# AN EVALUATION OF FADAMA III POLICY ON RURAL

**DEVELOPMENT IN ETHIOPE WEST LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF DELTA STATE.**

# BY

**EZEAMAKA, AUGUSTINE IWEBUNOR PG/20/023376/ASS**

# DEPARTMENT OF

**POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IGBINEDION UNIVERSITY,**

# OKADA

**OCTOBER, 2021**

# AN EVALUATION OF FADAMA III POLICY ON RURAL

**DEVELOPMENT IN ETHIOPE WEST LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF DELTA STATE.**

# BY

**EZEAMAKA, AUGUSTINE IWEBUNOR PG/20/023376/ASS**

# BEING A PROJECT PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF

**POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IGBINEDION UNIVERSITY,**

# OKADA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF POST GRADUATE DIPLOMA IN PUBLIC

**ADMINISTRATION**

# OCTOBER, 2021

**DECLARATION**

# I, EZEAMAKA, AUGUSTINE IWEBUNOR, PG/20/023376/ASS hereby

declare that apart from references to other people’ s work which have been duly acknowledge, this thesis is as the result of my own effort. This thesis has neither presented in part non in whole for any other degree in Igbinedion University Okada or elsewhere.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

# EZEAMAKA, AUGUSTINE IWEBUNOR DATE

**CERTIFICATION**

This is to certify t hat this work was carried out by **EZEAMAKA, AUGUSTINE IWEBUNOR, Matriculation Number ( PG/20/023376/ASS)** under my supervision and in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of PGD in Public Administration, Department of Political Science and Public Administration Igbinedion University, Okada.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

# Dr. Kunle Ajisebiyawo Dr. Alexander Dike

**Head of Department Supervisor**

Date\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Date\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

iv

# DEDICATION

This project work is dedicated to God Almighty who made this academic

pursuit that looks impossible, possible and who gave me the enablement to complete this studies.

# v

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First and foremost my gratitude goes to God Almighty who has been so merciful to me.

My appreciation goes to my Head of Department, Dr. Kunle Ajisebiyawo for his commitment and encouragement to embark on this studies and his contribution towards the t imely completion of this project. My appreciation also goes to my Supervisor, Dr. Alexand ar Dike for painstakingly putting me through to this course of study, Public Policy Analysis, that brought light to this project.

My appreciation goes to the Dean of Arts and Social Sciences Prof. Babatunde Agara for the enabling environment provided in t he College for this program. My special thanks goes to my lovely wife Mrs. TessyEzeamaka for her understanding, encouragement and most importantly her prayers. My thanks also goes to Pastor Emmanuel Izegeagba, ZP, RCCG, MSN for his prayers and support.

I must not fail to thank all my lecturers, administrative staff and fr iends numerous to mention individually who have in one way or the other contributed to the success of this program.

May God bless you all in Jesus name. Amen.

# vi

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **TABLE OF CONTENTS**  **CHAPTER ONE**  **INTRODUCTION** |  |
| 1. 1 Background tothe Study - - - - - - - | - 5 |
| 1. 2 Statement of the Problem - - - - - - - | - 6 |
| 1. 3 Objectives of the Study - - - - - - - | - 9 |
| 1. 4 Research Questions - - - - - - - - | - 10 |
| 1. 5 Research Hypotheses - - - - - - - - | - 11 |
| 1. 6 Significant of the Study - - - - - - - | - 11 |
| 1. 7 Scope and Limitation to the Study - - - - - | - 12 |
| 1. 8 Organization of Chapters - - - - - - - | - 12 |

**CHAPTER TWO**

**LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

**2. 1** Literature Review 15

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 2. 1. 1 Public Policy - - - - - - - - | - 15 |
| 2. 1. 2 Rural Area - - - - - - - - - | - 19 |
| 2. 1. 3 Development - - - - - - - - | - 22 |
| 2. 1. 4 Rural Development - - - - - - - | - 25 |
| 2. 2 Policies towards Rural Development - - - - - | - 33 |
| 2. 3 Theoretical Framework - - - - - - - | - 36 |
| 2. 4. 1 Endogenous Theory of Development - - - - - | - 36 |
| 2. 4. 2 Participatory Approach Model to Rural Development - - | - 39 |

vii

# CHAPTER THREE

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **RESEARCH** |  |
| 3. 0 Introduction - - - - - - - - - | - 43 |
| 3. 1Research Design - - - - - - - - | - 43 |
| 3. 2Study Area - - - - - - - - - | - 44 |
| 3. 3Population of the Study - - - - - - - | - 44 |
| 3. 4 Sample and Sampling Method - - - - - - | - 44 |
| 3. 5Method of Data Collection - - - - - - - | - 45 |
| 3. 6Method of Data Analysis - - - - - - - | - 45 |

**CHAPTER FOUR**

4. 1: Overview of Public Policy and Rural development in Nigeria - - 46

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| * + 1. 1 Pre Independence Period - - - - - - -     2. 2 Post Independence Period - - - - - - | - 47 |
| 4. 3 The Origin of FADAMA - - - - - - - | - 61 |
| 4. 3. 1: FADAMA 111 Implementation Strategy - - - - | - 65 |
| 4. 3. 2 Strategic Choice of FADAMA 111 - - - - - | - 66 |
| 4. 3. 3 Beneficiaries of FADAMA 111 - - - - - - | - 67 |
| 4. 4 Impediments to Effective Rural Development Policy - - -  **CHAPTER FIVE** | - 68 |
| **DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS** |  |
| * 1. 0 Introduction - - - - - - - - -   2. 1 Distribution of Respondents by Sex - - - - - | - 75 |
| 5. 2 Distribution of Respondents by Age - - - - - | - 75 |
| 5. 3 Distribution of Respondents Marital Status - - - - | - 76 |

viii

* 1. 4 Distribution of Respondents by Educationa l Qualification - - - 76
  2. 5 Religious Status of Respondents 77
  3. 6: Are you an indigene of Ethiope West Local Government? 77
  4. 7: How long have you stayed in Ethiope West Local Government? 78
  5. 8: How long have you farming? 78
  6. 9: What is your source of farmland? 79
  7. 0: Are you aware of the FADAMA III Project in your local government? 79 5. 11: How did you know about it ? 80
  8. 2 What was your init ial reaction to the programme? 81
  9. 3: Has this reaction changed? 81
  10. 4: Has this reaction been positive? 81
  11. 5: Has this programme been of benefit to you as an individual? 82
  12. 6: Has the FADAMA III project promote agriculture activities in your local government? 82
  13. 7: Have you ever made complaint on the FADAMA III programme? - 83 5. 18: What are these complains? 83
  14. 9: Did any concrete action follow from this complain? 84
  15. 0: Do you think your holding has increased as result of FADAMA III? - 85 5. 21: What is the size of your farm before FADAMA III? 85

5. 22: Has your output changed as a result of FADAMA III to the farm? - 86 5. 23: Can you rate the level of this change? 86

* 1. 4: How often do you have contact w ith FADAMA facilitators? 86

ix

* 1. 5: FADAMA III project has assisted in the increase of my farm income? 87 5. 26: FADAMA III project improved my farming, nutrition and food security?

- - - - - - - - - - - 87

5. 27: More people are emplo yed as a result of FADAMA III project? - - 88 5. 29: FADAMA III project has increased my ability to send children to school?

- - - - - - - - - - - 89

* 1. 0: How significant is FADAMA III in curbing rural- urban migration? - 89
  2. 1: Has FADAMA III project reduced rural- urban migration in the study area? 90
  3. 2: Would you say that FADAMA III has impacted positively on the study

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| area? - - - - - - - - - - - | - 90 |
| 5. 3 Test of Hypotheses - - - - - - - - | - 91 |
| 5. 3. 2 Hypothesis Two - - - - - - - - | - 95 |
| 5. 4 Discussion of Findings - - - - - - -  **CHAPTER SIX** | - 98 |
| **SUMMARYM CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION** |  |
| 6. 1 Summary- - - - - - - - - - | - 104 |
| 6. 2 Conclusion - - - - - - - - - | 105 |
| 6. 3 Recommendations - - - - - - - - | 108 |

# x

**ABSTRACT**

The study examines, critically, policies and programs and their varying degrees of successes as it relates to description, explanation and justification of the causes and consequences of government activities especially with respect to sustainable rural development using research design. It further explains some basic reasons and how to reduce rural-urban drift, encourage agro-industries for processing of raw materials and finished goods; and promote export oriented commercial agriculture among others.

The objective of this paper is to examine public policy on rural development in Nigeria, taking FADAMA III as a case study in Ethiope West Local Government of Delta State. This includes ascertaining the progress made by public policies so far on rural development, examine the social eco nomic status of the study area, access the impact of FADAMA III programe on the livelihood activities of the study area and examine the impact of FADAMA III programe on the standard of living of participating farmers.

The study covers the entire area of E thiope West Local Government of Delta State. The aim of this research is to determine how data about the evaluatiion of public policy and rural development in the study area is to be collected in line with the goal and objectives. The population size of th e area was put at 203, 592 ( NPC, 2006) and local government was named after River Ethiope in Sapele, Delta State. Random sampling metthod was adopted and qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection were used. From findings after analysizing t he personal data of respondents, it was discovered after the program helped to uplift the living condition of the beneficiaries in the study area individually, however, the t r ickle down effect of t he policy has not been felt as a whole in t he Local Government . The area st ill lack the required basic infrastructure that would make life more meaningful for the inhabitants and the Local Government. Conclusively, the third National Development project has progressive impact which needs to be consolidated in the sub sequent years ahead. Government needs to place rural development at the top of their agenda of the National development in realization of the fact that enhances rural development as a prerequisite for meaningful and sustainable overall National development policies and programs. Government also needs to deemphasize total focus on t he oil sector to enhance agricultural development through addressing the needs of rural farmers with functional incentives.

# xi

**CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION**

# 9 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The focus of public policy in contemporary social science discourse is on the description, explanation and just ificat ion of the causes and consequences of government activities especially with respect to sustainable rural development. This attention is obvious for some basic reasons namely: reduce rural - urban drift, encourage agro- industries for processing of raw- materials and finished goods; and promote export oriented commercial agriculture among oth ers ( Oghenekohwo and Berezi 2017). Besides, Dye ( 1981) observed that such description, explanation and just ificat ion may be inclusive of the analysis of the impact of social, economic, and political forces on the contents of public policy, an inquiry of the effect of various inst itutional arrangements and polit ical processes on public policy and an evaluation of the consequences of public policy on society in terms of both expected and unexpected outcomes. It is on these bases that public policy can be viewe d as a dependent variable in which case, interest would focus on those socio - economic forces and political system and its characteristics t hat operate to shape and order the contents of policy.

Also, public policy can be viewed as an independent variable, whereby as Dye ( 1981) noted, the issues of interest would be on the impact that public polic y has on society and its’ political system. A good understanding of public policy according to Larson ( 1987) provides a platform for appreciating the magnitudes of linkages between public policies and regulation of behaviours, organization

of bureaucracies, distribution of development benefits, allocative efficiency,

inst itut ional structures and philosophic al just ificat ion of government and governance. It is this understanding, to us that provides the premise for the interest in rural development as an issue contingent upon public polic y instruments.

Development is a necessary aspect of societies, indeed any society without development could be said to be static. Hence all societies are dynamic. Sustainable development for its part involves the use of natural resources as well as national infrastructures in such a way as to avoid the exhaustion of those resources. Rural socio - economic t ransformation is a means of ensuring that the rural sector of the population has some share in the fruits of economic activity. It is the most pragmatic means of bringing government facilit ies and services to the door steps of the population of rural areas. But unfortunately rural areas are characterized by dearth of infrastructure, roads, health, water and poor electricity supply. The World Bank ( 2003) observed that per c apita income is below $280, economic and social activities that are power - dependent are incapacitated, thus compounding rural unemployment. The continuous neglect and absence of basic social infrastructure coupled with high level of poverty renders its pot entials socio- economic t ransformations unattainable ( Bassey, Ndiyo and Ibia 2016).

It is noteworthy to state that development efforts over the years have been in favour of urban centres, leaving t he rural areas devoid of modern attractions that characterize t he urban centres. For example, the urban areas of Nigeria accounted in 1990 for over 60 percent of the socio - economic infrastructures available in the country, 80 percent of industrial establishment, 70 percent of t rade and commerce and 90 percent of banking facilit ies. And there are also

huge differentials in employment, income, power, education, health and general material well- being between urban and rural areas in Nigeria. The rural economy depends much on road t ransportation in that it facilitates agricultural and other socio- economic activities, the provision and maintenance of the access roads is a sine qua non for the development of the rural economy, most especially t he development of a small scale business which has been recommended as strategy for improving the rural economy hinges on access roads ( Aliyu 2004).

Due to the lack of a well art iculated programme on rural development, there has been much variation in the administration and performance of rural development programme in Nigeria. Efforts made by successive Nigerian governments have been at its worse more of propaganda. Indeed it is safe to say t hat Nigeria has no rural development programme until 1976 when development for rural development was created ( Kamar et al 2014). Before this t ime the governments idea of ploughing back some revenue to the rural sector was through: large sales plantation of cocoa, rubber, oil palm, subsid y approach which allows the public s ector to provide infrastructure which indeed t ransport irr igation facilit ies etc and that of agrarian called reform in a package called “Integrated Rural Development” ( IRD) ( Agwunobi, 1993). As he further stressed, great damage was inflicted by financial agencies that persuaded Nigeria into multi- sectorial development programme under the pretence of integrated rural development programme ( IRDP) even though Nigeria has often do not have a well defined rural development strategy.

Asian Development Bank ( 2014) asserted that rural development has become one of the major aims of various assistance/ intervention programmes of both

individual developing countries and multilateral inst itut ions/donors. Over the past five decades, Nigeria has never been short of programmes and reforms aimed at alleviating t he failing rural economy, livelihood, insecurity and other specific policies associated with poverty alleviation and rural community sustainable development. The Document of Federal Republic of Nigeria ( FRN) at 50 ( 2010:618) illustrated that, majority of these programmes developed complications over the years. Since Nigeria gained her political independence in 1960, there has been a great impetus attached to the rural communit y development as a factor that advances the overall socio - economic development of the developing countries of the world outside ‘ Development Administration’. It is this realit y as highlighted by Alege ( 2005:55) that has made the government at different t imes to set up various programmes and specialized credit inst itut ions in an attempt to t ransform and develop rural areas in all it s ramifications and thereby moving rural dwellers from abject poverty and squalor to economic and social prosperity. He added t hat some of those programmes and credit inst itut ions are yet on- going, some are moribund and others have gone with the r egimes that init iated them. Ibietan and Oghator ( 2013:308) noted that successive governments have indicated desire to t ransform the country, be it in terms of provision of infrastructure, human capacity development and even in the realm of social cum polit ical development particularly in the rural areas. In this wise, Nigeria has experimented with several development plans from pre - independence era t il l date.

According to Abasiekong ( 1982:9):

Developing countries ( including Nigeria) have now more than ever come to be convinced that in order to ensure the overall development of their countries, the rural areas must be t ransformed and brought into the mainstream of their countries.

Corroborating this assertion, Laah et al. ( 2013) argued that “rural developmen t demands attention if the living condit ion of people is to improve particularly those in the rural areas. The understanding of the rural development as a concept and its principles will afford the extension agent the opportunity to collaborate with other stakeholders in order to come up with all- encompassing development agenda for the rural people.” The enormous challenges befalling the rural areas prompted the Nigerian government to inculcate many programmes and policies at the various level of government . For example, in 1993, the federal government of Nigeria in collaboration with the World Bank and State government started a new programme referred to as the National Fadama Development programme. This in an attempt to alleviate poverty among rural Nigerians and also to increase the incomes and productivity of the rural inhabitants as an approach of meeting up with t he millennium development goals ( MDGs) of food sufficiency, poverty eradication and development of the rural areas. The First National Fadama Development Programme ( Fadama I) is a World Bank assisted programme designed to promote simple and low cost improved irrigation technology. The widespread adoption of t he technologies enabled farmers to increase production. Federal government impressed by the achievements, approached the African Development Fund ( ADF) of t he African Development Bank ( ADB) for support in expanding the achievement of Fadama in scope and size. This led to the formation of fadama II programme ( Agbarevo and Okwoche, 2014).

This paper thus takes a look at the FADAMA III projects in Nigeria and it s implications for rural development particularly in Ethiope West local government area of Delta State. In other words, the paper takes a crit ical look at major strategies, approaches or theories taken so far by Nigerian governments with FADAMA III to change the rural landscape and what has been their practicability in terms of social change and improving the socio - economic well- being of the rural poor.

# 0 Statement of the Problem

The need for enhancing the development process in Nigeria, particularly rural development, is ever becoming more crucial and urgent. The pace at which this can be realized is hinged on the ability of the government to formulate appropriate policies and ver y importantly on the capability of the leaders to effectively implement the formulated policies. Over the years in Nigeria, numerous brilliant policies have been formulated and implemented. Yet there is no apparent and significant development in the rural areas to show for that as evidenced by the fact that Nigeria has continued to remain in the category of the least developed countries of the world ( Nnajiofor, I feakor and Mgbemena 2013).

Having known and discovered that government has embarked on several public policies in the past and st ill invo lved in several ones presently, I

therefore choose to investigate the functionality of one of the federal

government policies in one of the states in Nigeria. That is to examine public policy on the FADAMA I II in Ethiope West Local Government of Delta

State.

My research and investigation is to ascertain the progress made by public

policies so far on rural development, examine t he social economic status of

the study area, access the impact of FADAMA III programe on the livelihood activities of the study area and examine the impact of FADAMA III programe on the standard of living of participating farmers.

The Federal Government approved the implementation of the National Fadama Development Project ( Bello, 2000). The intention of government is to ensure strong networks of associations and farmers’ groups that will allow rural people to share in decision- making relate to and contribute towards agricultural and rural development projects.

To ensure that self- sufficiency in food production and rural development is achieved. Traditional irr igation farming through the shadow of and calabash/ bucket methods have been practiced for several decades in Nigeria, but no remarkable change in terms of low agricultural production, which in turn is to affect the living standard ( family health, clothing, nutrition and household materials such as, electricity, television, radio, motorcycle etc), farm output, farm size and income per capita of participating farmers. In view of the vital roles of FADAMA III project as one of the solutions of meeting the national food needs, it becomes imperative to e valuate the importance of the FADAMA III project on rural development in Ethiope West local government area of Delta State.

# 1 Objectives of the Study

The objective of this paper is to examine public policy on rural development in Nigeria, taking FADAMA III as a case study in Ethiope West Local Government in Delta State. The specific objectives include the following;

* + 1. Assess the impact of FADAMA III programme on the livelihood activities and socio- economic development of Ethiope West Local Government
    2. To examine the impact of FADAMA III programme on the standard of living of the participating farmers?

# 4 Research Questions

* + 1. What is the impact of FADAMA III programme on the standard of living of the participating farmers?
    2. What is the impact of FADAMA III programme on the livelihood activities in Ethiope West local government Area?

# 5 Research Hypotheses

H0: There is no significant influence of FADAMA III project on the standard of living of participating farmers in Ethiope West local government area.

H1: There is significant influence of FADAMA III project on the standard of living of participating farmers in Ethiope West local government area.

H0: FADAMA III has not significant ly impacted on the study area?

H1: FADAMA III has significantly impacted on the Ethiope West Local

Government ?

# 6Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is basically to emphasise and re - awake the attention of the government, cit izen of the study area and private individual as well as professionals to rural development which is only antidote to a crumbling economic situation in the study area. The rural area has always being acting as a feeder or supporter to the ever demanding urban area, even in present situation, the agricultural products, man- power, art isan and workers of

all form of quack professions that serves the flambo yant life of the urban area are all from these neglected rural areas, medically, the whole body parts of a human being operates so as to achieve a healthy functionality of the body metabolism, so is the economical t rends or progress of any society.

Our social and economic system is not effective which has led to so many problems like lack of jobs, even when there are no jobs, housing provisions, nor adequate facilit ies in t hese urban area, rural- urban migration is st ill on a high rate, putting our society in a s ituation of “the survival of the fit test” the rural area has large expense of land, untapped resources, better environmental condition and more people, therefore it is pertinent that a rural development strategy that can bring about an equilibrium in the social and economical as well as political condition of our nation is init iated. The need for this should be not be negotiated if we must experience an accelerated economy in the nearest future.

# 7 Scope of the Study

The study covers the entire area of E thiope West Local Government of Delta state. The study intends to emphasise the need for effective and functional public policy on rural development in the study area; an understanding of the present situation in terms of rural development will be made, th e strategy in place, it s efficiency, and possible limitation to its progress and why the local government has not be rejuvenated economically, finally a functional and sustainable rural development policy for the success of the study area will be given at the end of this study.

# 8 Limitatiions to the study

Limitations and challenges faced in this study was lack of obtaining sufficient lit erature relating to research study. We noticed that less research has been carried out on ethnic methods of politics; th is was another obstacle in obtaining materials related to the research topic.

# CHAPTER TWO

**LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

# 1 Literature Review

The conceptual or theoretical framework of the subject in question lies in the wealth of scholarly argument by various scholars on public policy and rural development. This will help to assert the bone of contention for proper comprehension.

# 1 Public Policy

Different definitions of public policy abound, and it may simply be fut ile t rying to discover which is correct or proper. One of the widely quoted but simple definition of public policy is that Dye ( 1979:1), where he defines public policy as “what Government choose to do or not t o do. He went further to explain that:

Government do many things, they regulate conflicts within society, they organize society to carry on conflicts within other societies, they distribute a great variety of symbolic rewards and material services to members of the society and extracts money from the society, most at t imes in t he form of taxes. Thus policies may regulate behavior, organize bureaucracies, distribute benefits, extract taxes, or all of these things at once….( Dye 1979).

Egonwan ( 2004) sees Public policy as a future oriented inquir y into the optimum means of achieving a given governments programme found in a nation’s laws or in public statements by a functioning of government. Other conceptualization of public policy includes; it is a governm ent programme of action which stands for various degrees of total art iculation and normative regulations of government activities, that is what government intends to do to it .

Shankansky ( 1970) contends t hat, public policy refers to important activities of government. The reality however is that public policy embraces all government activities or outputs as it affects members of the society, and cannot be limited only to important activities of government. Public policy is

also defined as a purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern. Anderson ( 1975) defined public policy is a series of goal- oriented actions taken by government actors. According to Leichter, ( 1975) Public policy also connote s official statements determining the plan of action or what the governments want to do. Mlekwe, ( 1976) noted that it is indeed factual that, the special character of public policies stems from the fact that, they are basically formulated public by authorities. This implies that those persons who engage in t he daily affairs of a political system, are recognized by most members of the system as having responsibility for these matters and take decision that are accepted as binding most of the t ime by most of the members so long as they act within t he limits of their role.

For Nnajiofor et al ( 2013), public policy has to do with the fact that, it is a product of government process and activities; it affects a large spectrum of issues and sectors of t he society which government have something to do. This includes the economy, housing, defense, t ransportation, health care, education, etc. and expression of public policy embraces, laws, judicial decisions, executive orders and rules government budgets, organizatio nal directives or any rule of conduct behind which stands the enforcing power of the principal system. Public policies are in essence designed to resolve societal problems. Particularly those considered to require public or collective action. Again public policies can be categorized as being distributive, regulatory and constituent respectively in accordance with the purpose they are created to serve in the society.

Sharma, Sadana and Kaur, ( 2012) posit that public policy is “the relationship of a governmental unit to its environment”. Henry ( 2005) offers a dimension that sees public policy as “a course of action adopted and pursued by government”. This view does not tell us the philosophical basis of t his government course of action. It is in this light tha t Pfiffner avers that public policy is the determination, declaration and crystallization of the will of the community ( in Adebayo, 1994). This will or expectation of the people could be among others; the provision of water, housing, education and securit y . The people’ s participation in t he policy process is crucial to the support for and success of government policies ( Laxmikanth, 2011).

