Problems of Formal Land Acquisition Policies in Nigeria: The Case of Jimeta-Yola, Adamawa State, Nigeria

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Abstract

The formal land acquisition policy provides for compulsory acquisition of land by the government for public interest. Although the Land Use Act has concerned itself with massive land acquisition since its promulgation during the colonial periods it suffers strong criticisms. Thus, this paper presents a further analysis of formal and informal methods of plot acquisition. Theoretical and empirical approaches were employed to collect data on hectares of land acquired and developed by the Adamawa State Government. The findings indicate that State Government acquired 470 hectares of land in the Greater Yola region between the years 2000 and 2010 out of which 178 hectares (38%) have been developed while 292 hectares (62%) remain undeveloped. Further analysis of data obtained revealed continued expansion of informality with a total of 1973 hectares of land. The paper finally highlights some implications of formal land acquisition policy, probes into the incidence of low development of acquired land and recommends measures to reduce the problems of formal land acquisition policy in the State.

Keywords: Land, Land acquisition, Formal land acquisition, informal land acquisition, Greater Yola.

1. Introduction

The issue of formal land acquisition concerns itself with slow and highly controlled urbanization by the colonial government and later by the Federal Government of Nigeria. Earlier colonially structured urban areas were considered to be only for non-natives and those formally employed (Kironde 1992). But in the 1960s independence and development of African public services lifted rural-urban influx and the annual growth rate of some African cities were as high as 5-7% implying a doubling of population every ten to fifteen years (UN-Habitat 1996). As cities grew, people migrated to the towns for work, administration, education and social services. They realized that they could offer their labour in urban employment in exchange for wages (UN-Habitat 1996). The Africans in native towns often lived in poor unsanitary conditions in designated areas, separated from the Europeans. The continent continued to experience rapid population growth in the native towns in the first half of the 1970s and many cities in Africa had urbanization without economic growth. In the first half of the 1970s, Africa's urban population growth surpassed that of the Latin America and the Caribbean (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP 2001).

The periods between the 1990s and early 2000 were periods of urban cries as the increase in population was not matched by supply of basic infrastructure and social service (UNDP, 2001). As a result, there was decline in formal employment increase in the informal sector activities, deterioration in security and services, which manifested in proliferation of unplanned settlements, overcrowding and deterioration of the existing housing stock (UN-Habitat 2006). This trend has been attributed to the weaknesses of government policies in many developing countries who have taken greater interest in promoting mode of plot acquisition reform acts in settlement pattern of their cities. This emphasis on land acquisition acts has emerged for reasons that saw land acquisition acts reforms as the nationalization of land that many African countries engaged in especially in the 1970s. The promulgation of the 1978 Land Use Act therefore vested all lands in each State of the federation in the governor of the State in trust for use and common benefits of all Nigerians. That is, the government is empowered by the Act to acquire land for development purposes. By the provision of the Act, the State governor replaces the individual, family heads, community heads or any other traditional ruler as the trustee of land. According to (Udo 1990) government has acquired land in the interest of the public at will without justifiable reason. Thus, the customary practices were not favourable to the government; hence land acquisition by the government was frustrated by the customary practice (Uchendu 1979). The promulgation of the Land Use Act was a setup aimed at making land easily available for development purposes and to cut down on the amount of money government may pay as compensation in the event of compulsory acquisition of land from landowners (Ilesanmi 1998).

In Jimeta- Yola, the outcome is not different from other parts of Nigeria. Land is acquired compulsorily while the landowners were compelled by law to surrender ownership of the land together with rights and privileges attached to it in favour of the government. The outcome of government actions manifests in severe hardship arising from total extinguishment of means of livelihood for the landowners. Unfortunately the compulsorily acquired land remains undeveloped thereby questioning the utility of government acquisition policy. The uncontrolled compulsory acquisition of land by government has led to social legitimization of informal methods of plot acquisition through social institution. Accordingly, (Udo 1990) observed that government has embarked on massive acquisition of land for the purpose of development but most of the acquired land remained undeveloped while original owners look for land for building houses and other businesses. Against this background, this paper analyses the issues of the growing gaps in the period of settlement formation with regards to the pre-colonial settlement, old colonial urban structure, the new post colonial urban policies and the new face of informality in Jimeta-Yola. The distributions of acquired land are examined while implications of compulsory acquisition are discussed and useful recommendations offered.

