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LAND ACCESSIBILITY AMONG URBAN CROP FARMERS IN THE INFORMAL SECTOR, LAGOS, NIGERIA

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Abstract
Urban crop farming as a variant of urban agriculture is practised in towns and cities of both developed and developing countries and is found to make immense contributions to their development. The study therefore investigated constraints affecting land accessibility among urban crop farmers as an informal sector activity and identified issues that must be resolved to enhance their productivity in the Lagos metropolis. Respondents of seven communities were selected through simple random sampling and administered with structured questionnaires. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics while regression analysis was used to investigate the research hypothesis. The study established that the most critical issues that determined land accessibility among urban crop farmers in the Lagos metropolis were in the following descending order: affordability (47.616%), security of tenure (18.056%), competition with other uses (12.797%), availability (7.287%) and usability (6.286%). Thus, availability and usability were not the most critical issues in urban crop farming. Also, publicly-owned lands were found to be readily available but not accessible for crop farming. The study produced a constraints analysis model that could be used to predict land accessibility among the farmers and concluded that the Lagos state government should support and promote urban crop farming by providing land in designated areas for the activity.

Key Words: *Land, Accessibility, Informal, Urban, Crop, Farmers*

Introduction

Urban crop farming which is used interchangeably with urban farming and urban agriculture is a system of growing crops in and around an urban area. It thrives in towns and cities of both developing and developed countries world-wide. Its importance prompted UN-Habitat (2008) report that the system produces between 15 and 20% of the world's food and involves some 800 million urban and peri-urban farmers and gardeners. Mougeot (2000) defined urban crop farming as an industry located within (intra-urban) or on the fringe (peri-urban) of towns, urban centers or cities, which grows or raises, processes and distributes a diversity of food and non-food products, reusing mainly human and material resources, products and services found in and around that urban area, and in turn supplying human and material resources, products and services largely to that urban area. It is an informal sector activity which is accessed by low-income urban residents (Foeken, 2005). In the Lagos metropolis, the major activities of the informal sector vary from small scale enterprises made up

largely of self-help activities which include operators in repair services, transportation, household helps, restaurants, retail trading, urban crop farming, etc. Urban crop farming as an informal activity is known to afford households self-sufficiency in food provisioning thereby enhancing food security, income and employment generation. It is also important in urban environmental management as it can be used to turn derelict open spaces into green zones. The activity is generally land-dependent and land is obviously outside the reach of the urban crop farmers as most of them are generally not fertile (van Veenhuizen, 2006) and are unable to afford or compete with other uses for land. Land accessibility in Lagos as in other parts of Nigeria is governed by the Land Use Act Cap L.5 2004 (Decree 6, 1978). Bello (2007) noted that the Act in conjunction with the 1999 Constitution, guaranteed equal access to land for all Nigerians irrespective of tribe, religion, occupation, level of education, political affinity and gender. In Lagos state, the demand for land for various land use activities is overwhelming vis-à-vis the ever-increasing population which was estimated as over 21million people compared with its land mass of 356,861 hectares (Lagos State Government, 2014). There is no official land zoning for the informal sector activities and urban crop farming as an activity in this sector is not considered in the scheme of things and has no official land use zoning. New policies on urban crop farming are therefore overdue to enable the integration of the activity into urban development. FAO (2007) noted that owing to the dominant view on urban planning and lack of access to research data among other reasons, policy makers often had a misconceived view of urban agriculture as a temporary phenomenon or a remnant from migration of rural farmers to the city that would fade over time. Lawal and Aliu (2012) reiterated that urban farming was rapidly growing in many cities in Nigeria including the megacity of Lagos. They therefore established the need for stakeholders to re-examine the relevance of urban farming in the city and provide support for its growth. This study shall therefore be carried out on the following basis:

Statement of Problem

As an informal activity, there is no formal land allocation for urban crop farming compared with other land uses in the Lagos metropolis; thus undermining its numerous contributions to a city's social, economic and environmental development. There is therefore need to recognize the activity as an urban land use in its own right.

Research Question

What is the relative importance of the constraints encountered by urban crop farmers in land acquisition in the Lagos metropolis?

