

## Impact of Rural Infrastructure on Rice Productivity in Kano State, Nigeria

YUSUF TANKO<sup>1</sup>

OYA Graduate School Business  
School of Economics, Finance and Banking, Universiti Utara  
Malaysia, Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia

CHEAH YONG KANG

School of Economics, Finance and Banking, COB  
Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia

RABIUL ISLAM

<sup>c</sup>School of International Studies, COLGIS  
Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia

### Abstract

*The paper presents a conceptual framework on the impact of rural infrastructure on rice productivity in Kano state, Nigeria. There are 9 out of 44 local governments in the state that are producing rice with 17 rice clusters. Questionnaire will be used to collect data from the respondents in the study area. A random sample of 768 rice farmers will be selected from 9 rice clusters that have a population of 135,895 rice farmers, using the multistage and purposive sampling. Literature has shown that rural infrastructures are key aspect that facilitates increase in the productivity of a farmer. Thus, for this study, infrastructure is conceptualised as physical and institutional. Also, included in the study is improved rice seed as an input and climate change awareness as a proxy. Further, the study intends to use the Cobb-Douglas stochastic frontier model in identifying the impact of rural infrastructure on rice productivity as well as the productivity level of rice the farmers in the study area.*

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<sup>1</sup> Corresponding authors emails: [ytank064@gmail.com](mailto:ytank064@gmail.com); [yong@uum.edu.my](mailto:yong@uum.edu.my); [rabiul@uum.edu.my](mailto:rabiul@uum.edu.my)

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

The estimated land potential in paddy rice production in Nigeria is 4.9m/h for self-sufficiency and export (Kim, Elisha, Lawrence, & Moses, 2017). Unfortunately, the production of paddy rice in the country is yet to keep pace with the rising demand (Macauley, 2015). Further, estimates show that paddy rice production has never been made in relation to the demand in Nigeria from 1980 to 2018. As the demand for rice increases, local production decreases relative to population growth, which led to an annual import of 4.2 m/t of paddy rice to bridge the gap, which the country cannot stand being a mono-economy. This led to the scarcity of rice at an exorbitant price. Further, despite a substantial increase in world rice production, the rate of growth is less than the population growth (Maraseni, Deo, Qu, Gentle, & Neupane, 2018). Likewise, global empirical studies show some element of inefficiency in rice productivity, though the level differs among countries. Thus, the need for a study with a view to increasing rice productivity in Nigeria.

One of the most important food crops consumed by more than half of the world population in the 21st century is rice (*Oryza sativa*) (Antle, Zhang, Mu, Abatzoglou, & Stöckle, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). The global estimate indicates that the size of land put to rice farming is over 100 million hectares (Xue et al., 2017). Rice is the 3rd most important food crop in the West African countries after maize and sorghum, and the rate of growth of rice consumption is growing at a faster rate more than any other vital food, due to the growth of the population (Macauley, 2015). Estimates show that world rice production is 78.23% (Maraseni et al., 2018).

Rice is a major staple food, a source of energy and a vital nutrient in Nigeria. The average annual rice consumption in

Nigeria increases at 10.3% (Maji, Bashir, Oduba, Gbanguba, & Audu, 2015). The increase is induced by population growth, changes in job structures, changes in taste and people's dietary needs, urbanization, and partly due to rise in income following the discovery of crude oil in Nigeria (Tanaka et al., 2017; Uduma, Samson, & Mure, 2016). Rice farming is an important sector in the Nigerian economy, providing job opportunities, poverty alleviation, food production, and contributes to the development of the economy. Despite these, however, rice farming in Nigeria is still characterised by low level of inputs, low yields, and limited areas under rice cultivation. Food is necessary for energy thus, security in food production becomes a main concern of every government in supporting the livelihood of the population (Islam, Siwar, & Bhuiyan, 2012).

Productivity is partial when the contribution of an individual input is measured in relation to the growth of total output. While, the total factor productivity measured the total contribution of the inputs, in relation to the growth of total output. The best productivity is one in which output increases without an increase in the inputs. Therefore, the aim of this study is to identify the impact of rural infrastructure on rice productivity, the causes of low productivity, as well as the level productivity in the study area.