2. Statement of Problem

Much of the research and literature on the growing gaps in the period of policy formation have focused on the pre-colonial settlements and colonial urban policies which centred on restricting migration and African urban life. The formal method of plot acquisition, based on legal concepts and administrative systems introduced by colonial and post colonial government was meant to bring a new land reform in Nigeria. However, they have proved unable to cope with the demand of rapid urban development, and the problems the Land Use Act has created seem to out weight its gains. For instance, in empowering the governor to grant rights in leasehold, while the claim of most people in Nigeria to particular parcels of land is based on inheritance as majority of urban residents do not participate in the formal land and housing market. According to Rakodi (Rakodi 2002) even after government had invoked its rights of eminent domain to compulsorily acquire and pay compensation for land for public purpose, the exclusion by the Land Use Act of the right of families or individuals to develop private layouts have led to the emergence of informal expansion within the formal system of planning. As a result, a large number of informal land transactions are also endorsed by the traditional institution. This informal plot distribution patterns within the formal system of planning to some extent creates social legitimacy of the informal method through informal social institutions. Evidence is emerging that the powers of the State government through the inception of the Land Use Act over two decades ago has created series of problems for land management (Smith 2003). First many State governments failed to establish the Land Use and Allocation Committee established under Section 2 (2) of the Land Use Act in their State for many years. This has hampered the steady and continuous acquisition of land for building purposes. Secondly, many governors do not give the urgent attention needed to their responsibility of granting consent for land management or mortgaging, there by impeding the development of an efficient land market. Thirdly, the attempt by some governors to use the provision requiring their consent for assignment or mortgaging as a means of raising revenue for their States by imposing heavy charges for granting such consent, obstruct the development of an efficient land market (Mabogunje 2002). Against this background, this paper compares the extent to which the government of Adamawa State has acquired public land and the spatial extent of informality.

3. Aim and Objectives

The aim of this paper is to analyse problems of formal land acquisition policies in Yola, with particular focus on the extent to which the government of Adamawa State has acquire public land and spatial extent of informality. The objectives of the study are:

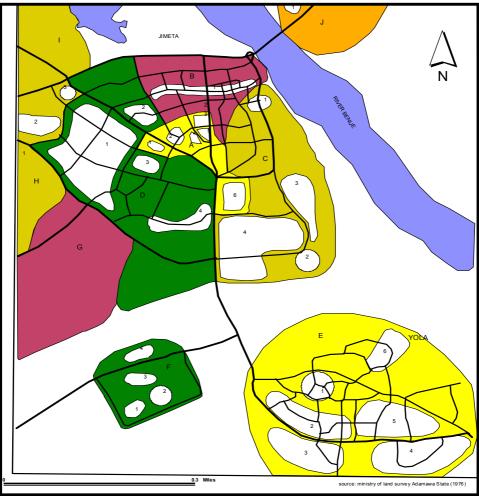
- i. To review the mode of plot acquisition practice in Nigeria from colonial times to the present.
- ii. To analyze the spatial extent to which the government of Adamawa State has acquired public land and the extent of spatial informality.
- iii. To compare how these factors of change driving and restraining spatial formations of formal and informal settlement work together among selected settlement types in Jimeta Yola.
- iv. To explore how these factors of change could be utilized in local planning practices to support sound planning processes and decision making.

