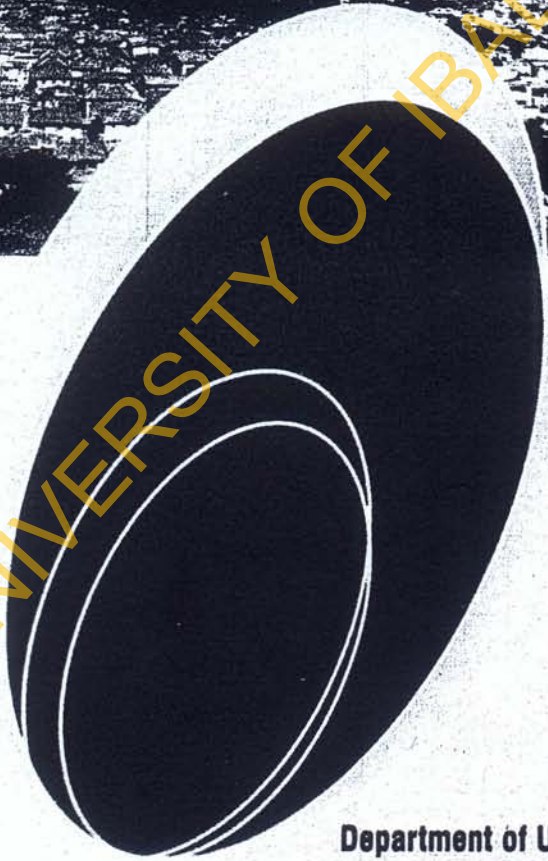
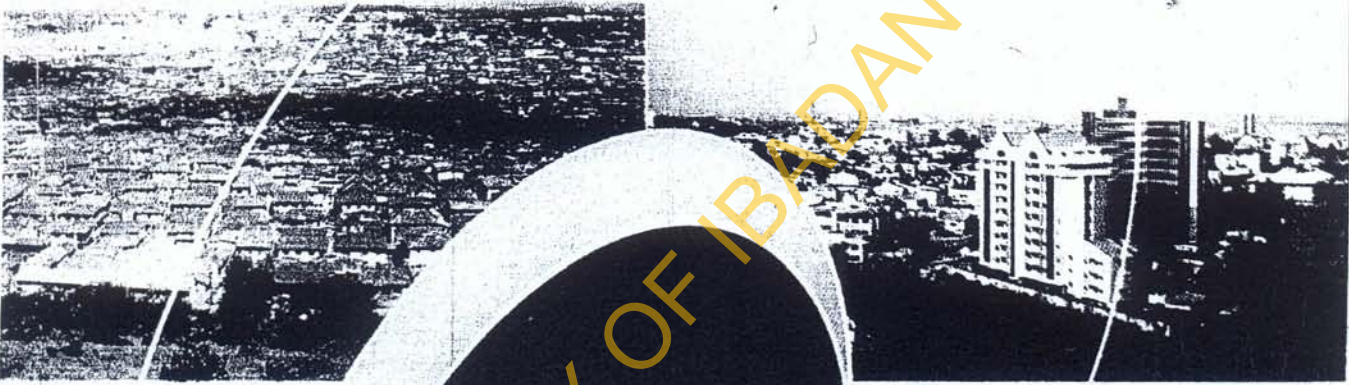




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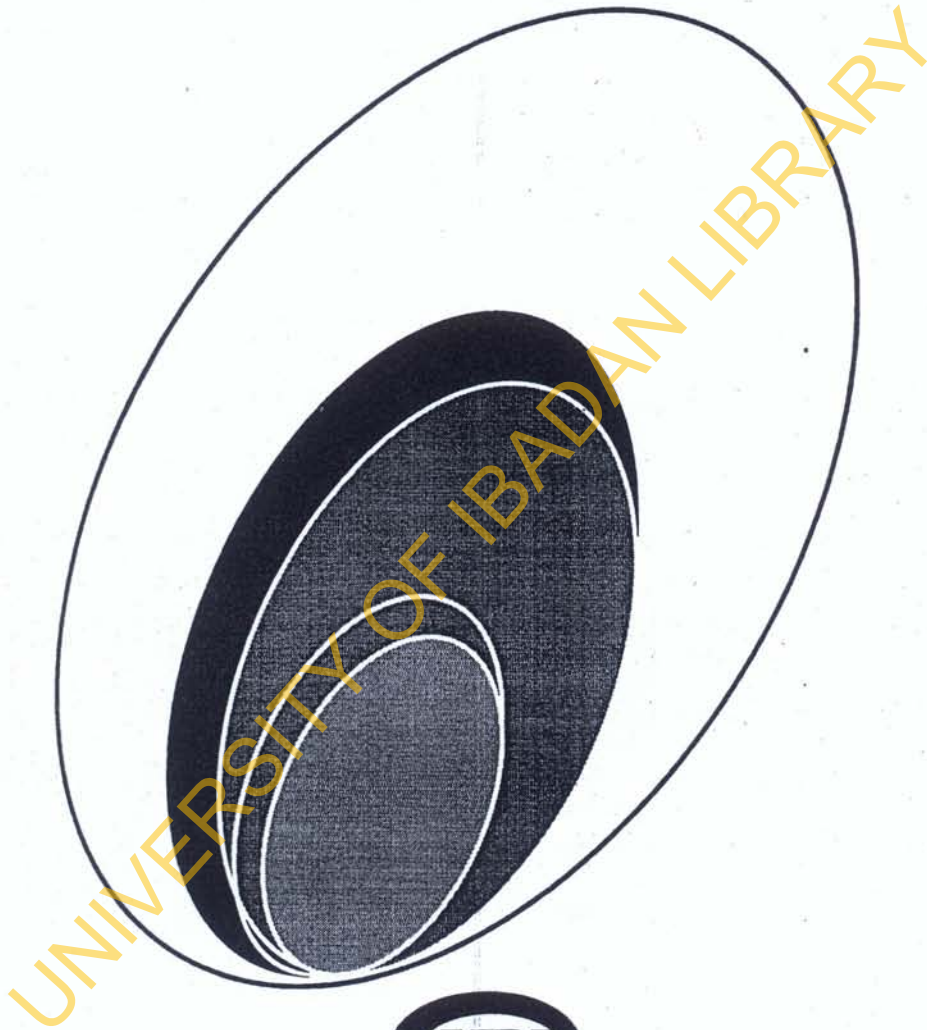
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The Contributions of Fadama-II Project to the Socio-Economic and Infrastructural Development of Rural Communities in Ibarapa North Local Government Area

