IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF THE NATIONAL POVERTY ERADICATION PROGRAMME (NAPEP) ON RURAL LIVELIHOOD IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

BY

Ojomugbokenyode EBENEHI

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY, FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA.

DECEMBER, 2012

IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF THE NATIONAL POVERTY ERADICATION PROGRAMME (NAPEP) ON RURAL LIVELIHOOD IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

BY

Ojomugbokenyode EBENEHI
(M.Sc/Agric/11349/2008-2009)

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIRMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE (M.Sc) IN AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY, FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE,
AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA.

DECEMBER, 2012

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis titled **"Impact Assessment of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on Rural Livelihood in Kogi State, Nigeria"** has been written by me and it is a record of my research work. No part of this work has been presented in any previous application for another degree or diploma at any institution. All borrowed ideas have been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided.

_____ _____

Ojomugbokenyode EBENEHI **Date**
Student

CERTIFICATION

This thesis, titled **'Impact Assessment of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on Rural Livelihood in Kogi State, Nigeria',** by Ojomugbokenyode **EBENEHI** meets the regulations governing the award of degree of Master of Science in Agricultural Extension and Rural Sociology of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

_____ _____

PROF. J.G. AKPOKO **Date**
(Chairman, Supervisory Committee)

_____ _____

DR. M.O. AKINOLA **Date**
(Member, Supervisory Committee)

_____ _____

DR. Z. ABDULSALAM **Date**
Head of Department

_____ _____

PROF. A. A. JOSHUA **Date**
Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies,
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to Almighty God, the giver of wisdom and knowledge.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am very grateful to the Almighty God for His provision, strength and guidance throughout the period of my study, thank you Jesus. I wish to express my profound gratitude to the Chairman of my supervisory committee, Prof. J. G. Akpoko, for painstakingly guiding me through the course of this research. In the same vein, I am deeply grateful to Dr. M. O. Akinola, member of the supervisory committee, for his advice and valuable suggestions during the period of this research. My supervisors may God increase your wisdom.

I am indebted to the staff of the Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology for their encouragement in various ways especially Prof. D. F. Omokore, Dr. M. W. Musa, Prof. Ben Ahmed, Dr. M. A. Damisa, Dr. Yusuf Oseni, Mr. Sadiq N. M, Mr. Seun Oladeji. Mrs. Christiana Azaka, Mr. Akaa, Mr. Samaila, Mr. Gideon and all others too numerous to mention. Thank you all.

I say a big thanks to my father, Barr. Ebenehi Noah Agbaji, Daddy you are one in a million, if I ever have the opportunity of coming back to the world a second time I will love to still have you as a daddy. I wish to thank Mr. and Mrs Idajili P. S and family, Mall Hassan Zekeri, Mall. Khalid Bello for his fatherly support and advice, Mall. Farouk Umar, Mr. James Nandi, and Alh. Abubakar Abdullahi, Mr. Segun .S. Adeola, Mr. Emmanuel Gama Nkwi. Also, am very grateful to Mall. Sanni Isah, Mall. Galadima Mohammed, Miss Samaila Fatsuma, Mall. Adamu Mohammed, Mrs. P. Gunn, Mrs. Deborah Bijimi, Mr. Bakut Mutua and all the rest of the postgraduate students in the department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology whose names are not

mentioned here especially the 2008-2009 class. If not for your support, this programme would not have been a success, many thanks to you all.

I will like to say thank you to the families of Dr. and Prof. (Mrs) Abel Agbaji and Late Mr. Elijah Agbaji, for their consistent advice and support which has led to the successful completion of this programme. I am seriously indebted to all the students in Block A and B, Sasakawa Hall, specifically to Alhaji Giwa Shittu, Ibrahim, Mall. Maina, Mall. Hassan. Mr. Daniel, Mr. Frank, Mr. Terfa, Seun Oladeji, Felix, Josiah and Daniel, You guys are the men. My staying with you was worthwhile. Your kindness made my research work pleasant. Also, let me thank Mr. Alexander Atama and Mr. Olaolu Michael for all their words of encouragement during the course of my study, God bless you immensely.

For your endurance, understanding and encouragement, I am specifically indebted to my mother, Mrs. Barak Ele Ebenehi, my beloved siblings: Pastor. Abenelu, Miss Ojochegbe, Fr. Anibe, Miss Ubedo (my birthday mate), I say a lot of thanks to you. And my Cousin Mr. Ojima Mathew Ebenehi, and all other members of my family; your support has yielded a good fruit in my life. May I thank Dr. and Mrs Gabriel Opaluwa and Family; My aunties Mrs. Kedono Sanni and Hannah Akebe for their support at various times, may God reward you abundantly. Furthermore, special thanks go to my wonderful friends: Engr. Atodo Okpanachi, Arch. Monday Usman, Barr. Usman J. Enemali, Mr. Okpanachi Ojima for their endless prayer, love, encouragement, endurance, kindness, patience, support, understanding and perseverance throughout my studying period. Guys, I love you all because you are the best. In fact, knowing you is a blessing to my life. I wish to say a lot of thanks to the Staff of National Poverty

Eradication Programme, specifically those in Dekina, Ofu and Yagba East Local Government Area offices of Kogi State, Chief (Dr) Mrs Gumwa Grace, Director of Kogi NAPEP and all the registered participants as well as non-participants of the programme without you this research would not have been complete. God will increase you. I am indebted to all those whose names I have not acknowledged here for your great contribution, in one way or the other, to the success of this programme. Without you my heart desire of a Master of Science degree would have been a mirage. Finally, may The Almighty God bless everyone who has made this programme a success and grant your heart desire accordingly in Jesus name. Amen.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page i
Certification iv
Dedication v
Acknowledgements vi
List Of Tables xii
List Of Figures xiii
List Of Appendixes xiv
Abstract xv

CHAPTER 1 1
INTRODUCTION 1
1.1 Background to the Study 1
1.2 Problem Statement 2
1.3 Objectives of the Study 5
1.4 Justification of the Study 6
1.5 Hypotheses of the Study 7

CHAPTER 2 8
LITERATURE REVIEW 8
2.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of the Participants in Various Development Programmes 8
2.2 Extent of People's Participation in Poverty Eradication Programmes 11
2.3 Impact of Poverty Eradication Programmes on Livelihood of the People 12
2.5 Theoretical Framework 24
2.5.1 Community development perspective 24
2.5.2 Concept of participation 26
2.5.3 The impact assessment perspectives 28
2.6 Conceptual Model 32

CHAPTER 3 34
METHODOLOGY 34
3.1 The Study Area 34
3.2 Sampling Procedures and Sample Size 36
3.3 Methods of Data Collection and Sources 39
3.4.0 Analytical techniques 39
3.4.1 Descriptive statistics 40
3.4.2 Double difference estimator 40
3.5 Definition and Measurement of Variables in the DDE 41

CHAPTER 4 43
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION 43
4.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of Respondents 43
4.1.1 Sex 43
4.1.2 Age 43
4.1.3 Marital status 44
4.1.4 Household size 46
4.1.5 Educational level 46
4.1.6 Major occupation 47
4.1.7 Total farm land area cultivated 47
4.1.8 Formal credit received in 2011 48
4.1.9 Sources of income 48
4.1.10 Membership of cooperative societies 49
4.2.0 Extent of the people's participation in NAPEP activities 50
4.2.1 Respondent's medium of awareness 50
4.2.2 Respondents who benefited in cash (credit) 51
4.2.3 Respondents who got production material resources 51
4.2.4 Extent of the people's participation in NAPEP training activities 52
4.2.5 Visits by NAPEP trainers 53
4.3 Impact of NAPEP on Income and Livelihoods of Participants 54
4.3.1 Income of participants and non-participants 54
4.3.2 Level of living of participants and non-participants 55

4.4.1 Constraints faced by the participants. 57
4.4.2 Constraints faced by NAPEP agency in the implementation of its programmes 59

CHAPTER 5 61
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 61
5.1 Summary 61
5.2 Conclusion 63
5.3 Recommendations 63
5.4 Suggestions for Further Research 65
References 66
Appendix I: Farmers' Research Questionnaire, For Participants 73
Appendix II: Farmers' Research Questionnaire, For Non-Participants 79
Appendix III: Check-list for NAPEP'S Management 83

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Socio-economic characteristics of participants and non participants 45

Table 2: Sources of income of the participants and non-participants 49

Table 3: Respondent's medium of awareness.....50

Table 4: Number of respondents who got benefits in cash per annum 51

Table 5: Distribution of respondents according to production material resources received from NAPEP expressed in monetary terms……52

Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to extent of the peoples participation in NAPEP training activities participated 53

Table 7: Respondents distribution according to NAPEP trainers visit and number of visits 54

Table 8: Results of DDE showing the impact of NAPEP on the income of the respondents in the study area.....55

Table 9: Results of DDE showing the impact of NAPEP on the level of living of the respondents in the study area.....56

Table 10: Distribution of participants according to the constraints faced.....59

Table 11: Constraints faced by NAPEP in the implementation of its programmes as elicited by the check-list……..61

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Schematic representation of Impact of NAPEP on participants in Kogi State.....33

Figure 2: Map of Kogi State Showing Study Area 35

LIST OF APPENDIXES

Appendix I: Farmers' Research Questionnaire, For Participants 73

Appendix II: Farmers' Research Questionnaire, For Non-Participants 79

Appendix III : Check-list for NAPEP'S Management..... 84

ABSTRACT

The study was designed to assess the impact of NAPEP on the livelihood of participants in some local government areas of Kogi State. Specific objectives were to: determine the socio-economic characteristics of NAPEP participants, determine the extent of peoples participation in the programme and assess the impact of NAPEP on the livelihood of participants in the state. Two hypotheses were tested that: there is no significant difference between the income of participants and non-participants, there is no significant difference between level of living of participants and non-participants. From the NAPEP register, 52 participants and 52 non-participants were randomly selected. Data were collected through the use questionnaire and analysed, using descriptive and inferential statistical tools. The Double-Difference Estimator (DDE) was used to compare changes in outcome measures. Findings indicate that majority (67%) of the participants were male while 33% were female. About 40% of the participants were of the age range of 44-53 and 62% were married with 60% having a household size range of 5-8 persons, with about 38% having trading as their major occupation. The mean income of NAPEP participants increased from ₦106,556 before the intervention to ₦249,675.00 after the intervention (134%). Income of the non-participants increased from ₦98,351 before the intervention to ₦120,127 after the intervention. The level of living of participant increased from ₦77,523 before the intervention to ₦233,268 (200%) after the intervention as a result of participation in the programme. It was recommended that NAPEP should be left to continue irrespective of the administration that initiated it. NAPEP should set up a special monitoring and recovery committee to monitor the disbursed loan transactions right from when it is disbursed to when it is due for repayment.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Nigeria is predominantly rural, in which more than 80% of the total population lives in rural areas (Joseph, 2005). The economy is basically agrarian, with most of the people living in squalor and very poor level of living which is attributed to poverty (Ajayi, 2009). Poverty has diverse economic and social dimensions that explain its manifestations in lack of income and insufficient productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihood. Poverty indicators include: hunger and malnutrition, limited or lack of access to quality education and basic services, increased morbidity, mortality which occur as result of illness, inadequate housing, homelessness, unsafe environment, and social discrimination. As a matter of fact the concept of poverty does not subject itself to any straight jacket definition (Agumagu, 2000).

According to the Meriam Webster dictionary, poverty is viewed from two different perspectives as signifying "moneylessness or powerlessness". Moneylessness means not merely an insufficiency of cash but chronic inadequacy of resources of all types to meet basic human needs such as nutrition, rest, and shelter, while powerlessness refers to those people who lack the opportunity and choices and whose lives seem to be controlled by forces and persons outside their control – maybe by people in positions of authority or perceived evil forces or ill-luck (Ekong, 2003). As there are divergent views on the concept of poverty, one could observe that poverty exists when people lack the means to satisfy their basic needs. Joseph (2005) indicated that, in Africa and Nigeria in particular, the colonialists imposed capitalistic economic system, which allowed for exploitation and domination of the rich individuals, including exploiting the

labour of others to increase their wealth. Besides, when the colonialists shifted emphasis from food crops to cash crops as deliberate government's policy in order to serve the needs of the industries in the metropolitan Europe, shortage of food began to manifest amongst the rural dwellers. Hence the introduction of series of government's intervention programmes right from independence till date, of which National Poverty Eradication Programme is one, were all geared towards stemming or mitigating the ugly effect of poverty on the livelihood of its citizenry.

1.2 Problem Statement

Since mid seventies, successive governments in Nigeria have come up with a lot of laudable initiatives or programmes geared towards poverty alleviation (Idachaba, 2006). Some of the poverty alleviation programmes include: The National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) which was established in 1971, the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP)(1972) the Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs) launched in 1973. Others include the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) and the River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs) were established in 1976, also the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund of 1977, the Green Revolution (GR) in 1979, and Better Life Programme (BLP) in 1987 Agbamu, 2006; Omokore, 2009). Also the Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB) and Community Banks were also established in 1986 and 1989, respectively. Also in 1986 and 1989, the Directorate of Food and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI) and the Mass Mobilization for Social and Economic Reconstruction (MAMSER) were respectively established by the Federal Government (Agbamu, 2006). The small and medium scale enterprise development agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) was established in 2000 and also in 2000 the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) was established to ensure

improvement in the socio-economic status of farmers and rural dwellers. The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), which has as its main objective to improve the socio-economic well being of rural people, with a properly structured organizational frame-work for its achievement, is an offshoot of (PAP) and it was established in 2001 (Aliu, 2001; Joseph, 2005; Gumwa, 2009).

The Kogi State chapter of the NAPEP was also established in 2001 and it operates in line with the national objective of NAPEP, including to: (i) promote grass roots economic activities, (ii) impact positively on the well being and level of living of participants, (iii) promote sustainability of micro finance through savings mobilization, (iv) provide access to credit at the grass root level, (v) bring the interest rates (for the low income, rural populace) into a more encouraging level, (vi) increase the participation of the poor in the economic growth and development of the country, (vii) stimulate increased economic activities in the rural areas, and (viii) strengthen partnership between the federal government and other tiers of government in combating poverty among the Nigerian people.

The activities carried out by NAPEP in Kogi State to help achieve its objectives include:

(a) Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) which deals with youth capacity building for those with low or no qualification. The capacity building is in terms of skills acquisition such as welding, carpentry, mechanic, fashion designing, tailoring, interior and exterior decoration among others.

(b) Capacity Enhancement Scheme (CES) which deals with assisting already established skillful youths, and other participating members of the community who are already engaged in one form of trade or the other.

(c) Community Enlightenment Scheme (COMES) which involves awareness creation, and sensitization. And also enlightening them on how to access any new package rolled out by NAPEP for them.

(d) Social Welfare Service Scheme (SOWES) which deals with special education, food security, micro and macro credit facilities.