4. Study Area

The Jimeta-Yola Region on which this study is based is a key administrative, industrial and commercial centre in the North-eastern part of Nigeria. It has served at various times, as the headquarters of the Adamawa Province contained in Gazette No. 56 of 1948, headquarters of the Northern Trust Territory Province as contained in Northern Regional Legal Notice No. 81 of 1960 cited in (Max 1996). After the plebiscite of 1961, the Province voted to join Nigeria. It became the capital of Gongola State in 1976 and Adamawa State in 1991. Jimeta - Yola is located between latitudes 9⁰ 24' North and 9⁰ 30' North and Longitudes 12⁰ 6' East and 12⁰ 36' East (Max 1996). Jimeta-Yola cover an area of about 40 square kilometres while the surrounding rural areas cover an area of about 100 square kilometres. The strong and traditional dominance of the region by the Fulani exhibited

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varying concentrated patterns of spatial growth around the central areas, with the development of sparse settlements on the urban peripheries. Population census of 2006 showed that Jimeta - Yola had a total population of 395,862 (i.e. 208,184 males and 187,678 females). It has 376 Enumeration areas with 52,050 households. An examination of growth trends by (Max 1996) shows that the population of Jimeta - Yola increased from 3,200 in 1948, to 9,000 (1958), 36,000 (1968), 46,000 (1973), 71,500 (1980), and 257,706 in 1991 census. At 7% increase per annum, the population of Jimeta - Yola in the year 2030 may have reached 600,357. The urbanisation process in area is similar to that of other Nigerian cities, which have experienced State creation. The population has been rapidly increasing since the creation of Gongola State in 1976 and Adamawa State in 1991. The urban population increases from 5.7 per cent in 1967 to 12.6 per cent in 2002. For the period 1980 to 1997, the urban population has been increasing at a rate of 10 per cent per annum (Federal Republic of Nigeria 2007). The concentration of people and urban activities in Jimeta - Yola is high. For instance, it accommodates about 10 per cent of the State population in 2006 census when project by 2030 Jimeta - Yola will have about 30 per cent of the State population. That means in about 20 years Jimeta-Yola will be three times its size! Where will this urban population be accommodated? If no new innovative solutions are sought and the housing delivery systems continue to perform ineffectively as they are doing now, informal settlements will be and continue to be the major source of residential accommodation.



= CITY CENTRE 1. New Commercial Area

- Central Business Area 3 Market Extension
- 4. State Low Cost Housing
- 5. Town park
- ecretari
- B = JIMETA TOWN
- 1. Main Street 2. New Market

 New GRA
 Federal Advanced Teachers' College D = JIMETA WEST Old Airport 2. Local Authority Lavout

= JIMETA EAST

1. Government Office

2. Government House

Federal Housing Area
 New GRA West

. Central . Southern Town Extension New GRA West 3 New GRA East 5. Eastern Town Extension Recreational Area = YOLDE PATE New Resettlement Centre Yolde Pate 3. Dobard Ngero Lamido

YOLA TOWN

1

= NEW ARMY CANTONMENT 1. Comprehensive Development Area H = KOFARE 1 Industrial Area South Industrial Area North 3 Stadium Further Education Area Off Map I = JAMBUTU Future Development Area . BAJABURE

1. Bridgehead Controlled Development Area

Fig. 1: The Study Area: Jimeta – Yola District and Action Area Plan

5. Literature Review

In most parts of Nigeria, the acquisition system of land holding adopted a general form, the dominant characteristic of which is that land belongs to the group or community (tribe, clan, village, kindred, lineage, and family) and not the individual. The head of the group or community holds the land in trust and administers it on behalf of its members currently living, and its members yet to be born (Rayer, 1989; Elias, 1956; Kio, 1971; Hopkins, 1973; Onwuamaegbu, 1975). The criteria for selection of the head could be age in which case those enjoying rights of primogeniture in their respective families are chosen or holders of respected traditional titles such as ward head (Ebunilo 1982). The control over, and access to land were inextricably linked to sociopolitical relationships and land was regarded not just as a physical entity but as also having symbolic and spiritual significance as an embodiment of a link between the generations (Acquave and Asiama 1986). The fundamental principle is that no male member of the lineage is without land as all adult male members of a group had rights to use the land (Dike 1983). It was from this 'Right of Avail' that all other rights either individual or common were deduced (Kalabamu 2000). Krueckeberg (Krueckeberg 1999) observed that, nonindigenes encountered fewer obstacles in getting farm land than they did in acquiring land for settlement. The colonial urban policies are catered towards restricting migration and African urban life. At independence, Africanisation of public services promoted rural-urban influx that control employment opportunities (Mabogunje 1992). The rate of rural-urban migration suddenly exceeded employment opportunities. This led to declining economic situation such as increase in informal sector activities, increase in informal settlements and decline in infrastructure and public services.