## **2 LITERATURE REVIEW**

A summary of literature review on the infrastructure affecting the productivity of paddy rice in the study is presented below.

### **2.1 Rural road networks**

Rural roads linked rural farmers with inputs and outputs markets hence, creating a convenient access to farmland, inputs, and output. Gibbons, Lyytikäinen, Overman, and Sanchis-Guarner (2019) reported that linked roads significantly increase output per worker, Lin (2017) high speed railway

expands market access. Binswanger, Khandker, and Rosenzweig (1993) reported that road contribution to agricultural growth is 7% leading to expansion of banks. Also, Dercon, Gilligan, Hoddinott, and Woldehanna (2009) indicate that rural roads reduced poverty by 6.9% in rural areas. Thus, Demenge et al. (2015) stress the need for a multifunctional scheme to rural road networks. Though, Baum-Snow, Henderson, Turner, Zhang, and Brandt (2018) pointed out that averagely, roads that improves access to local markets have a slight or adverse effect on a state economic activity, and Stenico de Campos, Simon, and de Campos Martins (2019) pointed out that truck fleets negatively affect crop production by causing climate change.

## **2.2 Farm size**

Bigger farmlands are expected to yield higher output as reported by Akudugu, (2016) and Tashikalma, Giroh, and Ugbeshe (2014) that farm size has a significant impact on rice yield. Also, a study by Osanyinlusi and Adenegan (2016) shows farm size has a positive and significant impact on rice efficiency. The reports are buttressed by Ragasa & Chapoto (2017) showing 6% of the 7.5% increase in rice productivity was accounted for by expansion in the land area. While, Wang, Chen, Gupta, and Huang (2015) report that yield increases in China with the size of the farm while in India, yield decreases due to land fragmentation. Also, Bhattacharyya and Mandal (2016) show a decline in technical efficiency of rice farming owing to land fragmentation. Further, Chang, Takahashi, and Yang (2017) affirm more profits efficiency was realised by big firms compared to smaller ones, due to the ability of bigger firms to expand production by acquiring more farmland.

## **2.3 Irrigation facilities**

Irrigation reduces the growth of weed in grain fields, prevent the consolidation of soil, facilitate the growth of crops,

revegetate upset soil during the dry season or when faced with insufficient rainfall. Ahmed, Xu, Yu, and Wang (2017) report that an increase in rice yield can be achieved by providing irrigation facilities to the farmers. Also, Ragasa and Chapoto (2017) state that expansion in irrigated land led to a rise in rice productivity. Further, rice yield rises from 8.2% to 42.7% due to improvement in irrigation facilities (Chun et al., 2016). While, Kim et al. (2017) report that low rice productivity is due to poor motivation to irrigated rice farmers also, Uduma et al. (2016) ascertained that Nigeria's irrigated potentials in rice farming were not fully harnessed.

## **2.4 Electricity supply**

Electrification in the rural areas promotes their productive activities because the cost of backup and maintenance will be low (Narula & Bhattacharyya, 2017). Barnes and Binswanger (1986) state that private rural electrification has a significant impact on agricultural productivity. Also, Binswanger et al. (1993) report electrification of pump increase irrigation investment by 28% and output by 2%. While Bhattacharyya and Ganguly (2017) report that removal of electricity subsidy will lead to food inflation. The absence of electricity in rural areas distorts rural dwellers' productive activities (Narula & Bhattacharyya, 2017). Thus, Langarita, Chóliz, Sarasa, Duarte, and Jiménez (2015) suggest a low tariff supply of electricity to rural farmers.

## **2.5 Communication networks**

Communication is an important tool used by farmers, Elly and Silayo (2013) report that farmers use traditional means of communication to source agricultural data. In modern time, the services of mobile-enabled information lessen the dominant info anomalies, lessen the gap between accessibility and conveyance of agricultural inputs and outputs. Similarly, the increase in mobile phone coverage in the emerging nations, offer an

exclusive chance to ease technology adoption, through information and computer technology based agricultural extension programs. Kirui, Okello, Nyikal, and Njiraini (2013) report that annually, MMT services increase commercial agriculture by 37%. Thus, modern communications technology is used to edify farmers on sustainable agricultural practices, to be robust to shocks, and responsive to market signals.