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Abstract

The Fadama-II part of the National Fadama Development Project was implemented to consolidate the gains of Fadama-I in Nigeria, in order to further improve the welfare of the rural people and enhance public participation in decision-making at the community level. This paper examines the contributions of Fadama-II project to the socio-economic and infrastructural development Ibarapa North local government area of Oyo state, Nigeria. The paper presents the result of a questionnaire survey of Fadama User Groups (FUGs) carried out in 2009 in the study area. A total of 258 (20%) of the 1,290 members of 86 FUGs found in the three principal towns and twenty-two villages in the study area were sampled. Stratified and systematic random sampling techniques were used in the selection of sampled settlements and respondents respectively. Descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used for data analysis. Findings showed that the income of the rural poor improved significantly after partaking in the Fadama-II projects with 56.6% of the respondents earning an average annual income of ₦200,000.00 or more. There was also a drastic reduction in the proportion of people in low-income class from 33.0% to 7.0%. The result of the paired samples t-test gave a t value of -4.067 at 257 degrees of freedom while the probability of occurring by chance is 0.000 which is lower at 0.05 level of significance. The Fadama Community Associations (FCAs) provided about 33 rural infrastructural facilities. Based on its visible overall outcome, the paper argued that Fadama-II project is a viable rural development and poverty alleviation strategy. It concluded that the project's goal of rural development was achieved in the study area and as such can be replicated in other rural communities in Oyo state and Nigeria. Recommendations are offered to sustain the success recorded by the project.

Keywords: Fadama-II project, rural development, public participation, Fadama community association, Fadama user groups.

Introduction

Rural development is a general term used to denote the actions and initiatives taken to improve the standard of living in non-urban neighbourhoods, countryside, and remote villages. Akinleye et al. (2005) define rural development as the outcome of a series of quantitative and qualitative changes occurring among a given rural population and whose converging effects indicate, in time, a rise in the standard of living and favourable changes in the way of life of the people concerned. Olatunbosun (1975 & 1976), Williams (1978), Lele (1979), Idachaba (1980), Ogunfeditimi (2000), Olaseni (2004), Olujimi (1988 and 2005), Olujimi and Egunjobi (1990), Kadiri (1998) and Wahab (2007 & 2008) have variously defined rural areas and rural development. These communities are exemplified with a low ratio of inhabitants to open space. Agricultural activities may be prominent in this case whereas economic activities would relate to the primary sector, production of foodstuffs and raw materials. Olujimi and Egunjobi (1990) observe that the rural areas of Nigeria which harboured over 70 percent of the entire population were characterized by inadequate provision of infrastructure, poverty, and neglect in terms of development, policy formulation and implementation. Although Nigeria's rural population estimated for 2010 by IFAD (2010) is 79,528,437 (50.19%) of the country's total population of 158, 423,182, the rural communities are still suffering from what Olujimi (2005) describes as different kinds of deprivations and poor quality of services, and high propensity for outmigration. As Kadiri (1998) observes, the rural area is losing so much of its active population that its economic base is being threatened. He goes on to state that rural peasants continues to experience low employment, low income, lack of basic healthcare, absence of social amenities and

exploitation.

In terms of level of economic development, quality of life, access to opportunities, facilities and amenities, standard of living and general livability, the gap between the urban and rural areas in Nigeria is very wide. This leads to what is appropriately characterized as the rural-urban dichotomy. The rural areas are usually grossly neglected as far as development projects and infrastructure are concerned. They are faced with qualitative housing problems, lack of basic facilities and amenities, low standard of living and abject poverty all of which have slowed down their physical developments considerably (Wahab, 2004). Because of the relative underdevelopment of the rural areas when compared with the urban centers, rural areas are, according to Udo (1975 cited in Olujimi, 2011), usually zones of high propensity for out-migration. Rural infrastructure in Nigeria has long been neglected. Investments in health, education and water supply have been focused largely on the cities. As a result, the rural population according to IFAD (2009) has extremely limited access to services such as schools and health centres, and about half of the population lacks access to safe drinking water. Neglect of rural infrastructure affects the profitability of agricultural production. The lack of rural roads impedes the marketing of agricultural commodities (IFAD, 2009).

There is an overwhelming need to accord rural development a priority on the 'must-do-list' of government at different levels if the rural communities must contribute meaningfully to the social, cultural and economic development of Nigeria. A bulk of the Nigerian wealth is derived from agriculture, and oil, which lies in abundant quantity in rural communities. Yet, the rural sector constitutes the economically backward areas of Nigeria

(Olatunbosun, 1975). The United Nations Statistics Division (2012) estimated the population of Nigeria in 2009 to be 154,729,000, with the population distributed as 50.2% rural and 49.8% urban. So far, not much in terms of infrastructural development has been done to bring this bulk of concentration of both human and material resources to contribute optimally to national economy. The neglect has resulted to the mass exodus of rural dwellers and, in turn, has made the rural area both qualitatively and quantitatively depopulated, and progressively less attractive for socio-economic investment.

According to Anyanwu (2006), the result of 1996/1997 National Consumer Survey conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) showed that by 1996, the proportion of the rural population living under poverty line in Nigeria stood at 71.7%, up from 46% in 1992. The depth of poverty in rural Nigeria was 33 compared with 18.9% severity during the same year. As noted by Ogwumike (2002), urban and rural poverty rates in Nigeria increased between 1992 and 1996, from about 37 per cent to 59 per cent and 46 per cent to 72 per cent for urban and rural areas respectively. The World Bank (2001) cited in Aigbokhan (2008), estimated that 70.2% of Nigerians lived on less than one dollar per day. Sectoral disaggregation of the poverty profile in the country indicated urban poverty rate of 43.1% as against rural poverty rate of 63.8% (NBS, 2005). Within rural areas approximately 44.4 percent of households in 2004 could not meet their food expenditure requirements. Another 19.4 percent could meet their food expenditure requirements, but not the minimum expenditure to cover other basic needs (NBS, 2007). Poverty is especially severe in rural areas, where up to 80 per cent of the population lives below the poverty line and social services and infrastructure

are limited. The country's poor rural women and men depend on agriculture for food and income (IFAD, 2009). All these statistics about poverty in Nigeria confirm earlier studies which suggest that poverty in Nigeria was and still is predominantly a rural phenomenon being more pronounced among rural than urban people (World Bank 1996; Canagarajah et al, 1996; Aigbokhan 1998; FOS 1999, Ogwumike 1998, 2002; Omonona, 2010).

