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and Development Network of Children and Youth In Agriculture
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showed that a higher percentage of the students got their career information through their parents. The attitude of teachers also motivated the students in their choice of career as seventy-eight percent of them indicated that their teachers played a significant role in their choice of career.

It was established that the factors that influenced students to the choice of agriculture by the students were the exposure to external factors like the attitude of parents and the profession (A = 5.535). Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- 1. Willingness of students to pursue agriculture as a career may be improved if adequate career guidance and counseling sessions are put in place in our primary and secondary schools.
- 2. Developing programmes and strategies that allow both students and youths to explore a wide range of occupations and open up to emerging and non-traditional career choices.

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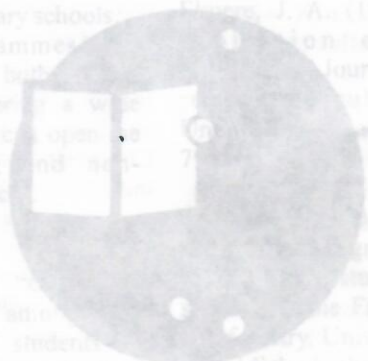
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ANNALS OF CHILD AND YOUTH STUDIES

BRIEF HISTORY OF THE JOURNAL

At the 7th Annual General Meeting of the National Research and Development Network of Children and Youth in Agriculture Programme (CYIAP-Network) visit our website www.cyiapnetwork.org for more information) held at Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagan, Ijebu-Ode, Nigeria on the 28th November, 2005, it was resolved that a journal named *Annals of Child and Youth Studies* (ACYS) of the Network be established. Dixon Olutade Torimiro, Department of Agricultural Extension and Development, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria was unanimously appointed as the Editor-in-Chief and the Department was chosen as the Editorial Office of the Journal.

The underlisted members of the Network were constituted into the Editorial Board.

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The study focused on factors affecting choice of agriculture as a career among secondary school youth in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo state. One hundred and fifty respondents were sampled through random sampling technique. The instrument used was a structured questionnaire. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, percentages, and inferential statistics such as chi-square and correlation coefficient and factor analysis. Some of the identified factors affecting student's choice of agriculture as a career included parents' influence (47.3%), counselors' influence (39.3%) peer group influence (78.7%). The result also showed that there was a significant relationship between the age ($r = -0.563$), family size ($r = 0.470$) of the students' and their choice of agriculture as a career. Also, it was revealed that there was a significant association between the parental advice ($\chi^2 = 41.50, P = 0.05$), peer group influence ($\chi^2 = 35.83, P = 0.05$) and their choice of agriculture as a career. The factor analysis showed that attitudes of students ($\lambda = 10.908$), exposure to external factors ($\lambda = 8.97$) and attitude of parents to agricultural profession ($\lambda = 6.663$) among others mostly contributed to their choice of agriculture. The factors identified explained 67.11 percent of the variation in the choice of agriculture as a profession among the students. It was recommended among others that Career awareness programme should be organized from time to time in all secondary schools to bring to the knowledge of the students the various career opportunities available in the area of Agriculture.

Key words: Career, Perception, Youth, Profession

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FACTORS AFFECTING CHOICE OF AGRICULTURE AS A CAREER AMONGST SECONDARY SCHOOL YOUTH IN IBADAN NORTH LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OYO STATE, NIGERIA

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INTRODUCTION The inefficiency of agriculture is traceable to poor quality and quantity of inputs, involvement of manpower in the process of agricultural production (Erwat, 2001). In America as far back as the first decade of the 19th century, the youths were formed into clubs such as the 4-H clubs and the Future Farmers of America (FFA) which helped in the transformation of agriculture such that the country not only had enough to feed the nation but could also export (Adeyemi, 1998). In the same vein, Nigeria can use her youths as an object in transforming the agricultural sector to bring about development.

Career is defined as an honorable occupation which one normally takes up as a youth with the expectations of advancement and pursuance until retirement (Anogie, 1983). Carew, (1986) opined that career could be viewed as a development process an individual passed through from childhood to adulthood in which he involved himself in educational and vocational activities that would further the satisfaction of his occupational needs and Ekpere (1979), in his own view believed that, a career was the occupation in which an individual finally found himself in the course of trying to earn a living. Career to him, was based upon the occupational aspiration of an individual, he contended that there would be a

transmitting the school curriculum to the students. His attitude can influence students' attitude because they look up to him as a model. Although, studies have shown that the influence of schoolteachers on career choice is far less than that of parents. College and career guidance and counseling programs aim to help students make more informed and better educational and career choices. Counselors are entrusted with the major responsibility of helping students to make appropriate choices and decisions for the future, and are therefore involved with the critical processes of student development and transition. (Karen, 1987). In addition, they are in a position to help overcome the considerable inequities evident in education, provided that school systems give them the support and resources necessary to carry out their responsibilities.

The perception of youths towards agriculture has to be realigned, such that they will succeed the fast aging farming populace and see the lucrative and positive side of agriculture. The factors that could account for the choice of agriculture as a career has to be looked into so as to proffer solutions to the negative attitudes of the youths towards agriculture. There has not been adequate enlightenment of students as regards this profession. It is therefore hoped that useful information will be

replayed in this area which will serve to ensure developing positive attitude towards agriculture especially among students.

This study therefore sought to determine the factors affecting choice of agriculture as a career among Senior Secondary School youth in Ibadan North Local Government Area in Oyo State. Based on this, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What were the demographic characteristics of the Senior Secondary Students in Ibadan North LGA of Oyo State?
2. What were the parent characteristics that affect students' choice of agriculture as a career in the study area?
3. What were the peer group characteristics that affect the students' choice of career in the study area?

4. What were the agriculture teacher's attributes that influence the student's choice of career?
5. How often were students exposed to Career Awareness Programme?

The main objective of the study was to determine the factors affecting the choice of agriculture as a career among Senior Secondary School youth Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State. The specific objectives were to:

1. determine the demographic

- characteristics of the senior secondary school youth in the study area;
2. identify the parental characteristics that affects the students' choice of agriculture as a career;
 3. determine the influence of peer group on students' choice of agriculture as a career;
 4. determine the agricultural teachers' characteristics that affect students' choice of agriculture as a career;
 5. find out how often the students were exposed to career awareness programme?

The following hypotheses were tested:

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between the selected demographic characteristics of the Senior Secondary youth (Age, Position in the family) and their choice of agriculture as a career in Ibadan North Local Government Area.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between the parents, peer group, agricultural teacher's characteristics of the Senior Secondary Youth and their choice of agriculture as a career in Ibadan North Local Government Area.

METHODOLOGY

Senior Secondary class two students of the twenty-three public secondary schools available formed the population of the study. Senior Secondary class two students were chosen because they would soon be

leaving secondary school and would be faced with the problem of choice of career. There were twenty three secondary schools in the study area and ten schools were randomly selected. Based on the population of the students in each secondary school as shown in appendix 1 a sample representative of each school's populace was chosen. To this end, the sample for the study comprised one hundred and fifty Senior Secondary class two students randomly chosen from the ten schools selected.

The dependent variable in this study was choice of Agriculture as a career. It was measured by the attitude of the students towards agriculture as a career. Students were asked to respond to a set of 10 negative and positive attitudinal statements, that best described their attitude towards agriculture in a Likert type scale as follows: Strongly agree (5), Agree (4), Undecided (3), Disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1). The total score for each of the respondents was calculated by summing the respective values up. The maximum score was 50 while the minimum was 10. The sum of the mean and standard deviation was used to mark up the highest point while the difference of mean and standard deviation was used to mark the lowest point.

Descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequency counts were used to describe the data collected

while inferential statistics such as chi square (χ^2) and factor analysis were used to test the hypotheses. Specifically, chi square was used to test hypothesis one and factor analysis was used to test hypothesis two.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 revealed that the respondents' age was between 14 and 19 years. A larger percentage (33.3%) of the respondents were 15 years old, 30.7 percent of the respondents were 16 years, 19.3 percent were 17 years, and 8 percent were 18 years while only one percent were 19 years old. This showed that the respondents were matured enough to choose a career in life considering the fact that they still have one more year to spend in school. This was in line with (Karen, 1987) who suggested that students between the ages of 15-21 were faced with decision making concerning their future career. Furthermore, the table showed that fifty three percent of the respondents are male while the remaining forty seven percent are female. This showed that there are more male respondents than female in the secondary schools. On family size, a higher percentage (60.7%) of the respondents came from a family that had family size ranging from 4-6. In choosing agriculture as a career, large families serve to provide the much needed labour on the farm

Respondents' Preference for Selected Courses

In Table 3, it is observed that 40.7 percent of the respondents intend to study medicine while 32.0 percent prefer to study Engineering. 5.3 percent intend to study education. Also, 4.7 percent of the respondents would rather study law despite the fact that only 1.3 percent of the respondents are non-science students. However, only 7.3 percent intended to study agriculture. This shows that most of the students are unfavorably disposed to agriculture. This reason for the higher percentage for medicine and engineering respectively could be due to the prestige associated with such profession (Jesse and Earl, 1993).

Respondents' Information Sources on Chosen Career

In Table 4 below, it is observed that a higher percentage of the respondents (47.3%) got to know about the course they intend studying through their parents. This is a pointer to the fact that the parents influence on their children choice of career is enormous. This is in line with Orto, (2000) who admitted that the family plays a critical role in a

child's career development 3.3 percent of the respondents got to know about the course through the counselor. This indicates that the counselor is seldom consulted in choosing a course of study. This findings support (Helen, 1987) that influence from guidance counselors was either forgotten or not perceived as important. Also twenty three percent of the respondents met people in the profession and developed interest in the course. This implies that students can actually develop interest in a particular profession when they see people involved in it that are successful. Only one percent got to know about their intending courses through their friends. It can therefore be inferred that the influence of friends on career choice is minimal.

Students' perception of agriculture as a career

Table 5 shows the summary of the respondents' responses toward some attitudinal statements of their perception of agriculture. Fifty seven percent of the respondents admitted that agriculture was a poor man's job with only three percent of the respondents disagreeing with that statement while 3 percent of the respondents were undecided in their view. Eighty nine percent of the respondents agreed that agriculture should be left to the illiterate rural dwellers; eight percent disagree while three percent were undecided. Ninety

one percent of the respondents believed farmers were the poorest set of people while only four percent believed otherwise. This showed that majority of the respondents were not willing to take agriculture as a career because of this reason.

Sixty-three percent of the respondents believed that agriculture was all about farming while twenty-eight percent believed otherwise. This showed that a high percentage of the students were not knowledgeable about the various opportunities that abound in agriculture. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents believed agriculture does not bring quick returns easily with fifty-seven percent opposed to this statement while thirteen percent were undecided. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents believed that agriculture was risk inclined. Also, fifty four percent of the respondents believed agriculture was a lucrative business.

Sixty seven percent of the respondents admitted that they would take up agriculture as a career if it becomes mechanized; sixteen percent are undecided while twenty three percent would not take up agriculture as a career even if it becomes mechanised. This finding showed that the respondents' refusal for taking agriculture up as a career was due to the fact that it still makes use of primitive implements in its operation, therefore

the introduction of mechanised implements will serve as an incentive for a higher number of the respondents to take it up as a career. Also, seventy eight percent of the respondents believed that choosing agriculture was synonymous with choosing to be poor, eight percent are undecided while fourteen percent disagree with the statement. In all, more than half of the respondents believe that deciding to study agriculture was equivalent to poverty which was a misconception. However, seventy seven percent of the respondents agreed that the future of the nation depends on the development of this crucial sector, while 9.3 percent were undecided with only thirteen percent disagreeing with this statement.

Parental Educational Attainment.

Table 6 below showed the educational attainment of the respondents' parents. Two percent of the respondents' parents had no formal education, six percent had primary school education, twenty three percent had secondary school education, five percent had college of Education training, ten percent had teachers' training college certificate while 14 percent had HND certificate from the polytechnic and thirty eight percent had a Bachelors' degree from the university. Also, three percent had higher educational degrees. This shows that majority of the parents were educated and could influence their children on their future career.

Distribution Of Respondents Influence By Various Groups On Their Choice Of Career:

In Table 7, seventy nine percent of the respondents discuss their future career with their friends while only twenty one percent do not discuss with their friends. This shows that a high percentage of the respondents have a greater tendency to be influenced by their friends. Also, fifty three percent of the respondents' friends would rather take up an agricultural career than a non agricultural one. In addition, most of the respondents see agriculture as a lucrative business (68.7%) while only twenty nine percent thought otherwise. This implied that most of the respondents' friends perceive agriculture as a lucrative business and so they have a favourable attitude towards it.

The table further showed that most (78%) of the respondents' agricultural science teachers motivated them to choose agriculture as a career. This high number might be responsible for the attitude developed towards agriculture. However, only twenty nine percent of these teachers organized excursion to agro allied industries. Only thirty three percent of the respondents had school farms while sixty three percent did not have school farms in their schools. However, of these numbers, only sixteen percent of the respondents had personal plots on their school farm. In addition, eighty two percent made use

of traditional implements on the school farm.

The table also indicated that, eighty nine percent of the respondents indicated the presence of guidance and counseling unit in their schools. Of these respondents, only fifty five percent had visited them before while the remaining forty six percent had never visited them for whatsoever reason. This shows that the respondents' need to be enlightened on the importance of the counselors in order to benefit from them. When asked whether the counselors were consulted before choosing a career, thirty nine percent of the respondents affirmed they did while the remaining fifty seven percent did not. Also, seventy percent of the respondents admitted that their schools organized career awareness programme for them. Furthermore, seventy nine percent of the respondents believed they were adequately informed about their career choice while the remaining twenty one percent felt they were not adequately informed about their choice of career. Finally, thirty three percent of the respondents admitted their choice of career was based on their counselors' suggestions. These findings show that most of the respondents have guidance and counseling unit in their schools yet only a little above 50 percent used the opportunity to visit them.

Testing Of Hypotheses

H₁₀: There is no significant relationship between the selected demographic characteristics of the senior secondary students and their choice of agriculture as a career.

Table 8, showed the value of the identified demographic characteristics. These are age of respondents (r = -0.563) and family size (r = 0.470).

The negative correlation of age implied that the older the students, the less favourable their attitude towards agriculture becomes. This showed that the older students would prefer to settle for a career other than agriculture. This can be attributed to the fact that agriculture is energy demanding and therefore requires able bodied men. Therefore, older individuals would prefer to settle for a career that is less demanding.

The positive correlation of family size implied that the larger the families size of the students, the more favourable their attitude towards agriculture becomes. This could be further explained by the fact that large family size can provide the labour needed for agricultural production hence, encouraging the choice of agriculture as a career. This implies that a significant relationship exists between demographic characteristics and choice of agriculture as a career and so, the null hypothesis is rejected while the

alternate is accepted. There is no significant relationship between parents, peer group, guidance counselors and agricultural science teacher's characteristics of the senior secondary students and their choice of agriculture as a career.

From Table 9, parental characteristics in form of advice were found to be significant at 5% level of significance (X² = 41.50). Peer influence in form of assisting friends involved in farming, discussing future career with friends and taking up a career based on friends' recommendation were found to be associated with choice of agriculture as a career, although the association was not significant at 5% level of significance. Teachers' influence on career choice in form of motivating, students to take up agriculture as a career was also found to be significant at 5% level of significance (X² = 34.35) while other teachers' influence in form of likeness for teacher, organizing excursion for students and presence of personal plot on school farm were found to be associated with the students' choice of agriculture as a career. Also, Counselors' influence in form of Choice of career based on guidance and counselor's suggestion was found to be significant at 5 percent level of significance (X² = 95.50). Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant association

between the parental advice, peer group, agric teacher's characteristics of the senior secondary students and their choice of agriculture as a career.

Factor Analysis

The factor analysis carried out (table 10) indicated that the factors that contributed mostly to the choice of agriculture by secondary school youth were the attitudes of the students (λ = 10.08), exposure to external factors (λ = 8.97) and attitude of parents to agricultural profession (λ = 6.633). Attitude of students themselves towards agriculture (λ = 5.90) among others. The factors identified explained 67.11 percent of the variation in the choice of agriculture as a profession among the students.

CONCLUSION

The students' choice of agriculture as a course of study must be seen as a major concern for the nation based on their impact on the economy of the nation. It was clearly found out that the respondents' age was between fourteen and nineteen years. They were mostly Christians as sixty-nine percent of them indicated such. Most of the students were unfavorably disposed to agriculture as seventy-two percent of them intended to study other science courses such as Medicine and Engineering courses. The students rarely consulted with the school guidance counselors as the results

showed that a higher percentage of the students got their career information through their parents. The attitude of teachers also motivated the students in their choice of career as seventy-eight percent of them indicated that their teachers played a significant role in their choice of career.

It was established that the factors that contributed mostly to the choice of agriculture by the students were the attitudes of the students ($\lambda = 10.08$), exposure to external factors ($\lambda = 8.97$) and attitude of parents to agricultural profession ($\lambda = 6.633$). Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

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Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Total	120	100.0
14-19	4	3.3
10-13	2	1.7
7-9	28	23.3
4-6	3	2.5
1-3	4	3.3
Family size		
Total	120	100.0
No response		
Institutional		
Medium		
Christian		
Religion		
Total		
Female		
Male		
Total		
No response		
Total		

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Table1: Distribution of respondent according to selected Demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
15	50	33.3
16	46	30.7
17	29	19.3
18	12	8
19	02	1.3
No response	11	7.4
Total	150	100.0
Sex		
Male	79	52.7
Female	71	47.3
Total	150	100
Religion		
Christian	103	68.7
Muslim	44	29.3
Traditional	1	0.7
No response	2	1.3
Total	150	100
Family Size		
1-3	21	14.1
4-6	91	60.7
7-9	26	23.3
10-12	5	3.3
14-16	4	2.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 2: Distribution of respondents according to their order of preference for different courses

Courses	Frequency	Percentage
Agriculture	11	7.3
Pharmacy	12	8.0
Medicine	61	40.7
Education	8	5.3
Engineering	48	32.0
Law	7	4.7
No response	3	2.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 3: Distribution of respondents according to their information sources on their intended course of study

	Frequency	Percentage
Parents	71	47.3
Counselor	5	3.3
Read it in books	35	23.3
Friends	2	1.3
People in the profession	34	22.7
No response	3	2.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 4: Students perception of Agriculture

Perceptual Statements	SA F(P)	A F(P)	U F(P)	SD F(P)	D F(P)
1. Agriculture is a poor man's job	85(56.7)	54(36.0)	3(2.0)	3(2.0)	5(3.3)
2. Agriculture should be left to the illiterate, rural dwellers	83(55.3)	50(33.3)	5(3.3)	8(5.3)	4(2.7)
3. Farmers are the poorest set of people in the society	70(46.7)	67(44.7)	7(4.7)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)
4. Agriculture is all about farming	42(28.0)	53(35.3)	13(8.7)	33(22.0)	9(6.0)
5. Agriculture does not bring quick returns easily	7(4.7)	48(32.0)	19(12.7)	54(36.0)	22(14.7)
6. Agriculture is too risk inclined	4(2.7)	42(28.0)	29(19.3)	45(30.0)	30(20.0)
7. Agriculture is a lucrative Business	28(18.7)	53(35.3)	26(17.3)	21(14.0)	22(14.7)
8. If agriculture becomes mechanized, would take it up as a career	27(18.0)	64(42.7)	24(16.0)	21(14.0)	14(9.3)
9. Choosing agriculture as a career is synonymous to Choosing to be poor	76(50.7)	41(27.3)	12(8.0)	11(7.3)	10(6.7)
10. The future of the nation depends on the development of agric.	64(42.7)	52(34.7)	14(9.3)	10(6.7)	10(6.7)

Key: SA - Strongly Agree

A - Agree

U - Undecided

SD - Strongly Disagree

D - Disagree.