(e) Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme (RIDS) which deals with the provision of basic infrastructures like portable water for irrigation, good access roads to ease transportation, rural power supply, and construction of mini dams as well as provision of other equipments necessary for dry season farming, to ensure all year round production.

(f) Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS) which deals with the environment, land reclamation for agricultural purposes and conservation of land and space, water and solid minerals.

(g) Multi Partner Micro Finance Scheme (MPMFS) in which NAPEP, in collaboration with some micro finance banks, disburse soft or micro credit loans to participants of the programme (Gumwa, 2009). This measure according to NAPEP is aimed at increasing their beneficiary's capital base, for the improvement and expansion of their business with the hope that it will go a long way to better translate into higher income that will improve the level of living of its beneficiaries.

Despite all these objectives of NAPEP as well as its well structured and coordinated organizational and institutional framework aimed at poverty eradication in our rural areas, poverty in all its senses, still remains a common sight in our rural areas till date,

hence the dare need for a study such as this which seek to find out the extent of achievement of its organizational objectives and also its performance over the years. Thus this study is intended to provide answers to the following research questions:

i. What are the socio-economic characteristics of the NAPEP participants?

ii. What is the extent of the people's participation in the activities being implemented by NAPEP in the study area?

iii. What is the impact of NAPEP on the livelihood of the participants in the study area?

iv. What are the constraints encountered in the implementation of the programme in the study area?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of the study was to assess the impact of NAPEP on the livelihoods of participants in some selected rural areas of Kogi State. The specific objectives were to:

i. describe the socio economic characteristics of the NAPEP participants;

ii. examine the extent of people's participation in the activities being implemented by NAPEP in the study area;

iii. assess the impact of NAPEP on the livelihood of the participants in the study area, and

iv. identify the constraints encountered in the implementation of the programme in the State.

1.4 Justification of the Study

The current emphasis government has placed on agriculture and rural development by initiating several development programmes since independence among which is NAPEP, justified the need for an empirical study on the impact of the NAPEP on rural livelihoods in the study area. These can also be an effective tool or guide in the design of other similar programmes that can create well meaning changes as regards poverty eradication. The information generated would benefit donor agencies, collaborative partners and also government and Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) involved in the funding of poverty eradication efforts and/or programmes in Nigeria. As the information generated by the outcome of this research work will reveal the strength and weakness of NAPEP, its impact on the livelihood of its participants over the years. This will then give the donor agencies a good judgment as regards the performance and impact of the programme on the socioeconomic livelihood of participants which is the main objective of NAPEP's establishment, and thus help them in making informed decision as to whether the programme is worth further sponsorship or not. The findings would also contribute to the existing literatures on agricultural based poverty eradication programmes which could provide a basis for planning improved extension services that can motivate farmers to participate actively in any meaningful poverty eradication programmes.

The study also tends to provide suggestions on the operational mode of the programme to enhance increased performance. It is also expected that the study will finally result in the improvement of NAPEP's performance which will translate into positive impact on the level of living of the participants. The information generated will give more

highlight to development planners and policy makers on the role of government and will lead to further research on NAPEP and government in general.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

i. There is no significant difference between the income of the participants and non- participants.

ii. There is no significant difference between the level of living of the participants and non-participants.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of the Participants in Various Development Programmes

In a study on the impact of poverty reduction programmes in Nigeria Joseph (2005) found that few young people were engaged in poverty eradication programmes. He also found that most of the participants in poverty eradication programmes in Nigeria were middle aged men and women who were between the ages of 51 and 60 years. Joseph (2005) further showed that the overall average age of the rural dwellers was 60, and that the rural population contained a disproportionate number of people who have passed their prime age or who were retired civil servants whose productivity on the farm was likely to be low.

In a related study conducted in Bauchi State, Idi *et al*. (2006) found that the participants were older, with a mean age of 48.6 years with the non-participants having a mean age of 45.33 years. In the same vein, Fidelis (1998) in his work "An appraisal of poverty eradication strategies in Nigeria" reported that the ages of the participants were between 30-59years with non- participants in the age group of 21-30years. His study concluded that the young ones were not interested in rural poverty eradication programmes as they had migrated to the cities to seek for white collar jobs. Similarly, an impact study of poverty eradication programmes in Abia -State, conducted by Nwachukwu *et al*. (2007) reported that the participants of the programmes within the age group of 30-39 years were only 5%, while those above the age group of 50 years were 53%. Eze *et al.* (2009) in their impact assessment of the Community-Based Poverty Reduction Agency (CBRA) and the Civil Resources Development and Documentation Centre (CRDDC) in Ebonyi State showed that 72.03% (majority) of

CBRA and 64.42% of CBRA participants were 50 years and above, implying that the participants in the government planned development programmes were elderly in the area. Fasina *et al.* (2004) in their study of the impact of the Youth in Agriculture Programme in Ondo State revealed from their findings that 50.9% of the respondents were between the age of 20 and 35. Followed closely by those between 35-40years (39.2%) leaving only 10% of the respondents below the age of 35.

In another impact study, Ekwe *et al*. (2006) revealed that the average age of the participants was 43 years with (62.81%) of them in their middle age group (41-50) years. Similarly, Ogunwale *et al*. (2006) in their study reported that 36% of the participants were in the age range of 40-49, 13% were below 39years, while 16.7% of them were above 60years of age. Sabo (2005) in a study of the impact of women in agriculture programme in Borno State Nigeria, found that majority of the respondents (52%) were within the age range of 40 to 50 years. Eze *et al.* (2009) in their study of a poverty eradication programme in Ebonyi State reported that about 93.31% of the participants were married while only about 6.69% of them were unmarried; singles, widows or divorced. Sabo (2005) and Agwu *et al.* (2009) in their separate study reported that majority of the participants (90%) and non participants (75.3%), respectively were married.

Nwachukwu *et al*. (2007) also has it that in terms of family size, participating farmers fell between 5-9 persons. On the household size their study revealed 0-5 members, 6-10 and above 10 was put at 25%, 63.8% and 11.25%, respectively. Agwu *et al.* (2009) reported that (55.0%) have family size of between 6-10 members. Sabo (2005) has it that the average family size according to her findings was put at between 5 and 10

members. The large family size of participants as indicated by the findings above implies more labour supply and utilization on the farm which can subsequently translate into high productivity on the farm, thus increasing participants income and further better their livelihood.

Eze *et al.* (2009) studied the impact of poverty eradication programmes, which include the Community-Based Poverty Reduction Agency (CBRA) and the Civil Resources Development and Documentation Centre (CRDDC) in Ebonyi State. They found that majority (60.7%) of CBRA participants were male while the CIRDDC had 46.88% of the participants as males. They also recorded a near equal ratio of 51.88% and 48.12% for male and female participants respectively. Similarly Agwu *et al.* (2009) in an impact study reported that slightly more than half of the respondents interviewed were males. These studies indicate that more males participate in poverty eradication activities than females. Nwachukwu *et al.* (2007) in their study found that in terms of income levels, participants were better when compared with their non-participating counterparts. Agwu *et al.* (2009) showed that 76.3% of their respondents had above 10 years of farming experience. Similarly, Sabo (2005) in a study of the impact of the women in agriculture programme in Borno State Nigeria found that 34% had farming experiences ranging from 16 to 20years.

Idi *et al*. (2006) in their findings reported that the participants of the programme were more educated with tertiary education (43.3%) than the non-participants (26.6%). In the same vein, Fidelis (1998) found that 23% of the participants had tertiary education, while 77% of them had secondary education and 66% of those who were formally educated were gainfully employed. In a related impact study of poverty eradication

programmes in Abia -State, Nwachukwu *et al.* (2007) showed that most of the respondents were averagely educated. Fasina *et al.* (2004) in their impact study of youth agriculture programmes in Ondo State found that 52.5% of the respondents were literate with secondary education while 31.7% had tertiary education. Ekwe *et al*. (2006) found that half of the participants (51%) had at least a secondary education while the other half had either primary (28.44%) and 20.68% of them had no formal education. In another study by Ogunwale *et al.* (2006) 40% of the participants had primary education, 11.7% had secondary while 8.3%, 20% and 20% had post primary school, adult and no formal education at all respectively. Yet Sabo (2005) in their impact study of women in agriculture programme in Borno State Nigeria found that 52% of the participant farmers had at least primary education.

On the other hand, Fidelis (1998) and Ogunwale *et al.* (2006) found the educational level of participants of poverty reduction programmes to be low, a situation which contradicts most of the other findings on poverty eradication programmes in Nigeria. Fasina *et al.* (2004) in their work on impact of youth in Agriculture programme in Ondo State found that a 90% (majority) of the respondents had farming as their major occupation, teaching (37.5%), while 23.5%, 20.8% and 18.2% were civil servants, traders and artisans, respectively. Agwu *et al.* (2009) study shows that 41.2% and 20.6% were farmers and either traders or civil servants respectively.

2.2 Extent of People's Participation in Poverty Eradication Programmes

Nkom (1989) reported a low level of people's participation in poverty eradication programmes in Nigeria. He attributed this to non-involvement of the participants in programmes planning and implementation. Joseph (2005) in a similar study found that

the participants were not actively involved in all the activities of the programmes but instead they were passive and patiently waiting to take whatever gets down to them from the policy makers and implementers of the programmes. He also blamed this situation on non-involvement of the rural poor to whom the programme was meant in the planning and implementation process. However Fidelis (1998) has contrasted the above findings. In his study, Fidelis (1998) reported a high level of people's participation in poverty eradication programmes and other related programmes. Wallace (1980) in her study on the impact of irrigation projects noted a non-participation rate of about 40% during the 1976/77 dry season farming as many farmers could not afford the increasing cost of inputs thereby giving out their land to other farmers or left it fallow.

2.3 Impact of Poverty Eradication Programmes on Livelihood of the People

The concern over the deteriorating food supply in Nigeria led to the launching of series of programmes on poverty eradication and food security since the 1960s till date (Joseph, 2005; Nwachukwu *et al.,* 2007). As reported by Nwachukwu *et al.* (2007) some of these programmes have been able to reduce the amount of foreign exchange spent on importation of rice and other staple food items, as well as increased local production. Similarly, Idi *et al*. (2006) found some positive impact among his project's participants compared with the non-participants in terms of land acquisition and post harvest activities. The study further found that in terms of labour utilization, the participants spent an average of 44.33 man days compared to 36.67 man days by non-participants. In terms of loan acquisition for agricultural production, Idi *et al.* (2006) found that the project participants benefited more than the non-participants with an average of ₦ 21,333.33 and ₦ 7,333.33 respectively. Akpoko *et al.* (1998) in a study of impact of a non-governmental agricultural extension training programme reported a

significant impact on the farmer's livelihood in terms of ownership of commercial vehicles, motor-cycles, bicycles, clothing, food crops and food consumption as a result of their participation in the programme.

In another impact study by Fasina *et al.* (2004) of the Youth in Agriculture Programme in Ondo State, the previously unemployed youths were able to secure a better level of living as a result of their participation in the programme. The study further showed that there was increase in the total land area under agricultural production as an additional 2 ha were allocated to participants apart from what they were cultivating prior to the programme. Another impact was in the area of increased agricultural labour utilization in agricultural production. Ogunwale *et al.* (2006) in a related impact study in Ogbomosho agricultural zone of Oyo State found a positive impact as all the farmers sampled adopted the recommended practices which increased their level of productivity while 98% indicated increase in their net farm income. The study also revealed a 30% reduction in production costs and 25% reduction in associated risks in farming.

Agwu *et al.* (2008) found significant impacts on the activities of Fadama I Project in Kogi State. The study revealed that there was remarkable increase in food production and the farmers' income. In another related work by Atala *et al.* (1992) on the impact of the Training and Visit Extension System, they found that before 1986 when the System was introduced, only one of the thirty two selected farm innovations were adopted by less than 50% of the farmers whereas by 1990 twenty of the innovations were adopted by over 50% of the farmers. There was therefore, a considerable increase in the rate of adoption of farm innovations. The study further revealed a gross farm output for sorghum, maize, cowpea, and ground nut increased from 9% to15% for all categories of

farmers with increased production output of over 200kg for each crop in 1990. They attributed the increase to the impact of the T&V Extension System. Adegbehin *et al.* (2001) studied the impact of T&V Extension System in Nigeria. They recorded a significant impact on agricultural production as the result of the study revealed that the system led to increase in crop output and yields ranging between 5.23-67.8% for maize, sorghum, millet, rice, maize, yam and cassava. They also reported high levels of technology adoption for crops such as cassava and maize production. The most widely adopted technology was improved crop varieties for cassava, and fertilizer use in maize production for the livestock sub-sector however. For rabitry, the rate of adoption was very low. On the contrary, however Joseph (2005) in his work on the impact of poverty reduction strategies of the Federal Government of Nigeria since independence till date has reported that no significant impact have been achieved in terms of improvement in the lives of Nigerians especially the poor. Contrary to popular impression Ekwe *et al*. (2006) in their study revealed a no impact situation of the NCRRI/IITA improved technology aimed at boosting food production, as the level of adoption and its subsequent impact was put at below average as evidenced by a figure of 42.50% of people using all the practices.

The National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) was launched in 1972 as a Federal and State programme designed to develop technologies to rapidly increase the production of six major food crops; sorghum, millet, wheat, rice, and cassava, including agro-services through input supply, credit and farm services like tractor hiring, storage and marketing (FMARD,1977). Unfortunately the agro-service component was poorly developed, and the extension component used the contact farmer strategy and invariably focused on the progressive large scale farmers especially for the

production kits. Omokore (2009) reported that the programme lacked commitment from both state and Federal government thereby resulting in the poor funding which led to its gradual death. Meaning the programme failed to achieve its main objective of improvement in the socio-economic wellbeing of the rural people. Mijindadi (1991) found that though this programme was the first attempt to get farmers involved in some form of field research it failed to achieve that aim due to lack of commitment on the part of stakeholders.

The Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) programme introduced in 1996 was aimed at mobilizing able bodied Nigerians in the drive for self sufficiency in food and socio-economic improvement. Omokore (2009) had it that all land, human, material and natural resources were committed to ensuring the success of this programmes. There was an increase in food production as reflected in the prices of food items in parts of the country. This means that farmers' social importance was recognized since the dignity of farming was restored. Omokore (2009) further stated that one thing did not and has not happened and that is the fact that Nigeria has not become self sufficient in food, the purpose for which the programme was launched. Thus, it can be argued that Operation Feed the Nation was a resounding National developmental catastrophe. Although the campaigns generated a lot of awareness it went largely to urban dwellers and missed the farmers who were the real producers (William, 1981). Fertilizers and other inputs either did not reach the farmers at the appropriate time or reached them at prices they could hardly ever afford (Wilmot, 1979). He further added that the result of the impact study conducted on OFN could not have been otherwise given the disarticulated structure of the economy, Wilmot (1979) maintained that the scheme failed because it did not go beyond the question of growth. The principle and premise was participating in farming

will lead to bumper harvest whereas the peasants may grow more food than the nation can eat, yet there will be hungry and poor people so long as no institutional structures were created to ensure equitable distribution. Uwaka (1980) studied farmers' response to the OFN Campaign in Imo and Anambra States and found a weak correlation between awareness of the OFN innovations and the adoption of the recommended packages.