Arising from the endemic rural problems in Nigeria, as manifested in high level of rural poverty, several attempts have been made in the past by the federal and state governments in Nigeria to develop the rural areas of the country. The efforts were agriculturally oriented because, according to Ajayi (1987), rural development is philosophically thought to be synonymous to with agricultural development. Such efforts included the Farm Settlement Schemes, the Integrated Rural Development, the Niger Agricultural scheme, the Bamenda- cross river Calabar scheme, The river Basin and Rural Development authorities, Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), the Green Revolution, the Directorate of Foods, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), and the Agricultural and rural Development Projects. The more recent strategies are the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) and national Fadama Development Project (NFDP). The NEEDS programme, according to IFAD (2009) is aimed at addressing the worsening rural poverty and protect poor rural people through access to credit and land, participation in decision-making, access to agricultural extension services, access to improved seeds and planting materials, farm inputs and tools, and traditional thrift, savings and insurance schemes.

The National Fadama Development

Project, which currently (2012) is in its third phase, is a strategy that aims to improve the living conditions and reduce poverty among the rural poor in Nigeria. This paper appraises the National Fadama Development Project II referred to henceforth as Fadama-II in this paper. It is the second phase of a national project packaged to boost agriculture production, rural infrastructure provision, and citizen participation in development. The first phase of the National Fadama Development Project (NFDP-I) also known as Fadama-I, which built on some of the successes of the Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs), was operated in the country between 1993 and 1999. However, the challenges identified in the National Fadama Development Project I (Fadama-I) led to the emergence of NFDP II (Fadama-II) which was implemented in a six-year (2004 and 2009) agenda.

The main thrust of this paper is to examine the contribution of Fadama-II project as a strategy to promote the development of rural parts of Ibarapa North local government area (LGA) of Oyo state in Nigeria. It examines the extent to which the Fadama-II project has improved the socio-economic status of rural poor in its area of operation in Ibarapa North LGA. Specifically the paper highlights the contributions of Fadama Community Associations (FCAs) in the area of infrastructure provision, the income characteristics of Fadama-II participants before and after their involvement in the project. Based on its visible overall outcome, the paper argued that Fadama-II project is a viable rural development and poverty alleviation strategy. It concluded that the project's goal of rural development was achieved in the study area and as such can be replicated and adopted as a development strategy in other rural communities in Oyo state and Nigeria. The

methodology adopted in this paper to first examine the concept of community driven development (CDD) on which Fadama-II project is anchored and a brief literature review. This is followed by a brief synopsis of Fadama II project. The third section of the paper highlights the study area, the research methodology and the findings of the research. The fourth section presents a summary and recommendations that could sustain the success recorded by the project and further the socio-economic development of the study area.

Conceptual Clarifications and Literature Review

The Concept of Community-Driven Development (CCD)

This section examines the concept on which Fadama development project is anchored. It proceeds with definitions of the terms "community" and "development" before explaining "community-driven development". The concept of community ranges from micro-systems (which include small groups, extended family units, clans, villages, neighbourhoods, or small towns) to macro systems (such as cities, countries, regions, states, nations or the entire human population) (Thomas, 1973 cited in Wahab, 2007). The term "community", according to Baquer (1983) refers to the residents of an area, as well as all those who provide services for it, with a high degree of face-to-face contact and some degree of shared values, common problems, and common resources.

The concept of development is a complicated one having technical, socio-cultural and emotional connotations and one which can be defined from spatial and environmental points of view' (Wahab, 1996). The term is used to describe the process of overcoming poverty and diseases as well as the provision of infrastructural

facilities such as bridges, hospitals, schools, electricity, and water in areas where these are lacking (Olayiwola, 1990). Lawn (2001) defines development as an evolutionary process involving the qualitative improvement in the human condition over time. Moreover, Wahab (1997) notes that the scope of development has expanded lately to include what Brown and Korten (1989:6) call "a process by which members of a society develop themselves and their institutions in ways that enhance their ability to mobilize and manage resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life consistent with their own aspirations."

In 2006, the World Bank introduced the Concept of Community-Driven Development (CDD) to promote local participation in bank-funded development projects (World Bank, 2006a). It is a strategy aimed at delivering development funds directly to communities and local level governments. The introduction of CCD aims to facilitate accountability and public participation through the reform of national government institutions and the decentralization of certain funding decisions.

The World Bank (2006c:6) conceptualizes CDD as an approach that empowers local community groups and institutions, including local government, by giving direct control to the community over planning decisions and investment resources through a process that emphasizes participatory planning and accountability. In theory, CDD helps to develop the capacity of local and traditional institutions to make decisions about and account for the disbursement of aid funds (World Bank, 2006b) aimed at facilitating socio-economic development of their areas. These groups often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers including elected

local governments, the private sectors, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and central government agencies. The CDD is, therefore, a way to provide social and infrastructure services, organize economic activity and resource management, empower poor people, improve governance, and also enhance security of the poorest (World Bank, 2003a). Community-Driven Development regards, and in fact, recognizes poor people and their institutions as assets and partners in the development process. Community-Driven Development differs from 'community-based development (CBD) which is more donor-driven than community-driven (World Bank, 2006c). The CDD paradigm is underlain by a set of ideas or reasoning (hypotheses) which include poverty alleviation, prioritizing needs, local governance, and targeting the poor and other vulnerable groups. As observed by Fidafrigue (2005), CDD empowers partnerships, encourages autonomy of decision-making and also shares responsibility and accountability.

The concept of Community-Driven Development (CDD) is, according to the World Bank (2003a, 2003b), anchored on ten key principles which must be built into the design of programmes for CDD to succeed. They are that:

- i. **Investments must be made responsive to informed demand** – people should be free to choose projects that meet their priorities and can be financed and managed over the long term.
- ii. **Participatory mechanisms must be built** – broad stakeholder participation is expected to tap into local technical and financial resources and ensures local knowledge and preferences are incorporated into project designs.