Specific Objective

To investigate constraints affecting land accessibility for urban crop farming as an informal activity in order to identify issues that must be resolved to enhance its productivity in the Lagos metropolis.

Broad Objective

To determine the relative importance of constraints encountered by urban crop farmers in land acquisition in the Lagos metropolis.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the relative rating of constraints to land accessibility among urban crop farmers in the Lagos metropolis will be resolved in this study.

Justification

The study is important because of the growing popularity of urban crop farming as an informal activity in towns and cities worldwide and particularly in the Lagos metropolis. The study will therefore be a

major source of data in formulating a land policy that can assist urban crop farmers in the metropolis.

Major Constraint

The study recognized the importance of government attitude towards urban crop farming but efforts by the researcher to obtain information on government did not yield satisfactory results as questionnaires administered to government ministries and parastatals were not returned while those returned were largely uncompleted without answers to the relevant questions.

Land Accessibility Constraints and Urban Crop Farming

Land is very key to the practice of urban crop farming. It is however observed that one of the greatest hindrances to its growth is inaccessibility to land and the attitude of policy makers to its cause (Reuther & Dewar, 2005; Asiama, 2005). The farmers do not possess formal land ownership documents such as certificates of occupancy and therefore are unable to secure bank loans to improve on productivity, purchase agricultural inputs (fertilizers, insecticides, etc.) or to build more permanent structures such as concrete fence walls and deep wells or to engage in perennial crop production. As a result, they resort to the use of marginal land with less productivity potentials or they occupy land informally - which may lead to ejection without notice. In spite of the negative attitude of government to the activity, it has continued to thrive in towns and cities of developing countries because of the difficult economic times faced, particularly by the poor who are either unemployed or have lost their paid jobs. The ubiquity of urban farming has enabled it to thrive in parklands, open spaces within the community, steep slopes, wetlands, rivers, lakes, roads and rights-of-way such as power lines, gas lines, railways, buffer zones at airports and industrial complexes (Nasr, 1996). The study of Velez-Guerra (2004) in Bamako identified multiple means of accessing land for urban agriculture which were through formal, informal and semi-informal methods. These modes of access did not, however, confer any legal status on the farmer that would ensure security of tenure. Nonetheless, the most appropriate mode of accessing land by urban crop farmers using the Velez-Guerra's concept is formal access through customary or statutory law which is possible through government recognition. Urban farmers are accessing land through renting, inheritance, borrowing, squatting, leasing and spontaneous occupation. These modes of accessing land were also reiterated by Crush *et al.* (2011). Although land accessibility is largely attributed to market constraints particularly affordability, Omirin (2003) noted that it was multifaceted and embraced availability, affordability, security of tenure and ease of transaction. Drechsel and Dongus (2009) in their study on dynamics and sustainability of urban agriculture noted that the risks in urban agriculture comprised, "tenure insecurity, lack of subsidies, official support or extension services, high land competition with non-agricultural land use, poor soils and possible prosecution due to illegal or water use". Furthermore, Akinmoladun and Adejumo (2011) apart from stressing the importance of urban farming listed socio-cultural and institutional bias, organizational constraints, post production constraints and, "problems of access to resources especially capital, inputs and services" as challenges facing urban farming. Writing on the constraints on urban crop farming, Cisse *et al.* (2005) had earlier noted that it was a high value-added sector of tremendous interest to public authorities, civil society and researchers. They added that it contributed to job-creation, income generation, food security

and environmental conservation but that the activity faced a large number of constraints that impeded the achievement of these goals. These constraints nonetheless prompt urban farmers to occupy land informally or illegally. Quon (1999) also attributed urban farmers' accessibility constraints to lopsided land use planning policies which emanated from

1. Lack of formal recognition of urban crop farming
2. Lack of awareness of the socio-economic and environmental role of urban crop farming
3. Lack of clear government responsibility for urban crop farming
4. Lack of resources, technical and financial support for urban crop farming

Quon (1999) consequently summarized land acquisition constraints in respect of urban crop farming as land availability, accessibility and usability. This study, however, takes a broader look at accessibility as a major constraint which is affected by other variables in land acquisition among urban crop farmers contrasting Quon's view that accessibility was only one of the constraints. That is, the framework for this study identified land accessibility constraints as availability, affordability, security of tenure, usability and competition with other uses. The next section further discusses the relationship of urban crop farming and the informal sector.