F - Frequency

P - Percentage

Table 5: Distribution of respondents according to their parents' educational attainment

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
No formal education	3	2.0
Primary education	9	6.0
Secondary education	34	22.7
Teacher training college	15	10.0
College of education	7	4.7
Polytechnic	21	14.0
University education	61	40.7

Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to the influence of peer group, teachers, parents and guidance counselors on their choice of agriculture as a career.

Variables	Yes		No	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Peer group				
* Discussing career choice with friends	118	78.7	32	21.3
* Friend's choice of agriculture influenced me	79	52.7	66	44.0
* Friend's seeing agriculture as a lucrative business	103	68.7	43	28.7
Teachers' influence				
* Teacher's attitude motivating students	117	78.0	33	22.0
* Organisation of excursion by teachers	43	28.7	107	71.3
* Teachers' establishing school farms	49	32.7	101	67.3
Guidance and counselor's influence				
* Presence of guidance and counseling unit	134	89.3	16	10.7
* Visiting the units encouraged them	73	54.5	61	45.5
* Rapport with counselor on choice of career	59	39.3	85	56.7
* Adequate information by the counselor	119	79.3	31	20.7
* Career choice based on counselor's suggestion	49	32.7	101	67.4

Table 7: Relationship between the selected demographic characteristics and choice of agriculture as a career

Variables	r	r ²
Age	-0.563	0.317
Family size	0.470	0.221

Table 8: Result of chi-square analysis of parents', peer, teachers' and counselors' influence on career choice

Remarks	X ²	df	Contingency Coefficient	Assumed significance
Parents' influence				
Parental advice	41.50	23	0.47	0.01 *
Peer influence				
Assist friends in farming	59.82	46	0.54	0.83
Discuss future career with Friends	35.83	46	0.44	0.86
Take up a career based on friends recommendation	33.96	23	0.43	0.07
Teachers' influence				
Likeness for agric teacher	38.69	46	0.45	0.77
Teacher motivate students	34.35	23	0.43	0.05 *
Teacher organize excursion	20.77	23	0.35	0.60
Presence of personal plot	29.06	23	0.40	0.18
Counselors' influence				
Choice of career based on guidance and counselor's Suggestion	5.50	46	0.62	0.00 *

* Significant at 0.05 level

Table 9: Total variance explained on the factors affecting choice of agriculture as a career

Component	Initial Eigenvalues					Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		
1	3.818	10.8975	10.908	3.818	10.908	10.908		
2	3.141	8.975	19.883	3.141	8.975	19.883		
3	2.332	6.663	26.546	2.332	6.663	26.546		
4	2.064	5.897	32.443	2.064	5.897	32.443		
5	1.695	4.844	37.287	1.695	4.844	37.287		
6	1.661	4.745	42.032	1.661	4.745	42.032		
7	1.455	4.157	46.189	1.455	4.157	46.189		
8	1.392	3.977	50.166	1.392	3.977	50.166		
9	1.328	3.795	53.961	1.328	3.795	53.961		
10	1.282	3.663	57.624	1.282	3.663	57.624		
11	1.147	3.278	60.902	1.147	3.278	60.902		
12	1.133	3.238	64.139	1.133	3.238	64.139		
13	1.036	2.960	67.100	1.036	2.960	67.100		

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH FEMALE DROPOUT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN NIGERIA

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The paper investigated the personal and parental factors associated with female students who dropped out of secondary schools in Nigeria. Fifty secondary school female dropouts were randomly selected from ten purposively selected Local Government Areas in Lagos State of Nigeria and interviewed via structured interview schedule. About 34 percent of the respondents claimed pregnancy as the cause of their dropping out of secondary school. About 44 percent of the respondents had settled for apprenticeship, while majority (64%) were willing to continue their education if given the opportunity. Age of the respondents ($r = 0.106$) was positively significant with the level at which female students dropped out of secondary schools. While father's ($r = -0.16$), and mother's ($r = -0.24$) level of formal education were negative but significantly related to the secondary school level at which the respondents dropped out of schools.

Keywords: Female, Dropout, Secondary Schools, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

Illiteracy rate in Nigeria varies on regional, and gender bases. World Bank report (2004) revealed that the overall level of illiteracy in Nigeria is 44 percent in the general population and the adult illiteracy is at about 36 percent. The report further shows that fewer girls than boys were enrolled in primary and secondary schools and reported related problems of girls' non-completion and absenteeism. Girls' participation in education is generally poor in Nigeria, from primary to secondary and even at tertiary levels of education. However, the lowest level of girls' participation in education prevails in the Northern part of Nigeria (among the Hausa ethnic group). The probable reason for this remarkably lower level of participation in formal education by the girls in the Northern region of Nigeria may be due to the prevailing culture of giving female children to

marriage early in life and the practice of putting women in seclusion almost twenty-four hours in the day.

Participation in education goes beyond access. However, the prevailing gender inequality in both the access and participation in formal education in Nigeria has economic and socio-cultural underpinning factors.

According to the 2000/2001 National Human Development Report (UNDP, 2003a), there is gender disparity in the poverty level distribution in Nigeria, with women at the disadvantaged end. The report further shows that 66-70 percent of Nigeria's population was living below the poverty level. The present prevailing economic situation in the country suggests that its poverty situation had grown worst than as it was in the year 2000/2001, with women and girls at the center of the looming poverty. Gender-based violence was also reported as one of the major contributing factors to the generally lower female participation in education (Panos Institute, 2003), although with variation in different countries.

No sooner than when efforts were channeled towards accelerating girls' education in Nigeria that the problem of dropout emerged, which was more preponderant among the female students especially at the secondary school level. School dropout phenomenon of the female students

was other wise referred to as "school wastage of female" by the UNESCO. Since then, this problem of female student dropouts has been on the increase, thereby militating against the improvement of girls' education in Nigeria. This invariably has negative effects on the socio-economic status of the women and their families, communities and ultimately, the nation.

According to Patricia (1996), poverty and burden of domestic chores stand in the way of educational progress, especially of the female children; a study in Mozambique primary schools found that the single most important factor in female secondary schools' poor performance was the time and strain imposed by the child's workload. This fact still hold in most rural areas today, where the female child has to wake up early to fetch firewood from the farm, feed the domestic animals and cook for the whole household before going to school, almost everyday of the week.

Today, the clamor for female empowerment has helped to improve female education greatly in Nigeria, as evident in the increase in female enrollment at all levels of education and more female professionals, than as it was, more than two decades ago.

In the past, there were usual cases of parents disallowing their girls from

going to school because of the problems of long distance of trekking between homes and schools, being under the teaching of male teachers and in the midst of male schoolmates, which often put the female students in the danger of sexual harassment.

Nowadays, it is usual to find schools sited close to most homes in order to alleviate the problems of having to travel long distance before getting to school. In addition, the provisions of single-sex school with female teachers also serve as a measure to encourage the enrollment of females.

Just as there is no single cause of the low level of girls' enrolment and retention in schools, so there is no single answer (Patricia, 1996), hence, the significance of regular check-up via empirical research, so as to give room for constant and sustainable improvement in female education in Nigeria.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Lagos State of Nigeria. The study population was the female secondary school dropouts.

Ten Local Government Areas (LGAs), representing about 50 percent of the LGAs in Lagos state, were selected purposively based on higher number of private and public secondary schools, namely: *Agege, Surulere, Mushin,*

Oshodi-Isolo, Ifako-Ijaye, Shomolu, Mainland, Ikorodu, Island and Ojo Local Government Areas. Five female Secondary School dropouts were randomly selected in each LGA. In all, fifty female secondary school dropouts were identified and randomly interviewed using structured interview schedule throughout the selected Local Government Areas, to elicit quantitative data of the study. Descriptive analysis of the data collected was carried out using frequency counts and percentage, while appropriate inferential statistical tool such as Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the significance of the association between the dependent and independent variables of the study.

Measurement of Variables of the Study

Dependent variable: the secondary school level reached by the respondents before dropping out was the dependent variable of the study. In the contemporary educational system of 6-3-3-4 (6 years in primary, 3 years in junior secondary, 3 years in senior secondary, and 4 years in tertiary education) in Nigeria, there are three junior and three senior levels at the secondary school educational level in Nigeria. The levels were scored accordingly in ascending order as follows:

Junior Secondary School level 1 scored 1 mark

Junior Secondary School level 2 scored 2 marks.
Junior Secondary School level 3 scored 3 marks
Senior Secondary School level 1 scored 4 marks
Senior Secondary School level 2 scored 5 marks
Senior Secondary School level 3 scored 6 marks
There was a minimum of one mark and maximum of six marks available to each respondent.

Independent variables: the independent variables of the study include:

- (i) Age of the respondents in years, used numerically as given by each respondent.
- (ii) Number of wives married by the father used numerically as given by each respondent.
- (iii) Father's and mother's level of formal education were scored as follows:
 - No formal education zero mark.
 - Did not complete primary school 1 mark.
 - Completed primary school 2 marks.
 - Did not complete secondary school 3 marks.
 - Completed secondary school 4 marks.
 - Did not complete tertiary education 5 marks.
 - Graduated from tertiary institutions 6 marks.

Minimum score of zero and maximum score of six were available to each respondent. Other independent variables not considered in the inferential statistical analysis, but descriptive alone, include reasons for dropping out of school, willingness to continue schooling if given the opportunity, and the present occupations of the respondents. Nominal scale was employed to measure these non-hypothesised variables.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personal and Parental

Characteristics of the Respondents

Data in Table 1 reveal that majority (62%) of the respondents were between the age range of 15 and 20, while very few (4%) were below 15 years of age. Ages 15 to 24 was adopted by the United Nations as the youth age. The result is in line with the International standard for youth age range, most of who are expected to be in their secondary level of education. However, the 34 percent of the respondents found within the age range of 21-30 is expected as a peculiar feature of Nigeria due to late formal schooling as well as repetition of classes due to academic failure and financial problems, rampant among the female students.

Majority (56%) of the respondents came from polygamous homes. This is

a typical feature of Nigerian family set-up. The practice of using children as source of farm labour and means of prestige in the society encourages marrying more than one wife by a typical Nigerian man. However, the fast spread of Christian religion, which upholds the doctrine of one-man one-wife in Nigerian societies today has contributed to the presence of some (44%) monogamous family type (Table 1).

Data in Table 2 reveal that some of the respondents (44%) were involved in various forms of apprenticeship while very few (2%) were not yet fixed in to any occupation after they had dropped out of schools. The reason why most of the females took to apprenticeship might be the financial benefits accrued to the apprentices even while in training. Some amount is usually given on daily basis to apprentices during their training periods. Most apprentices use this little token to take care of themselves and others, and/or save it for the purpose of using it to purchase their own personal equipments, which they would be using after gaining independence at the end of their training.

The problem of poverty that is biting hard in many households in Nigeria is also a major factor enhancing the decision to take up vocations that could be yielding some amount of money to

the apprentice. This is, in most cases, preferred to formal education and other vocations that requires a much longer period of training without any simultaneous financial dividend. Some of the respondents engaged in petty trading inherited from their parents. It is a usual practice for most parents in Nigeria to involve their female children in their income generating activities, even while schooling. Some of these female children usually end up settling down on such income generating activities as their life vocations, especially after dropping out of school.

Data in Table 3 reveal that highest proportion (34 %) of the respondents dropped out because they were pregnant. Other reasons given include financial constraint (16%), frustration for repeating class (16%), problem of broken homes (14%), heavy domestic chores (6%), early marriage (6%), ill health (2%), sexually transmitted diseases (2%), peer pressures (2%) and long distance between schools and homes (2%).

Female students face a lot of sexual harassment from their male counterparts, which in most cases, they end up paying the cost alone. The burden of pregnancy is much higher on secondary school females because the educational system in Nigeria does not accommodate pregnant female students to stay in school. Pregnancy at

any level of primary and secondary school education in Nigeria attracts the penalty of termination of the education of the concerned female abruptly. Most of these female dropouts found it difficult to continue their education after delivery of their babies, even if the willingness is there. Also related is the problem of poverty, which in most cases brunt on the girl child than the boys in Nigeria, due to the culturally placed higher value on the male child.

Greater percentage (72%) of the female dropout cases occurred at the senior secondary school level, while 28 percent occurred at the junior secondary school level (Table 3). As an inference from this, girls have high aspiration and capacity for formal education aside some strong factors such as pregnancy, ill health, financial constraints, broken home, early marriage, etc militating against their educational progress.

In addition, data in Table 3 show that 64 percent of the respondents indicated their willingness to return to school, while 36 percent have concluded on schooling even if given the opportunity. The willingness to return to school indicated by majority of the respondents gives an insight that they would not have discontinued their schooling, if only there were programs that offered them alternative life choices, which can enhance their

retentions in school, even while pregnant. Pregnant students dismissed from schools, usually does not have the courage to return after they might have become mothers. Shame of the previous dismissal from school, inadequate finance, poor retentive ability for academic work, age, marriage and broken homes, and the fear of loosing the little token that comes from the vocations engaged in while out of school, are the possible reason for the lack of willingness to return to school by some female dropouts in Nigeria.

Data in Table 4 show that 22 percent of the mothers, and 16 percent of the fathers did not have any form of formal education, while 40 percent and 46 percent of the mothers and fathers of the respondents, respectively, completed secondary school. The result shows that majority of the respondents have literate parents, hence ignorance of the values of education might not be responsible for their dropping out of schools.

There is a general belief that educated parents, regardless of the level of formal Education attained, often wield positive influence on their children's education. There is a gender difference in the educational status of the respondents' parents. Fathers were the majority of the highly educated parents

and those that completed their educational career at each level of education. While the mothers were the majority of those parents that had no formal education. This further confirms the prevailing high level of female illiteracy in Nigeria.

Results of Correlation Analysis

Data in Table 5 reveal that there was a positive and significant relationship between the age of the respondent and the level at which she dropped out of secondary school ($r = 0.06$). This implies that the higher the age of a female secondary school student, the higher the risk for her to drop out at the higher secondary school levels. The result is expected since majority of the respondents dropped at the senior secondary school level. In addition, majority of the respondents were at the age range of between 15 and 30 years, which is the age bracket for female reproductive maturity. During this age bracket females are more sexually active and are more vulnerable to sexual harassment which often results to pregnancy and eventual termination of their education. This indicates that more intensive sexual education should target this age group (15-30 years), in order to reduce the rate of female secondary drop out in Nigeria.

Number of father's wife was found positive but not significant ($r = 0.01$) to the secondary school level at which

females dropped out of school (Table 5). Children's educational responsibility is often a joint responsibility of both parents in Nigeria, especially in a polygamous family. Hence number of father's wives may not significantly enhance female dropout rate. Father's responsibilities usually increases with increase in the number of wife married, thereby shedding most of these responsibilities to the mothers, who have no alternatives than to bear the burdens of their children's responsibilities, even educational.

Level of formal education attained by the fathers and mothers were found to be significant but negatively related to the secondary school level reached by female students before dropping out of school ($r = -0.16$; $r = -0.24$) respectively. Educated parents wield positive influence on their children's education through their high level of academic and probably social knowledge possessed.

CONCLUSION

Programmes and enlightenment campaigns aiming at reducing female students' dropout rate in Nigeria should target the female students on age group basis, especially those within the age bracket of 15-30 years. In addition parents' level of education could be a criterion for grouping secondary female students for relevant educating

and enlightenment programme.

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Table 1: Distribution of respondents according to age and number of father's wives

Variables	Frequency n=50	Percentage
Age (years)		
<15	2	4.0
15-20	31	62.0
21-30	17	34.0
Number of father's wives		
One wife	22	44.0
More than one wife	28	56.0

Table 2: Distribution of respondents according to major occupations

Occupation	Frequency n=50	Percentage
Apprenticeship	22	44.0
Trading	13	26.0
House help	9	18.0
Full Housewife	5	10.0
Others	1	2.0

Table 3: Distribution of respondents according to main reason for dropping out of school, level of dropped, and willingness to go back to school

Variables	Frequency N=50	Percentage
Reasons for dropout		
Pregnancy	17	34.0
Financial Constraint	8	16.0
Frustration for repeating class	8	16.0
Broken home	7	14.0
Heavy domestic chores	3	6.0
Early marriage	3	6.0
Ill-health	1	2.0
Sexually transmitted diseases	1	2.0
Peer pressures	1	2.0
Distance of school from home	1	2.0
Secondary level dropped out		
Junior Secondary School	14	28.0
Senior Secondary School	30	72.0
Willingness to return to school		
Yes	32	64.0
No	28	36.0



CHECKING OF DRUG ABUSE AMONG YOUTH AS MEAN OF REHABILITATION FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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The use of harmful and habit forming drugs is a growing problem in the world today. Drug abuse contributes to poor health and death of millions of people each year, in addition to creating enormous family and social problems throughout the world. The growing evidence of illicit drug usage is rapidly becoming part of students' life and for a large number it begins in the secondary school. This study determines the extent, reasons and causes of drug abuse with a bid to minimizing the menace. Two hundred senior secondary school students from five schools within Kajola Local Government Area of Oyo State were randomly selected for the study. It was revealed that the abuse of legal and illegal drugs existed among the students. Most (66%) of the respondents are in the 2nd year of the senior schools as the new entrants were few and the finalist were busy preparing for their exams. The most commonly abused drugs being analgesics, antibiotics, antimalaria and alcoholics. It was concluded that rehabilitation and reintegration of affected youth could be effected by drawing counselor from, PTA forum and religious organizations in addition to government effort and the mass media.