- iii. **Embedding CDD into decentralized local government structures** – links between community groups and local government must be established to ensure sustainable projects.
- iv. **Investing in capacity building at all levels** – to improve the organizational capacity of community-based organizations (CBOs) and also strengthen local governments.
- v. **Facilitating community access to information** – according to Krishna (2000), regular updating on programme contents and rules, sub-project budgets and the specific linkages with governments and markets at all levels.
- vi. **Implementing simple rules and strong incentives** – communities should be actively involved in monitoring and evaluation so as to learn from change.
- vii. **Ensuring flexibility of design** – provide for necessary review and adjustment with feedback from communities on projects performance.
- viii. **Ensuring social and gender inclusion** – groups often excluded from social, economic, and political participation (women, minority groups, remote communities, and the very poor) must be actively engaged.
- ix. **Designing for scaling up** – CDD must operate in as many communities as possible although recognizing the unique features of each and must be implemented on a large scale (national level). The most critical consideration here is to ensure that approval and disbursement processes are as decentralized as possible.

- x. **Defining a strategy for exit** – in order not to be totally dependent on external support.

The need for CDD approach to rural development stems from the long decades of inappropriate treatment of the rural poor as targets of 'top-down' efforts to reduce poverty. The CDD, however, takes a 'bottom-up' approach and treats them as partners (World Bank, 2003a) in poverty reduction efforts (World Bank, 2005). There is need for the poor to have voice, authority and influence which is embedded in CDD. There is also the need for the poor to be organized on their own so that they can negotiate with government, traders, and non-governmental organizations. It is quite imperative to directly assist the rural poor through community-driven programmes so that they can shape their own destinies. It is very expedient also that the people are organized for local ownership of funds in order to end corruption and thereby make government and NGOs accountable to them (Narayan et al, 2000). CDD provides a way of building bridges between the state and its citizens and can as well be used to strengthen social cohesion where social groups are divided (World Bank, 2006a). The benefits of CDD in service delivery span such sectors as infrastructure, education, micro-finance and natural resource management (Lam, 1998; Tang, 1992; Jimerez and Paqueo, 1996, and Adams et al., 1984).

Literature Review

Rural development generally refers to the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas (Moseley, 2003). Rural development has traditionally centred on the exploitation of land – intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry. However, changes in global production network and increase

in organisation have changed the character of rural areas. Increasingly, tourism, niche manufactures and recreation have replaced resource extraction and agriculture as dominant economic drivers (Ward and Brown, 2009). The need for rural communities to approach development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentive for agriculture or resource businesses. Education, entrepreneurship and physical infrastructure all play an important role in developing rural regions. Rural development is also characterized by its emphasis on locally produced economic development strategies (Moseley, 2003). Rural areas are quite distinctive from one another in contrast to urban regions that have many similarities, and this accounts for the different rural development approaches used globally. In developing countries like Nepal and India, integrated developments are being followed up. In the context of rural development, many approaches and ideas have been developed and followed up such as the bottom-up approach, participatory rural appraisal (PRA), rapid rural appraisal (RRA) and many others. As aptly noted by Chigbu (2012), rural development actions are mostly aimed at the social and economic development of the rural areas. Rural development programmes are usually top-down from the local or regional authorities, regional development agencies, NGOs, national governments or international development organisations. But then, local populations can also bring about endogenous initiatives for development.

The challenges and prospects of rural development in Nigeria have been of great concern to the different tiers of government due to the rate of rural-urban migration. Mabogunje (1976) observes that the disparity in amenities between rural and

urban settlements, which is due to the primacy of major urban areas, in the Third World is a major challenge to rural development. As opined by Olaneni (2004), with about 69.8% of the Nigerian poor residing in the rural areas compared with about 30.2% in the urban areas and coupled with the absence of catalytic infrastructure and intervention strategies at the rural level, the rural areas are constrained to continue operating almost below the survival level.

In highlighting the need for a strategy for rural development in view of the foregoing, Pemu (1986) notes that rural development has been a patchwork of bits and pieces with fragmentation of efforts being the keynote. He identified some of the strategies adopted for improving the standard of living of the rural inhabitants such as hierarchical markets or service centers; growth poles or centers; sectoral programmes; large-scale agricultural schemes; community development and cooperative schemes and village regroupings. Obateru (1991) also lists key strategies of rural development in the Third World to include developing agriculture and the small quantities of mineral resources available in certain localities; exploiting forest and water resources, developing outdoor recreational and tourism resources; industrial location in rural areas to retain and also attract population; small-scale industrial development; towns and rural settlements restructuring; provision of efficient transport and communication; public utilities (water, electricity) supplies as well as provision of social infrastructure such as educational and health facilities.

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) as an organisation has intervened in rural poverty reduction and economic growth by financing nine programmes and projects in different parts of Nigeria since 1985. These are: rural micro-enterprise development programme

(RUMEDP), rural finance institution-building programme (RUFIN), community-based natural resource management programme, community-based agricultural and rural development programme, and roots and tubers expansion programme. All the programmes and projects addressed the livelihood needs of poor rural people, especially small-holders farmers, women, young people, small business owners, poor fishing communities, and landless people. The main objectives of IFAD are to empower poor rural people, especially women, by increasing access to resources, infrastructure and services, and to promote the management of land, water and common property by local communities to help overcome environmental degradation (IFAD, 2009).

The Science for Global Insight (IIASA, 2005) gave six dimensions to view a sustainable rural development strategy. These include the aspects of human development; natural resources and environment; economic growth; infrastructure; science and technology; as well as the dimension of policy and administration. However, according to Olaseni (2004), there has been a paradigm shift in the theory and practice of rural development globally in recent times. This shift involves a move from:

- i. an industrial approach to technological development to an organic or holistic approach, with sustainable improvement replacing profit as the implicit objective;
- ii. a technocratic and exclusive approach to a participatory and inclusive approach to development management, and
- iii. resource control by big organizations to local resource management.

Current literature is replete with the

rationale behind the shift in paradigm in rural development planning. Many cases have been documented in the literature on different approaches and strategies adopted to achieve rural development all over the globe. For instance, the World Bank (2003), while highlighting the benefits of the Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach to rural development, records how helpful the strategy had been of the upgrading of development in Malawi, which was formerly dominated by the top-down approach of bureaucrats and experts with no community involvement in decision-making. The communities appoint people and demand accountability and transparency from Malawi Social Action Fund (MASAF), a key anti-poverty tool which has been integrated into the country's poverty alleviation programme and has helped to build over 2000 classrooms, sink boreholes, and construct numerous health centers and postal stations. Also, in Sierra Leone, the CDD approach to rural development was employed to rebuild the society after a ten-year war that devastated the country and left it without basic infrastructure. In Nigeria, according to Wahab (1997), development associations are established at both rural and urban communities with governments' encouragement, to provide for, manage and maintain their physical and socio-cultural needs. Wahab (1997) also notes that this strategy of infrastructural provision and maintenance by Community-Based organizations (CBOs) promotes meaningful physical developments in villages, towns, and cities.