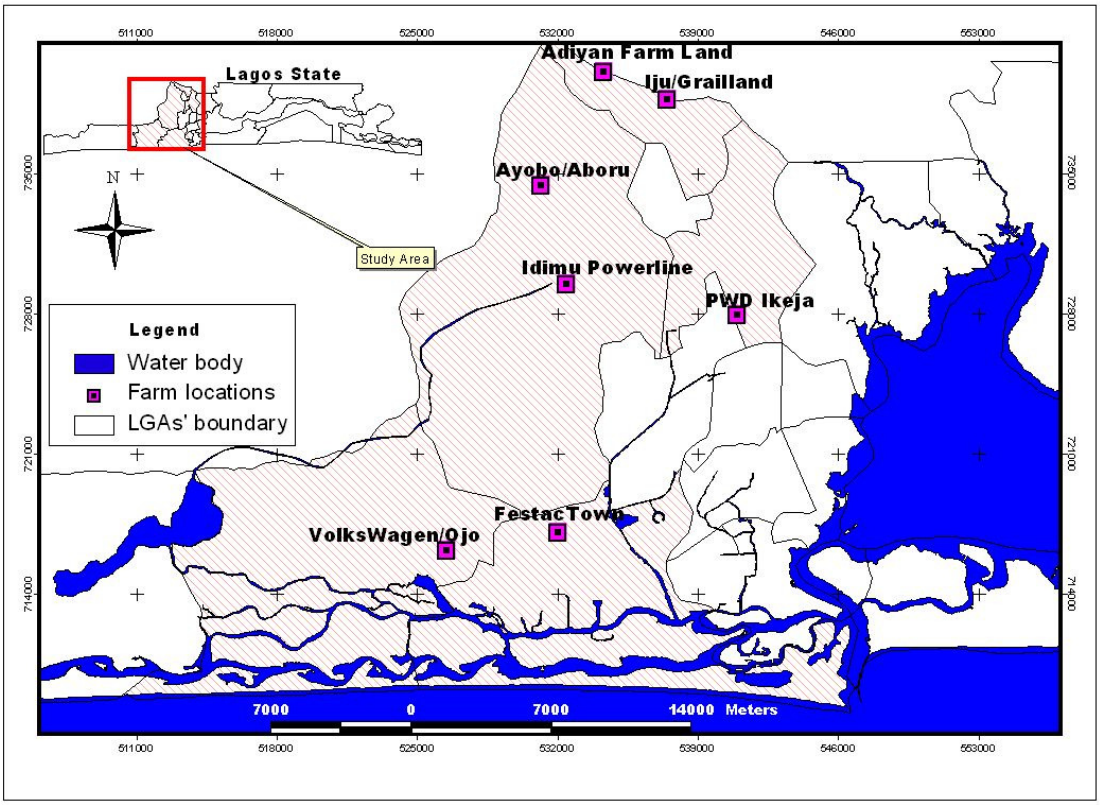
The Informal Sector and Urban Crop Farming

