TRANSFORMING AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN NIGERIA: A STUDY OF THE WORLD BANK ASSISTED AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES (ADPS) IN KOGI STATE

1Ajibade David, 2Ocheni Mercy Mabe and 3Adefemi Adekunle

1Department of Sociology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Kogi State University Anyigba, Nigeria
2Department of Political Science, Kogi State University, P.M.B 1008, Anyigba, Nigeria
3Department of Marketing, Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria

ABSTRACT
Despite the huge sum of money been committed by the World Bank to the agricultural production in Nigeria, the agricultural sector of the Nigerian economy has continued to perform poorly and currently about 65 percent of the country’s population—roughly 91 million people—are what United Nation International Children Emergency Fund, UNICEF called food insecure. This situation thus raised question as to the efficacy of the World Bank assisted ADPs which was established in the belief that such project will radically transform agriculture and increase country’s food production. The problem is much more confounded when one realizes that the farmers in most parts of Kogi State still engaging in primitive and traditional methods of agricultural production. This, however, gives impetus to this study with the specific objectives of investigating the efforts of the state ADPs office at enhancing the agricultural practices of farmers in the state, examining the impact of such efforts, identifying the challenges confronting ADPs in Kogi State, as well as investigating the constraints confronting farmers’ access to the state ADPs. A total of fifty staff of the State ADPs were selected using proportionate stratified random sampling techniques. Ninety farmers were also chosen using simple random sampling technique from the six farmers’ associations identified in the study area. Data were collected through the use of questionnaire and oral interviews. Data collected through questionnaire were analysed using descriptive techniques such as frequency counts and percentage while the data obtained through oral interviews were first of all summarized and then content analyzed. Finding shows that the ADPs has brought about an improvement in the agricultural practices of farmers in spite of the challenges such as shortage of qualified staff, inadequate serviceable vehicles/equipment, etc confronting the ADPs in the state. Based on these findings, the study concludes with a set of recommendations application of which will help to improve agricultural production in Kogi State.

Keywords: Agricultural development, Rural communities, Mechanized system, Agricultural Production, Kogi State.
INTRODUCTION

Agriculture has been the backbone of the economy in Nigeria; providing employment and source of livelihood for the increasing population. It accounted for over half of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the Nigerian economy at independence in 1960 (Balogun, 2000; Olagunju, 2007). However, the role it plays in the regional and economic development of the country has diminished over the years due to the dominant role of crude oil sector in the economy and in the Gross Domestic Product aggregate share. Inspite of this, the sector still accounts for about 40 percent of GDP and provides employment, both formal and informal, for about 60 percent of Nigerians (144million people)(Aigbokhan, 2001; Onyeahialam, 2002; Olagunju, 2007; National Agricultural Economy and Policy Report, 2009; Odoemela, 2011).

To fully revitalize agricultural production in Nigeria, the Federal Government established series of agricultural policies. These policies include the National Accelerated Food Production Programme; Operation Feed the Nation; Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme; River Basin Development Authorities; The Green Revolution; National Agricultural Land Development Authority (Aigbokhan, 2001; Akande, 2006). The World Bank assisted Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs) was also launched in 1972 (Balogun, 2000; Okeke, 2000) to improve the traditional systems of production and raise the productivity, income and standard of living of small-scale farmers who provide over 90 percent of gross domestic food supplies (Olayemi, 1980; Ayichi, 1995; Obasi, 1995). The success of the pilot schemes launched in northern Nigeria in the enclave areas of Funtua, Guzau and Gombe led to the expansion nationwide in 1984 (Fasoranti, 2006; Auta and Dafwang, 2010).

