continuous inadequacy in food sufficiency (chronic food insecurity).

Food insecurity exists in every country of the world where there is hunger, and this often falls along economic and social lines. This form an inequity gap since there exhibits differences among the population as regards to income (Hazell and wood, 2008). Therefore, food security forms an integral part of a secure livelihood and a reduced vulnerability to poverty. Table 4.18 presents the food security status of the respondents in the study area. The result reveals that the majority (61.7%, 59.4%, 59.1%, 57.0%, 56.1%, 55.6%, 49.4% and 41.2%) responded to sometimes response option on statement 6, 5, 4, 7, 3, 2, 1 and 8 respectively. Only statement 9 deviates from the response distribution where the majority (47.1%) responded to rarely option. This could be traced to the rural setting where they are surrounded with green pastures. Based on the mean distribution, statement 7, 8 and 9 had a mean score of 2.01 ± 0.656 , 1.80 ± 0.742 and 1.68 ± 0.726 respectively. These three statements were discriminating statements in the distribution. This suggests the socio-cultural believe in southwestern, Nigeria, especially in rural settings that they are the food basket of any nation and they must at least have some of the farm produce for their family consumption. In an attempt of doing this, every individual must not sleep at night in hunger as they must at least eat dinner/supper as corroborated with the findings of Ademola (2016). This could also translate to people not going a whole day without eating at least once since they take dinner. This may be the reason behind large proportion of rarely response option (39.2%) for statement 8. This result infers that if almost all the respondents were often and sometimes do have worries on available food to eat and food preferences, it would have been regarded as transitory food insecure, since it is doubtful that the process will be continuous if possible effort are made after the survey, because the result shown is within 30days preceding the survey /data gathering. This assertion is consistent with the findings of Ademola

(2016) that all the beneficiaries are having transitory food insecurity since it is largely doubtful that all the beneficiaries were food insecure.

Furthermore, result from Table 4.19 also reveals that majority (62.9%) were food insecure while 37.1% of the respondents were food secure. This implies that majority were food insecure. This result is in line with the assertion of Okuneye (2001) that despite the increasing food production level in Nigeria, which the operations are domiciled in the rural areas, most of the rural dwellers in Nigeria constitute the largest proportion of food insecure. This result tends towards negative direction because it is expected of the rural people to be food secure since they are the food basket of any nation. That is, many households are farming households, who they derive their food entitlements from their own production, and even buy from market to complement their production when there have no surplus, yet, they are food insecure. The implication is that majority are far from meeting their food requirements of food security from their own production. This corroborate the findings of Adugna and Fikadu, (2015) that most of household failed to eat adequately or/to satisfaction either from their own production, or through purchase from market and even transfer among themselves. It also corroborates the FGD report by the discussants who reported that;

“There is available food since majority farm, but it’s not sufficient to feed the entire household, since their primary aim for engaging in it is income based. So, they need to purchase to complement their own production. But most times affordability is also a problem that is why they buy bit by bit and utilize it as manageable they could” (08/06/2017) .

Table 4.18: Distribution of respondents based on food security (n=342)

S/N	Statements	Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Mean±SD
		F	%	F	%	F	%	
1.	Worry that your households would not have enough to eat	132	38.6	169	49.4	41	12.0	2.27±0.661
2.	You or any household member not able to eat the kinds of food you preferred because of lack of resources	113	33.0	190	55.6	39	11.4	2.22±0.632
3.	You or any household member eat just a few kinds of food day after day due to a lack of resources	106	31.0	192	56.1	44	12.9	2.18±0.638
4.	You or any household member eat food that you preferred not to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food	102	29.8	202	59.1	38	11.1	2.19±0.613
5.	You or any household member eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food	99	28.9	203	59.4	40	11.7	2.17±0.615
6.	You or any household member eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food	94	27.5	211	61.7	37	10.8	2.16±0.597
7.	No food at all in your household because there were not resources to get more	76	22.2	195	57.0	71	20.8	2.01±0.656*
8.	You or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food	67	19.6	141	41.2	134	39.2*	1.80±0.742*
9.	You or any household member go a whole day without eating anything because there was not enough food	53	15.5	128	37.4	161	47.1*	1.68±0.726*

Source: Field survey, 2017**Grand mean =2.07**

Table 4.19 **Distribution of households based on level of food security**

	Frequency	%
Food insecure (9-18.68)	215	62.9
Food secure (18.69-27)	127	37.1
Total	342	100
Mean=18.69		
Minimum=9.00		
Maximum=27.00		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.3 Households Health security status

This comprises two indicators in measuring health security status and the measurement and discussion is as follows.

4.5.3.1 Households health care services secured

Health security has been viewed as an essential part of livelihood security since one's income or state of living contributes to the kind of health services/care one consumes. In view of this, health security was measured in two dimensions, which are the respondents indicate the diverse ways of accessing available health care service they utilized and their perception on the quality of care in utilizing the health care service delivery.

Result on Table 4.20.1 reveals that respondent most available health services usage were public health facility where they undertook maternity care (68.1%) and general body care (71.3%), followed by array of traditions for maternity care (47.7%) and general body care (56.7%). The least available ones for the respondent usage was private health facilities for maternity (18.4%), general body care (19.9%), orthopedic (4.1%), dental care (6.7%), ophthalmology care (5.6%) and hypertension (11.7%). This implies that availability of private health facility to them could be a subject of where it is located, as this could restrict their access and even its affordability when it come to bills payment and transportation fare. This is in accord with the FGDs report that;

“people do not have adequate access to private hospital in the community except they have to go to town since only primary health centres are the public health facility available in the communities” (19/07/2017).

For the pharmacies, the services they rendered differ from other health care service delivery but in terms of availability, the most common health problem is that most people seek for medical help from other service provider except for pharmacies where this notable health problem called general body care turned out to be least (5.8%). This is an indication that a standard pharmacy is less available in the communities and its environs, so only people who can afford to pay additional bills of transportation have access to it and they are the ones who claimed its available to them. Thus, as shown in the overall results on Table 4.20.1, which indicates that almost all the proportion of the respondents that claimed health care service availability for usage of different type of illness/ailment still claimed they have access. Under public health facility, out of the

respondents who indicated that its available, most of them (35.7%, 37.4%, 10.5%, 12.0%, 10.2% and 14.0%) have access, followed by those who claimed its very accessible (27.5%, 27.5%, 7.3%, 5.6%, 7.0% and 11.4%) while a few (4.9%, 6.4%, 1.2%, 1.2%, 1.8% and 0.9%) claimed they do not have access to maternity care, general body care, orthopedic care, dental care, ophthalmology care and hypertension care respectively. Following the same order for services rendered under private health facility where most of the respondent indicated accessible (13.2%, 13.5%, 3.5%, 5.3%, 4.1%, 8.2%), very accessible (3.2%, 4.4%, 0.6%, 1.2%, 1.5% and 2.3%) and not accessible (2.0%, 2.0%, 0%, 0.3%, 0% and 1.2%), patient medicine shop having respondents with accessible (16.1%, 32.7%, 4.4%, 7.6%, 4.4% and 7.3%), very accessible (6.7%, 8.8%, 2.0%, 3.8%, 1.8% and 4.4%) and not accessible (1.8%, 7.6%, 0%, 0.6%, 0.3% and 0.9%) and array of tradition having accessible (28.9%, 33.0%, 20.5%, 17.8%, 19.9% and 21.9%), very accessible (16.7%, 19.9%, 4.4%, 5.0%, 4.7%, 7.6%) and not accessible (2.1%, 3.8%, 0%, 0%, 0% and 0%) to maternity care, general body care, Orthopedic care, dental care, ophthalmology care, and hypertension care, respectively. Likewise, for pharmacies except for only consultancy services where the smaller proportion (3.8%) who indicated that the service is available, but do not follow the same order with other services as they claimed that consultancy services was very accessible (1.8%), accessible (1.5%) and not accessible (0.6%). This is an indication that those who utilize the pharmacies are there for the purpose of consulting the pharmacist before administration of drugs on whatever ailment they need assistance for.

Along with, considering the affordability of the health service provider as regards to ailment, many of the respondents that access the service provider indicated that they can affordably pay for the services rendered under public health (49.4%, 50.6%, 16.1%, 15.8%, 15.8% and 22.2%), patient medicine (20.8%, 37.4%, 5.8%, 10.2%, 5.6% and 10.5%) and array of tradition (34.8%, 40.9%, 22.8%, 20.5%, 22.8% and 26.0%) on maternity care, general body care, orthopedic care, dental care, ophthalmology care, and hypertension care respectively. Likewise, respondents can affordably pay for services rendered by pharmacies (3.8%, 6.7% and 2.6%) on general body care, prescribed drugs and consultancy services respectively. Followed by very affordable as next majority that the respondents indicated that service rendered by the public health facilities provider (13.7%, 14.3%, 1.5%, 1.8%, 1.2% and 2.0%), patient medicine (2.0%, 4.1%, 0.3%, 0.9%, 0.6% and 1.2%), array of tradition (9.4%, 10.8%, 1.5%, 1.5%, 1.5% and 2.0%) on maternity care, general body care, orthopedic care, dental care, ophthalmology care, and

hypertension care, respectively and pharmacies (0.9%, 1.8%, 0.6%) on general body care, prescribed drugs and consultancy services respectively, while a very few respondents who claimed the service rendered was not affordable by public health facility (0%, 0%, 0.3%, 0%, 0% and 1.2%), patent medicine (0%, 0%, 0.3%, 0.3%, 0% and 0%), array of tradition (1.5%, 1.2%, 0.6%, 0.9%, 0.3% and 1.5%) on maternity care, general body care, Orthopedic care, dental care, ophthalmology care and hypertension care, respectively and pharmacies (0.3%, 1.8%, 0%) on general body care, prescribed drugs and consultancy services respectively. However, many of the respondents who have access to private health facility claimed its affordable (11.7%, 12.6%, 4.1%, 3.2%, 7.6%) on maternity care, general body care, dental care, ophthalmology care, and hypertension care respectively. Followed by, not affordable and very affordable as the least except for only respondents having illnesses on cases of orthopedic that indicated they could not afford (2.3%) to pay while 1.8% could only afford to pay the bills. In furtherance, under each of the service provider for ailment in this distribution, adequacy and acceptable response were consistent having respondents with most of them responded to service provided being adequate and acceptable, followed by very adequate and very acceptable while a few claimed, not to be adequate and acceptable other than still having quite numbers of ailment that services was rendered to and none of the respondents claimed it was either not adequate or not acceptable. Under not adequate, these are private health facility (general body care, orthopedic and ophthalmology), patent medicine (maternity care, ophthalmology care and hypertension), pharmacies (prescribed drugs, consultancy services) and array of traditions (maternity care, general body care, ophthalmology care and hypertension). The implication of this result is that the respondents who do not choose “not adequate” option are well satisfactory with the treatment given to them not only in terms of cost implications but in their expertise having being regarded as qualified health practitioners. Conversely, respondents who indicated not acceptable to service provider to ailments could be traced to those who still had additional treatment after the previous services provided to them. And this could translate to additional expenses spent which draw back on their household economic security viz-a-viz livelihood security.