The River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs) It was set up to increase food production Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN) (1988) has it that by 1960 we had eight irrigation schemes spread all over the country, Kano River project in Kadawa, the Sokoto Rima Project at Bakolori and Goronyo and the lake Chad Basin development scheme in Borno are the notable ones. Wallace (1980) appraised the Kano River Project and found that like other irrigation projects, it has impacted positively on the farming system. On the contrary Adesina (1995) in his findings, reported that the Rima project did not achieve its objective of socio-economic transformation of the rural areas and individual livelihoods improvement. It was affected by a myriad of problems among which are; unpopular use of manure. Again, River Rima over-flooded its banks and it washed away most of the crops leading to low crop yield, thereby rendering the aim of socio-economic wellbeing improvement unachievable. Otaki (2006) had from his findings that although farmers can now grow specific food crops on and off seasons, they cannot choose what to grow, as they are expected to give up the production of food for their own consumption but only for market. Many farmers could not afford to finance the purchase of all the necessary inputs such as water, seed, tractor, fertilizer and labour. So, they hired their irrigated land out to farmers who had the necessary inputs or left it to fallow.

The performance of irrigation programmes in Nigeria when viewed against the backdrop of its major objective has not substantially mitigated poverty within the affected rural communities in spite of their impact on farming systems (Omokore, 2009). Igbozurike *et al*. (1982) reported that the RBDAs have failed to tackle the problem of inequality in both its spatial and social context.

Despite the large chunk of money committed to the RBDAs, the programme is yet to prove its value. Nigeria still imports wheat to the tune of 1.3million metric tons in 1980-1981 while domestic production is put at between 20,000-25,000 tonnes (Otaki, 2006). Otaki (2006) went further to state that up till 1985, Nigeria was a net importer of wheat, rice, sugar, and other legumes from Europe, America and Asia. Therefore one could be right to say therefore that the programme is a wasteful programme of self reliant development.

The Green Revolution (GR) was also another development programme of the Nigerian State. It was practiced in Mexico in 1943 as one of the outcomes of a research work sponsored by Rockefeller foundation. Four years (1979-1983) when the GR was fully operational, over ₦158 million was committed into the programme. It still failed because it toed the same path which OFN lived and terminated and it was capital intensive (Otaki, 2006; Omokore, 2009).This is evidenced in the fact that Nigeria government, sensing a disturbing signal from the failure of the programme resorted to importation of rice from Thailand, wheat and other grains and legumes from the United States of America (Idachaba, 2005).

The Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs). The ADPs, started in 1975 with a tripartite arrangement between the Federal Government, State Government and the World Bank (WB) with the WB as the major financier in the form of loan. This programme has among its activities a sophisticated, largely expatriate management and heavy use of extension workers, improved seeds, chemical fertilizers, insecticides, ploughs and tractors to raise productivity of farmers in the rural areas (Idachaba 2005; Omokore, 2009; Otaki, 2006). Titus *et al*. (2005) reported that the era of ADPs was characterized by provision of farm inputs both in the form of technical advice and/or input supply and also construction of feeder roads, agro-service centre's, staff training and borehole water supply, as part of the integrated rural development's approach.

Otaki (2006) viewed the lives span of the programmes as it has only pretended to be agents of peasant welfare, the ADPs approach neglected the social structural obstacles which prevent peasantry from gaining from the process of development. William (1981) is of the same view that the WBADP was directed and accrued to the rich and some projects excluded the poor and small holder or peasants. He further buttress the foregoing by saying that there is evidence of misdirection of funds and creaming off monies by members of local political and landowning elites. From the foregoing it can be argued that the WBADP rather than serving as instrument for the improvement of the rural peasants welfare, the WBADP strategy became instrument of polarizing the peasantry into classes of rich farmers on one hand and poor peasants on the other. Because of the imperial origin of the programme the ADPs have become agents of penetration, expansion and domination of the Nigerian economy by both local and international monopoly capitalism, as peasants are dispossessed of their land, and their subsequent gradual transformation into rural proletariat (Otaki, 2006; Sanda, 1991). Just

like the irrigation schemes, the farmers were expected to change their cropping patterns to meet the market requirements. In order to do this, they were expected to grow crops for sale primarily and to abandon some of his risk minimizing strategies such as mixed cropping and the growing of traditional seeds which though not very responsive to fertilizer were drought resistant. Voh (1982) noted that many farmers relying on 1-2 hectare plots could not afford these risks and make themselves dependent on bought seeds which needed a lot of fertilizer and were not drought resistant in an environment where both the rains and market were unpredictable. The consequences of all these, was under-performance and failure, since the WB assistance to the ADPs has more or less ended, the farmers are left with no option than to grapple with inadequate input supply and adulterated chemicals and other farm inputs (Sanda,1991).

Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB): It is a product of bilateral arrangement between the Federal Government and Central Bank of Nigeria. NACB assist all her clients to adopt modern agricultural technologies and good management practices through advice from specialists among its staff (NACB, 1986; Ndakwakwa, 1989). In his study on the role of NACB in financing farm production in 1989 found that small scale farmers did not benefit much for one to say that the programme has had significant impact on the livelihoods of the rural people. He further stated that his respondent complained of inadequacy of fund and late disbursement whenever available. Also the requirements for securing the loan were stringent such that the rural people could not afford. In order to address the problem of high collateral or security, the NACB later metamorphose into Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB) with same mandate as the NACB but with relaxed conditions, whereby farmers were encouraged to form cooperative groups to facilitate

access to credit facilities. Even in the phase of this modification, the programme still leaves much to be desired as it is yet to impact positively on the lives of the rural people (Agbamu, 2005).

The Directorate for Food, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) It was established in 1986 to improve the level of living in the rural areas in terms of rural infrastructural development but the programme failed to achieve this objective due to inadequate funding. Great emphasis on quantity than quality, diversion of resources, poor feasibility studies, problem of conceptualization and defective operational methods (Omokore, 2009). Sanda (1991) in a critical analysis of the impact of DFRRI, found that quantitative achievement were recorded in terms of infrastructural development, but the effectiveness leaves much to be desired. Jibowo (1996) noted that it made noticeable achievement during its years of operations in areas of infrastructural development. It failed to make significant impact on rural housing, food and agriculture, rural industrialization, rural technology, socio-cultural and recreation programmes due to change in government and its policies.

The National Fadama Development Projects (NFDP) were ideas conceived by the World Bank, African Development Bank (ADB) and the Federal Government of Nigeria with the participation of the States and Local Governments. They are nationwide projects targeted at dry season farming and related agro processing and marketing activities all aimed at raising rural productivity and income. In the initial stage of the programme, twelve states were selected covering about 1million families (Akinola, 2003). The National Fadama Development Projects (NFDP) implemented in 1992 and 1999 and was adjudged successful in terms of increase in access to inputs,

improved social relations, access to inputs resources, farm size, access to loans, knowledge of improved marketing, marketing systems increase and increased family income. Only improved technology adoption was low (Akinola, 2003). He further added that as result of its success it was covering more States and communities in the form of Fadama (ii) project. These "success" has culminated into FGN requesting the second phase of fadama project (AESON, 2006).

The Nigerian Special Programme for Food Security (SPFS) is A bi-partite project signed between Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (UN) and the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) to improve the productivity and sustainability of agricultural systems with the ultimate objective of contributing to better livelihood of poor people, (Omokore; 2009 and Jibowo, 1996). In an impact study of the, Jibowo (1996) found that the programme had impacted positively on the socio-economic wellbeing and livelihoods pattern of the rural people he studied.

2.4 Constraints Encountered in the Implementation of Poverty Eradication Programmes

Research findings on the constraints in the implementation of agricultural, food security and poverty eradication programmes revealed that lack of appropriate institutional frame-work is a constraint to the achievement of its goal of improving the socio-economic wellbeing of the people (Agbamu, 2005). A study of some agricultural development programmes conducted by the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) (2000) indicated that there had been many more failures than success in the programme implementation. Omokore (2009) and Titus *et al.* (2005) maintained that the failures of most of these programmes could largely be ascribed to administration and management. Titus *et al.* (2005) observed that though federal and state bodies were set up, the

confusion as to who does what and the roles in relation to the minister of agriculture appears confusing and nebulous. He further observed that non-involvement of local councils in commodity oriented rural development frame-work create the problem of ensuring participation of greater majority of people in the rural areas. Also Idi *et al.* (2006) and Gumwa (2009) in their separate studies on the impact of poverty eradication programmes reported lack of logistics, shortage of qualified extension staff, lack of coordination within the programme implementers and other relevant government agencies and the participants, lack of flexibility in the programme design, lack of fund, and duplication of efforts as major constraints. Other constraints include lack of understanding the socio-economic and socio-cultural factors of the people by the project implementers (Wallace, 1980). These factors according to him are land possession, village-family structure; income and lack of understanding on the part of the people due to the programmes non-participatory nature, are among the major constraints to programme implementers.

Fidelis (1998) in his work "An appraisal of poverty Reduction Strategies in Nigeria" has it that the reduction of poverty is the most difficult challenge facing any country in the developing world where on the average majority of the population is considered poor. Research findings in the implementation of poverty eradication programmes revealed that lack of proper institutional frame-work, lack of coordination and effective monitoring and evaluation as well as lack of understanding of the socio-economic and cultural factors of the communities or participants by the project implementers are constraints (Nkom, 1989). According to him, land possession, village-family structure and income were the most important. According to Aliu (2001) experience from the past

poverty alleviation programmes has shown the inability to involve the people in their planning and implementation.

Gumwa (2009) identified poor loan repayment culture of the participants and delay in the receipt of funds from the Federal Government and other stakeholders for the implementation of the different activities as the major constraints faced by programme implementers. Dhanarajan (2001) has it that absence or inadequate special provisions for Women vulnerable groups also pose a major constraint to the successful implementation of any meaningful poverty eradication programme given the fact that poverty is felt more by the women folk. Garuba (2009) went further to state that lack of Adult education component, popular participation component, religious extremism, social intolerance are capable of making the attainment of objectives of poverty eradication difficult if not impossible.

Similarly, Abdullahi (2005) Ekong (2003) and Akanya (1989) in their respective studies revealed that participating farmers encounter several problems associated with the implementation of poverty eradication programmes. These constraints could limit the output of production thus affecting the programme's goal. The constraints according to them range from technology attributes, cost, complexity, compatibility; visibility and divisibility to socio-economic, cultural and political factors. Mijindadi (1985) also identified lack of coordination of efforts within the programme at all levels and also disruption and inadequate cooperation from the state and local governments and the effect on the population. Agbamu (2006) has it that so many factors such as the non-participatory nature of the various programmes, lack of conducive environment to operate, lack of proper management and coordination among other constraints are major

hindrance to people's participation in development programmes. Idi *et al*. (2007) identified labour intensive farming types and high dependency of household income on farming activities as a constraint to people's participation.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is the social change theory, with specific reference to planned social change. Under the theory, the following perspectives have been used for this study, namely: (i) the community development, (ii) participation, and (iii) project impact analysis perspectives.

Social change is an ever present phenomenon in any society. It is the essence of human existence, development and growth (Robinson, 1982). Moore (1963) seed a social change as the significant alteration of social structure in the society. Rogers (1995) posited that social change is the process through which significant alteration occurs in structure and function of the society. The process of change involves interaction and so individuals must be understood in terms of the group in which they belong or participate. Saltman (1972) defined social change as a term used to describe change in social and economic lifestyle and values of people, technological innovation and social institutions. Thus, for this study, the social change theory has helped to analyze the changes in income and level of living of participants occasioned by the implementation and participants' subsequent involvement in NAPEP activities in the study area.

2.5.1 Community development perspective

Community development is restructuring of the economy in order to satisfy the needs and aspirations of the masses in the community and to promote individual and

collective incentives to participate in the process of development (Dike, 2006). It involved a host of multi-faceted and multi-sectoral activities, including the improvement of agriculture, the promotion of industries in the community, the creation of the requisite infrastructure and social overheads, as well as the establishment of appropriate decentralized structures in order to allow mass participation. Diejomoah (1973) has it that rural development is a process of not only increasing the level of per capita income in rural areas but also the level of living of rural population measured by increase in food and nutritional level, health, education, housing, recreation and security.

The World Bank (1978) defined community development as the process of rural modernization and monetization of the rural society leading to its transition from traditional isolation to integration with the economy. The success of community development is therefore measured in terms of generation of new employment, equitable distribution of income, health improvement housing, and maintenance of law and order (Williams, 1978). Battalanffy (1968) relates theory of community development to systems theory and treats community as a system that is concerned with most important causes for community development that are structure, power, and shared meanings.

General System's theory, provided an analytical framework which was used to describe some of the many factors involved in community development (Dike, 2006). Some of the key issues or concerns in community development, such as accessing power and influence, understanding the dynamics of intergroup relationships, and considering the

changes involved in planning development activities can be understood and described using systems theory.

2.5.2 Concept of participation

Participation is the informed autonomous and meaningful involvement of persons in decision making and actions affecting their livelihoods. Bob (2002) defined participation as the act of providing meaningful structures that allow individuals to direct their energies. It builds the social structure from the participation on individuals. Participation is a process which provides private individuals an opportunity to influence public decisions and has long been a component of the democratic decision-making process. The roots of citizen participation can be traced to ancient Greece and Colonial New England. Before the 1960s, governmental processes and procedures were designed to facilitate "external" participation. Citizen participation was institutionalized in the mid-1960s with President Lyndon Johnson's Great Society programmes (Bob, 2002).

Public involvement is a means towards ensuring that citizens have a direct voice in public decisions. The terms "citizen" and "public," and "involvement" and "participation" are often used interchangeably. While both are generally used to indicate a process through which citizens have a voice in public policy decisions, both have distinctively different meanings and convey little insight into the process they seek to describe. Bob revealed that the term "citizen participation" and it's relationship to public decision-making has evolved without a general consensus regarding either it's meaning nor its consequences (Bob, 2002).

Many agencies or individuals choose to exclude or minimize public participation in planning efforts claiming that citizens' participation is too expensive and time consuming. Yet, many citizen participation programmes are initiated in response to public reaction to a proposed project or action. However, there are tangible benefits that can be derived from an effective citizen involvement programme. Bob (2002) identified five benefits of citizen participation to the planning process:

- Information and ideas on public issues;
- Public Support for planning decisions;
- Avoidance of protracted conflicts and costly delays;
- Reservoir of good will which can carry over to future decisions, and
- Spirit of cooperation and trust between the agency and the public.