According to Ikelegbe ( 2006), public policies are made by among others; polit ical inst itut ions such as: parliament, polit ical executive, political parties and the judiciary. Akhakpe ( 2014) made the point that in representative democracy, the enterprise of public policy making and implementation are facilitated and made wholesome by non - governmental actors and agencies which can be referred to as interest groups. In advanced democracies, they pla y principal roles in ensuring that their members’ interests are factored into every policy coming from government. In the United States of America, government officials desirous of the success of government policies, go out of their way to ensure that the interests of these groups are sought and represented in major government policies. To bridge the gap in popular representation created by the movement from direct to indirect democrac y, consultations with stakeholders on every policy issue are required for such policies to get the support of the targeted group and its effectiveness realized.

Honadle ( 1976) identifies t he problems associated with policy implementation as that of social carpenters and mansions who fails to build to specification and thus distort the beautiful blueprint. He was equating policy with a building plan. To this he said;

Implementation is the nemesis of designers; it conjures up images of plans gone awry and of social carpenters and mansions who fails to build to specifications and thereby distort the beautiful blueprints for progress which were handed to them. It provokes memories of “good” ideas that did not work and places the blame on the second ( and second - class) member of the policy an administrative images……..” ( Honadle 1976).

Nnajiofor et al ( 2013) argued that the above quotation shows the importance that is attached to policy implementation and those that are responsible for implementing these policies. I t also shows that no matter how beautiful t he blueprint of a programme is, a defective implementation of it will make nonsense of the whole programme. Unfortunately, the situation as described by Honadle above is what goes on in most developing countries, Nigeria inclusive ( Nnajiofor et al 2013). As stated by Egonmwam ( 2004), “implementation in these countries often turns out to be the graveyard of policy where intentions of the designers of the policies are often undermined by a constellation of powerful forces of politics and administration in cooperation with the people. Litt le attention is paid to the subject of policy implementation by polic y decision makers while it is often taken that once a policy is adopted by government it must be implemented and t he desired goal achieved”. The above lapse has often resulted in poor policy implementation, which in effect, gives

r ise to a gap in implementation. There is policy failure when there is a sizable gap between a policy decision and its implementation. Such a gap is characterized, for instance, by the r ich getting r icher and the poor getting poorer in spite of stated policy goals to the contrary. Implementation gap thus manifests in t he “widening of t he distance between stated policy goals and realization of such planned goals ( Egonmwam 2004). This gap is what is widely seen all over the country.

# 2 Rural Area

It is conventional in the academic field to have different school of thoughts about a particular subject matter, similarly , many de finit ion of rural area has been developed over the years, definition used such criteria as overall population, population density, commuting pattern and or distance from other settlement in determining rural area concept, the difficulty encountered in delineating a place to be an urban or a rural area was said by United N at ion to emanate from the dist inction between an urban and a rural which cannot to be amendable to one single definition ( UN 1998), ( UN 1998, 2004) went on further to say that a rural area is ‘an area that is not urban’. The World Bank ( 1978) defined rural areas as settlements where the population live on farms and in villages, it has also defined rural area as those area that are not classified as urban area.

Nigeria is described as a rural society ( Os untogun and Oludimu, 1986 ; Olowu, 1986) because a greater percentage of Nigerians live in the rural areas, and the expected gains from urban- based activities and services are just modest and have not provided the “big- push” to move the national economy int o sustained

growth ( Adenipekun 2013). The urban industrial sector is st ill dependent on the rural outputs ( Oluwayomi, 1986 p. 142 ).

However, it has suffered neglect since the t ime of 1954 Federal Constitution. The neglect of the rural communities by success ive governments has made the rural- urban drift intensified. Abah ( 2000) postulates that the rural development in Nigeria was launched in t he 1940 s, when such projects as Bamende Cross River and Niger Agriculture Scheme, Mokwa were inaugurated since then no meaningful projects have been felt in t he rural areas. In a similar manner, Olayiwola and Adeleye ( 2005) posit that the lack of basic amenities in rural communities has made life difficult for graduates of rural post - primary schools. Most of the rural areas in Nigeria are predominantly agricultural communities. Ayagba ( 2012) cited in Awojobi ( 2014) claims that “the rural population represents an average of over 60 percent of t he total population on the continent; about 90 percent of the rural labour engage s directly or indirectly in agricultural activities. For the continent’s rural people, accelerated agricultural and rural development would contribute to greater efficiency, increased household income, improved standards of living, and poverty reduction.”

The World Bank staff ( 2010) est imated based on United Nations, world urbanization project that Rural population in Nigeria was at it ‘s highest value over the past 50 years 2010 with a figure of 79, 528, 440 residing in the rural area, while it s lowest value was 38, 486, 200 in 1960. Hoggart ( 1990;246) suggested that we `abandon the category rural` as analytical construct, from the foregoing, it can be deduced that an attempt to define the spatial category of rural area are bound to create methodological proble ms, but for the purpose

of this study, rural area can be defined as large and isolated area of an open country with low population density, and mostly characterised by low standard

of living such as lack of adequate social amenities and the presences of ab ject poverty. Other characteristics of rural population are high dependency on the soil for livelihood. In the context of the case study, rural dwellers are mainly farmers, fisher men, hunters, and local palm oil producers.

A rural area as agreed by Olatunbosun ( 1975:6, 7), in Omale ( 2005: 148) is an area with a population lower than 20, 000, occupationally specific, locationally removed from an urban area in terms of services e. g. water, health, electricity, etc ( and as far as Nigeria is concerned poorly provided for. Measured by the index of demography, Nigeria is 80% rural). Therefore, Anele ( 2012) hypothetically said; that life in the rural areas is hard, rustic and sometimes inhuman cannot be overemphasized. Many rural dwellers are t raumatized by poverty, starvation and diseases. It has been succinctly observed that:

There is a realization that a dangerous gap exists in the development levels of both urban and rural areas. This seems to be threatening t he political and social stabilit y ( of the nation). Despite the fact that an overwhelming proportion of our national population reside in t he rural areas, the rural areas are characterized by depressingly meagre annual per capita income, pervasive and endemic poverty, manifested by widespread hunger, malnutrition, poor health, general lack of access to formal education, liveable housing and various forms of social and political isolation compared with t heir urban counterparts ( Muoghalu, 1992:77).

In an explicit description, DPR ( 2001:19) in Roberts ( 2014) explained that the term rural is highly cryptic as some urban cit ies in Nigeria have very poor areas and what is described as rural in general terms are clearly noticeable. She understood rural areas to make up of space where home s and infrastructure

occupy very small space and most of the landmark is dominated with fields, pastures, forest, water, mountain and desert.

Paul et al ( 2014) observed that in Nigeria, poverty is particularly severe in rural areas, where up to 80 per cent of the inhabitants live below the poverty line, and social services and infrastructure are inadequate. In spite of Nigeria’ s abundant agricultural wherewithal and oil r iches, poverty is prevalent in the country and has increased since the late 1990s. Some 70 per cent of Nigerians live on less than N365 ( $1) a day. As alleged by Roberts ( 2014) majority of the rural poor are located in areas resourcefully poor, ecologically vulnerable and very limited or poor infrastructure. They have no land asset, lit t le o r no capital and very limited employment opportunities besides farming and fishing. Sam ( 2014:5) perceived rural development to be far – reaching t ransformation

of the social and economic structures, institutions, relationships and processes in any rural area which encompasses equitable access to arable land, more equitable distribution of income, widespread empowerment in health, nutrition and housing, greatly broadened opportunities for all individuals to realize their full potentials through education and strong voice for all rural people in shaping the decisions and actions that affect their lives.

# 3 Development

The term development is also a victim of different definitions by different scholar, according to Myrdal ( 1975) the term development means a n upward movement of the entire social system, this social system according to him comprises of both economic and non- economic factors. He asserts that whether change is upward or downward, it must be determined from the point of view

of whether it contributes to development.

Afigbo ( 1991) affirmed that development consists of five main ingredients: increasing material wealth for the use of individuals and the modern collectively known as the nation; eliminating unemplo yment; eliminating poverty and want; e liminating inequality, and increasing the general availability of labour- saving devices. Development, from it s inception, is a kind of totalistic movement and rural development is not an exception. Therefore in the context of this study, development means the provision of adequate and appropriate social, economic, agricultural as well as political platform or strategies that can facilitate an instantaneous upward movement of the life of the rural dwellers. in essence the definition adv ocates for a better standard of living for the rural dwellers and most importantly the accessibility of the provided facilit ies.

Simon ( 2004) sees development as an improvement in quality of life ( not just material standard of living) in both quantitative terms. He o pines that development must be seen as actually and temporally relative, needing to be appropriate to t ime, space, society, and culture. Development is the gradual growth of something so that it becomes more advanced, stronger, etc; the process of producing or creating something new ( Hornby, 2001). This definition implies that development involves a gradual or advancement through progressive changes.

Okolie ( 2003) conceives development as man directed and propelled socio - economic and political t ransformation of self a nd entire structure of a given polit ical system from a comparatively low or present level to a more qualitatively and remarkably improved form. These t ransformations have their primary objective as the improvement of the living conditions and material

standing of the cit izenr y. As a corollary to the above, UNDP ( 2004) report indicate that people are the real wealth of nations. Indeed, the basic purpose of development is to enlarge human freedoms. The process of development can expand human capabilities by e xpanding the choices that people have to live full and creative lives.

Amucheazi ( 1980) was of the opinion that “development is realistically seen as a multi- dimensional process involving the totality of man in his political, economic, psychological and so cial realties among others”. Development is a holistic phenomenon not a concept to be abridged in application or compartmentalized and approached as a uni- dimensional process. Essentially it should be man- oriented and not inst itutional- oriented. I f we focus our attention on the individual cit izens we can then think of what he needs at a particular t ime and how he can combat a number of colonial legacies which have held him down.

Ajagun ( 2003) believes that development is a state of advancement which makes life more meaningful in its various aspects, including the economic, administrative, political, social, cultural and religious aspects. This implies that development is not about a particular aspect but it is encompassing, better st ill multi- dimensional depending on the point of contention. According to Onah ( 2005), development is not static but is a continuous improvement in the capacity of the individual and society to control and manipulate the forces of nature for the enhancement of the living standard o f the people in a society. This definition introduces another dimension to the meaning of development, it analyses the human aspect of development, that is, the individuals who resides in a given state. Ahmed ( 2007 ) also noted that development is

concerned with the general upliftment in the material, social and psychological conditions of a given human society.

Gboyega ( 2003) captures development as an idea that embodies all attempts to improve the condit ions of human existence in all ramifications. It implies improvement in material well- being of all cit izens, not the most powerful and r ich alone, in a sustainable way such that today’s consumption does not imperil the future, it also demands that poverty and inequality of access to the good things of life be removed or drastically reduced. It seeks to improve personal physical security and livelihoods and expansion of life chances.

Naomi ( 1995) believes that development is usually taken to involve not only economic growth, but also some notion of equitable distribution, provision of health care, education, housing and other essential services all with a view to improving the individual and collective quality of life ( Naomi, 1995).

# 4 Rural Development

There is no monopoly to the concept of rural development, to some, rural development is synonymous with agricultural development; others views it from a much more comprehensive stand point which includes; the creation of opportunities and incentives for savings, credits and investment at the local level for the provision of rural facilit ies, roads, agro - industries and agro- services centre. Rural development is there fore a concerted effort to increase production, create and spread emplo yment as well as rooting out fundamental causes of poverty, ignorance, hunger and diseases Akpomuvie ( 2010). It is aimed at awakening in the people the urge to develop their own potenti als for progress in order to achieve sustainable development.

Nchuchuwe and Adejuwon ( 2012) viewed rural development as development that benefits rural populations; where development is understood as the sustained improvement of the population’ s standards of living or welfare. Rural development can be seen as not an outside intervention, but the aspiration of local people living in rural areas for taking the challenge themselves and improving their life circumstances and their immediate environment.

Idris, ( 2011) sees rural development as a continued set of actions by government agencies, NGO’s and the rural populace to improving the living conditions of the rural people and also as a process which lead to series of changes within the confine of a given rura l sett ing and which eventually result in the improvement in the general conditions of the rural dwellers. The changes in living conditions depend on a variety of factors such as improvement in education, health, water supply, feeder road networks, electrif icat ion amongst others. Provision of these means democratic dividends in the Nigerian democracy. This is because, they all constitutes campaign promises and polit ical manifestos of elections campaigns in Nigeria.

According to Abdulrazak, Rohana and Suyatno ( 2015) rural development is a comprehensive mode of social t ransformation, a socio - economic change seeking to bring about more equitable distribution of resources within the society, and a veritable acceptance of the principle of growth from below. This emphasized on the need to ensure socio - economic balance and equitable distribution of wealth and resources among people and among the rural populace. Failure to do so makes an economy yet underdeveloped. Nigeria for example experienced an unprecedented economic growth in recent t imes; but without commensurate development. Currently, ( 2014) World Bank rated

Nigeria as the biggest economy in Afr ica but yet, among the poorest countries globally. This proves the c laims that although the country is r ich and the economy is growing, st ill majority of it s population are poor. These pose a great challenge to the managers and drivers to the economy. The only way is to ensure equitable distribution among people and among the sectors and ensure that the growth witnessed by the economy is all inclusive. In the real sense of things, failure to involve the rural populace in carrying out developmental projects in their localities in the name of rural development usually leads such projects to become a wasted effort and this h appens not only in Nigeria, but in other countries both developed and third world countries.

Olayide et al. ( 1981) see rural development as a process whereby concerted efforts are made in order to facilitate significant increase in rural resources productivity with the central objective of enhancing rural income and creating employment opportunity in rural communities for rural dwellers to remain in the area. It is also an integrated approach to food production, provision of physical, social and inst itutional infrastructures with an ult imate goal of bringing about good healthcare delivery system, affordable and qualit y education, improved and sustainable agriculture etc. According to Van der Ploeg et al. ( 2000), rural development is reconstructing the eroded economic base of both the rural economy and the farm enterprise… ( and) represents the well understood self- interest of increasing sections of rural population.

According to Nchuchuwe and Adejuwon ( 2012) rural development ensures the modernization of the rural society and the t ransition from its t raditional isolation to integration with the national economy. It is essential so as to generate foreign exchange, and to attract revenue to finance public and private

consumption and investme nt. Rural development may also be seen as an ideology and a practice. It may mean planned change by public agencies based outside the rural areas such as the National Government and International

organizations. It may also be the bringing of the countrysid e into an active state, as well as the t ransformation of the inferior nature of the country side into something more superior in terms of activities. According to the World Bank ( 1975) rural development must be clearly designed to increase production. It recognizes t hat improved food supplies and nutrition, together with basic services, such as health and education, not only directly improve the physical well- being and quality of life of the rural poor, but can also indirectly enhance t heir productivity and their ability to contribute to the national economy.

Paul et al ( 2014) believed that rural development is action that helps people to recognize and develop their ability and potential and organize themselves to respond to problems and needs which they sha re. It supports the establishment

of strong rural community development agencies that control and use assets to promote social just ice and help improve the quality of communit y life. It also enables community and other public agencies to work together to i mprove the quality of government.

Idike ( 1992:66) in Otigba ( 2013:16) defined rural development as a strategy designed to improve t he socio - economic and social life of the people in t he rural areas. He added that rural development constitutes a process o f planned change for which one approach or the other is adopted for the improvement and or transformation of the lot of the rural populace. Adelakun ( 2013:3) believed rural development generally to be the process of improving the quality

of life and economic well- being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. He stated further that rural development has t raditionally centered on the exploitation of land - intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry. However, chang es in global production networks and increased urbanization have changed the character of rural areas. Increasingly tourism, niche manufacturers, and recreation have replaced resource extraction and agriculture as dominant economic drivers.

Rural development as Omale ( 2005:148) perceived it is the bringing of a change in the status of “things” or “situations” in areas with small populations which areas are characterized by simple occupations, are remote from urban areas and poorly provided for in terms of services. As examined by Tenuche ( 2005), rural development involved t he mobilization and allocation of resources available in the rural areas for the benefit of rural dwellers and for the general upliftment of their standard of living. Also, Ogeidefa ( 2010: 3) alleged rural development to be an integrated approach to food production, provision of physical, social and inst itut ional infrastructures with an ult imate goal of bringing about good healthcare deliver y system, affordable and qualit y education, improved and sustainable agriculture, etc. rural development can be simply understood to be creation of infrastructural facilit ies that bring about a high standard of living in t he villages.

Authors like Rostow ( 1969) and Oluyide and Essang ( 1975) looked at rural development from increase in per capital income of the rural dwellers. Mabogunje, ( 1980) looked at it from the qualitative improvement in t he standard of living of the people, availability of job opportunities, reduction of poverty to an acceptable minimu m, and the provision of policy that will

emphasize constant equality of all ( Dudley, 1977; UNDP, 1997). In addition to the above, Oluwayomi, ( 1986 p. 145) advocated for “Basic Needs Approach” in the provision of basic infrastructure as were available in urb an agglomerations ( Akinbode, 1986) to reduce the imbalance between the urban and rural areas ( Olowu, 1986).

In the past, a number of researchers have attempted an investigation to establish the impact of rural. Development programs on sustainable development in a region. The problem according to Ocheni, Atakpa and Nwankwo ( 2012) is “as result of the under - development of the rural communities; more qualified people to migrate from the rural communities to the major towns and cit ies. They agreed that, most hi ghly qualified professionals at communit y level migrated to the urban areas, leaving only a handful behind. The overall impact of this dearth of professionals at the local level has compounded the problem, making development at that level an impossible task”. Other issues that have resulted in poorly developed rural areas as enumerated by Bertolini, Montanari and Peragine ( 2008) can be summarized as social and economic in nature. These are in form of low birth rate, negative natural increase, higher mortalit y rate depopulation, especially due to outmigration by the young people caused by lack of employment, low population density; Labour market: low educational status, higher rates of unemployment and long- term unemployment; Spatial dimension of poverty as being exacerbated by a poor and deteriorating infrastructure; and Significant fragmentation of land’ s ownership.

As a result of the aforementioned problems that plague rural communities there has been an increase in rural- urban migration. Several attempts made by

successive government to combat this has yielded lit t le or no results. As noted by Okhankhuele and Opafunso ( 2013) claimed that several methods to remove rural urban development gap have been carried out in Nigeria with lit t le success, therefore the rural areas st ill remain highly underdeveloped in comparison with the urban areas. They believed t hat numerous studies have been carried out on the causes and consequences of rural - urban migration and also related the consequences of rural- urban migration on the urban centers to serious problems such as overpopulation, insufficient physical and social infrastructural amenities. According to Bassey et al ( 2016) some of the past studies linked the causes of rural- urban migration to unbalanced government policies in support of urban development, response to disparities in income, employment and other socioeconomic services available within the metropolitan and country sides, with the urban areas being fortunate. In other to bring about sustainable development through the implementation of programmes aimed at impacting positively on rural dwellers, researchers have put forward a number of areas that should be targeted. Ogunnowo and Oderinde ( 2012) studied “the linkages among rural t ransformation, provision of ba sic infrastructure and agricultural productivity that endure food security, and concluded that massive investment on rural infrastructure and sustainable management of the infrastructure is necessary for food security.

In his view, Ogwu ( 2005) posited that “the local governments in Nigeria are expected to constitute the grassroots organ that should st imulate and mobilize the rural communities for an integrated development to solve the problems of poverty; unemplo yment, ignorance, and inequality. Local gover nment areas are supposed to be the engines of national development. A quiet rural community

grows into a bustling city, and the local leader makes this possible. However, in developed societies, when people are t ired of living in the cit ies they relocate to rural communities International Journal of Public Administration and Management”.

Thus, the provision of sustainable social amenities, development in agricultural and small/ medium scale business activities can be of great help. Abah, ( 2000) viewed rural development to include the provision of social and physical infrastructure, the provision of financial services in non - urban areas, non- farm and small- medium enterprises activities in rural communities and market towns that are more closely linked to the rural economy than they are to the economies of the larger urban cit ies, as well as the development of t raditional rural sectors, such as agriculture and natural resource management. It noted the key elements that will facilitate the realization of rural development to include social infrastructure, physical infrastructure, and financial services.

In terms of measuring rural development, Obot ( 1987) suggests that it could be measured in t he areas of roads, water supply, housing, electricity, building of model communities, access to quality education, improved health care delivery and availability of food and agricultural products for the rural settlers. Hence, the objective of the National Policy on Rural Development as outlined by Ogbazi ( 1992) encapsulated the ideal situation of an acceptable level of development in the rural area. These objectives can be paraphrased to include:

* Promotion of the social, cultural, educational and economic well being of the rural population.
* Promotion of sustained and orderly development of the vast resources in the rural areas for the benefit of the rural people.
* Increase in and diversification of job opportunities and improvement of income in the rural areas.
* Mobilization of the rural population for self- help and self- sustaining programme of development.
* Up- lift ing of the technological based industries in the rural area.

Looking at it from different perspective, Ndangra, ( 2005) maintains that, rural development is broadly seen as an integrated process involving the implementation of sectoral programmes and provision of social services under the surveillance and the full participation of the major relevant stakeholders. That, it is also, an educational process which seeks to create opportunities for rural people to sat isfy their human, economic, social and psychic needs. This shows that, the success of rural development lies in implementation of the programmes and policies init iated. This has been the problem in Nigeria; in the sense that successive government came up with various programmes that were laudable but marred with implementation problems which left rural communities undeveloped.

# 3 Policies towards Rural Development

The embracing of rural development as a new paradigm in terms of policy and practice is st ill raising dust among academic experts. It is believed that the new rural development paradigm is replacing the modernization paradigm that has for sometimes ruled policy, practice and theory ( Van der Ploeg et al. 2000). However, Mueller ( 2006) asserts that previous paradigms of development were basically Keynesian and state- centric, with a solid emphasis on growth. The

need for a comprehensive definition of rural dev elopment has put scientists on a collision course. Nooy ( 2000) stresses that there is no all - inclusive definition of rural development. However, study by some experts in rural development encapsulate that it is a process that will put to a stop the expropr iate of farmers, for others is a strategy that will invigorate agriculture ( Van Broekhuizen et al. 1997 cited in Van der Ploeg. 2000). To some keen researchers, rural development is an add on to the current model of agriculture and rural life ( Van der Ploeg et al. 2000). In a similar fashion, others predict both agriculture and rural life will experience key re- formation ( Van der Ploeg et al. 2000). The debate surrounding the rural development prompted this study to contribute to the expansion a new approac h that holistically replicates a new practice and policy incorporated in rural development practice in African rural communities. Sustainable rural development is construed in this study with reference to sustainable development as conceptualized by t he Wo r ld Commission on Environment and Development in 1978, i. e, the Brundtland Report. Development here is encapsulates “in such a way that productivity may be maintained over the longer term for future generations, whilst preserving essential natural systems and protecting human heritage biodiversity” ( Cawley and Gillmor, 2008). The Nigerian government has now integrated these principles of sustainabilit y into a policy known as the Nigeria Rural Development Policy for Sustainable Growth.

“The policy objectives of the National Policy of Integrated Rural Development draws from t he national objectives of developing the rural areas, raising the quality of life of the rural people, alleviating rural poverty and using rural development to contribute to laying a solid foundation for national development. While the strategies of the policy are to achieve integrated and even development on a sustainable basis, the

strategies to be adopted will empower rural dwellers through the development of productive employment, enhan cing t heir income, ensuring protection of the environment, promoting gender responsiveness and ensuring adequate care for vulnerable groups” ( Nyagba, 2009).