Janvry and Sadoulet (1989) in their proposal of investment strategy to combat rural poverty in Latin America, observe that there cannot exist a unique approach to rural development to combat poverty, other than directing the programmes towards the

income-generating capacity of the particular portfolio of activities that characterize different categories of rural households; and they must look beyond the farm towards employment creation in rural-based non-farm activities linked to agriculture. This is very important because, according to Haggblade et al, (1989) agricultural growth, through a network of consumption and production linkages, can generate sizeable income and employment multipliers in the rural non-farm economy. This is exactly what Fadama-II project was designed to achieve in Nigerian rural communities.

Fadama-II Project: A Synopsis

'Fadama' is the traditional Hausa word for low-lying flood plains (Olutayo, 2009) or low-lying irrigable areas around valley bottom, streams and rivers. The Fadama project was formalized to promote simple and low-cost improved irrigation technology under the World Bank (African Development Fund, 2003). In the 1990's the federal government of Nigeria introduced the National Fadama Development Project under a World Bank Financing with the sole target of reducing rural poverty in the country through improved food production that would boost farmers' income and improve their living status. The programme was segmented into Fadama I, II, and III. The Fadama-II project was expected to benefit "a total of 720,000 people in 6 states" (Olutayo, 2009:72) and implemented over six years from the date of launch in January 2004 to December 2009 as an improvement on World Bank-funded National Fadama Development Project (NFDPI), otherwise called Fadama-I Project, which operated between 1993 and 1999. Fadama-II aims at reducing poverty by improving the living conditions of the rural poor and contributing to food security

and increased access to rural infrastructure (www.fadama.org.fct.html). The objectives of the project include; mitigating poverty, inclusion of local communities in public decision making, sustaining incomes of the Fadama farmers, and reducing conflicts between Fadama User Groups.

Fadama-I Project was adjudged successful, but its shortcomings such as the neglect of the downstream activities like processing, preservation, conservation, rural infrastructure and resources for livestock and fisheries production (Olutayo, 2009) identified during its implementation led to the emergence of Fadama-II project. Particularly, the NFDPI was targeted at sedentary farmers alone but various other Fadama resources users, especially the mobile farmers such as herders, fisher-folks, gatherers are incorporated into the Fadama-II project. Other shortcomings of the NFDPI include less attention paid to marketing of crops by farmers and the top-down approach adopted whereby policies were formulated and implemented without consideration for the opinions and experiences of Fadama users, while less attention was also paid to the role of women initiated to address these drawbacks and also some of the factors militating against full realization of potential benefits of agricultural production activities (OYSFDO, 2008).

Unlike NFDPI that used top-down approach, the NFDPI-II or Fadama-II project was conceived to follow a bottom-up approach to deal with their target population. This would make beneficiaries execute project decisions and plans by themselves in order to ensure sustainability, which was a major drawback of Fadama-I Project, such that immediately interventions were withdrawn, the project became abandoned projects. While the Fadama-I project focused on using a simple and low-

cost improved technology on irrigation farming and concentrated its activities in the African Development Bank (ADB)-funded northern states of Nigeria, the focus of Fadama-II Project on broad activities relating most importantly to the use of water was more robust in outlook thereby attracting more states, especially from the southern part of Nigeria. The Fadama-II Project covers eighteen states with twelve states supported by the World Bank, namely: Adamawa, Bauchi, Gombe, Federal Capital Territory, Imo, Niger, Kaduna, Kebbi, Lagos, Ogun, Oyo, and Taraba State, while the remaining six are: Borno, Jigawa, Katsina, Kogi, Kwara and Plateau States supported by the ADB. In Oyo State, only ten of the thirty-three local government areas (LGAs) participated in Fadama-II Project. These include Akinyele, Egbeda, Ona-Ara, Ido, Oyo West, Surulere, Oriire, Iwajowa, Olorunsogo LGAs and Ibarapa North Local Government Areas.

The Study Setting and Methodology

Ibarapa North Local Government Area was carved out of the former Ifelofu Local Government area of Oyo State on 1st of October, 1996. It consists of three principal towns of Ayete, the headquarters, Tapa and Igangan and several other smaller settlements. It lies between latitudes $7^{\circ}30'N$ and $7^{\circ}50'N$ and also between longitudes $3^{\circ}00'E$ and $3^{\circ}25'E$. The land cover of the area is approximately 1,218 square kilometers. It is bounded in the north by Iwajowa and Iseyin Local Government areas, in the east and south by Ibarapa East and Central Local Government areas respectively, and in the west by Ogun State (see Fig. 1).

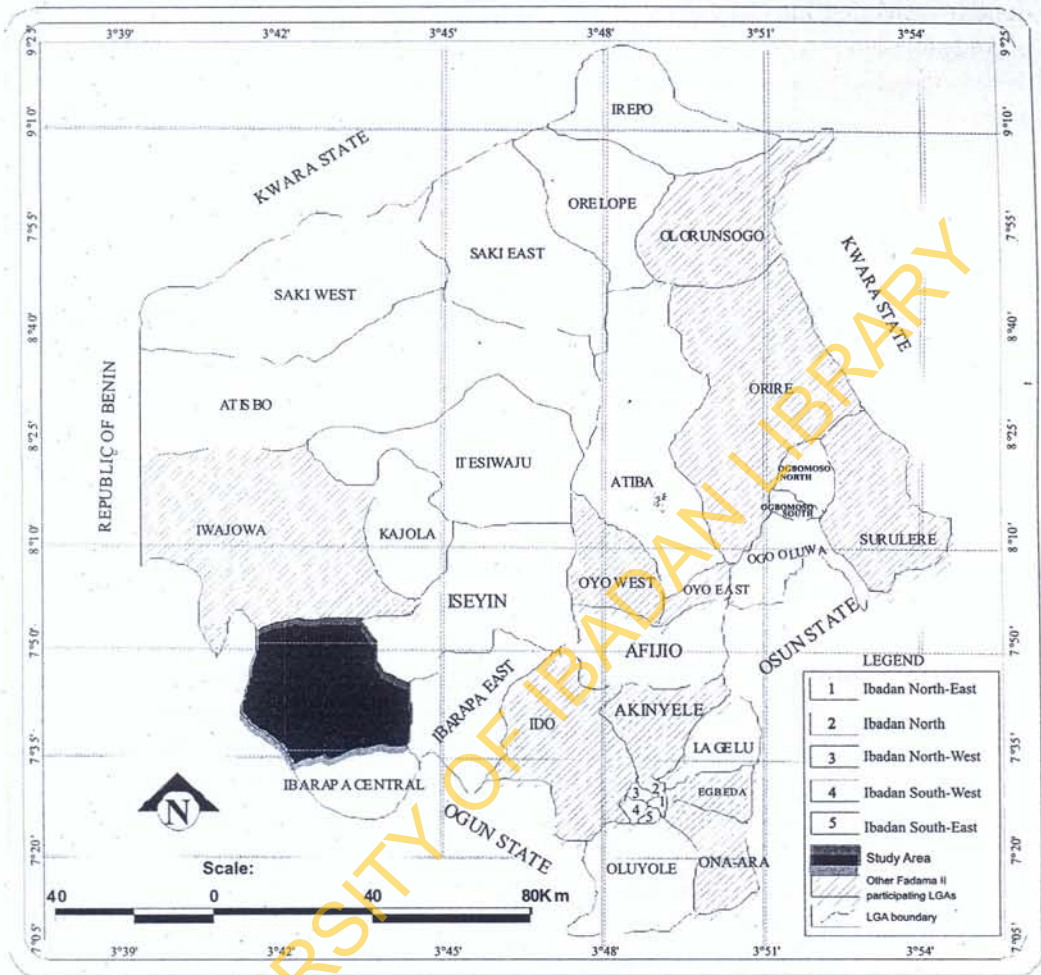
The study area is a region of undulating land dotted extensively with hills, ridges, inselbergs and rock outcrops of varying heights with pockets of low-lying plains