Kogi State is one of the States where the World Bank assisted Agricultural Development Programme was also launched. The Kogi State ADPs was established in 1991 under Edict No 12, following the creation of states and the bifurcation of the parent ADPs of Kwara and Benue States. The major functions of the State ADPs include (i) provision of extension services to the farming populace to enhance increased income from higher productivity (ii) makes agricultural inputs available to farmers at reasonable prices (iii) provision of rural infrastructures such as rural feeder roads, processing structures, portable water (iv) linking farmers to agricultural credit sources. In order to discharge its functions, the state ADPs operates through six (6) specialized sub-programmes. The programmes are (i) agricultural services sub programme (ii) planning, monitoring and evaluation (iii) rural institutional development (iv) engineering services (v) finance sub programme, and (vi) administration sub programme. Based on the forgone, the essence of this paper is to examine the impact of the World Bank assisted ADPs in the transformation of the Agricultural production in Kogi State. This study is expected to provide some ideas on ways of improving agricultural production in Kogi State as well as making an important empirical contribution to literature on Agricultural Development in Nigeria as a whole.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Since 1974, the World Bank has committed over $1.2 billion to the Agricultural Development Projects in Nigeria (The World Bank Group, 2011) and huge sum of money is also being allocated by the Federal and State Governments to the Agricultural sector in each year’s budget. Despite this, the agricultural sector of the Nigerian economy has continued to perform below expectation (Chukwuemeka and Nzewi, 2011). This situation thus raised question as to the effectiveness of the World Bank assisted ADPs which was established in the belief that such project will radically transform agriculture and increase country’s food production. The problem is much more confounding when one realizes that the
farmers in most parts of Kogi State in particular still engaging in primitive and traditional methods of agricultural production. This, however, gives impetus to this study with the specific objectives of (i) investigating the efforts of the State ADP office at enhancing the agricultural practices of farmers in the state (ii) examining the impact of such efforts, (iii) identifying the challenges confronting ADPs in Kogi State, and (iv) investigating the constraints confronting farmer’s access to state ADPs.

LITERATURE REVIEW:

Agricultural Development in Nigeria

The concept of agricultural development has been defined by different scholars such as Olayemi (1980); Okpanachi (2004); Dakara (2004); etc. For instance, Olayemi (1980) defines Agricultural Development as an improvement in the traditional system of production in order to raise productivity in the agricultural sector of the economy for improved income and standard of living of the small-scale farmers. In others words, agricultural development is the creation of enabling environment for the small-holder farmer to produce efficiency. To Okpanachi (2004), Agricultural Development is a reduction in poverty, rural transformation, employment generation, food security and improved national health profile of the citizenry. Dakara (2004) sees Agricultural Development as a continuous and systematic attempt to utilize the agricultural resources of a nation in order to benefit agricultural workers and the general populace. He held that agricultural development is synonymous with rural transformation process that is structural change in an economy from subsistence agriculture to investment dominated agriculture. From the forgoing, it can be seen that the concept of agricultural development described the sheer act of transforming the crude methods of agricultural production to a modernized or mechanized system in order to boost large scale production in the agrarian sector.

The development of the agricultural sector has a significant role to play in the transformation and structuring of the economy of Nigeria and other economies where the majority of the labour force is primarily dependent on agriculture (Olagunju, 2007). Nwaobi (1990) state that the Nigeria agricultural sector is characterized with low farm incomes, low company level in meeting the food and cash crop needs and requirements of the country and primitive methods and techniques of production, resulting in low production output and high poverty incident among the rural agrarian populace. Aigbokhan (2001) in an analysis highlighted that the colonial government in Nigeria recognized the potential of agriculture in propelling the Nigerian economic and regional development, thus put in place policies to encourage output growth in the sector. In terms of contribution to the national GDP, agriculture was a leading sector in the 1950s and 1960s, accounting for 63 percent of the GDP in the period 1960 to 1964 with the share of food imports in the country’s total import low during the period, to about 9.6 percent (Aigbokhan, 2001).

However, there was a sharp decline in the share of the sectors contribution to national GDP from the 1970s reducing from 54percent in 1969 to 33percent in 1974 which was also the period that marked the watershed in Nigerian economic history through the 1973/74 crude oil price stocks (Aigbokhan, 2001). Comparing the contribution of agriculture and crude oil to National GDP between 1981-2003, Balogun (2001) and Aigbokhan, (2001) found that agricultural exports accounted for 86 percent of the total export in the 1955 to 1959 period, it declined to 26percent in the period 1970 to 1974. The contribution according to the scholars decreased further to 5.7percent in the period 1975 to 1979; 2.7percent in 1980-1984; 5.6percent in 1985 to 1989 and nose-diving to the lowest in 1990- 1994 accounting for only 1.8percent before increasing back to 8.6 percent in the period 1994 to 1998.
The foregoing provides the need for restructuring of the agricultural sector towards increasing its aggregate contribution to the national GDP and economic development of the country. This thus requires the development and application of agricultural techniques, dissemination and adoption of appropriate technologies by farms households in boosting production output and formulation and implementation of appropriate policies that will enhance increase in productivity at the farm household level (Olagunju, 2007).