This policy is to work along the Millennium Development Goals ( MDGs). The MGDs are eight internatio nal goals that were agreed upon by world leaders to help achieve the following MDGs:

* + - Eradication of poverty and hunger;
    - Achieving of universal primary education;
    - Promoting gender equality and women empowerment;
    - Reducing child mortality improving maternal health;
    - Combating diseases such as HIV/ AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
    - Ensuring environmental sustainability and
    - Developing a global partnership for development.

Aside, the Rural Development Policy for Sustainable Growth, all other development policies in the Nigerian democratic era since 2004 such as the National Economic Development and Empowerment Strategy ( NEEDS), the Seven Point Agenda and the Transformation Agenda are geared to achieving the target date of 2015 of the MGDs. Rur al development is synonymous with agriculture development, it is on this ground the Nigerian government is keen on developing the rural areas through sustainable rural development init iat ives. In a nutshell, official rural development documents embrace a c omprehensive approach to the conceptualization of sustainability that involves environmental, economic and social dimensions ( Jenkins, 2000 cited in Cawley and Gillmo, 2008). These three dimensions of sustainable development are the core principles of sust ainability. In addition to this, an inst itut ional dimension

is supplemented into these dimensions in order to address vital inst itut ional policy and capacity issues.

# 4 Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on two theories, endogenous theory of dev elopment and participatory approach model to rural development

# 1 Endogenous Theory of Development

Endogenous theory of development was developed in opposition to t raditional understanding or in order words the ‘modernist’ notion of development. Endogenous theory of development stated that the socio - economic well- being of disadvantage areas such as the rural areas can best be brought about by recognizing and animating the collective resources of the territory ( Ray 2000). According to Bassand et al ( 1986) the new meaning of development, that is, qualitative and structural indicators, and not just qualitat ive and monetar y measure, are used a criteria but also cultural, social, political, and ecological value as well as social costs and long effects are combined for endogenous development.

The concept as a development approach was created as an alternative t o the practice of central authorities in designing interventions which deal with sectors of social and economic life in isolation from each other and/or which deal with sectors of social and economic problems can be solved by standard measures, regardless of location or culture. Here, the emphasis is on what areas can do for themselves and assistance is usually geared towards the enablement of local economic growth ( Helmsing 2001 ).

According to Lowe et al ( 1998) the basic characteristics of the endogenous model of rural development are as follows:

* + - * Key Principle: the specific resources of an area i. e. ( natural, human and cultural) hold the key to its sustainable development.
      * Dynamic Force: local init iat ive and enterprise.
      * Function of Rural Areas: diverse service economies
      * Major Rural Development Problem: The limited capacity of rural areas and social groups to participate in economic and development activity.
      * Focus of Rural Development: capacity building ( skills, inst itut ions and infrastructure) and overcoming social exclusion.

Ray ( 2000) stated that the main characteristics of endogenous development are threefold. First it sets development activity within a territorial rather than sectorial framework, with the scale of the territory being smaller than the nation- state. Second, economic and other development activities are reoriented to maximize the retention of benefits within the local territory by valorizing and exploiting local resources ( physical and human). Third, development is contextualized by focusing on the needs, capacities and perspectives of local people, meaning that a local area should acquire the capacity to assume some responsibility for bringing about its own socio - economic development. Partnership working i. e. collaborative arrangement between public bodies or between the public, private and voluntary sectors has been increasingly recognized as a mechanism to introduce and manage endogenous development ( Ray, 2000). The partners pool t heir resources in the pursuit of a common policy objective, in the case the social economic regeneration of a territory. In theory, the partners cultivate consensual strategies and thereby integrate their separate responsibilities or contributions ( Edwards et al, 1999).

As stated by Shortall and Shucksmith ( 2001), d evelopment is not just about increasing goods and services provided and consumed by society. It also involves enabling communities to have greater control over their relationship with the environment and other communities. According to this approach, empowerment, capacity building, carefully designed social animation and provision of suitable t raining and development inst itution t hrough central policies are key elements of the system. Picchi ( 1994) also stated that certain polit ical- inst itut ional arrangements can also help endogenous development patterns. These include a r ich network of services provided by local administrations for economic sectors, planning mechanisms aimed at strengthening development patterns and a stable c limate for industrial development.

Keane ( 1990) points out two main ways in which endogenous development differs from exogenous: first, it is seen not only as an economic concept, but also as a process dealing with the total human condition; and second it accepts numerous possible conceptions of development and pitches the objectives and paths on an appropriate local level. He also stated that endogenous approach represents a significant change from investment on physical capital to investment in developing the knowledge, the skills and the entrepreneurial abilit ies of local population. The endogenous development approach has been seen to possess a number of weaknesses. Brugger ( 1986) stated that there are significant gaps in the theory of endogenous development. However, he stated that they can be overcome through systematic analysis of practical experiences and st ill be useful for policy makers.

The theory of endogenous development is applicable to this study in t he sense that participatory approaches to rural development have been known to ensure the efficient use of rural resources and largely these have been known to ensure the efficient use of the rural resources and largely these have tended to provide scope for local domination of decision- making influence by powerful by powerful local actors ( Lowe et al 2000 ; Ward and Nicholas, 1986).

# 2 Participatory Approach Model to Rural Development

Participatory Rural Approach ( PRA) is an approach mostly used by non - governmental organizations ( NGOs) and other agencies involved in international development. The approach aims to incorporate the knowledge and opinions of rural people in the planning and management of development projects and programmes. The root of PRA techniques can be t raced to the activist adult education methods of Paulo Fre ire. In his view, an actively involved and empowered local population is essential to successful rural community development. Robert Chambers, a key exponent of PRA argued that the approach owns much to the Freirian theme that poor and exploited people can and should be enabled to analyze their own reality ( Chamber, 1994).

People’s participation as a concept was formulated or rediscovered in t he 1970s, in response to the growing awareness that the various approaches t hen employed for rural development, such as community development, integrated rural development or basic needs did not often lead to significant rural development and especially, largely, as was then thought, because there was lit t le involvement in development projects of those undergoing ‘development’.

PRA has been described as a family or approaches, methods of behaviors that enable people to express and analyze the realit ies of their lives and conditions, to plan themselves what action to take, and to monitor and evaluate the results. The term ‘ participation’ has recently come to play a central role in the discourse of rural development practitioners and policy makers. Participatory development stands for partnership which is built upon the basis of dialogue among the various actors, during which the agenda is jo int ly set, and local views and indigenous knowledge are deliberately sought and respected. This implies negotiation rather than the dominance of an externally set project agenda. Thus people become actors instead of being benefic iaries ( OECD, 1994). Participation is a process through which stake holder’s influence and share control over development init iat ives and the decisions and resources which affect them ( World Bank, 2000).

Participation in rural development has gradually bec ame more established among governments, donors and international organizations, to such an extent that Henkel and Stirrat ( 2001) argued that, it is now difficult to find a rurally based development project which does not in one way or another claim to adop t a participatory approach involving bottoms planning, acknowledging the important of indigenous knowledge, and claiming to empower local people.

Arnstein ( 1969) defines participation as the redistribution of power that enables to have- not cit izens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future. It is the strategy by which they can induce significant social reform which enables them to share in the benefits of the affluent society. She puts forward a model t hat consists of a ladder with eight rungs, as illustrated in the below. He stated that the

ladder is a simplification and that the eight rungs are an imperfect representation of what is really a continuum, where a clear dist inction between levels is not always possible. However, it helps to illustrate the fact that there are different degrees of cit izen participation.

# Figure 1: The ladder of participation



|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1 | Citizen control |
| 2 | Delegated power |
| 3 | Partnership |
| 4 | Placation |
| 5 | Consultation |
| 6 | Informing |
| 7 | Therapy |
| 8 | Manipulation |

Sources: Arnstein, 1969

The model above is not neutral as pointed out by Hayward, Simpson and Wood ( 2004), reading the ladder from bottom to top; it suggests a hierarchical view that promotes full participation as the goal to be achieved. Cohen and Uphof ( 1980) were among the first to stress the importance of participation in the various stages of the project cycle, particularly decision making and evaluation, rather t han simply sharing in the benefits of projects. Pearse and Stifel ( 1979) complement this by stressing control and, by implication, also issues of power. According to Cohen and Uphof, ( 1980), participation includes people’ s involvement in decision making processes, in implementing programmes, their sharing in t he benefits of development programmes and their involvement in effort to evaluate such programmes.

The model is relevant to the study in the sense that if rural development realizes it s potentials, disadvantaged rural people had to be organize d and actively involved in designing policies and programmes and in controlling social and economic inst itut ion that have impact on their standard of living. The use of PRA can help involve communit ies in the various decisions concerning their own development, including appraisal, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. The ‘developers’ have also benefitted from t he interaction of PRA, in the sense that development practitioners have become more open to and respectful of local knowledge and more receptive to local.

It involves local people, development agencies, and policy makers deciding together how progress should be measured, and results acted upon. It can reveal valuable lessons and improve accountability. By broadening involvement in identifying and analyzing change, a clearer picture can be gained of what is really happening on the ground. It allows people to celebrate successes, and learn from failures. For those involved, it can also be a very empowering process, since it puts them in c harge, helps develop skills, and shows that their views count ( Guiijt and Gaventa 1998).

# CHAPTER THREE

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

# 0Introduction

This chapter explains t he modalities that the researcher has put in place to carry out the study, which obvious are the various methods and techniques that the researcher has inputted in the course of this research work to acquire the required data and information pertaining to this study. This chapter has therefore been designed to clarify and reduce to the bearest minimum any form of ambiguity in the use of methods during the course of this research work. Data for this research work will be obtained throu gh questionnaires and direct observation.

# 1Research Design

The main aim of this research is to determine how data about the evaluation of public policy and rural development in Ethiope West Local Government Area is going to be collected in line with the goal and objectives. To arrive at authentic outcome, data will be collected about the socio - economic characteristics, the nature of existing infrastructure or development in Ethiope West Local Government Area, discovery and evaluation of public policy for development in I Ethiope West Local Government Area, impacts of this development on t he resident of t he local government as well as factors militating against the progress of the local government development wise. This research adopted for this study are both quantitative and qualitative but with emphasis on qualitative tools,

# 2 Study Area

Ethiope- West Local Government Area, Delta State, Nigeria covered a land area of 742. 5 km2 and the population size is 203, 592 persons ( NPC, 2006). Ethiope, named after River Ethiope is a lowland area close to Sapele Delta State, Nigeria. It lies within geographical between 5o 55’ – 5 o 56’N.

The climate is t ypical of that found in any t ropical area. It is humid for most

parts of the year. In t he areas where the r iv er runs t hrough, the effect of land

and sea breeze is strongly felt. Rainfall here is usually quite heavy, leaving

areas with poorly drained soils. The climate here is therefore very favourable

for the growth of a diverse number of plant species. The veget at ion is

predominantly semi- evergreen forest and derived savannah. Delta State supplies about 35% of Nigeria’ s crude oil and some considerable amount of natural gas.

# 3 Population of the Study

To crit ically examine the inter play of public policy and rura l development, Ethiope West local area, Delta Sate was selected as the population and it is put at 203, 597 persons ( NPC 2006) for this work.

# 4 Sample and Sampling Method

Ethiope West local government area, Delta Sate will be the sample to be used

for this study. Going from the nature of the topic of this study, the sample size of the projected population was put at one hundred ( 100) ninety ( 90) returned. The random sampling method was used. The need for this method is to eliminate bias.

# 5 Method of Data Collection

Both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection were used in this study. Quantitative data were collected through questionnaire. Hence, data was sourced from both the primary and secondary sources. Primary data was collected through open ended questionnaire. The secondary data includes data collected from published and unpublished works, or related document pertaining to the subject matter. All the aforementioned secondary sources of data were crit ically studied and relevant information derivable from them are used to complement the outcome of the primary data.

# 6 Method of Data Analysis

The technique used in this research is both quantitative and qualitative technique. A comprehensive description as well as data analysis through the use of tables, pie charts and bar charts with simple percentage were used. The chi- square test used in this research to test the hypothesis by examining the independent variables. The purpose of the chi- square test is to provide an answer to the question of how great a departure from the expected frequencies can be tolerated before we can reject the null hypothesis.

# CHAPTER FOUR

* 1. **1: Overview of Public Policy and Rural development in Nigeria**

In an attempt to achieve economic growth, successive governments in Nigeria embarked on various policy measures aimed at developing the rural areas. Developing countries like Nigeria have made frantic efforts over the years to fight rural underdevelopment, although such efforts have been adjudged uncoordinated and more or less fire brigade approach. This is one of the reasons for the increasing disparity between the urban and rural areas in Nigeria. Igboeli ( 1992) argued that this disparity has its roots in the neo - classical economic theories which presumed that “development can be accelerated by concentrating investments in the cit ies and that rural poverty will be ameliorated by t he t r ickle down of benefits from the urban industrial growth”. With the so- called growth- centred strategy, the developing countries have continued to witness imbalances in the living conditions between the urban and rural dwellers. Consequently, development theories over the years have been searching for alternative strategies that would not only accelerate

growth but also spread the benefits of development to the rural areas. Onimode ( 2002) was able to pinpoint the historical origin of the dualism in contemporary Nigeria between the rural and urban areas. Acc ording to Onimode ( 2002:63) some eighty percent of the population in rural areas e it her had no medical services or made do with rudimentary facilit ies scattered over wide distances. Historically, efforts at developing rural areas have been pursued since th e colonial t imes. The concern has been to t ransform t he mostly agrarian society in order to reach a common set of development goals based on the capacities and needs of the people. Policies aimed at the improvement of the rural areas and pursued by various governments ( federal, state and local) have been put in place and pursued particularly since 1960 s ( Ering and Otu 2014).

In essence, rural development practice in Nigeria can appropriately be said to be driven by three key inst itut ional regimes namely, t he colonial regime ( pre- independence); the military regimes ( the military has ruled Nigeria from 1966 to 1999 with a brief interlude between 1979 and 1982) and; the democratic era ( effectively from 1999 to date). From the colonial era to the early 1980 s, p olicy understanding and direction on what should be ‘rural areas’ and how its development should be catalyzed was narrowly focused on agricultural improvement and productivity ( Ogunkoya, Lasisi, Hassan and Elumah 2015). This understanding gave r ise to many agriculturally based programs including the Agricultural Marketing Board, River Basin Development Authorities ( RBDAs), Operation Feed the Nation ( OFN); Green Revolution; Agricultural Development Projects ( ADPs), among other minor ones. Emphasis on agricultural development made some policy and economic sense at that t ime given the role and importance of agriculture at various levels in the Nigerian

economy. Efforts at achieving rural developments by Nigerian government shall be examined under these two t ime frame- Pre- independence epoch and Post-Independence epoch ( Ogunkoya et al 2015).

# 1 Pre Independence Period

Ering ( 2012) and Ebong ( 1991) have both maintained that Nigeria rural communities have ever before the advent of colonization indulge in various forms of community self- help schemes such as construction of village moats, shrines, village squares, markets and a host of other activities. In other words, development activities have been part of Nigeria’ s cultural heritage. Government‘ s involvement in rural development activities began as far back as 191, according Olayiwola and Adeleye ( 2005), through the promulgation of the Township ordinance by the colonial government. Based on this ordinance settlements in the country were classified into three clas ses. The first class townships harboured the whites and their workers. There was heavy concentration of infrastructure in these settlements e. g. Lagos. In other words, they differ from t he second and t he third class townships, which received lit t le or no facilit ies ( Raheem and Bako 2014).

In the 1920 s the British colonial office adopted the strategy of community development as a special development model for the rural areas of all colonial territories. The concern then was to make up for the short comings o f t raditional British school system by imparting skills such as carpentry, house building, shoe repairing, etc in communit y development centres ( Ering and Otu 2014). Roads and railway lines were also constructed across the country during this period, in t he name of and ostensibly for the development of rural areas ( Obetta and Okide 2012). However, the real reason for such constructions was

exploitative rather than welfaristic ( Raheem and Bako 2014), it was to enable the colonialists and the imperialists to tap and evacuate our agricultural products such as groundnuts, cocoa, cotton, and palm produce. This particular motive dictates the pattern of rail system in Nigeria in particular and developing countries in general, where rail lines only connect the hinte r lands with the sea ports from where the agricultural products could be t ransported overseas ( Raheem and Bako 2014).

During the colonial period, the role of agriculture in sustaining the empires of the colonial masters through commodit y exports and cheap l abour and capital has been variously acknowledged ( Watts and Bassett, 1986; Iwuagwu, 2006 ; Abdu and Marshall, 1990). In terms of employment, Abba et al ( 1985, cited in Abdu and Marshall, 1990) noted the role of agriculture as the country’ s main industry as far as employment was concern with over 65% of the population being dependent on it for livelihood. As early as 1964, Liman ( 1982, cited in Abdu and Marshall, 1990) had reported a 70% of GDP contribution from the agricultural sector to Nigerian economy. However, the focus of development at this period was foreign- centred rather than for rural development per se. Thus, the few developments recorded in the rural areas across the country in t his period were not by a well la id plan but by chance.

The Local Government Councils were seen as avenues through which infrastructural facilit ies could be extended to the rural areas. But then, the fund allocations to the local governments were hardly enough to maintain facilit ies in the council headquarters. In fact lit t le or no fund was available to init iate new schemes for rural development. Yet ironically, in spite of the limited benefits of the colonial policies, the investment pattern established during the

colonial period was further consolidated by subsequent gov ernments after independence. This is evident in all the development plans init iated since 1960. In reality, a common feature of rural development plans at pre - independence period was a single emphasis on agricultural development and productivity. While in t he recent t ime the rural areas are st ill described as synonymous with peasant and subsistent agriculture ( Onokerhoraye, 1978 ; Udeh, 1989 ; Abdu and Marshall, 1990 ; Filani, 1993 ; Iwuagwu, 2006; Saheed, 2010), it is equally seen as synonymous with absence of basic infrastructural facilit ies such as sanitation, electricity, pipe- born water, good roads and health care services.

# 2 Post Independence Period

The period after independence witnessed massive investment in the development efforts of the modern sector of the economy at the expense of investment in the rural economic base. According to Igbokwe and Ajala ( 1995), government intervention in rural t ransformation then were in response to lift ing urban pressures emanating from rural neglect and improving export commodity earnings. Thus, Chukwuemaka and Ikechukwu ( 2013), argues that over the years, the development strategies and efforts in Nigeria has been more urban based or focused resulting to relative neglect of t he rural areas as evidenced in the apparent dearth of basic infrastructural facilit ies in the rural areas. Sometimes attempt at developing the rural area was a conscious and desperate effort to ensure adequate food supply for the nation, especially for the parasitic urbanites. The efforts was to serve the needs of the cit ies through which the best and the choicest food produced were carted away by the middle men who had bought them at ridiculously low prices from the original producers The resources meant to open up the rural areas were diverted to

service the urban centers. Example of such were the building of the famous Cocoa House in Ibadan, the first Television Station in Africa and other numerous urban projects all of which were financed with the proceeds from taxes and levies from the rural farmers. The action led to dramatic influx of rural dwellers into the urban areas as it became more profitable and more sensible to remain in cit ies eve n as unemployed than to be enslaved in t he rural areas only to “feed the nation” ( Raheem and Bako 2014). As posited by Raheem, Oyeleye and Adeniji ( 2014) the inflow of human resources from the poor regions to the r ich regions will greatly increase the popu lat ion sizes of the latter, thereby creating complex socio economic problems of unemployment and overcrowding residential accommodation.

However, in the 1970s, there was a renewed effort in what was called rural development. According to Filani ( 1993), by the late 1980s and early 1990 s, there was some improvement in the conception of what constituted rural development. In this case, rural development at policy and practice levels was conceived in a way t hat transcended mere agricultural development to incorporate the development and expansion of rural infrastructures, emphasis on poverty alleviation and socio - economic empowerment of the rural inhabitants.

Generally, the country has implemented several development plans after the independence though, and according to Olayiwola and Adeleye ( 2005), among the significant occurrence on rural development activities was the national development plans. Although, the first and second national development plans ( 1962- 68 ; and 1970 - 74) were not basically concerned about developing the

rural localities, serious concern for rural development at the national level was first highlighted in the third national development plan ( 1975 - 80).

The First National Plan of Nigeria ( 1962 - 68) had a total budget allocation of N1, 353 million. The plan made no clear statement on rural infrastructural development. As agriculture was st ill an important exchange earner, the plan‘ s objectives were to encourage the assemblage of agricultural produce for export purpose.

Prompted by the hope enshrined in the sectorial development strategy ( otherwise known as the agricultural development model), the planners and policy makers in the country assumed that the development of agriculture is synonymous to rural development. The policy objectives and go als of the government in the first National Development Plan ( 1962 - 1970) were therefore to raise the living standard of the small- scaled farmers, to increase agricultural output and productivit y, to increase raw agricultural materials for the utilization of local industries and for exports and finally to raise the nutritional needs of the population( NDP, 1962). Governmental actions employed to promote these goals included the distribution of seeds, introduction of more agricultural methods through farm settlements, cooperative( nucleus) plantations, improved farm implements such as hydraulic presses for the expression of palm oil and a greatly expanded agricultural extension service, the expansion of the installed capacity of electricity generation to 634 mv to 1968, the expansion of railway length by the remaining 920. 3km of Borno extension and the expansion of the system of tarred roads by about 3, 220km ( Osuntogun and Olufokunbi, 1986).

Some lapses were recognised with the first plan and t his gave r ise to the Nigeria’ s second National Development Plan of 1970 - 1974 ( Nigeria, 1970). The second plan was launched shortly after the end of the civil war. The plan attempted to rehabilitate economic activities in the war - affected areas. The plan spelt out five principa l national objectives meant to achieve a united, just, strong and self- reliant nation. Some N 2 , 050. 73 8 million was allocated as expenditure. But just as in the first plan, government did not make any clear statement on rural infrastructural development.

The plan specifically stated the country’ s rural development objectives of ( a) creating rural employment opportunities with a view to checking rural out - migration and ( b) improving the level and quality of social services and infrastructural facilit ies. Nonetheless these goals were neither adequately provided for in the plan nor were there any specific programmes or projects designed to achieve them ( Inude 2016). A major strategy designed to improve the condition of living in rural Nigeria during the secon d National Development plan was the development of large - scale irr igation projects which gained prominence in the various states of the Sudan belt. The recognition of the impact of communit y self- help efforts was noted in the Second National Plan, 1970 - 74. Apart from stating that the development consciousness of these communities will be harnessed, government’ s support programme was lacking. In effect the pattern of community development in Nigeria remains largely unplanned and uncoordinated as reflected in t he abandoned communal projects scattered over the entire national territory and the duplication and uneven spatial distribution of the projects completed by various communities. Also noted with this period is the launching of National Accelerated Food

Production( NAFPP) in 1973 as a national network of agro services centres, these centres are no longer in t he mainstream of rural development ( Inude 2016).

The third national development plan emphasized the need to reduce regional disparities in order to fost er national unity through the adoption of integrated rural development. The total budget allocation in the third national development plan was N32 billion. The plan provided for the allocation of N90 million towards nation- wide rural electrification scheme, the establishment of nine River Basin Development Authorities ( RBDAs) in addition to the two existing ones ( Sokoto and Rima ( RBDAs) by decree Nos. 25 and 28 between 1976 and 1979 respectively ( Adedipe, 2002), the construction of small dams and boreholes for rural water supply and the clearing of feeder roads for t he evacuation of agricultural produce and the supply of electricity to rural areas from large irrigation Dams ( Raheem and Bako 2014).

In addition to the establishment of the RBDAs, the t hird Nat ional Development Plan also witnessed the establishment of several policies and programmes such as Agricultural Development Programmes ( ADPs), Operation Feed the Nation ( OFN), the Agricultural Credit Guaranteed Scheme ( ACGS) and the Green Revolution Programme. Of all these, the ADPs received better attention and a systematic approach to project planning due to the World Bank support it received and t he moment the world bank withdrew their support the ADPs were merely existing while the others mentioned rema ined as political slogans. ( Adebayo and Idowu 2000).