## **2.6 Fertilizer access**

Fertilizer is a modern mechanism of increasing crop productivity as reported by Tashikalma et al. (2014) and Zhu and Chen (2002) that chemical fertilizer has a positive impact on crop production. Further, Stewart, Dibb, Johnston, and Smyth (2005) report that fertilizer nutrients increase crop yield from 30% to 50%. Also, Osanyinlusi and Adenegan (2016) and Mandal, Patra, Singh, Swarup, and Masto (2007) states that fertilizer usage and quantity used has a positive impact on farmers' productivity. Furthermore, a virtual study by Ahmed et al. (2017) shows that rice yield can be increased in Hainan, China and Niger, Nigeria using fertilizer. Also, Zhang et al. (2017) reports nitrogen usage significantly increase rice yield and improve crop growth rate. Proper use of fertilizer by farmers increases crop return seasonally by 35% and 69% annually (Duflo, Kremer, & Robinson, 2008). Thus, Ajani and Ugwu (2008) suggest providing fertilizer to farmers at the right time and place.

## **2.7 Improved rice seed access**

Modern rice varieties significantly increase rice production as reported by Ahmed et al. (2017) and Xue et al. (2017) that modern varieties significantly increase crop productivity. This is because treated seeds increased germination by 93.33% (Anupama, Murali, Jogaiah, & Amruthesh, 2014). Societies, where most farmers adopt improved seeds, realises better price for farmers and consumers (Minten & Barrett, 2008). Also,

Thirtle, Beyers, Ismael, and Piesse (2003) report 88% efficiency by adopters of pest-resistant cotton seed and non-adopters are 66% efficient while, in lower yield period adopters are 74% and non-adopters are 44% efficient. Further, Zhou et al. (2017) report improved rice can cope with deficit soil water, guarantee an increase in rice yield, and efficiency in water use. Also, Qaim and Zilberman (2003) report genetically modified seed significantly reduces pest damage and increase output, and Shiferaw, Kebede, and You (2008) report an increase in returns of 30% for guaranteeing farmers access to improve seeds.

## **2.8 Storage facility**

Storage includes handling and processing of goods, from production to consumption periods. The development in technology provides facilities for storage, processing, and farm produce handling. Gajigo and Lukoma (2011) state that poor storage facilities put farmers at risk of pests and weather deterioration. While Kaminski and Christiaensen (2014) report improved storage facilities lower post-harvest losses. Also, Sheng et al. (2017) indicate that citrate content can be improved for post-harvest maintenance and improves storage performance in citrus production. Improves bread storage and onion storage (Licciardello et al., 2017; Petropoulos, Ntatsi, & Ferreira, 2016). Further, Pandino et al. (2017) reported that storage enables artichoke slices maintained high nutritional quality. Storage facility maintains colour parameters for seven days of milk storage (Milkovska-Stamenova & Hoffmann, 2017). Furthermore, the storage facility maintains the quality of carrot (Behnsilian & Mayer-Miebach, 2017; Du, Angers, Ren, Zhang, & Li, 2017).

## **2.9 Credit facility**

A study by Ojochenemi, Gabriel, and Ogwuche (2017) reported that inadequate finance is the major constraint to rice productivity. While Nonvide, Sarpong, Kwadzo, Anim-Somuah

and Gero (2017) state that credit facility increases farmers productivity. Akudugu (2016) report formal and informal credit positively and significantly affect agricultural productivity. Binswanger et al. (1993) report fast growth of banks, leads to a rise in the demand for fertilizer by 23%, increase investment in pumps by 41% and in tractors by 13%, and an increase in aggregate crop harvest by 3%. Regrettably, most banks are shining away from rural areas due to the risks involved in rural banking, as reported by Ijaiya, Abdulraheem, and Abdullahi (2017) that banks dodge businesses that involve high risks, especially in rural areas. Also, Binswanger et al. (1993) report that most banks prefer branches in areas with good infrastructure and relatively fewer risks in agriculture.