Key Words: Youth, Drug misused, Rehabilitation, National development, Reintegration.

INTRODUCTION

A drug is any chemical substance that produces a therapeutic or non-therapeutic effect in the body. Chemicals, on the other hand, are a broad class of substances including drugs that may or may not produce noticeable effects in the body. Many chemicals (such as tin, lead, gold) have harmful effects on the body, especially in high doses. Drugs can be categorized into three groups, the first group is

stimulant which elevates mood, increases feelings of well-being, and increases energy and alertness. Examples are cocaine, crack cocaine, Nicotine, amphetamines, Methamphetamine, Methylphenidate etc. The other group is hallucinogens which have physiological effects such as elevated heart rate, increased blood pressure, and dilated pupil. Examples are Lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), Phencyclidine (PCP), Psilocybin,

Table 4: Distribution of respondents according to parents' education level

Educational Level	Mother N=50		Father N=50	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
No formal education	11	22.0	8	16.0
Did not complete primary school	5	10.0	1	2.0
Completed primary school	2	4.0	6	12.0
Did not complete secondary school	5	10.0	2	4.0
Completed secondary school	20	40.0	23	46.0
Graduate	7	14.0	10	20.0

Table 5: Results of correlation analysis showing the relationship between students' factors and level of dropped out of school

Variables	Correlation Value (r-value)
Age	0.06*
Number of Father's wife	0.01
Mother's level of education	-0.24*
Father's level of education	-0.16*

*Significant

Mescaline and Dextromethorphan (DXM) etc. while the last group is depressant which depresses the central nervous system resulting in calmness, relaxation, reduction of anxiety, sleepiness, and slowed breathing, slurred speech, staggering gait and uncertain reflexes. Examples are Narcotics, Diphenhydramine, Ketamine, Alcohol, Barbiturates, and Benzodiazepines.

Some drugs are readily available and are sold over the counter as home remedies while some are subjected to certain control or regulation for protection of health and promotion of well-being. Such drugs that are available only on physicians' prescription are expected to be administered only as directed for accepted medical practice. The use of drugs for purpose or condition for which they are unsuited or for appropriate purpose but in improper dosage is drug misuse. Drug abuse is the excessive or persistent use of drug without regard to accepted medical practice, while drug dependence results from drug abuse as the result of chemical interactions (Passmore and Eastwood, 1988). In their own contribution, Glasscote *et al.* (1972) defined drug abuse as illegal, nonmedical use of a limited number of substances, most of them drugs, which have properties of altering the mental state in ways that are considered by

social norms and defined by statute to be inappropriate, undesirable, harmful, threatening, or, at minimum, culture-alien.

Drug abuses eventually constitute personal and public health problems with socio-economic and legal implications. Some drugs may make one feel energetic and happy but later cause tiredness, irritability and depression. Such drug works in the brain because they have a similar size and shape as natural neurotransmitters. In the brain in the right amount or dose, these drugs lock into receptors and start an unnatural chain reaction of electrical charges, causing neurons to release large amounts of their own neurotransmitter.

Some drugs lock onto the neuron and act like a pump, so the neuron releases more neurotransmitter. Other drugs block re-absorption or reuptake and cause unnatural floods of neurotransmitter.

However, some drugs may make one feel calm and relaxed, but later lead to lack of inhibition, self control and consciousness. Depending on the actual compound, drug abuse may lead to health problems, social problems, physical dependence, or psychological addiction. Drug addiction and the use of hard drugs are vices that rank high among teenagers and students in

institutions of higher learning. Renal disorder, serum hepatitis, multivitamin deficiencies and psychological disorder had been associated with drug abuse and drug addiction (Pass more and Eastwood, 1988).

Commonly abused drugs include alcoholic beverages, Cannabis (marijuana) depressants (sedatives-hypnotics), inhalants, hallucinogens, narcotics, tranquilizers and stimulants. Cannabis is a plant that is usually smoked as Indian hemp, while Marijuana consists of crushed Cannabis leaves and flowers. Another form is Hashish from Cannabis resins, squeezed or scraped and may be made into confection or beverages (United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNIDCP, 1998). Depressants act on the nervous system thereby promoting relaxation and sleep like the barbiturates but may lead to accidental death or intentional suicide.

Hallucinogens are capable of producing mood changes, disturbing sensation, thought emotion and self awareness. The most common being lysergic acid diethyl amide (LSD) and seeds of morning glory flower which create dream like fantasies by altering time and space perception. Narcotics are opium and substances found in morphine, heroin and codeine which produce psychic and physical dependence. Stimulants are used to

increase mental activities and offset drowsiness and fatigue like amphetamine compounds, caffeine, a constituent of coffee, tea and cocaine which is used medically as local anesthetics (Werner, 1993). Inhalants and other volatile substances as ether or chloroform and varieties of glue are sniffed as well as gasoline. This is becoming widespread among teens. Studies among street children and commercial sex workers revealed multiple drug uses (UNIDCP, 1998).

Although, most drug users may be law abiding, certain drug taking has close interrelationship with crime (Anthony and Helzer, 1991). When hard drugs are involved, the users may engage in robbery or prostitution as means of sustaining the habit. Closely allied with drug addiction is involvement in cults, thuggery and immorality among students in secondary schools and higher institutions. Children in most of our large cities are growing up in an environment saturated with violence. Adolescents have been drawn into fighting alongside young adults during communal clashes and children are becoming accustomed to violence and crime as normal means of gaining livelihood.

Such children are thereby exposed to dangers of drug misuse by peer pressure, urge to experiment or mere youthful curiosity. Drug use is

associated, with a variety of negative consequences, including increased risk of serious drug use later in life, school failure and poor value judgement, which may put the youth at risk for accidents, violence, unplanned and unsafe sex and suicide. The use of illegal drugs is increasing especially among the youth in the secondary school.

The official channels of distribution of drugs in Nigeria, according to Anumoye (1980) include indiscriminate sale by pharmacists and medicine shop owners and indiscriminate prescription of pharmaceuticals by medical doctors in private clinics and hospitals. He however, noted the major sources of illicit drugs to be through; smuggling from foreign territories, theft from customs warehouses/depots, trafficking by unscrupulous dealers and local cultivation of hemp.

In the 1980s, the Nigerian government became increasingly concerned about drug scene more so as the country became a transit route for hard drugs from Asia and Latin America reaching the market of Western Europe and North America while Nigerian women were recruited as couriers. The government reacted by introducing capital punishment for drug trafficking in 1984 but was amended to longterm imprisonment in 1986. In 1989, the

National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA) was launched with wide ranging powers to eradicate the demand for drugs and minimizes drug trafficking.

The nutritional effects of some commonly abused drugs were cited by Caballero (1988) as follows:- Anticonvulsants decrease vitamin D and folate absorption and also inhibit vitamin B₁₂ transport thus causing osteomalacia and megaloblastic anaemia. Barbiturates increase vitamin D degradation, decrease thiamine absorption and cobalamine level in the serum. Corticosteroids impair glucose tolerance, inhibit intestinal absorption to osteoporosis. Oral contraceptives decrease ascorbic acid concentration in plasma, decrease folic acid in serum, impair tryptophan metabolism and change plasma amino acid profile. Salicylates decrease serum vitamin C concentration, antagonize vitamin K action on coagulation system and decrease intestinal absorption of amino acids (tryptophan). Antibiotics at high doses may cause hypoglycaemia by increasing urinary potassium losses.

The latter part of the last millennium had witnessed global turbulence and divers national problems including corruption, economic recession, Naira devaluation, crime, injustice, social vices, thuggery, cultism, fraud, drug abuse, child trafficking and prostitution

among others. At the core of all these had been the youth whose energy and exuberance had been traded into the woeful occurrences. The family system as the basic unit of the society and from where the youth come from is also faulty to the foundation. Also, the transitional periods in education (10-15 years) are also important in Nigeria culture. These are periods when Nigerian children change from primary to secondary and from secondary to post-secondary school systems. In these periods anxiety is commonly observed and often associated with success in the entrance examinations and high parental expectation.

With the emergence of the democratic dispensation and optimism for sanity in the populace it is imperative to re-orientate the citizenry; the bulk of which are the youth. The wrong value system and misplaced priority of the future leaders call for the inculcation of new habits for decent livelihood into the youth who are the architect of developing Nigeria. This rehabilitation should have to transcend all facets of youthful life: social economic, educational, political, moral, religious and the likes. The personality of the various individual youth should therefore be arrested and redirected to uphold new values.

Objective of the study

- to determine the extent of drug use

and abuse among secondary school students
 - to examine the reasons and causes of drug abuse and misuse
 - to proffer solutions for reducing drug abuse menace and ensure rehabilitation and reintegration of the affected students into the society.

METHODOLOGY

Two hundred senior secondary school students were randomly selected using random sampling technique from Okeho, Ilua, Ilero, Isemi-ile and Ayetoro communities, all within Kajola Local Government Area of Oyo State. Structured questionnaire consisting of three section-demographic characteristics of the respondents, drug use and abuse and reasons for drug abuse and misuse, was used to collect primary data. Content validity was made by colleague while test and retest methods was used to ascertain the reliability of the survey instrument. Data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts and percentages.

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

There were more male students than the females in most of the surveyed schools which is characteristics of our educational system especially in the suburban area where males stay longer in school. There were also more of teenagers in the secondary schools especially age range 16-19 years (74%).

Most (66%) of the respondents are in the 2nd year of the senior schools as the new entrants were few and the finalist were busy preparing for their exams. In the area of survey, there were more Moslems (51%) than any of the other religions; and more respondents (53.5%) from polygamous family background.

The study revealed that most drugs had been abused by the students even the hard drugs that are not common in the stores. The most common drugs abused by students include analgesics (90.5%), local alcoholics (60%), depressants for keeping awake (49.5%), antibiotics (54%), anti-malaria drugs (48%) and hot drinks (42%), while others are nicotinic (34.5%) and oral contraceptives (30%). This is a fact that drug use and misuse is not restricted to any one social class as noted by (United Nations Office on Drug and Crime, UNODC (2006).

From the result, self medication rated highest (79%) among the reason for drug use. Others are for academic support (58%), to gain boldness (44.5%), to cure depression (37.5%), as result of peer influence (38%) while home background rated least (18%). Some of these were noted by (Federal Ministry of Health, F.M.H 1985).

CONCLUSION AND

The commonly abused drugs in the

study area are the general drugs, which are easily obtainable from local patent medicine stores. Availability of and accessibility to such drugs consequent upon self-medication and efforts at boosting academic performance are the likely reasons for such abuse. There is therefore the need for adequate monitoring of drug abuse cases and the rehabilitation of affected youths. The following measures are, thus, recommended for effectiveness:-

- School environments should be drug free either for obtaining or using of drugs.
- Unlicensed and non-medical personnel should be banned from dispensing of drugs.
- Careful supervision and observation of youth on drug usage should be effective at home, in school and among social and religions circles.
- Professional personnel like counselors should be put in place in schools to help re-orientate the attitudes, values and goals of drug dependent youths to alleviate their problems.
- The drug demand reduction unit of the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA) should redesign and implement programmes towards preventing and reducing drug abuse among the youths.
- Government effort at public awareness through the mass media (radio jingles, television, news

paper etc) on appropriate use of drug should be intensified.

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Http://www.teens.drugabusgov retrieve on

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentages
Sex		
Male	103	51.5
Female	97	48.5
Age		
12-15 yrs	13	6.5
16-19 yrs	148	74.0
20-23 yrs	39	19.5
Class		
SS1	21	10.5
SS2	132	66.0
SS3	47	23.5
Religion		
Christian	82	41.0
Moslem	102	51.0
Traditional	16	8.0
Family type		
Monogamous	89	44.5
Polygamous	107	53.5
Single parent	04	2.0

Source: Field survey, 2005

Table 2: Drug use and abused by respondents

Drug Types	Frequency	Percentage
Indian hemp, opium, heroine, codeine	4	2.0
Cocaine, caffeine, coffee	14	7.0
Valium, phenergan, piriton, super apert	99	49.5
Antimalaria (Chloroquine, fansidar etc)	96	48.0
Analgesics(aspirin, paracetamol etc)	181	90.5
Nicotine(cigarettes, tobacco, kolanut	69	34.5
Antibiotics (Ampicilline, Ampiclox)	108	54.0
Inhalants, snuffs etc.	30	15.0
Alcohol (beer, gin, hot, spirits)	84	42.0
Local alcoholic beverages/palmwine	120	60.0
Oral contraceptives	60	30.0

*Multiple Choice Responses

Source: Field survey 2005

Table 3: Reasons for drug use and misuse

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Selfcurativemedication l	58	79.0
Academic support measure	116	58.0
To cure depression	75	37.5
To gain boldness	89	44.5
Peer influence	76	38.0
To boost appetite	65	32.5
Home background effect	36	18.0
To enhance social acceptance	43	21.5

Source: Field survey, 2005



GLOBALISATION AND AFRICAN CHILDREN EXPLOITATION IN SOME LABOUR SITES: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCES FROM IFE ENCLAVE

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This paper discussed the interrelationship between globalisation and child exploitation in the labour process in Africa. Specifically, child exploitation in some labour sites in Nigeria was empirically investigated, which includes hours and types of labour, evidences of exploitation and the child culture on the sites. Quantitative data were collected using structured interview schedule to elicit information from seventy children (between 10 and 17 years of age) who were purposively interviewed on different labour sites. Also, on-the-spot assessment and systematic observation were made to generate qualitative data which were used to buttress the discussion. The quantitative data were analysed using statistical package for social science (SPSS). Frequency counts, percentages, bar and pie charts were used to describe the data, while Chi-square (χ^2) and Pearson's correlation (r) were used to establish the tested hypotheses. All the children interviewed had already dropped out of school, which may constitute a great pool of unskilled generation in the future with a very low human capacity building. It was also, evident in the study that over 97 percent of the children were engaged and exploited in hazardous economic activities due to high poverty level; the situation which may likely persist with the current household economic condition.

Keywords: Globalisation, Child exploitation, Child labour, Child culture; Labour sites

INTRODUCTION

Engaging children in economic activities is a contextual issue. In a typical African setting, for instance, children are normally socialised

into works. In this context, it is commonly perceived that through such process, work culture and tradition are sustained (Odetola and Ademola, 1985; Torimiro and

Lawal, 1998). This African context of work is being globally contested in recent times, as the children are now engaged in many questionable labour activities, perhaps, as a consequence of poverty situation engulfing many of the African families (Grootaert and Patrinos, 1999; Kilbride *et al.*, 2000). Children are engaged in economic activities for a variety of reasons, the most important being poverty and the induced pressure upon them to escape from its trap.

For instance, studies had shown that children were often prompted to work by their parents because of the poor household economic situation (Torimiro and Lawal, 2001; 2002). Schooling problems may also contribute to this phenomenon, due to inaccessibility to schools or lack of quality education, which may spur parents to engage their children in more "profitable" pursuits. Traditional factors such as rigid cultural and social roles in certain communities might limit educational attainment and increase child labour (Torimiro *et al.*, 2003).

Moreso, the working children have become objects of extreme exploitation in terms of toiling for

long hours for minimal pay. Their work conditions are especially severe, often not providing the stimulation for proper physical and mental development. Many of these children endure a life of pure deprivation: The Ghanaian's experience of Verlet (2002) made him to critically use the dialectics of 'good-will' and 'willingness' in describing the working condition of the working child vis a vis the position of the master, which usually becomes an exploitative relationship. He noted thus:

'The master's good-will gives him the power to do what he will. His desires, needs and moods, govern the wages, set the working hours, assign the tasks and influence the quality of the relationship. Willingness means the availability, the obedience expected of a child. Vulnerable children seeking protection and support see themselves bound over to remain meek, ever-present, ever-willing. Their labour power is malleable, flexible'

Verlet's view is very germane, most especially in a poverty stricken environment where the owners of very limited resources are usually in

control of the wills of the less privileged, talkless of the most vulnerable- the children. It should be noted, however, that in a situation where the 'good-will' is being expressed by the child's parent(s) as the 'master', the level of vulnerability is expected to be lower and expression of the child's 'willingness' is invariably expected to be mild. However, the level of exploitative relationship and its perception in different situations are expected to vary due to the socio-cultural and economic peculiarities of different societies. For instance, children may have to be engaged in their parents economic activities in some circumstances with little or no exploitation in order to generate money for sponsoring their education (Ajayi and Torimiro, 2004). Agbu (2004) also reported a common practice in Eastern part of Nigeria, where the male children were apprenticed to traders from an early age, in preference to going to school. According to him, "the child usually works for a 'master', learning the details of the business over a number of years. When the young man is ready for 'freedom', the 'master' is obliged to 'settle' him by providing capital for him to set up his own business".

Globalisation, Consequences and Vulnerability of the African Child
For better understanding of the child exploitation within the African context vis a vis globalisation, it is imperative to take a cursory look at the extent to which the tides of globalisation have contributed to the plight of the children in Africa, most especially with regard to child labour situation. Globalisation, in this context is perceived as an ideological process based on allusion of persisting disparity and inequality between the North and South, which has dichotomised the state of the global economy into industrialised or agrarian, developed or developing and rich or poor. The understanding of globalisation, according to Aina (2004), is taken from a perspective that sees the world from the so-called *Eurocentric* or *Economic North* position portraying the world from the perspectives of the dominant political and economic interest prevalent in Europe, Japan and North America. While the notion to bridge the disparity between these worlds may be applauded, the possibilities of perpetuating the Northern agenda of continual exploitation of the

perceived limitations inherent in its Southern counterpart should not be undermined as ".....it has provided developed countries with powerful leverage upon which to pursue their interests to the detriment of the developing world" (Agbu, 2004). The gap that is expected to be bridged through its market pulls is being widened, almost on a daily basis.

This situation is very much apparent with the consequences of the various reforms which it has come to replace (Ghai, 1992; Amin, 1992, 1998). Aina (2004) noted that "in Africa, globalisation has not only generated so much anxiety, insecurity and resistance; it has generated an almost unanimous perception of polarisation, pain and greater inequality along with a feeling of almost insurmountable threat to ordinary people's livelihoods and cultures".

One of such reforms is the structural adjustment programme, which was tactically pushed to many African states and which was also hurriedly embraced by the parochial leaders with the hope of reaping magical upward growth of their countries' industrialisation and agricultural

development. Unfortunately, several studies (Mkandawire and Olukoshi, 1995; Amin, 1998; Jega, 2003) have not only established the failure of the reform, but it has also unfolded the capitalists' agenda embedded in its globalised marketing strategy. Aside from poor leadership, weak institutions, unstable and undemocratic situations that characterised majority of the patronising African states, the "glitter parcel", which was supposedly packaged like "gold" as part of the International Financial Institutions (IFIs) imposed conditionality for the borrower - nations continues to produce very uneven effects. Infact, the soaring poverty level in most of the African countries could not be dissociated from this situation!