running into valleys. These outcrops had served as natural fortification and immunity from external attacks in those days of frequent internecine wars. The major river is River Ofiki which flows southwards from the Oke-Ogun area of Oyo State through the study area. The annual rainfall for the area is between 1500mm and 2000mm and the relative humidity is over 80% in the morning and falls between 50% and 70% in the afternoon. The mean annual temperature is about $27^{\circ}C$ while the area is characterized with an annual temperature range of $8^{\circ}C$ (Iloje, 1981).

The area has a population of 101,092 comprising of 51,410 (50.9%) males and 49,682 (49.9%) females according to the 2006 census figures released by the National Population Commission. This figure implies a population density of about 83 persons per square kilometer. The population figure includes a high majority of the Yorubas who are indigenous to the area as well as proportionally small ethnic groups such as the Fulanis/Bororos, Hausas, Igbos and some foreign nationals from the near-by Republics of Benin and Togo among others. These are people who find the area conducive in terms of availability of markets, on-farm labour, and fertile land for both cultivation and for grazing animals.

Majority of the people are engaged in agriculture with over 50% living more or less permanently in the surrounding villages. Other occupations include traditional craft practices such as blacksmithing, basket/textile-weaving, woodwork, and other local crafts. A large number of the people are engaged in trading and transporting while the bulk of elite population in the area are engaged in teaching and the civil service as well as those employed by private firms.

Figure 1: Ibarapa North Local Government Area in the Context of Oyo State



Source: Ministry of Lands and Survey, Ibadan, 2009

Methodology

The case study approach was adopted in this study and both primary and secondary data were used. The primary information was obtained from questionnaire administration conducted in 2009 while secondary data were collected available literature and from the Local Fadama Development Unit in the Department of Agriculture of the Ibarapa North Local Government Area. For the primary data, the research adopted the Fadama project stratification of communities into Fadama

User Groups (FUGs) which gave a total of 86 FUGs for the study area. There are 15 members per FUG. Questionnaire was then administered on 258 (20%) of 1,290 members that formed 86 Fadama User Groups (FUGs) found in the three principal towns of Ayete, Tapa and Igangan and twenty-two villages in the study area (see Table 1). Using simple random sampling method, 3 out of 15 members (20%) from each of the 86 FUGs that benefited from Fadama project were administered with questionnaire during one of the bi-monthly

meetings of each of the FUGs. This was done by selecting the three members who picked slip numbers 1, 2 and 3 respectively from a basket of slips numbered 1 to 15. For data analysis, both descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used.

Table 1: Sample Frame and Sample Size

Locality	No. of FUGs	FUGs Membership	20% Membership Sampled
Ayete	34	510	102
Tapa	22	330	66
Igangan	30	450	90
Total	86	1290	258

Source: Field Returns, 2009.

Research Findings

The socio-economic profile of the respondents as found during the survey is presented in the following paragraphs. The age structure shows that 131 (50.8%) of the respondents fell within the active population class of 20-39 years of age; 76 (29.5%) were 40-59 years, 39 (15.1%) were above 60 years, while only 12 (4.7%) were under 20 years. There were 151 (58.5%) male and 107 (41.5%) female respondents. Majority, 94 (36.4%), of the respondents attended secondary schools, 37 (14.3%) had primary education, while those who had technical and tertiary education were 47 (18.2%) and 31 (12.0%) respectively. Those without formal education were 49 (19.0%).

Since most of the respondents were literate, it was not difficult for them to understand the Fadama farming technique and requirements. This contributed to the successful implementation of Fadama-II Project in the area.

The occupation of respondents before joining Fadama-Project showed that 87 (33.7%) of them (respondents) were traders in agricultural products, 74 (28.7%) were arable farmers while 67 (26.0%) were civil servants. Artisans (welders) and commercial drivers were 12 (4.7%) each, while only 6 (2.3%) were medical practitioners. From the above observation, it could be inferred that about a third of the respondents were knowledgeable to undertake farming activities under Fadama-II Project.

The survey also revealed that the respondents undertook eight major economic activities under the Fadama-II projects with 69 (26.7%) of them (respondents) engaged in crop production (Plate 1), 75 (29.1%) in livestock farming (Plate 2), and 66 (25.6%) engaged in agro-processing such as cassava flour processing (Plate 3). Other activities included fish farming with 30 (11.6%) participants, wood/leaves gathering and bee-keeping activities which engaged 6 (2.3%) participants each, and hunting and trading which engaged 3 (1.2%) respondents each.

Plate 1: A Radish farm on Fadama land



Source: Field Returns, 2009.

Plate 2: Grazing on Fadama land along River Ofiki



Source: Field Returns, 2009.