The sheer size of the third development plan was very large. It has been put roughly by Ayo ( 1988) to be almost ten t imes the size of the Second National

Development Plan. Second, it was handled by the N at ional Economic Advisory Council ( NEAC) which was established in 1972. The council undertook extensive consultation with various bodies and organs and was well placed to consult widely because of its wide membership base. This comprised government officials of various technicalities and backgrounds and representatives of various bodies such as private organizations, t rade unions, chambers of commerce, manufacturers’ Associations, Agricultural Associations and other professionals ( Ejumudo 2013). The objecti ves of the plan were increase in per capita income; even distribution of income; reduction in the level of unemployment; increase in the supply of high level manpower; diversification of the economy; balanced development and indigenization of economic activities. The third plan was supposed to be a blue - print for the industrial development of Nigeria ( FRN 1975). Although the financial capacity to implement the plan was there, the political will was almost completely absent. In fact, Nigerians were more conc erned with sharing the oil booty than in laying the foundation for the much- needed industrial development index ( Ejumudo 2013).

The civilian administration of Alhaji Shehu Shagari ( 199 - 1983) launched the Fourth National Development Plan ( 1981 - 85). This plan exhibited several dist inguishing features, but most importantly, it was the first plan in which the local government t iers were allowed to participate fully in t heir own r ight. The 1981- 1985 national development plan equally marked a turning point in rur al development efforts in Nigeria because it was the first to recognize the rural sector as an important area ( Filani 1993). The plan emphasized among other things the need for balanced development of the different sectors of the

economy and of the various geographic areas of the country. It also emphasized the importance of rural infrastructural development as a vehicle for enhancing the quality of rural life ( Raheem and Bako 2014). Consequently, about N924 million was allocated to the eleven River Basin D evelopment Authorities whose functions include among other things, the construction of boreholes, dams, feeder roads and jett ies. About 12, 064 kilometers of feeder roads, 2, 280 wells, 29 farm service centres, 2, 650 boreholes, and 249 earth dams, were expected to be constructed by the River Basin Development Authorities.

Under this plan, the local government in the country made provision for inter city/ village bus services, for the construction of motor parks, and for petrol filling stations during the fourth plan period ( 1981 - 85). In a bid to increase access of rural dwellers to safe drinking water, rural water supply schemes were planned apart from the huge boreholes drilling programme. To achieve this goal, a total of N2, 805 million was allocated to this sector. Also, local governments in states like Anambra, Plateau, Cross - River States, Bendel and Borno States made fund allocation totalling N311, 824 million for water projects.

Equally, various state governments spelt out different policy issues in t he fourth development plan. The state governments identified four cardinal programmes for themselves. These include-

* + - 1. Free education at all levels
      2. Free medical services
      3. Integrated rural development and
      4. Gainful employment

To bring t his vision into reality, the sum of N1, 642, 401 million were allocated to the various sectors of the economy. The rural sector received much attention in the attempt to

1. Upgrade some local government roads.
2. Establish 27 Primary Health Centres, 105 health clinics and 6 comprehensive health centres. All t hese were to be located mostly in the rural areas.
3. Provide wells in rural areas where piped water is not available.
4. Extend rural electrification scheme to phase five in addition to  the existing phases one to four, which are st ill under construction.

The fourth National development plan was assessed to have performed poorly and so it became necessary to carry out extensive consultations as a prelude for the preparation of the fift h National Development plan. A national conference on the matter was held at the University of Ibadan in November, 1984, and the recommendations from it formed the basis of the policies and strategies included in the fift h National Development plan. The objectives remained essentially the same. The main thr ust of the plan was to correct the structural defects in the economy and create a more self - reliant economy that would largely be regulated by market forces. The economy was therefore expected to be restructured in favour of the production sector especiall y t hose of agriculture and manufacturing ( Ejumudo 2013).

More than ever, the linkages between the agricultural and manufacturing sectors of the economy were to be emphasized during the plan period ( Ayo 1988). The Fifth National Development under the milita ry government of President Ibrahim Babangida Plan did not actually take off in 1986 and t he

year was taken as one- year of economic emergency period and programme. It was later absorbed by a two - year structural adjustment programme ( SAP). The two year SAP ended the five- year planning model. The two year model was also replaced by the three year rolling plan ( Ejumudo 2013).

Similarly, in 1986 under President Babangida, the programme of rural development for the provision of socio - economic infrastructures came under focus with the establishment of rural development agency - the Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure ( DFRRI) under Decree N0 4 of 1986 with a determined focus on the development of the entire rural areas of Nigeria in order to improve t he quality of life of the rural dwellers ( Inude 2016). DFRRI recorded remarkable success in the area of infrastructural development such as feeder roads, electricity and water supply. But the final blow to DFRRI was the National spirit of policy inconsistency and discontinuity of programmes and projects. After the demise of DFRRI in 1994, the functions were shared among t he line Ministry of Water Resources and Rural Development. The result of that national error was that the proverbial h alf bread was totally withdrawn from the rural people ( Inude 2016).

The Better Life/ Family Support Programme ( BLP/ FSP) - The Better Life Support Programme was established in 1987 by t he then first lady Hajia Maryam Babangida. It was an offshoot of Beijing C onference of 1985, ( Akanbi, and Jekayinfa, 2011), with a view to alleviate poverty and was t ransformed into Family Support Programme ( FSP) and subsequently to Family Economic Advancement Programme ( FEAP) in November, 1994, by Maryam Abacha with the same objectives of encouraging rural dwellers, especially women to improve their standard of living. There were observable successes such as

giving voice to the hitherto voiceless rural women and the establishment of recreational facilit ies. Apart from launching the women folk to their role as society leaders and managers, its various activities at all level of governments propelled the inert talents in them in all human endeavours. It also led to the “institutionalisation” of t he position of First Ladyship and es tablishment of ministries of women affairs in all t he states of the federation, ( I jere, 1990: 59). The programme also suffered a similar fate to that of DIFFRI as political power changes from one person to another.

The National Directorate of Employment ( N DE) was established in 1987 to tackle t he problem of mass unemployment involving all categories of labour ( skilled and unskilled), including the disguised unemployed street hawkers, both in rural and urban centres ( Inude 2016 ; Anyebe 2016). The directorate focused its attention on agriculture, small scale enterprises, special public works and vocational skills development. Quite remarkable successes have been recorded in this regards and its impact is st ill being felt t ill today ( Inude 2016).

The establishment of People’s Bank and Community Banks was to liberalize access to credit by t he in 1989, the operation of the people’s bank faced many challenges among which are the unstable rate of branch expression, the dependency on government for funds and weak management as a result of which its effectiveness in alleviating the problems of the poor remains insignificant. Even so the People’ s Bank is no more, it was merged with then NACB now NACRDB; Nigerian Agricultural Credit and Rural Development Bank. To date the effect of the merger is yet to be seen. The establishment of the Community Banks was intended to inculcate the banking habit in rural areas

and providing needed banking services to members of their community. One cannot be carried away by t he huge success of t he Community Banks such as assisting business men with medium scale enterprises. The poor with no collateral and adequate deposit base were largely unable to meet their credit needs from these banks. Apart from this, a large number of these banks are located in urban areas and most of their services are directed to the urban r ich with less credit r isks.

The Special Programme on Food Security ( SPFS) in Nigeria came on board November 2001 after a successful pilot project had been carried out in 3 sit es in Kano State ( Idiaye and Omonona 2014). it ’s a deliberate policy to stimulate the growth of the food sector hence facilitate the elimination of poverty, hunger and the host of vicious tendencies that persist in food insecure nations thereby improving the income and standard of living of the resource poor farmers and their households in an environmentally and economically sustainable basis. It was conceived from the realization that the development of the food sector is paramount in all attempts to address social and economic development in Nigeria. The programme started well, currently not much is been said about it although one can st ill see a few t races of their programme in one place or the other ( Inedu 2016).

The Poverty Alleviation Programme came at the inception of the democratic government, many Nigerians believed that employment generation and poverty alleviation is the ult imate goal. The Government embarked on the Poverty Alleviation Programme ( PAP), later changed to the National Programme on Povert y Eradication Programme ( NAPEP) in 2001 ( Aliu, 2001 ; Joseph, 2005 ; Gumwa, 2009 ; Inude 2016), which aimed at job creation as it s poverty

eradication strategy. However, to date, Nigerians are yet to feel t he full impact of this programme.

The National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy ( NEEDS) was designed in 2004 with the objective of reducing poverty and empowering the poor people. ( National planning commission, 2004). Given the importance of agriculture in poverty reduction, NEEDS sets out a ser ies of quantitative performance targets to be achieved by 2007. Attempts were made to enshrine the principles of NEEDS at other levels of government by facilitating t he processes of development of State Economic Empowerment Strategies ( SEEDS) and Local Eco nomic Empowerment Strategies ( LEEDS) ( Inedu 2016). The take- off of SEEDS and LEEDS were hampered by several factors, chief among which is t he pervading feeling of compulsion to implement a uniform strategy over a diverse and complex set of inst itut ions, in terests and resources. This was later transformed in the Seven Point Agenda of the Yar’ Adua Administration and since the demise of President Yar’ Adua, the past government of President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan nothing seems to have change in rural and agricu lt ural policies in Nigeria. While all the programmes and policies have significant merit on paper, the fact remains that none singly or collectively had achieved the desirable effect to any significant and sustainable extent. This will lead to next issue o f this paper “The constraints of rural and agricultural development policies in Nigeria ( Inedu 2016).

# 3 The Origin of FADAMA

The FADAMA project was introduced as a strategy to tackle rural development problems “Fadama” is a Hausa word which t ranslates to Irrigable land in English Language and it means “akuro” in Yoruba language. Fadama can be

described as a local word for low lying flood plain usually with easily accessible shallow groundwater ( Balogun and Yusuf 2011). It is especially suitable for crop irrigation and fishing which t raditionally provides food and water for livelihood. Fadama also refers to a seasonally flooded area used for farming during the dry season. It is defined as alluvial, lowland formed by erosion and depositional actions of the r ivers and streams. They encompass land and water resources that could easily be developed for irr igation agriculture ( Qureshi, 1989).

Fadama are t ypically waterlogged during the rainy season but retain moisture during the dry season. The areas are conside red to have high potential for economic development through appropriate investments in infrastructure, household assets and technical assistance. When Fadama spread out over a large area, they are often called ‘ Wetlands’ ( Nkonya et al 2008 ; and Ingawa, Oredioe, Idefor and Okafor 2004).

The first National Fadama Development Project ( NFDP - 1) was established in the 1990 s to promote simple low cost improved irrigation technology under the World Bank financing ( Agunloye, Fasina and Akinnagbe 2017). The main objective of NFDP- 1 was to sustainably increase the incomes of the Fadama users through expansion of farm and non- farm activities with high value- added output. The programme covered twelve’ s states of Adamawa, Bauchi, Gombe, Imo, Kaduna, Kebbi, Lagos, Niger, Ogun, Oyo, Taraba including t he Federal Capital Territory ( FCT). NFDP adopted community driven development ( CDD) approach with extensive participation of stakeholders at the early stage of the project. This approach is in line with policies and developmen t strategies for Nigeria with emphasis on poverty reduction, private sector leadership and

beneficiar y participation. Overall appraisal of the first phase of the project showed remarkable success ( Akinola, 2003).

The success recorded in Fadama I led to the establishment of Fadama II. The strategy for Fadama II was aimed at contributing to food security and increased access to rural infrastructure facilit ies. Consequently, Fadama II programme was assisted by World Bank and co - financed with loan from African Development Fund ( ADF) ( Agunloye et al 2017). Fadama II was more of agricultural diversification programmes providing financing for the diverse livelihood activities which the beneficiaries themselves identify and design, with appropriate facilitation support. Fadama II was implemented in 12 States including the Federal Capital territory, Abuja. The 12 Fadama II states were carried out in three major agro - ecological Zones, the humid forest ( Lagos, Ogun and Imo), moist savannah ( Adamawa, FCT, Oyo and Tarab a) and dry savannah ( Bauchi, Gombe, Kaduna, Kebbi and Niger).

Fadama III was introduced and implemented nation- wide from March, 2009 to December, 2013. An integral part of the Fadama III project was t he provision of support to up- stream and down- stream activities aimed at streamlining input and output marketing, including ensuring efficient t ransportation of inputs and outputs, processing, storage ( conservation/or preservation), thereby ensuring that beneficiaries‘ efforts t ranslate to sustained and incre ased income ( NFDP, 2003).

The project was designed to take a demand - driven approach. Fadama III, like Fadama II, adopts a community- driven development ( CDD) approach. Under this approach, various Fadama resource users, including crop farmers, pastoralists, fishermen and women, and on –and off- farm entrepreneurs,

operating through their respective Fadama user groups ( FRUGs) and their apex bodies and Fadama communit y Associations ( FCAs) would reach consensus on how to use the common resources for their mutual advantage ( NFDP, 2003). It also assert that through this process, communities would decide on which advisory services and infrastructures they need to enable them attain development goals they set for themselves based on their own efforts. The concensus so reached would be articulated in the local development plans ( LDPs) drawn on the level of Fadama communit y associations. The Fadama III

operation will support the financing and implementation of five main components designed to t ransfer financial and techn ical resources to the beneficiar y groups in: ( i) inst itut ional and social development; ( ii) physical infrastructure for productive use; ( iii) t ransfer and adoption of technology to expand productivity, improve value- added, and conserve land quality; ( iv) support extension and applied research; and ( v) provide matching grants to access assets for income- generation and livelihood improvements.

The main objective of the Fadama III Project was to increase the income of users of rural land and water resources on a sustainable basis. By increasing their incomes, the project helped reduce rural poverty, increase food security, and contribute to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goal ( MDG). The specific objectives were to;

1. sustainably increase the incomes of Fadama beneficiaries by directly delivering resources to them ( i. e. the beneficiary rural communities), efficiently and effectively;
2. Empower beneficiaries to collectively decide on how resources are allocated and managed for their livelihood activities and to participate in the design and execution of their sub- projects.

The key indicators and targets for tracking progress toward the project development objective of Fadama III were:

1. Income of participating households: 75 percent of Fadama use r households, who benefit directly from project - supported activities, would have increased their average real incomes by at least 40 percent by 2013.
2. Yields of primary agricultural products of participating households: 20 percent increase in yield of pr imary agricultural products of participating households.
3. Savings of participating groups: 10 percent of the replacement value of the common asset used for income- generating activities of the FUGs is saved annually ( with effect from year 2).
4. Physical verification of operations, maintenance and ut ilizat ion of assets at midterm and at project closing by surveys of random selected sit es.

# 1: FADAMA 111 Implementation Strategy

The Project init ial implementation is for period of five years, from July 2008 to June 2013 but has been extended to 2017. It will now close in December 2017. The Project is anchored on the CDD approach ( Bature et al 2013). Community organizations decide on how the resources are been allocated among the priorities that the y themselves identify and they manage the funds. Extensive facilitation, t raining, and technical assistance were provided through the Project to ensure t hat poor rural communities, including women and vulnerable groups, especially the physically challenged , participate in the

collective decision- making process. The Project helps by giving voice to the communities as well as promotes the principles of t ransparency and accountabilit y in planning and management of public investments within t he LGAs ( Bature et al 2013).

Ejiofor ( 2007) explained that the CDD strategy makes it possible for beneficiar ies to play leading roles in:

1. ) Identification and prioritization of their needs;
2. ) Deciding and preparing of micro - projects required to address the identified needs;
3. ) Co- financing the micro- projects;
4. ) Continue to operate and maintain the micro - projects thereby ensuring sustainability;
5. ) Learn to do things for themselves and in so doing their capacities are built; and
6. ) Ownership of the micro - projects is guaranteed by active participation of beneficiar ies in all the phases of the micro - projects cycle ( identification, planning, prioritization, designing, implementing and maintenance of intervention measures)

# 2 Strategic Choice of FADAMA 111

The strategic choices of FADAMA 111 include the following;

1. ) To address constraints to productive infrastructure: Inadequacies in rural infrastructure and essential support services, road access and dry season irrigation, and availability of relevant agricultural and land management technologies constrain growth and adoption of more sustainable approaches to

land management. The core activities funded by this Project address this constraint.

1. ) To improve livelihood opportunities: The Project supports productive activities, technical assistance and investment in assets and land quality and services identified by communities as relevant to ge neration of higher incomes and better livelihoods.
2. ) To empower the rural poor: The poor lack power and voice to access basic services, identify opportunities, and exercise legal r ights. Information is scarce. Household, village, and local government de cision- making processes are often opaque and exclusionary. Mechanisms to ensure accountability in delivery of state and local government services are weak. The Project’ s facilitators working with the Fadama groups will help them overcome barriers deriving from lack of knowledge or insufficient cooperation among groups.
3. ) To promote socially- inclusive and community- based approaches: Integration of social inclusion and community- driven principles has proven to be cost- effective, responsive to local priorit ies and effective in reducing conflicts over use of natural resources. This proven approach has demonstrated that the key is to promote investments that bring both private profitability and public benefits.
4. ) To accord adequate attention to technical qu ality assurance: Limited capacity in supervising the technical aspects of community subprojects contributed to delay in implementing local development plans and subprojects funded under the Fadama II Project. The Fadama development facilitators and service providers will receive adequate training before they are deployed in the communities. The Facilitators’ t raining program will be designed to

increase their sector- specific technical skills and provide them with the skills to perform feasibility work and t echnical supervision with the participation of the farmer groups. The Agricultural Development Program ( ADP) offices will t rain the service providers.

# 3 Beneficiaries of FADAMA 111

The Project coverage is national. It include the 19 states that did not benefit from the ongoing IDA Fadama II Project and the Fadama II states that meet the eligibility criteria for continued participation ( Bature et al 2013), including: ( i) sat isfactory disbursement performance as indicated by at least 75 percent of the IDA credit disbursed by appraisal of the proposed Fadama III Project; ( ii) demonstrated pro- poor impact from the resources disbursed directly through community subprojects ( as indicated by impact evaluation and beneficiar y assessment studies, including the mid- term review ( MTR) of Fadama II Project); ( iii) establishment and funding of t he operations of the core teams of the State Fadama Coordination Offices ( SFCOs) and ( iii) commitment to the Project as demonstrated by payment of counterpart contributions towards the costs of the project preparation work and implementation ( Bature et al 2013). The Project covers up to 20 Local Government Authorities ( LGAs) for the 19 states that did not benefit from the Fadama II operation. In the Fadama II states, up to ten 4 LGAs are added to the ten LGAs t hat have already benefited. The GEF support will focus especially but not exclusively on the states of Borno, CrossRiver, and Osun, selected by the Government’ s newly founded National SLM Committee for their ecological and geographic diversity. The beneficiaries were assisted to organize themselves in economic interest groups, named Fadama User Groups

( FUGs), each having on average around 20 members ( plus these individuals’ households). The FUGs establish Fadama Communit y Ass ociations ( FCAs), which are apex organizations of 15 FUGs on average at the community level ( Bature et al 2013).

# 4 Impediments to Effective Rural Development Policy

The common setbacks or bottlenecks limiting the effectiveness of rural and agricultural development policies in Nigeria include the following;

1. **Ineffective Implementation of Rural Development Policies, Project and Programming** . As has been recognized earlier in this work, Nigeria has over the years nonetheless developed some policies to enhan ce substantially; reaching the development objectives of those policies and programs is bordered around the pattern and nature of their implementation which has been characterized by ineffectiveness and inefficiency ( Chukwuemeka, Ugwuanyi and Amobi 2013).

Ele ( 2006), Ikelegbe, ( 2006) and Nweke, ( 2006) argued that ineffective policy implementation is usually very difficult to realize particularly in developing nations like Nigeria. The inability of the relevant rural development agencies to effectively imple ment rural development policies could be as a result of inadequate resources, which quite often is a real t hreat to successful implementation of rural development policies. It could as well be as result of the pervasive corruption in the Nigeria public ser vice bureaucracy ( Chukwuemeka et al 2013). Such corrupt tendencies most often, significantly increases the possibility that allocated fund for rural development projects and programs may be misappropriated or embezzled and thus hampering effective implementation and the consequent realization of policy development and

objectives ( Chukwuemeka et al 2013). For example, the Agricultural Development ( ADF) that was intended to raise agricultural products and improve conditions of the rural population, the Direct s rate of food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure intended to t ransform the rural infrastructure were unable to meet their development objectives due largely to poor implementation ( Ajadi 2010). Indeed, the rural development strategies do not work in a vacuum . Their effective implementation requires functional and capable inst itut ions with appropriate inst itutional arrangement for their effective implementation.

Another major explanation for the effective implementation of rural development policies in Nigeria is the high level of policy instability characterized by frequent reversal of policy associated with governance result in serious distortion in full implementation and actualization of policy goals and objectives ( Inedu 2016). Most often, rural developmen t policies or programs are discontinued whenever there is a change in government leadership. Usually, new government abandons the projects and programs of it s predecessor even when such policy is appropriate. Thus, Ajadi ( 2010) notes that there is usually t he absence of sustained cohesive and conclusive implementation of rural development policies. It is this propensity t hat led to the abandonment of better life for rural women of General Ibrahim Bagangida to the introduction of the family support programme by the succeeding regime

of General Sani Abacha. In the context of this most rural development policies are not implemented to their logical conclusion ( Chukwuemeka et al 2013).

For Malon ( 1992), there is a gross rural neglect in Nigeria’s development policies which has resulted to rural underdevelopment as reflected in the lack

of rural industrialization and poor physical, social and inst itut ional

infrastructures ( Mahon, 1992). This prevalent orientation, according to Olasiji ( 1992), is closely connected with the colonial economy which is st ill promoted in Nigeria. Olasiji ( 1992: 38) in this respect specifically observes thus:

The 1960 political independence did not change the pattern of rural/urban polarization. Nigerian leaders have continued to maintain t he British colonial development legacy which serves the external economic interest and impoverish the standard of living among rural dwellers.

Olarenwaju and Toyin ( 1992) note too that such development strategy of concentrating investments in urban areas has resulted to a wide imbalance or gap in rural and urban development. This factor of relative neglect for rural development was reinforced by government’ s over- reliance on the petroleum economy. Obviously, the petroleum economy has become the main stay of the country’s economy and for which government has, over the years, paid less attention to the development of the major activities of the rura l areas particularly agriculture. Oshin ( 1992) in this respect contends that agriculture has continued to divindle more as it looses its economic importance following the greater emphasis on the petroleum sector. In essence and according to Ele ( 2006), the emphasis on petroleum economy and the subsequent neglect of the agricultural sector has contributed substantially to the current poor state of the rural economy and the general rural sector underdevelopment.

1. **Lack of Integration of The Various Rural Dev elopment Efforts:** There is a lack of cooperation among rural development inst itutions to ensure that their respective init iat ives, actions and mandates are coordinated to reinforce and support each other and that their activities are streamlined towards ef fective realization of government’ s rural development objectives ( Chukwuemeka et al

2013). Idown ( 1999: 181) observes this impediment to rural development in Nigeria in his comment thus:

The activities of various bodies involved in the development efforts and activities never dovedailed as expected. This is to say t hat the expected co -ordination among the different departments, ministries, Federal, states and the loca l governments for instance, on the implementation mechanisms has been very difficult to achieve.

Rural development efforts in Nigeria have has not been given the integrated and comprehensive approach it requires ( Ele 2006). This has been a challenge to rural development and as Abah ( 2010) argues, rural development in order to be effective has to be comprehensive, involving all aspects of rural life and involving the complimentary efforts of the local government, state government and federal government as well as the communities and voluntary agencies. Integration is indeed, necessary as the facto rs involved in rural development are interrelated and mutually enhance one another in their effectiveness ( Okoli and Onah, 2002).