Result on Table 4.20.1 also reveals that general body care was the predominant illness, the respondents treated in respective health care services provider, public primary health facility (\bar{x} =0.80), private health facility (\bar{x} =0.19), patent medicine (\bar{x} =0.49), pharmacies (\bar{x} =0.27) and array of traditions (\bar{x} =0.66). In overall, the grand mean score in the distribution was 0.25.

Therefore, public primary health facility took the lead ($\bar{x}=0.41$), followed by array of traditions ($\bar{x}=0.39$) which implies that most of the respondents do secure with public primary health facility and array of tradition in the study area. While, the discriminatory health facility were private health facility ($\bar{x}=0.11$), pharmacies ($\bar{x}=0.15$) and patent medicine shop ($\bar{x}=0.19$). The implication of this finding is that, the poor rural households were the ones who visited public primary health facility and array of tradition to take care of their illness since it could be the only accessible and affordable health facility available to them. Also, considering the cost implication of private health facility, pharmacies and patent medicine shop could limit them in accessing the service provider, viz-a-viz covering their household income. This corroborates Asrat and Amanuel (2001) who reported that several households had a rethink before seeking for medical aid, while it suggest depletion on household resources. In similar study conducted among urban households, one-quarter of the household proportion visited non-government health facilities while two-third of them visited government health care facilities (Demographic and health survey, 2000). It is quite interesting that a social reality operates among rural household, which commensurate the urban households as most household visit government health facilities because the services were either free or at low cost. For this reason, most rural household prefer spending less on health care services since, it tends to fall back on their income which is tenable to low level of livelihood security because health is not the only component that constitutes basic requirement of livelihood security.

Table 4.20.1: Distribution of respondents based on health care services secured (n=342)

Items	Availability		Accessibility			Affordability			Adequacy			Acceptability			Mean
	Yes F	%	VA %	A %	NA %	VA %	A %	NA %	VA %	A %	NA %	VA %	A %	NA %	
Public primary health facility ($\bar{x}=0.41$)															
Maternity care	233	68.1	27.5	35.7	4.9	13.7	49.4	-	12.0	48.0	3.2	15.2	44.7	-	0.77
General body care	244	71.3	27.5	37.4	6.4	14.3	50.6	-	13.2	50.3	1.5	15.8	47.4	0.3	0.80
Orthopaedic	65	19.0	7.3	10.5	1.2	1.5	16.1	0.3	3.5	13.5	0.6	3.5	13.5	-	0.21
Dental care	64	18.7	5.6	12.0	1.2	1.8	15.8	-	1.2	15.5	0.9	1.2	14.9	0.6	0.19
Ophthalmology	65	19.0	7.0	10.2	1.8	1.2	15.8	0.3	3.5	12.9	0.6	3.8	12.0	0.6	0.20
Hypertension	90	26.3	11.4	14.0	0.9	2.0	22.2	1.2	4.1	19.9	0.3	5.0	17.8	1.2	0.29
Private health facility ($\bar{x}=0.11$)															
Maternity care	63	18.4	3.2	13.2	2.0	1.2	11.7	3.5	1.5	10.8	0.6	1.8	10.5	-	0.18
General body care	68	19.9	4.4	13.5	2.0	0.6	12.6	4.7	2.3	10.8	-	1.8	10.5	0.9	0.19
Orthopaedic	14	4.1	0.6	3.5	-	-	1.8	2.3	0.6	1.2	-	-	0.9	0.9	0.04
Dental care	23	6.7	1.2	5.3	0.3	-	4.1	2.3	0.6	2.6	0.9	-	2.9	0.3	0.07
Ophthalmology	19	5.6	1.5	4.1	-	0.3	3.2	2.0	0.9	2.2	-	0.6	2.9	-	0.06
Hypertension	40	11.7	2.3	8.2	1.2	-	7.6	2.9	1.2	5.8	0.6	0.6	4.7	1.8	0.11
Patent medicine shop ($\bar{x}=0.19$)															
Maternity care	84	24.6	6.7	16.1	1.8	2.0	20.8	-	2.0	20.8	-	2.0	20.8	-	0.26
General body care	168	49.1	8.8	32.7	7.6	4.1	37.4	-	2.9	38.0	0.6	4.4	36.3	0.3	0.49
Orthopaedic	22	6.4	2.0	4.4	-	0.3	5.8	0.3	0.3	3.5	2.3	0.3	3.5	-	0.07
Dental care	41	12.0	3.8	7.6	0.6	0.9	10.2	0.3	0.6	8.2	2.3	1.5	6.7	0.6	0.13
Ophthalmology	22	6.4	1.8	4.4	0.3	0.6	5.6	-	-	6.1	-	0.3	5.8	-	0.07
Hypertension	43	12.6	4.4	7.3	0.9	1.2	10.5	-	0.9	10.8	-	1.5	10.2	-	0.14

Pharmacies**(\bar{x} =0.15)**

General body care	20	5.8	2.0	2.9	0.9	0.9	3.8	0.3	0.9	3.5	0.6	0.9	3.2	0.3	0.27
Prescribed drugs	39	11.4	4.7	5.6	1.2	1.8	6.7	1.8	3.5	5.0	-	3.5	5.0	-	0.13
Consultancy services	13	3.8	1.8	1.5	0.6	0.6	2.6	-	0.9	2.3	-	0.6	2.6	-	0.04

Array of medical traditions**(\bar{x} =0.39)**

Maternity care	163	47.7	16.7	28.9	2.1	9.4	34.8	1.5	12.0	31.9	-	14.0	29.9	-	0.56
General body care	194	56.7	19.9	33.0	3.8	10.8	40.9	1.2	14.3	37.4	-	18.1	33.6	-	0.66
Orthopaedic	85	24.9	4.4	20.5	-	1.5	22.8	0.6	5.0	19.0	0.3	5.3	18.7	-	0.28
Dental care	78	22.8	5.0	17.8	-	1.5	20.5	0.9	2.0	19.3	0.6	2.3	19.0	-	0.24
Ophthalmology	84	24.6	4.7	19.9	-	1.5	22.8	0.3	4.7	19.0	0.6	5.3	18.4	-	0.27
Hypertension	101	29.5	7.6	21.9	-	2.0	26.0	1.5	5.3	22.8	-	5.8	22.2	-	0.33

Source: Field survey, 2017**Grandmean=0.25**

4.5.3.2 Households perceived quality of care security

Table 4.20.2 reveals that most of the respondents agreed with the statement provided to them in regards to perception of quality of care that health care service provider rendered. In ascending order, the respondents agreed that a good medication rendered by service provider should be based on patients' complaint (95.5%), there should be relatively high level of accuracy in diagnosing patient before given treatment (94.7%), sufficient and adequate diagnostic equipment assist patient treatment effectively (94.2%), health care service provided are generally satisfactory (93.6%), patient should be subjected to test before given medications (90.6%), buying and taking of drugs without prescription by health worker could lead to health disorder (84.5%), patient taking expired drugs are prone to other health problems (83.6%), there is need to ask patients the exact medication they have been previously used before seeking medical practitioners help (83.6%), running laboratory test could bring a valid health problem of individual patient which could help in providing accurate solution of preventive measures to such health problem (78.9%), the products of drug determine the effectiveness of that particular drug (75.1%), taking medical advice could be sufficient enough to get healed (74.9%), there is need for suitability of treatment with the health challenge being faced by patients (72.8%), taking of drugs being recommended after the speculated period could lead to some challenges (71.9%), the products of drug generally have a specified atmospheric condition it should be exposed to (71.1%), there is level of exposure to the different health care service rendered to different kind of illness (64.0%) and addiction to a particular drug could complicate functionality of drug when taken along side with recommended dosage (55.3%). This result implies that despite the level of their education in the study area, their perspective on health quality information still goes along with better educated population views on health information. This is not in tandem with the findings of Fotaki, Roland, Boyd, McDonald, Scheaff and Smith (2008) that rating of quality, satisfaction and need assessment of patient population groups is exercised by information choice which is higher among better educated population. Besides, different characteristics by gender has been said to influence rating of service provider and information of quality of health care where women typically rate lower or having negative thought in quality of care as asserted by Pini, Sarafis, Malliarou, Tsounis, Igoumendis, Bamidis and Niakas (2014). This assertion is not in accordance with the findings of this study because majority of the respondents were males as shown in Figure 4.1. This could be a reason for this study not being consistent with the previous

finding, since the population of this study was household heads. Consequently, there is high tendency of having similar characteristics and sharing the same mentality being the household head (sole provider) because the roles and responsibilities assumption are quite the same on the household unit irrespective of their gender.

Based on the mean scores, the results indicate that patients' satisfaction and equity ($\bar{x}=1.7$) were the only discriminating domain in the distribution. This implies that the respondents perception about the quality of care provided to them are not satisfactory enough since the health facility are deficient in terms of resources availability in terms of infrastructures and equipments. This supports the FGD report in Orisumbare Alagbede Osun state and Ago Aduloju Ekiti state as discussants explained that;

“The primary health centre available in the community have no good medications to treat patients adequately because they only listen to complains and prescribe drugs to patient” (08/06/2017 and 19/07/2017).

Whereas discussants from Topon, Ogun state explained that;

“Primary health facility in the communities is not accessible because of their deficiency. So, people have to go to nearest town to access proper health care. This is one of the challenges faced on health facilities because some patients might have probably given up before getting to town especially on emergency cases due to bad road” (01/07/2017).