Furthermore, poor awareness by farmers is a constraint to access credit facilities, for instance, Nyaga and Nzulwa (2017) report constraint to credit by farmers is caused by poor awareness of financial info and administrative skills. Thus, organized farmers have more access to formal support than unorganized farmers (Islam & Siwar, 2012). Further, Roberts, Otieno, and Nyikal (2017) report farmers with bank account have more access to formal credit facilities than those without a bank account and that, access to credit is negatively and significantly related to literacy, profession, and group membership. Further, Tran, Gan, and Hu (2016) report that female small-scale farmers sourced credits from the informal sector due to the absence of collateral security.

## **2.10 Access to Market**

Improving access to a market is promising in increasing crop productivity (Koppmair, Kassie, & Qaim, 2016), and market facilities lessen the risk associated with post-harvest losses (Kaminski & Christiaensen, 2014). So, access to an enhanced market for rural household and supportive markets facilitate an increase in agricultural production. Thus, the need to have a conducive market for rural rice farmers (Uduma et al., 2016).

Therefore, Czyzewski and Majchrzak (2017) and Goto and Douangneune (2017) suggest government to intervene in prospering markets. Because, organised markets lead to 87% growth rate, contributes 4% to agricultural produce and 17% to the demand for fertilizer, boost liquidity position of farmers, and reduce the costs of a deal for banks and farmers (Binswanger et al. 1993). While, the absence of a feasible market for rural farmers is a barrier to increase in rice productivity (Uduma et al., 2016). Though, Akudugu (2016) noted that access to the market is insignificant in determining agricultural productivity.

### **2.11 Education**

Training of farmers improves their understanding of modern technology. Education of farmers leads to an improvement in productivity (Adekunle et al., 2004). Investment in human development upsurges access and adoption of improved varieties (Maredia, Byerlee, & Pee, 2000). Hence, the level of education affects the productivity of a farmer as it will ease extensions. Extensions are the advisory services offered to farmers by extension workers with a view to increasing productivity (Antle et al., 2018; Golan & Kohli, 2013). Extension through contact with farmers is more practical, through publications is appealing to farmers while through radio program have wider coverage and at times preferred in the physical absence of extension agent (Adekunle et al., 2004).

### **2.12 Access to Extension Services**

A study by Binam, Tonyè, Wandji, Nyambi, and Akoa (2004) report that extensions offered increase the return of groundnut by 77%, maize by 73%, and groundnut and maize cropping by 75%. Also, Dercon et al. (2009) state that one extension visit reduces poverty by at least 9.8% and upsurge consumption by 7.1%, and Owens, Hoddinott, and Kinsey (2003) report one to two extension visits increase farm yield by 15%. Further, Alene

and Manyong (2007), Jin, Huang, Hu, and Rozelle (2002), Maffioli, Ubfal, Vazquez-Bare, and Cerdan-Infantes (2013), and Pender and Gebremedhin (2007) report that extensions significantly influence adoption of modern agriculture, and Berhanu and Poulton (2014) report investment in extension services is the most effective program to increase the productivity of peasant farmers. Also, Jin and Huffman (2016) report that investment in extension services yields a high return. Thus, Garnett et al. (2013) emphasised the need for extensions to support farmers to increase productivity, and Evenson (2001) affirmed that most of the research results on extensions show a more than 40% returns thus, concludes estimates were consistent that extensions increase agricultural productivity.