1. **Poor Commitment of the Political Representative, Towards Enhancing Rural Development** : The political leaders in Nigeria, eit her at the executive or the legislature arm, have all come from given rural areas of the country. These politicians at different points and t ime, have observes the development needs of these rural areas and made promises too on how to address these development concerns of the respective rural areas of origin ( Chukwuemeka et al 2013). However, their will and interest to actually art iculate those problems and the strategies or programs for addressing them have, indeed, not been noticeable. The prevalent and common observation is that they, hardly pursue conclusively the lut in to the development needs of rural parts of their constituency. This lack of interest and political will to project the development

needs of the rural areas at the relevant political a bur eaucratic power points does not induce government’ s prompt attention to the development needs of the rural areas ( Chukwuemeka et al 2013). This is again reinforced by t he fact that most political office holders ( local government councillors and Supervisors, state commission and chairman of local government areas, state legislatures and federal legislature all detest hiring in the rural areas and have opted to ranker. Live in t he metropolitan state capital or federal capital territory, Abuja. For this, they do not feel the impact of the gross deprivation obtainable in the rural areas and for which they tend not to realize the urgent and shire need for enhancing development in the rural areas ( Chukwuemeka et al 2013).

These attitudes do not reflect effective political representation particularly for the rural population. Indeed, as Baba ( 2011) notes, political representation in Nigeria is essentially for private benefit and not for public benefit. This reasonably explains the non- challant att itude by political leaders and representatives towards enhancing national development generally and that of their respective rural constituencies particularly.

1. **The Inefficiency of the Local Government Areas:** The local government areas occupy a strategic position in the d evelopment process of the rural areas. Even t hough it cannot be reasonably assumed that other higher t iers of government ( state and federal t iers) do not have a role to play in enhancing rural sector development, the task constitutionally centres, in a lar ger part, on the local government ( Chukwuemeka et al 2013). As Anikeze ( 2012) argues, the primary purpose of local government is to provide essential local services and thus accelerate the pace of social and economic development of the rural

and grassroots people. Indeed, the reconstitution of Nigeria into 301, 589 and 774 local government areas in 1976, 1991 and 1996 respectively was meant ostensibly to bring government closer to the local people and to speed up rural development. Sad enough, this objectiv e has not be noticeably realized ( Tonye, 1995 ; Baba, 2011). This is even so, despite the huge monthly statutory allocations to the local government areas. The inabilit y of the local governments to work towards enhancing the rural development could, in larg e parts, be attributed to poor and inept leadership and pervasive corruption in the local government administrative system ( Halidu, 2012 ; Anikeze, 2012). The high level of corruption, for instance, makes it difficult for them to channel adequate fund and energy to effective rural development. As Anikeze ( 2012) notes, the interest of the local government leadership primarily revolves around t rivialit ies or at best around those schemes for which they hope to derive immediate personal gains. The net effect of this has been general stagnation in t he development process of the rural people and their environment.

# CHAPTER FIVE

**DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

# 0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data derived through the questionnaire administered on t he respondents in the study area. The analysis and interpretation were derived from the findings of the study. The data analysis depicts the simple frequency and percentage of the respondents as well as interpretation of the information gathered. A total of one hundred ( 100) questionnaires were administered to respondents of which only ninety ( 90) were returned. The analysis of this study is based on the number ret urned.

Furthermore, this chapter presents a summary of the major findings of the study in line with the stated objectives of the study.

# 1 Distribution of Respondents by Sex

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Sex | Frequency | Percentage |
| Male | 47 | 52. 2 |
| Female | 43 | 47. 8 |
| Total | 90 | 100% |

**Source:** Fieldwork ( 2019)

The sex distribution of the respondents shows that 52. 2% of the respondents were males while 47. 8% were females.

# 2 Distribution of Respondents by Age

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Age | Frequency | Percentage |
| 18- 29 | 21 | 23. 3 |
| 30- 39 | 23 | 25. 6 |
| 40- 49 | 33 | 36. 7 |
| 50 and above | 13 | 14. 4 |
| Total | 90 | 100% |

**Source:** Fieldwork ( 2019)

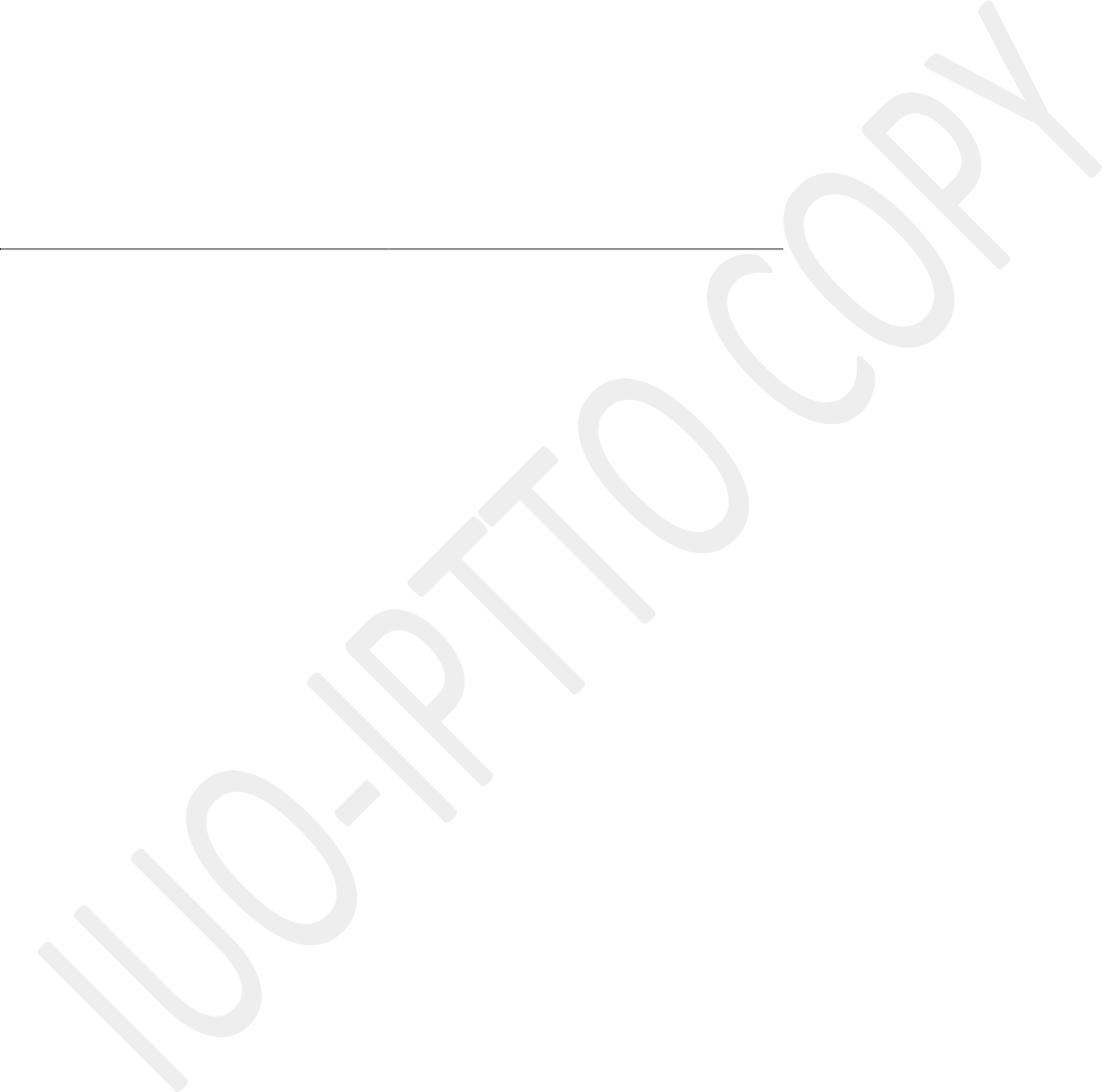
The data shows that 23. 3% of the respondents’ are within the age of 18 - 29 while 25. 6% are within t he age of 30 - 39, 36. 7% fall within the ages of 40 - 49 while 14. 4% are within the ages of 50 and above.

# 3 Distribution of Respondents Marital Status

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Marital Status** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| Single | 9 | 10 |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Married | 75 | 83. 3 |
| Divorce | 1 | 1. 1 |
| Widow | 5 | 5. 6 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

The findings shows that 10% of the respondents are single, 83. 3% are married, 1. 1% is divorced and 5. 6% are widowed.

# 4 Distribution of Respondents by Educational Qualification

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Qualification** | **Frequency** | **%** |
| No education | 7 | 7. 8 |
| Primary | 8 | 8. 9 |
| Secondary | 34 | 37. 8 |
| Tertiary | 41 | 45. 5 |
| **Total** | **90** | **100** |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

The findings revealed that 7. 8% had no basic education, 8. 9% of the respondents had primary education, 37. 8% had secondary education and 45. 5% of the respondents had tertiary education.

# 5 Religious Status of Respondents

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Profession** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| Christianity | 71 | 78. 9 |
| Islam | 8 | 8. 9 |
| Traditional | 10 | 11. 1 |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Others | 1 | 1. 1 |
| **Total** | **90** | **100** |

Fieldwork ( 2019)

The findings shows t hat 78. 9% of the respondents were Christians, 8. 9% were Moslems, 8. 9% were t raditional worshippers and 1. 1% professed other fa it hs different from Christianity, Islam and Traditional.

# Section B

* 1. **6: Are you an indigene of Ethiope West Local Government?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 83 | 92. 2 |
| No | 7 | 7. 8 |
| No Response | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

The above distribution in table 5. 6 is shows that 92. 2% of the respondents are indigene of Ethiope South West LGA, 7. 8% of them are not indigene of that local government.

# 7: How long have you stayed in Ethiope West Local Government?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Under 1 year | 2 | 2. 2 |
| 1 - 5 years | 7 | 7. 8 |
| 6 – 10 years | 15 | 16. 7 |
| 11 – 15 years | 11 | 12. 2 |
| 16 – 20 years | 22 | 24. 4 |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 21+ years | 34 | 36. 7 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

As indicated in the table above, 2. 2% of the respondents have lived in the local government under 1 year, 7. 8% have been in the local government between 1 - 5 years and those who have lived in the local government between 6 - 10 years are 16. 7%. Others who have been in the local government between 11 - 15 years are 12. 2% of the respondents. 24. 4% of them have stayed in the local government between 16 - 20 years and 36. 7% of the respondents have been in the local government for more than 21 years.



# 8: How long have you farming?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Under 1 year | 5 | 5. 6 |
| 1 - 5 years | 12 | 12. 3 |
| 6 – 10 years | 9 | 10 |
| 11 – 15 years | 10 | 11. 1 |
| 16 – 20 years | 25 | 27. 8 |
| 21+ years | 29 | 32. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

Table 5. 8 above shows that 5. 6% of the respondents have been engaged in farming for less than a year, 12. 3% have been farming for between 1 - 5 years, 10% have been farmers between 6 - 10 years. Those who engaged in farming between 11 - 15 years are 11. 1% of the respondents, 27. 8% of them have been

farming for between 16 - 20 years and 32 . 2% of the respondents have been farmers for more than 21 years.

# 9: What is your source of farmland?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Inheritance | 37 | 41. 1 |
| Lease/ Rent | 24 | 26. 7 |
| Purchase | 29 | 32. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)



The figures in table 5. 9 indicate that 41. 1% of the respondent said t hat their source of farmland is through inher itance, 26. 7% of the respondents said it is through lease/rents and 32. 2% of the rest of the respondents said that they purchased their farmlands.

# 0: Are you aware of the FADAMA III Project in your local government?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 78 | 86. 7 |
| No | 12 | 13. 3 |
| No Response | 0 | - |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

86. 7% of the respondent said that they know about the FADAMA 111 project in the local government and 13. 3% said they have no knowledge of the programme. These responses were in relation to a question on whether they were aware of the FADAMA 111 project in their local government.

# 1: How did you know about it?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Radio | 22 | 24. 4 |
| Television | 33 | 36. 7 |
| Newspapers | 15 | 16. 7 |
| Local group/association | 11 | 12. 2 |
| Community leaders | 9 | 10 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)



The table above indicates that 24. 4% of the respondents said that they hear about the FADAMA 111 project through the radio , 36. 7% of the respondents said they hear through television, 16. 7% chose newspapers as their primar y mode of knowing about the programme. Those who said that they were made aware of the programme by local groups/ associations are 12. 2% and 10% of the respondents said communit y leaders in the local government informed them about the programme.

# 2 What was your initial reaction to the programme?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Happy | 27 | 30 |
| Skeptical | 47 | 52. 2 |
| Indifferent | 16 | 17. 8 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

The responses of the respondent in table 5. 12 above shows that 30% of the respondents said that their init ia l reaction to the FADAMA 111 project in their

local government was that of happiness, 52. 2% said that they were sceptical and 17. 8% of the rest of t he respondents were indifferent to the project.

# 3: Has this reaction changed?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 77 | 85. 6 |
| No | 11 | 12. 2 |
| No response | 2 | 2. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)



In table 5. 13, 85. 6% of the respondents that their init ia l reaction to the FADAMA 111 project in their local government has changed , 12. 2% of the respondent said t hat their init ial reaction to the project has not changed and 2. 2% of the respondents were neutral.

# Table 5. 14: Has this reaction been positive ?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| yes | 77 | 85. 6 |
| No | 9 | 10 |
| No Response | 4 | 4. 4 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

85. 6% of the respondents said that their changes in reaction to the FADAMA 111 project have been positive, 10% of the respondents said changes in their reaction have not been positive and 4. 4% were neutral.

# 5: Has this programme been of benefit to you as an individual?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 78 | 86. 7 |
| No | 10 | 11. 1 |
| No Response | 2 | 2. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

In table 5. 15, 86. 7% of the respondents said t hat the FADAMA 111 n has been of benefit to them as individuals, 11. 1% of the respondents disagreed with this assertion and 2. 2% did not have any opinion.

# 6: Has the FADAMA III project promote agriculture activities in your local government?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 67 | 74. 4 |
| No | 15 | 16. 7 |
| No Response | 8 | 8. 9 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

Responding to question on whether the FADAMA 111 programme has promote agriculture activities in t heir local government, 74. 4% of the respondents said yes to this, 16. 7% said no and 8. 9% of the rest of the respondent were not sure. **5. 17: Have you ever made complaint on the FADAMA III programme?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Yes | 52 | 57. 7 |
| No | 33 | 36. 7 |
| No response | 5 | 5. 6 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

As seen in table 5. 17 above 57. 7% that they have made complain about the FADAMA 111 programme before, 36. 7% of the respondents said that they have never made complain about the programme before and 5. 6% were neutral.

# 8: What are these complains?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Inadequate and high cost of fert ilizer | 10 | 11. 1 |
| Inadequate improved seeds | 9 | 10 |
| Clashes with pastoralist | 6 | 6. 7 |
| High cost of paid labour | 12 | 13. 3 |
| High cost of water pumps for irr igation | 5 | 5. 6 |
| All of the above | 48 | 53. 3 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

The data in table 5. 18 shows 11. 1% of the respondents said that there complain over the FADAMA 111 project was inadequate and high cost of fert ilizer, 10% complain about inadequate improved seeds while 6. 7% of the respondents complained about their clashes with pastoralists. 13. 3% of them also complained about the high cost of labour, 5. 6% others complained about the

high cost of water pumps for irr igation. The rest of the respondents, 53. 3% however said that they complained about the listed aforementioned factors above.

# 9: Did any concrete action follow from this complain?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 55 | 61. 1 |
| No | 33 | 36. 7 |
| No Response | 2 | 2. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)



Table 5. 19 shows that 61. 1% of said t hat officials responsible for the FADAMA 111 programme took concrete after they made complain regarding the programme, 36. 7% of respondents said no concrete action followed their complains, and 2. 2% were undecided.

# 0: Do you think your holding has increased as result of FADAMA III?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 57 | 63. 3 |
| No | 27 | 30 |
| No Response | 6 | 6. 7 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

Table 5. 20 above indicates t hat 63. 3% of the respondents were of t he opinion that holding has increased because of the FADAMA 111 programme, 30% did not share this opinion as they argued that there holding has not increased and 6. 7% of the rest of the respondents could not give any answer to this question.

# 1: What is the size of your farm before FADAMA III?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Less than 1 hectare | 79 | 87. 8 |
| 1 – 4 hectare | 7 | 7. 8 |
| 5 – 8 hectare | 3 | 3. 3 |
| Over 9 hectare | 1 | 1. 1 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

From the above table, 87. 8% of the respondents that the size of their farm before FADAMA 111 was less than 1 hectare, 7. 8% of them it was within 1 - 4 hectare, 3. 3% it was within 5 - 8 hectare and just 1. 1% said it was above 9 hectare.

# 2: Has your output changed as a result of FADAMA III to the farm?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 100 | 100 |
| No | 0 | 0 |
| No Response | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

Table 5. 20 above indicates that 100% of the respondents said that there output from their farms have changed because of the FADAMA 111 programme.

# 3: Can you rate the level of this change?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| A quarter | 33 | 36. 7 |
| A third | 25 | 27. 8 |
| A half double | 21 | 23. 3 |
| More than half double | 11 | 12. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

As seen in table above, 35. 6% of the respondents rated the level of change in their farm output at a quarter, 27. 8% rated it at a third. Those who rated it at half double are 23. 3% and 12. 2% rated it at more than half double.

# 4: How often do you have contact with FADAMA facilitators?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Very often | 42 | 46. 7 |
| Often | 45 | 50 |
| Rarely | 3 | 3. 3 |
| Not at all | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

As seen in table above, 46. 7% of the respondents said that they very often have contact with FADAMA 111 officers, 50% said their contact with the officers are often and 3. 3% said they rarely have contact with the FADAMA 111 officers.

# 5: FADAMA III project has assisted in the increase of my farm income?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Yes | 59 | 65. 6 |
| No | 27 | 30 |
| No Response | 4 | 4. 4 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

In table 5. 25, 65. 6% of the respondents were of t he opinion that there has been an increase in their farm income as a result of the FADAMA 111 project, 30% of them said their farm income has not increased and 6. 5 were neutral.

# 6: FADAMA III project improved my farming, nutrition and food security?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 59 | 65. 6 |
| No | 27 | 30 |
| No Response | 4 | 4. 4 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

The data in table 5. 26 above reveals t hat 65. 6% agreed that the FADAMA 111 project has improved t heir farming, nutrition and food security, 30% said no to this, and 4. 4% did not respond to this question.

# 7: More people are employed as a result of FADAMA III project?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 51 | 56. 7 |
| No | 35 | 38. 9 |
| No Response | 4 | 4. 4 |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

As shown in table 5. 27 56. 7% agreed that more people are employed because of the FADAMA 111 project, 30% said more people have not been employed because of the FADAMA 111 project, and 4. 4% did not respond to this question.

# 8: My ability to purchase some articles of convenience such as zinc roofs, Radio, Television, Motorcycle, Car etc. has not increased in spite of FADAMA III project adoption?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 36 | 40 |
| No | 52 | 57. 8 |
| No Response | 2 | 2. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

Table 5. 28 above reveals that 40% agreed that their ability to purchase some articles of convenience such as zinc roofs, radio, Television, motorcycle, car etc. has not increased in spite of FADAMA III project adoption, 57. 8% opposed this, saying they are able to afford these articles of convenience, and 4. 4% were neutral.

# 9: FADAMA III project has increased my ability to send children to school?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 55 | 61. 1 |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| No | 33 | 36. 7 |
| No Response | 2 | 2. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

61. 1% agreed that the FADAMA 111 project has increased their ability to send their children to school, 36. 7% did not share this sentiment, and 2. 2% did not respond to this question as seen table 5. 29 above.

# 0: How significant is FADAMA III in curbing rural- urban migration?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Significant | 38 | 42. 2 |
| Not Significant | 51 | 56. 7 |
| No Response | 1 | 1. 1 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

As shown in table 5. 30, 42. 2% agreed FADAMA 111 project is significant in curbing rural- urban migration, 56. 7% said it is not significant in curbing rural- urban migration, and just 1. 1% did not respond to this question.

# 1: Has FADAMA III project reduced rural- urban migration in the study area?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 36 | 40 |
| No | 52 | 57. 8 |
| No Response | 2 | 2. 2 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

The table above shows that 40% of t he respondents agreed that the FADAMA 111 project has reduced rural urban- migration in Ethiope West LGA, 57. 8% said the project has not reduced rural- urban migration in the local government, and the rest of the respondents, 2. 2% did were neutral.

# 2: Would you say that FADAMA III has impacted positively on the study area?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 47 | 52. 2 |
| No | 42 | 46. 7 |
| No Response | 1 | 1. 1 |
| Total | 90 | 100 |

Source: Fieldwork ( 2019)

As seen in table 5. 32, 52. 2% agreed that the FADA MA 111 project has positively impacted on Ethiope West LGA, 46. 7% said it has not positively impacted the local government, and 1. 1 were neutral.

# 3 Test of Hypotheses

For the purpose of this research t he inferential statist ical tool that would be used to test the research hypotheses is the Chi- square ( 𝑋2 ).

The formula for calculating chi- square ( 𝑋 2 ) is: X2 = ∑ ( fo- fe) 2

fe

Where:

Fo= Observed frequency Fe= Expected frequency X2 = Chi – square

∑ = Sum of

Generally, the decisional rule for accepting or rejecting a hypothesis is the same for all inferential stat ist ics:

* + 1. When the calculated statist ic is greater than the table value, the research rejects the null hypothesis ( Ho) and accepts the alternate hypothe sis ( Hi).



* + 1. When the table value is greater than the calculated stat ist ic, the research accepts the null hypothesis ( Ho) and rejects the alternate hypothesis ( Hi).

# Hypothesis One

H0: There is no significant influence of FADAMA III project on the standard of living of participating farmers inEthiope West local government area.

H1: There is significant influence of FADAMA III project on the standard of living of participating farmers in Ethiope West local government area.

To test this hypothesis, t he responses in tables 5. 26 and 5. 28 are used.