**Table 4.20.2: Distribution of respondents based on perceived quality of care security
(n=342)**

S/N		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Total	MEAN	
		F	%	F	%	F	%			
Patient satisfaction and equity(\bar{x}=1.7)										
1.	Health care services provided are generally satisfactory	320	93.6	17	5.0	5	1.5	342	100.0	2.92
2.	Some of the services are often reserved for some set of individuals	18	5.3	42	12.3	282	82.5	342	100.0	1.23*
3.	There is generally level of exposure to the different health care service rendered to different kind of illness	219	64.0	86	25.1	37	10.8	342	100.0	2.53
4.	Health care services rendered by service provider are unsatisfactory	9	2.6	49	14.3	284	83.0	342	100.0	1.20*
5.	Health services rendered are often discriminatory to some persons	9	2.6	52	15.2	281	82.2	342	100.0	1.20*
6.	The service provided are mostly unsatisfactory	7	2.0	26	7.6	309	90.4	342	100.0	1.12*
Provider Compliance(\bar{x}=2.11)										
7.	A good medication rendered by service provider should be based on patients complaints	325	95.0	13	3.8	4	1.2	342	100.0	2.94
8.	Patient should be subjected to test before given medications	310	90.6	30	8.8	2	0.6	342	100.0	2.90
9.	It is a bad practise of health workers to ask about previous drugs being taken by the patient before rendering their services	29	8.5	39	11.4	274	80.1	342	100.0	1.28*
10.	Medication rendered by service provider should be based on past experience without considering patient complaints	29	8.5	73	21.3	240	70.2	342	100.0	1.38*
11.	Medication shouldn't be given to patient based on labouratory test results	36	10.5	50	14.6	256	74.9	342	100.0	1.36*
12.	There is need to ask patients the exact medication they have been previously used before seeking medical practitioners help	286	83.6	41	12.0	15	4.4	342	100.0	2.79
Diagnostic accuracy(\bar{x}=2.05)										
13.	There should be relatively high level of accuracy in diagnosing patient before given treatment	324	94.7	16	4.7	2	0.6	342	100.0	2.94
14.	Sufficient and adequate diagnostic equipment assist patient treatment effectively	322	94.2	16	4.7	4	1.2	342	100.0	2.93
15.	There shouldn't be relatively high level of accuracy in diagnosing patient before given treatment	38	11.1	45	13.2	259	75.7	342	100.0	1.35
16.	Insufficient and inadequate diagnostic equipment assist patient treatment effectively	26	7.6	32	9.4	284	83.0	342	100.0	1.25
17.	There is need for suitability of treatment with the health challenge being faced by patients	249	72.8	74	21.6	19	5.6	342	100.0	2.67

18.	Running labouratory test could bring a valid health problem of individual patient which could help in providing accurate solution of preventive measures to such health problem	270	78.9	41	12.0	31	9.1	342	100.0	2.70
19.	Treatment given to patients should not match or suits the patients ailment	13	3.8	26	7.6	303	88.6	342	100.0	1.15*
20.	Results from labouratory test is not always reliable to makes the provider draw relevant preventive measures on	49	14.3	66	19.3	227	66.4	342	100.0	1.48*
Safety of the product (\bar{x}=2.12)										
21.	The products of drug determines the effectiveness of that particular drug	257	75.1	70	20.5	15	4.4	342	100.0	2.71
22.	The products of drug generally have a specified atmospheric condition that should be exposed to	243	71.1	89	26.0	10	2.9	342	100.0	2.68
23.	Administration of expired drugs are safer to use to treat ailments	23	6.7	31	9.1	288	84.2	342	100.0	1.23*
24.	Some of the products given to individual are not registered with NAFDAC which could be dangerous to health	142	41.5	74	21.6	126	36.8	342	100.0	2.05
25.	Patients taken expired drugs are prone to other health problems	286	83.6	43	12.6	13	3.8	342	100.0	2.80
26.	NAFDAC registration is of no use to the safety of drugs	11	3.2	62	18.1	269	78.7	342	100.0	1.25*
Patient compliance (\bar{x}=2.22)										
27.	Buying and taking of drugs without prescription by health worker could lead to health disorder	289	84.5	43	12.6	10	2.9	342	100.0	2.82
28.	Taking to medical advice could be sufficient enough to get healed	256	74.9	75	21.9	11	3.2	342	100.0	2.72
29.	Addiction to a particular drugs could complicate functionality of drug while taking alongside with recommended dosage	189	55.3	118	34.5	35	10.2	342	100.0	2.45
30.	Advice given by medical practitioners are of no use to prevent health problems	14	4.1	66	19.3	262	76.6	342	100.0	1.27*
31.	Taking of drugs being recommended after the speculated period could led to some health challenges	246	71.9	78	22.8	18	5.3	342	100.0	2.67
32.	Taking of drugs being recommended on speculated period could led to some health challenges	34	9.9	62	18.1	246	71.9	342	100.0	1.38*

Source: Field survey, 2017

Grand mean=2.04



Plate 4: A picture showing rural households unhealthy state of cooking environment

Source: Field survey, 2017



Plate 5: A picture showing a dilapidated health facility infrastructural condition in one of the rural communities sampled

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.3.3 Households' level of health security

Table 4.21 reveals that 55.6% had insecure level of health security while 44.4% had secure level of health security. This implies that most of the households were health insecure. This could be relative to their income since majority were economic insecure as shown on Table 4.17. In addition, good health is a key to human resources which is tenable to boost the economic activities whereby resulting to better economic security. Thus, economic activity translates to income which is directly proportional to livelihood security.

Table 4.21: Distribution of households based on level of health security

Level of health security	Frequency	%
Insecure (<5.98)	190	55.6
Secure (\geq 5.98)	152	44.4
Total	342	100
Mean=5.98		
Minimum=1.18		
Maximum=18.08		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.4.1 Households housing security status

Table 4.22 presents the housing security of households in the study area based on availability, accessibility, state of facility and acquisition. The result on availability shows that most of the respondents (42.7%) claimed unplastered mud block house with roofing sheets were available to them. Thirty one point one percent claimed cemented block house was available, 19.0% of them claimed plastered mud house with roofing sheet was available, while 5.3% and 2.9% claimed non-cemented block house with corrugated roofing sheet and mud with nylon covered roofing were available to them respectively. Therefore, the most available type of house (unplastered mud block house with roofing sheet), which was often accessible (41.2%) among which 26.9% of them indicated the state of facility as fair. Meanwhile, 16.0% acquired the house through inheritance, 14.6% personally owned it while 12.0% claimed it was a rented apartment.

Furthermore, almost all the respondents always access their respective available housing type as shown on Table 4.22. Only few (0.6%, 2.9% 1.2%, 0.9% and 0.6%) among them sometimes access non-cemented block house with corrugated roofing sheet, cemented block house with roofing sheet, unplastered mud block house with roofing sheet, mud with nylon covered roof and plastered mud house with roofing sheet respectively. This implies that, those who sometimes access the aforementioned kind of house in the study area, could invariably be as a result of their acquisition mode (inheritance) which they might likely be deprived of right over it and could have been an added advantage to their economic security and as well translate to livelihood security. This support the FGD report from the discussants in Ago Aduloju community in Ekiti state that;

“People who do not conform to the norms and values of the community are being deprived of basic needs of livelihood security as a whole. They further explained that the community can go to the extent of sending away or banning such individual and his/her family from the community” (19/07/2017).

The least (2.9%) among the available type of house (mud with nylon covered roof) suggests that the kind of living house is not so peculiar in the study area. This is in accord with the social realities that rural area are not the same because that type of house can only serve as shed on broad day light/or during working hour as a place of relaxation on the farm.

“There was unequal access to land use between the indigenes and the migrants. Although, no discrimination coexisted between them but if land is needed among the migrants, they either go on lease/ rent depending on the agreement between the owner and the user” (01/07/2017).

Using the mean scores on Table 4.22, the most type of house the respondents were secured with was unplastered mud block house with roofing sheet ($\bar{x}=0.72\pm 0.886$). The result also reveals that 0.35 was the grand mean score of the distribution. Hence, the discriminating items were mud house with nylon covered roof ($\bar{x}=0.04\pm 0.247$), non-cemented block house with corrugated roofing sheet ($\bar{x}=0.09\pm 0.389$) and plastered mud house with roofing sheet ($\bar{x}=0.34\pm 0.735$). This implies that the type of house the respondents were secured with indicated the respondents' state of economic security in the study area. That is, respondents that are not economically viable tend to secure unplastered mud block house with roofing sheet ($\bar{x}=0.72\pm 0.886$) while those that are economically viable secured cemented block house with roofing sheet ($\bar{x}=0.57\pm 0.897$) since income is directly proportional to other resources of livelihood security in terms of access, quality, adequacy and sustainability.



Plate 6: A cross section of the housing type that most rural households secure
Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 5.22: Distribution of households based on housing security

S/N	Items	Availability				Accessibility				State of facility						Aquisition						Mean±SD
		No		Yes		A		S		Good		Fair		Poor		O		I		R		
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
1	Non-cemented block house with corrugated roofing sheet	324	94.5	18	5.3	15	4.4	2	0.6	2	0.6	14	4.1	1	0.3	3	0.9	9	2.6	6	1.8	0.09±0.01
2.	Cemented block house with roofing sheet	235	68.7	107	31.3	92	26.9	10	2.9	47	13.7	55	16.1	3	0.9	43	12.6	34	9.9	30	8.8	0.57±0.02
3.	Unplastered mud block house with roofing sheet	196	57.3	146	42.7	141	41.2	4	1.2	6	1.8	92	26.9	47	13.7	50	14.6	55	16.1	41	12.0	0.72±0.03
4.	Mud with nylon covered roof	332	97.1	10	2.9	6	1.8	3	0.9	-	-	2	0.6	8	2.3	3	0.9	1	0.3	6	1.8	0.04±0.00
5.	Plastered mud house with roofing sheet	277	81.0	65	19.0	60	17.5	2	0.6	19	5.6	38	11.1	6	1.8	22	6.4	28	8.2	15	4.4	0.34±0.01

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.4.2 Households level of housing security

Result from Table 4.23 indicates that majority (64.3%) of the respondents had insecure level of housing security while only 35.7% had secure level of housing security. This implies that smaller percentage of the respondents have access to good quality of house they live while the larger proportion of them do have access to good state of house as a means of shelter but what differs is the state of facility and acquisition mode of the house. This may perhaps be attributed to the low level of housing security as majority could not afford to build a house of their own due to inequality state of economic security and even the financial responsibility attached to individual households since they differs across. Thus, translate to the household level of livelihood security. This corroborates the findings of Kushel *et al.*, (2005); Ma, Gee and Kushel, (2008) who reported that financial constraints as a factor contributed more to state of insecurity of housing.

Table 4.23: Distribution of households based on level of housing security

Level of housing security	Frequency	%
Insecure (<2.50)	220	64.3
Secure (\geq 2.50)	122	35.7
Total	342	100
Mean=2.50		
Minimum=0.00		
Maximum=7.22		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.5.1 Households education security status

Education security is also vital to livelihood security since it is assumed that knowledge is power. That is, any individual with knowledge has power and strength of strategizing in order to earn a living and not becoming poor. Also, for an individual to become educationally secure, he /she must conveniently have access to schools around either private or public owned in order to acquire certain knowledge that could be of help to ascertain a better future for him/ her and generation to come in an attempt of breaking the cycle of poverty.

Result of analysis from Table 4.24.1 reveals that only primary (90.4%) and secondary (48.8%) schools were available in the study area. Out of the available schools, government owned the largest proportion of both primary (88.9%) and secondary (45.6%) schools, while very few (1.5% and 3.2%) are owned by private body for both primary and secondary schools respectively.

Also, the respondents revealed that the state of facility of available primary schools was fair (56.7%), 24.0% stated that the state of facility was good while 9.6% indicated it was poor. As regards to secondary schools, 16.4% indicated state of facility as good, 30.4% indicated as fair while only few (2.0%) indicated as poor state of facility respectively. From this result, both secondary and primary schools had fair state of facility as supported by FGD report of the discussant in Agbo Aduloju community, Ekiti state that;

“There was very low level of infrastructural development in the available schools situated in the community since most of their children do not have adequate access to educational facilities” (19/07/2017).