The major contestation is, therefore, the negative features, which the "agenda" has brought to the African continent. These include cultural breakdown, conflicts and war, greed, corruption, hunger and so on. Infact, these situations as rightly noted by UNRISD (2003) have immensely contributed to the "disruption of livelihood systems and institutional arrangements that, historically,

have provided some degrees of social protection". This is basically due to lack of adequate consultation or provision for the participation of the supposed beneficiaries and stakeholders, especially the marginalised and excluded sectors such as the rural poor, peasants, poor women, children, the youth and the elderly (Aina, 2004).

In these situations, children are the most vulnerable. These children turned out to become objects of exploitation for different kinds of purpose, under different situations, in most parts of the African continent. The interrelationship between globalisation and child exploitation is schematically represented in Figure 1. By way of digressing, however, it might be suggestive to raise two fundamental questions on whether the ideology is imposed on the African nations or whether it is optional, answers to which, this paper has no mandate to provide. It might, however, become an agenda for a very serious debate.

It has severally been reported (ILO, 2002; Agbu, 2004) that children under different circumstances, have been used as objects of trafficking, sexual violence, street begging,

labour, to mention a few. In literature, however, many authors (Onyango and Kayango Male, 1982; Ebigbo, 1990; Oloko, 1997; UNICEF, 1997; Nkuly, 2000) have further characterized the various working conditions under which child exploitative labour could be perceived as follows: lack of freedom of movement; emphasis on the child's inferior status; overwork at tedious, exhausting jobs; emphasis on complete obedience to the employer; control of the child, managed through beatings and insult; no emotional warmth; expectation that the child will behave totally like an adult; expression of developmental needs by the child seen as disobedience by employers; strong belief by employers that the child's situation is good when compared to home conditions; underpayment; and brief period of childhood, with a "push" into adulthood; full-time work at too early an age; too many hours spent working; work that exerts undue physical, social and psychological stress; work and life on the street in bad conditions; inadequate pay; too much responsibility; work that hampers access to education; work that undermines children's dignity and

self esteem; and work that is detrimental to full social and psychological development.

In recent years, child exploitation in different forms has been facilitated by globalization and modern communication and information technologies, which has made it to become increasingly trans-national in scope. Hence, several recent international events have called for immediate action to end this crime. Some of these international events are the Stockholm Congress against Commercial sexual Exploitation of Children in 1996, the Amsterdam and Oslo Conferences on child labour in 1997 and the most recent International Labour Conference Convention against the worst forms of child labour in 1998.

The ILO Convention No. 182 defines the worst forms of child labour "as slavery, debt bondage, prostitution, pornography, forced recruitment of children for use in armed conflict, use of children in drug trafficking and other illicit activities, and all other work harmful or hazardous to the health, safety or morals of girls and boys under 18 years of age" (ILO, 1998).

This convention has been so much popularised as the major United Nations response to end the various exploitation of the children. Other efforts from different quarters (individuals, groups, international agencies, governments and non-governmental organisations, among others) that have been observed to include legislations to check perpetrators and beneficiaries, sensitizations for enlightenment, rehabilitation of the children that have fallen victims, more research into the phenomenon and documentations of reports based on local and regional experiences, policy formulation and implementation to end the crime, programmes/projects development and implementation.

In recent times, there has been a dramatic increase in the activity, even in its worst forms. Also, a significant rise in child labour and child trafficking has been observed in many parts of the country. Although, many invaluable efforts and interventions have been initiated through wives of many political office holders to address the issues faced by the exploited children in the various Nigerian states, however, there is still the

need for an empirically based expository study for proper understanding of the children that are being exploited in the labour process. Against this background, therefore, attempts were made to provide answers to the following research questions: What then are the socio-economic conditions of these children who are engaged in the economic activities? In what ways could these children be engaged in the labour activities to make them exploited? What are the ways of life of these children in their labour sites? What are the factors influencing their working hours and the types of work they do?

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The study was carried out in Ile-Ife, in the South-western Nigeria. It lies in the tropical rain forest belt, and has an estimated population of about 282,000. Ile-Ife has many satellite villages that are linked by a poor road network. For the most part, the villages have poorly developed infrastructure, often without access to either electricity or pipe-borne water.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Structured

interview schedule was used to elicit information from seventy (70) children (between 10 and 17 years of age), purposively interviewed and studied on their labour sites when the schools were in session. Also, on-the-spot assessment and systematic observation (where the children's daily activities were periodically observed in their labour and orderly recorded (Reynolds, 1991)) were made to generate the qualitative data. The quantitative data were analysed using statistical package for social science (SPSS), while the qualitative data were used to buttress the discussion. Descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, percentages, bar and pie charts were used to describe the data, while the Chi-square (X^2) and Pearson's correlation (r) were used to establish the tested hypotheses, and Contingency coefficient and Coefficient of determination were respectively used to determine the strength of associations and relationships.

FAMILY MILIEU AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE CHILDREN ENGAGED IN LABOUR

It is generally observed that many Nigerian parents in poverty have acceded to the reality of their situation that their children have to be engaged in one economic activity or the other in order to enable them cope with many of their parental and household responsibilities. For instance, in recent years, Nigeria was categorised among the eight countries in the world that are going through "severe" poverty (where more than one-half of the population subsist on less than US\$1 per day); and also among the fourteen countries that are going through "severe-to-moderate" poverty, more than three-quarters of the Nigerian population has been found to be impoverished, using the US\$2 a day poverty line (ILO, 2001). This condition generally has a very serious implication for household economic survival. In the context of Ile-Ife, where this study was conducted, it is interesting to note that majority (82.86%) of the children engaged in various economic activities with the consent of their parents. These

children came from polygamous homes with household size of more than ten members. Their parents were mostly illiterates, engaged in various trades and informal businesses. Over 97 percent of the children claimed that they resorted into what they were doing because of the poverty situation confronting their parents and for lack of financial support to earn their living. This is in consonance with the findings of Osemweige (1998) on a study conducted on the street children in Lagos.

Demographically, the children were categorised according to their gender, schooling status, age and religion in order to understand the extent to which these variables had influenced their engagement in the economic activities. Male children (68.57%) were found to be more engaged in the informal labour sector than their female folks (31.43%), though most of the children (97.14%) interviewed did not believe that the type of job they were doing had anything to do with their gender. About 20 percent of the children were not enrolled in school; they were absolutely illiterates and fully engaged in various economic activities. Others

had either dropped out of school at a particular level of their education or claimed to have combined their economic activities with schooling. It was, however, observed that most of the children had either abandoned their education totally or dropped out of school, because they had perpetually been in the business for an average of over five years without attending school.

Age groups were found to be very significant in categorising the children as they relate to the forms of work they are expected to be engaged in. These include light work, regular work, hazardous work and unconditional work, hence, the age groups were categorised into two, that is, those below 15 years (45.71%) and those between 15 and 17 years old (54.29%). In terms of religion, children (54.29 %) from Muslim background were found to be more engaged in economic activities than those (45.71 %) of Christian background. This further confirmed the reports on high tendency of perpetuating child labour in an Islamic household than their Christian's folks. In Lagos, for instance, Osemweige (1998) reported 59.3 percent of street

children to be Muslims. About 62.86 percent of the children engaged in the economic activities were indigenes, while others (37.16%) were non-indigenes and were born outside the study area.

Although some of these children had their parents living in the study area, but element of trafficking was still suspected, as few whose parents were living outside the study area revealed that they were brought to their labour sites by their employers. Majority (71.43%) of those children who were living with their parents, though claimed to depend on them for their livelihood, that is, they depended on their parents for their day- to-day expenses in terms of feeding, clothing, accommodation and other socio-economic activities. This might not be perfectly correct as further enquiry revealed that most of these parents absolutely depended on the proceeds from their children's labour for their daily survival.

SOME EMPIRICAL EVIDENCES OF CHILD EXPLOITATION IN THE LABOUR PROCESS

For the purpose of global estimates, ILO (2002) categorised the forms of work into four, under three different age groups viz: 5-7 years, 12-14 years and 15-17 years in order to justify perpetration of child labour using the working hours, working environment and the nature of work. This study, then, adopted the ILO categorisation with modification by categorising the age group into less than 15 and 15-17 years for the purpose of empirical calculations. ILO (2002) also described a *non-hazardous* work for children as any work in non-hazardous industries/occupations that is less than 43 hours per week. Such work, if less than 14 hours per week is tagged *light work* for age group between 12 and 17 years. It is referred to as *regular work* for the age group 15-17 years, but considered a child labour for those less than 15 years of age. *Worst forms of child labour* is simply put as either *hazardous work* (in specified hazardous industries/occupations plus more than 43 hours per week in other industries/ occupations) or

Unconditional worst forms (trafficked children; children in forced and bonded labour, armed conflict, prostitution and pornography, and illicit activities).

The study, therefore, revealed that the children were generally engaged in the worst forms of child labour of hazardous category. About 57.14 percent of the children usually work for less than 43 hours per week, while 42.86 percent put more than 43 hours into their respective labour per week. The hours spent on the job vary according to the amount earned and the types of work engaged in. For those who worked for less than 7 hours per day, 14.29 percent made a gross income of less than N150.00, 28.57 percent made between N150 : 00 and N300 : 00 and 14.29 percent made more than N300 : 00. While among those who worked for more than 7 hours per day, 25.71 percent made a gross income of more than N300:00 (See Figures 2-4). It could be inferred from the findings that these children were working basically for their parents in order to put their household above the poverty line. Just as Varlet (2000) rightly put it "children are placed in the position of household

protectors, breadwinners".

The types of work in which they were engaged included: carrying of planks in saw-mills (25.71%), hawking and selling of different kinds of goods in the streets (54.29%), and bus conducting in motor-garages (20.00%). About 28.57 percent of the children claimed that they did not have any problem with the jobs they were doing. However, these jobs were considered to be very hazardous by majority (71.43%) of the children. Hazardous work by children means any activity or occupation which, by its nature or type has, or leads to, adverse effects on child's safety, health (physical or mental), and moral development. Hazards could also derive from excessive workload, physical conditions of work, and/or work intensity in terms of the duration or hours of work even where the activity or occupation is known to be non-hazardous or 'safe' (ILO, 2002).

Those who worked in the saw-mills claimed that they occasionally sustained injuries while carrying the planks. It was, however, observed that the children may be

exposed to respiratory diseases resulting from the draughts oozing from the saw-dust dunghill and the dust from the milling machines, which they usually inhale while carrying the planks. Those who engaged in selling/hawking and bus conducting complained of occasional loss of money (for which their "masters" would mercilessly beat them), failure of customers to pay, road accidents, mockery and insults from their customers, among others.

Empirically, gender, ownership of job and types of job were found to have significant association with the hours the children spent on their job per day. The two latter variables were found to exert a very strong strength of association of over 95 percent (see Table 1). Also, amount of money spent by child per day was found to be significantly correlated ($r=0.34$) with the hours they spent on their job per day at 0.01 level, though with a very weak strength (11.56%) of relationship. The child's gender is expected to be a very good factor in determining the hours he or she spent on a particular job (see Table 2). It was, however, observed that male children were

more engaged in carrying planks at the saw-mills and in bus conducting business. Culturally, some works have been observed to be exclusively reserved for a particular gender. For instance, works that are energetic are expected to be assigned to the male gender, while those that required patience and less energy exertion are ethically meant for the girls. This might be contextual as it has to do with the prevailing culture and traditions of the studied area. However, a study conducted in Brazil found no gender differences in the number of hours worked (Araujo, 1998).

This study further revealed that most of the parents were privy to the children's engagement in labour activities and were favourably in support of the time they spend on the job per day. Though, it was expected that 45.86 percent of the children (most especially among those that were engaged in street hawking and selling) who claimed that they were working for their mothers should fair better on the job than their contemporaries who were not working for their parents but ironically, contrary was observed. However, while realizing the fact that the major catalyst for

the period of work by the children could not be dissociated from the amount of income they have potential of earning, which supposedly must have been fixed by the owner of the job for each day, it could still not be discounted that the level of biological relationship between the job's owner and the employed child would, to a large extent, influence the working hours considered for such a child per day, all things being equal. This agrees with the reasoning of Verlet (2002) when he noted that since the working children are partially responsible for household survival, their bonds with their mothers are deeper. In this circumstance, one expects the child to enjoy good welfare condition in terms of feeding, among others.

Tables 1 and 2 further revealed, in this circumstance, that schooling was not a significant factor that could contribute to the hours a child spends on the job and the types of job he or she could do. Incidentally, many of the children, though, indicated that they were in one level of schooling or the other, but further inquiry showed that many of them had already dropped out of school.

It could, however, be deduced that declining interest in schooling could make the children to be more vulnerable to long hours of labour by the employers. Some authors (Oloko, 1997; ILO, 2000) had equally reported that some children combined economic activities with schooling. Oloko explained that a child who did some odd jobs (which do not disturb his schooling or other aspects of his welfare) for neighbours after school to earn needed pocket money did not constitute child labour. However, it is expected that the interest of the children is highly sustained in their studies even if the proceeds from such economic ventures are expended on their education.

The correlation analysis showed that age was found to be positively and significantly correlated ($r=0.24$) with the amount spent by child per day at 0.01 level. Though, it is expected that older children should spend more than the younger children, this study statistically showed that the age as a factor has a very weak influence on the amount to be expended on the child per day with co-efficient of determination analysis showing that age accounted for only 5 percent

contribution to the amount of money spent on the job per child per day. In reality however, it was observed that what was expended on a child per day was being dictated by the amount he/she made per day vis a vis the family budget, although these could not be statistically explained as the study did not establish any significant relationship between the amount made and the amount spent by the child per day. It was also revealed in Table 2 that age has no influence on the types of job the children do.

CHILD CULTURE IN SOME LABOUR SITES

Child culture, in this context, is the way of life of the children in their labour sites. This was based on the systematic observation of some of the children in their various labour sites. These include the way they relate with their peers alongside their behaviour on the job, their recession time and so on. Much of the report was based on their activities when they were in clusters. It was generally observed that, most of these children were not well fed. They often lived on a very small quantity of nutritionally poor snacks (such as puff-puff, biscuits, bread, roasted yam etc.) as lunch,

which they usually purchased from their co-hawkers. Many of them would not have their breakfast until about ten O' clock in the morning when they might have made appreciable sales of their goods. On the average, it was revealed that the children spent for themselves about eighty-eight naira (N88:00) out of the income they made per day (see Figure 5). This was often spent on their breakfast and lunch, since the amount was usually spent in the labour sites. It was also gathered that some of these children, instead of spending all their money on food, secretly engaged in daily money contribution. However, how the money raised through this contribution was being spent could not be ascertained.

It is also interesting to note that many of these children were very happy with what they were doing despite the high level of impoverishment apparently observed in their physical look. This may perhaps be due to a high level of liberty they were enjoying in the labour sites. Essentially, the street hawker or bus-conductor child was observed to have derived a lot of pleasure in the company of his/her co-hawkers in the course of

their daily businesses. The bus conductors and the girls among the hawkers were observed to be very low in morals and had high tendency to be engaged in early sexual immoralities. This was more noticeable in their frivolous unethical statements and lackadaisical attitude to life.

Furthermore, it was generally observed that every job had its peak period during which the children were expected to be actively engaged for the purpose of making high income in the day. Those who were hawking and selling goods, in the period of very low patronage, were found clustering around shady places and engaging in talking with their mates. These were the places where they usually socialised into street culture and made street friends. Many of them spent this period to relax, play with their peers, feed on snacks and quench their thirst. Infact, this was a period when these children mostly expressed their high level of autonomy! They often forgot that they were on employment. They behaved mostly like adult. This period lasted for about three hours until later in the day when workers and students/pupils were returning

from offices and schools, respectively, when patronage picked up again. When the sales were over, they would return to their recession points and take stock of their goods, account of their money before they proceed to their employers.

For those children who were bus conductors, their peak period was usually during the early part of the day (between 7 and 11 a.m.), when they were actively engaged by their employers. Some of them were picked from their houses by the bus drivers (their employers) while others joined their buses at an agreed location or bus stop before 7.00 a.m. They also used to have about three hours of "recess" when the patronage would generally be low. During this period, majority of them would join their employers to eat and thereafter spend some time in the motor parks to relax until later in the day when the business picks up again. Saw-mill children workers, however, seem to entirely have different ways of life, because in their own case, they were treated by their 'masters' like those on apprenticeship. They were strictly under the instruction of their 'masters' and could not enjoy

absolute liberty on the labour site compared to their contemporaries in the hawking and bus conducting businesses. In terms of morality, their situations seem better-off just as they tend to emulate the standard demonstrated by adult site workers. They patronized the same food caterers who would come in the afternoon to supply their 'masters'. They were neater in their appearance and look more promising, though they engaged in a worst form of labour that was hazardous in nature as earlier reported.

Generally, it was revealed that the hawking/selling and bus conducting children were only unnecessarily kept on the streets or on the job for those long hours by their employers with the perception that they were always making money, whereas they oftentimes only engaged in extra-social activities that were inimical to good up-bringing. Their ways of life were highly characterized by improper way of eating and dressing, mannerless and careless talks, exhibition of immorality, delinquency and the likes. This type of culture does not guarantee a proper adulthood!

CONCLUSION

It is evident that many of the Nigerian children are still very much engaged in hazardous economic activities in the category of worst forms of child labour, the situation which is not likely to stop if the current household economic condition persists. Revelation from the study has apparently shown a high level of exploitation in the course of engaging children in economic activities. Most parents and even the children counted their benefits from what they were gaining from the situation without thinking about the future effects on the children. It is, however, anticipated that in the nearest future, these children might be trapped in a worst form of poverty than the one experienced by their parents. Majority of them may grow to be very low in human capacity building, which should have been developed through education. These children would not only constitute a great pool of unskilled generation in the future, but the country may continue to nurture the cycle and the anti-social effects would continue to manifest.

Since the poverty situation, in which many of the Nigerian parents

found themselves, have been recognised to be the major reason for engaging their children in different exploitative economic activities, it was thought that any likely solution to be proffered must be focussed on poverty alleviation. In reality, a more revolutionary thinking is to plead for genuine interest of the International Financial Institutions (IFIs) such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in re-assessing their roles in connection with the poverty situation in the country. This should not be taken too lightly! Moreso, continual persuasion of the parents to see the future advantages embedded in encouraging their children to go to school as against the immediate gains being benefited from the child labour may contribute in no small measure to stemming the occurrence of the misdemeanour. This could be realised through public enlightenment campaigns. Locally evolved legislation against the crime could also be engendered through Local Government Councils. Law enforcement agents at the local community level need also be empowered to prosecute any perpetrator of child labour.