**Major Agricultural Policies in Nigeria**

In order to boost agricultural development in Nigeria, the Federal Government established series of Agricultural Development Programmes and policies based on the premise that only combined efforts applied almost simultaneously can reduce the problem of low productivity of farmers due largely to limited access to credit, lack of improved inputs and technologies (Olagunju, 2007).

**Table 1: Major Agricultural Policies in Nigeria.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agricultural Policy</th>
<th>Year of Introduction</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Acceleration Food Production Programme</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>To increase local production of food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation Feed the Nation</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>To mobilize the nation towards self reliance and sufficiency in food production Encourage general pride in agriculture as a viable and profitable industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Revolution</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>To increase local production of food towards national food security Increase agro-allied industry operations in the country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abolition of import duties on fishing vessels, agricultural machinery and equipments</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>To provide easy access to cheaper agricultural production inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment of the Nigerian agricultural and cooperative bank</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>To provide credit and loan facilities for agricultural development Provision of low interest rate loans to farmers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The agricultural credit guarantee scheme</td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>Provision of loans to farmers through banks Provision of guarantee for loans provided by commercial and merchant banks to the agricultural sector. To increase level of bank credit to the agricultural sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing Agricultural Loans in the banking sector from 60 to 80 percent</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>To increase commercial and merchant bank participation in the agricultural sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Back to Land Programme</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>To increase local food production in the country To encourage participation of the younger labour force in agricultural production activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First and Second National Fadama Development programme</td>
<td>1999 &amp; 2004</td>
<td>To sustainably increase the income of fadama users</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


While all the policies have good objectives with the potential of solving the problems in the agricultural sector, many of the policies were not implemented while the few ones being implemented were only aborted at a period when the policies were about bearing positive results (Angbokhan, 2001; Olagunju, 2007). Majority of the programmes also started as a means of siphoning government funds into private account and this also affected the positive implementation of these policies. (Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission ICPC, 2007). Other problems in Nigeria as identified by scholars such as Agbonifo (1980); Ezeh (2007); Auta and Dafwang (2010); Daneji (2011);
Fasoranti (2006); Chukwuemeka and Nzewi (2011); include non availability of inputs, cost of establishing and running the project, inadequate skilled manpower, inadequate agricultural inputs, inadequate extension services, poor condition of feeder roads, etc.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK:

Modernization Theory

Modernization theory is a theory of social change and it has several variants. The general overview and specific propositions of a few of modernization theory are hereby discussed. Modernization theory is concerned with economic change and industrialization. Black (1972) explains it as a process by which pre-industrial societies becomes industrialized. Others scholars such as Levy (1967) and Smelser (1963) were contended with painting a “before and after” picture, contrasting a set of characteristic associated with pre-industrial societies with the corresponding set that evolve in those that are highly industrialized. The definition of modernization is many but is often in term of economic development. For instance, Moore (1963) regards the concept as a total transformation of traditional or pre-modern society into the types of technology and associated social organization that characterize the advanced, economically stable nations of the world. It is clear from Moore’s definition that the general characteristics of the traditional or pre-modern societies can be identified and that a transition to modernity can be effected in the hitherto pre-modern society.