However, input from citizen groups outside organizational boundaries can help provide more comprehensive information on all aspects of the policy analysis process. Bob (2002) stated: In a democracy, it is the public that determines where it wants to go and the role of its representatives and bureaucratic staff is to get them there. In other words, ends should be chosen democratically even though the means are chosen technocratically (Bob, 2002).

Poverty eradication programmes often advocate the empowerment and participation of the poor peasants whom the programme package is meant for as a way of enabling them to gain greater control of their lives which then translates to the success of the programme. The concept of citizen's participation in this study will help in the analysis of the extent of the people's participation in the NAPEP programme.

2.5.3 The impact assessment perspectives

Impact can be defined as a long term influence on the state of the environment surrounding an organization (Sanginga *et al*., 1999). The impact of a programme can be seen in relation to what the programme actually has done to the people who participated. According to Patton (1978) it is the actual programme outcomes in relation to the desired outcomes (goals). In determining the impact of social interventions, therefore, Lunsdaine (1975) suggested that the goals of the organization rendering the services should be established. Similarly Hilton and Lunsdaine (1975) suggested that the programme should be assessed considering the desirability of the goals or outcomes sought and the extent to which the goals are furthered by the demonstrable effects. Thus Gilbert *et al*. (1975) observed that social intervention may have more than one goal such as primary and secondary goals which may affect the choice of criteria in assessing its impact. Under these circumstances, it is desirable to use more than one outcome as a measure of impact. For example; the overall aim of community based organization programme is to improve the quality of life of the rural dwellers. However, more immediate outcome of the programme such as awareness and membership increase are also of interest. The impact of the programme may be either positive or negative. These depend on the forces that interact to produce the changes.

Impact Assessment (IA) is a study to identify changes as a result of a programme by employing methods to establish plausible association between changes experienced and participation in the programme. The level and nature of participation should affect the impact of the programme. Impact assessment may link an institutional review of programme components and procedure with client level data to determine what is working well and what can be improved upon (Barnes and Sebstad, 2000). Establishing

impact essentially is making a case that the programme leads to the observed or stated changes. Changes are more likely to occur with programme participants and without programme participants. It does not imply that the changes always occur from participation. Rather, it increases the probability that the changes will occur (Rosi and Freeman, 1989). Baker (2000) also proposed an impact assessment method involving two populations (those with the intervention and those without the intervention). And the impact of the programme can thus be determined by netting out the differences between the two populations after the commencement of the intervention. Jibowo *et al*. (1996) carried out an empirical study in which they used socio-economic status, education, farmer urban residence and contact with extension workers to assess the impact of projects like the Isoya rural development project of the Obafemi Awolowo University,Ile-Ife. For every effective and goal oriented extension programming, impact assessment is very fundamental. The major framework for evaluation of all agricultural programmes, which are design criteria and strategies, has a whole lot in common. Awa (1986) posited that the design for measuring agricultural development efforts must not be at variance with the programmes initiation and implementation strategies.

Organizational impact has to do with comparison of actual results (outputs) with ideal results as stated in the organizational goals (Meyer *et al.,* 1978). They further stated that any attempt aimed at impact assessment must focus on the clientele in order to determine the quality or effectiveness of the product. Makena (1981) and Blanckenbury (1984) posited that in an impact assessment of any programme or organization, be it public or private, clients reaction is very much necessary in determining its effectiveness. The organization relates constantly with its environment and the characters within the environment are not responsible either directly or otherwise for the

supply of resources for the organization's inputs but they are recipient of the outputs (Pennings and Goodman, 1997).

In contrast, the goal approach has to do with the effectiveness of the organization as regards the realization of its stated objectives. These organizational objectives make the determination of the efficacy of the organization possible as it serves as yardstick for comparison between the outlined organizational objectives and its subsequent achievement. Scholars who subscribe to both the system and the goal approaches have it that there is actually a limit to each theoretical position and its attendant methodological operationalization. According to Khan (1977) system approach is abstract and difficult to operationalize while goal approach is constrained by specification and resolution of differences of desired consequences. Cummings (1977) argued that "organizations are best assessed as instruments of outcomes. That is, the effective organization is that which best serve those who perceive it as a means to their ends'. To these end, the impact of the organization on its clients is thus determined by the effectiveness of the organization. Cummings (1977) further stressed that organizational effectiveness is defined not only on the basis of its *apriori* expectation, but also by individual elements that form the bulk of the system.

Rossi *et al.* (1979) observed that the primary objective of any impact assessment study is to estimate the net effects of an intention. Changes traceable to the intervention are the net effects, devoid of effects of other elements present in the situation under assessment. It is against this backdrop that the following formula was recommended for use in impact studies:

$0 = (E_2-E_1) - (C_2-C_1)$ …… (1)

Where:

0= the outcome or impact

E_2=Scores on measure participants livelihood after the intervention.

E_1= Scores on measure of participants livelihood before the intervention.

C_2 = Scores on measure of non-participants livelihood after the intervention.

C_1= Scores on measure of non-participants livelihood before the intervention.

$E_2 – E_1$ minus differences in scores at the two time points of presumably equivalent control group not exposed to intervention (C_2-C_1). It involves before and after measures and comparison groups. Rossi *et al.* (1979) also has it that if records are kept, it will allow the assessment of how much progress participants have made in a project, then descriptive statements can be made about impact. The advantage of the Double-Difference Estimator is that it nets out the effects of any additive factors (whether observable or unobservable) that have fixed (time invariant) impacts on the outcome indicator (such as the abilities of farmers or the inherent quality of natural resources), or that reflect common trends affecting project participants and non participants equally such as changes in prices or weather (Ravallion, 2005). In principle, the Double-Difference approach can be used to assess project impacts without using any other statistical tool (such as the Propensity Score Matching (PSM) method as applied by (Phillip *et al.*, 2009) as it will produce unbiased estimates of impact as long as these assumptions hold, hence the adoption of this method in this study for estimating the impact of NAPEP among the participants. Another name for the Double-Difference estimator is Difference-in-Difference method (Duflo *et al.*, 2004).

In order to determine the extent to which NAPEP is achieving its objectives, the impact of the intervention activities on participants will be considered. In ascertaining the impact of the programme in Kogi State, essential information will be needed as follows:

(1) The impact of the programme on income

(2) The impact of the programme on level of living

An increase in the income and level of living of the participants signifies a positive impact of the programme. This was the technique used in the analysis of the impact of NAPEP on the beneficiaries.

2.6 Conceptual Model

Burt (1993) defined a conceptual model as simply an attempt to classify the major elements of an entity or phenomenon with regards to their functions and inter-relationships in order to observe more closely causal relationships. Furthermore, Asika (2001) observed that a conceptual model is a construction that shows the relationship existing among variables and most often these relationships are depicted schematically and mathematically. Here in figure 1, the model starts with situations before the project was embarked upon by NAPEP and then the interventions and finally the situations after the project in terms of income and level of livings of the participants and non-participants.

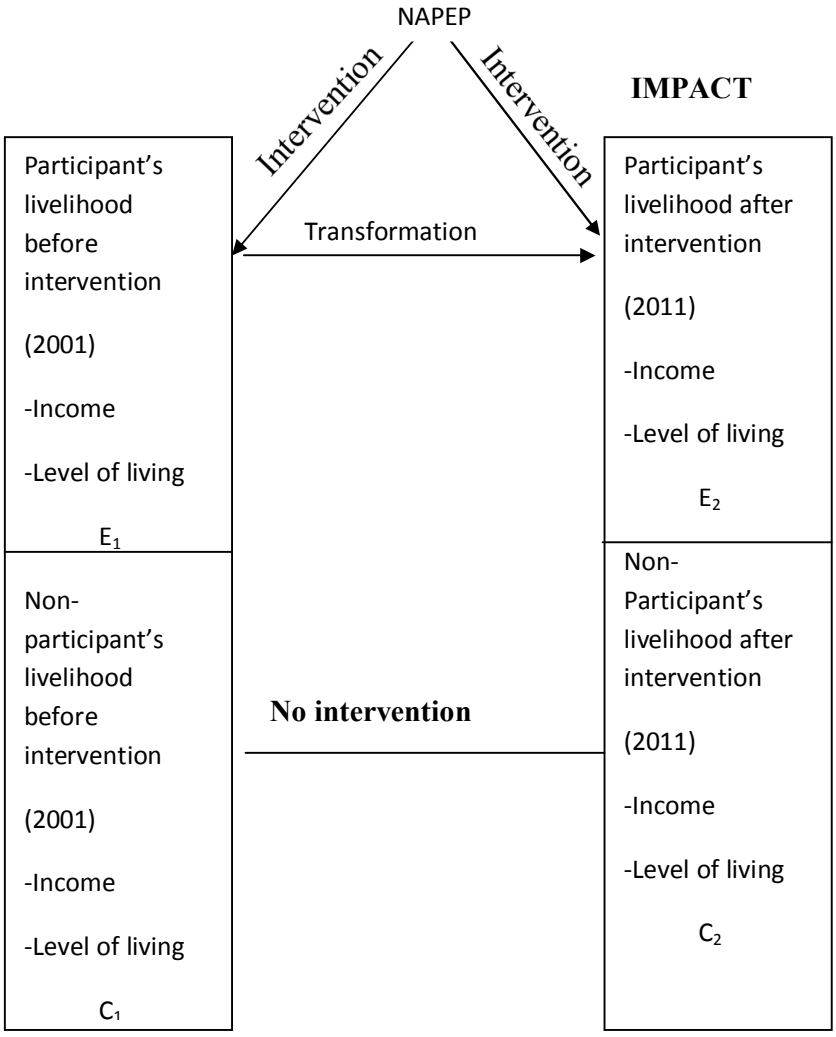


Figure 1: Schematic representation of Impact of NAPEP on participants in Kogi State

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Study Area

The study was conducted in Kogi State. Kogi State was created from Kwara and Benue States along with eight others during the State creation exercise of August 27th, 1991. The State is located between latitude $6^0\ 33^1$ and $8^0\ 44^1$ N and longitude $5^0\ 22^1$ and $7^0\ 49^1$ E and has its capital in Lokoja. Kogi State has a total land area of 28,312.64 square kilometers (Kogi State Ministry of Information, 2010).

The State shares boundaries with Niger, Nassarawa, and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) to the North with Benue to the East and with Enugu, Edo, Ondo, and Kwara States to the South and West respectively, as depicted in Figure 2. The State has a population of 3,661,389 people projected from the 2006 National Census figures, of 3,278,487 people. The climate oscillates between the wet and dry seasons with a daily temperature of between 24^0C-27^0C, while annual mean rainfall is between 1250-1700mm. The vegetation is mixed savannah and forest types. The State has an average of 172,000 farm families; about 70% of this population live in the rural areas and engage in crop production and animal husbandry (Kogi State Ministry of Information, 2010). The State is heterogeneous in terms of its ethnic composition. The major tribes which make up the State are Igala, Ebira, and Okun. There also exist many other small ethnic groups in the State, like the Oworo, Bassa and the Gbagyi's (Kogi State Ministry of Information, 2010).

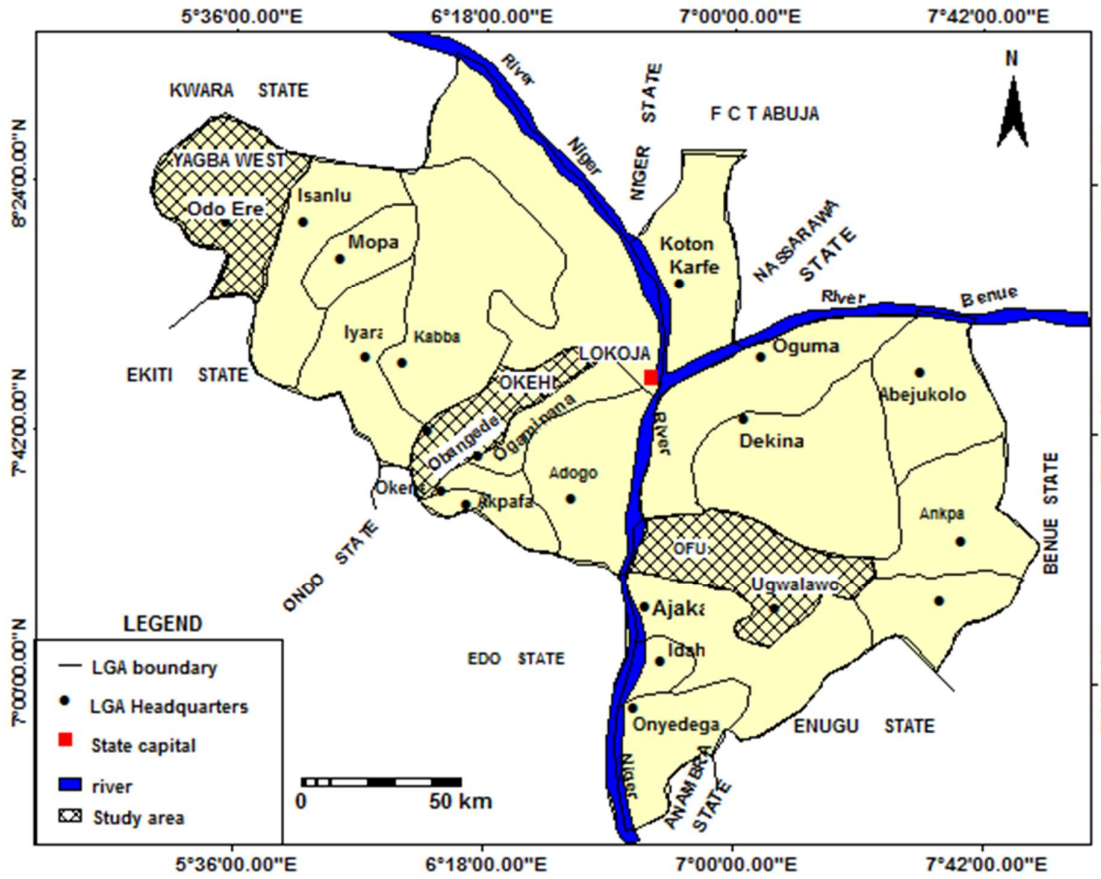


Figure 2: Map of Kogi State Showing Study Area
Source: Adapted and modified from Kogi state Administrative Map

The State comprises of twenty one (21) Local Government Areas (LGAs). The State has large expanse of low-land areas which are extensively plain, alluvial and swampy. The State is also blessed with different soil types, which are rich and conducive for agricultural production. Also, animals of various breeds such as birds, goats, sheep, and cows thrive well under the conducive climate of the State (Kogi ADP, 2005). The study was carried out in Ofu, Yagba-West, and Okehi Local Government Areas (LGAs) of Kogi State. These LGAs had a population of 191,480, 139,928 and 223,574 persons respectively during the 2006 Nigeria Census. The projected figures for these Local Government Areas as at 2010 were, therefore, Ofu= 213,843, Yagba-West= 156,270, Okehi= 310,893. The major economic activity is farming as over eighty percent of the population are engaged in farming (National Population Census, 2006).