# Table 5. 20

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Question No** | **A** | **B** | **C** | **Total** |
| **D** | **59** | **27** | **4** | **90** |
| **E** | **36** | **52** | **2** | **90** |
| **Total** | **95** | **79** | **6** | **180** |

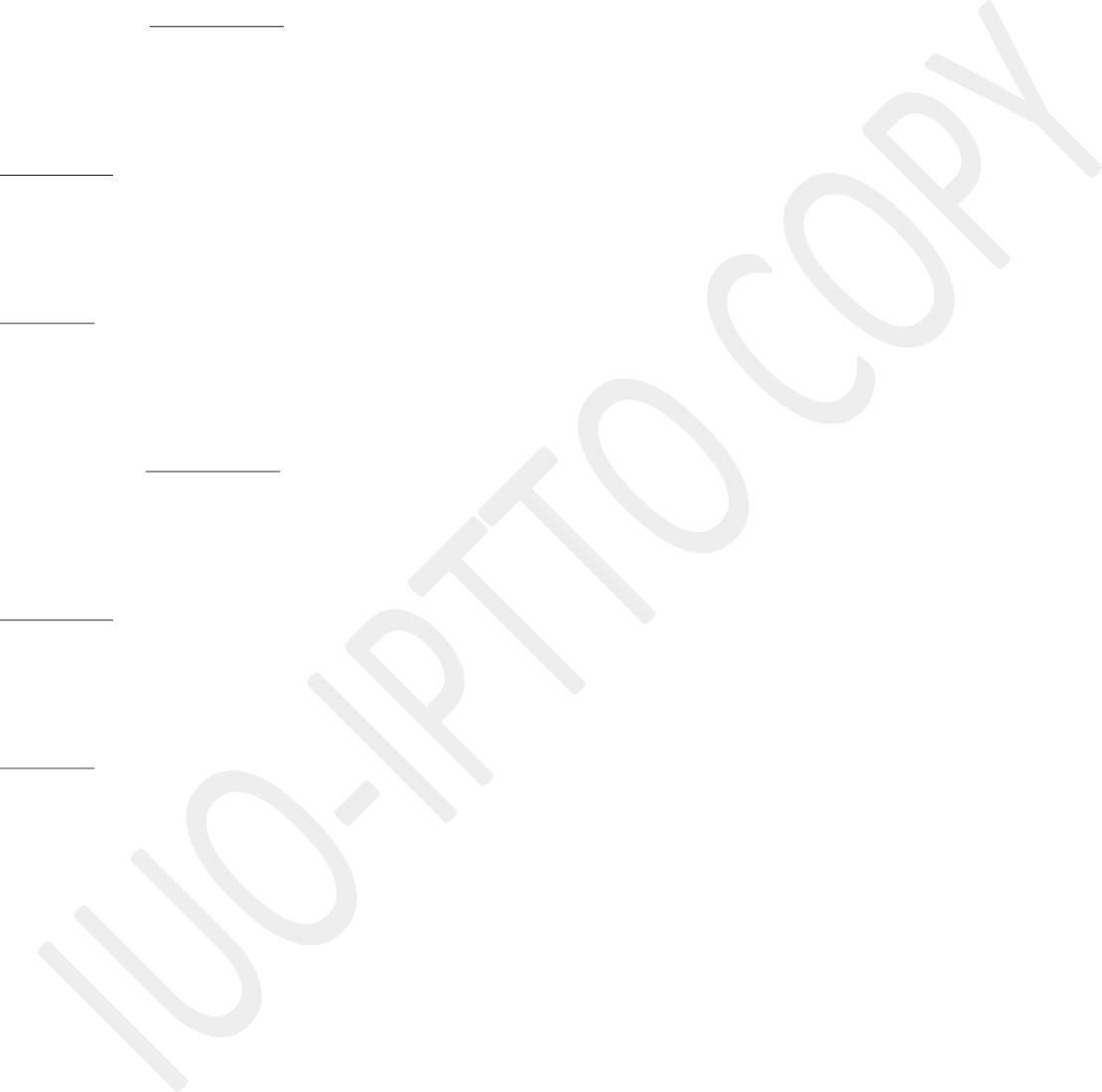
To obtain fe for the hypothesis, we used the formula Fe = R x C

N

Where

Fe = Expected frequency R = Row Total

C = Column total N = Grand Total

Therefore, the fe for the first hypothesis was calculated as follows: 1st Row: 90 x 95 = 47. 5

180

90 x 79 =39. 5

180

90 x 6 = 3

180

2nd Row: 90 x 95 = 47. 5

180

90 x 79 =39. 5

180

90 x 6 = 3

180

Test stat ist ics: chi- square( x2 ) The formula for chi square is:

C:\Users\Abbey\Desktop\7  Chi Square_files\image59.gif

Where: C:\Users\Abbey\Desktop\7  Chi Square_files\image60.gif is the value for chi square. C:\Users\Abbey\Desktop\7  Chi Square_files\image61.gif is the sum.

fo is the observed frequency

fe is the expected frequency.

Therefore, the individual frequencies are calculated as follows: ( fo – fe) 2 3 3 5

Fe

Thus: ( 59 - 47. 5) 2 = 2. 784



47. 5

( 27 – 39. 5) 2 = 3. 955

39.5

( 4 – 3)2 = 0. 333

3

( 36 – 47. 5) 2 = 2. 784

47. 5

( 52 – 39. 5) 2 = 3. 955

39

( 2 – 3)2 = - 0. 333

3

X2

=14. 1

**Table 5. 21: Chi Square Calculation from Field Data**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Observed Frequency ( 0)** | **Expected Frequency ( E)** | **Deviation (0- E)** | **Deviation Squared (0- E)2** | **Squared and**  **Weighed**  **(O- E)2 /E** |
| **A** | **59** | **47. 5** | **11. 5** | **132. 25** | **2. 784** |
| **B** | **27** | **39. 5** | **- 12. 5** | **156. 25** | **3. 955** |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **C** | **4** | **3** | **1** | **1** | **0. 333** |
| **D** | **36** | **47. 5** | **- 11. 5** | **132. 25** | **2. 783** |
| **E** | **52** | **39. 5** | **12. 5** | **156. 25** | **3. 955** |
| **F** | **2** | **3** | **- 1** | **1** | **0. 333** |
| **Total** | **180** | **180** |  |  | **14. 1** |

Calculated X2 = 14. 1, Df = k – 1 = 6 – 1 =5, Alpha level = 0. 05, Table value



= 11. 070.

Decision rule: Retain Ho if calculated x 2 value <critical x2 value. Reject Ho if calculated chi- square >critical x2 value.

Since chi- square calculated is greater than chi- square tabulated i. e. 14. 1 ˃ 1. 070, we reject the null hypothesis because that there is no significant influence of FADAMA III project on the standard of living of participating farmers inEthiope West local government area. We therefore accept the alternate hypothesis. That says, there is significant influence of FADAMA III project on the standard of living of participating farmers in Ethiope West local government area.

# 5. 3. 2 Hypothesis Two

H0: FADAMA III has not significantly impacted on the study area?

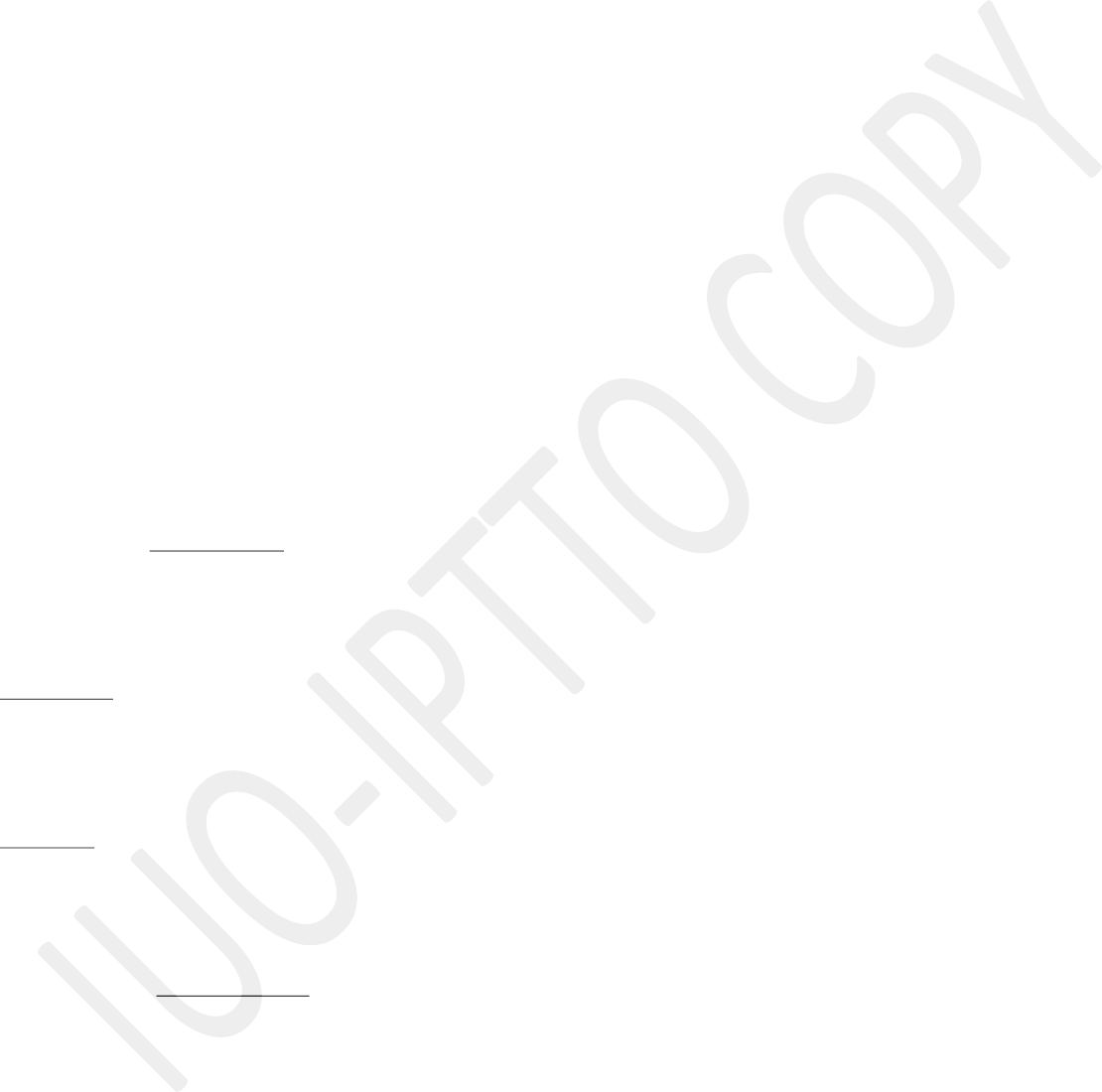
H1: FADAMA III has significantly impacted on the study area? To test this hypothesis, data in tables 5. 31 and 5. 32 are used.

# Table 5. 20

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Question No** | **A** | **B** | **C** | **Total** |
| **D** | **36** | **52** | **2** | **90** |

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **E** | **47** | **42** | **1** | **90** |
| **Total** | **83** | **94** | **3** | **180** |

To obtain fe for the hypothesis, we used the formula Fe = R x C

N

Where

Fe = Expected frequency R = Row Total

C = Column total N = Grand Total

Therefore, the fe for the first hypothesis was calculated as follows: 1st Row: 90 x 83 = 41. 5

180

90 x 94 = 47

180

90 x 3 = 1. 5

180

2nd Row: 90 x 183 = 41. 5

180

90 x 94 = 47.

180

90 x 3 = 1. 5

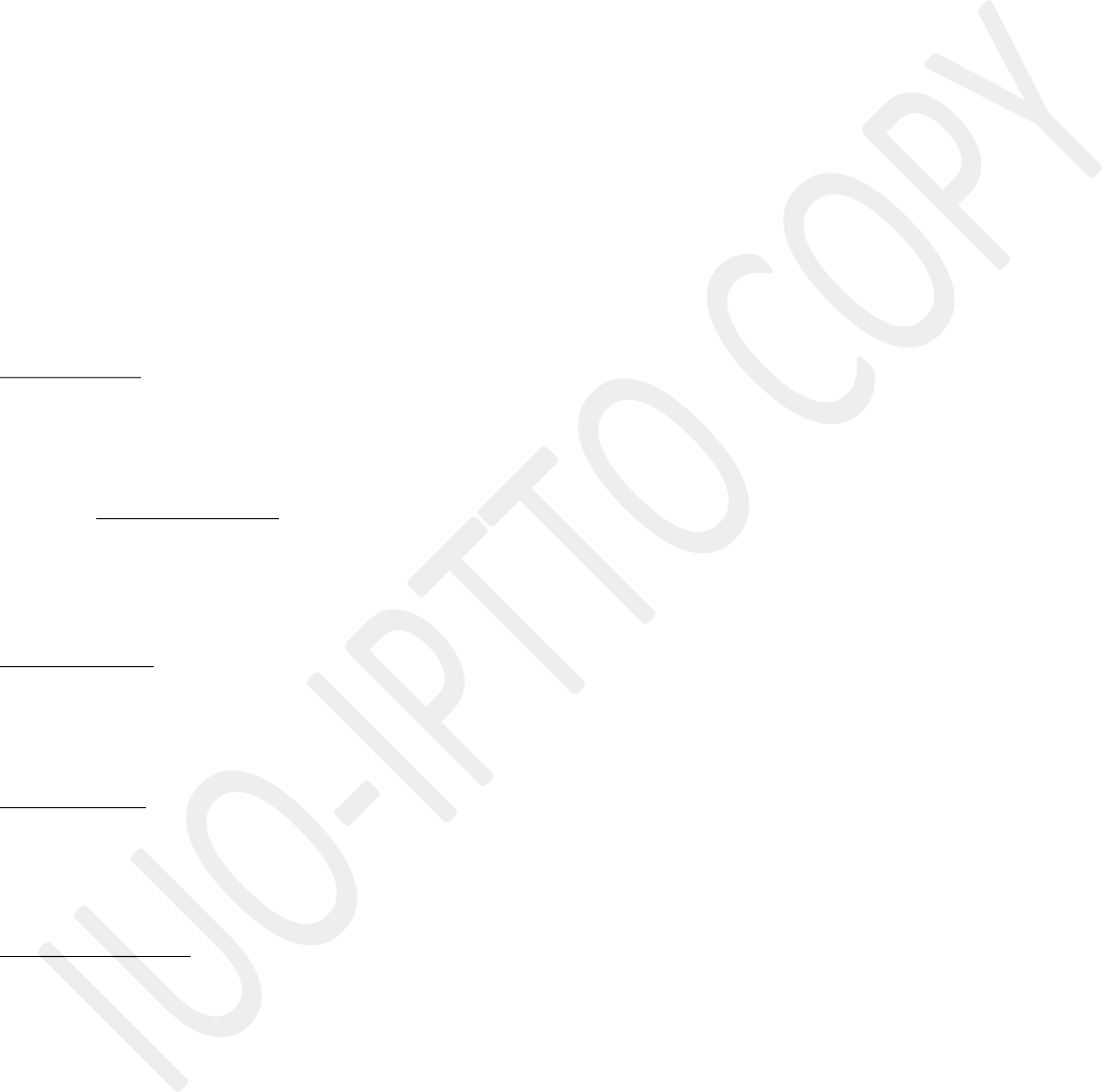
180

Test stat ist ics: chi- square( x2 )

The formula for chi square is:

C:\Users\Abbey\Desktop\7  Chi Square_files\image59.gif

Where: C:\Users\Abbey\Desktop\7  Chi Square_files\image60.gif is the value for chi square. C:\Users\Abbey\Desktop\7  Chi Square_files\image61.gif is the sum.

fo is the observed frequency fe is the expected frequency.

Therefore, the individual frequencies are calculated as follows:

( fo – fe) 2

Fe

Thus: ( 36 – 41. 5) 2 = 0. 729

41. 5

( 52 – 47)2 = 0. 532

47

( 2 – 1. 5) 2 = 0. 166

2

( 47 – 41. 5) 2 = 0. 729

41. 5

( 42 – 47)2 = 0. 532

47

( 1 – 1. 5) 2 = 0. 166

1. 5

X2 = 2. 854

# Table 5. 21: Chi Square Calculation from Field Data

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Observed Frequency ( 0)** | **Expected Frequency ( E)** | **Deviation (0- E)** | **Deviation Squared (0- E)2** | **Squared and**  **Weighed**  **(O- E)2 /E** |
| **A** | **36** | **41. 5** | **- 5. 5** | **30. 25** | **0. 729** |
| **B** | **52** | **47** | **5** | **25** | **0. 532** |
| **C** | **2** | **1. 5** | **0. 5** | **0. 25** | **0. 166** |
| **D** | **47** | **41. 5** | **5. 5** | **30. 25** | **0. 729** |
| **E** | **42** | **47** | **- 5** | **25** | **0. 532** |
| **F** | **1** | **1. 5** | **- 0. 5** | **0. 25** | **0. 166** |
| **Total** | **180** | **180** |  |  | **2. 854** |

Calculated X2 = 2. 854, Df = k – 1 = 6 – 1 =5, Alpha level = 0. 05, Table value



= 11. 070.

Decision rule: Retain Ho if calculated x2 value < crit ical x2 value. Reject Ho if calculated chi- square > crit ical x2 value.

Since chi- square calculated is less than chi- square tabulated i. e. 2. 854 < 11. 070, we accept the null hypothesis that FADAMA III has not significantly

impacted on the study area because there is lit t le or no real evidence against the null hypothesis. We therefore reject the alternate hypothesis .

# 4 Discussion of Findings

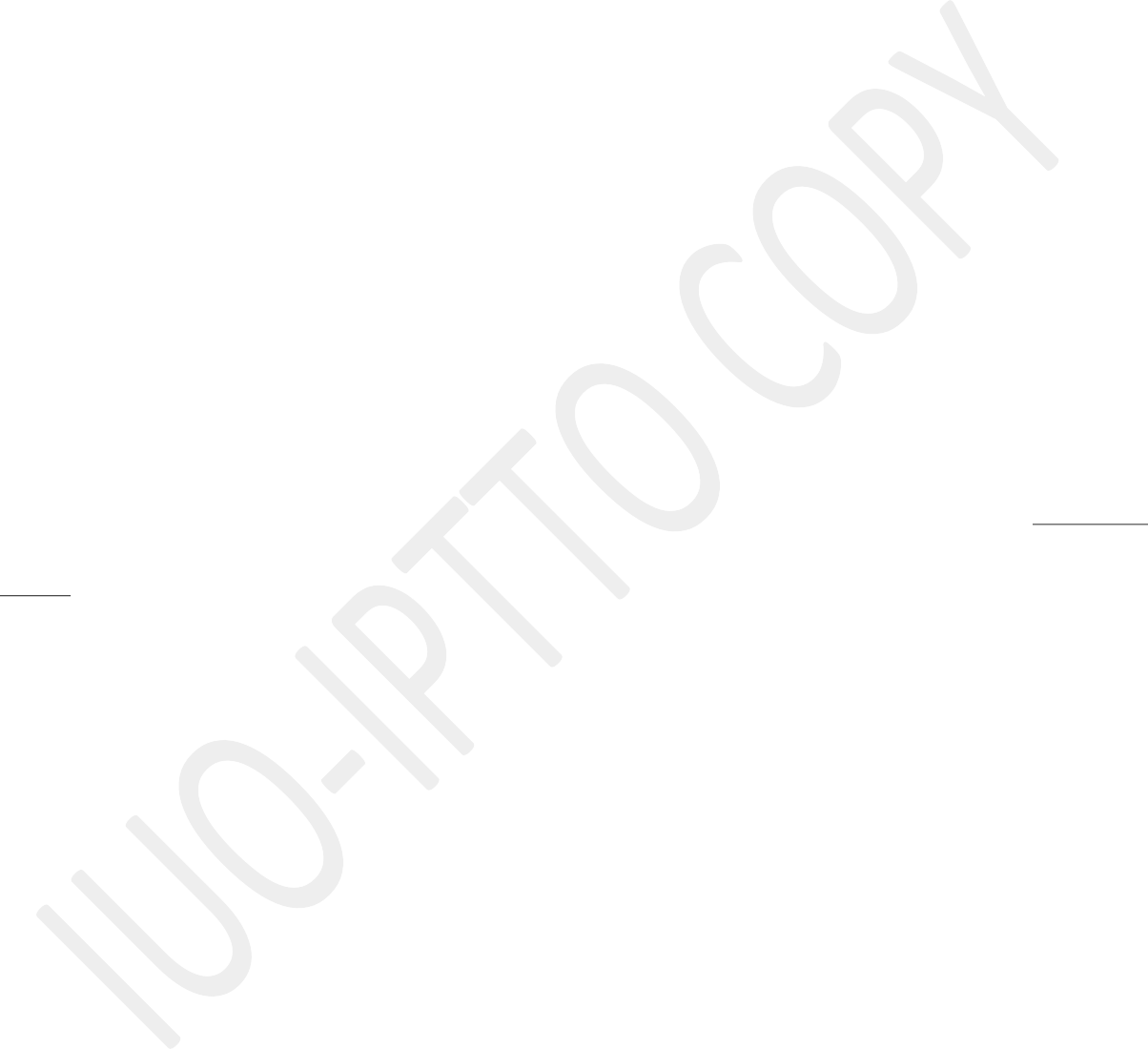
This research work was specifically designed to determine the influence of public policy on rural development with a focus on Fadama III project on the development of Ethiope West LGA. In order to achieve this purpose, two

hypotheses were raised. Simple percentage and frequencies were used in analyzing the personal data of the respondents and the questionnaires responded to by the respondents. Chi- square analysis was used to test the two hypotheses.

A summary of the socio - economic characteristics of the responde nts as shown in Table 1, reveal that in Ethiope West LGA, 52. 2% were males while 47. 8% were females. The relative high percentage of women farmers in the study area is an indication of the extent Fadama III Project recognized and projected the capabilities of females in agriculture and rural development.

The average age of the farmers falls within the working age bracket of 18 to 49 years showing prospects for greater productivity which t he Fadama III project tends to achieve. In the study area, 85. 6% fell within this active age while only 14. 4% were 60 years and above, in Enugu State, 65. 28% fell within this age bracket while 34. 72% had attained the age of 50 years and above. The study reveals that the farming business is dominated by an age bracket considered to be economically active and highly productive ( Ebewore, 2010). This implied that Fadama III project successfully aided a reduction in rural unemployment which is an indication of development. Contrary to this was the study carried out by Oladoja and Olusanya ( 2007) who stated that age of farmers and faming experience were not in correlation with the adoption of improved agricultural practices. Farm size and educational level of farmers tended to be positively correlated with adoption of new technologi es.

Marriage in this local government, apart from being a status and maturity symbol, is a necessity for an average farmer for the obvious reason of raising children who will add to the family labour and reduce production cost. The

analysis showed t hat in Ethipope West LGA, 83. 3% of t he respondents were married. The average percentage of the respondents that had post primary education stood at 83. 3%. This implies the farmers could read and write. Good education enhances managerial, organizational effectiven ess and efficiency of the farmer. These attributes will be manifested in his productivity and net income. This is in line with Awgu ( 2004 ), [Omotesho et al. (2012](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2452315117300887#bib24)) who both argue that education is generally considered an important variable that could enhance farmers' adoption of new.

The main occupation of the respondents was farming. Table 5. 8 shows that 60% of the farmers had been farming for more than 16 years and above. These findings imply t hat most of the respondents had been farming for quite a long period of t ime. Long farming experience is an ad vantage for increased farm productivity since it encourages t he acquisition of skills over t ime ( [Obinne,](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2452315117300887#bib21)

[1991](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2452315117300887#bib21)).

Table 5. 9 also indicates that the primary source of farm land available to the Fadama Project farmers ( 41. 1%) was by inheritance. The other sources of land used by t he farmers were lease and purchase and these accounted for 26. 7 percent and 32. 2 percent, respectively.

In table 5. 15, 86. 7% of t he respondents argued that the Fadama III program has been beneficial to them. During the survey, 74. 4% of the respondents affir med that the programme has promoted agricultural activities in the study area and this has led to an increase in their holdings. The sent iments of the respondents on the benefits of the Fadama 111 programme was also captured in table 5. 22 where 63. 3% of the respondents affirmed that their farm output has changed positively. Table 5. 21 shows the distribution of the respondents by farm size

in vegetable production and the monthly income generated before the Fadama program. Before the advent of Fadama III, 87. 8% of the farmers were cultivating about 1 ha of land. 7. 8% of them of used about 1 –4 ha of land, 3. 3% used about 5 - 8 ha of land and 1. 1 used about 9 and above ha of land for farming. However, on becoming beneficiaries of the Fadama III program, 100% of the respondents agreed that their farm output/size has changed since becoming beneficiar ies of the programme. The data in table 5. 23 confir med this as 36. 7% reported a quarter increase in t heir farm size/output, 27. 8% reported a third increase for themselves, 23. 3 notes a half increase for themselves and 12. 2% reported more than half double increase in their farm size/output.