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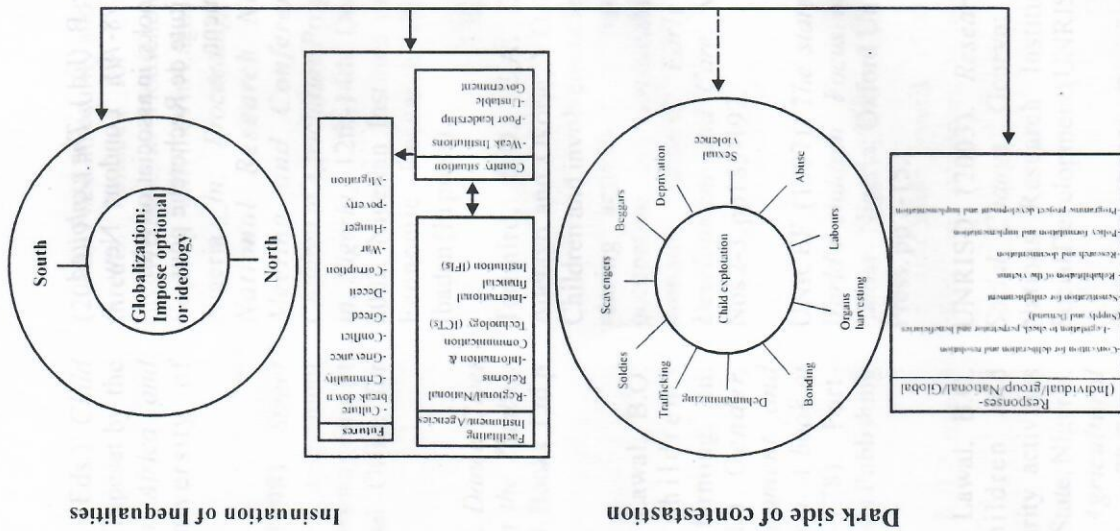


Figure 1: Model showing the linkage between globalisation and African child vulnerability

Key: Direct relationship \longleftrightarrow Inverse relationship \longrightarrow Indirect relationship

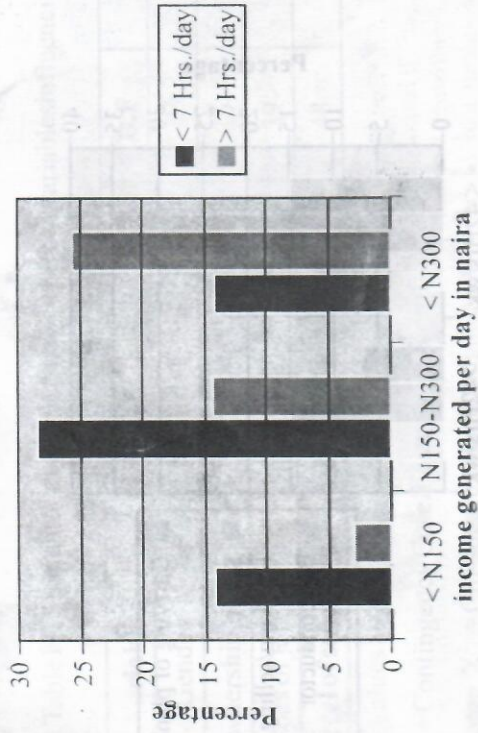


Figure 2: Distribution of children by working hours and income generated per day

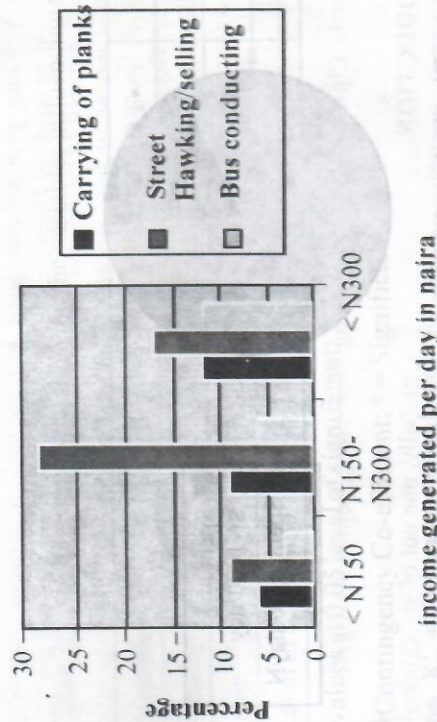


Figure 3: Distribution of children by type of work and income generated per day

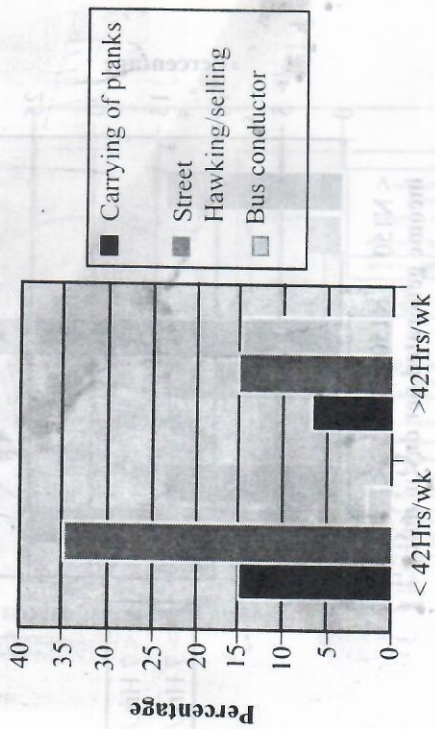


Figure 4: Distribution of children by type of work hours of work per week

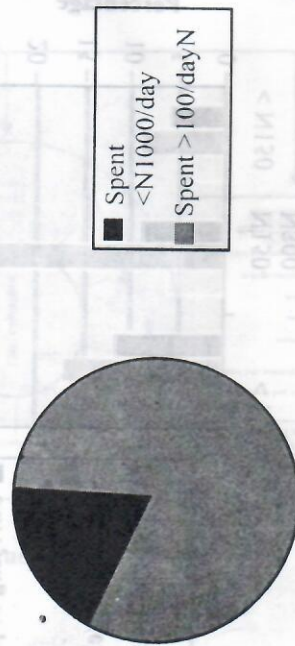


Figure 5: Distribution of children by type of the amount spent for themselves per day

Table 1: Chi-square analysis showing the variables influencing the working hours per day

Variables	X^2_c	X^2_t	D.F.	C
Gender	5.83*	3.84	1	0.57
Ownership of job	28.40*	25.00	15	0.96
Types of job	57.40*	54.57	39	0.99
Level of schooling	30.18	65.17	48	0.96

P-Values at 0.05 level of significant;

C = Contingency Co-efficient; * = Significant

Note: X^2_c = Chi-square calculated;

X^2_t = Chi-square tabulated; D.F = Degree of freedom

Source: Calculated from the Field Survey, 2004.

Table 2: Chi-square analysis showing the variables influencing the types of job

Variables	X^2_c	X^2_t	D.F.	C
Gender	27.22*	27.69	13	0.96
Age	16.80	27.69	13	0.90
Level of schooling	46.14	62.43	39	0.98

P-Values at 0.05 level of significant;

C = Contingency Co-efficient; * = Significant

Note: X^2_c = Chi-square calculated;

X^2_t = Chi-square tabulated; D.F = Degree of freedom

Source: Calculated from the Field Survey, 2004.



SOCIO-ECONOMIC DETERMINANTS OF CHILD LABOUR IN FOOD HAWKING IN SOUTHWEST, NIGERIA

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This study examined some determinants of child labour in food hawking in Southwest Nigeria all with a view to addressing some of the problems associated with it. The result presented here was based on primary data collected from a sample of 70 respondents from 6 local government areas in Ekiti and Oyo States using a multistage sampling technique. Analysis of data revealed that average age of respondents was 14 years indicating that majority of the children engaged in food hawking are teenagers. Respondents' distribution by educational status also indicated that most of these children had only primary education and were from families having a fairly large household size with an average of 6 members. Also, respondents' distribution by their parents' educational qualification show that most of them had only primary education and are majorly artisans with occasional involvement in trading. However, while age ($p < 0.01$), household size ($P < 0.05$), revenue generated ($p > 0.05$) and parents' occupation were positively associated with child labour in food hawking, mothers' educational status ($p < 0.05$) and respondents' position in the family are negatively related to food hawking in the study area. The study concludes that there is prevalence of children's involvement in child labour in food hawking in the study area and this is negatively affecting them. It is therefore recommended that effort should be intensified at educating parents (especially mothers) on the need to take good care of their wards so as to ensure improvement in their well-being.

Key words: Child labour, Food hawking, Well-being, Southwest Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

Child labour is a pervasive problem all over the world and most especially in developing countries like Nigeria. International Labour Organization (ILO) report (2006) shows that globally, one out of six children work, 218 million children aged 5-17 are involved in child labour world wide, 126 children work in hazardous conditions- such as working in mines, working with chemicals and pesticides

in agriculture and with dangerous machines. Most often emphasis has been placed on the visible work, such as children working in hazardous conditions to the neglect of many other ways in which children work. For instance in many countries a vast majority (70% or more), are engaged in agriculture collecting water, fuel and fodder as reported by UNICEF (2006). Poor girls work as domestic servants for rich families. They perform unpaid works and are vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. Millions of others work under horrific circumstances. About 1.2 million may be trafficked, 5.7 million forced into debt bondage or other forms of slavery, 1.8 million forced into prostitution and or pornography and 300,000 recruited as child soldiers in armed conflicts (ILO 2001).

African society places a higher value on children working at home or on the family farm. (World Bank, 1997). This is not seen as harmful or as a welfare issue- a view opposed by many western countries. However, ILO (2006) emphasized that 'that work is done in the home or in the family enterprise does not necessarily make it easier or more acceptable'. In Nigeria, children are engaged in various forms of child labour. This varies from children working in mines and industries, working as labourers in the construction companies and in

agricultural activities both in the farm and at home. It is noticed that a lot of children are engaged in food hawking both in urban centers and villages. They are involved in various activities such as sales of food items either raw or cooked. Such food items include rice, yam, and maize, *gaari*, palm oil, vegetables, meat, fish, kerosene, bread, water etc. They spend long hours in the sales of these products. Due to the peculiarity of the food items, most of which are perishable, these children move about the streets corners and houses in search of would be buyers. These exposed them to lots of hazards such as kidnapping, accidents, insults, arrests by law enforcement agents, cheats, and many other health problems. Girls most especially are exposed to sexual harassments such as rape. The resultant effect of which might lead to early pregnancy, abortion, or even death.

According to ILO report (1993), children worked the longest hour and were the worst paid of all labourers. Children endure work conditions including potential abuse and health hazards. Faraaz (2006) emphasized that employers capitalise on the docility of the children recognising that these labourers cannot legally form unions to change their conditions. Such manipulation has been identified to stifle the development of youths. (Faraaz, 2006). Their working

conditions do not provide the stimulation for proper physical and mental development and they are deprived of the simple joy of childhood.

Considering the ambiguity of the dangers these children are exposed to, certain questions came to mind and these include: Who are the parents of these children? What type of house do they live in? What are the articles of conveniences possessed by these parents? What is their educational level? This study aims at providing answers to some of these questions by examining the socioeconomic determinants of child labour in food hawking in southwest Nigeria.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Child work according to UNICEF (2006) refers to children participating in economic activity- that does not negatively affect their health and development or interfere with their education while child labour refers to all children below 12 years of age working in economic activities, those aged 12 to 14 years engaged in harmful work, and all children engaged in the worst forms of child labour. United Nations (2003) defined child labour as "a labour performed by children who are too young in the sense that by doing it, they unduly reduce their present economic welfare or their future income earning capabilities, either by shrinking their future external choice

by their parents. In the study, it was discovered that parents represent 62 percent of the source of induction into employment. In fact, a possible reason parents in developing countries have children is because they can be profitable. Children seem to be much less an economic burden in developing countries than developed countries. The levels of education of parents also play a major role in determining children workers. Parents who are educated understand the importance of schooling from personal experience hence would prefer their wards going to school than to work (Tienda, 1979). The family's financial situation determines whether a child will work or not. Children from impoverished families usually drop out of school not because of irresponsible parenting but for lack of fund.

Schooling problems also contributed to child labour. Many times children seek employment simply because there is no access to schools. When there is access, the low quality of education often makes attendance a waste of time for the students. Schools in many developing areas suffer from problems such as overcrowding, inadequate classrooms, tables and chairs and apathetic teachers. As a result some parents find no use sending their children to school and prefer them learning one skill or the other to supplement family income.

Influence of peer groups on adolescents often affects some children's decision in being engaged in labour work. This is a common in case where parents cannot meet their immediate needs of such child. Rapid rural-urban migrations often cause the increasing rate of child labour in urban centers of developing countries. Most families leave their severity of agricultural working conditions for cities to search for economic opportunities that often do not exist. The established female role in certain countries dictates that women will not fit into traditional role if they become educated. There is a pervasive notion in some countries that educated females will not get married nor have children. Therefore, many families raise daughters solely to take over the household duties in order to release the mother for paid labour. Such cultural practices restrict the education of females and promote child employment (Faraaz, 2006). The practice of *pudah* a situation whereby girls are restricted from going out in Northern Nigerian restricts the education of female children and forced them to early marriage. This increases illiteracy as well as poverty level of family households (Adebo, 2004).

The acceptance of social class separation according to Weiner (1991) perpetuates child labour. The assignment of different roles to

children by parents may increase the number of working children. For instance in polygamous families in Nigeria, the first born of each lineage are usually sent to school while the rest join the father in economic activities, mostly farming. In some cases only the male children are entitled to formal education while the females are forced to trade or engaged in other activities.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research work was conducted in southwestern Nigeria, which is predominated by the Yorubas, one of the major tribes in the Country. The region consists of Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo states. Although some of the states are fairly urbanized with the majority living in the rural areas and agriculture remains the primary means of livelihood for the inhabitants. For this reason, two states (i.e. Ekiti and Oyo) were covered in the survey. The study area is purposefully chosen because of its peculiar characteristics (large rural/agrarian settings and its prime position among the poor states (top five) in the country. Primary data were used in this study and this was collected with the aid of structured questionnaires. Physical observation was also employed to complement the data for accuracy and reliability. Key information gathered includes:

- a) Socioeconomic/Demographic Data.
- b) Household Consumption Data

A multi-stage random sampling technique was adopted. The first step was the selection of two States (Ekiti and Oyo) in the study area. The second stage involves a selection of local government areas (LGAs) from the chosen States. A total of 6 local government areas were selected for survey. These LGAs was selected proportionate to size to make it representative. For instance, two LGAs was randomly selected out of the 16 LGAs in Ekiti State while four LGAs was surveyed in Oyo State out of the 33 LGAs in the State based on the number of towns/ communities/villages under the LGAs. Selection of towns/communities/villages under the LGAs forms the third stage. A total of about 70 questionnaires were administered.

A number of statistical tools (models) were employed in this study to address the stated objectives. The tools are: Descriptive Statistics and Logit model. Descriptive Statistics was employed to analyze the socioeconomic characteristics of respondents in the study area. Means and frequency counts were used to describe the data obtained.

The Logit Model

Logit model was used in estimating the probability of events based on dependent dichotomous variables (Gujarati, 1995). A dichotomous dependent variable can assume only

$$Li = \ln\left(\frac{Ri}{1-Ri}\right) = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_n X_{ni} + \epsilon_i$$

two values (either zero or one). The model is generally expressed as:

$$Li = \ln\left(\frac{Ri}{1-Ri}\right) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

Where, Ri = Probability of a respondent participating in food hawking. This was used in this study to investigate the determinants of child labour in food hawking in the study area.

$$Li = \ln\left(\frac{Ri}{1-Ri}\right) = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_n X_{ni} + \epsilon_i$$

The adapted form of the model being estimated takes the form:

----- Equation (VII)

where,

$$Li = \ln\left(\frac{1}{0}\right) = \text{If a respondent}$$

Participate in food hawking

$$Li = \ln\left(\frac{1}{0}\right) = \text{If a household does}$$

not participate in food hawking

$X_1 - X_n$ = Explanatory

variables/observable characteristics

ϵ_i = Error term

$\beta_1 - \beta_n$ = The parameter coefficients.

Households' observable characteristics are:

X_1 = Age (in years)

X_2 = Mother's Occupation (Occumoth)

Artisans = 1, Others = 0

X_3 = Father's Occupation (Occufath)-

Artisans = 1, Others = 0

X_4 = Household Size (Hsize)

X_5 = Father's educational Level (Edu)-

Educated = 1, Not educated = 0

X_6 = Mother's Educational status (Edumoth) educated = 1, Not educated = 0

X_7 = Revenue (Profit generated from Sales) in Naira

X_8 = Position of respondent in the family

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

Table 1 showed that the age of the respondents ranged from 10-19 years with a mean age of 14 years. This is an indication that the respondents that engaged in food hawking in the study area were mostly teenagers. The respondents that were in primary schools were 48.6 percent with 28.6 percent in secondary school, 5.7 percent in tertiary schools while 17.1 percent had no formal education at all.

Among the respondents' fathers, 32.9 percent were farmers, 31.4 percent in government salary jobs, 24.2 percent in trading 8.6 percent were artisans while 2.9 percent engaged in other jobs.

Majority of the respondents' mothers (61.4%) engaged in trading, 18.6 percent in government salary jobs, 11.4 percent were artisans while 8.6 percent did not specify their jobs. Engaging in trading was expected among the respondents' mothers since they were mostly illiterates. The respondents' mother with no formal education at all was 55.7 percent, 30.0 percent had primary education and 11.4 percent had

secondary education while 2.9 percent had tertiary education. This is an indication that majority of the respondents mothers were illiterates. This was in line with the findings of Tienda (1979), that child labour is common among children from illiterate parents. Also the study revealed that 57.2 percent of the household sampled had between six and eight members, 37.7 percent had had between 3-5 members, 5.7 percent had between 9-11 members while 1.45 percent had between 12 -14 members. The respondents cut across all the family positions ranging from the first born of the family to the last child in the family. The result showed that 48.6 percent of the respondents lived in family houses, 41.4 percent lived in rented apartments while 10.0 percent were living in the houses built by their parents. The majority occupied two bedroom apartments, 27.1 percent occupied one bedroom, and 7.2 percent occupied three bedroom apartments while 1.4 percent occupied more than three bedroom apartments. This shows the level of poverty of the respondents' parents and is in agreement with the findings of Faraaz (2006) that poverty is the most important reason why children work.