The growing gap between the old colonial city structure and the new face of informality has led the government to establish the 1978 Land Use Act. The 1978 Land Use Act vested all State land in the custody of the governor of that State to acquire land for urban development from a customary title holder; the Act requires payment for un-exhausted improvement if any (Mabogunje 2002). The informal method exists under the customary law. The customary law is multifaceted and varies by region, ethnicity and even by clan. It is based on the socio-cultural values and institutions of local communities as they use the resources of land. The formal method has its origin in the colonial era where land administration systems which were inherited at independence are governed by formal rules set out in legislation and administrative procedures. The post-independence governments in Nigeria have treated differently the differing processes of land division and its attempted intervention in urban land tenure and administrations have ultimately depended on the issue of property right. Prior to the Land Use Decree, attempts to improve security of property rights were based on land registration, but none achieved the desired results. First was the Land Registration Act of 1924, which required all documents by which an interest in land is transferred or charged to be registered. In 1935, another Act was passed known as the Registration of Titles Act. As its name implies, the Act made provision for the registration of titles to land as distinct from registration of instruments affecting land. By the promulgation of the Land Use Decree in Nigeria in 1978, ownership and management of land was transferred to the government from individuals and communities.

The Land Use Act aimed at introducing a land tenure reform that would replace the authority of customary leaders over land tenure with State control and thereby impose a uniform nationwide land tenure system. In addition to introducing a uniform system of land administration in the country, it aimed at making land available to government for its needs, increasing equity and curbing inflation. In practice, the nationalization of undeveloped land above a 0.5 hectare ceiling in urban areas gave rise to resistance; the establishment of land use and allocation committees at the State level to issue certificates of occupancy provided scope for inefficiency, delay, and corruption, inconsistencies in the legislation have facilitated evasion, administrative requirements have favoured civil servants and businessmen with wealth and connections, inadequate mapping has inhibited implementation and enforcement, and land has become increasingly concentrated in the hands of the privileged. The reform has improved government's access to land but has not replaced customary allocation system (Okpala 1979). The United Nations (1976, p.66) points out that public ownership of land cannot be an end in itself; it is exercised in favour of the common good, rather than to protect the interests of the already privileged.

Looking at the nature of property rights under the Land Use Act, the first step taken by the Land Use Act of 1978 was the conversion of old forms of estate into a right of occupancy. The Act provides that all urban land in the territory of a State is vested in the governor of that State, who shall hold it in trust for the people of that State. The governor is empowered to grant a statutory right of occupancy to any person for any purpose. Rural land, on the other hand, is vested in the local government chairman who is also empowered to grant customary rights of occupancy over land within his area of jurisdiction. Hence, the Act introduced two types of rights of occupancy one statutory and the other customary, as in Section 50 of the Act. In accordance with Section 28 of the Act, the governor can revoke a right of property for an overriding public interest. What is regarded as an over riding public interest is listed in Section 28(2) and (3), while Section 28(5) also provides that a right of occupancy may be revoked by the governor on the grounds of breach of any of the terms of holding by the holder of the right. A right of occupancy under the Act is both alienable and transferable, even though these can only be done with the

governor's consent in Sections 21, 22 and 34. A right of occupancy is also transmissible and can be left by will in Sections 24 and 25. Where a right of occupancy exists, a Certificate of Occupancy is to be issued by the appropriate authority, the governor where the land is urban and the local government chairman where is rural. A Certificate of Occupancy issued in such circumstances can be inherited or transferred to a person outside the family/community for cash.