The implication of this significant relationship was that the greater the far m sizes the more adoption of improved practices. Also the more knowledgeable the farmers t he greater the adoption of improved farm practices and this may subsequently affect his standard of living. Atala ( 1980) viewed standard of living from different angle as the personal and impersonal materials which an individual’ s possess and use to meet their physiological and sociological needs. To further support this assertion, Aturamu, and Daramola ( 200 5) stated that ability of a far mer to improve on his farm output may be determined by his well- being, skills, farmland, access to inputs etc. Also,

Further analysis of the findings of this research as seen in table 5. 26, shows that 65. 6% of the respondent s confirmed that the Fadama 111 proramme has improved their farming, nutrition and food security. Similarly, only 40% of t he respondents said that their ability to purchase some art icles of convenience such as zinc roofs, radio, television, motorcycle, car etc. has not increased in spite of the adoption of the FADAMA III programme as observed in table 5. 28.

The results of the chi square in hypothesis one clearly supported the above analysis as it confirms that there is significant influence of FADAMA III project on the standard of living of participating farmers in Ethiope West local government area.

This finding agreed with Ogunwale, Ayoade and Ayansina ( 2006) who stated that having access to external assistance had positive impact on the adoption of new farming practices as a result of increased in income of the farmer. This was supported by Lockhart and Wiseman ( 1978) who reported that adoption of most practices helped in raising standard of living of farmers. According to Ajayi ( 2008) durable goods like possession of Radio, Television, Bicycles, Motorcycles, cars, Zinc roofs etc were used to measure level of living standard, while Solomon and Adeyemi ( 2005) opined that standard of living were those things contributing to the quality of human existence. Ma jority of the farmers testified that adoption of Fadama III project helped t hem to possess such durable goods as viewed by Ajayi ( 2008).

The findings of t his study also reveal that in spite of t he positive influence of the Fadama III programme on individua l farmers in Ethippe West LGA, the

programme has not significantly impacted on the study area and confirmed by

the result of the hypothesis two. One of the major indices of development in the rural area is when the people in the rural areas do not see the need to migrate to the urban areas ( rural- urban migration) because of better infrastructure. The Fadama III programme has not been able to curb the incidence of rural- urban migration in Ethiope West LGA. Table 5. 30 reveals that 56. 7% of the respondents al igned with the notion that the programme was not significant to curbing rural- urban migration as against 40% who felt the

programme was significant. Further analysis of table 5. 30 in this study shows that 57. 8% of the respondents agreed that Fadama 111 has not reduced rural- urban migration in Ethiope West LGA. This is indicative that the desired effect of rural development has not been met. There is still apparent dearth of basic infrastructural facilit ies in Ethiope West LGA. Indeed, as Okoli and Onah ( 2002) observe, the rural areas in Nigeria are characterized by inadequacies of human needs as reflected in the near absence of some basic infrastructures with it s attendant features of degradation and deprivation.

This also aligns with Ezeah ( 2005) it is very curious and worrisome st ill that even the few policies and programs init iated and implemented by government over the years have not resulted in meaningful enhancement of t he development state of the rural areas in Nigeria. Olarenwaju ( 1992) further argues that rather than these policies enhancing rural development, they tended to further have underdeveloped them. For Olanrewaju ( 1992), the manner in which rural development has been conceived by the successive Nigerian governments and the type of rural development policies that have been implemented over t ime in the country have contributed substantially to the current poor state of the rural economy.

Hence, while this study has shown that the Fadama III programme helped to uplift the living condition of the beneficiaries in Ethiope West LGA individually, however, the t rickle- down effect of the policy has not been felt as a whole in the local government. The local government st ill lack the required basic infrastructure that would make life more meaningful for the inhabitants of the local government.

# CHAPTER SIX

**SUMMARYM CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

# 1 Summary

The study was carried out to assess the influence of public policy on rural development. The study focused on the Fadama III programme in Ethiope West LGA as a case study. Two hypotheses were formulated which are; there is no significant influence of Fadama III project on the standard of living of participating farmers in Ethiope West local government area and the Fadama III project has not impacted the study area. The first hypothesis was intended to examine the extent to which the strategy of increased fo od production adopted by the project has led to improved welfare of Fadama III beneficiaries in Ethiope West LGA. The result of the first hypothesis was positive as it shows

an improvement in the socio - economic conditions of the beneficiaries. The second hypothesis was designed to examine whether or not Fadama III has impacted positively on the socio - economic development of the local government as a whole. The result was negative as the results of this study reveals t hat the local government st ill suffer fr om lack of development.

Simple random sampling was used to select respondents for this study and ninety questionnaires were retrieved. Structured questionnaires were used for data collection; the data collected were presented in tables and analyzed using simple percentages. Chi- square was used to test the hypotheses and the two hypotheses were tested at 0. 05 level of significance.

# 2 Recommendations

* + 1. Government needs to place rural development at the top of the agenda of the national development in rea lizat ion of the fact that enhanced rural development is a prerequisite for meaningful and sustainable overall national development policies and programs. Further to this is the need for consistency in the execution of rural development programmes. Indeed, implementation of appropriate rural development programs should continue irrespective of changes in government.
    2. Government again needs to de- emphasize total focus on the oil sector and to enhance agricultural development through addressing the needs of rural farmers with functional incentives. This is necessary as increased income form agricultural activities, which is t he main stay of

the rural economy, improves the quality of the life of the rural dwellers. For instance, when farmers shift form the use of t raditional tools like hoes and matches to the use of modern tools like t ractors, their production increases form subsistence to commercial quantities. Another dimension to this is the need for the establishment of agro – allied industries as growth or development drivers of the rural areas. Such agro

– processing industries could be in the areas of r ice milling and packaging, processing of cashew and groundnut products, cassava and cocoyam floor packaging, processing of pineapple, oranges and paw - paw into fruit juice etc.

* + 1. There is need for the government at the federal, state and local government levels to invest more in modern and easy to maintain agricultural equipment in order that food production may increase at a rate higher than the population growth.
    2. The polit ical representatives and leaders need to identify with the development needs of the rural areas of their constituencies. Indeed, they need to articulate such needs and ensure that they become integral parts of the government’ s development agenda and that policies or programs init iated to address them are monitored to ensure proper implementation. This is necessary in view of the fact that rural dwellers on their own, do not constitute any meaningful polit ical force and so development polic y formulations generally ignores them. Again the political representatives like the federal legislators could enhance rural development by actually devoting part of their constituency development allowance to rural sector development. This is necessary as such display of commitment to

rural development by the political representatives will, in turn, t r igger greater commitment towards init iat ing rural development projects and programs on the side of the rural communities themselves

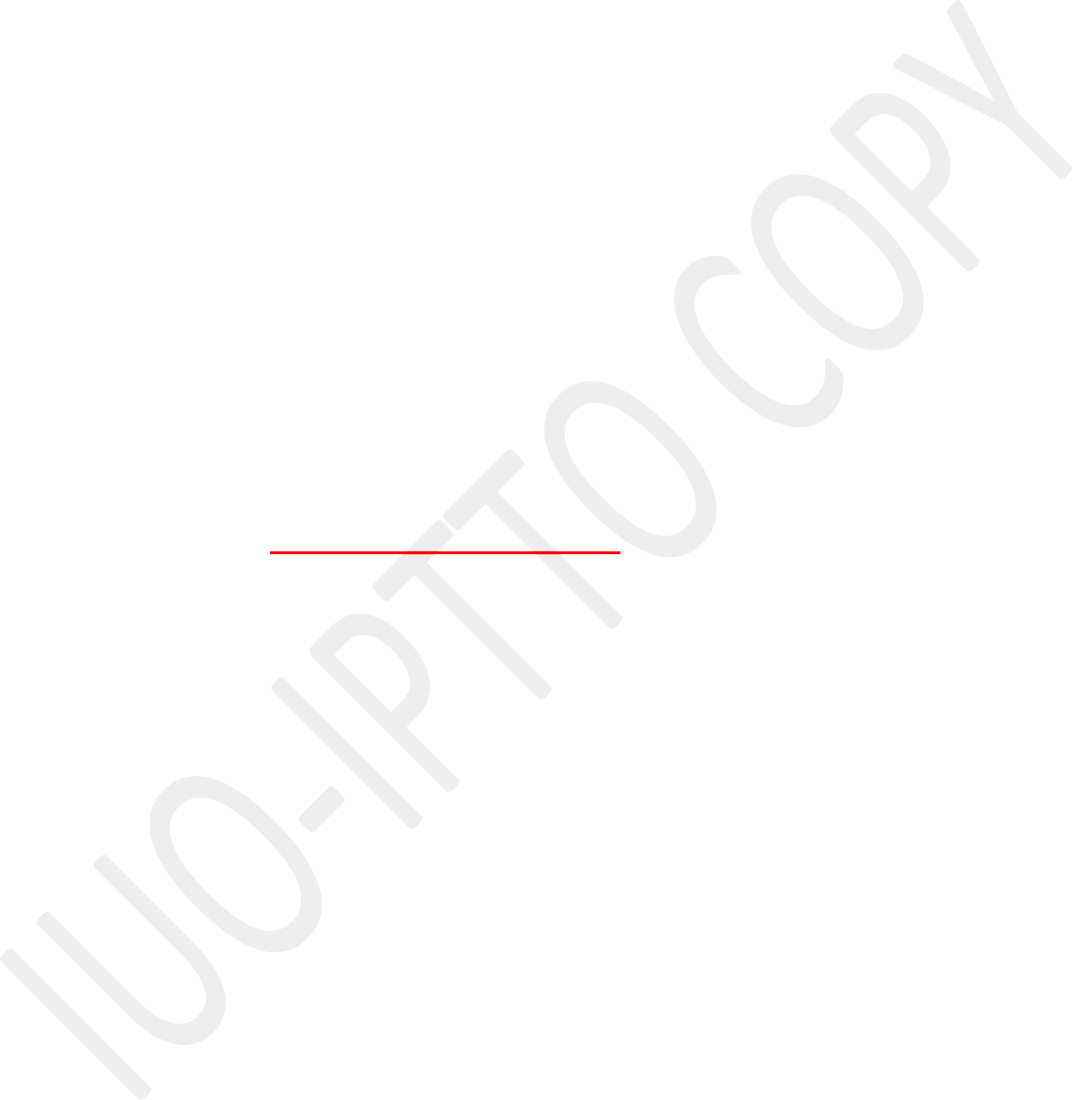
* + 1. Farmers should be encouraged to form cooperative societies to enhance bulk purchse of input which will reduce input cost and ensure t imely supply of same.
    2. There is the need for policy makers to pursue opportunities for regional cooperation in international input procurement and to facilit ate privatization and competition in input distribution. This will make the input more readily available at a reasonable cost.
    3. State governments and State Fadama Coordination Offices should mount vigorous public enlightenment campaign to educate the commun it ies on the advantages of t he project to community development. The Project should step up its capacity building support for community organizationsto upgrade their skills and acquire new ones to support demand- driven communit y investments.
    4. State governments should increase their matching grant fund to Fadama User Groups ( FUGs) to finance acquisition of assets for income - generating activities. This will increase value added from the products produced by their members and diversify their sources of liveliho od. The matching grant will actually help reduce their vulnerabilities and r isks, thereby making them more attractive to formal financial inst itut ions.
    5. The local governments in Nigeria need to eschew corruption particularly at the leadership level and emphasize accountabilit y, due process, prudence and diligence. Again, the leadership need to refocus firmly on

it s primary and statutory duty of administering local and rural development in integrated and sustainable manner. It is expected that the democratization process in Nigeria will aid the coming into existence of visionary and purposeful leaderships in the local government system. Such responsible leaderships will be inclined to developing appropriate policies and programs t hat can be effectively impleme nted to address the rural underdevelopment needs in Nigeria. Indeed, with such commitment of government leadership at the state and federal government levels in Nigeria towards enhancing development at the rural areas, the nation would significantly key into the millennium rural development goals and objectives.

* + 1. International donors should t ry to ensure that their rural development frameworks are sustainable beyond the duration of the project. They should t ry to make sure that any new structures or inst itut ions established continue to function rather than collapse upon the termination of support.

# Conclusion

The rural areas of Nigeria are largely characterized by lack of basic infrastructure facilit ies and general underdevelopment enhancing the rural development status is a prerequisite for sustainable national development. The various policy measures are deve loped to enhance development in t he rural areas by successive governments in Nigeria have not t ranslated with visible and meaningful t ransportation of the rural sector. One of these public policies on rural development is the Fadama III programme.

In conclusion, the Third National Fadama Development Project has progressive impact which needs to be consolidated in the subsequent years ahead. The project has impacted positively on the following areas in the study area; input support, assets base of participants, impacted on participant’ s yield output and economic status of participants. However, the project performed poorly in terms of overall development of the study area. The s ignificance of this aspect of the projects as one of its main objectives calls for a lot of concern. Based

on the findings and conclusions of this study, further research is recommended into the factors responsible for the failure of the study in t he study area in terms of rural development.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY- Change to References**

**Books**

Abah, N. C. ( 2000). Development Administration: A Multi - Disciplinary Approach. Enugu: John Jacob’ s Classic Publishers Ltd.

Abasiekong, M. E. ( 1982) Integrated Rural Development in t he Third World, New York: Exposition Press.

Adebayo, A. ( 1994). Princ ip les and Practice of Public Administration in Nigeria. Ibadan: Spectrum Books.

Adedipe, B. O. ( 2002) First foundation of regional planning. I laro: IBDL Educational Publishers.

Afigbo, A. E. ( 1991). Women as a factor in development. In M. O. I jere ( Ed.); Women in Nigerian Economy. Enugu: ACENA Publishers.

Alege, I. ( 2005). Financial and Technical Resources Mobilization for Community Development in Omale, I. &Ebiloma, J. ( ed) Principles and Community Development in Nigeria. Makurdi: ABOKI PUBLISHERS.

Bassand, M. Brugger, E. A. Bryden, J. M. Friedman, J. Stuckey, B. ( 1986) Self - Reliant Development in Europe – Theory, Problems, Actions Gower, Brookfield, Vermont.

Brugger, E. A. ( 1986) Endogenous development: A concept between Utopia and reality In: Bassand, M. et al. ( 1986) Self- Reliant Development in Europe ñ Theory, Problems, Actions Gower, Brookfield, Vermont.

Cawley, M. and Gillmor, D. A. ( 2008). Sustainable Rural Syatem. England: Ashgate.

Dye, T. R. ( 1981). Understanding public policy ( 4th edition). N. J. Pren t ice- Hall Inc.

Ebong, M. ( 1991). Mobilisation of Resources for Rural Development in Nigeria, Calabar, Wusen Press Ltd.

Egonmwan, T. ( 2004). Public Policy: Concepts and Applications: Benin City, S. M. O, Aka and Brother Press.

Ele, C. ( 2006). Evangelization through Rural Development. Nsukka: Great AP Publishers Ltd.

Ezeah, P. ( 2005). Rural Sociology and Rural Development with Focus on Nigeria. Enugu: John Jacob Classic Publishers.

Honadle, G. ( 1976). The Implementation Analysis: The Case of an Early Dose of Realism in Development ministration, in International Development Administration: Implementation Analysis for Development, George Honadle and Ruud Klauss ( eds), New York: Praeger Publishers.

Hornby, A. S. ( 2001). Advance Dictionary of Current English.

Idowu, S. ( 1999) Media in Nigeria’ s Security and Development Vision. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd.

Igboeli, M. O. ( 1992). ―Self- help as a Strategy for Rural Development: A Critique in Olisa, M. S. O and Obiukwu, J. I. ( eds). Rural Development in Nigeria|: Dynamics and Strategies, Awka, Melsinks Publishers.

Igbokwe, E. M. and Ajala, A. A. ( 1995). Popular participation for rural development in Nigeria. In E. C. Eboh, C. U. Okoye and D. Ayichi ( Eds.); Rural Development in Nigeria: Concepts, Processes and Prospects. Enugu: Auto - Century Publishing Company.

I jere, M. O. ( 1990). The challenges of rural development in Nigeria. In A. I. Ikeme ( Ed.); the Challenges of Agriculture in National Development. Enugu: Optimal Computer Solutions, Ltd.

Ikelegbe, A. ( 2006) Public Policy Analysis: Concepts, Issues and Analysis.

Lagos: Imprint Services.

Larson, J. A. ( 1987). Why government programmes fa il: Improving polic y implementation, USA: Preager Publisher.

Laxmikauth, M. ( 2011). Public Administration. New Delhi: Gata McGraw Hill Education Private Limited.

Leichter, N. A. ( 1975), Comparative Approach to Policy Analysis: Health Care Delivery in Four Nations. Cambr idge: Cambridge University Press.

Lockhart, J. A. and Wiseman, A. J. L. ( 1978), Introduction to Crop Husbandry.

4thed: Pergamum press. New York.

Mabogunje, A. L. ( 1980), The Development Process: A Spatial Perspective, Hutchinson Universit y Library.

Mahon, G. ( 1969) “Mission and Development in the contemporary Situation” In Mc Doragh, E. ( ed.). The church is Mission. London: Geoffrey Chapman.

Muoghalu, L. N. ( 1992). Rural Development in Nigeria: A Review of Previous Init iat ives, in Olisa, M. S. O. &Obiukwu, J. I., Rural Development in Nigeria: Dynamics and Strategies. Awk a:MEKSLINK Publishers Nigeria.

Myrdal, G. ( 1975). Economic theory and Under - Developed Regions. Methuen & Co London.

Nweke, E. ( 2006). Public Policy Analysis: A Strategic Approach Enugu: John Jacobs Publishers.

Nooy, A. T. J. ( 1997). Modern Endogenous Development: Civilization and Empowerment. H. de. Haan and H. Long eds. Image and Realities of Rural Life ( Assen: Van Gorcum).

Okoli, F. and Onah, F. ( 2002). Public Administration in Nigeria: Nature, Principles and Application. Enugu: John Jacobs Publishers Ltd .

Olarenwaju, O. et al ( 2001). “Evaluation of Programmes and Policies for Supporting Small Side Enterprises in Nigeria” A Publication of Development Policy Centre. Ibadan.

Olarenwaju, S. ( 1992). “Overview of Rural Development Problems” in Olarenwaju, S. A and Falola, T. ( eds.) . Rural Development Problems in Nigeria England: Avebury.

Olayide S. O. Ogunfowora, O Essang, S. M. and Idachaba, F. S. ( 1981).

Elements of Rural Economics, Ibadan: University Press.

Omale, I. ( 2005). Policies and Strategies for Rural Development in Nigeria: From Colonial Era ( 1945) to DFFRI Era (Mid 80s to Early 90 s) in Omale, I. &Ebiloma, J. ( ed) Principles and Communit y Development in Nigeria. Makurdi: ABOKI PUBLISHERS. Pp 143- 166.

Onimode, B. ( 2002). Imperialism and Underdevelopment in Nigeria. The Role of Fiscal Policy in Rural Development in Nigeria. Report 1998 – 99. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Otigba, E. ( 2013). Fundamentals of Rural Development in Nigeria.

Yola: Adukwu Books.

Picchi, A. ( 1994). The relation between central and local powers as context for endogenous development, in. Van der Ploeg, D. J. and Long, A. ( eds) 1994.

Shankansky, I.( 1970 ). ( ed). Policy Analysis in Political Science, Chicago: Markham Press.

Sharma, M, Sadana, B. and Kaur, H. ( 2012). Public Administration in Theory and Practice. New Delhi: Kitab Mahaj Publishers.

Tenuche, M. &Ogwo, B. ( 2005). Obstacles to Community Developm ent and How to Combat them in, Omale, I. &Ebiloma, J. ( ed) Principles and Community Development in Nigeria. Makurdi: Aboki Publishers.

Tonye, D. ( 1995). Local Government and Administration in Nigeria. Ibadan: Amitop Books Company.

van der Ploeg, J. D., Renting, H., Brunori, G., Knickel, K., Marsden, T., de Roest, C., … Ventura, F. ( 2000). Rural development: From practices and policies towards theory. SociologiaRuralis, 40( 4), 391408. UK: Blackwell Publishers.

# Journals and Articles

Abdu, M. S. & R. Marshall ( 1990), Agriculture and development policy: a crit ical review of Nigerian experience in the period up to 1985. Journal of Rural Studies, 6( 3), 311 - 323.

Abdulrazak, Y. M., Rohana, Y. and Suyatno, K. ( 2015), Democracy and Rural Development in Nigeria’s Fourth Republic: Challenges and Prospect, Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences MCSER Publishing, Rome - Italy, Vol 6 No 6 S4.

Adebayo, K and Idowu, I. A. ( 2000), The aftermath of t he withdrawal of the World Bank finding for Ogun State Agricultural Developmen t Programme ( OGFADEP) in Nigeria. Journal of Sustainable Agriculture. Vol. 17, N0 2/3 pp 79- 98.

Adelakun, J. B. ( 2013). Rural- Urban Development Dichotomy: A Debate. Being a text Presented on the Flagg- Off of Osun Rural Awareness Campaign organized by the State of Osun Local Service Commission. February, 5 - 8.

Adenipekun, M. T. ( 2013). Sustainable rural infrastructural development in Nigeria within the context of Vision 20: 2020, International Journal of Development and Sustainability, Volume 2 Number 1,

Agbarevo, M. N. B. and Okwoche, A. V. ( 2014). Evaluation of effect of the third national fadama development project ( Fadama 111) on food production among farmers in Kwande local government area of Benue State, Nigeria. European Journal of Agriculture and Forestry Research, 2( 2): 27- 32.

Agunloye, T. O., Fasina, O. O. and Akinnagbe, A. O. ( 2017). Effects of National Fadama III Programme on the Scope and Scale of Beneficiaries’ Farming Activities in South West, Nigeria, Journal of Agricultural Extension, Vol. 21 ( 2).

Agwu, A. E. ( 2004), Factors influencing the adoption of improved cowpea technology in Nigeria, Journal of International Agriculture and Extension Education, 11 ( 1).

Ahmed, H. ( 2007). Strategies for Accelerated Rural and Community Development at Local Government Level. The Nigerian Journal of Administrative Studies, 5( 3): 64 - 77.

Ajadi, B. ( 2010) “Poverty Situation in Nigeria: An Overview of Rural Development Institutions” Pakistan Journal of Sciences Vol. 7 No. 5 Pp 351 – 356.

Ajagun, S. O. ( 2003). The Significance of Culture on Human Development in Nigeria. International Journal of Governance and Development, 1 ( 20):107- 116.

Akanbi, G. O, and Jekayinfa, A. A. ( 2011). From Sincerity to Deception: First Ladies ‘Pet Project’ of Empowering Rural Women and C hildren through Education in Nigeria, 1985 - 2008. European Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences. Vol 5. No 1:180 - 193.

Akhakpe, I. B. ( 2014). Public Policy, Interest Groups and Sustainable Development in Nigeria, Review of Public Administration and Management Vol. 3, No. 6.

Akinbode, I. A. ( 1986). “A Perspective on Rural Development in Nigeria”, The Quarterly Journal of Administration, Vol. xx No. 3&4, pp. 127 - 8.

Akpomuvie, B. O. ( 2010). Self- help as a strategy for Rural Development; A bottom- up Approach. Journal of Perspective in Social Science. V ol 2, No 1.

Anderson, J. ( 1975). Public Policy Making, New York: Praeger Publishers, Aristotle, Politics V, 8:1

Anyebe, A. A. ( 2016). An Overview of National Directorate of Employment ( NDE) and it s Mandate in Nigeria, Saudi Journal of Business and Management Studies, DOI: 10. 21276/ sjbms. 2016. 1. 2. 2.

Arnstein, S. ( 1969) ‘ A ladder of cit izen participation’. Journal of the American Institute of Planners, July 1969, pp. 216 - 224.

Aturamu, O. A. and Daramola, A. G. ( 2005) Agriculture agro - forestry polic y option for Nigeria. Journal of Food, Agriculture and Environment: 3 ( 1); 120- 124.