Accessibility and usage of facilities by the respondents

Data in Table 2 showed the distribution of the respondents according to how

frequently (rating) they had access to and use twelve identified facilities. Judging from the mean ($x=2.5$), kerosene stove ($x=3.1$), refrigerator ($x=2.8$), pit toilet and radio ($x=2.7$) respectively and mobile phones ($x=2.5$) were the facilities the respondents had access to and frequently used. However, pipe borne water and electricity, ($x=2.3$) respectively, cars ($x=2.2$), water closet ($x=1.9$), computer ($x=1.7$), cooking gas ($x=1.4$) were not accessible to and frequently used by the respondents. It could be inferred that the respondents had no access to and use modern facilities. However their access to and use of refrigerator might be due to the fact that majority of them engaged in the sales of pure water (see table 3) since coldness of the water enhances their sales especially during the hot season. Their access to and use of mobile phone indicates the wide spread of the communication systems in the country and the use of mobile phone for income generation.

Hawking activities engaged in by respondents

Table 3, shows that 18.6 percent of the respondents engaged in the sales of kerosene, 17.1 percent engaged in the sales of pure water, 14.3 percent -sell vegetables, 11.4 percent sell fruits, 12.9 percent sell cooked foods, 10.0 percent sell raw foods, 5.7 percent sell fish and meat. However 8.6 percent did not specify what they sell. Further

investigation on the duration of time they have been engaged in the sales revealed that 28.6 percent had engaged in the sales for three years, 22.9 percent -for 4 years, 21.4 percent for 2 years, 14.3 percent for a year and 7.1 percent for 5 years. The average number of years they have been engaged in food hawking is three years. (Table 4). The location or the venue of sales/hawking is presented in table 5 and it shows that 62.9 percent of the respondents hawk within the streets, 22.8 percent hawk in the market places, 11.4 percent hawk on the road especially in busy places during traffic holdups, while 2.9 percent hawk from house to house.

In addition, Table 6 revealed that majority 48.5 percent engaged in food hawking in order to assist parents, 38.6 percent hawk in order to earn a living, 10.0 percent hawk to support their education while only 2.9 percent hawk for leisure. Efforts were made to find out the level of satisfaction derived from food hawking as presented in table 7 and it was found that 70.0 percent derived partial satisfaction from food hawking, 17.1 percent derived no satisfaction from food hawking while 12.9 percent indicated that they derived full satisfaction from food hawking. This indicates that most of the respondents were not satisfied with food hawking as this may have been the last option for their survival.

Problems encountered while hawking
Table 8 revealed that 71.4 percent of the respondents that engaged in food hawking had no time to study, 65.7 percent were being cheated while hawking, 62.9 percent faced the problem of tiredness (fatigue), 64.3 percent were harassed by elders, 45.6 percent suffered from loss of money, 40.0 percent were sexually harassed (raped) while 31.4 percent suffered from harassments from police and local government officials respectively. This confirms the findings of ILO (2006) that child labour exposed children to a lot of hazards kidnapping, accidents, insults, arrests by law enforcement agents, cheats, and many other health problems.

Effect of food hawking on the respondents household

Table 9 showed the distribution of the respondents according to how strongly they agree on the effect of food hawking on the household, using a five point likert rating of strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. Judging from the mean ($x=3.0$), improved consumption pattern, increased income, ability to pay school fees, improved standard of living, ability to buy textbooks and improved household facilities were the important effects of food hawking on respondents household. However, improved cooking utensils, improved infrastructure, improved social

relations and improved school performance were reported as unimportant effect of food hawking on respondents households. It indicates that children were involved in food hawking in order to improve their household consumption pattern, increase their household income and improve their standard of living.

Results of logit model in table 10 reveals that age ($P < 0.01$), household size ($p < 0.05$) revenue generated ($p < 0.04$) and parents' occupation are positively associated with child labour in food hawking. However, mothers' educational status ($p < 0.8$) and the respondents' position in the family are negatively related to children involvement in food hawking. This implies that as children advanced in age their parents involve them in food hawking. So also, children from larger family sizes are more involved in food hawking than those with fewer family size. The relationship between revenue generated and food hawking shows that higher income generated from food hawking motivates parents to engage their wards in it. The relationship between mothers' occupation and food hawking is expected since majority of the respondents' mothers were traders.

CONCLUSION

The majority of the respondents that engaged in food hawking were teenagers, with only primary

education. Most of their mothers were illiterates, with an average of six household members. Their parents' occupation were mostly farming for men and trading for women. The respondents lived mostly in family houses and rented apartments. Majority of them occupied two bedrooms. The respondents had access to and use refrigerator, kerosene stove, pit toilets and radio. Majority of them had engaged in food hawking for more than three years and they hawk food mostly along the streets and in market places in order to assist parents and to earn a living. Most of the respondents derived partial satisfaction from food hawking while some did not derive any satisfaction at all. The problems encountered during food hawking varied from no time to study, to cheating, tiredness, harassment by elders, loss of money, raping and harassment by police and local government officials. The major effect of food hawking on respondents' households include improved consumption pattern, increased income, ability to pay school fees, and improved standard of living. Age, household size, revenue generated and parents' occupation had significant and positive relationship with involvement of children in food hawking.

Based on the findings it is recommended that parents especially the illiterates should be enlightened on

child labour and the dangers inherent in it. They should be encouraged to join cooperative societies to increase their accessibility to loan facilities to enhance their ability to rent shops for the sales of their products as well as engaged in activities that will fetch them more funds. Laws restricting child labour should be enforced in Nigeria to reduce the menace.

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Table 1: Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents (n=70)

Variable	Freq.	%	Variable	Freq.	%
Age			Total family size		
<10	0	0	3-5	25	35.7
10-12	28	40.0	6-8	40	57.2
13-15	32	45.7	9-11	4	5.70
16-18	08	11.4	12-14	1	1.40
19-20	02	2.90	Position of respondent in the family		
Highest level of education			first child	6	8.60
No formal education	12	17.1	second child	26	37.1
Primary education	34	48.6	third child	16	22.9
Secondary education	20	28.6	fourth child	11	15.7
Tertiary education	04	5.70	fifth child	06	8.60
Father's occupation			sixth child	04	5.7
Government salary job			seventh child	0	0
Trading	17	24.3	eighth child	0	0
Artisan	06	8.60	ninth child	01	1.40
Farming	23	32.9	Type of house lived in		
Any other	02	2.90	Family house	34	48.6
Mother's occupation			Rented house	29	41.4
Trading	22	31.4	Personal house	07	10.0
Government salary job	43	61.4	Number of rooms occupied		
Artisan	13	18.6	1 bed room	19	27.1
Farming	08	11.4	2 bed rooms	45	64.3
Mother's educational level			3 bed rooms	05	7.20
No formal education	06	8	Above 3 bed rooms	01	1.40
Primary education	39	55.7			
Secondary education	21	30.0			
Tertiary education	08	11.4			
	02	2.90			

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 4: Number of years engaged in the sales (n=70)

Number of years	Frequency	Percentage
1-2	25	35.7
3-4	36	51.5
5-6	8	11.4
7-8	1	1.4

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 5: Venue of sales

Hawking venue	Frequency	Percentage
In the street	44	62.9
Along the roads	08	11.4
Market place	16	22.8
From house to house	02	2.9
Total	70	100

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 6: Reasons for food hawking

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
To assist parents	34	48.5
To support one's education	7	10.0
To earn a living	27	38.6
For leisure	2	2.9
Total	70	100

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 2: Facilities respondents have access to and use

Facility	Mean	Actual mean	Remark
Pipe borne water	2.5	2.3	Not used
Electricity	2.5	2.3	Not used
Water closet	2.5	1.9	Not used
Cooking gas	2.5	1.4	Not used
Kerosene stove	2.5	3.1*	Used
Television	2.5	2.7*	Used
Refrigerator	2.5	2.8*	Used
Phone fixed or mobile	2.5	2.5*	Used
Pit toilet	2.5	2.7*	Used
Computer	2.5	1.7	Not used
Radio	2.5	2.7*	Used
Car	2.5	2.2	Not used

Table 3: Marketing activities engaged in by the respondents

Activity	Frequency	Percentage
Vegetables	10	14.3
Raw foods	7	10.0
Cooked foods	9	12.9
Fish/meat	4	5.7
Fruits	8	11.4
Clothing materials	1	1.4
Kerosene	13	18.6
Pure water	12	17.1
Others	-	-
Total	70	100

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 7: Level of satisfaction derived from the sales

Level of satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage
Full satisfaction	9	12.9
Partial satisfaction	49	70.0
No satisfaction	12	17.1
Total	70	100

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 8: Problems encountered while hawking

Problem	Frequency	Percentage
Police/LGA embarrassment	22	31.4
Harassment by elders	22	31.4
Cheating	45	64.3
Loss of money	46	65.7
Perishability	34	45.6
Inadequate sale	39	55.7
No time to study	50	71.4
Fatigue	44	62.9
Sexual harassment	28	40.0

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

* Multiple responses

Table 9: Effects of food hawking on household

Effects	Mean	Actual mean	Remark
Increased income	3	3.9*	Agreed
Improved household feeding	3	3.05*	Agreed
improved consumption pattern	3	4.6*	Agreed
improved standard of living	3	3.7*	Agreed
Ability to pay school fees	3	3.8*	Agreed
Ability to buy text books	3	3.1*	Agreed
Improved cooking utensils	3	2.3	Not agreed
Improved infrastructures	3	2.1	Not agreed
Improved social relations	3	2.0	Not agreed
Improved school performance	3	1.2	Not agreed
Any other	-	-	-

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 10: Logistic regression

Number of obs = 70 LR chi2 (8) = 11.60 Prob > chi2 = 0.1698
 Log likelihood = -36.959167 Pseudo R2 = 0.1357

Effect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P > z	[95% Conf. interval]
age	1.241118	.1762564	1.52	0.128	.939573 1.639442
edu	2.19215	1.386952	1.24	0.215	.6343427 7.575603
occufath	.9938051	.6085728	-0.01	0.992	.2992637 3.300262
edumoth1	.170434	-.7875733	0.23	0.815	.313027 4.376349
occumoth	.5761292	.3442037	-0.92	0.356	.1786391 1.858075
hszise	.8718432	.1868987	-0.64	0.522	.5727495 1.327126
position	1.637472	-.48815	1.65	0.098	.9128943 2.937157
profit	1.000742	.0009317	0.80	0.426	.9989173 1.002569



FARMING AND SCHOOLING AMONG RURAL CHILDREN IN PATIGI LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF KWARA STATE, NIGERIA: IMPLICATIONS FOR DEVELOPMENT

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This paper examines rural children's roles as school pupils and farm participants. Multi-stage cluster random sampling technique was used to select 115 respondents aged between five and sixteen years. Data were collected with structured interview schedule. Using eight common farm activities, coefficient of farm participation (cftp) was computed, while another eight agricultural innovations were used to compute agricultural innovation awareness index (awi) for each respondent. It was found that 44 per cent of the respondents were simultaneously schooling and farming, while the remaining were only either in school or farming. No significant difference existed in farm participation levels of respondents attending school and those that were not ($t = 0.67$; $\alpha = 0.05$), while a significant difference in innovation awareness (awi) existed in favour of respondents in school ($t = 6.13$; $\alpha = 0.05$). Parental influence ($t = 2.882$, $\alpha = 0.05$), peer group ($t = 2.221$, $\alpha = 0.05$) and school farms ($t = 2.016$, $\alpha = 0.05$) were also found to be significant factors related to respondents' participation in farming, with Durbin Watson statistic of 2.138 revealing no serial correlations among the factors. It is thus imperative to keep rural children in school even as they are engaged in farming activities.

Key words: Farming, Schooling, School-age, Rural children.

INTRODUCTION

Agricultural production has remained a crucially important aspect of man's existence on earth in several ways. Arguably beginning with fruits and wild plants gathering to meet early man's basic needs, agricultural production has transcended all reasonable bounds in exerting remarkable influence on the lives of the world's inhabitants. It is however not its primordality that epitomises its relevance. Its universality, development and potentials to meet the challenges of ever-increasing human population insure its immortal significance (Omotesho, 2006).

It is perhaps the appreciation of this fact that has made agriculture the dominant occupation in many nations. Especially in developing countries, family units have been, and still are, the major source of farm labour. Family members, including children, are involved one way or the other in agricultural production (Agunbiade and Adedoyin, 1998). That children are becoming increasingly noticeable in farming may not be astonishing because, in many rural areas, farming has become a culture which parents pass on to their offspring, who in turn do same to theirs and so on. And whether for socialisation or economic reasons as found in developing countries or for learning and amusement as in developed nations, children's involvement in farming is a reality and, perhaps, a necessity (Olutayo, 1994; Gimsberg, 2000). This is particularly true of developing countries like Nigeria where mechanised agriculture has remained largely elusive at the same time as farming population and younger generations' interest in farming are declining (Federal Office of Statistics, 1996; Ngwu, 1993).

School-age children's participation in farming however portends great implications now and in the future (Oworu, 1998). For instance, most farming families in Nigeria begin to introduce their wards to farm-work as

early as the age of five. This, incidentally, is the age that they should begin school. There is, therefore, a compelling need to reconcile the desire to sensitise children to be interested and participate in farming with that of fulfilling their rights to good education. This is bearing in mind that sustainable development entails meeting the present national needs in a way that does not jeopardise future generations' ability to meet theirs (Waldie, 2004).

It is conventional, and perhaps inevitable, to describe childhood based on age criterion. For instance, in Nigerian law, a child is any person below the age of 15 years (Etim, 1989). The definition of childhood, however, may vary from place to place and time to time, as there are varying thresholds for delineating childhood and adulthood. In some societies the "fulfillment of certain social rites are pre-requisite while in others, the integration of children to socio-economic life begins so early that it may be difficult to clearly identify different life phases" (Bequile, 1983). While defining child labour, Blanchard (1983) excluded children working on family farms and those working a few hours for pocket money or excitement. Farming has become a way of life in many societies that it is hardly meaningful to regard working in family farms by children as child labour (Kissekka, 1989). These submissions

are however controversial and contrary to the views of many other researchers such as Olawale and Solola (1999) who considered children's working in family farms as child labour. It is, however, clear that working in farms may lead to the duality of their roles, since they must also attend schools.

The specific objectives of this paper are to:

- highlight the personal characteristics of the respondents,
- identify the factors influencing children's participation in farming activities in the study area, and
- investigate role duality among respondents vis-à-vis their participation in family farms and agricultural innovation awareness.

The following research hypotheses are also tested in this study:

H_{01} : There is no significant difference between farm participation levels of schooling and non-schooling respondents.

H_{02} : There is no significant difference between the agricultural innovations awareness of schooling and non-schooling respondents.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Patigi Local Government Area (LGA), which was randomly selected from 16 Local Government Areas of Kwara State,

Nigeria. It is situated between longitude 4°54" and 5°36" and latitude 8°36" and 9°14" with an area of 1168km². As a predominantly farming population, its vegetation is the savannah type and rainfall lasts from April to October. Nupe is the indigenous language.

The multi-stage cluster random sampling technique was used to select respondents for this research. Lade, Pada and Patigi are the three districts that made up the LGA, out of which Lade and Patigi were randomly selected. Eight villages were randomly selected from Lade and 10 from Patigi districts, using the list of villages sourced from the Local Government offices as sample frame. Each village was then divided into clusters from which 7 respondents were randomly selected. Thus, 56 and 70 respondents were selected from Lade and Patigi districts respectively, yielding a total of 126 respondents. Interview schedule was used to collect data, with the help of trained interpreters, where (as in most cases) respondents did not understand the English language. A total of 115 (91.3%) interview schedules were successfully completed. Test-retest method was used to determine the reliability of the interview schedule where the correlation coefficient, (r) was found to be 0.84.

Measurement of variables

Coefficient of farm participation, Cfp , in percentage, was measured for each respondent as a function of: (a) days spent in farm per week (maximum points, 10%); (b) hours used on farm per day (maximum 10%); (c) involvement in farm activities namely, land clearing, ridging, planting/transplanting, weeding, input application, pest control, harvesting and produce processing, each of which carry 5%; (d) Participation in school farms (Yes 10%; No 0%); (e) possession of personal plots (Yes 10%; No 0%); (f) raising of farm animals (Yes 10% No 0%); (g) membership of informal agricultural group(s) (Yes 10%, No 0%).

In computing Innovation Awareness Index (AwI), respondents were asked to indicate which of the eight items of agricultural innovations they were aware of. The innovations are: tractor/coupled implements, fertilizer, seed dressing, new crop varieties, credit and loan facilities, chemicals/spraying equipment and livestock vaccination. Each carried 12.5% to arrive at a maximum 100%.

The least square linear multiple regressions ($Y=f(X_1, X_n)$) was employed in analyzing data for determining factors influencing respondents' participation in farming activities. The factors in the equation

are: age (measured in years); educational level (0 for non-schooling, 1 for primary, 2 for junior secondary, and 3 for secondary); participation in school farm; parental influence; monetary gain; peer group influence; learning motive; amusement motive; and personal interest were measured as sums of scores on statements on a 4-point Likert-type scale. Scores were based on responses: strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree. Student's t-test was used to compare farm participation levels of schooling and non-schooling respondents as well as their levels of agricultural innovation awareness. All analyses were at 05 *a priori* level of significance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personal characteristics of respondents

Data contained in Table 1 revealed that the sample consisted of 55 percent boys and 45 percent girls. Majority of respondents (44.3%) were between 13 and 16 years, while 20 percent were between 5 and 8 years of age. With about 80 percent of the respondents older than 8 years and a sample mean age of 10.2 years, it is possible that most of them were older children with fair farming experience. About 38 percent were not enrolled in school while 30 percent and 32 percent were respectively in primary and secondary schools. Indeed, 20.8 percent were in junior secondary, while 11.2 percent

were in senior secondary. This indicates that there was ample opportunity for children in the study area to be in school.

The preponderance of farming occupation in the study area was confirmed by the fact that about 70 percent of the respondents were farmers' children. However, trading, artisanship, fishing, and civil service were also found to be major occupations of about 30 percent of respondents' parents.

Factors influencing children's participation in farming

The results of the multiple regression analysis as presented in Table 1 indicate that parental influence ($t = 2.882$), peer group influence ($t = 2.221$), expectation of financial/material gains, and school farms ($t = 2.016$) were significant factors related to respondents' involvement in agricultural activities. The value of Durbin Watson statistic (2.183) suggests absence of serial correlation. That school farm was a significant factor is noteworthy as it indicates that the schools in the area were agriculturally active and might have been the source of farm participation for respondents whose parents probably owned no farms. Because children are prone to form groups and do things the same way, peer group influence was observed to

influence respondents' involvement in farming. This corroborates the findings of Adisa (2005) and Pur (1997).