3.2 Sampling Procedures and Sample Size

From the twenty one (21) LGAs of Kogi State, three (3) LGAs were purposively selected (each from the three senatorial districts in the State) based on prior knowledge of their active participation in NAPEP activities. From a reconnaissance survey conducted, a list of five hundred and thirty (530) participants (registered members) was obtained. Out of these, 10% of NAPEP's participants were randomly selected, from a list of one hundred and eighty one (181) participants from Ofu, one hundred and seventy six (176) participants from Yagba West and one hundred and seventy three (173) participants from Okehi L.G.A, giving a sample size of 18 for Ofu, 17 for Yagba West and 17 for Okehi making a total of 52 participants. In order to effectively study the impact of NAPEP on participants, fifty two (52) non-participants were randomly selected as a control group making a grand total of one hundred and four (104) respondents from the three LGAs. The primary data were collected based on the 2010

cropping season, the double difference analysis in this study requires baseline data of good quality. The data for the "before" were the baseline data on NAPEP, kept on the programme and these were used for the DDE analysis.

The study considered schemes of NAPEP, alongside its activities, that all the participants took part in and this were as follows:

i. Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES)

(a) Welding

(b) Carpentry

(c) Mechanic

(d) Fashion designing

(e) Interior and exterior decoration

ii. Capacity Enhancement Scheme

(a) Computer training

(b) Catering services

(c) Provision of loan facilities in form of kind, like welding machine, sewing machine, designing machine, sprayers and keke NAPEP.

iii Community Enlightenment Scheme

(a) Television programmes or jingles

(b) Radio programmes or jingles

(c) Workshops/Seminars Training

iv. Social Welfare Scheme

(a) Special education

(b) Formal education

(c) Soccer competition among minors and young ones

(d) Soccer competition among the physically challenged.

v. Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme

(a) Construction of mini dams to ensure portable water for irrigation

(b) Access roads to ease movement of farm inputs to the farm and produce from the farm.

(c) Rural power supply

(d) Equipments for dry season farming like sprinklers.

vi. Natural Resource Conservation Scheme

(a) Reclamation of degraded land, as a result of either natural or manmade disaster to make it arable for the use of the rural people.

(b) Provision of fertilizers

(c) Provision of improved crop varieties.

vii. Multi Partner Micro Finance Scheme

(a) Micro-credit facilities.

These schemes are documented and are being implemented by NAPEP to ensure that poverty is eradicated from the rural areas of Kogi State NAPEP (2001).

Data were collected based on the 2010 cropping season while all other data were based on 2011 (after) and the baseline data was based on 2001.

3.3 Methods of Data Collection and Sources

The study made use of primary and secondary data. The Primary data were obtained through the use of structured questionnaire administered to the participants and non-participants, as well as checklist for NAPEP officials, with the aid of well trained enumerators. One hundred and four copies of questionnaire were administered in three Local Government Areas namely Ofu, Yagba West and Okehi.

Primary data collected include the; socio-economic characteristics of the farmers, such as age, sex, marital status, house hold size, farm size, educational level, major occupation; institutional variables such as formal credit received, sources of income and membership of cooperative, extent of the peoples participation in the NAPEP training activities, medium of awareness, benefits from production materials disbursed by NAPEP. NAPEP trainer's visit, participant's income, participants level of living and constraints faced by participants were collected.

Checklist for NAPEP officials were also administered to elicit response on the constraints facing the implementation of the programme in the study area. Secondary data were obtained from relevant existing literature: from Kogi State chapter of NAPEP, journals, bulletins, proceedings and the internet.

3.4.0 Analytical Techniques

The following tools of analysis were used to achieve the objectives of this study:

3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, mean and percentages were used to achieve objectives (i), (ii) and (iv) which are to (i) describe the socio-economic characteristics of the NAPEP participants; (ii) examine the extent of peoples participation in the activities being implemented by NAPEP in the study area; and (iv) identify the constraints encountered in the implementation of the programme in the state, while Double Difference Estimator model was used to achieve objective (iii) which is to assess the impact of NAPEP on the livelihood of the participants in the study area.

3.4.2 Double Difference Estimator

In order to effectively achieve objective iii of the study, double difference estimation (DDE) model was used in line with the conceptual model presented on page 7, to specifically assess the impact of the programme on income and level of livings of the people. Double difference method is a standard programme evaluation tool used to measure potential programme impact (Verner and Verner, 2005). The model is specified as follows:

$$DD^{s} = \left[\frac{1}{p} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{i=p}(Y_{1ia} - Y_{1ib})\right] - \left[\frac{1}{c} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{j=p}(Y_{0ja} - Y_{0jb})\right] \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots(2)$$

Where:

i= i^{th} No. of participants

j= j^{th} No. of non-participants (control)

Y_{oja}= Non-participants j^{th} at time "a" livelihood after the programme

Y_{ojb} = Non-participants j^{th} at time "b" livelihood before the programme

Y_{1ia}= Participants total livelihood i^{th} at time "a" (after) the programme

Y_{1ib} = Participants total livelihood i^{th} at time "b" (before) the programme

C = number of individuals in the control group (non-participants)

P = number of participants

DD^S = Double difference (~~N~~)

3.5 Definition and Measurement of Variables in the DDE

Impact: In this study, Impact was measured by the income, and living condition of the rural or participants. Baseline data generated by NAPEP formed data for "before" while responses which the questionnaire and other method of data collection employed in this research work formed data for "after" the intervention programme. Impact was measured in terms of income and level of living of the beneficiaries.

i. Income: This refers to proceeds, returns, earnings, of respondents. It was expected that the higher the respondents income, the higher the level of living (Frankenberger *et al.,* 1998). This was measured in naira. Baseline data generated by NAPEP formed data for "before" while responses which the questionnaire and other method of data collection employed in this research elicited formed data for "after" the intervention programme.

ii. Level of living: Frankenberger *et al.* (1998) seed the concept of level of living as the sustainable access to resources to meet basic needs including adequate access to food, portable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, time for individual participation and social integration. Similarly Ekong (2003) used quantity and quality of goods and services consumed by an individual and his or her family members, including their material possessions as indices to describe level of living. For the purpose of this

study, level of living was measured by ownership and sustainable access to resources aimed at meeting the basic need of the respondents. These indices were used for measuring level of living. Level of living was measured by the level/ extent of ownership or access to the basic needs of life, as depicted by the additional income generated, and which are translated into increased level of living as a result of their participation in NAPEP activities. Baseline data generated by NAPEP formed data for "before" while responses which the questionnaire and other method of data collection employed in this research work elicited data which formed data for "after" the intervention programme.

Chapter 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of Respondents

4.1.1 Sex

Table 1 shows that majority (67%) of the participants were male, while 33% were female. About 65% of the non-participants were male while 35% were female. This implies that sex distribution for the participating respondents was skewed towards male in the programme. This indicates a dominance of male folk in the programme. This agrees with the findings of Emodi (2009) who found that majority of the respondents were male.

4.1.2 Age

Results of the analysis on age of the participants show that about 40% of the respondents were between the age range of 44-53 years. About 29% of the respondents were within the age range of 34-43 years. The result on the age of the non-participants shows that majority (46%) were between the age range of 44-53 years. This was followed by 35% that were within the age range of 34-43 years. This result agrees with that obtained by Erinle (1999) who noted that participants were younger in age when compared to their non-participating counterpart. The need for persons in this virile age to increase their income in order to cater for both personal needs as well as that of their dependants could have been the reason for their participation in the programme. This implies that majority of the participating respondents were within their middle age and were more likely to be more productive.

4.1.3 Marital status

It is evident from Table 1 that 62% of the participants and 58% of the non-participants were married. About 15% of the participants were widows and 6% were widowers. The result implies that majority of the participants have partners who could encourage them to participate in the programme for increased income. The percentage of widows and widowers indicates a high level of participation of vulnerable groups in the programme. The result on the participant's marital status tallies with the findings of Eze *et al.* (2009). They found that majority of the participants were married. The result of this study also agrees with the findings of Sabo (2005) which revealed that majority of the participants and the non-participants were married.

Table 1: Socio-economic characteristics of participants and non participants

	Participants		Non-participants	
Items	**Frequency**	**Percentages**	**Frequency**	**Percentages**
Sex:				
Male	35	67.3	34	65.3
Female	17	32.6	18	34.6
Age(years):				
23-33	12	23.0	7	13.3
34-43	15	28.8	18	34.5
44-53	21	40.1	24	46.0
54-73	4	7.6	3	5.8
Mean	13.0		13.0	
Marital status:				
Single	7	13.5	4	7.7
Married	32	61.5	30	57.7
Widowed	8	15.3	5	9.6
Widower	3	5.7	11	21.1
Divorce	2	3.8	2	3.8
Educational level:				
No formal education	3	5.8	12	23.1
Adult education	7	13.4	15	28.8
Primary education	16	30.8	13	25.0
Secondary education	11	21.2	10	19.2
Post secondary education	15	28.8	2	3.8
Major occupation:				
Farming	17	32.7	10	19.2
Trading	20	38.4	29	55.7
Civil servant	15	29.0	13	25.0
Household size:				
1-4 Persons	11	21.2	21	40.0
5-8 Persons	31	60.0	27	52.0
9-12 Persons	9	17.3	4	7.6
12 and above	1	2.0	0	0.0
Farm size:				
0.0	10	19.2	22	42.3
0.1-1.50	18	34.7	17	32.6
1.51-3.00	16	30.7	12	23.0
3.1-4.5	8	15.3	1	2.0
Mean	13.0		13.0	

4.1.4 Household size

Household size is an important factor in traditional agriculture because it influences the supply of labour for immediate employment and determines consumption pattern (Akinyemi, 1998). Findings in Table 1 reveal that majority (60%) of the participants' have on the average household size of between 5-8 persons. About 21% of the participants had a household size of about 1-4 persons. Also 17% of the participants had between 9-12 persons in a household. Result on the non-participants' household size reveals that 52% had a household size of between 5-8 persons while about 40% had household size of between 1-4 persons. Also, 8% of the non- participating respondents had between 9-12 persons in a household. The implication of this is that the participants had a fairly large household size, which could be harnessed as labour force for high productivity to increase the family income and level of living. Conversely, large household sizes have been noted to have relationship with food insecurity and poverty, especially when the household head is engaged in agriculture as the main source of income and livelihood (Ike and Uzokwe, 2011). The fairly large family size could be the reason for participants' participation in the programme as a means of generating and diversifying income and livelihood in order to cater for the family. The results agree with the findings of Agwu *et al*. (2009) in which they reported a fairly large household size.

4.1.5 Educational level

The level of education of the respondents in Table 1 reveals that 31% of the participants completed primary school, 21% had secondary education and 29% attended post secondary education. For the non-participants, 29% attended adult education while 25% attended primary education. This result tallies with the findings of Idi *et al.* (2006) in

which they reported that participants of the programme were more educated than the non-participants. This implies that majority of the participant's attended one form of formal education or the other. Education has been shown to be a factor in the adoption of modern practices and it is generally considered an important variable that could enhance participants' adoption of recommended practices (Obinne, 1991).

4.1.6 Major occupation

Table 1 reveals that a greater proportion (38%) of the participants were traders. About 33% were farmers and 29% were civil servants. For the non-participants, 56% were traders, 25% were civil servants and 19% indicated farming as a major occupation. Respondents with trading and civil service as their major occupation had farming as their secondary occupation. The implication of this finding on the income and level of living of participants is that it could promote or enhance livelihood diversification which could also make more money available for investment in farming and poverty reduction. This agrees with the findings of Yahaya (2002) who noted that the ever-increasing socio-economic crises and poverty had forced people to opt for livelihood diversification in order to support their families.

4.1.7 Total farm land area cultivated

Table 1 reveals that 35% of the NAPEP participants had farm size of about 0.1-1.50ha while 31% of the participants had farm size of 1.51-3.00ha. About 15% of the participants had farm size of about 3.1-4.5ha. For non- participants 33% had farm size of about 0.1-1.50ha while 23% of them have 1.51-3.00ha and 2% of the non-participants had 3.1-4.5ha cultivable farm size. About 42% of the non-participants had no farm size while 19% of the participants are without farms. The participants have

more farm size than the non-participants, although the farm sizes are below the international standards. According to the International standards judgment for farm sizes, farms less than 10ha are classified as small scale farms (Ozowa, 2005). This implies that most of the participants in the study area were small scale farmers and may find mechanization difficult. This is consistent with the findings of and Sanginga *et al.* (1999) in the study of the social impact of soya beans in Nigeria's southern guinea savannah, which revealed that small holder farmers' income was low. Ekong (2003) stated that Nigerian farmers' income varies with the type of crop (cash or export crops), farm size, farming type and status in farming-weather he is a part time or full time farmer.

4.1.8 Formal credit received in 2011

Table 1 reveals that all the participants of NAPEP received formal credit facilities in 2011, while non-participants did not receive any form of formal credit. The credit facility received was to increase the participant's capital base and subsequently have a positive impact on their productivity. This implies that more credit is available to the participants and may cause them to participate actively in the programme and adopt recommended practices. This agrees with the findings of Nasiru (2010) who noted that access to micro-credit could have prospect in improving the productivity of farmers and contributing to uplifting the livelihoods of disadvantaged rural farming communities.

4.1.9 Sources of income

Table 2, reveals that all (100%) the participants indicated NAPEP schemes as a source of income. About 29% indicated trading as their source of income, while 19% got their income from farming. These finding implies that the various sources of income of the

participants has impacted more on their income positively, as these has resulted in the acquisition of household productive assets that helped to add value to their level of living and occupation. The result tallies with the findings of Nasiru (2010) who found that reliable source of income could have a positive impact on livelihoods of rural farming communities.

Table 2: Sources of income of the participants and non-participants

Sources of income	Participants		Non-Participants	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
NAPEP Schemes	52	100.0	-	-
Trading	15	29.0	41	79.0
Farming	10	19.2	7	13.4
Salary (Govt.)	5	9.6	4	7.6
Fishing	2	3.8	-	-
Total	**84***	-	**52**	**100.0**

*Multiple responses

4.1.10 Membership of cooperative societies

The result reveals that all the participants (100%) were members of co-operative societies. The non- participants were not members of cooperative society. The implication of this is that, the participants in the study area are members of cooperative societies because they know the benefits inherent in being a member of cooperative society. Ekong (2003) and Ajayi (2002) stated that participants in cooperative societies have the following advantages, such as micro-credit, input subsidy and also as avenue for cross breeding ideas and information.