The term "informal" is considered as any urban economic activity taking place outside the legal and regulatory framework governing employment (Hitimana *et al.*, 2011). This no doubt corroborates International Labour Organization (ILO) definition (as cited in Lawanson, 2009) of informality as, "a way of doing things characterized by ease of entry, reliance on indigenous resources, family ownership, small scale operations, labour intensive and adaptive technology, skills acquired outside of the formal sector and unregulated and competitive market". The informal sector is thus, at the forefront of unemployment reduction. The rising rate of unemployment is attributed largely to urbanization which according to Hoornweg (2008) is a problem most developing countries have great difficulties coping with and are unable to create sufficient formal employment opportunities for the poor. Akintoye (2008) also opined that, "unemployment can be reduced by examining the activities of the informal sector". The importance of the sector was further stressed by the Nigerian Federal Government (as cited in Onyenechere, 2011) that, "the share of informal economic sector employment out of total gainful employment in Nigeria rose from 27.3% in 1970 to 38.2% in 1989". This was seen as arising from the high urban population and increasing demand for goods and services which could not easily be met by the formal sector (Tipple, 2005). For instance, between 50% and 75% of the Lagos metropolitan inhabitants were employed in the informal sector (Lawanson, 2009). These statistics corroborated the earlier findings of the ILO survey in 1999 (as cited in Onyenechere, 2011) to the effect that the proportion of the urban workforce engaged in the informal sector was the highest in sub-saharan Africa and that indeed, accounted for more than 50% of urban employment in two-thirds of the surveyed countries. The informal sector thus, comprises a wide sphere of informality that can have environmental, economic, social and spatial impacts on the sector itself. Lawanson (2009) opined that the informal sector consisted of small-scale economic activities which accounted for a substantial share of urban employment or that it was the highest

employer of the urban poor. The place of urban agriculture in the informal sector is hardly discussed in the literature. That is, many writers have discussed the informal sector with only scanty details on the role of urban agriculture in the sector. For instance, Freeman (1991) noted that studies of the informal sector in Kenya tended to ignore both the significance of urban agriculture and the role of women. Tinsley (2003) also noted that the activity did not get government support compared with other informal activities in Kenya which enjoyed support by government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Tinsley added that, "urban farmers do not generally have access to the important supporting mechanisms…that are provided by the government and aid agencies in the rural areas". By current developments, urban crop farming or urban farming is now considered to be located in the informal sector and Hoornweg (2008) added that the activity largely remained in the informal sector as it was not being integrated into agricultural policies or urban planning (Ndi, 2009). This study was therefore conducted as discussed in the next part.

Study Area

The study is limited to metropolitan Lagos which is home to many companies and industries and located in the south-western part of Nigeria. Oni (2001) defined the boundaries of metropolitan Lagos as consisting of the territory within Latitudes 6° 23′ N and 6° 41′ N and Longitudes 3° 09′ E and 3° 20′ E. Olayiwola, Adeleye and Oduwaye (2005) also noted that the Lagos lagoon stretches through the eastern boundary; bounded in the south by the Atlantic Ocean while the northern boundary has the landmass of Ikorodu local government area and Alagbado towards Abeokuta axis in Ifako-Ijaiye local government area. Badagry and Republic of Benin define the Western boundary. Metropolitan Lagos constitutes over 1,140km^2 (or one-third) of the total land mass (3,577km^2) of Lagos State. The pressure on land by the various uses is over-whelming and distribution of land in the metropolis is relatively uneven against urban crop farming. As regards spatial distribution of urban farming communities, the Lagos State Agricultural Development Authority (LSADA) demarcated Lagos State into three agricultural blocs as eastern, western and far western blocs. The western bloc which lies within the Lagos metropolis has a high population of urban crop farmers distributed in ten agricultural circles and each circle consisting of three cells or farming communities. Communities identified included Adiyan, Iju/Grailland, Ayobo/Aboru, Idimu/Powerline, PWD Ikeja, Volkswagen/Ojo and Festac Town (Figure 1).



Source: Geography Department, University of Lagos, 2012

Figure 1: Metropolitan Lagos Showing the Study Locations.

Methodology

The study population was made up of all the practitioners of urban crop farming in the western agricultural bloc (Figure 1). Multi-stage sampling was adopted for the selection of sample size because of the complexity of the population of farmers which was distributed all over the Lagos metropolis. Purposive sampling was used to select seven agricultural circles from the ten circles in the metropolis. Thereafter, a cell or farming community was randomly selected from each circle of three cells. This gave a total of seven farming communities.