Smelser (1963) focuses more on the idea of differentiation. His ideas have influenced a number of modernization theorists, in particular Bella (1964) who defines evolution in terms of differentiation as a process of increasing differentiation and complexity of organization which endows the organism, social system or whatever unit in question with greater capacity to adapt to its environments so that it is in some sense, more autonomous, relatives to its less complex ancestors. Smelser (1963) points out that developed economy and society are characterized by a highly differentiated structure and an underdeveloped one is relatively lacking in differentiation, hence change centre on differentiation itself. By ‘differentiation’ he refer to the evolution from a multifunctional role to several more specialized structure. The structural differentiation that occurs in a developed country raises the problem of integration in the Durkheimian stance. New integrative mechanism which themselves result from differentiation arise. Unfortunately, these integrative mechanisms do not always keep pace with rapid differentiation that is occurring and this result in disturbances. Smelser identifies the following sources of disturbances:

i. Uneven structural changes during modernization process, providing anomies (in Durkheimian stance of degradation-- the old role no longer holds)
ii. New activities and norms often conflict with old ones (causing socio-economic conflict).
iii. Attempt of central governments often to meet with resistance from the traditional power sources whose positions are threatened. He emphasized that in a developing economy, the government should be modernization agent and that there should be increasing central control during modernization.

Smelser’s model is not concerned with isolating economic determinants but rather with describing the social transformation that accompany economic development which he defines as the growth of output per head of a population. He contends that economic development takes place through:

a. Modernization of technology leading from simple, traditionalized technique to the application of scientific knowledge.
b. The commercialization of agriculture which is characterized by the move from subsistence to commercial farming leading to wage labour.
c. The industrial process which depicts the power.
d. Urbanization which consist of changes in the ecological dimensions and the movement from farm and village to large urban centres.

Levy (1967) on the other hand, provides an extensive checklist of correlates of modernization. He regards any society as modernized if the rate of inanimate power source and the extent to which human efforts are multiplied by the use of tools are greater. On the basis of this, he distinguished between

a) relatively modernized societies
b) relatively non-modernized societies.

The crucial thing in Levy’s checklist which is based on the above distinction is the degree to which a given set of characteristics is widely accepted by the people in a given society. Levy holds that all relatively non-modernized societies are non-alike than the relatively modernized societies. Hence the variation in the societal types is reduced in modernization as all societies come to resemble one another. He finally concludes that all modernizing societies must progress through stages experienced by the relatively modern societies during its period of modernization.

Hoselitz (1960) like Smelser and Levy conceptualized a transition from traditional to a modern society but emphasized that this entails a shift from “traditional pattern variables”. Borrowing from the Parsonian variables, Hoselitz argues that modernization should involve structural shift from structurally diffuse economic roles that ignore the status or category of persons with whom one interacts. He conceptualized these transformations as taking place through differentiation described by Smelser. The presence or absence of structural elements and indices constructed to measure the degree of modernization attained is then used to explain the variations in development of nations.

All the perspectives discussed above have a common notion that modernization involves transformation from the traditional to the modern societies ignoring the variations in the level of “traditionalism” and “pre-modernity” of societies involved. Eisenstadt (1970) however tries to circumvent this short coming by distinguishing different processes by which modernization might be initiated. He argues that the process of modernization may take off from tribal groups, from caste societies, from different types and degrees of priority urbanization. These groups may vary greatly in the extent to which they have the resources and abilities necessary for modernization. They may differ in their capacity to regulate the more complex relationships between different parts of the society which are attendant on social differentiation in the extent to which they are willing or are able to become integrated into new wider social framework. He further points out that the impetus for development can take different forms but more usually, in developing societies, it has been the result of various external forces such as colonial expansion and the spread of technical innovations or cultural development and the problems encountered are significantly influenced by the policies and strategies adopted by the more active elites of the society who have a major role to play in the “institutionalization of modernization”.