### **2.13 Awareness of Climate Change**

The rate of rainfall and duration, humidity, temperature level, drought, flood, and extreme temperature are part of the environmental issues that affect rice output and are caused by climate change (Kim et al., 2017; Xue et al., 2017). Besides, Mrabet and Moussadek (2012) report a 90% human-induced climate change in the world, and Ozor, Umunakwe, Ani, and Nnadi (2015) specify that 40.6% of the farmers have little knowledge of climate change and 21.7% do not know climate change. Thus, the extent of adoption of climate change measures depends on the farmer's perception and awareness. Kim et al. (2017) report a direct relationship between the perception of climate change and adaptation measures and poor awareness is a barrier to adaptation strategies. For instance, a study by Huong, Shun Bo, and Fahad (2017) shows that most of the farmers who have a knowledge of climate change had adopted at least one measure to tackle the problem. Also, Okonya, Syndikus, and Kroschel (2013) indicates 99% of peasant farmers are aware of the effect of climate change and have taken measures. Li, Wang, and Chun (2017) report that

climate change will reduce rice yields by (3.5 - 23.2) % by 2020s and an increase in temperature by 10 will reduce rice output by 10.26% thus, concludes that by 2050 climate change will cause a significant reduction in rice yields if adaptation plans were not adopted.

Enete et al. (2011) state that 96% of the farmers are aware of climate change, 97% are aware of its effect through extension agents but, 52% do not believe their farming activities contribute to climate change. Also, Deressa, Hassan, and Ringler (2011) report 83% of the respondents are aware of climate change but only 58% adapt climate change measures and determinants of climate change adaptation are: educational level, family size, sex, ownership of livestock, extensions, access to credit facilities and temperature. Also, Joshi, Ji, and Joshi, (2017) report that factors affecting adaptation measures are socio-economic, geographical, ecological and institutional factors. Khanal, Wilson, Hoang, and Lee (2018) report farmers' education, access to credit, extension services, experience, information on climate change issues, and belief in climate change determines the decision to take measures.

### **3 METHODOLOGY**

The primary source of data will be used for the study to collect the information from the respondents. Out of the 44 local governments in Kano state, 7 are cultivating rice with 17 rice clusters. Purposive sampling of 9 rice clusters will be selected and a random sample of 768 rice farmers will be selected from the population of 135 895 rice farmers using the multistage sampling (Dillman, 2000; Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). Research assistance in conjunction with extension workers in each cluster will be used in identifying and administering the questionnaire to the rice farmers. The extension workers are familiar and have a good understanding with the farmers thus, making them feel free in responding to the questionnaire.

Finally, the study will use the Cobb-Douglas Stochastic Frontier Model.

### 3.1 Theoretical Framework

The productivity or efficiency of a farmer can be measured by the microeconomic theory of production (Farrell, 1957). The performance of each variable inputs can be identified using the theory. Thus, efficient utilization of the variable inputs in production will positively affect productivity. Different variable inputs are used in the production process and each input is associated with a problem, in relation to its efficient utilization. While deviating from underutilization of the variable inputs will lead to efficiency in production. The selection among the alternative input's possibilities in relation to their availability and optimal utilization led to the development of an activity analysis model by Koopmans (1951) and Debreu (1951). The stage of efficiency in production indicates the level of productivity, as efficiency in production is the success attained in producing the maximum possible output from a set of combination of variable inputs (Mendola, 2007). The mathematical expression of the production function is expressed as:

$$Q = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n) \quad (1)$$

Where Q is the output and X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>3</sub>, ....., X<sub>n</sub> are the variable inputs.

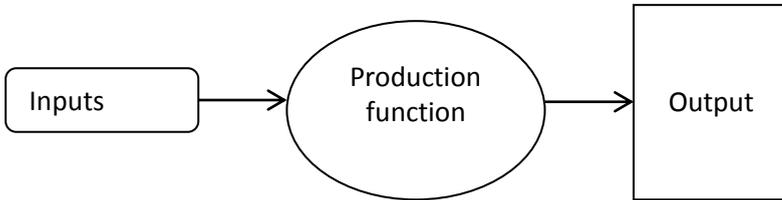
Since this study is on productivity, then the mathematical function will now be;

$$Rp = \frac{Q}{X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n} \quad (2)$$

Where, Rp = productivity, Q = output produced, and X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>3</sub>, ....., X<sub>n</sub> = are the inputs used in the production.

Mathematically, the production function shows the maximum output that can be produced from a given set of inputs. While

Figure 1 is the theoretical model of the production function. The model shows that inputs are used to produce an output.