Furthermore, the respondents indicated the distance covered to school on daily basis. The result shows that majority (77.8% and 33.9%) covered less than 2km to both primary and secondary school respectively, while 12.6% and 14.9% of them covered 2km or more to both primary and secondary schools on daily basis. This implies that those who covered less distance are more educationally secure than those who covered more distance. This inference is in accordance with FGD report by discussant in Topon community, Ogun state that;

“There was no available school in the community except for neighboring towns which could translate to additional financial burden of transportation fare of school aged children to pursue

*their education, but the poorer households could not afford to pay such bills on daily basis”
(01/07/2017).*

Table 4.24.1: Distribution of households based on education security

S/N	Items	Availability		Ownership body				State of facility						Distance covered			
		Yes		Government		Private		Good		Fair		Poor		Less than 2 km		2km and above	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1.	Primary school	309	90.4	304	88.9	5	1.5	26	77.8	266	77.8	33	9.6	266	77.8	43	12.6
2.	Secondary school	167	48.8	156	45.6	1	3.2	11	33.9	116	33.9	7	2.0	116	33.9	51	14.9

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.5.2 Households based on educational qualification of members in HH unit

The educational attainment of respondents' spouses in the study area on Table 4.24.2 reveals the following; primary (33.9%), secondary (25.4%) and tertiary (7.0%) school education. Also, 7.3% completed vocational education, 3.8% went for adult education training while 22.5% had no formal education. This implies that majority of the respondent spouses were literate and they have the ability to read and write. Also, this result is with the trend of the result on Table 4.1 with regards to educational qualification of the household heads.

The number of children who completed primary education within the household unit ranged from 1 to 4 (64.6%), 5 to 8 (11.4%) while a few (0.3%) ranged from 8 and above.

The result on Table 4.24.2 also reveals the number of children that completed secondary education. Majority (42.1%) who completed secondary education was within the range of 1-4. 14.0% (5-8 children), 4.7% (9-12 children) while 0.3% from 13 and above children, respectively. For tertiary level, 18.1% of the children who completed tertiary education ranged between 1-6 children, 0.6% of them who completed tertiary education are from household unit ranges from 7-12, 13-18 (0.6%) and 18 and above (0.6%) respectively. The mean was 0.71 ± 2.744 . That is, a very few number within the household unit were able to complete tertiary education.

This finding reveals that the educational level of parents' had an influence on the children's educational attainment since most of them were able to read and write. But, despite the non-availability of secondary schools in some rural communities and even financial strength to pay additional transportation as reported in the FGD, they still strive to send them to school at least for them to be able to read and write as well, which could assist them in their reasoning and also enhance strategizing their economic activities for a secure livelihood.

Seventeen point eight percent completed vocational training and they are those who are within the household unit of 1-4 while 1.5% ranged between 4 and above. This suggests that the household unit that were educational secure in terms of educational attainment get beyond the educational qualification of household head. Having shown on Table 4.24.2, household unit of 1-4 indicated the highest proportion whose their children are able to complete primary education, secondary education and vocational training except tertiary education that ranged between 1 and 6. The inference is that the lower the number of household size or unit, the higher the number of

children who attain a complete education (schooling or skill acquisition) as they are also prone to having higher educational security which could automatically translate to less vulnerability to poverty since sending children to acquire any form of education is one of the coping strategies deployed by the respondents to mitigate vulnerability to poverty as shown on Table 4.14 resulting to a secure livelihood.

Table 4.24.2: Distribution of respondents based on educational qualification of household members in HH unit

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean±SD
Spouse(s)			
No formal education	77	22.5	
Adult education	13	3.8	
Vocational education	25	7.3	
Completed primary education	116	33.9	
Completed secondary education	87	25.4	
Completed tertiary education	24	7.0	
Total	342	100.0	
No of children completed primary education			
1-4	221	64.6	
5-8	38	11.1	2.81±2.189
8 and above	1	0.3	
No of children completed secondary education			
1-4	144	42.1	
5-8	48	14.0	2.70±3.878
9-12	16	4.7	
13 and above	2	0.6	
No of children completed tertiary education			
1-6	62	18.1	
7-12	2	0.6	0.71±2.744
13-18	2	0.6	
18 and above	2	0.6	
No of children completed vocational training			
1-4	61	17.8	
4 and above	5	1.5	0.43±1.075

Source: Field survey

4.5.5.3 Households level of education security

Result from analysis on Table 4.25 shows that 51.2% of the respondents had insecure level of education security while 48.8% had secure level of education security. This implies that the majority of the respondents were slightly education insecure. This could be traced to deprivation of available standard secondary schools and even inadequacy of fund to send their children to tertiary or higher institutions. It is thereby assumed that those who know the value of education place priorities with additional effort, at most sending their children to school outside the community since most secondary schools were situated outside the communities. This corroborates the FGD report that discussants in Topon community, Ogun state explained that;

“There was no available schools in the community except for neighboring towns, whereas, their school aged children move to town on daily basis to pursue their schooling” (01/07/2017).

Therefore, this could also influence the level of vulnerability to poverty as education could be one of the factors that might lift poorer generation out of poverty in which the abilities in terms of skills, training and knowledge achievable could be a function of households’ better strategizing livelihood activities and enhancing their income towards a secure livelihood.

Table 4.25: Distribution of households based on level of education security

Level of education security	Frequency	%
Insecure (<7.43)	175	51.2
Secure (\geq 7.43)	167	48.8
Total	342	100
Mean=7.43		
Minimum=0.00		
Maximum=14.53		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.5.6 Households level of livelihood security

The development of livelihood in entirety has rarely been used as the basis for effects of vulnerability to poverty. Whereas, the framework provides a way of analyzing people's specific threats, stresses and shocks of vulnerability to poverty and its impacts on livelihood security. Subsequently, there are causes and effects. But, the causes are mostly the overlaps between vulnerability and livelihood approaches since vulnerability is embedded in sustainable livelihood framework. But, household economic situations and other livelihood resources such as food, health, housing and education securities are the effects in which the causes of vulnerability to poverty is to be checked in an attempt to determine its consequences on the household livelihood security. Going by the definition of livelihood security that is 'the adequate and sustainable access to income and other resources to meet basic needs (Frankenberger, Drinkwater and Maxwell, 2000) And once it is met, the gap is filled and is directly proportional to a better secure livelihood.

Result from Table 4.26 shows that 51.5% of the respondents had insecure level of livelihood security while 48.5% had secure level of livelihood security. This implies that most of the respondents were livelihood insecure. This further indicates that slightly more than half of the respondents were livelihood insecure while about half of them were livelihood secure. Despite efforts being made by the respondents as a form of diversification to pursue a secure livelihood, majority still fall within the range of livelihood insecurity. Whereas, the prevalence of engagement of rural household involving in multiple activities is to spread risk, cope with insufficiency, seasonality, compensate failures in credit market, building on complementary and gradual transition to new activities as reported by Olawoye (2000) and Ebitigha (2008) in order to achieve a better livelihood. Surprisingly, the income earned from one livelihood are being used as capital for other livelihood activities they transit to, this could make the respondent income not sustainable enough to translate into economic security as a key indicator to access other livelihood resources such as food, health, housing and education. This result asserted that the low level of all these components interpret to the low level of livelihood security of households in the study area. This is not in line with the findings of Smitha (2005) that rural households mostly attained high level of livelihood security which is a good sign of their development status.

Table 4.26: Distribution of households based on overall level of livelihood security

Level of livelihood security	Frequency	%
Insecure (4.39-16.40)	176	51.5
Secure (16.41-31.0)	166	48.5
Total	342	100
Mean=16.41±5.215		
Minimum=4.39		
Maximum=31.01		

Source: Field survey, 2017

4.6 Hypotheses testing

The results of the hypotheses tested in this study are presented in this section. Implications of the findings are also discussed.

4.6.1 Hypothesis one

H₀1: There is no significant relationship between selected personal characteristics and household livelihood security of respondents in the study area.

Result of analysis from Table 4.27 reveals that there is no significant relationship between sex ($\chi^2=0.730$; $p=0.430$), marital status ($\chi^2=0.560$; $p=0.967$), religion ($\chi^2=2.193$; $p=0.334$) and livelihood security in the study area. This implies that sex, marital status and religion does not influence the level of livelihood security in the study area. But, significant relationship exists between educational attainment ($\chi^2=4.008$; $p=0.045$) and livelihood security in the study area. This implication of this result indicates that the educational attainment level of households' influence their level of livelihood security. However, majority were able to read and write having attained both primary and secondary education as their highest educational qualification but not substantial enough to improve their livelihood security to a reasonable doubt, since majority were livelihood insecure in the study area. That is, education is supposed to improve knowledge, skill, and attitude of an individual translating to better strategies in ascertaining a secure livelihood. For instance, those with tertiary education differs in reasoning as they deploy better strategies in their economic activities since their standard of living (in terms of household basic needs) differs from those half educated. Nevertheless, education does not only contribute to the state of livelihood security but still go a long way since education security level is measurable and also an integral part of the component of livelihood security. Therefore, a household that is vulnerable to secure education tends having/or pursuing a low livelihood security.

Table 4.27: Chi-square relationship between selected personal characteristics and livelihood security

Variables	(χ^2)value	Df	p-value	Decision	Remark
Sex	0.730	1	0.430	NS	Accept null
Marital status	0.560	4	0.967	NS	Accept null
Religion	2.193	2	0.334	NS	Accept null
Educational attainment	4.008	3	0.045	S	Reject null

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant $p < 0.05$

Table 4.28 shows that no significant correlation existed between respondents age ($r = -0.018$; $p = 0.740$), household size ($r = -0.044$; $p = 0.420$) and livelihood security. This implies that age and household size have no influence on livelihood security. However, the negative correlation value translates to influencing livelihood security in a turnover approach. That is, the higher the age, the higher the experience to utilize their income to pursue a secure livelihood. So also, the higher the household size, the higher they utilize them for sources of labour on their income generating activities translating to economic security state of households in order to secure basic requirements of livelihood. However, the result also translates that, the higher the household size and age, the lower their livelihood security. This is because many older people do not have capacity to perform efficiently on their livelihood activities which is directly proportional to the low level of livelihood security (livelihood insecurity).

Table 4.28: Correlation between selected personal characteristics and livelihood security

Variables	r-value	p-value	Decision	Remark
Age	-0.018	0.740	NS	Accept null
Household size	-0.044	0.420	NS	Accept null

Source: Field survey, 2017

***Significant $p < 0.05$**

4.6.2 Hypothesis two

H₀2: There is no significant difference between female-headed and male-headed households livelihood security in the study area.

A test of difference between female headed and male headed household based on livelihood security in Table 4.29 shows that there was no significant difference between both gender categories ($t=-1.053$; $p=0.293$). This implies that livelihood security does not differ based on gender in this study. This is because of the potential roles and responsibilities of both male and female household heads, which does not differ, since they are the sole provider of their immediate household. Although, the inherent capacities, occupational engagement and access to assets may distinctively differ by gender in social context, this does not support the finding of this study. This suggests that both male and female were engaged in agricultural related activities due to the agrarian nature of rural setting. This corroborates the FGD report by the discussants in Ekiti state and Osun state that;

“Both men and women practiced or engaged in farming activities. Although, some women engaged in garri processing which is still agricultural related”. (Ago Aduloju, (19/07/2017) and Orisumbare Alagbede communities, (08/06/2017)).