The indication of parental factors ($t = 2.882$) as being influential confirms that respondents whose parents owned farms persuaded their wards to work on such farms. Age, learning, personal interest and level of education were not significantly associated with respondents' participation in farming. This could be due to the fact that, irrespective of their age or education levels, respondents saw their involvement as a necessity.

Farming and school attendance

An investigation of farming attendance and schooling revealed that about 44 percent of respondents were simultaneously involved in farming and schooling; 18.8 percent were schooling but not farming while 33.2 percent were farming but not schooling (see Table 2). It is discernible from Table 2 that 23.1 percent respondents spent at least 5 days (during peak periods) on the farm per week. This implies that such respondents would have missed at least 3 days of schooling unless those days coincided with holidays, thereby leading to high rate of failure among rural/farm children. This finding agrees with Mfum-Mensah (2003) that inverse relationship exists between school attendance and farming among children and pre-

adolescents. A decline in academic performance is obviously possible due to this absenteeism, but it could also be true that this category of respondents might have achieved a goal by keeping away from school to attend to farm work.

This is because many respondents claimed to use their financial gains from farming to purchase school items such as textbooks, uniforms and so on. This, ironically, buttresses the view that involvement of children in farming may not entirely be child abuse. As found here, involvement in agriculture could be a source of finance for indigent students. It is also not unconnected with the fact that financial gain was a major factor why many respondents participated in farming. This may buttress the need for a totally free and compulsory basic education.

Farm participation and agricultural innovation awareness

A t-test for significant difference between farm participation levels (*c/p*) of schooling and non-schooling respondents revealed that at $\alpha = 0.05$, critical value 1.96 is greater than the calculated t-value 0.67 implying that there is no significant difference between the means for the two groups (see Table 3), indicating that H_{01} should be accepted. This may be due to the fact that many respondents missed school days to do farm work. It perhaps also

indicate that it made no difference on farm participation for parents to deny their wards outright enrolment in school simply because of farming, because, as it were, those who were in school participated as much as those who were not.

Farm participation among respondents was just slightly above average as could be seen in Table 3 probably because most respondents were restricted to mainly child-specific operations such as planting, weeding and harvesting. A significant difference was however revealed to exist in their mean agricultural innovation awareness indices (see Table 4) in favour of schooling respondents, thus leading to a rejection of H_{02} . This implies that non-schooling respondent knew less of farm innovations than their colleagues who were school pupils. This agrees with the findings of Pur (1997). It may not necessarily be because they could neither read nor write but probably due to the fact that those in school had the benefit of studying Agricultural Science as a subject in school and their participation in Young Farmers' Club, although some non-schooling respondents also belonged to informal farming groups. Thus, schooling respondents could help the innovation adoption process by being information sources for their parents and guardians.

Because awareness is the first stage in

the adoption process, this superior awareness level on the part of schooling child farmers could make them better or earlier adopters than their non-schooling counterparts. However, it is observable that total mean awareness index (57.15%) for schooling respondents was below *a priori* expectation. This may be due to poor information dissemination system, respondents' age (72% of them were below 13 years) and other social factors. Data in Table 5 show the awareness rates of the selected innovations. Fertilizer use was the most widely known among respondents as 88.6 percent were aware of its existence and function but not necessarily its methods of application and types. It was followed by tractor (85.6%) and seed dressing (73.8%). Respondents might have learnt about these three items from school and within their communities as the Local Government Authority had a tractor hiring scheme while fertilizers and dressed seeds were widely used and even sold in small quantities on market days.

Less than 50% of the respondents were aware of each of the other selected innovations. The selection of credit and loan was informed by the presence of a branch of Nigeria Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank in Lafiagi, the LGA Headquarters. The low level of awareness of credit and loans may be

due to inadequate publicity and the fact that children were not the particular targets of the bank. Respondents least knew livestock vaccination probably because respondents were mostly involved in crop rather than animal production.

CONCLUSION

Parental factor is still very significant in rural children's participation in agricultural production activities. Indeed, rural children missed school days just to do farm-work despite the observation in this study that there is no significant difference in farm participation levels of schooling and non-schooling respondents. Schools can be used not only to capture children's interest in farming but was also as found in this research to enhance agricultural knowledge among children. This is important since one can only practice or adopt what he/she knows. And with knowledge being the first step in adoption, schooling children are better placed to become good farmers in the future.

The following recommendations are therefore proffered as policy implications of findings from this research.

- Greater commitment by all stakeholders should be made to get all school age children enrolled and kept in school.
- School calendar, especially in rural

agrarian areas, may be adapted to suit farming regime. It may be appropriate to make holidays coincide with peak periods of farming activities.

- Extension workers should make adequate consideration for children in their messages.
- Primary and secondary schools should be supported morally and materially to operate farms to be used as media for making pupils to be interested in farming.

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Table 1: Summary of personal characteristics of respondents

Variable	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency (%)
Age* (years)		
5-8	23	20.0
9-12	41	35.7
13-16	51	44.3
Gender		
Male	63	55.0
Female	52	45.0
Educational level		
Not in school	43	38.0
Primary school	35	30.0
Junior secondary	24	20.8
Senior secondary	13	11.2
Parents' major occupation		
Farming	80	69.6
Trading	12	10.4
Artisanship	10	8.7
Fishing	8	7.0
Civil service	5	4.3

*Sample mean age = 10.2 years.

Source: Field survey, 2006.

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Table 2: Factors influencing children's participation in farming in Patigi, LGA, Kwara State Nigeria.

Variable	R	R ²	Change in R ²	Adjusted R ²	t
Age	.0435	.0019		.001860	.432
Monetary gain	.871	.0076	.0057	.007492	.003*
School farm	.0943	.0089	.0013	.008822	.016*
Parental influence	.0989	.0098	.009	.009872	.882*
Peer group influence	.2005	.0212	.0114	.021192	.221*
Educational level	.1575	.0248	.0036	.02460	.651
Learning	.180	.0323	.0075	.03220	.435
Amusement	.1456	.0345	.0022	.03440	.891
Personal interest	.1857	.0402	.0057	.040181	.327
Constant	.0991				

Durbin Watson Statistic=2.138

N=229

* _significant at .05 level of probability.

Source: Field survey, 2006.

Table 3: Educational status and days spent on farm per week by children in Patigi LGA, Kwara State, Nigeria.

Day (s)	Schooling		Not schooling	
	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency (%)	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency (%)
0	22	18.8	5	4.4
1-2	10	8.7	6	5.2
3-4	13	11.8	5	4.4
5-6	23	19.6	20	17.5
7	4	3.5	7	6.1
Total	72	62.6	43	37.4

Source: Field survey, 2006.

Table 4: Result of t-test of means of coefficient of farm participation of schooling and non-schooling children in Patigi LGA, Kwara State, Nigeria.

Group	N	Mean cfp (%)	Degree of freedom	Variance	Calculated t-value	Critical t-value
Schooling	72	54.39	113	795.466	0.67	1.96
Non-Schooling	43	57.27	-----	792.423		

Sample mean cfp=56.19%, N=115.

Source: Field survey, 2006.

Table 5: Results of t-test between mean agricultural innovation awareness indices of schooling and non-schooling child-farmers in Patigi LGA, Kwara State, Nigeria.

Group	N	Mean	Variance	Calculated	Critical
Schooling Child-farmers	72	57.15	522.123	6.13	1.96
Non-schooling Child-farmers	43	36.92	431.808		
Sample mean awi = 49.6%, N = 115					

Source: Field survey, 2006.

Table 6: Awareness rates of selected agricultural innovations among children in Patigi LGA, Kwara State, Nigeria.

Agricultural Innovation	Awareness Rate	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency (%)
Tractor/coupled implements	98	85.6	
Seed dressing	85	73.8	
Fertilizer	102	88.6	
New crop varieties	47	40.6	
Channel Irrigation	36	31.0	
Credit & loan facilities	39	34.1	
Chemicals/spraying	51	44.5	
Livestock vaccination	20	17.0	

*N=115

Source: Field survey, 2006.



DEALING WITH STUDENTS' DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR IN BOTSWANA NORTHERN REGION SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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The purpose of the study was to determine types of students' disruptive behaviour and how agriculture teachers dealt with students' disruptive behaviour during the teaching learning process. A descriptive type of research using a self-administered questionnaire was employed to gather data. The questionnaire was reviewed to establish content and face validity. It was pilot tested to ensure reliability. The target population for the study included 28 Agriculture teachers from Botswana Northern Region Senior Secondary Schools. The findings revealed, amongst others, that the main types of students' disruptive behaviours included: late coming to class, dragging furniture, making noise, borrowing pens, being playful and sleeping in class. While the teachers dealt with students' disruptive behaviours by: rewarding students' good behaviour, establishing a procedure for dealing with students' disruptive behaviour, conducting interesting lessons, maintaining eye contact with the students, moving closer to the students, beating students with a stick on the hand, giving students some responsibility, and asking them to set rules for accepted behaviours. Also, it established the relationship between teachers' perception of students' disruptive behaviour and some of the teachers selected demographic characteristics. It is recommended that every teacher should diagnose students' disruptive behaviour and their effort be expended to harmonise ways to deal with students disruptive behaviours in order to ensure that effective teaching and learning take place.

Key words: Management, Discipline, Disruptive behaviour.

INTRODUCTION

The management of students' behaviour during classes, both in theory and practical lessons, has over the years become a major concern (Tattum, 1986; Dlamini, 1996). Newly recruited teachers in particular, have expressed their concern about students' disruptive behaviours. Dongo and Dlamini (1997), reported that the increased students' disruptive behaviours have caused many teachers to give up teaching. Experience has shown that students' disruptive behaviours is likely to cause a breakdown of the flow of instruction during the teaching-learning process. Furthermore, many teachers have been unable to solve students' behaviour problems. As a result, these teachers have been frustrated and, thus, have left the teaching profession. The main task of the teacher is to provide a suitable learning environment. The teacher does this by reducing disruptive behaviour among students to manageable proportions. The responsibility of a teacher is to put up some procedures, which will ensure that class order is maintained. According to Manana (1989), without order and control over students' behaviour effective

teaching and learning is not likely to take place.

Students' disruptive behaviours have been variously defined. Dlamini (1996) defined disruptive behaviour as that which results in the break down of order in class. In turn, the teacher responds in a way intended to restore order. Tanki (2003) posited that disruptive behaviour is inappropriate and disturbing overt students' tendencies during the teaching and learning process. While Dongo and Dlamini (1997) described student disruptive behaviour as counter productive behaviours of students during teaching and learning process. Buckley and Manion (1989), opined that students' disruptive behaviours are non-productive students' tendencies that disrupt the instructional process and compete with students' effective learning. In this study, students' disruptive behaviours were viewed as undesirable behaviours of students that are likely to disrupt a teacher while teaching as well as other students from paying attention to the lesson.

In Botswana's Senior Secondary Schools, dealing with disruptive

students' behaviour is real challenge. According to Nyathi (1986), the Ministry of Education (MoE) has stipulated rules and regulations to deal with students' disruptive behaviours. These disciplinary measures include among others: corporal punishment, reprimands and giving manual work. Despite the availability of these discipline measures, and the fact that teachers are taught how to handle students' discipline in the classrooms, agriculture teachers continue to encounter disruptions in their classes (Tanki, 2003).

In Swaziland high schools, discipline problems were reported to be occurring more frequently. Teachers regardless of nationality, marital status and place of training encountered disruptive behaviours from students (Manana, 1989). Therefore, management of students' behaviours has become a real challenge. It is generally believed that a well disciplined class is essential for effective teaching and learning (Kasambira, 1993) and students learn more effectively when extra time is spent in productive work rather than dealing with disruptive behaviour (Doyle,

1980).

The overall purpose of the study was to determine agriculture teachers' perception regarding how to deal with students' disruptive behaviours during the teaching and learning process in Botswana Northern Senior Secondary School. Specifically, the study attempted to:

1. identify the types of students' disruptive behaviours encountered by agriculture teachers in the study area;
2. Identify the types of disciplinary measures used by agriculture teachers to deal with students' disruptive behaviours in classes;
3. describe agriculture teachers' demographic characteristics; and
4. determine agriculture teachers' perceptions of the students disruptive behaviour.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Tattum (1986) stated that disruptive pupils' behaviour is a major concern among teachers, students, educational administrators, curriculum designers, and teacher trainers in many countries of the world. Disruptive students'

behaviour is a major concern because effective teaching and learning can only take place under non-disruptive environment. Tatum further pointed out that once students' behaviour becomes disruptive, such a scenario turns into a crisis and problematic. This situation is believed to be undesirable for effective teaching and learning.

Bull and Solity (1987) observed that teachers hold different views about students' behaviour during the teaching-learning process. Some teachers classify certain students' behaviours as desirable. While on the other hand, there are teachers who labeled the same students' behaviours as being unacceptable. The general assumption is that the desirable students' behaviours are likely to facilitate effective teaching and learning. While certainly these two scenarios present a real challenge to all stakeholders in the teaching and learning process. Indeed, it is a real challenge because effective teaching and learning requires an environment whereby teachers' activities and students' action are in harmony. According to DiGiulio (1995), teachers are entrusted by parents, school

administrators and Ministry of Education amongst others, to teach children more effectively and efficiently. The general assumption is that the teachers have been given classroom and teaching aids necessary to enable them to teach more effectively.

Ary *et al.* (1990) reported that teachers have different preference for reinforcement techniques over punishment. While some teachers believed that reinforcement of all students' behaviour is the most appropriate management practice, others argued that some students' behaviours should be responded to with some form of punitive measures or discipline. Reinforcement of undesirable students' behaviour cannot be effective. Ary *et al.* (1990) concluded this dichotomous view by stating that both reinforcement and punishment should be used. He advised that reinforcing appropriate and accepted behaviour should be used while on other hand, punishing inappropriate behaviours should also be adopted. This study, therefore, was built on two theoretical frameworks. First, teachers in any classroom setting experience students' disruptive

behaviour. Second, teachers are free to use reinforcement and punishment as strategies to deal with different types of students' behaviours. It was against this background that this study was conducted to determine agriculture teachers' views regarding how they dealt with disruptive students' behaviours in Botswana high schools.

METHODOLOGY

The study was a descriptive design. Thus, simple statistical tools such as frequency, standard deviation and mean were used to summarize the data, while correlations was used to make deductions. The target population of the study included 28 agricultural teachers. Since the number of the teachers was fairly small, all the agriculture teachers were used. The up-to-date list of names of teachers was obtained from the Ministry of Education in order to control frame error.

A self-administered questionnaire was designed following literature review. It was reviewed to establish content and face validity. Ten (10) agriculture teachers who were not

part of the target audience were used to pilot test the questionnaire in order to determine reliability of the instrument. The overall reliability coefficient was calculated using the Kuder Richardson 21 (KR-21) formula. This procedure gave information on the internal consistency for the instrument (Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh, 1990; Stephen and William, 1995). The reliability coefficients for the domains were 94 and 96 respectively. The validated questionnaire was distributed among the 28 teachers. This questionnaire had a cover that explained the purpose of the study, assured respondents that data would be reported as collective information; therefore, there was no need to identify oneself, and the deadline date on which to have all questionnaires returned. Since the response rate was 100 percent, there was no need for any follow-up which is usually needed in order to ensure that the response rate is acceptable. Also, since all these questionnaires were returned almost within the one week stipulated, there was no need to compare early respondents to late respondents.

Upon receipt of the questionnaires, data were coded using SPSS plus to compute frequencies, means, standard deviations, and correlations. To interpret the correlations, the Davis Scale (1971) as cited by Dube (1986) was used. The Davis Scale is presented, thus:

Co-efficient	Description
.01-.01	Negligible association
.10-.29	Low association
.30-.49	Moderate association
.50-.69	Substantial association
.70 and above	Very strong association

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Types of students disruptive behaviour

Information pertaining to the types of students' disruptive behaviours is presented in Table 1. Out of twenty-five types of disruptive behaviours to be rated, the agriculture teachers were in agreement that the following items were indeed the most common types of students' disruptive behaviours: late coming to class, dragging furniture, making noise, borrowing pens in class, being playful, and sleeping in class.

Types of disciplinary measures used to control students' behaviour

Agriculture teachers were asked to indicate the type of disciplinary measures used by teachers to deal with students' disruptive behaviours. Out of the twenty-four measures that were rated, agriculture teachers were in agreement with the following: giving rewards for good students' behaviour; finding the cause of students' misbehaviour; providing more interesting lessons; maintaining eye contact with the student; providing more effective instructions; moving toward the student; beating students with a stick; giving students some responsibility; asking students to set rules punishing students' disruptive behaviours; contacting students' parents; and having student sit in front of the class. Regarding the remaining types of disciplinary measures, the agriculture teachers were indecisive and disagreed that these items were the right type of interventions in disciplining disruptive students.

Demographic characteristics of agriculture teachers

Information on selected characteristics of agriculture

teachers in Botswana's Northern Senior Secondary Schools is presented in Table 3. The data revealed that 82.1 percent were male while 7.9 percent were female. Regarding their years of teaching experience, majority had 1-9 years of teaching experience (57.1%). While the rest had 10-29 years of teaching experience (42.8%). In terms of educational qualifications, majority had a Bachelor of Science degree in Agricultural Education. The remaining 4 percent and 3.6 percent had postgraduate diploma in education and advanced diploma in science, respectively. The relationship between students' disruptive behaviours and some agriculture teachers' selected demographic characteristics. The relationship between agriculture teachers' ages, years of teaching experience and qualifications and types of disciplinary measures and disruptive behaviours are indicated in the Table 4. Data in Table 4 revealed negligible low association. The correlation coefficients ranged from .018 to .234.

The findings from this study on disruptive behaviours in Botswana's Northern Region Senior Secondary Schools are consistent

with results of studies conducted elsewhere. Dlamini (1996), Farrant (1982) and Mdluli (2002) confirmed that: disruptive students' behaviours were serious interruptions during the teaching-learning process, in-attention and restlessness, noise making, deliberate naughtiness and indiscipline, passing notes to friends, making noise, chewing or eating bubble gum and sleeping in class were classical students' disruptive behaviours. Manana (1989) also found out that there were major students' disruptive behaviours during the teaching-learning process. With respect to interventions to deal with students' disruptive behaviours, the findings of this study were not quite similar to the findings reported by Manana (1989), Manana and Dlamini (1988) and Magagula (1987). This study revealed that teachers used more positive reinforcement strategies than punishment in dealing with disruptive students' behaviours. This approach seems to support the view that some teachers prefer to use positive reinforcement strategies than punishment (Cherwin and Cherwin, 1986).