Awojobi, O. N. ( 2014), Sustainable Rural Development in Nigeria within t he Context of the Millennium Development Goals, International Journal of Contemporary Applied Sciences Vol. 1 No . 1.

Baba, I. ( 2011) “Local Government and the failure of Rural Development in Nigeria: Explaining t he Role of Political Participation”. Journal of Social Development in Africa. Vol. 26 No; 2 Pp 18 – 24,

Balogun, O. L and Yusuf, S. A. ( 2011). Effects of social capital on welfare of rural Households in south- west states, Nigeria; Journal of Agriculture and social sciences 7: 41 - 48.

Bassey, N, E., Ndiyo, N. A. and Ibia, O. A. ( 2016), Rural Development Programmes and Sustainable Development in Nigeria: A Case Study Of Cross River State, Multi- Disciplinary Journal of Research and Development Perspective, Volume 5, Number 1.

Bature, Y. M. Sanni, A. A. and Adebayo, F. O. ( 2013). Analysis of Impact of National Fadama Development Projects on Beneficiaries Income and Wealth in FCT, Nigeria, Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development, Vol. 4, No. 17.

Chambers, R. ( 1994). ‘The Origins and Practice of Participatory Rural Appraisal’, World Development 22( 7): 953 –69.

Chukwuemeka O. E and Ikechukwu U. B. ( 2013). Enhancing Rural Development in Nigeria: Periscoping the Impediments and Exploring Imperative Measures. Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management ReviewVol. 2, No. 7 *.*

Chuwuemeka, E, Ugwuanyi, D. and Amobi, S. C. ( 2013). Enhancing Rural Development in Nigeria: Periscoping the Impediments and exploring the Imperative actions, International Journal of Mana gement Sciences and Business Research, Vol- 2, Issue 7.

Cohen, J. M., and Uphoff, N. T. ( 1980). Participation’ s place in rural development: seeking clarit y t rough specificity. World Development Vol. 8:. 213 - 235.

Dudley, S. ( 1977). “The Meaning of Development”, International Labour Review, Vol. xix, No. 2, pp. 2 - 7.

Ebewore, S. O. ( 2010). Assessment of loan administration by a micro finance bank. Journal of Research in National Development, 8( 2), 125 - 136.

Ebienfa, K. I. and Paki, F. A. E. ( 2013), The Nigeria St ate And The Politics Of Public Policy Implementation, Journal of Social Science and Public Policy, Vol 3, March. p. 1 - 14.

Ejumudo, K. B. O. ( 2013). The Problematic of Development Planning in Nigeria: A Critical Discourse, Developing Country Studies, Vol. 3, N o. 4.

Ering, S. O and Otu, J. E. ( 2014). Rural Development Policies in Nigeria: A Critical Appraisal, International Journal of Education and Research Vol. 2 No. 9.

Ering, S. O. ( 2011). “Food Security, Land Rights and Land Reforms in Nigeria: Implication for Socio- economic Development”. Sacha Journal of Human Rights ( SJHR), 1( 1) pp. 37 - 49.

Filani, M. O. 1993. Transport and rural development in Nigeria. Journal of Transport Geography. 1 ( 4), 248 - 254.

Guijt, I. and Gaventa, J. ( 1998) ‘Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation: Learning from Change’. IDS Policy Briefing, Issue 12. Brighton: Institute of Policy Studies.

Gumwa, G. ( 2002). Kogi State National Poverty Eradication Programme ( NAPEP): The Story so Far. Poverty Monitoring Manual of Kogi State NAPEP.

Halidu, A. ( 2012) Transparency and Accountability in Local Government Administration in Nigeria A Paper Presented at a National Workshop on Performance, Transparency, Accountability and Development at the Local Government level” Organized by the Office of the Secretary to the Government of the Federation, Abuja, February – March.

Hayward, C., Simpson, L. and Wood, L. ( 2004) ‘Still Left Out in the Cold: Problematising Participatory Research and Development’. Sociologia Ruralis, Vol. 44, No. 1.

Henkel, H. and R. Stirrat ( 2001) ‘Participation as Spiritual Duty: Empowerment as Secular Subjection’. Chapter 1 1 in Cooke and Kothari, 2001, pp. 168 - 184.

Hoggart, K.( 1990). Let‘s Do Away with Rural. Journal of Rural studies, Vol 6, No 3, Pp. 245 - 257.

Ibietan, J. and Oghator, E. ( 2013). Trends in Development Planning In Nigeria: 1962 to 2012. Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa, Pennsylvania 15 ( 4) 297 - 311.

Idiaye, C. O. and Omonona, B. T. ( 2014), National Special Programme for Food Security ( NSPFS) and Poverty among Farming Households in Oyo State, Nigeria, Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Managem ent Sciences ( JETEMS) 5( 3).

Inedu, S. A. ( 2016), Rural Development Policies in Nigeria: The Way Forward, Capital Journal of Education Studies, April 4( 1).

Ingawa . S. A., Oredipe. A. A., Idefor. K. and C. Okafor ( eds) ( 2004), Facilitators Project ( Fadama 11 ). Federal Ministry of Agric and Rural Devt. Abuja. Nigeria. National Fadama Development officer ( NFDO) Poverty Reduction Though Increased productivity and Empowerment. Abuja. Nigeria. NFSO. Project Coordination Unit.

Iwuagwu, O. ( 2006), Rural development in eastern Nigeria: An assessment of colonial and post- colonial development plans in the former Owerri Province, 1946 - 1976. Lagos Historical Review, 6, 118 - 132.

Kamar, Y. M., Lawal, N. I., Babangida, S. I. and Jahun, U. A. ( 2014), Rural development in Nigeria: problems and prospects for sustainable development, The International Journal Of Engineering And Science ( IJES), Volume 3, Issue 12.

Keane, J. M. ( 1990) Economic Development Capacit y Amongst Small Rural Communities, In.: Journal of Rural Studies Vol. 6. No. 3. pp. 291 - 301.

Laah, D. E., Abba, M., Ishaya, D. S. and Gana, J. N. ( 2013), The Mirage of Rural Development in Nigeria, Journal of Social Sciences and Public Policy, Volume 5, Number 2, 2013.

Mueller, S. ( 2006). Rural Development, Environmental Sus tainabilit y, and Poverty Alleviation: A Critique of Current Paradigms. Economics and Social Affairs. DESA Working Paper No. 11ST/ESA/2006/DWP/ 11

Naomi O ( 1995). Towards an Integrated View of Human Rights. Hunger Teach Net, 6( 3): 6 - 7.

National Fadama Develo pment Programme Agriculture and Rural Development Department, OCAR. 2 April, 2003.

Nchuchuwe, F. F. and Adejuwon, K. D. ( 2012), The Challenges of Agriculture and Rural Development in Africa: The Case of Nigeria, International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development, Vol. 1, No. 3.

Nkonya, E., Philip, D., Mogues, T., Pander, J., Yahaya, M. K., Adebowale, G., Arokoyo, T. and Kato, E. ( 2008) ―Communit y- Driven Development in Nigeria‖ IFPRI discussion Paper 00756, IFPRI Washington.

Nyagba, S. ( 2009) “Review of Nigeria’s Rural Development Policy for sustainable Development” paper presented at Business Round Table at Abuja, 9 – 11 July. Oghoghoiye, R. and Erry – Eze, 1 ( 2011) “Rural Urban Migration, Social life.

Obetta, C., T. and Okide, C. C. ( 2012), Rural Development Trends in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects”, Society for Research and Academic Excellence.

Obinne, C. P. O. ( 1991), Adoption of improved cassava production technologies by small scale farmers in Bendel State, Journal of Agricultural Science and Technology, 1 ( 1).

Ocheni, S., Atakpa, M.& Nwankwo, B. C. ( 2012). Local Government and Appropriate Capacity Building for Accelerated and Sustainable Rural Development. European Journal of Business and Social Sciences, 1( 3), 131 – 135.

Ogeidefa, I. ( 2010). Rural Development in Nigeria: Concept, Approaches, Challenges and Prospect. SOCYBERTY.

Oghenekohwo, J. E. and Berezi, I. U. ( 20917), Public Policy Instruments and Dynamics of Economic Development Indicators in Rural Nigeria, Medit erranean Journal of Social Sciences, Vol 8 No 5 S1.

Ogunkoya, O. A, Lasisi, J. O., Hassan, B. and Elumah, L. O. ( 2015), ) An Integrated Approach to Rural Development in Nigeria, An Integrated Approach to Rural Development in Nigeria, Vol. 11.

Ogunnowo&Oderinde ( 2012)” Sustainable Development and Management of Infrastructure for Effective Transformation of Rural Communities In

Nigeria: Implications for Food Security” Journal Of Social Sciences 5( 3), 87.

Ogunwale, A. B, Ayoade, A. R. and Ayansina, O. ( 2006), im pact of extension service on farmers’ production activities in Ogbomoso Agricultural Zone of Oyo State. Nigerian Journal of Agricultural Extension, 9: 150 - 158.

Ogwu, J. ( 2005). New horizon for Nigeria in world Affairs.

Okolie, A. C. ( 2003) Producing knowledge for Sustainable Development in Africa: Implications for Higher Education. Higher Education 46: 235 – 260.

Oladoja, M. A. and Olusanya, T. P. ( 2007 ), Adoption of coccidiosis vaccines by poultryfarmers in I jebu Ode Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. Internationa l Journal of Poultry Science 6:883.

Olayiwola, L. M and Adeleye, O. A. ( 2005). Rural Infrastructural Development in Nigeria: Between 1960 and 1990 - problems and Challenges. Journal of Social Science, 11 ( 2): 91 - 96.

Olowu, D. ( 1986), “Institutional Approach to Rural Infrastructure Development in Nigeria”, The Quarterly Journal of Administration, Vol. xx No. 3&4, pp. 153 - 8.

Oluwayomi, D. A. ( 1986), Overcoming Rural Underdevelopment in Nigeria, The Quarterly Journal of Administration, Vol. xx No. 3&4, pp. 137 - 9.

Oluyide, S. O. and Essang, S. M. ( 1975), “Aspects of Rural Poverty in Nigeria: Implication for Policy”, proceedings of the Annual Conference of The Nigerian Economic Society, University of Ibadan.

Omotesho O. A., Falola, A., Muhammad- Lawal, A. and Oyeyemi, A. ( 2012), Comparative analysis of the performances of adopters and non - adopters of Yam Minisett technology in Kwara State, Nigeria , International Journal

of Agriculture and Rural Development, 15 ( 3).

Onah, V. C. ( 2005 ). Democratic Governance and Crisis of Development in Nigeria. American Journal of International Politics and Development Studies, 1 ( 1): 129 - 137.

Onokerhoraye, A. E. ( 1978), Planning for rural development in Nigeria: a spatial approach. Communit y Development Journal. 13( 1).

Osuntogun, C. A. and Oludimu, O. L. ( 1986), Some Challenges of Rural Development in Nigeria, The Quarterly Journal of Administration, Vol. xx No. 3&4, pp. 112 - 6.

Osuntogun, S. and Olufokunbi, L. C. ( 1986). History and assessment of agricultural policies in Nigeria. In S. Osuntogun and E. Ugorji ( Eds.); Financing Agricultural development in Nigeria. llorin: ARMTI Seminar Series; Nov.

Paul, O. S., Agba, M. S. and Chukwurah, D. S. ( 2014), Rural Development Programmes and Rural Underdevelopme nt in Nigeria: A Rethink, International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research ( IJPAMR), Vol. 2, No 4.

Pearse, A. and Stiefel, M. ( 1979) “Inquiry into Participation: A Research Approach”, UNRISD, Geneva.

Raheem, W. M. and Bako, A. I. ( 2014), Sustainable Rural Development Programmes in Nigeria: Issues and Challenges, Asian Journal of Science and Technology Vol. 5, Issue 9.

Raheem, W. M., Oyeleye, O. I. and Adeniji, M. A. ( 2014). Farming as a panacea to unemployment in Nigeria: The Oje Owode Experience. American Journal of Sustainable Cities and Society. 1 ( 3) pp 419 - 437.

Ray, C. ( 2000) The EU LEADER Programme: Rural Development Laboratory.

Sociologia Ruralis 40 ( 2) pp. 163 - 171.

Saheed, A. B. ( 2010), Poverty situation in Nigeria. An overview of rural development inst itut ions. Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences 7 ( 5), 351 - 356.

Shortall, S. and M. Shucksmith ( 2001) Rural Development in Practice: Issues Arising in Scotland and Northern Ireland. Communit y Development Journal 36 ( 2) pp. 122- 134.

Simon, D. ( 2004). “Recent Trends in Development Theory and Policy: Implication for Democratization and Government”

Solomon, V. A. and Adeyemi ( 2005), Enhancing t he food security of small holder households in Iwo Community, through extension commun icat ion and education” Nigerian Journal of Rural Sociology 5 ( 2), 84 - 91.

Udeh, C. A. ( 1989), Rural development in Nigeria. Habitat Intl 13 ( 3), 95 - 100.

Ugwuanyi, B. I. and Chukwuemeka, E. O. (2013), Obstacles to Effective Policy Implementation By Public Bureaucracy In Developing Nations: The Case of Nigeria, Singaporean Journal Business and Management Studies, Vol. 1 No 8. p. 34 - 43.

Ward, N. and Nicolas, K. ( 1998) Reconfiguring rural development in t he UK: Objective 5 b and the new rural governance. Journal of Rural Studies 14, 27- 40.

Watts, M. and Bassett, T. J. ( 1986). Politics, the State and agrarian development: a comparative study of Nigeria and the Ivory Coast. Political Geography Quarterly 5, 103 - 125.

# Government Publications

Aliyu, A. ( 2004). National Po verty Eradication Programme ( NAPEP) conception, implementation, coordination and monitoring, Abuja: Government Printer.

Federal Republic of Nigeria ( 1962) First National Development Plan. 1962 - 1968. Lagos, Ministry of Information.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Federal Republic | of Nigeria ( 1975) Second National Development Plan. | 1975 - |
| 1980. Lagos,  Federal Republic | Ministry of information.  of Nigeria ( 1980) Fourth National Development Plan. | 1981 - |
| 1985. Lagos, | Ministry of Information. |  |

Federal Republic of Nigeria ( 1981 ), Third National Development Plan. Lagos. Federal Republic of Nigeria ( 2010). Nigeria at 50 Document. Abuja: 1st

October Publishing.

National Population Commission ( 2006). Population and housing Census Enumerator’s Manual, Federal Republic of Nigeria, Abu ja Nigeria.

# Special Publications

OECD. ( 1994). The Contribution of Amenities to Rural Development. OECD: Paris.

UNDP ( 1997), “Human Development to Eradicate Poverty”, Human development Report, New York.

UNDP ( 2005). En route to Equality: A Gender Review o f National MDGs Reports. New York: Bureau of Development Policy.

United nation conference on Rural poverty Eradication as means to urban development. 1998, 2004.

World Bank ( 2003), World Development Report, Washington D. C.

World Bank ( 1975). Rural Development: A Policy Paper. Washington D. C.: World Bank.

World Bank ( 2013) Nigeria Economic Report - Open Knowledge Repository.

Washington D. C.: World Bank.

World Bank Staffs ( 2010). Poverty Reduction Strategy paper, ( PRSP).

# Internet Sources

Ajayi, A. R. ( 2008). The potential role of agricultural extension service removing banana and plantain production constrains in Nigeria. Retrieved 2010 may, 2 nd from http: www, Science direct. Com/Science? - 06=Article.

Amiolemen, S. O. and Adegbite, A. ( 2012), Sustaina ble Development Policy and Corporate Social Responsibility in Business Organisations in Nigeria, Social Science Research Network. Retrieved from [http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.c fm?abstract\_id=1991771](http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1991771)

Asian Development Bank Institute ( ADB) ( 2007). Rural Development:

Household Perceptions on Rural Development http://[www.](http://www/) adbi. org/discussion. paper

Brundtland Commission, 1987). Report of the World Commission on Environment and Develo pment. United Nations. Retrieved from [http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/42/ares42 -187.htm](http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/42/ares42-187.htm)

Helmsing, A. H. J. ( 2001), Local Economic Development. New generation of actors, policies and instruments,

[https://www.researchgate.net/publicat ion/277810746](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/277810746)

Lowe, P., C. Ray, N. Ward, D. Wood, and R. Woodward ( 1998) Participation in Rural Development: A Review of European Experience. ” Centre for Rural Economy, Universit y of Newcastle, Newcastle, England. Available online at: [http://www.ncl.ac.uk/cre/publish/pdfs/rr98.1a.pdf Accessed](http://www.ncl.ac.uk/cre/publish/pdfs/rr98.1a.pdf%20Accessed%2010%20October%202012) [10 October 2012](http://www.ncl.ac.uk/cre/publish/pdfs/rr98.1a.pdf%20Accessed%2010%20October%202012)

Ndangra ( 2005). Democracy and Rural Development in Nigeria’ s Forth Republic. Retrieved from [www.mcser.org/journal/index/7980](http://www.mcser.org/journal/index/7980)

Nnajiofor, O. G., Ifeakor, C. S. and Mgbemena, S. ( 2013), Nigeria and the Enigma of Policy Implementation,

[www.ajol. info/index.php/cajtms/art icle/view/117048](http://www.ajol.info/index.php/cajtms/article/view/117048)

Okhankhuele, O. T. &Opafu nso, O. Z. ( 2013). Causes and Consequences of Rural- Urban Migration Nigeria: A Case Study of Ogun Waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. British Journal of Arts and Social Sciences, 16( I) <http://www.bjournal.co.uk/BJASS.aspx>

Okhankhuele, O. T. and Opafunso, O. Z. (2013). Causes and Consequences of Rural- Urban Migration Nigeria: A Case Study of Ogun Waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. British Journal of Arts and Social Sciences, 16( I) http://[www.](http://www/) bjournal. co. uk/BJASS. aspx.

Roberts, R. E.( 2014). Rural Poverty in Nigeria. Rebecca's thoughts on Development. http://rebeccaidd. wordpress. com/2012/10/06/rural- poverty- in- nigeria

World Bank, ( 2000). World Development Report 2001 –2001: Attacking Poverty. New York: Oxford University Press. [http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/wdrpoverty/report/index.htm.](http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/wdrpoverty/report/index.htm)

# Unpublished Works

Agwunobi, C. A. ( 1993) Impact of the Shell Petroleum Agric Extension Programme on the Participating Farmers in Imo State, An Unpublished M. Sc Thesis Department of Agricultural E xtension, University of Nigeria Nsukka.

Akinola, M. O. ( 2003). The performance of fadama users’ association under the national fadama development project phase One, Nigeria. A Ph. D Thesis, Ahmadu Bello Univerty, Zaria, pp. 3 - 73.

Aliu, A. ( 2001). National Poverty Eradication Programme ( NAPEP): Completion, Implementation, Co - ordination and Monitoring. In: Joseph I. O. ( 2005). An Assessment of Impacts of Poverty Reduction Programme in Nigeria as a Development Strategy, PhD Dissertation of St. Clement, Universit y of Turks and Caicoos, Island.

Atala, T. K. ( 1986) Role and Impact of Extension Agents in Kaduna state Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation. Iowa State Universit y, United States of Amer ica.

Gboyega A ( 2003). Democracy and Development: The Imperative of Local Governance. An Inaugural Lecture, University of Ibadan, pp 6 - 7.

Idris, S. ( 2011). The Role of Kaduna State Ministry for Rural and Communit y Development in Rural Development in Some Selected Rural Communities of Kaduna State, An Unpublished MS. c Public Administration, Thesis, Postgraduate School, A. B. U. Zaria, Nigeria.

Joseph I. O. ( 2005). An Assessment of Impacts of Poverty Reduction Programme in Nigeria as a Development Strategy PhD Dissertation of St. Clement University of Turks and Caicoos, Island.

# Newspapers and Magazines

Rostow, W. W. ( 1969), “Five Stages of Nations”, The Economist, August.

# APPENDIX I

**A SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE ON PUBLIC POLICY ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA: A CASE STUDY OF FADAMA II I**

# PROGRAMME IN ETHIOPE WEST LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA

Dear Respondent,

This research questionnaire is an opinion Survey Intended to generate information onpublic policy on rural development in Nigeria: a case study of Fadama III Programme in Ethiope West local government area

It is a Part of Research Dissertation which forms one of t he requirements for the award of a Master of Science ( Ms. C) degree in Political Science by Igbinedion Universit y, Okada.

Be assured that all your responses will be t reated with strict confidentiality and be used for the purpose of this study only.

# SECTION A: SOCIO- DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Instructions: Tick ( √ ) the correct answer among options provided.

1. Age: 218 - 29 years ( ) 29 - 30 years ( ) 31 – 49 years ( ) 50+ years (

)

1. Sex: Male ( ) Female ( )
2. Marital Status: Single ( ) Married ( ) Divorced ( ) Widowed ( )
3. Religion: Christianity ( ) Islam ( ) Traditional ( ) Others ( )
4. Education: Tertiary ( ) Secondary ( ) Basic ( ) No education ( )

# SECTION B:

**Are you an indigene of Ethiope West Local Government?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# How long have you stayed in Ethiope West Local Government?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Under 1 year |  |  |
| 1 - 5 years |  |  |
| 6 – 10 years |  |  |
| 11 – 15 years |  |  |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 16 – 20 years |  |  |
| 21+ years |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**How long have you stayed in Ethiope West Local Government?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Under 1 year |  |  |
| 1 - 5 years |  |  |
| 6 – 10 years |  |  |
| 11 – 15 years |  |  |
| 16 – 20 years |  |  |
| 21+ years |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# What is your source of farmland?



|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Inheritance |  |  |
| Lease/ Rent |  |  |
| Purchase |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**Are you aware of the FADAMA III Project in your local government?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# How did you know about it?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Radio |  |  |
| Television |  |  |
| Newspapers |  |  |
| Local group/association |  |  |
| Community leaders |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**What was your initial reaction to the programme?**



|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Happy |  |  |
| Skeptical |  |  |
| Indifferent |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# Has this reaction changed?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| No response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**Has this reaction been positive?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# Has this programme been of benefit to you as an individual?



|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**Has the FADAMA III project promote agriculture activities in your local government?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# Have you ever made complaint on the FADAMA III programme?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**What are these complains?**



|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Inadequate and high cost of fert ilizer |  |  |
| Inadequate improved seeds |  |  |
| Clashes with pastoralist |  |  |
| High cost of paid labour |  |  |
| High cost of water pumps for irr igation |  |  |
| All of the above |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# Did any concrete action follow from this complain?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**Do you think your holding has increased as result of FADAMA III?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# What is the size of your farm

**before FADAMA III?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Less than 1 hectare |  |  |
| 1 – 4 hectare |  |  |
| 5 – 8 hectare |  |  |
| Over 9 hectare |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**Has your output changed as a result of FADAMA III to the farm?**



|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# Can you rate the level of this change?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| A quarter |  |  |
| A third |  |  |
| A half double |  |  |
| More than half doubel |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**How often do you have contact with FADAMA facilitators?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Very often |  |  |
| Often |  |  |
| Rarely |  |  |
| Not at all |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# FADAMA III project has assisted in the increase of my farm income?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**FADAMA III project improved my farming, nutrition and food security?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# More people are employed as a result of FADAMA III project?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**My ability to purchase some articles of convenience such as zinc roofs, Radio, Television, Motorcycle, Car etc. has not increased in spite of FADAMA III project adoption?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# FADAMA III project has increased my ability to send children to school?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Total |  |  |

How **significant is FADAMA III in curbing rural- urban migration?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Significant |  |  |
| Not Significant |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

# Has FADAMA III project reduced rural- urban migration in the study area?

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

**Would you say that FADAMA III has impacted positively on the study area?**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Respondents** | **Percentage** |
| Yes |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| No Response |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