Meanwhile, the type of occupation determines income which may be directly proportional to livelihood security. In essence, household head (men and women) tends to maximize their income through diversification means as a way of enhancing their income, since they do cater for the welfare and finances of their immediate household unit, in an attempt to ascertain a secure livelihood.

Furthermore, the negative test of difference value explains that female headed households are better than the male headed households in terms of livelihood security. Although, female headship within the household is not categorically related to livelihood security since factors attributing to livelihood security is beyond income, but is closely related to vulnerability to poverty. This result may be traced to the distinctive nature of female with services rendered among friends and relatives because they are more likely to build relationship among extended families than males. This could probably serve as an added advantage in getting remittances as a means of diverse streams of their income, as well as gift, which serves as alternative sources to

access other livelihood security or means of coping strategies to mitigate vulnerability to poverty. These consequently result to reduce vulnerability to poverty and a secure livelihood. This is not consistent with the finding of Katapa, (2006) that female headed households are poorer than the male headed households.

Table 4.29: T-test analysis between female headed and male headed households based on their livelihood security

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	p-value	Decision
Male headed	220	16.18	5.381	-1.053	340	0.293	Not significant
Female headed	122	16.80	4.897				

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant $p < 0.05$

5.6.3 Hypothesis three

H₀₃: There is no significant difference in the livelihood security of households across the states in the study area.

Table 4.30 shows that the test of difference among household livelihood security across the selected states was significant ($F=24.133$; $p=0.00$). This implies that significant difference existed across the three states. This suggests that the level of livelihood security differ across the selected state. This is because the income level of household, the household size and also their priorities vary across, which makes them access basic requirement of a secure livelihood differently. But at the same time, their state of vulnerability to poverty could also be a limiting factor to pursue a secure livelihood, whereas, the inherent abilities to response to shock, threat and other associated risk of their livelihood activities also differ across individual, let alone rural communities across the state. These might be the reason behind their difference in livelihood security.

Furthermore, the post hoc test of differences of livelihood security of households in southwestern Nigeria shown on Table 4.31 reveals that there was significant difference between Osun state and Ogun state with mean difference of -2.767 ($p=0.00$), Ekiti state and Osun state with mean difference of -4.426 ($p=0.00$) and Ogun state and Ekiti state having mean difference of -1.658 ($p=0.01$). This could be further explained with their respective mean difference as regards to livelihood security among the states. The negative mean difference between Osun and Ogun states, Ekiti state and Osun state and as well as Ogun and Ekiti states is an indication of reduced position of livelihood security (livelihood insecure). But the prevalence of the low livelihood security is more concentrated among household in Ekiti and Osun states which could be justified based on the value of the mean difference (-4.426). This suggests that the level of deprivation of basic requirement of a secure livelihood is still higher among Ekiti, Ogun states than that of Osun state. This results is consistent with NBS (2005) report that the prevalence of poverty is higher in Ekiti, Ogun states than that of Osun state, which also connote that deprivation is embedded in poverty and its relative to a secure livelihood. Although, there was significant difference among the three states on their livelihood security since majority had low level of livelihood security (livelihood insecure) in the study area, the prevalence could be attributed to how responsive they are to risk confronting the livelihood security which is based on individual

level of capacities to strategize their livelihood. This makes those livelihood insecure household in Ekiti and Ogun to be more concentrated than that of Osun. This support FGD report that the discussant explained that;

“Most of the households had multiple income streams due to diversity of livelihood activities in Osun than that of Ogun and Ekiti. However, little or no diversification of livelihood activities existed among households in Ogun state which could translate to prevalence of insecurity state of livelihood”. (Orisumbare Alagbede, Topon and Ago Aduloju communities, 18/06/2017, 01/07/2017 and 19/07/2017).

Table 4.30: Test of difference (Analysis of variance) between households livelihood security across the states in Southwestern Nigeria

Source of variation	Mean Square	Df	F-value	p-value	Decision
Between groups	577.939	2	24.133	0.00	Significant
Within groups		339			

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant p <0.05

Table 4.31: Post hoc (LSD) test of difference of households livelihood security across the states in Southwestern Nigeria

State category	States category	Mean Difference	p-value	Decision
Osun state	Ogun state	-2.76787	0.00	Significant
Ekiti state	Osun state	-4.42622	0.00	Significant
Ogun state	Ekiti state	-1.65835	0.01	Significant

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant p <0.05

4.6.4 Hypothesis four

H₀4: There is no significant relationship between the households vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security in the study area.

Table 4.32 reveals that households vulnerability to poverty ($r = -0.112$; $p = 0.038$) was significantly correlated to livelihood security. This implies that vulnerability to poverty is also a subject of livelihood security. That is, as livelihood security tends to increase so also vulnerability to poverty reduces and vice-versa. For instance, households that are being threatened, lives under the risk of becoming poor which translate to low livelihood security. Furthermore, the negative correlation value infers that a unit increase in livelihood security will result in positive (0.112) reductions in vulnerability to poverty. That is, those household that are already in the poverty cycle and if nothing is done, they remain into the cycle of poverty making them livelihood insecure. Meanwhile, the inference of these findings is that the level of vulnerability is supposed to translate into livelihood security of the household in the study area. That is, the currently poor households or the vulnerable households fall within households that are livelihood insecure. But, there was a few difference (2.1%) in the households that are not vulnerable who out gone the state and fall into the line of livelihood insecure as shown on Table 4.11 as against Table 4.26. The difference in the proportion infers that, those are at the threshold of vulnerability with relentlessness could not survive it, putting them at the risk of falling into the cycle of poverty translating to insecure livelihood. This is one of the reasons why Ellis and Freeman (2006) stated that sustainable livelihood framework works for both the poor and vulnerable. This assertion corroborates these findings, since vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security is relative in sustainable framework of secure livelihood.

Table 4.32: PPMC analysis of test of relationship between households' vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security in Southwestern Nigeria

Variable	r-value	p-value	Decision
Vulnerability to poverty index*livelihood security index	-0.112*	0.038	Significant

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant $p < 0.05$

4.6.5 Hypothesis five

H₀₅: There is no significant relationship between the households social group participation and livelihood security in the study area.

Table 4.33 reveals that significant relationship does not exist between social group participation ($r = -0.063$; $p = 0.245$) and livelihood security. This implies that social group participation has no influence on their level of livelihood security. This does not support the findings of Oyesola and Ademola (2011) that found that social capital has a positive influence on livelihood activities and invariably translates to livelihood outcome. The result further explains that social networks suppose to assist in building a secure livelihood, but majority had low level of social participation in the study area which could also be ascribed to the low level of livelihood security. That is, most of the households were not socially connected because of their vulnerability state, since most of the poor attached participation in social groups with people of high socioeconomic status. This corroborates Kumar (2006), finding that poor households faced impediment that constrain them in participating in marketing, financial services that would assist in accessing physical assets which can transform/or translates to socioeconomic status.

This also support the FGD report of the discussant in Osun state and Ekiti state that

“Most of the household are neither average nor better-off in terms of their socio economic status” (Orisumbare Alagbede and Ago Aduloju communities, 08/06/2017 and 19/07/2017).

Table 4.33: PPMC analysis of test of relationship between households community participation and livelihood security in Southwestern Nigeria

Variable	r-value	p-value	Decision
Livelihood security index*community participation	0.063	0.245	Not significant

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant $p < 0.05$

4.6.6 Hypothesis six

H₀6: There is no significant relationship between the households coping strategies to vulnerability and livelihood security in the study area.

Table 4.34 reveals that significant relationship existed between coping strategies ($r = -0.150$; $p = 0.005$) and livelihood security. This implies that coping strategies adopted by the respondents do have a positive influence on their level of livelihood security. That is, the households adopted some coping strategies to mitigate vulnerability to poverty in an attempt to become livelihood secure even in the face of unanticipated livelihood failure. Nevertheless, those strategies deployed have not effectively worked out since most households were still livelihood insecure. The results could be attributed to the respondents' non-targeting social responses to offset threats to the livelihood activities in order to acquire profits, not just mere income which is not sustainable to access other resources that could meet their basic requirement of livelihood security.

Table 4.34: PPMC analysis of test of relationship between households coping strategies to vulnerability and livelihood security in Southwestern Nigeria

Variable	r-value	p-value	Decision
Livelihood security index*coping strategies	0.150**	0.005	Significant

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant $p < 0.05$

4.6.7 Hypothesis seven

H₀7: There is no significant contribution of livelihood security indicators to livelihood security of rural households in the study area.

Regression analysis was used to ascertain the contribution of variables of livelihood security to the level of livelihood security of the respondents in the study area.

The result from Table 4.35 reveals that housing security ($\beta = -0.208$, $p=0.000$), health security ($\beta = -0.177$, $p=0.001$), and food security ($\beta = -0.233$, $p=0.000$) contribute significantly to their level of livelihood security. This result infers that food security contributed more to the level of livelihood security while health has less contribution to the level of vulnerability to poverty. Whereas, the negative beta value of housing security implies that they significantly contributed, but the state of the resources are not sustainable enough as there is high propensity (tendency) of increasing the level of livelihood security of those that are insecure. The results further explained food security as the highest contributing variable to most of the households that are livelihood insecure. This could be due to the fact that majority of the respondents (62.9%) have food insecure status in the study area. This also supports the FGD report that the discussant explained that;

“Food is readily available but most of the households are vulnerable to food secure since they cannot afford to buy in bulk in order to complement their production. So, most of them alternatively buy bit by bit” (19/07/2017).

On the other hand, economic security did not significantly contribute to level of livelihood security in the study area but the negative beta value implies that it is not sustainable enough to transform their state of livelihood security.

Table 4.35: Regression analysis of livelihood security indicators contribution to livelihood security of rural households

Variables	β-value	t—value	p-value	Decision
Education security	0.053	0.001	0.318	Not significant
Housing security	-0.212	-4.154	0.000	Significant
Health security	-0.191	-3.697	0.000	Significant
Economic security	-0.072	-1.424	0.155	Not significant
Food security	0.231	4.502	0.000	Significant

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant $p < 0.05$

4.6.8 Hypothesis Eight

H₀8: There is no significant contribution of vulnerability to poverty indicators on livelihood security of rural households in the study area.

OLS regression analysis was used to ascertain the contribution of variables of vulnerability to poverty on the level of livelihood security of the respondents in the study area. The result from Table 4.36 reveals that economic position ($\beta = -0.135$, $p=0.05$) deprivations contributed significantly to insecure level of livelihood while, social position ($\beta = 0.032$, $p=0.620$) and material condition ($\beta = -0.059$, $p=0.399$) deprivations does not significantly contribute to the level of insecure livelihood. This result infers that economic positions deprivation had more influence on the respondents' state of livelihood security. Also, the negative beta value of economic positions explained that the position of economic deprivation negatively contributed to state of livelihood security since majority (62.3%) are being deprived economically as shown on Table 4.6 and as well as economic insecure (64.0%) as shown on Table 4.17. Moreover, material condition also depicts a negative beta value but not significantly contributed to the state of livelihood security. This suggests that their state of material conditions is lacking but not sufficient enough to render them livelihood insecure. The inference of this result could be as a result that rural people are with numerous needs but usually set priorities on them especially during need assessment. This confirms the report from the FGD conducted as the discussants stated that;

“Majority of them are being challenged in accessing credit/or fund in order to expand their scale of production translating to a secure state of livelihood” (Orisumbare Alagbede community of Osun States and Ago Aduloju community of Ekiti, 08/06/2017 and 19/07/2017)

and as well as

“Households prioritized access to safe income (fund) to enhance their living standard” (Topo, community of Ogun, 01/07/2017 and Orisumbare Alagbede community of Osun States, 08/06/2017).