**Figure 1: *Theoretical Framework***

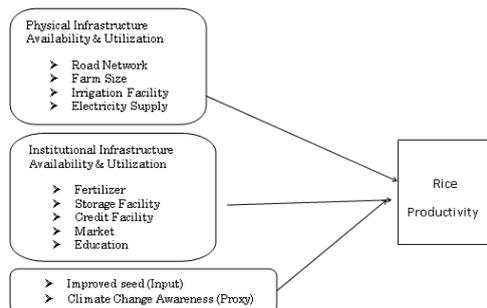
## **3.2 Conceptual Framework**

**3.2.1 Dependent Variable:** The rice farmer aims at the maximization of output subject to inputs availability and utilization. A rational farmer can increase productivity by technically allocating the variable inputs efficiently in the production process thus, the dependent variable is productivity. However, Pieri (2010) opined that the theory of production alone is insufficient to explain the behaviour of increasing productivity, in which some infrastructures are inadequate.

**3.2.2 Independent Variables:** The independent variables are institutional and physical infrastructures. The physical infrastructures are access road, farm size, irrigation, electricity, and communication networks. While, the institutional infrastructures are fertilizer, storage, markets, credit, extensions, and education. The conceptual model of rural infrastructure affecting rice productivity is adapted from Narayanamoorthy and Hanjra (2006) that used electricity, irrigation, and roads as physical infrastructure and educational level as institutional infrastructure, and Zhang and Fan (2004) used communication, roads, and irrigation were used as physical infrastructure and education and extensions as institutional infrastructure. Here, extensions and

communication expand institutional and physical infrastructures.

Economic, institutional, and social were used as infrastructure by Manjunath and Kannan (2015). The economic infrastructures are communication, road, irrigation, and electricity. Institutional infrastructures are markets and credits while, education was used as social infrastructure. Also, communication expands physical while credits and markets expand institutional infrastructures. Further, roads, electricity, credits, farm size, communication, markets, education, and fertilizer, are used as infrastructure by Segun, Omotesho, Bello, and Dayo (2008). Variables such as fertilizer and farm size expand the adapted concept of infrastructure. While, improved rice seed is adapted from Guodaar, Asante, and Eshun (2017) and Tanaka et al. (2017) as an input, and a proxy climate change awareness from Kim et al. (2017). Below is the conceptual model.



**Figure 2: The conceptual model for the research**

#### **4. DISCUSSION**

Literature has shown that rural infrastructure played a significant role in increasing agricultural productivity thus, the need to provide a qualitative infrastructure in the rural areas. Physical and institutional rural infrastructure, improved rice seeds, as well as climate change awareness, will increase rice productivity in Kano state. A qualitative rural infrastructure connects farmers and buyers thereby, increases access to inputs

and outputs, increase yield, reduces price distortions, as well as making a domestic market well-functioning. Further, rural infrastructure has a direct impact on productivity by providing rice farmers with feasible choices for rice production, milling, marketing, and distribution, provides an opening for banks to offer credit to remote rural areas, unlocked farmlands, improve convenience, adds value to output, and reduce wastes.

Furthermore, rural infrastructure eases extension workers to support farmers, eases contact between farmers, buyers, and extension workers, and reduces movements and its cost. Climate change has exposed rice farmers to hazardous risks thus, reduced their productivity. While the development and adoption of improved rice variety and climate change awareness has a significant impact on rice productivity. Lack of formal education resulted in poor adoption of improved rice seed, poor awareness to climate change, and led to improper utilization of fertilizer. Furthermore, socioeconomic characteristics of rural farmer led to poor adoption of modern farming techniques.

## **5. CONCLUSION**

It is hope that the study will be a source of reference to the government in talking the problem of infrastructure dwindling the productivity of paddy rice in Nigeria. The private sector can benefit from the result of the study by having an idea of profitable investment in the required rice inputs and output. While, paddy rice farmers can explore the study to identify feasible means of increasing their productivity so that profit can be maximized and minimized inefficiencies related to rice production in Kano state and Nigeria. Furthermore, the result can serve as reference for researchers for furture studies.

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