There are obvious cases of overlapping responsibilities between the local governments and State ministries/agencies that are responsible for physical duplications of land administration in Yola. The local authorities control development in their areas of jurisdiction, in the interest of proper and orderly development. All development applications are, therefore, submitted to the respective local authority for consideration. In addition, the local authorities are supposed to implement approved physical development plans. That is site plan and building plan approval and development control functions on non-state land are performed by the various local government planning authorities, who report to the Town Planning Board in the Planning Division of the State Ministry of Lands, Survey and Town Planning. The law requires local authorities to refer development applications to the Director of Physical Planning for comments. However this is not always done, as in some cases the physical planning office is sidestepped. Furthermore, the Director of Physical Planning has no direct control over the local authorities, since they are under the Ministry of Local Government. In some circumstances, residents have been involved in planning; the implications of this are cases of double allocation and forgery of certificates of ownership and letters of allotment. Against this background, a review of alterations emanating from the country's customary land tenure system and its administration in the pre-colonial and colonial eras is important because inappropriate framework of acquiring plots may constitute a serious constraint on economic and social development.

6. Research Methodology

We adopt an interpretive research methodology to study books and scholarly articles on periods between policy formulation on events of acquiring land and new face of informality. The principle of the interpretive methodology is that people create and attach their own meanings to the world around them and to the behaviour that they manifest in that world (Schultz 1973). Both theoretical and empirical research design were adopted. While the theoretical design relates to collection of relevant information from laws, acts and official gazettes of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, briefs, reports and term of reference on events of acquiring land and extracts from national newspapers. Archival records such as maps, guidelines and procedures, rates, influx and old photographs, Physical artefacts such as buildings, parking and business places are used. The empirical design land, direct observations and photographing of processes. The bulk of the data used in the analysis were obtained from the official records of government establishments. Analysis is done through Spreadsheets, ranking of survey opinions, transcribing and coding in Tables.

The spatial distribution of informal residential plot units in Greater Yola region by neighbourhood is shown in table 1 below. A total of 1973.4 hectares of the acquired land were developed for various uses. The neighbourhood average rates of land acquisition stood at 101.60 hectares with a standard deviation of 78.61 hectares maximum value of 182.9 hectares and minimum value of 45 hectares. The high standard deviation for gross number of hectares of land is a result of high variations per study site as reported in the study area.

It is observed that Nasarawo, Upper and Lower Luggere, Doubeli, Demsawo and Jambutu recorded the highest hectares of land acquired with a total of 706.6 hectares representing 35.44 percent while Godobawa, Yelwa and Sarkin Wuta had the least. In terms of spatial distribution of formal layout in Greater Yola region table 2 shows that a total of 1544.6 hectares of the acquired land for formal layouts were developed for various uses.

The average rates of formal land acquisition stood at 98.85 hectares with a standard deviation of 29.31 hectares maximum value of 148.1 hectares and minimum value of 46 hectares. The low standard deviation for gross area of land in hectares is a result of low variations per study sites. The GRA north, south, east and west sectors have the highest hectares of acquired land 375.4 hectares. This is followed by Karewa housing estate, Bekaje housing estate, Shagari low cost housing and Bajabure housing estate. The results suggest that a large but varying proportion of new housing stock and/or land assets have been provided informally. Informal activities and practices as they relate to urban land may be extra legal but are not necessarily perceived as illegitimate by the actors concerned. Major determinants of informality include chronic poverty, shortcomings associated with the housing programmes, unrealistic urban land use regulation and standards, bureaucratic tendencies as well as informality itself.