Plate 3: Cassava Flour Processing



Source: Field Returns, 2009

Income Characteristics Before and after Involvement in Fadama-II Projects

Concerning the income of respondents before and after their involvement in Fadama-II project, the survey found that majority, 61 (23.6%), of the respondents were in the income group of between N200,000 and N249,000 per annum before

participating in Fadama-II Project as shown in Table 2. However, the number of respondents in this group increased by 4.3% to 72 (27.9%) indicating an upward movement in economic status of income due to increase in income after engaging in the project. Those respondents in the income group of N150,000 to N199,999

were 51 (19.8%) before taking part and their number also increased to 58 (22.5%) after participating in Fadama-II Projects indicating an upward movement of at least seven participants from the lower income category post-Fadama project. The same goes for the highest income group of N250,000 and above which initially had 32 (12.4%) respondents in the group before engaging in Fadama-II Project. Their number increased by 25 (9.7%) to give a new total 57 (22.1%) as a result of their participation in Fadama II project. This is also illustrated in Figure 1. Expectedly, the number of respondents in the lower income groups decreased after participating in the Fadama-II Project. As such, Table 3 also shows that the number of respondents in income group of N100,000 – N149,999 which was 44 (17.1%) before taking part in Fadama-II Project decreased to 28 (10.9%) respondents after taking part. Also, respondents who earned N50,000 – N99,999 decreased from 45 (17.4%) to 24 (9.3%) while those who earned below N50,000 decreased from 25 (9.7) to 19 (7.4%).

Table 2: Composite comparison of average income before and after participating in Fadama-II Project

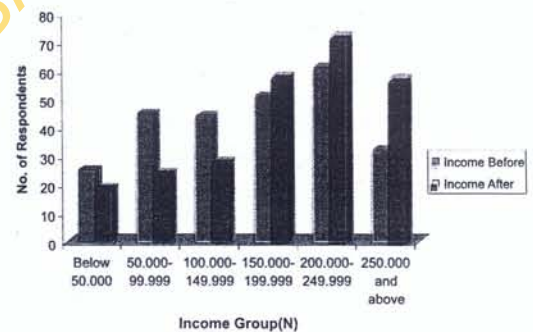
Income Group	Income Before Participation		Income After Participation	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Below □50,000	25	9.7%	19	7.4%
□50,000-□99,999	45	17.4%	24	9.3%
□100,000-□149,999	44	17.1%	28	10.9%
□150,000-□199,999	51	19.8%	58	22.5%
□200,000-□249,999	61	23.6%	72	27.9%
□250,000 above	32	12.4%	57	22.1%
Total	258	100.0%	258	100.0%

Source: Field Survey, 2009

As also illustrated in Figure 1, the result indicates a reduction in the number of respondents who claimed they received less than □150,000 as average income before participation from 144 (44.2%) to only 71

(27.6%) respondents after taking part in Fadama-II projects. Those who earned above □150,000 increased from 144 (55.8%) respondents before participation to 187 (72.5%) after partaking in Fadama-II projects. These findings indicate an upward movement of Fadama participants from the lower income cadres to the higher category of income groups. It also explains an increase in the number of respondents in the highest income group of □250,000 and above from 32 (12.4%) before taking part to 57 (22.1%) after participating. These results imply and confirm that the Fadama-II project has impacted positively on the income of the participants in the study area.

Figure 2: Average Annual Income before and after Participating in Fadama-II Project



Fadama Community Associations and Infrastructural Provision

The Fadama Community Association (FCA) is an apex organization of Fadama Users Groups/ Economic Interest Groups (EIGs) which derive their livelihood from the shared natural resources of the Fadama. The FCAs are required to provide 10% of the cost of infrastructure specified as priorities in their Local Development Plans (LDPs) and also cross FCA projects, while the Fadama-II project provides the matching grant of 90%. However, the Ibarapa North local government council paid this 10%

basic requirement for rural infrastructure which provision was considered as the Council's major responsibility. The study found that out of the 73 sub-projects proposed by the FCAs under the rural infrastructure component of Fadama-II project, 35 were approved for financing and were also executed by the FCAs. Those infrastructure provided by the FCAs are listed in Table 3. This is confirmed by 222 (86.0%) of the respondents who indicated that they contributed to the provision of 17 boreholes in 15 localities. About 51 (19.8%) of the respondents also provided 2 blocks of lock-up shops (a 5-room block of lock-up shops located at Oke-Ogun market, Ayete and a 4-room block of lock-up shops at Oyee market, Tapa). Also, 36 (14.0%) of the respondents provided a block of 18 open

market stalls at Egbeomo, in Igangan, 18 (7.0%) undertook the rehabilitation/reconstruction of a 3.5km open market road, 39 (14.7%) provided 4 VIP toilets with two compartments each, three of which were located within Ayete town (Plate 4) and the remaining one in Abidioki, in Igangan. Culverts were provided by 108 (49.9%) of the respondents (Plate 5), while 21 (8.1%) took part in providing a veterinary clinic and an open well provided by Agbegbemi FCA. These infrastructural facilities have, according to members of the beneficiary communities, improved their socio-economic well-being, aided them in their production, distribution and consumption activities, enhanced their quality of life and reduced the burden associated with lack of basic facilities.

Table 3: Respondents' contributions to infrastructural provision and their locations

S/No.	Rural Infrastructure	Respondents that contributed		Respondents that did not contribute		Locations			
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Ayete	Tapa	Igangan	Total
1	Boreholes	222	86.0	36	14.0	8	5	4	17
2	Lock-up shops	51	19.8	207	80.2	1	1	-	2
3	Open market stalls	36	14.0	222	86.0	-	-	1	1
4	Road rehabilitation	18	7.0	240	93.0	-	1	-	1
5	VIP Toilet	39	14.7	219	85.3	3	-	1	4
6	Culverts	108	41.9	150	58.1	2	1	3	6
7	Veterinary Clinic	21	8.1	237	91.9	1	-	-	1
8	Open Well	21	8.1	237	91.9	1	-	-	1
Total						16	8	9	33

Source: Field Returns, 2009

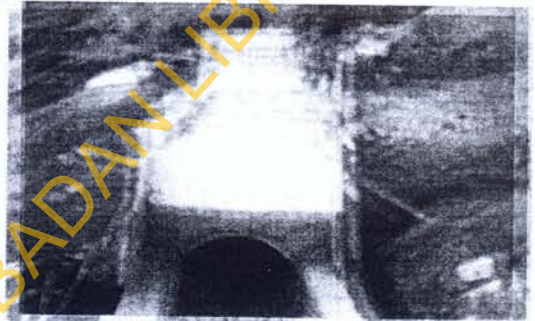
The above findings are similar to what Olutayo (2009) reported in his study of Oore-Ofe Ajibode Fadama Community Association (OOFCA) in Akinyele local government area, Ibadan, Oyo state. The OOFCA vegetable growers were reported to have benefitted from the local government coordinated Fadama project as they bought three pumping machines to reduce time

spent in fetching water at home, cutlasses, rakes and other equipment relevant to their occupation. They also built culverts to assist in reducing cost of road transportation of their vegetables to the markets outside the communities. The widows association bought sewing machines and refrigerators to fend for themselves.