4.2.0 Extent of the People's Participation in NAPEP Activities

Objective (ii) of the study, to determine the extent of the people's participation in NAPEP activities.

4.2.1 Respondent's Medium of Awareness

Table 3 reveals that majority (100%) of the participants knew about NAPEP through its officials. Also, 96% of the participants knew about NAPEP through radio. About 71% respondents had the knowledge of NAPEP through the television. Also friends created awareness that benefitted 82%.The implication of this is that, the most accessible sources of information to NAPEP participant's is the NAPEP officials. The result also revealed that the radio compliments the effort of NAPEP officials, and so NAPEP could consolidate on that by exploring the possibility of utilizing the media to disseminate information to participants.

Table 3: Respondent's medium of awareness

Medium of awareness	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
NAPEP official	52	100.0
Friend	43	82.7
Television	37	71.2
News paper	3	5.8
Fliers	15	28.8
Campaigns	18	34.6
Kogi ADP	20	38.5
Radio	50	96.2
Total	**238***	

*Multiple responses

4.2.2 Respondents who Benefited in Cash (credit)

Table 4 reveals that about 71% of the respondents got ₦150, 000, while approximately 10% got ₦500,000 from the loan disbursed by NAPEP. The result revealed that the highest amount disbursed was ₦500,000 per person.

Table 4: Number of Respondents who got Benefits in Cash Per Annum

Amount (Yearly)	Frequency	Percentage
150000	37	71.2
200000	3	5.8
250000	2	3.8
300000	5	9.6
500000	5	9.6
Total	**52**	**100.0**

4.2.3 Respondents who Got Production Material Resources

Table 5 shows that about 100% of the participants got NAPEP's production material resources in terms of training while about 64% of the respondents got input supply initiatives of NAPEP. From the result, it can be observed that these production materials could increase participant's income and level of living. Table 5 also reveals that 62% of the respondents also got production material from NAPEP programmes worth 300,000, about 25% of the participants got production material worth ₦5,000. This implies that the participants have more assets, which could make them more comfortable. This agrees with the findings of Idi *et al*. (2006) who found positive impact among his project's participants compared with the non-participants in terms of income and level of living.

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents according to Production Material Resources Received from NAPEP expressed in Monetary terms.

Benefits in kind	Monetary Value of the benefits in kind	Frequency	Percentage
Wheel barrow	12000	1	1.90
Sewing machine	15000	1	1.90
Knapsack sprayer	25000	1	1.90
Fertilizer	5000	13	25.00
Setting up of vulcanizing shop	120000	2	3.80
Maize thresher	250000	1	1.90
Tricycle (Keke NAPEP)	300000	32	61.50
Training	n.a	52	100.0
Employment	n.a	23	44.2
Inputs supply	n.a	33	63.5

*Multiple response
n.a = Not available

4.2.4 Extent of the People's Participation in NAPEP Training Activities

Table 6 reveals that 6% of the respondents took part in the welding training activity of NAPEP. Also 27% of the participants were beneficiaries of workshops while about 14% benefitted from NAPEPs training on tailoring. The above finding implies that respondents participated actively in most of the activities carried out by NAPEP and this could boost their income level as well as improving their level of living. The result is consistent with the findings of Fidelis (1998) who reported a high level of people's participation in poverty eradication programmes in Nigeria.

Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to extent of the peoples participation in NAPEP training activities participated

Activities	Frequency	Percentage
i. Welding	3	5.8
ii.Carpentry	1	1.9
iii.Fashion designing	4	7.7
iv.Interior decoration	6	11.5
v.Tailoring	7	13.5
vi.Provision of work materials/inputs	14	26.9
vii.Workshop/ seminar training	14	26.9

4.2.5 Visits by NAPEP Trainers

Table 7 reveals that 100% of the respondents were visited by NAPEP officials. The table shows that 71% and 23% of the respondents had NAPEP officials visiting them three and two times respectively, while 6% of the respondents had NAPEP officials visit once during the period under study. The result implies that NAPEP trainers visit and number of visits could cause increased participation and could help the respondent's judgment towards efficient investment of the credit granted by NAPEP either in cash or in kind which has the potential of improving their level of living as well as their income. The findings agrees with Sabo (2005) who reported that most of the participants of women in agriculture (WIA) programme say the inclusion of extension services as one of the activities carried out by WIA was the primary objective of their participation.

Table 7: Respondents distribution according to NAPEP trainers visit and number of visits

NAPEP trainers visit	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	52	100.0
No	-	-
Total	**52**	**100.0**
Number of visits		
1	3	5.8
2	12	23.1
3	37	71.2
Total	**52**	**100.0**

4.3 Impact of NAPEP on Income and Livelihoods of Participants

Objective (iii) of the study is to test the significant difference between the income as well as level of living of participants and non-participants.

4.3.1 Income of participants and non-participants

The result of DDE on Table 8 shows that the mean annual household income for the participant's was ₦143,118 compared to ₦106,556 before the programme implementation, showing an increase of ₦36,562 (34.3%). However, the mean annual household income for the non-participants was 21,776 compared to 98,351 before the programme implementation, showing an increase of 21,776 (22%). The current national mean income for Nigeria is ₦66,802 (NBS, 2011), which is by far lower than the mean income of the participants (₦143,118). This implies that the NAPEP participants have higher income than the national average income of an ordinary Nigerian. The increase in income for the participants in NAPEP was also positive and significantly higher than that of the non-participants ($P< 0.01$) with a double difference of 121,342. Hence, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between income of participants and non-participants was rejected and the alternative that there is significant

difference between the income of the NAPEP participants and non-participants was accepted. Comparing the percentage increase in the mean income of participants at 134% and that of their non-participating counterpart at 22%, with a difference of 112%, it is clear that NAPEP has achieved considerable success in its operation in the state. This result is in agreement with the findings of Abdullahi (2005) who found a significant difference in income between participants and non-participants in his study of some poverty eradication programmes.

Table 8: Results of DDE showing the impact of NAPEP on the income of the respondents in the study area

Group	Mean Income(₦)	Std Err.	Std Dev	95% confidence	-	Interval
Participants	143,118.6	16885.06	121759.9	109220.4	-	177016.7
Non-participants	21,776.23	5745.112	41428.59	10242.44	-	33310.02
Combined	82,447.39	10700.17	109120.7	61226.14	-	103668.6
Difference	121,342.3	17835.68		156719.3	-	85965.33
Prob.(<0.01)*						

* $P < 0.01$

4.3.2 Level of living of participants and non-participants

In the context of this study, level of living is used synonymously with poverty status. Thus, level of living (poverty status) is defined (World Bank, 2010) according to the internationally accepted poverty line of $1.25 (₦ 202.50) per capita per day. The current national level of living for Nigeria is ₦66,802 (NBS, 2011), The second hypothesis that there is no significant difference between level of living of participants and non-participants was tested using the DDE. In netting out the level of living of participants, their material possessions and annual expenditure on food and fuels were quantified in

monetary terms and the prevailing market price of each item was taken to represent their level of living.

Table 9 reveals that the mean household level of living for the participants was ₦155,745 which was far below the poverty line, but higher than the non-participants. This implies that the increase in level of living of the participants in NAPEP was positive and significantly different from that of the non-participants (P< 0.01). Hence, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between the level of living of participants and non-participants is therefore rejected, and the alternative that there is significant difference between the level of living of participants and non-participants is accepted. This result is in agreement with the findings of Akpoko *et al.* (1998) in their study of impact of non-governmental agricultural extension training programme in Zaria, Nigeria. The result is also in agreement with Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) (2010) which reported that about 70% of Nigerians live below the poverty line as majority of the NAPEP participants were still living below the poverty line though were far better than the non-participants as revealed by this study.

Table 9: Results of DDE showing the impact of NAPEP on the level of living of the respondents in the study area

Group	**Mean livelihood (₦)**	**Std Err.**	**Std Dev**	**95% conf.**	**Interval**
Participants	155,745.2	25623.64	184774.7	104303.6	207186.8
Non-participants	19,714.06	11597.67	83632.02	-3569.25	42997.36
Combined	87,729.63	15516.54	158238.3	56956.23	118503
Difference	136,031.1	28126.09		191819.1	80243.16
Prob.(<0.01)					

* P < 0.01

4.4.1 Constraints faced by the participants.

The result in Table 10 shows that majority (69%) of the participants had insufficient credit facility to invest in their enterprise as their major constraint. This implies that credit facility being disbursed to the participants was inadequate. This is in agreement with the findings of Gumwa (2009) in a mid-term assessment of NAPEP activities in Kogi State who found that disbursable funds available to was insufficient. The findings show that delay in receipt of funds from the federal government as well as its insufficient nature was a major constraint. This implies that without adequate or sufficient credit facility to facilitate the expansion of their business or farming, participants will remain at the small scale level and these cannot lead to poverty eradication.

Another constraint faced by the respondents was political interference in the programme of which about 60% of the respondents ranked second. This is in agreement with the findings of Ekong (2003) and Akanya (1989) in their separate findings. They identified political factors as one of the major constraints faced by participants in poverty eradication programmes.

About 46% of the respondents indicated lack of farm mechanization implements as a constraint. Absence of farm mechanization practices which is evident in the non availability of tractor hiring services is a major constraint as this is hindering the farmers from cultivating large expanse of land. Absence of farm mechanization services means that respondents engaged in farming still depend on the use of crude implements like the hoes and cutlasses with its attendant drudgery effects. This implies that agricultural practice in the study area depends largely on human efforts. Therefore, low

output could be expected for market surplus especially with high cost of labour. This agrees with the findings of Idachaba (1985) who reported that farm mechanization had become a missing input needed to accelerate Nigeria's agricultural production. In addition Idi *et al.* (2007) in comparative study of participants and non-participants of women in agricultural cooperatives in Tafawa Balewa Local Government Area in Bauchi State, Nigeria. They identified labour intensive farming types which include the use of crude implements in farming activities as a very serious constraint.

Insufficient supply of farm inputs, late supply of input, lack of storage and processing facilities and high cost of inputs were identified as constraints with 27%, 21%, 10% and 8% of the respondents' population respectively. This is in agreement with the findings of Akanya (1989); Abdullahi (2005); Ekong (2003) in their separate studies which revealed that participating farmers encounter several constraints associated with poverty eradication programmes.

Table 10: Distribution of participants according to the constraints faced

Constraints	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Insufficient credit facilities	36	69.2	1st
Political manipulation	31	59.6	2nd
Farm mechanization not encouraged	24	46.1	3rd
inadequate farm inputs	14	26.9	4th
Input supply not timely	11	21.1	5th
Lack of storage and processing facilities	5	9.6	6th
High cost of inputs	6	11.6	7th
Lack of access road	4	7.6	8th
Inadequate training and re-training programmes for participants	2	3.8	9th

*Multiple responses

4.4.2 Constraints faced by NAPEP agency in the implementation of its programmes

Table 11 shows that about 90% of the respondents indicated that the funds released were not adequate to cater for their outlined activities. About 60% of the respondents indicated corrupt practices as a constraint. About 40% of the respondents observed that delay in released of fund by the federal government is a major constraint in the implementation of NAPEP activities in the study area.

Another 80% of the respondents said poor loan repayment culture among beneficiaries is a major constraint. This implies that some beneficiaries often receive loan either in cash or in kind but default.

Table 11: Constraints faced by NAPEP agency in the implementation of its programmes as elicited by the checklist for NAPEP staff

Constraints	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Inadequate release of funds	9	90.0	1st
Poor loan repayment culture	8	80.0	2nd
Political manipulation	6	60.0	3rd
Delay in release of fund by the Federal Government	4	40.0	4th

*Multiple responses

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This research was designed to assess the impact of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on rural livelihood in Kogi State, Nigeria. Specific objectives were to find the socio–economic status of participants and non-participants, the extent of participants' participation in NAPEP activities, impact of NAPEP on participants as well as the major constraints encountered in the implementation of the programme. The result of the descriptive statistics revealed that majority of the respondents were males (67% for participants and 65% for non-participants) with an age range of 23years and above for each group. Majority of the respondents (62% for participants and 58% for non-participants) were married. Most of the household sizes of the respondents range from 5-8 people per household which was 60% for participants and 52% for non-participants.

Majority of the respondents (94% for participants and 76% for non-participants) had one form of formal education or the other. Major occupation of respondents has it that 33% of the participants were farmers and 56% of the non-participants were traders. The result also show that all (100%) the participants had NAPEP schemes as their source of income apart from income from their major occupation while most of the non-participants have trading as their major source of income. All (100%) of the participants were members of cooperative society while the non-participants were non members. The land area cultivated by respondents ranged from 0.1-1.50 ha with 35% for participants and 33% for non-participants. All (100%) benefitted from NAPEP credit, while the non-participants did not benefit. Most of the participants (82%) had increased

knowledge of NAPEP in 2010. All the participants received training on entrepreneurial skills and credit facility either in cash or in kind. The NAPEP officials visited the participants for at most 3 times in a year for participants while the non-participants did not get any visit. The constraints faced by the implementers of the programme are corruption, delay in release of fund by the Federal government and poor loan repayment culture on the part of the beneficiaries. Double difference estimator (DDE) method was used to test for the impact of NAPEP on the income of the participants using non-participants as the control group. The DDE analysis result revealed that the income of participants after the intervention increased by ₦143,118 (134%) after the intervention (from ₦106,556 before the intervention to ₦249,675 after the intervention). Income of the non-participants increased by ₦21,776 (22%) after the intervention (from N98,351 before the intervention to ₦120,127 after the intervention). The difference between participants and non-participants (DDE) [(143,118)] - [(21,776)] equals to ₦121,342, it was positive and statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) as such the null hypothesis was rejected; the implication was that there was a significant difference between the income of participants and non-participants after the intervention.

The DDE analysis result show that the level of living of participants after the intervention increased by ₦155,745 (200%) after the intervention. While the non-participants level of living increased by ₦19,714 (20%) after the intervention (from ₦94,159 before the intervention to ₦113,873 after the intervention). The difference between participants and non-participants (DDE) [(155,745)] -[(19,714)] equals to ₦136,031, it was positive statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) as such the null hypothesis was rejected; the implication was that there was a significant difference between the level of living of participants and non-participants after the intervention. Hypotheses

tested were both rejected because there is significant difference in income and livelihood of participants. Thus, the programme has made significant impact on the income and livelihood of its participants in the study area.

5.2 Conclusion

The findings revealed that participants were stable than their non-participating counterparts because the income of participants was higher, as it increased by ₦143,118 (134%) than that of the non-participants which only increased by ₦21,776 (22%) after the programme intervention. Also the level of living of participant increased by ₦155,745 (200%), while that of non-participants increased by only ₦19,714 (20%). This marked an immense acceleration in the development of the participants in terms of level of living. The result implies that the participants were more comfortable as they had more household basic needs and assets, means of transportation and farming implements which reduce drudgery in farming, and translates into increased income and better level of living among the participants. This indicates that the programme has made considerable positive impact on the lives of the participants in the study area.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study the following recommendations were made:

(i) In order to ensure sustained income generation, better level of living among the NAPEP participants, it was recommended that NAPEP and its activities should be left to continue even after the administration that initiated it.