Table 3 below indicated that between 2000 and 2010, the Adamawa State Government acquired 470 hectares of land in Greater Yola Region out of which 178(38%) hectares have been developed and 292(62%) hectares remain undeveloped while 1161 hectares of land have been acquired informally out of which 1015.2(87%) have been developed and 145.8 (13%) hectare remain undeveloped. Further analysis revealed that the year 2006

recorded the highest hectares of land acquired formally by government with a total of 76.3 hectares, while the year 2007 had the least with 26.2 hectares. Contrastingly, the year 2001 recorded the highest hectares of land acquired informally with a total of 210 hectares, while the year 2006 had the least with 58 hectares. The highest number of developed hectares of land by government was in 2010 with a total of 33.8 hectares, while the year 2002 had the least with 6.7 hectares. In terms of average size of land held by beneficiary landholders table 4 shows that individual landholder benefit directly from plot sizes less than or equal to 0.25 hectares than plot sizes 3 hectares recorded the highest number with a total of 280 landholders, while those directly benefiting formally had 40 land holders.

It was also observed that collective plot sizes from 0.50 to 1 hectare were particularly effective in reaching out to 856 informally benefiting landholders, while 115 landholders benefit formally. Further analysis using collective plot sizes from 2 to 3 hectares revealed that 81 landholders benefit informally, while 83 landholders benefit formally. As evidenced in table 4, small informally acquired plots are particularly effective in reaching out to a large number of households. Despite the effectiveness of small informally acquired plots the gains from formally acquired plots are substantive in collective plot sizes that range from 2 to 3 hectares which shows that a total of 41 landholders benefited formally and 10 landholders benefited informally. Generally, greater individual benefits are secured by those households included in the small informally acquired plots. As evidenced in table 3 below by the end of the year 2010 a total of 1161 hectares of land had been acquired plots informally, while only 470 hectares had been acquired informally. This reveals that house holds had either acquired plots informally or were soon to benefit from informal plots acquisition underway.

Neighbourhood	Gross Area in Hectares	Ranking	Points	Actual population 1991	Ranking	Points
Yelwa	52.2	16	7	6264.0	13	10
Limawa	95.5	10	13	11937.5	6	17
Sarkin Wuta	30	22	1	5280.0	16	7
Alkalawa	83.2	12	11	4742.40	17	6
Godabawa	34	21	2	9010.0	10	13
Dobeli	110	8	15	31130.0	3	10
Nasarawo	138.3	5	18	41213.4	1	22
Luggere	182.9	1	22	40238.0	2	21
Demsawo	113.3	6	17	14396.4	5	18
Dougire	169.9	2	21	9854.2	8	15
Bajabure	103.9	9	14	10701.7	7	16
Jambutu	142.1	4	19	8241.8	11	12
Kofare-Damilu	145.6	3	20	9172.8	9	14
Vinikilang	128	7	16	15360.0	4	19
Makama	88.7	11	12	5588.1	15	9
Wuro Hausa	68.7	13	10	6732.6	12	11
Wuro Dole	53.5	15	8	3633.0	18	5
Wuro Chekke	40.4	19	4	2302.8	19	4
Rumde Jabbi	44.3	18	5	2082.1	20	3
Lelewalji	45	17	6	1530.0	21	2
Damare	38.2	20	3	2406.6	22	1
Toungo	65.7	14	9	670.4	14	9
Total	1973.4			237745.4		

Table 1: Spatial distribution of informal residential plot units in Greater Yola Region by neighbourhoods

Source: Archival records Government of Adamawa State, Yola 1992.

Table 2 Spatia	l Distribution	of layouts in	n Greater	Yola Region
- abre - opana	1 2 100110 000001	01 100 0000 11		1 0100 100 01011