**Material and Methods**

This study was carried out in Kogi State. The state is popularly called the confluence state because the confluence of River Niger and River Benue is at its capital, Lokoja, which is the first administrative capital of modern day Nigeria. There are three main ethnic groups and language in Kogi State and these are Igala, Ebira, and Okun(part of Yoruba) with other minorities like Bassa, a small fraction of Nupe mainly in Lokoja, the Ogugu sub-group of the Igala, Gwari, Kakanda, and Ogori Magongo. Kogi State contains 21 of Nigeria’s 774 Local Government Areas. As regards methodology adopted in the study, Kogi State Agricultural Development Projects was stratified into four zones namely Aiyetoro-Gbede (zone A), Anyigba (zone B), Kotonkarfi (zone C), and Aloma (zone D) with headquarters at Lokoja, the
state capital. Three zones were purposively chosen for the study to represent the three senatorial districts of the state and these are Ayetoro-Gbede (zone A) representing Kogi west; Anyigba (zone B) representing Kogi east; and Kotokarfi (zone C) representing Kogi central. The study population consists of the staff of the State ADPs, as well as members of farmers’ association in the selected zones. As regard selection of sample, multi-stage sampling approach was adopted. The first stage involves selection of sample from the staff of the Agricultural Development Programmes, while the second stage involved selection of sample of members of farmers’ association in each of the three zones chosen. As regard the first stage, a total of fifty (50) ADPs staff were chosen using proportionate stratified random sampling technique. To select sample of members of farmers association, all the farmer associations in the selected zones were first of all identified and they all numbered six (6) and all were purposely used in the study. From each of the association, a total of fifteen (15) farmers were selected using simple random sampling technique to give a total of 90. Data for the study were collected through triangulation of methods. This was necessary because some of the issues raised in the objectives of the study demanded a different approach. The methods used are questionnaire and oral interviews. Data collected through questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive technique such as frequency counts and percentage, while the data obtained through oral interviews were summarized and then content analysed.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Social characteristics of the Respondents

The discussion on the social characteristics of the respondents here relates to that of the staff of the Kogi State Agricultural Development Projects. The information on the background characteristics of the farmers was not obtained in order to ensure their anonymity.
### Table 2: Social Characteristics of the Respondents (N = 50)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Age (Year)</td>
<td>&lt;18</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23-27</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28-32</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33-37</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38-42</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43-47</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;47</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious Affiliation</td>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level</td>
<td>No formal education</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tertiary education</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 2 revealed the social characteristics of the respondents. From the table, majority (60.0 percent) of the respondents were male, while the remaining (40.0 percent) were female. Current age of the respondents shows that 48.0 percent were between age 33-37 years, 12.0 percent were between age 28-32 and 43-47 years, while 8.0 percent were between age 18-22 and 38-42 years respectively. The implication of this result is that most of the respondents are in their economically active age. Marital status of the respondents shows that a little more than half (52.0 percent) are married, about 12.0 percent have lost their partners to death (widowed), 8.0 percent were divorced, while 4.0 percent are yet to marry. The high proportion of the married respondents is an indication that majority of the respondent are matured. Respondents’ religious affiliation shows that majority (60.0 percent) are Muslim, about 32.0 percent are Christian, while the remaining 8.0 percent belong to various traditional religions. Educational level of the respondents shows that majority (78.0 percent) had tertiary education certificate, and the remaining 22.0 percent had secondary school certificate. A situation where more than half of the respondents had tertiary education certificate is an indication of the high premium placed on tertiary education by the management of the state ADPs, as education in general and tertiary education in particular broadens the horizon of knowledge and enables the recipients to effectively and efficiently harness environmental resources.
Figure 2: Efforts of the ADPs Office at Enhancing Agricultural Practices of Farmers in the Selected Zones  
Source: Field Survey, 2011

Figure 2 revealed the efforts of the state ADPs office at improving agricultural practices of farmers in the selected zones. The Figure revealed that the state ADPs office has provided improved seedling for the farmers (32.0); educated/trained farmers on agricultural technology (26.0 percent); helped in erosion control (22.0 percent) and has also constructed feeder roads in the zones to enable farmers evacuate their agricultural products to urban centre where their product will be valued and needed(20.0 percent). Apart from this, the state ADPs office has dugged many well/boreholes to encourage irrigating farming in the zones. Some of the farmers interviewed equally corroborated these findings and added that the state ADPs office has also encouraged the formation of farmer’s cooperative societies to enable farmers have access to loan for agricultural purposes. This finding support that of Obasi (1995); Olagunju (2007); Fasoranti(2006);Chukwuemeka and Nzewi(2011); and Odoemelam(2011) who in their various studies identified all the above efforts aimed at improving agricultural practices of farmers in Nigeria.
Figure 3: Impact of the Efforts of the ADPs Office in the Selected Zones