It is obvious that both the empirical and qualitative findings affirm the economic situation of the households in the study area as this could be relative to poverty reduction guidelines having being focused on economic capabilities of an individual or households to access and/or pursue

other basic resources. This corroborates organisation for economic cooperation and development (2011) that one's need to prioritize health, education and other basic services to foster economic growth and the livelihood security as a whole.

Table 4.36: OLS regression analysis of the determinants of vulnerability to poverty indicators on livelihood security of rural households

Variables	β-value	t—value	p-value	Decision
Social position	0.032	0.496	0.620	Not significant
Economic position	-0.135	-1.966	0.050	Significant
Material condition	-0.059	-0.845	0.399	Not significant

Source: Field survey, 2017

*Significant $p < 0.05$

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

A summary of the abridged description of research problem, objectives of the study, methodology and significant findings of the study are presented in this chapter. In addition to these are conclusions of the study, recommendations, contribution to knowledge based on the findings together with suggested areas for further research. Poverty has been so endemic in some areas of Nigeria especially rural areas for a very long time. So many efforts have been made to address this adverse situation, yet existing. Perhaps, being vulnerable to this adverse situation is that households who have lack of entitlement over productive resources due to deprivation of social, economic and material positions/ conditions. Whereas, ability to cope with this adverse situation is resilience i.e adopted mechanism to cope with deprivations in order access a better living. But, households that could not cope with this adverse situation are at risk of being deprived of components of vulnerability to poverty (social positions, economic positions and material conditions) having an implication on household economic inadequacy and instability which could make them inefficient to pursue livelihood security resources at the long run. However, several independent studies on sustainable livelihood framework have been done to ascertain better livelihood outcomes among the rural households of Nigeria which are more prominent with poverty characteristics, but the result of the findings are not sufficient enough to generalize or empirically proven how deprivations to social, economic and material conditions of households affects or influence their livelihood productive resources as far as livelihood security approach is concerned.

The study therefore determined the effect of vulnerability to poverty on livelihood security among rural households' in southwestern, Nigeria. The study also specifically investigated personal characteristics of the respondents, vulnerability to poverty (in terms of material condition, social position and economic position deprivations), level of social group participation within community, coping strategies that mitigate/ mediate vulnerability to poverty and determine the level of livelihood security (in terms of economic, food, health, housing and education securities) of the households in the study area. The relevant literatures and theories

were reviewed for this study while the theories includes; livelihood security model, human security approach, entitlement approach and sustainable livelihood framework.

The study was conducted in south-western region Nigeria. The population of the study constituted all rural households of Southwestern, Nigeria. Multistage sampling technique was used to select the respondents in the study. The first stage involved purposive selection of 50% of the states with highest prevalence of poverty in the study area which are Osun, Ogun and Ekiti states. The second stage involved stratification of rural and urban local government area (L.G.A) in the 3 state to isolate the rural L.G.As. The third stage involved random selection of fifteen percent of rural L.G.As which summed up to 2 in each of the selected states. The fourth stage involved simple random selection of 3 communities in each of the selected rural L.G.As, which summed up 6 communities each in Osun, Ogun and Ekiti states respectively. The fifth stage was the 40% proportionate selection of rural households from the households count done in the study area to give 114, 111, and 117 rural household in Osun, Ogun and Ekiti states respectively and a grand total of 342 respondents. Data was collected from the use of pre-tested interview schedule. Also, qualitative (FGD) data was collected to complement the quantitative data collected. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean and percentages. Inferential statistics such as chi-square, pearson product moment correlation, t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis.

Based on the findings, most of the households were attaining older age from their younger age, married, males, Christian with 6.8 persons averagely within the household unit. Most of the respondents completed both primary education and secondary education. Households' were deprived of limited resources of economic positions which is relative to high deprivation of economic positions. Households lack entitlement of social position and needs of material condition, but does not negative influence their condition since both social and material condition deprivations were low. Thus, about half of the respondents were vulnerable to poverty.

Households had multiple income streams but they earn more from their crop production being the primary occupation which was predominantly engaged in. However, earnings from crop production was either low or medium with substantial number of the respondents ratings, stable but not very adequate, while more than half of them made expenses on household domestic needs, children education bills, buying of productive assets (farm equipment, goods and services

etc), health care bills and remittances given to family and friends. Obviously, expenses made from the diverse income earning outweigh the household income level, which render most of the respondents economic insecure.

Substantial number of the households were food insecure which emanated from households worries of food self- sufficiency in terms of quantity and quality intake as well as food preferences due to lack of resources. A good proportion of households made it known that public health facility was the most available health facility, while general body care and maternity care was the most available care rendered. Slightly more than half of the respondents were able to afford to pay for the services of general body care rendered, which they claimed the services was adequate and about half of the rated the services to be acceptable. Moreover, almost all the respondents agreed with statement under provider compliance that a good medication rendered by service provider should be based on patients' complaints, which led in the distribution. This is an indication of a good health information view exhibited among the respondents. Thus, more than half of the respondents were health insecure (low level of health security).

Furthermore, less than half of the respondents indicated the available type of house to be unplastered mud block house with roofing sheet, which the state of the housing facility was fair on the average. Thus, most of the respondents had low level of housing security i.e they were house insecure. Also, primary school was the most available type of schools in the study area and they were mostly government owned. More than half of the respondents indicated their state of facility to be was fair having less than 2km distance covered on daily access. Also, less than half of the respondent spouses within the households completed primary education, while most of the respondents (households' head) completed primary schools and about half of them further their to complete secondary school education ranged between the household sizes of 1 to 4. Hence, slightly more than half of the respondents had low level of education security. In entirety, more than half of the households were livelihood insecure.

A few proportion of the household heads, their spouses and as well as children participated in the social group within the community, which translates to slightly low level of social group participation. Reduction in food quantity consumption, diversification of income generating activities, children acquisition of skills, training and education for increased human resources were predominantly coping strategies deployed to mediate or mitigate vulnerability to poverty in

the study area. Thus, more than half of the respondents had high level of coping strategies which was significantly related to livelihood security.

There was significant relationship between households' educational qualification and livelihood security. There was significant difference among the households livelihood security across the selected states in south western Nigeria. But the prevalence of the low livelihood security (livelihood insecure) is more concentrated among household in Ekiti, Ogun than Osun states. Furthermore, there was significant correlation between households' vulnerability to poverty and livelihood security. However, there was no significant relationship between sex, marital status, religion and livelihood security. No significant correlation between respondents age, household size and livelihood security. There was no significant difference between female headed and male headed households in the study area. Also, there was no significant relationship between social group participation and livelihood security of the households. Thus, housing security, health security contributed negatively to livelihood security while food security positively contributed to livelihood security of the households in the study area. In addition, economic position deprivations significantly contributed to state of insecure livelihood of the households' in the study area.

5.2 Conclusion

Rural households were predominantly food crop farmers and they lack access and right over productive resources to secure livelihood. This characteristic led to prevalence of poverty in the study area. Although, despite the existence of poverty in the study area, rural households vulnerability to poverty are better compared with level of livelihood security because more than half of the households were not vulnerable to poverty. This can be adduced to high coping strategies to lessen up vulnerability to poverty since reduction in food quantity consumption was the mostly adopted coping strategy among the respondents, which does not enough to improve livelihood security. Yet, coping strategies was relative to livelihood security in the study area.

Obviously from the study, vulnerability to poverty correlated with livelihood security since deprivation level of economic position led to economic insecurity of the rural households. Meanwhile, insecure economic exhibited among rural households had an influence in accumulating low level of productive resources in term of insecure food, health, housing and education. However, food, housing and health securities relatively contributed more to level of

livelihood security in the study area. This could also be attributed to rural households worry of food sufficiency and preference emanated from the findings, as food is a fundamental need for human survival. Also, public primary health facility being the mostly utilized for maternity and general body care having considered its availability and as well as their fairly state of living house, since they mostly secure unplastered mud block houses with roofing sheet.

Rural households group participation had no influence on their level of livelihood security since, social group participation was slightly low in the study area. Also, the respondents completed primary and secondary education along with members of their households, which translates to their insecure education in the study area. This can be adduced to school location access, since household members covered less than 2 kilometres to primary school while secondary school are mostly located outside the communities in which they covered 2 kilometres or more. Thus, education qualification was relative to livelihood security in the study area.

Furthermore, assumption of roles and responsibilities of the household heads does not differ in securing their livelihood as regards to gender. There was a difference in livelihood security across the states having deduced the prevalence of insecure livelihood being higher among the households in Ekiti state, Ogun state than Osun state. Hence, there was relative poverty as regards to productive resources to secure livelihood in the study area.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the conclusions of this study, the following recommendations were made to improve the livelihood security of rural households in southwestern, Nigeria.

1. Government should assist in sensitizing the rural households on the relevance of education on their income generating activities. This will also serve as a form of enlightenment on strategies to deploy in achieving stable and adequate enterprises for them to pursue productive resources that are necessary to secure livelihood.
2. Government should also help in repackaging agricultural development programmes (in terms of incentives, loans, improved seedlings, available farm machinery, marketing and tracking of beneficiaries etc.) that are designed to ascertain food security. This will also stimulate the programme facilitators to reach out the most target audience at the grassroots in order to expand their scale of production to meet the population demand and their

immediate household consumption. This will equally promote food security of the rural populace and not only urban areas of southwestern, Nigeria.

3. Provision of social safety net programmes that could assist rural households to access diverse livelihood activities in order to create more livelihood option due to seasonality nature of agrarian. This should be addressed in a sustainable approach towards ascertaining a secure income to pursue other livelihood resources.
4. Government should come to rural households aid by connecting them through groups with any form of developmental support bringing to them. This will encourage both the vulnerable and poor groups among them to actively participate with continued trust in the social groups within the community in order to optimally maintain a secure livelihood, since they attributed social group participation with people of high socioeconomic status. This equally increases their social capital/assets.
5. Trainings on financial management should be intensified in order to facilitate positive output of people's economic deprivations towards reassuring a safe and adequate basic requirement. This is because acquiring and maintaining resources of livelihood security can be expensive and draining savings.
6. Government should also assist in equipping the available health facilities with specialist and equipment in order to a better access to sound and adequate health delivery. This will enhance their human capital translating to better performance on their livelihood activities, since good health is a prerequisite of acquiring wealth which equally reduce deprivation and improve their livelihood resources.
7. Livelihood security approach should be more intensified in a sustainable manner in order to uphold households that are poor or deprived from such state and those are the risk of becoming poor or deprived not to fall is deprivation state. This equally uplifts their coping strategies to respond to positive outcome of livelihood security.