Plate 4: A VIP Toilet at Iki area, Ayete Provided by Eyitayo FCA



Plate 5: A Box Culvert along Konkko Road Provided by Asejere FCA



Source of Plates 4 & 5: Field Returns, 2009

Summary

The study revealed that majority (58.8%) of the respondents fell within the very active population age group of 20-39 years. In addition, the Fadama-II project is gender-sensitive as indicated by 41.5% of female respondents in the study area. The high literacy level of the Fadama User Groups also contributed meaningfully to the successful implementation of the projects as 81% of the respondents had the minimum primary education. Before joining Fadama-II projects, most (33.7%) of the respondents were traders in agricultural products or manufactured items followed by arable farmers (28.7%), but a significant number were civil servants. Members of the FDAs engaged in eight different economic activities during Fadama-II programme. These included crop farming, livestock farming, agro-processing, fish farming, hunting, and gathering, others are bee

keeping, and trading with more people in livestock farming than in any other activity.

There was also a remarkable increase in income due to the intervention of Fadama-II Project as about 33.0% indicated that they earned an average annual income of less than ₦50,000.00, about 29.5% earned ₦200,000.00 or more average income per annum. When compared with their income after partaking in the Fadama-II projects, there was an increase in income levels as evidenced by more than half (56.6%) of the respondents who indicated they earned an average annual income of ₦200,000.00 or more. There had also, been a drastic reduction in the proportion of people in the low-income class after having participated in Fadama-II project from 33.0% to 7.0%. The result of the *paired samples t-test* gave a *t* value of -4.067 at 257 degrees of freedom while the probability of occurring by chance is 0.000 which is lower at 0.05 level of

significance (95% confidence level). The result confirms that there was a significant difference between the income of the participants before and after participation in the Fadama-II project.

The Fadama Community Associations (FCAs) provided about 33 rural infrastructural projects consisting 17 boreholes, 6 box culverts, 4 VIP toilets, 2 blocks of lock-up shops, 1 block of 18-room open market stalls, 1 each of veterinary clinic and open well, as well as, the rehabilitation of a 3.5km road at Oyee market, Tapa. The benefits of these rural infrastructures accrued generally to the entire populace but particularly to the local people where such were located as shown by the result.

Recommendations

Having established the fact that socio-economic status of the respondents in the study area had improved due to their active involvement in Fadama-II projects which also facilitated the provision of some basic rural infrastructures, the following recommendations are presented to sustain the socio-economic gains and development recorded.

Public enlightenment and political education should be heightened to increase rural peoples' awareness about the objectives, benefits and operationalisation of Fadama development projects especially the people's rights under it. It is hoped that this measure shall increase the number of participants in National Fadama Development Project (NFDP) across Nigeria. In addition, the political enlightenment could encourage further participation of rural people in decision-making to guard against mismanagement of project grants and similar public funds, personnel and materials before, during, and after implementation of subsequent phases of the NFDP.

Furthermore, the Fadama-II project should expand its target and geographical scope to other non-beneficiaries within the study area in order to harness and scale-up the benefits of the project to the area. This is highly essential in order to achieve one major objective of the project which was to sustainably improve the Fadama farmers' income and raise the standard of living in all the Fadama farming communities in the study area.

As a result of encroachments into adjoining Fadama lands through spatial growth of towns and cities by non-farm activities such as house construction, block-making industries, car-washing and a host of others, many Fadama farmers have been deprived of the limited cultivable wetlands. Consequently, the NFDP, through its Local Fadama Desk Offices should identify such wetlands and liaise with the local governments under their jurisdiction to secure such lands for intensive Fadama cultivation and related uses.

Active participation of local people in the planning and implementation of NFDP is germane to its success; therefore, adequate knowledge of the local environment should be sought. Familiarity with rural people's indigenous knowledge systems could assist experts to understand the local people and consequently, facilitate effective communication thereby promoting public participation for sustainable development.

Local politics should be avoided in the registration of participants, funding of groups and allied activities. Rather, the ability of would-be participants to meet up with stipulated guidelines should be the major consideration.

Continuity should be ensured in the implementation of policies aimed at developing the rural areas. It is, therefore, recommended that the NFDP should ensure a very short period of interregnum between

one phase of the project and another such that there is no period of inactivity by participants. This will ensure complete commitment, credibility, and continuity.

The NFDLP's incursion into rural infrastructural provision should incorporate and establish a physical planning department or unit in the project to coordinate various developmental activities taking place from time to time under the project in order to 'translate projected growth into spatial requirements' (Wahab, 2008:319) and thereby averting unplanned and uncontrollable growth and development of rural settlements. Kadiri (1998) suggested that for purposeful development of the rural areas, there must be conscious planning of the areas. The NFDLP should, therefore, employ urban and regional planners to prepare development plans, monitor physical development, conduct environmental and social impact assessment of Fadama projects and offer necessary environmental education and awareness to the rural folks. This is recommended as a major component of subsequent phases of the NFDLP.

Conclusion

The National Fadama Development Project (NFDLP) phase II implemented in Nigeria between 2004 and 2009 was the second phase of a national project packaged to boost agriculture production, rural infrastructure provision, and citizen participation in development. It adopted. The project demonstrated an open attitude and willingness of government authorities to share influence and power with citizens using the Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach to rural development. Based on its visible overall outcome, the paper argued that Fadama-II project is a viable rural development and poverty alleviation strategy. The project has improved the socio-economic status of not

only the 1290 members of the Fadama User Groups, but many non-participating rural poor in the project's communities of operation in LGA. It concluded that the project's goal of rural development was achieved in Ibarapa North local government area and as such can and should be replicated and adopted as a development strategy in other rural communities in Oyo state and Nigeria. The continued application of this approach to concrete policy processes will help in managing the expectations of rural stakeholders to achieve sustainable rural development.

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