Table 2 Spatial Distribution of layouts	Gross Area in	Ratings	Points	Estimated	Ratings	Points
Layout	Hectares			population		
G.R.A North	96.6	9	9	9080.4	3	15
G.R.A South	129.7	2	16	8689.9	5	13
G.R.A East	46.8	16	2	1310.4	16	2
G.R.A West	102.3	6	12	7570.2	6	12
State lowcost housing estate	46.0	17	1	1380	13	5
Bekaje housing estate	95.7	10	8	5742	7	11
Karewa housing estate	148.1	1	`17	12884.7	2	16
Bajabure housing estate	120.2	3	15	3726.2	8	10
Shagari lowcost housing estate	80.0	11	7	3040.0	10	8
Kofare residential layout	98.0	8	10	8722.0	4	14
Jambutu Numan road layout (GSYP		5	13		1	17
20,25)	112.0			14366.0		
Hore Ladde Yola layout (GSYP 21-		12	6		15	3
24)	78.0			1404.0		
Numan road layout (GSYP 26-31)	116.0	4	14	2320.0	14	4
Old Mubi road Badirisa layout		13	5		12	6
(GSYP 32)	68.0			1836,0		
Mubi road Bajabure layout (GSYP		7	11		9	9
33-37)	100.0			3100.0		
Yola town layout (GSYP (38,39)	57.0	14	4	2736.0	11	7
Saminaka layout (GSYP 40-43)	50.2	15	3	953.8	17	1
Total	1544.6			88861.6		

Source: Archival records Government of Adamawa State, Yola 2004.

Table 3: Yearly formal and informal plot acquisition for residential development in Greater Yola Region (2000-2010)

Year	Hectares Acquired Variable 1		Developed Hectares Variable 2		Undeveloped Hectares Variable 3		
	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	
2000	48.3(100 %)	70(100 %)	11.9(25%)	57.6(82%)	36.1(75%)	12.4(18%)	
2001	36.9(100)	210(100)	9.3(25)	189.5(90)	27.6(75)	20.5(10)	
2002	30.6(100)	142(100)	6.7(23)	130.4(92)	23.9(77)	11.6(8)	
2003	34.7(100)	176(100)	12.4(36)	166.8(94)	22.3(64)	9.2(6)	
2004	39.8(100)	75(100)	16.8(42)	69.7(93)	23.0(58)	5.3(7)	
2005	33.0(100)	68(100)	14.4(44)	55.3(81)	18.6(56)	12.7(19)	
2006	76.3(100)	58(100)	25.0(33)	45.6(79)	51.3(67)	12.4(21)	
2007	26.2(100)	88(100)	8.6(33)	66.2(79)	17.6(67)	21.8(21)	
2008	58.6(100)	66(100)	29.0(50)	52.9(80)	29.6(50)	13.1(20)	
2009	29.7(100)	98(100)	10.0(34)	82.5(84)	19.7(66)	15.5(16)	
2010	55.6(100)	110(100)	33.8(61)	98.7(90)	21.8(29)	11.3(10)	
Total	468(100)	1161(100)	178(38)	1015.2(87)	290(62)	145.8(13)	

Source: Archival records Government of Adamawa State, Yola 2010 and Field observations

Size of land in	Number of respondent	Landholders Directly	Landholders Directly
hectares	landholders	benefiting Formally	benefiting Informally
>0.25	320(100%)	40(12%)	280(88%)
0.25 - 0.50	242(100)	42(17)	200(83)
0.50 - 0.75	209(100)	15(7)	194(93)
0.75 - 1.00	200(100)	18(9)	182(91)
1.00 - 1.25	104(100)	22(21)	82(79)
1.25 - 1.50	129(100)	42(33)	87(67)
1.50 - 2.00	113(100)	42(37)	71(63)
2.00 - 2.50	22(100)	17(77)	5(23)
2.50 - 2.75	16(100)	14(87)	2(13)
3+	13(100)	10(77)	3(23)
Total	1366(100)	262(19)	1106(81)

Table 4 Average Sizes of formal and Informal Land holdings in Greater Yola Region	
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Source: Field survey 2011.