5.4 Contributions to knowledge

This study makes the following significant contribution to knowledge:

1. The study established that educational qualification significantly influence livelihood security of the rural households despite the fact that agriculture is their heritage.

2. The study provided empirical information on households head having no significant differences in livelihood security as regards to gender.
3. The study ascertained that expenses of household heads outweigh their incomes which translate to their economic insecurity despite their level of diversification.
4. The study affirmed that vulnerability to poverty level of households effectively dictates their insecurity state of livelihood, but households with no additional efforts to subdue their deprivations fell in the insecurity state of livelihood.
5. The study found that deprivation level economic position is relative to economic security as reduce extent of economic vulnerability is an effective strategy for secure economic and other productive resources.
6. The study also established that insecure economic deter household heads' state of housing, health, food and education security which significantly translates to insecurity level of livelihood.
7. The study also established that rural households' livelihood security differ across states based on pervasiveness, which is consistent with poverty prevalence across southwestern states as asserted by NBS, (2005).
8. The study also established that coping strategies had a positive influence on their vulnerability to poverty, but not positively translates to their level of livelihood security.
9. Lastly, the study established that the high deprivation level of economic position of vulnerability to poverty is a function of households being in a state of insecure livelihood.

5.5 Areas of further study

1. Enhancing livelihood activities as a tool of accessing economic security among rural households.
2. Effects of vulnerability coping strategies on livelihood security among rural households in southwestern Nigeria.
3. Substitution of livelihood capital in improving livelihood security among rural household in south western Nigeria.
4. Gender analysis of livelihood strategies on vulnerability to poverty among rural dwellers southwestern Nigeria.
5. Influence of livelihood strategies towards poverty reduction among rural households in southwestern Nigeria.

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APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE FOR RURAL HOUSEHOLDS

“Effects of vulnerability to poverty on livelihood security among rural households in Southwestern, Nigeria”

Part I

A. Personal characteristics

1. Age: (years)
2. Sex: Male (); Female ()
3. Marital status: Single (); Married (); Divorced (); Widowed (); Separated ()
4. Number of males in household:
5. Number of females in household:
6. Household size:
7. Occupations: Food crop farming (); Cash/Tree crop farming (); Fruit farming (); Fruit vegetable farming (); Leafy vegetable farming (); Livestock rearing (); Trading/Business (); Agricultural processing (); Unskilled daily-waged labour (); Artisan/Handicraft (); Salary job ()
8. Religion: Christianity (), Islam (), Traditional (), Others (specify) ()
9. Educational qualification: No formal education (); Primary education (); Secondary education (); Tertiary education (); Others (specify)

Part II

B. Economic security: Income flow

S/ N	ITEMS	Yes	No	Actual income in Naira	Income level			Adequate			Stability		
					H	M	L	VA	A	I	VS	S	NS
1.	Crop production earnings												
2.	Livestock enterprise												

	earnings												
3.	Remittances												
4.	Cash from other income generating activities												
	I												
	II												
	III												

Income level: H- High, M-Medium, L-Low; Adequacy: VA-Very adequate, A-Adequate, I-Inadequate; Stability: VS-Very stable, S- Stable, NS- Not stable

C. Expenditure flow

S/N	ITEMS	Yes	No	Expense s spent in Naira	Level			Frequency					
					H	M	L	Daily	Weekl y	Monthl y	Quarter ly		
1.	Salary paid to employee												
2.	Household domestic needs												
3.	Health care bills												
4.	Purchase of productive assets												
5.	Children education bills (school fees, lesson fees, pocket money etc.)												
6.	Ceremony donations												
7.	Remittances given to family and friends												

D. Food security

Please answer how often your household experienced the following scenario in the past 30days; often (more than 10 times), sometimes (3-10 times), rarely (once or twice) or never.

S/ N	Question	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
1.	Worry that your households would not have enough to eat			
2.	You or any household member not able to eat the kinds of			

	food you preferred because of lack of resources			
3.	You or any household member eat just a few kinds of food day after day due to a lack of resources			
4.	You or any household member eat food that you preferred not to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food			
5.	You or any household member eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food			
6.	You or any household member eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food			
7.	No food at all in your household because there were not resources to get more			
8.	You or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food			
9.	You or any household member go a whole day without eating anything because there was not enough food			

E. Health security

Which of the following health care services or facilities do you or any of your household members visit when anyone of you has any of the following ailments?

Health care services

Items	Availability		Accessibility			Affordability			Adequacy			Acceptability		
	Yes	No	VA	A	NA	VA	A	NA	VA	A	NA	VA	A	NA
Public health facility														
Maternity care														
General body care														
Orthopaedic														
Dental care														
Ophthalmology														
Hypertension														
Others														
Private health facility														
Maternity care														
General body care														
Orthopaedic														
Dental care														
Ophthalmology														
Hypertension														
Others														
Patent medicine shop														

Maternity care														
General body care														
Orthopaedic														
Dental care														
Ophthalmology														
Hypertension														
Others														
Pharmacies														
General body care														
Prescribed drugs														
Consultancy services														
Others														
Array of medical traditions														
Maternity care														
General body care														
Orthopaedic														
Dental care														
Ophthalmology														
Hypertension														
Others														

F. Perceived quality of care

How do you perceive the quality of care being rendered to you and your household members whenever they go for treatment on any of the ailment?

S/N		Agree	Undecided	Disagree
	Patient satisfaction and equity			
1.	Health care services provided are generally satisfactory			
2.	Some of the services are often reserved for some set of individuals			
3.	There is generally level of exposure to the different health care service rendered to different kind of illness			
4.	Health care services rendered by service provider are unsatisfactory			
5.	Health services rendered are often discriminatory to some persons			
6.	The service provided are mostly unsatisfactory			
	Provider Compliance			
7.	A good medication rendered by service provider should be based on patients complaints			
8.	Patient should be subjected to test before given medications			
9.	It is a bad practise of health workers to ask about previous			

	drugs being taken by the patient before rendering their services			
10.	Medication rendered by service provider should be based on past experience without considering patient complaints			
11.	Medication shouldn't be given to patient based on labouratory test results			
12.	There is need to ask patients the exact medication they have been previously used before seeking medical practitioners help			
	Diagnostic accuracy			
13.	There should be relatively high level of accuracy in diagnosing patient before given treatment			
14.	Sufficient and adequate diagnostic equipment assist patient treatment effectively			
15.	There shouldn't be relatively high level of accuracy in diagnosing patient before given treatment			
16.	Insufficient and inadequate diagnostic equipment assist patient treatment effectively			
17.	There is need for suitability of treatment with the health challenge being faced by patients			
18.	Running labouratory test could bring a valid health problem of individual patient which could help in providing accurate solution of preventive measures to such health problem			
19.	Treatment given to patients should not match or suits the patients ailment			
20.	Results from labouratory test is not always reliable to makes the provider draw relevant preventive measures on			
	Safety of the product			
21.	The products of drug determines the effectiveness of that particular drug			
22.	The products of drug generally have a specified atmospheric condition that should be exposed to			
23.	Administration of expired drugs are safer to use to treat ailments			
24.	Some of the products given to individual are not registered with NAFDAC which could be dangerous to health			
25.	Patients taken expired drugs are prone to other health problems			
26.	NAFDAC registration is of no use to the safety of drugs			
	Patient compliance			
27.	Buying and taking of drugs without prescription by health worker could lead to health disorder			
28.	Taking to medical advice could be sufficient enough to get healed			

29.	Addiction to a particular drugs could complicate functionality of drug while taking alongside with recommended dosage			
30.	Advice given by medical practitioners are of no use to prevent health problems			
31.	Taking of drugs being recommended after the speculated period could led to some health challenges			
32.	Taking of drugs being recommended on speculated period could led to some health challenges			

G. Housing security

Which of the housing type do you and your household members secure for living?

S/ N	Items	Availability		Accessibility		State of facility			Aquisition		
		Yes	No	A	S	G	F	P	O	I	R
1.	Non-cemented block house with corrugated roofing sheet										
2.	Cemented block house with roofing sheet										
3.	Unplastered mud block house with roofing sheet										
4.	Mud with nylon covered roof										
5.	Plastered mud house with roofing sheet										

Accessibility A-always, S-sometimes; State of facility G-good, F-fair, P-poor; Acquisition O-owned, I-inherited, R-rented.

H. Education security

Which of the educational facilities do you and your household members have access to in your community?

S/N	Items	Availability		Ownership body		State of facility			Distance covered	
		Yes	No	G	P	G	F	P	2 km less	More than 2km
1.	Nursery school									
2.	Primary school									
3.	Secondary school									

Ownership body G-government, P-private; State of facility G-good, F-fair, P-poor.

(ii) Respondent will be also asked to indicate educational qualification of household members in each of the household unit.

6. What is the educational qualification of your spouse or spouses completed Adult education (); Vocational education (); Completed primary education (); Completed secondary education (); Completed tertiary education (); No formal education ()

7. Children completed primary school-----

8. Children completed secondary school-----

9. Children completed tertiary school-----

10. Children completed vocational school-----

I Community participation

S/ N	Do you participate in any small groups within the community ?	N o	Ye s	Which of your household members participate in the listed groups		Position held									How many meetings held monthly	Frequency of participation								
						Spouse(s)			Child (ren)			Ordinary member				Committee member			Executive member			All the time	Every alternate meetings	Rarely
						H	S	C	H	S	C	H	S	C		H	S	C						
1	Professional association																							
2	Social club																							
3	Cooperative society																							
4	Town/community development union																							
5	Age grade/Alumni association																							

J. Coping strategies to mitigate or mediate vulnerability to poverty of the respondents'

S/N	Items	Never	Occasionally	Always
1.	Receiving inheritance earnings			
2.	Diversification of income generating activities			
3.	Selling of physical assets			
4.	children acquisition of skills, training and education for increased human resources			
5.	Reduction in food quantity consumption			
6.	Reliance on help from relatives			
7.	Accessibility of available social infrastructures			
8.	Labour source utilization to help in other transiting activities			
9.	remittance from friends and family			
10.	Migration			
11.	Begging			
12.	Increase household resiliency			

Part III

K. Vulnerability to poverty

S/N	To what extent have you experience deprivation over the last 5 years?	Extent of deprivation over the last 5 years			
		To a large extent (61 – 100%)	To a lesser extent (31 – 60%)	Rarely (1 – 30%)	Not at all
A	Material condition				
(i)	Needs				
1	Adequate household accessories				
2	Provision of school materials for school age children				
3	Adequate access to health facility				
4	Accessibility to kitchen appliances				
5	Adequate equipments on income generating activities				
6	Adequate electricity utility within and outside the household				
(ii)	Standard of living				
7	Food consumption pattern adequacy				
8	Accessibility to physical possession				
9	Acquisition pattern of physical possession				

10.	Safe drinking water (e.g bore hole)				
11.	Safe sanitation				
12.	Reliable source of fuel to cook				
B Economic deprivation					
(i) Limited resources					
13	Adequate of Income due to diversity				
14	Stability of income due to climatic changes				
15	Unlimited to resources to meet basic needs				
16	Equality in distribution of services				
(ii) Class					
17	Relationship to means of production along social class				
18	Good social relation along strata				
C Social position/Orientation					
(i) Lack of entitlement					
19	Access to owned house				
20	Access to inherited house				
21	Access to rented house				
22	Access to land				
23	Access to food				
24	Access to social rights				
25	Access to adequate labour				
26	Access to livestock keeping				
27	Access to credit				
28	Employment availability for household members				
29	Absence of harvest loss				
(ii) Dependency					
30	Dependent on community				
31	Dependent on family				
32	Dependent on friends				
33	Social benefits due to lack of means				
(iii) Exclusion					
30	Social exclusion towards community obligations				
31	Social exclusion among relatives				
32	Economic exclusion on agricultural related activities				

33	Economic exclusion on non-agricultural related activities				
34	Marginalisation due to lack of trust				
35	Marginalisation due to lack of right				
36	Marginalisation due to social class				



Plate 7 : Researcher interviewing a female headed household (widow) in the study area

APPENDIX II

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION (FGD) GUIDE

“Effects of vulnerability to poverty on livelihood security among rural households in Southwestern, Nigeria”

Date of FGD.....Name of Moderator.....Name of Note-taker.....