Lists of registered urban crop farmers in each farming community were obtained from the Lagos State Agricultural Development Authority Headquarters in Oko-Oba, Agege to enable the determination of the sample size in each farming community (Fig. 1). The elements or respondents in each farming community were selected through simple random sampling from each stratum. Thus, the sample size for each population of farmers in a farming community was determined using Kish (1965) equation which noted as follows: $N = n' [1 + (n'/N)]$

Where:

N = total population (of each farming community) is recorded in the register

n = sample size from finite population

n' = sample size from infinite population calculated from the formula $[n'=S^2/V^2]$ in which,

S^2 = standard error of population elements, $S^2 = P (1-P)$; maximum at $P = 0.5$

V^2 = standard error of sample population equals 0.05 for the confidence level of 95%=1.96

$n' = S^2/V^2 = (0.5)^2/ (0.05)^2 = 100.$

Table 1: Urban farmers' population, sample size and response rate

Farming Communities	Population	Sample size	No. of Questionnaires
Adiyan	120	55	26
Iju/Grailland	56	36	17
Ayobo/Aboru	45	31	17
Idimu/Powerline	55	36	17
PWD Ikeja	150	60	44
Volkswagen/Ojo	325	77	98
Festac Town	430	81	129
Total	1,181	376	348

Presented in Table 1 is the sample frame, sample size and questionnaires returned by the farmers. Copies of structured questionnaire were administered to a total of 376 respondents in the farming communities. Interview schedules with the farmers were carried out by the researcher and eight extension officers of the Lagos State Agricultural Development Authority which took place during meeting days of the various farming communities. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as cross tabulations, frequency and percentages while the hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis. Affordability variable was investigated via rent paid, quantum of rent paid, rent review clauses, sources of finance and costs of inputs. The ability to pay was measured in likert scale; quantum of yearly rent was measured in ordinal scale, manner of rent review was measured in ordinal scale, respondents' sources of finance were measured in nominal scale while expenditure on inputs was measured in ordinal scale.

Results and Discussion

Land Ownership and Accessibility

The study confirmed that 65.8% of land in the study area was owned by public bodies, 23.6% by private organizations while only 7.2% was owned by individuals. Thus, most of the lands which farmers occupied were government-owned except those of Idimu/Powerline and Volkswagen/Ojo communities which were owned by individuals and private organizations respectively. Furthermore, Idimu/Powerline community was a zone of petroleum pipelines and therefore not really suitable for farming. Farmers in occupation were therefore renting from illegal land owners. Similarly, Volkswagen/Ojo farming community was government-owned until it was sold to a private organization and most of the farmers occupied their lands through renting or squatting. Table 2 gives details of land ownership in the study area. The ownership trend in Table 2 agreed with Hubbard and Onumah (2001) and Asomani-Boateng (2002) that government owned much of the lands in many cities in developing countries and that inefficient land administration encouraged unauthorized use by farmers of open spaces like roads and undeveloped public and private sites.

Table 2: Land Ownership in Farming Communities

Farming Communities	Private organization	An individual	Public body	Don't know	Other
Adiyan	0%	0%	24(92.3%)	0%	1(.3%)
Iju/Grailland	1(5.9%)	0%	15(88.2%)	0%	1(5.9%)
Ayobo/Aboru	0%	0%	17(100%)	0%	0%
Idimu/Powerline	0%	16(94.1%)	0%	0%	1(5.9%)
*PWD Ikeja	0%	2(4.5%)	40(90.9%)	1(2.3%)	0%
Volkswagen/Ojo	80(81.6%)	5(5.1%)	13(13.3%)	0%	0%
Festac Town	1(0.8%)	2(1.6%)	120(93%)	0%	3(2.3%)
Total	82(23.6%)	25(7.2%)	229(65.8%)	1(.3%)	6(1.7%)

*PWD = Public Works Department

The difficulties of occupying land among urban crop farmers in most developing countries lead to different modes of land accessibility by the farmers. Thus, the study established that 60.1% of the farmers accessed their lands by squatting, 28.7% by renting, 8.1% by owner's permission while less than 1% either leased or undertook outright purchase of their lands. Most of the squatters were found in all the farming communities except in Idimu/Powerline that had renters (88.2%) who were paying rents to illegal land owners or occupying with illegal land owner's permission (11.8%). See detailed mode of land accessibility in the study area in Table 3. The findings generally agreed with Velez-Guerra (2004) who identified multiple means of land access by urban crop farmers as renting, inheritance, borrowing, squatting, leasing and spontaneous occupation. The study further established that urban crop farming was not officially recognized and that government was indirectly supporting it by allowing the practitioners on its land as well as providing them with extension services.