8. Summary of Findings

The massive acquisition of land may primarily be to provide land that will be developed over time that is the acquisition of land by the government may not be for immediate usage. However these land reserves for future development may be as a result of delays in project execution. Thus, the large proportion of undeveloped acquired land is indicative of this fact in the years 2003, 2006 and 2008 shown in the table 3 above. Although reserves of land is advantageous on the part of government, however, considering the high profile of demand by the people, future acquisition of such land will translate to higher land values and thus, of negative impact in the lives of the affected families and communities. Besides, it is a problem to deny the people access to land at present only for the purpose of reserving it for future usage. Another factor, which explains the low level of development of formal acquired land borders on compensation. There are cases where communities resist development of acquired land due to non payment of compensation. For instance Hore ladde Yola layout (GSYP 21-24), old Mubi road Badirisa layout (GSYP 32) where communities strongly resisted development of acquired land until full compensations were paid. This explained why the acquired land remained undeveloped for many years after acquisition. Another factor is no political will by the government to develop the acquired land even in the face of strong demand for such development. This point out government insensitivity to development issues where on the other hand corruption in governance does not give room for capital development projects to be under taken. Above all some of the proposed development projects do not rank high in the priority needs of the communities where the land is acquired. Governors of states have used the Land Use Act to acquire land for selfish interest. In this sense the acquisition of land for public interest is a device to acquire land cheaply in order to reward party loyalist. Thus, there is politics in government land acquisition policy the reality for most city governments were that they lack a sufficient mandate, capacity, financial control or political influence to coordinate and execute on decisions that would allow for core functions and services to be delivered efficiently.

9. Conclusion

The formal land acquisition policy has no doubt facilitated massive acquisition of land for development in Adamawa State. However, today over 40 percent of the acquired land is left undeveloped due to factors ranging from first the weaknesses and lack of political will on the side of the Land Use and Allocation Committee established under section 2 (2) of the Land Use Act in the state for many years. This has hampered the steady and continuous acquisition of land for building purposes. Secondly the state governors do not gave the urgent attention needed to their responsibility of granting consent for land management or mortgaging, there by impeding the development of an efficient land market. Thirdly the state governors use the provision requiring their consent for assignment or mortgaging as a means of acquiring land cheaply in order to reward party loyalist. On the other hand it is a device for imposing heavy charges on political enemies before granting such consent to develop acquired land. The growing gap between periods of development of the formal acquired lands has led to new face of informality. Thus, in line with the result of the study, this paper recommends measures that will eliminate problems associated with formal land acquisition policy.

10. Recommendations

The importance of formal land acquisition is for spatial development but where the acquired lands are left undeveloped is of a serious concern to many people. It is therefore recommended that the hectares of acquired land left undeveloped should be developed by government in order to bring development to the affected communities, and thus justify the reason for such acquisition. There is also the need to review the Land Use Act to conform to the yearnings and aspiration of Nigerians. For instance the intention is to see how the provisions of the Land Use and Allocation Committee established under section 2 (2) of the land use Decree of 1978 could be utilized to accommodate Plot Owners Association to scout for land to buy, process papers and permits to buy land and linked with government agencies to subdivide and develop the land. These recommendations are put forward to foster successful implement of land administration through:

- a) Good participatory land administration. Any land administration that misses the participatory attributes referred to as popular participation by plot owners association is likely to miss the connection between policies and programme and its intended beneficiaries. The first area land administration can be improve upon is active integration of the plot owners association and their organisations into the provisions of land administration to improve governance in Greater Yola Region. Generally, the success rate of land administration implementation in Nigeria can be improved by giving more attention to plot owners' association and design stage of the interventions.
- b) There is a general need to institute and reinforce definite standards on transparency, accountability and effectiveness into land-related public sector management in Nigeria. This can be achieved in Greater Yola Region of Nigeria through target-driven partnership involving plot owners associations, State Ministry of Lands and Survey and Traditional Council as well as the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) or any such organisation established by the Federal Government of Nigeria.
- c) The Presidential Technical Committee on Land Reform can consider the integration of priorities of plot owners associations and new settlers (incoming and inborn) into new communities, through transparency, accountability, rule of law, equity and effective formal and informal land management practices and services.
- d) Funding by new settlers incoming and inborn who have interest, stakes and are benefiting from land administration services seems to be a sustainable approach to funding of land administration, at least from the on set of settlement formation. However, the initial funding or take-off grant might be sought from local financial institutions or through Public Private Partnership.
- e) In the course of design and implementation of land administration state governments are encouraged to pay attention to entrenching new settlers.

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