(The FGD will be taped, but notes should also be taken on this guide)

Name of the village/community.....

Participant: Household heads

Number of participant.....

NOTE: Attendance list with phone numbers to be indicated at the back of the questionnaire

Introduction to inform participants of the purpose of the FGD

We want to discuss why we gathered here today. We are conducting a research on effect of vulnerability to poverty on rural household livelihood security, which encompasses components of livelihood security (economic, food, community participation, health facilities and educational opportunities) and vulnerability (deprivation and dependency). The relevance of this study to you is to identify the level of vulnerability to poverty and their consequences on livelihood security among rural households. The outcome of this study will inform policy formulation and interventions that could fill the gap that exist in the lives of the vulnerable people affected by poverty to either move in or move out of poverty circle. It is hoped that, by the grace of God, some improvements will result from this study. We also encourage you to give us as accurate and comprehensive information as possible. We thereby assure you that we will present your views to large audience through publications in the local, national and international journals, workshops, conferences and meetings.

We are thankful to have given us your time to take part in this discussion. Please address the questions among yourself. We want to see everybody interested in the discussion. There are no correct or incorrect responses. We would like to document your comments so we don't forget what you're telling us.

(At this point, the moderator/ note-taker will introduce themselves)

A. Characteristics of the community

1. What are the proportions ($\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, All) of the local population that are in following:
 - a. Religion: Christian.....; Muslim.....; Traditional worshippers.....
 - b. Generational: Elderly.....; Adult.....; Youth.....; Children.....
 - c. Migrant status: Indigene.....; Long-term migrants.....; (Where have migrants mostly come from?).....If stated then why do they migrate into the community.
 - d. Socio-economic status: Better-off.....; Average.....; Poor..... (Are there any particular groups likely to be poorer than others?) If there are, what are the means of identifying such people.....
.....
.....
 - e. Ethnic group: Major ethnic group: (Specify).....

Minor ethnic groups:
2. Have there been any instances of conflict between different groups within this community that brings about vulnerability to poverty? What was the cause of such conflict situations? Which groups were involved? When did this occur? (Probe to determine if this was just once or if it is a recurring problem.) How was the conflict resolved? Were there any actions taken to prevent further occurrences?
3. Please rate the level of infrastructural development in this community? Very high.....; average.....; very low..... (Probe for reason for this evaluation and state which facilities are present in the area.) If health, educational facilities

(Probe to know the service they render and how distant are they to where you people live.....

.....
.....
.....

4. Who do people consider to be the leaders in this community? [Probe for type of leadership positions. Determine if there are specific leaders for men and women.] Are the leaders generally responsive to the needs of the people? Is there any problem between local leaders and government officials (private organization) that have tried to govern the affairs of the settlement?
5. Have there been programmes on social safety net or empowerment for community members to improve lives of people and reduce their level of vulnerability to poverty. (Probe to indicate the type of programme, aim of the programme and the type of institutional support of the programmes).

B. Livelihood security and vulnerability to poverty

6. What are the major productive and income-generating activities engaged in by the men and women in this community? Which are the most important activities to men? To women?
7. Have there been any changes in the vulnerability to poverty of the people in the last 5 years? If so, what changes have occurred? Are these positive or negative changes? Explain why you believe so? What have been the reasons for these changes?
8. How are the tenure rights to land, trees and water resources determined in this community? How do people get the use of land for their farming and other needs? What rights do people have over water resources, land and forest? Do all groups have equal access to resources? [Probe for possible differences by gender, age, ethnicity, social status.] Have there been changes in access to natural resources in recent times? If yes, why?
9. Identify any environmental problems in this locality that can contribute to vulnerability to poverty? (Probe) If so, how severe are the problems? What is the most serious problem affecting your resources? What do people believe is the cause? What can be done about this degradation?

10. What are the indicators of poverty in the community?
11. What are those challenges that can make vulnerable to poverty?
12. a.) What types of social organizations/group and associations do people in this community participate in this community?
 (b.) What type of services do they render to the community as a group? What benefits do members gain from such groups? [Probe for groups like cooperatives, religious groups, Esusu, age grades, informal work exchanges etc.]
 (c.) Can anyone be a member of these associations, or is membership limited by gender, age, ethnic background, or other characteristics? If Yes (probe) but if No (why?).....
13. How many income generating activities on the average do people engaged in this community?
14. What are these livelihood activities?
 (Probe to know the ones that are predominantly done and the ones they diversify to) Also, state reasons behind this!
15. What kind of things do people spend your income on especially to make your family livelihood secure?
16. What kind of skills do people get in engaging on their livelihood activities? (Probe to know whether they have diverse multiple portfolio) If so, why and how vulnerable are you to poverty in this regards?

17. What kind of things do people do to make a living independently? Probe to know whether they still have other sources of getting refundable money to finance their family members either through friends, families, neighbourhood e.t.c.
18. Are people being deprived in any form to access a secure livelihood in terms of food, health, income, education and social groups within the community you belongs? Probe to state the type and the extent of deprivation.
19. How deficient are people in respects to resources that could translate to vulnerability to poverty? Probe to know the level of availability of these resources and how accessible to them. What is the cause of deficiencies? And why are people deficient to those resources?
20. What is the state of health facility you have access to whenever you are ill/ notice a sign of illnesses?
21. How did people secure food you eat in terms of accessibility, affordability and utilization? Has there been a time you or any of your household members experience food insecurity. If yes, what is the cause?
22. What is the highest level of educational attainment of the community members?and what contributes to that?
23. What are the things you do as a coping mechanism to mediate or mitigate the vulnerability to poverty?
24. What is the yearly seasonal calendar for people livelihood activities (production, processing, marketing e.t.c.). Here, probe to know the actual activities they engaged in the community.
25. What are the most important needs that people have in this community that can reduce poverty? (Here conduct the pair-wise Needs Ranking.)

**We thank you for your time and pray that something good will come out of this study.
God bless you all.**

APPENDIX III

Descriptive Result of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with rural households conducted during the study

Focus Group Discussions were conducted with household groups in one community each of the study area. In all, three FGDs were conducted that is, Ogun State (Toyon community), Osun State (Orisumbare Alagbede community) and Ekiti State (Ago Aduloju community). Each FGD included 7-9 discussants randomly drawn as a representative for the sampled state in which the study was carried out. The FGD carried out shown on Plate 1 and 2 revealed the rural household heads constituted the population of the discussants. All the discussants participated meaningfully to the discussion.

The social composition of households has explained that a larger proportion were Christian while smaller proportion with equal number were both muslims and traditional worshippers. It was also explained that the literacy level (read and write) is relatively high since majority completed primary and secondary schools, while some proceeded to higher institutions of learning with no gender discrimination in education. The generational composition of rural households of Osun States were youth while elder and children had the same equal proportion of smaller proportion. Also, about half of the populations of rural household in Ekiti State were adults followed by youth while a few proportion were elderly. However, children had the highest proportion in Ogun State. It was also recorded that southwestern states were highly accommodating as they embrace other ethnic groups especially in their rural communities having explained that larger proportion were long-term migrants while a smaller proportion were indigenes. Among which the long-term migrants were Igbo's, Igbira's, middle-belt, Hausa's and Igede people where they purposely come to fetch their living since farming activities were predominantly practiced as a source of livelihood.

Socioeconomic status has been explained that in their communities, largest proportion is with average SES. A smaller proportion were poor while a few persons are better-off rated above the average ones. The discussant in the communities of Osun-States explained that most of the people are neither average nor better-off than poor. Also, the discussants in Ogun State rural community explained that none of the households are better-off. But, they were either poor or

with average SES. Consistently, there were low level of Infrastructural development in the rural communities sampled for the study because what they lack vary across, since it was further explained that there was no access to good educational facilities in Ekiti State and no effective maternity in Osun State while Ogun State discussants attest that they do not have access to both good road and safe water. However, power supply was organized and arranged by the entire community.

The significant social organization includes religious, age-grades, committee, trading/professional groups among Ekiti State, and landlord's association which is solely aimed at community development projects in rural community of Ogun State. Meanwhile, participation in the listed groups was based on individual interest. However, no significant social organization existed among the rural households in Osun State rural community. Majority of households engaged in both agricultural and non-agricultural activities for the purpose of survival. They further explained that livelihood activities differ across gender as most of the women primarily get involved in trading activities in rural community of Ekiti State. Only smaller proportion of women engaged in garri processing in Osun State rural community while a few proportion of women in Ogun State rural community engaged in trading activities. Although both women and men in Ogun State rural rural community practiced farming, but some of the men worked under government to get salary. There was also a significant change in the state of household livelihood in the last five years prior to when the survey was conducted and this was relative to government policies and even assistance to uplift livelihood activities which makes them vulnerable to poverty as stated by Ogun State rural people. However, there was no change recorded among people in rural communities of Ekiti and Osun State since they all maintained their state of living.

However, there were several challenges confronting rural households which lead to the state of being vulnerable to poverty, which include: lack of credit, financial burdens of immediate and extended family, unforeseen situation on livelihood activities, lack of social infrastructures, environmental problem and even the current economic state of the country as at the commencement of the survey. Besides, the resources in terms of infrastructure available to households were health centre and primary school but they have to go out of the community to

access secondary education. Also, the resources available are deficient when translates to the deprivation level of other resources to secure livelihood.

On the assessment, food and education for children are the most basic needs that the rural household expended on. Yet, most households had food affordability problem despite being the food basket of any nation. It was further explained that means of diversification as an alternative serve as a coping mechanism to vulnerability to poverty.

Priority needs of sampled communities vary across, this is because the population constituted had different characteristics which can affect them in ranking their needs according to its significance in the same manner. Higher in their priority needs, Ekiti State rural community base their 1st rank on secondary school which differs from other two communities sampled under Osun and Ogun states.



Plate 8 : Researcher taking note during the FGD conducted in Ago Aduloju community of Ekiti State