Table 3: Respondents' Extent of Use of Existing Methods of Accessing Land in Study Area

Farming Communities	Occupation with owner's permission	Squatting	Renting	Leasing	Outright purchase	Other	Missing values	Total
Adiyan	9(34%)	15(57.7%)	0	1(3.8%)	0	0	1(3.8%)	26
Iju/ Grailland	1(5.9%)	16(94.1%)	0	0	0	0	0	17
Ayobo/ Aboru	0	17(100%)	0	0	0	0	0	17
Idimu/ Powerline	2(11.8%)	0	15(88.2%)	0	0	0	0	17
*PWD Ikeja	5(11.4%)	34(77.3%)	3(6.8%)	1(2.3%)	0	1(2.3%)	0	44
Volkswagen/Ojo	1(1%)	13 (13.3%)	81(82.7%)	0	0	1(1%)	2(2%)	98
Festac Town	10(7.8%)	114(88.4%)	1(0.8%)	1(0.8%)	1(0.8%)	0	2(1.6%)	129
Total	28(8.1%)	209(60.1%)	100(28.7%)	3(0.8%)	1(0.3%)	2(0.6%)	5(1.4%)	348

*PWD = Public Works Department

Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis that there was no significant difference in the relative rating of constraints to land accessibility among urban crop farmers was tested using factor-based scores as shown in Table 4. Following principal component analysis, components 1 to 5 were retained as their eigenvalues exceeded one. The components and associated variables were labeled for convenience as: Component 1 = affordability, Component 2 = security of tenure, Component 3 = competition with other uses, Component 4 = availability and Component 5 = usability.

Table 4: Constraints of Land Accessibility Among Urban Crop Farmers

Component	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Availability	*Farm-size (no. of farm beds)	3.54	0.702	0.493
	**Farm-size (Plot of 120'x60')	3.40	0.704	0.496
	Owner of the land	3.60	0.724	0.524
Affordability	Yearly rent	3.18	1.170	1.368
	Cost of hiring labour	4.12	1.068	1.141
	Cost of applying organic fertilizer	3.97	1.154	1.331
	Cost of purchasing seedling	3.52	1.357	1.842
	Cost of harvesting	3.07	1.458	2.125
	Cost of wetting or irrigating	3.62	1.521	2.314
	Income from farm	4.95	0.991	0.981
	Income from non-farm activities	4.45	0.890	0.792
	% of farm income to annual income	3.88	1.224	1.549
Security of Tenure	Land accessibility by gender	3.00	0.600	0.160
	Threat of eviction	4.50	0.993	0.986
Usability	Farmland topography	3.93	0.959	0.919
	Soil texture	3.66	0.822	0.675
	Moisture or water content	3.57	0.976	0.952
	Organic matter content	3.59	0.990	0.981
Competition with other uses	Rate of change of farm location	1.73	1.056	1.106
	Period of farming in land location	3.91	0.782	0.612
	Reasons for vacating the land	2.48	1.075	1.155
	Land use activity replacing farming	3.40	1.198	1.434
	Rate of change of use	2.73	1.062	1.127

*1 Farmbed=60' x 4'=18.288m x 1.219m, **1 Plot=120' x 60'=36.576m x 18.288m=669m^2

A validity analysis for the study was further carried out using Cronbach's α (alpha) – a coefficient of reliability or a measure of the internal consistency for the sample of urban crop farmers – as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Results of Validity and Reliability Test

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Std. Deviation
Affordability	0.89	3.91	0.57
Security	0.91	4.32	0.62
Competition with other uses	0.92	4.11	0.67
Availability	0.90	3.89	0.61
Usability	0.94	3.99	0.68