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Figure 3 shows the impact of the efforts of the ADPs office in the selected zones. About half (50.0 percent) of the respondents claimed that the ADPs efforts have brought about increase in farmers’ productivity and income and these have positively affected the socio-economic status of farmers’ in the selected zone. Further analysis of Figure 3 revealed that about 30.0 percent of the respondents said the ADPs efforts have brought about positive changes in the attitude and behaviour of farmers to modern innovation like the use of fertilizer, insecticides, herbicides, etc, while the remaining 20.0 percent said the efforts of the state ADPs has facilitated farmer’s access to credit/loan facilities and other farm inputs. The opinion of some of the farmer’s interviewed equally supported the above findings. In the word of one of the farmers interviewed:

since the inception of the state ADPs, the agricultural practice of farmer’s have changed; those of us who were previously subsistence farmer’s are now large scale farmer’s and we are now making use of modern farm implements like tractors, harvesters, and also getting fertilizer, insecticide, herbicide, and pesticide at a subsidized rates from government; also we now have access to newly improved seed, enjoyed effective extension services and other agricultural facilities. These have helped to increase farm output and thus reduce hunger and poverty among farmers in Kogi State.

The finding above indicates that the state ADPs is performing well. This view supports the finding of Auta and Dafwang (2010) in their study titled “the Agricultural Development Projects in Nigeria: Status and Policy Implications”. These scholars found Kogi State to be one of the states where ADPs has been well organized.
Figure 4: Constraints for Accessing the State ADPs by Farmers in the Selected Zones

Source: Field Survey, 2011.

Figure 4 revealed constraints confronting farmers from having full access to the state ADPs. From the figure, majority (98.0 percent) of the respondents reported irregular supply of farm inputs as major constraint. This is followed by inaccessibility of extension agents (90.0) and cost of technology (83.3). Others were complexity of technology, lack of recommended farm input for demonstration and language barrier between the extension agents and farmers with 74.4 percent, 66.7 percent, and 72.2 percent respectively. This finding corroborates that of Fasoranti (2006); Auta and Dafwang (2010); and Chukwuemeka and Nzewi (2011). For instance, Auta and Dafwang in their study titled “The Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs) in Nigeria: Status and Policy Implication” found factors such as complexity of agricultural technology, irregular supply of farm inputs to farmer’s, etc as some of the constrains confronting farmers from having full access to their various state ADPs.
Figure 5 revealed the challenges confronting ADPs in Kogi State. The challenges mentioned by the respondents were lack of training opportunity for the ADPs staff (24.0 percent), poor funding (26.0 percent), inadequate serviceable vehicle/equipment (20.0 percent), shortage of qualified staff (16.0 percent), and poor remuneration of staff (24.0 percent). This finding supports that of Auta and Dafwang (2010); and Chukwuemeka and Nzewi (2011). For instance, Chukwuemeka and Nzewi in their study titled “An Empirical Study of World Bank Agricultural Development Programmes in Nigeria” found poor funding, inadequate qualified extension staff and inadequate serviceable vehicles/equipment, etc as perennial problems confronting ADPs in Nigeria.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study x-rayed the extent to which the World Bank assisted Agricultural Development Programmes in Kogi State has contributed to the agricultural development of the State. Finding shows that the ADPs has helped to improve the socio-economic well-being of the farmers in the selected zones. It was further revealed that the use of innovation in terms of better yielding varieties of seeds and farming techniques introduced by the state ADPs has helped to improve the agricultural practices and output of farmers in the study area. Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the ADPs in Kogi State has gone a long way in reducing food insecurity in Kogi State.

Notwithstanding the foregoing conclusion, the state government should continue to adequately play her own role as regards funding of the programme as well as recruit qualified agricultural extension officers and provide necessary training and re-training for the existing ADPs staff and supply adequate farm inputs, as well as subsidize the cost of agricultural technology for the farmers. These will help to further boost agricultural production in the state.
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ABOUT THE AUTHORS:

Ajibade David is affiliated with the Department of Sociology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Kogi State University Anyigba, Nigeria.

Ocheni Mercy Mabe, is affiliated with the Department of Political Science, Faculty of Social Sciences., Kogi State University Anyigba, Nigeria.

Adefemi Adekunle, is affiliated with the Department of Marketing, School of Management Studies, Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta, Nigeria.