(ii) It was found that the major constraints facing participants of NAPEP were insufficient funds. To this end, it is recommended that NAPEP should increase the amount of soft loan or credit facility to participants.

(iii) Untimely arrival and costly nature of inputs were observed from the study. In view of this, it is recommended that NAPEP should make inputs available to the participants on time and at subsidized rate.

(iv) It was observed that non repayment of loan was an impediment to the scheme. As a result, NAPEP should set up a special monitoring and recovery committee to monitor the disbursed loan, right from when it is been disbursed throughout the period the money will be with the beneficiaries till it's being paid back and/or recovered.

(v) The findings reveals the absence of good quality storage and processing facilities. The government and private investors through NAPEP should construct/build a cottage industry in the study area, to ease the plight of its participants.

(vi) Education is a key factor in reduction of rural poverty in general, whether the households are headed by men or women. Welfare levels increase as educational attainment increases. Household heads without any formal education are always the poorest among the rural farming households (Ike 2012). Hence, there is the need for improved extension programme in the state so that the NAPEP participants can improve themselves.

(vii) Large household size was found to have relationship with poverty especially where the household head engages in agriculture for livelihood and income. Hence, there is the need for efforts at further sensitizing the populace on the need to control birth and to remove all cultural beliefs that tend to lead to overpopulation should be encouraged through proper advocacy.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

The suggested area for further research is:

i. Similar research should be replicated in other States using different methodological approaches and statistical tools to further provide justification of the impact of NAPEP.

REFERENCES

Abdullahi, H. (2005). *Effect of Sassakawa Global 2000 on Small Scale Maize Farmers in Kaduna State.* Unpublished M.Sc. Thesis, Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Sociology, Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria. PP.1-30

Adegbehin, J. O., Chikwendu, D. O., Omotayo A. M., Arokoyo, J. O, Akpoko, J. G., Umaru, M and Dafwang, I. I. (2001). Impact of the Training and Visit in Nigeria: The Nigeria Journal of Agricultural Extension and Research Liaison Services (NAERLS) Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria PP. 43-51.

Agbamu, J. U. (2006). *Essentials of Agricultural Communication in Nigeria.* Malthouse Press Limited, Lagos. PP.180-186.

Agumagu, A. C. (2000). *Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria:* Can Agricultural Extension Help? In: Agbamu, J.U. (ed.) (2009); *Perspectives in Agricultural Extension and Rural- Development*, Springfield Publishers Lagos, PP.345.

Ajayi, A. R. (2009). *The Role Expectation of Agricultural Extension in Poverty Alleviation in a Democratic and Deregulated Economy.* In Agbamu J.U. (Eds). Perspectives in agricultural Extension and Rural- Development, Springfield Publishers, Lagos PP. 196-213.

Akanya, B. A. (1989). *Impact of Agricultural Extension Programmes on Farm Production and Level of living of Farmers: A Case study of Borno State Accelerated Development Area Programme.* Unpublished M.Sc Thesis, Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria. PP. 1-50.

Akinola, M. O. (2003). *The Performance of Fadama User Associations under the National Fadama Development Project Phase I,* Unpublished Ph.D thesis, Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Ahmadu Bello University (ABU Zaria, Nigeria PP. 3-73.

Akinyemi, S. D. (1998). *Status, Problems and Prospects of Rural Land Tenure in Kaduna State and some reflection on Land Tenure Policies in Nigeria*. An unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Cornell University, U.S.A. PP.75.

Akpoko, J. G., Auta, S. J and Arokoyo, J. T. (1998). The Impact of Non- Governmental Agricultural Extension Training programmes: A Case study of the Nigerian Tobacco Company, Zaria. Nigeria. *Journal of Agricultural Extension,* zaria Nigeria: (1 and 2): 97-110.

Akpoko, J. G., Omotayo, A. M. and Koroduma, A. S. (1995). Performance of Small Scale farmers Under Private Extension Agencies in Nigeria: The case of AFCOTT Nigeria Plc. *Agricultural Systems in Africa*. 5(2): 27-34

Akpoko, J. G., Lancon, F. and Erenstein, O. (2001). *Nigeria`s Rice Economy: State of the Art*, *Draft Paper*. WARDA, Bouake, Cote d`Ivoire.

Aliu, A. (2001). In: Joseph I. O. (2005). *An Assessment of Impacts of Poverty Reduction Programme in Nigeria as a Development Strategy*, Ph.D Dissertation of St. Clement, University of Turks and Caicoos, Island PP. 1-50.

Atala, T. K., Tunji, A. and Omata, P. A. (1992). The Impact of the T&V System of Extension on Adoption of Farm Innovations and Farm Output in Kaduna State, Nigeria, in: The *Nigeria Journal of Agricultural Extension,* Vol.7,NO.1&2, National Agricultural Extension and Research Liaison Services, Zaria. pp 59-70

Baker, E. A. (2000). *Instructional Approaches Used to Integrate Literacy and Technology*. http:// www.readingonline.org/articles/baker/.

Bob, P. (2002). Theory of Citizens Participation, Yales University Press, United States of America, pp.1-6.

Burt, S. (1993). In: 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 1-50.

Cummings, L. L. (1977). Emergence of the Instrumental Organization in: P.S. Goodman and J.H. Pennings (eds.) *New Perspective on Organizational Effectiveness.* San Francisco California Jossey-Boss Publishers pp.56-62.

Dhanarajan, G. (2001). Evaluation Consideration for On-line ESL Courses. The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. viii, No.3, March 2002. http://itesij.org/

Duflo, E., Mullainathan S. and Bertrand, M. (2004). How Much Should We Trust Difference-In-Difference Estimates. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 119(1): 249–275.

Ekong, E. E. (2003). *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*, Dove Publishers Ltd, Ibadan, pp. 130-135.

Emodi, A. I. (2009). *Analysis of Rice Innovation System in Southeast Nigeria*, PhD Thesis, Presented at the Department of Agricultural Extension, University of Nigeria Nsukka. PP. 45.

Erinle, A. O. (1999). *Rural Poverty, Food Production and Demand in Kebbi State,Nigeria.* Unpublished, Ph.D Thesis in the Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

Eze, C. I. (2004). *A Comparative Study of Fadama and Non-Fadama Crop Farmers in Osisioma-Ngwa L.G.A., Abia State, Nigeria.* Sustainable Tropic Agriculture, Resources., to Farmers 1986-1995. Technical Report, Project coordinating unit, Gashua, Yobe State. pp. 11-334.

Fasina, O. O. and Okunola, J. O. (2004). *Impact of Youth Agricultural Programmes on Food Production in Ondo State* in: Journal of Agricultural Extension Society of Nigeria (AESON), Vol.9, 2006,pp.134-140.

Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (FMARD) (1977). *Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development Brochure on NAFPP Lagos.*

Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN) (1988). *The Fourth National Development Plan, 1981-1984.Federal Office of Planning.*

Fidelis, O. O. (2001). *An Appraisal of Poverty Reduction Strategies in Nigeria. In: Central Bank of Nigeria Economic and Financial* Review Vol. 39. No.4.

Garuba, M. (2009). In: Titus, O. G. and Samuel, O. E., (1995). *The Synthesis of Comparative Extension Systems.* Published by Emmy Press Ltd. Ibadan,Nigeria, pp. 1-40

Gilbert, F. J., Cortes, J. E., Baker, S. D., Thomas, D. A. (1975). *Anoveldioxolane Nucleoside Analogies as Activity in Patients with Advanced Leucamia*, J Line Oncol/19:62-77, 2004.United Kingdom Aberden Technical University, Berlin Germany.

Gumwa, G. (2009). Kogi State National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP): The Story So Far. *Poverty Monitoring Manual of Kogi State NAPEP*, pp.1-19.

Idachaba, F. S. (1985). The Green Revolution: Goals For And Constraints On Agricultural Development in the 1980s. *In:* Ijere, M. O. and Idachaba F. S (Eds) ARMT seminar series, NDI, I lorin,Nigeria:pp18-36.

Idachaba, F. S. (2006). *Good Intentions Are Not Enough: Collected Essays on Government and Agriculture.* Ibadan University Press, Ibadan, pp.58.

Idi, S., Mohammed. S., Hamidu B. M and Kanawa Z. C.(2006). A Comparative Study of Participants and Non-participants of Women Agricultural Cooperatives in Tafawa Balewa Local Government Area of Bauchi State. *Proceedings of 20th Annual National Conference of Farm Management Association of Nigeria*, held at Alhaji Tafawa Balewa University Bauchi, Pp .478- 482.

Igbozurike,W. and Diatchevbe, O. (1982). The Social Cost of Irrigation: The case of Bakolori. *Proceedings of Fourth Afro-Asian Regional Conference on Irrigation and Drainage,Lagos, Nigeria.Vol.2(28):pp.247-358.*

Ike, P. C. (2012). *An analysis of the impact of Fadama III project on poverty alleviation in Delta State,* Nigeria. Asian journal of agricultural science 4(2): Pp.158-164. Maxwell science organization 2012.

Ike, P. C. and Uzokwe, U. N. (2011). *Estimation of Poverty among Rural Farming Households in Delta State, Nigeria.* Int. J. Agric. Food Sci. Technol., 2(1): 11-21.

International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington D. C. Ravallion, M. (2005). *Evaluating Anti Poverty Programmes.* Policy Research Working Paper No.3625, World Bank, Washington D. C.

Jibowo A. A. (1996). *Essentials of Rural Sociology*. Gbemisodipo Press Limited, Abeokuta Nigeria.

Joseph, I. O. (2005). *An Assessment of Iimpacts of Poverty Reduction Programme In Nigeria As A Development Strategy*. PhD Dissertation of St. Clement University of Turks and Caicoos, Island.

Journal of Agricultural Extension, National Agricultultural Extension and Research Liaison Services (NAERLS) Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria PP. 43-51.

Khan, R. L. (1977). Organizational Effectiveness: An Overview" p. 232 in: Goodman P. S., San Francisco, Carlifornia Jossey-Boss Publishers.

Kogi State Ministry of Information (2010). *Working Document.*

Makena, C. (1981). Making Evaluation Manageable, *Journal of Agricultural Extension,* Published by Department of Agricultural Extension, University of Nigeria Nsukka, Enugu State, Vol. 19, pp. 9-14.

Meriam Webster's *Third New International Dictionary*, Ethel S., Zimmerman (eds)(1958-1959) Koneman publishers. pp1778.

Meyer, M. W.(1978). *Environments and Organizations,* San Francisco Carlifornia: Jossey-Boss Publishers.

Mijindadi, N. (1991). *Unification of Agricultural Extension Services in Nigeria: The Concepts and Operational Challenges*. Lead Paper at National Extension System and Women In Agriculture Workshop Held at Gateway Hotel, Ijebu Ode, Feb. 11TH-14th.

Mohammed, A. A. (1991). *Impact of Gongola Agricultural Development Programme* (GADP) On Farmers. An Unpublished B.Agric. Project, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

Nasiru, M. O. (2010). Microcredits and Agricultural Productivity in Ogun State, Nigeria. *World Journal of Agricultural Sciences.* 6 (3):290-296.

Nigeria Agricultural Cooperative Bank (NACB) (1986). *Guide to Applicants. Kaduna*: Published by Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Development Bank, p.6.

Nigeria Bureau of Statics (NBS)(2011). *Nigerian poverty profile 2010.*

Nkom, S. In: Joseph, I. O. (2005). *An Assessment of Impacts of Poverty Reduction Programme in Nigeria as a Development Strategy,* Ph.D Dissertation of St. Clement University of Turks and Caicoos, Island.

Nkonya, E., Philip, D., Mogues, T., Pander J., Yahaya, M. K., Adebowale G., Arokoyo, T. and Kato, E. (2008). Impacts of a pro – poor community – driven development project in Nigeria. IFPRI discussion Paper 00756, IFPRI Washington.

Nwachukwu, I. N., Ifeanyi, N. and Eze C. I. (2007). Impact of selected Rural Development Programme on Poverty Alleviation in Ikuano LGA, Abia State, Nigeria. In: *African Journal of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition and Development (AJFAND) Online* Volume 7 number 5.

Obinne, C. P. (1991). Adoption of improved cassava production technologies by small-scale farmers in Bendel state. *Journal of Agriculture, Science and Technology, 1(1):12-15.*

Ogunwale, A. B., Ayoade, A. R. and Ayansina, S. O. (2006). *Impact of Extension Service on Farmers' Production Activities in Ogbomosho Agricultural Zone of Oyo State, Nigeria,* The Nigeria Journal of Agricultural Extension, Published by National Agricultural Extension and Research Liaison Services, Zaria. PP.1-7, *Vol.9*.

Omokore, D. F. (2009). *The Crises Facing the Nigerian Peasantry Since Independence.* In: Agbamu J. U.(ed),Perspective in Agricultural Extension and Rural Development Springfield Publishers Lagos Ltd.PP.323-341.

Omotayo, A. M., Arokoyo, J. O., Akpoko, J. G., Umaru, M. and Dafwang, I. I. (2001). Impact of the Training and Visit in Nigeria,: *The Nigeria Journal of Agricultural Extension*,

Otaki, O. A. (2006). *Sociology Of Development An Introduction*, Joyce Graphic Printers and Publishers Kaduna Nigeria. PP 1-87.

Ozowa, B. (2005). Making the Most Of Agricultural Investment. PDF adobe acrobat document at *www. ifad.org/agri_investment.pdf* . Retrieved in November, 2011.

Patton, M. Q. (1978). *Factors Affecting the Allocation of Time to Farming: The case of Women Farmers in South-West of Nigeria, International Institute for Tropical Agriculture, Ibadan, PP.45-85.*

Pennings, J. M. and Goodman, P. S. (1977). " Towards a Workable Framework" *For Organization Effectiveness.* San Francisco Carlifornia Jossey-Boss Publishers pp. 140-154.

Phillip, D., Nkonya, E., Pender, J. and Oni, O. A. (2009). Constraints to Increasing Agricultural Productivity in Nigeria: A Review Nigeria Strategy Support Programme (NSSP) Background Paper 6.

Robinson, O. (1982). People and Society. Boston University Press, Boston. PP. 20-34.

Rogers, E. M. (1995). *Diffusion of innovations*. 4th edition, The Free Press publishers, New York City. PP. 3-75

Rossi, H. P., Howard, E. Freeman, S., Wright, R., (1979). *Evaluation: A Systematic Approach.* Sage Publications, Beverly Hill, PP. 154-165.