The test results were relatively stable and consistent since the α-values were significantly higher than the value of 0.7. R squared in Table 6 was the coefficient of determination or the square of the correlation coefficient, R. Thus, five independent variables were found to be most significant in determining land accessibility among urban crop farmers as the multiple correlation coefficient between the five predictors and land accessibility among urban crop farmers was 0.802 (R=0.802) indicating high positive correlation. The five predictors consequently explained 76.1% (R^2=0.761) of the variation in land accessibility among urban crop farmers. The multiple correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variable was 0.802 which was highly significant at 0.05 level. A contingent constraints equation model for land accessibility among urban crop farmers was therefore formulated as follows:

Land Accesibility = 6.352 + 0.532 (affordability) + 0.459 (security of tenure) + 0.417 (competition with other uses) + 0.211 (availability) + 0.131 (usability) + 0.841 (error term)

Table 6: Regression Results - Land Accessibility and Constraints tonLand Among Urban Crop Farmers

Constraints	Estimates	Std. Error	t	Sig.
(Constant)	6.352	1.642	4.103	0.00*
Affordability	0.532	0.138	4.527	0.00*
Security	0.459	0.141	4.162	0.00*
Competition with other uses	0.417	0.152	4.024	0.00*
Availability	0.211	0.138	1.454	0.08*
Usability	0.131	0.251	1.111	0.23
R		0.802		
R^2		0.761		
Adjusted R^2		0.712		
Std. Error		0.841		
DW		0.723		
F		86.523*		

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level

The model suggested that an increase of 0.532 in land accessibility among urban crop farmers on the average could be expected for each unit increase in affordability when all other variables and the slope intercept remained constant. The same interpretation goes for the other independent variables. The intercept (6.352) represented the mean of land accessibility when each independent variable equaled zero or it showed the degree of land accessibility when the independent variables were absent. The F-value (86.523) and Durbin Watson (DW)

value (0.723) showed the model to be statistically significant at $p<0.05$). Generally, affordability showed the highest significance followed in succession by security of tenure, competition with other uses, availability and usability. Thus, the hypothesis that there is a significant variance in rating or variability of constraints on land accessibility among urban crop farmers is upheld. The model can therefore be used to predict land accessibility among urban crop farmers based on tackling the problems of affordability such as reducing costs incurred in yearly rent, hiring labour, applying fertilizer, harvesting and irrigating as well as improving income from farm and non-farm activities. The model also showed that availability and usability of land were not the most critical issues in urban farming. It should be noted that although land was available, it was not necessarily allocated officially for urban crop farming. The findings agreed with Omirin (1992) that land accessibility was a function of land availability, affordability, security and ease of transaction and concluded that affordability or costs of private land acquisition was the most critical factor. The study also agreed with Asiama (2005), Reuther and Dewar (2005) as well as Gittleman (2009).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study discussed the importance of urban crop farming in food security, income and employment generation. It noted that urban crop farmers were unable to access land formally as they lacked the requirements for obtaining certificates of occupancy. Practitioners consequently access land by way of squatting or illegal occupation. The study also discussed the rampant occurrence of crop farming in the Lagos metropolis in relationship to the growing population and available land mass for various urban land uses in the metropolis. The study further noted the importance of land for the activity and lack of accessibility by practitioners as they are unable to afford or compete for urban land with other uses. These constraints prompted practitioners to resort to marginal land or occupy land informally. The study highlighted the relationship between the informal sector and urban crop farming and pointed out its role in the informal sector which was due to urbanization and lack of government support for the activity compared with other informal activities. The study in its analysis established that most of the farmers' lands were owned by public bodies (65.8%), followed by private organizations (23.6%) while 7.2% was owned by individuals. The study further established that the various land accessibility constraints prompted urban crop farmers to access land by renting, inheritance, borrowing, squatting, leasing and spontaneous occupation. Finally, the study provided a unique constraint analysis model for determining the relative contribution of critical factors that determine land accessibility among urban crop farmers. It is therefore recommended that the Lagos state government should devise an urban crop farming policy that will allow issuance of temporary title documents to urban crop farmers with lease periods of up to 20 years or leases that can be renewed periodically. Also, the government through urban planners can identify and make lands available and accessible by clarifying and formalizing land use and land tenure arrangements for crop faming.

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