Sabo, E. (2006). Participatory Assessment of the Impact of Women in Agriculture programme of Borno State, Nigeria. In: *Journal for Tropical Agriculture. Department of Agricultural Economics and Extension*, Adamawa State University, P.M.B 25 Mubi, Adamawa State Nigeria, p44 (1-2). PP. 52-56.

Sanda, A. O. (1991). *The Nigerian State and Agric. Policy Management,* RBDA-ADP Research Report No.6 Obafemi Awolowo University, Ibadan,Ile-Ife,P.131.

Sanginga, P. C., Adesina, A. A., Manyong, V. M., Otite, O. and Dashiel, K. E. (1999). *Social Impact of Soya Bean in Nigeria's Southern Guinea Savannah*, Nigeria: Published by IITA Ibadan.

Sebstad, J., Catherine, N., Barnes, C. and Greg, C. (2000). *Assessing the Impacts of Microenterprise Interventions: Aframe-work for Analysis.* United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Managing for Results Working Paper No.7. Center for Development Information and Evaluation; United States Agency for International Development: Washinton, D.C.

Sen, A. (1984). *Poverty and Famine, An Essay in Entitlement and Deprivation*. Clarendon Press, Oxford.

The State of Food and Agriculture (2010). www.fao.org/docrep/013/12050e.pdf, retrieved on 22nd July, 2012. 06:15.

The World Development Indicators (2010). www.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development...../wdi-2010. retrieved on 22nd July, 2012. 06:35.

Titus, O. G. and Samuel, O. E. (1995). *The Synthesis of Comparative Extension Systems.* Published by Emmy Press Ltd. Ibadan,Nigeria, pp. 1-40

Verner, D. and Verner, M. (2005). *Economic Impacts of Professional training in Informal Sector: The Case Study of the Labour Force Training Programme in Cote d'voire.* World

Voh, J. P. (1982). *Strategies for improving Agricultural Production among Farmers Displaced by a Man-Made Lake*: Case of Tiga Dam in Kano State, Nigeria". Fourth Afro-Asian Regional Conference, International Commission on Irrigation and Drainage (ICID), Lagos, Nigeria, Vol. 2(28)358-365.

Wallace, T. (1980). "Agricultural Development Programmes and Land in Northern Nigeria" *In: Review of African Political Economy* No.17:59-70. In: Journal Storage (JSTOR). Transactions of the Institute of British Geography, New Series,Vol.16, NO. 3. (1991). Windows Internet Explorer.

Williams, S. K.T. (1978). Rural Development in Nigeria. Obafemi Awolowo University Press, Ile – Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. PP. 1 – 124.

Wilmot, P. F. (1979). "Multi National Corporation in the Third World, A Threat to National Independence" Text of a Symposium at the Institute of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University (ABU) Zaria.

World Bank (1978). *Poverty in Latin America: The Impact of Depression*. Washington D. C. World Bank.

APPENDIX I: Farmers' Research Questionnaire, for participants

IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF THE NATIONAL POVERTY ERADICATION PROGRAMME (NAPEP) ON RURAL LIVELIHOOD IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

Dear Respondent**,**

This questionnaire will be used by a student of Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. Please, respond or tick where necessary. All information will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will strictly be used for the purpose of research only. Thanks for your cooperation.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE FARMER

Questionnaire No……..….. Name of Respondent……
Village…… L.G.A……
Date……../……../2011.

SECTION B: SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FARMER

1. Sex: Male ( ) Female ( )
2. Age of respondent (years): ……
3. Marital status: (a)Single ( ) (b) Married ( ) (c) Widow ( ) (d) Widower ( ) (e) Divorce ( )
4. Household size: ……
5. Level of education……..……..
   (a) No formal education: ( )
   (b) Adult-education: ……. Years
   (c) Primary education: ……..…….Years
   (d) Secondary education: ……..……..Years
   (e) Post-secondary education : ……years
6. What is your major occupation
   (a)Farming: …….……
   (b)Trading: …….
   (c)Civil servant: …….…….
   (d)Others (Specify): ……
7. Have you any other source(s) of income? (a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( )
8. If yes, name it (them): (i)……
   (ii)……
   (iii)……
9. Estimated annual income: ……Naira.
10. Extension contact in 2011 :……(Times)
11. Are you a member of any cooperative groups? Yes ( ), No ( )
12. If yes, give names of such groups: ……..
13. Total farm land owned: ……..…..ha.
14. Total farm size cultivated in 2011: ……..ha
15. Amount of formal credit received in 2011: …….Naira.

SECTION C. EXTENT OF PARTICIPATION

16. When did you get to know about NAPEP?.....
17. How did you get to know about NAPEP?.....

(a) Radio
(b) Friends
(c) Television
(d) News paper
(e) Fliers
(f) Awareness campaign
(g) Kogi ADP
(h) NAPEP officials
(i) Other (specify) ……

18. Which year did you start participating in NAPEP activities?.....
19. In what ways have you benefitted from NAPEP? (Tick as many as applicable)
(a) Loan
(b)Training
(c) Employment
(d) Input Supply
(e) Others (specify) ……..……..
……..
……
20. If you have benefited from cash loan from NAPEP, please give total amount:…… Naira.
21. If you have benefited from loan in kind, please give monetary value of such kind loan(s):……Naira.
Kind 1 …….value: ₦……
Kind 2 ……. Value: ₦……..
22. How many times have you benefitted from empowerment training organized and facilitated by NAPEP to create employment opportunities?..... Time(s).
23. After the training, have you ever had any of the NAPEP trainers visiting you to monitor your progress?
Yes ( ), No ( ).
24. If yes, give number of visits: ……..time(s)
25. If no, give reason(s) if any: …….....
……..……..
…….
26. Other activities carried out by NAPEP in Kogi State to achieve its objectives of empowering people
(a) Youth Empowerment scheme:
(i)Welding ( )
(ii)Carpentery ( )
(iii)Mechanic ( )
(iv)Fashion design ( )
(v)Interior and exterior decoration ( )
(vi)Others (specify)……
(b) Capacity Enhancement scheme:
(i)Computer training

(ii)Tailoring
(iii)Catering services
(iv)Provision of work material (Loan in form of kind, like welding machine, sewing machine, sprayers.

(c) Community enlightenment scheme: Awareness creation on rural poverty eradication for better livelihood through:
(i) Radio programmes
(ii)Television programmes
(iii)Information brochure
(iv)Workshops
(v)Seminars
(vi)Mobile video units

(d)Social welfare service scheme:
(i)Special education
(ii)Formal education
(iii)Soccer competition among minors, such as youths or young ones
(iv)Soccer competition among physically challenged

(e)Rural infrastructure development scheme:
(i)Portable water for irrigation
(ii)Access roads
(iii)Rural power supply
(v)Equipment(s), like sprinklers for dry season farming

(f)Natural resources development and conservation scheme:
(i) Reclamation of hitherto degraded farmlands due erosion and making them cultivable or arable for farmers
(ii)Water

(g)Multi partner micro finance scheme:
(i)Credit facilities

SECTION C: IMPACT

27. Give a list of your household items and/or properties……

(a)Household Assets

Assets	**Total number owned before joining NAPEP2001**	**Estimated monetary value(₦)2001**	**Total number owned after joining NAPEP(2011)**	**Estimated monetary value(₦) (2011)**
Cell phone				
Video				
Radio				
Television				
Keke NAPEP				
Car				
Motor cycle				
Bicycle				

Wheel barrow				
Hoes				
Machets'/cutlasses				
Axes				
Spade/Shovel				
Sprayers				

(b) Livestock Assets

Livestock Type	**Total number owned(before joining NAPEP) in 2001**	**Estimated monetary value (₦) in 2001**	**Total number owned (after joining NAPEP) in 2011**	**Estimated monetary value (₦) in 2011**
Bull				
Cows				
Goats				
Sheep				
Ducks				
Chickens				
Turkey				
Pigs				
Rabbits				
Dog				

(C) What type of dwelling house does the household live in?

(a).Roofing materials of household's main residents	Thatch, wood, zinc, concrete, tiles.
(b).Walls materials of the household's main residents.	Mud, cement, bricks, stone.
(c). Floor materials of household's main resident	Mud, concrete, cement, tiles.
(d).Number of rooms excluding Kitchen and bathrooms	
Estimated value of household residential buildings as at 2011.	Naira……

(D). Give crops grown, estimated area cultivated, output and income for the most important crops grown in 2010.

Cops/ mixture	**Area (ha)cultivated**	**Output**	**Unit price (N)**	**Estimated total value (N)**
(i)…… (ii)…… (iii)…… (iv)…… (v)…… (vi)……				

Grain = 100kg bag.

Tubers= use local unit of measurement.

Leafy=Use local unit of measurement.

(E). Fisheries production

Give the pond size, pond type, feeding practices, stocking density, output, and unit price (N) per fish, estimated total value.

(a)Number of ponds	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
(b)Pond size	$50m^2$, $100m^2$, $200m^2$, $300m^2$
(c)Type of pond	Earthen, concrete, burrow pits, tank
(d)Stocking density	1-2fish/m^2, 3-4fish/m^2
(e)Output size (kg)	
(f)Unit price /(kgN)	Naira……..
(G) Estimated total value/ sales per yr.	Naira……..

28. Household food security

1. Food storage (drying, salting, canning, frying, roasting)……
2. Mixed cropping ……..
3. Dry season farming/irrigation ……
4. Processing into finished products……
5. Integrated farming (crops and animals)……

CONSTRAINTS

29. What are your constraints as a participant in the NAPEP in Kogi State

(i) …….

(ii)……..

(iii) …….

(iv)…….

30. Suggest ways in which the above constraints can be reduced for participants in the NAPEP in Kogi State

(i) ……

(ii)……

(iii)……

(iv)……

(v)……

Thank you.

APPENDIX II: Farmers' Research Questionnaire, for non-participants

IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF THE NATIONAL POVERTY ERADICATION PROGRAMME (NAPEP) ON RURAL LIVELIHOOD IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

Dear Respondent**,**

This questionnaire will be used by a student of Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. Please, respond or tick where necessary. All information will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will strictly be used for the purpose of research only. Thanks for your cooperation.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE FARMER

Questionnaire No……..….. Name of Respondent……
Village…… L.G.A…….
Date……../……../2011.

SECTION B: SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FARMER

7. Sex: Male ( ) Female ( )
8. Age of respondent (years): …….
9. Marital status: (a)Single ( ) (b) Married ( ) (c) Widow ( ) (d) Widower ( ) (e) Divorce ( )
10. Household size: ……
11. Level of education……
    (f) No formal education: ( )
    (g) Adult-education: ……. Years
    (h) Primary education: ……Years
    (i) Secondary education: ……Years
    (j) Post-secondary education : ……years
12. What is your major occupation
    (a)Farming: ……
    (b)Trading: …….
    (c)Civil servant: ……
    (d)Others (Specify): ……. .
7. Have you any source(s) of income? (a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( )
8. If yes, name it (them): (i)……..……
    (ii)……..
    (iii)……..
9. Estimated annual income: ……Naira
10. Have you ever had any extension contact? (a)Yes ( ) (b) No ( )
11. Extension contact in 2011, if any :……(Times)
12. Are you a member of any cooperative groups? Yes ( ), No ( )
13. If yes, give total number and names of such groups: ……
14. Total farm land owned: ……..…..ha.
15. Total farm size cultivated in 2011: ……..ha

16. Have you ever benefitted from any form of loan facilities granted by any organization or cooperative group(s)…….

17. If yes, amount of formal credit received in 2011: ……..Naira.

SECTION C: IMPACT

27. Give a list of your household items and/or properties……

(a)Household Assets

Assets	Total number owned in 2001	Estimated monetary value(₦) in 2001	Total number owned in 2011	Estimated monetary value(₦) in 2011
Cell phone				
Video				
Radio				
Television				
Keke NAPEP				
Car				
Motor cycle				
Bicycle				
Wheel barrow				
Hoes				
Machets'/cutlasses				
Axes				
Spade/Shovel				
Sprayers				
Others(specify): …… ……				

(b) Livestock Assets

Livestock Type	Total number owned in 2001	Estimated monetary value (₦) in 2001	Total number in 2011	Estimated monetary value(₦) in 2011
Bull				
Cows				
Goats				
Sheep				
Ducks				
Chickens				
Turkey				
Pigs				
Rabbits				
Dog				
Others(specify):…… …… ……				

(C) What type of dwelling house does the household live in?

(a).Roofing materials of household's main residents	Thatch, wood, zinc, concrete, tiles.
(b).Walls materials of the household's main residents.	Mud, cement, bricks, stone.
(c). Floor materials of household's main resident	Mud, concrete, cement, tiles.
(d).Number of rooms excluding Kitchen and bathrooms	
Estimated value of household residential buildings as at 2011.	Naira…….

(D). Give crops grown, estimated area cultivated, output and income for the most important crops grown in 2010.

Cops/ mixture	**Area (ha)cultivated**	**Output**	**Unit price (₦)**	**Estimated total value (₦)**
(i)……. (ii)…… (iii)…… (iv)…… (v)……. (vi)……				

Grain = 100kg bag.

Tubers= use local unit of measurement.

Leafy=Use local unit of measurement.

(E). Fisheries production

Give the pond size, pond type, feeding practices, stocking density, output, and unit price (N) per fish, estimated total value.

(a)Number pond	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
(b)Pond size	$50m^2$, $100m^2$, $200m^2$, $300m^2$
(c)Type of pond	Earthen, concrete, burrow pits, tank
(d)Stocking density	1-2fish/m^2, 3-4fish/m^2
(e)Output size (kg)	
(f)Unit price /(kgN)	Naira……..
(G) Estimated total value/ sales per yr.	Naira……..

28. Household food security

1. Food storage (drying, salting, canning, frying, roasting)……
2. Mixed cropping ……
3. Dry season farming/irrigation ……
4. Processing into finished products……
5. Integrated farming (crops and animals)……

CONSTRAINTS

29. What are your constraints as farmer?

(i) …….
(ii)……..
(iii) …….
(iv)…….

30. Suggest ways in which the above constraints can be reduced for farmers in Kogi State

(i) ……
(ii)…….
(iii)……
(iv)……
(v)……

Thank you.

APPENDIX III: CHECK LIST FOR NAPEP's MANAGEMENT
IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF THE NATIONAL POVERTY ERADICATION PROGRAMME (NAPEP) ON RURAL LIVELIHOOD IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

Dear Sir/Madam**,**

This check list will be used by a student of Agricultural Economics and Rural sociology Department of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. Please, tick where necessary. All information will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will strictly be used for the purpose of research. Thanks for your cooperation.

1. Name of Respondent…….
2. Rank of Respondent: …….
3. What are the constraints faced by NAPEP in the implementation of its programmes in the State?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……..
   …….
4. What are your suggestions on how to improve the implementation of NAPEP in Kogi State?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   …….

Thank you very much