The work of Cherwin and Cherwin

(1986) has revealed that in order to better manage students' disruptive behaviours, it is more appropriate to

(1) develop a set of explicit classroom rules, (2) establish a rating system consisting of positive and negative rewards, (3) follow a systematic praising procedure, and (4) make daily reward to pupils for positive behaviour. Therefore, once these set of behavioural codes are developed, it will be much easier to deal with students' disruptive behaviours. Rewards and punitive measures will be implemented with ease.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that agriculture teachers in the selected Northern Region Senior Secondary Schools in Botswana were aware of the different types of dealing with students' disruptive behaviours and ways to measure them. They could use control students' disruptive behaviours. Also it was concluded that agriculture teachers were predominantly males, had varied teaching experiences and were mainly first degree holders. Finally, demographic characteristics of the agriculture teachers did not have much influence on their perceptions

of how to deal with disruptive students' behaviour.

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Table 1: Types of students' disruptive behaviour

Statement	Mean	Standard deviation
1. Late coming	4.82	1.42
2. Dragging furniture	4.64	1.42
3. Making noise	4.39	1.45
4. Borrowing pens	4.42	1.57
5. Being playful	4.18	1.09
6. Sleeping in class	4.04	1.29
7. Attention seeking	3.89	1.29
8. Laughing during a lesson	3.79	1.40
9. Chewing/eating bubble gum	3.79	1.37
10. Looking around	3.68	1.42
11. Passing notes to friends	3.57	1.69
12. Portrays negative attitude toward lesson	3.50	1.45
13. Making rude remarks	3.50	1.37
14. Talking out of turn	3.32	1.59
15. Engaging in verbal confrontation	3.29	1.49
16. Shuffling papers	3.29	1.49
17. Throwing objects at others	3.14	1.14
18. Diverting teachers' attention	3.11	1.14
19. Being restless	3.11	1.45
20. Giving irrelevant answers	2.96	1.37
21. Using abusive language	2.93	1.49
22. Drawing cartoons on the board	2.82	1.49
23. Leaving class without permission	2.68	1.52
24. Fighting	2.54	1.48
25. Making love gestures in class	2.46	1.37

Rating Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = slightly agree, 5 = agree, 6 = strongly agree.

Table 2: Types of disciplinary measures used by agriculture teachers to control students' behaviour in Botswana Northern Senior Secondary Schools (N = 28)

Types of disciplinary measure	Mean	Standard deviation
1. Rewarding students for good behaviour	5.07	1.12
2. Establishing course for student disruptive behaviour	4.93	1.09
3. Conducting more interesting lessons	4.86	1.33
4. Maintaining student eye contact	4.79	1.37
5. Providing effective instruction	4.57	1.37
6. Moving closer to the student	4.39	1.03
7. Beating with a stick on the head	4.25	1.46
8. Giving student some responsibility	4.25	1.24
9. Asking student rules for accepted students' Behaviours	4.00	1.61
10. Contacting students' parents etc.	3.89	1.31
11. Having student sit in front of the class	3.86	1.60
12. Whipping on the buttocks	3.18	1.54
13. Giving manual labour	3.14	1.51
14. Ignoring the student	3.11	1.93
15. Giving extra academic work	3.00	1.76
16. Scolding the student privately	2.93	1.68
17. Giving verbal rebuke	2.68	1.61
18. Giving student an unpleasant job to do for example, cleaning the toilet	2.21	1.52
19. Excluding student from class	2.18	1.54
20. Referring the student to the headmaster	2.18	1.28
21. Making the student do vigorous exercise for example, a frog jump	1.89	0.96
22. Twisting the ear	1.46	0.92
23. Pinching on the arm or thigh	1.43	0.84
24. Slapping on the face	1.430.45	

RatingScale: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = slightly agree, 5 = agree, 6 = strongly agree.

Table 3: Demographic characteristics of agriculture teachers in Botswana Northern Senior Secondary Schools (N=28)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Sex		
Male	23	82.1%
Female	5	17.9%
Years of teaching experience		
1 - 4	10	35.7%
5 - 9	6	21.4%
10 - 14	5	17.9%
15 - 19	2	7.1%
20 - 24	3	10.7%
25 - 29	2	7.1%
Qualifications		
Bachelor of Science degree	23	82.1%
Post graduate Diploma in Education	4	14.3%
Advanced Diploma in Science	1	3.6%

Table 4: The relationship between agriculture teachers' age, years of teaching experience and qualifications and their perceptions of students' disruptive behaviours

Domain	Age (R)	Years of Teaching Experience	Qualifications (rs)
Types of disruptive behaviours	.018	.034	.042
Disciplinary measures	.131	.178	.234



INDEGENOUS FABRIC PRINT PROJECT AS EXTENSION SERVICE DELIVERY FOR YOUTH EMPOWERMENT IN SOUTHWESTERN, NIGERIA

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The paper provides a practical tool for meeting unemployment challenges faced by youth in Southwestern state, of Nigeria. It specifically reports research findings on Indigenous Fabric Print (IFP) project of extension programme in Ogun, Ondo, and Osun States Nigeria. Purposive sampling procedure was employed in selecting 400 IFP producers. Descriptive statistics (frequency, means, and standard deviation) and correlation analysis were employed in summarizing the data and making inferences, respectively. At $p = 0.05$ level of significance, the result showed that there was positive correlation between income from major occupation ($r = 0.904$); IFP marketing system ($r = 0.794$); IFP training activities ($r = 0.964$); output to time ratio ($r = 0.760$), cost profit ratio ($r = 0.792$), resource-use efficiency ($r = 0.742$); IFP performance ($r = 0.624$); divisibility ($r = 0.744$); compatibility ($r = -0.941$); attitude of respondents to IFP ($r = 0.806$); manageability ($r = 0.891$), and youth empowerment. The finding showed that the project had high tendency to yield quick returns over time. The study again showed that the major constraints to the project were lack of advisory services (84.0%) and training (92.0%) on IFP from the extension agents, and lack of access to loan (82.5%). It is therefore, recommended that good training and credit facilities need be provided for the effectiveness and efficiency of the project.

Key words: Indigenous, Fabric print, Extension services, Youth, Empowerment.

INTRODUCTION Southwestern part of the country revealed that, many of the towns are always alive with textile craftsmanship. Several scholars have confirmed indigenous fabric print productions as one of the enterprises that could be established on a small scale with little capital, and its craft activities are peculiar to the youth (King and McGrath, 1999).

This then signifies that, if IFP production is well developed and properly integrated into the national developmental programme, not only would it supply a wide variety of textile goods and services but would also provide vocational training and jobs opportunities for thousands of youths as a means to enhancing economic empowerment and development. Just as 70% of Nigeria's population resides in the rural areas and 45% of them are identified as youths (Nao, 1995, and Torimiro, 1999), policymakers and government have continued to neglect these people. Swanson *et al* (1993) attributed the neglect to overwhelming concern of the government for immediate solutions to problems of national development, which are usually accompanied with inaccurate perception that the youths have limited, and inadequate knowledge for participating in any programme or in decisions-making due to cultural ethics, perhaps, because it has been confirmed that this group of people has

high tendency of drifting from one area to another (Eme, 1988). In most cases the pattern of drifting is rural-urban. This results in increased rate of crimes (such as, robbery, prostitution, drugs addicts, child abuse, homelessness, and ritual killings among others).

In recognition of this situation, youths' involvement in rural developmental project activities recently becomes paramount among the various organs of government and non-governmental organizations. These projects are to enhance the youths' socio economic conditions and bring about their empowerment in the process of development. To achieve this objective, various practical programmes have been designed for the youths in which IFP project were inclusive. With all these viable efforts, the country was still saddled with lots of societal deviants. The study therefore, aimed at assessing indigenous fabric print (IFP) production as a form of extension delivery for youth empowerment. Specifically, the paper addressed the following specific objectives to:

- i. assess socio-economics characteristics of the respondents,
- ii. examine respondent's attitude to IFP production,
- iii. analyse IFP project characteristics, and
- iv. Identify the type of training involved in IFP production.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in southwestern part of Nigeria. It comprises six States from which three States were purposively selected. Purposive sampling technique was used because the level of adoption of IFP project differs in the various States in this part of the country. The sampled States are Ondo, Osun, and Ogun. Two Local Government Areas (LGAs) were purposively selected from each of the three States, and eight communities from each of the six LGAs, totaling six LGAs in all. From each of the sampled communities, five percent registered IFP producers were randomly selected, but in some areas the available number of subjects were less than expected, in such case two to three communities sharing the same boundary were treated together as one. A total of four hundred and fifty IFP producers were randomly selected and interviewed. Test-retest method was used to ascertain the reliability of the research instrument. The correlation coefficient of $r = 0.68$ obtained was adjudged consistent.

Questionnaires that were well completed summed up to 400, and as such were analysed. Descriptive statistical techniques such as frequency counts, percentages, means, and standard deviation were used to present the results on socio-economics characteristics of the respondents, and type of training involved in IFP. Likert

scale were used to measure IFP project characteristics, and respondents attitudes, where the value of standard deviation subtracted from the mean score was used as cut off point for low scores, and mean score added to the value of standard deviation was used as the cut off point for high scores. This was used to categorize the respondents into high, moderate, and low scores. Pearson correlation was used to identify the variables that had significant relationship with the dependent variable.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Personal and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents
The analysis revealed that the mean age of the respondents was 27 years. More than half of the respondents (53.0%) were male and married. Fifty one percent had completed secondary school education, four percent had primary school education, twenty six percent had tertiary education, and about nineteen percent were dropped out of secondary school. A high proportion of the respondents (78.5%) could speak and write English, and Yoruba languages. However, about six percent could speak French, but could not write it. Detailed analysis presented fifty four percent as Christian, thirty seven percent muslim, and nine percent as traditionalists. Again, eighty eight percent were indigenes of the study area and fifty one percent practiced

dual residency.

The above findings revealed that the IFP producers were religious men and women with a substantial level of education. The score on cosmopolitanness was low (18.5%) before, and high (72.0%) after becoming an IFP producer. Majority (89.0%) traveled about 1-2 times in a year to greet friend in other villages within their LGA before. As they turned out to be IFP producer, sixty four percent traveled monthly, thirty six percent fortnightly to other State in the federation, and about seven percent to other countries for the purposes of selling, purchasing and updating. Majority (89.0) of the respondents had identified religion and age group organization as the only social organization to which they belonged. However, sixty three percent as soon as they became IFP producers joined cooperative societies, sixty percent political organization, and fifty one percent esusu group. A higher percentage (91.0%) of the respondents were ordinary members of their various organizations before becoming IFP producers, but eighteen percent assumed the post of an executive member, and forty eight percent committee member after. Before, eighty one percent lived in the rural hamlet, but black the most essential infrastructures like good road

(71.0%), pipe borne water (78.0%), health facilities (67.0%), and electricity (55.0%). However, more than half (67.5%) had access to good health facilities, seventy nine percent pipe borne water, ninety four percent functional electricity, ninety two percent good road, and seventy six percent good accommodation in a desirable environment. Also, eighty two percent could afford good school for their children, eighty seven percent could afford good clothing, and eighty four percent had high confidence in themselves. Confidence rating was in relation to the develop sense of achievement and ability to performed their economics roles at the family and community level.

Detailed analysis revealed that the major occupation of the respondents (83.0%) was IFP production, trading (11.0%), and tailoring (6.0%). While ninety eight percent minor in trading, interior decoration (62.0%), and tailoring (36.0%), eighty-six percent claimed that they were not paying tax to any organization on IFP production, but seven percent paid. Ninety nine percent signified that IFP involved lots of interaction with the out side world, so as to be current with changes in design and fashion trends in IFP. About ninety two percent identified those that patronized them as people from different races and colours. Eighty nine percent owned a personal IFP

production center, while seventy percent had less than six years working experience, thirty percent had more than six years. About seventy two percent occupied less than 0.5 plot of land, and thirty six percent occupied more than 0.5 plots. Again, seventy two percent acquired the land through rent, thirteen percent had to purchased it. The average income of the respondents was N108, 000. 00, and the average number of respondent dependants was 5

Availability and accessibility of formal credit facilities were approved of by eighty five percent of the respondents. While, forty five percent were able to operate an account, just few numbers of them (17.5%) could acquire loans. About eighty three percent of those who could not access formal loan said that they could not meet up with the requested collaterals. Majority (59.0%) acquired loan through cooperative society, esusu (20.0%), friend (17.0%), and family (14.0%).

Indigenous fabric prints (IFP) characteristics

Detailed assessment of IFP marketing system revealed that, there was an accessible market for the products (79.0%). Seventy-six percent rated demands for it as moderate, fifteen percent as high, and nine percent low. Majority (92.0%) agreed that the market for IFP was open and

competitive. While forty three percent claimed that there was an organized central market for the products, fifty seven percent was opposed to this claim. About ninety one percent said that the price for the goods varies from market to market, eighty nine percent explained that the individual producers determined the price of their products, and eighty seven percent said that the demand for the product is not seasonal. Again, about seventy seven percent sells to middlemen, and ninety one percent sells directly to the consumers. Fourteen percent claimed that there was an organized market mechanism for IFP, and fifty six percent signified that there was a product coordinator who kept track between the producers and the customers. Twelve percent further explained that, the customers booked ahead of production through the use of catalog. About fifty seven percent signified that the inputs were been purchased from another town. Forty-five percent said that the inputs were highly affordable, while fifty five percent said that it was moderately affordable, eighty eight percent agreed that the inputs were available when needed, and fifty three percent said not where needed.

An in-depth analysis of the responses to selected statement on the divisibility of IFP production revealed that the process was highly divisible (98.0%), affirming that the production could be

started on a small scale, with capitals ranging between N3,000.00-N5,000.00. All the activities involved in IFP productions could be handled by an individual (92.0%) when the volume of production is small, and ninety two percent agreed that the inputs were available in a small bit. The above findings support Oyesola (2002), that IFP production could be started on a small-scale. Seventy two percent signified that, there were two major operations in IFP production, and ninety five percent signified that these operations could be performed by an individual, because the stages are different and complements one another.

Analysis on IFP output to time ratio revealed that eighty seven percent of the respondents rated it as high, and thirteen percent said it was moderate. The rating was based on the number of fabric yardage produced per day. Meanwhile, seventy six percent agreed that the process involved the use of less physical energy, but eighty six percent said that the process involved lot of thinking and concentration. About forty three percent rated the cost-profitability ratio of IFP to be moderate, seventeen percent as low, and thirty nine percent was indifferent. The rating was in relation to the amount of money spent on production to the profit made. Majority (94.0%) said that IFP production had very high rates of returns. Also, sixty three percent

strongly agreed that all the processes involved in IFP production were not complex, while thirty percent agreed, seven percent disagreed. Practically, all the respondents agreed that every process at the various stages of IFP production were specific.

Manageability of IFP production was assessed based on the running, and maintenance of the process of production, and staff. Emphasis was mostly on maintenance and ways of dealing with the target market and financial arrangement. Analysis revealed that eighty three percent rated this as very high, fourteen percent as low, and three percent was neutral. Analysis showed that eighty six percent of the respondents scored IFP production as highly compatible with their socio cultural environment, but fourteen percent remained indifferent. Ninety four percent strongly agreed that IFP production aligned with their seasonal activities, and eighty two percent said that the techniques involved in the production were fixed into their socio economic activities. Seventy eight percent viewed that it was highly compatible with their weather condition, ninety seven percent strongly agreed that the system of production was grafted upon their traditional methods. Seventy two percent agreed that the inputs were moderately affordable, about ninety percent signified that the inputs were

very easy to maintain, and the requirement for production were very easy to meet (91.0%).

Detailed analysis on feasibility of IFP production revealed that seventy one percent of the respondents confirmed that it was feasible, and twenty nine percent said it was not. Further enquiry to this parameter showed that fifty six percent of the respondents agreed that local technician are moderately available, whereas thirteen percent said they were not. Eighty-nine percent said that the output were predictable, and above average seventy one percent claimed that the skill involved could be scale down to indigenous knowledge, but thirty seven percent disclaimed this statement, and the remaining eleven percent were neutral. Eighty-four percent said that IFP does not specify gender differences in its operation, and none of the activities at any of the stages of production goes contrary to the dignity and modesty of the producers (98.5%).

Resource-use-efficiency of IFP was examined based on its ability to attract lowest possible cost of production. Sixty seven percent of the respondents rated this as moderate, twenty four percent as low, and nine percent rated it high. Also, the progressiveness of IFP production was reviewed in relation to the tendency of the system in adapting new technologies for improving the

quality of the existing products to satisfy the changing in consumers' demands. This was rated high by ninety seven percent of the respondents.

All the respondents identified water, heat energy, and space as the major supporting infrastructure in IFP production. Detailed analysis revealed that ninety three percent of the respondents had access to heat energy through Power Holding Company of Nigeria, charcoal (67.0%), and generator (48.0%). Water were made available through pipe borne water (32.0%), bore hole (57.0%), and well (62.0%).

Training involved in indigenous fabric print production (IFP)

Assessment of the type of training involved in IFP production as revealed by the respondents (98.5%) was that the training was in three phases (motifs development; fabric performance; and colour matching, shade sorting and color application). While forty two percent signified that the training involved the use of computer mainly for design (motif development and color evaluation), only twenty four percent had training in computer and appropriate software. It was revealed by ninety six percent that the training was mostly by demonstration. Assessing the benefit attached to the training apart from production, about fifty one percent signified that the

training had enhanced for them another job opportunity of becoming colour cosmetologists, and thirty nine percent as colour therapists and analyst. This then showed that if this craftwork is well exploited by the extension service, not only would it serve as a medium of empowerment, but also serve as a vital tool towards youth psychosocial development, just as the use of computer will more likely lunch them out for more opportunities.

Attitude to indigenous fabric print production

Assessments of respondents' attitude towards IFP production showed that about ninety percent has favourable attitude, and eight percent has unfavourable attitude. Seventy five percent highly accepted it as a good source of economic income. Rating the level of their willingness to participate in IFP extension services showed that, ninety one percent were highly willing, while nine percent was indifferent.

Table 1 revealed that access to extension services was very poor (72.0%), fair (19.0%), and good (9.0%). Extension activities in the study area were investigated in term of the nature and type of advisory services on IFP rendered to the people in relation to their economics activities. Eighty-six percent also rated the extension activities as poor, ten percent as fair, and four percent as good. Further

assessment revealed that seventy five percent had contact with extension services. About fifty six percent had been visited about 2-4 times within the last one year. While sixty four percent has received training on cooperative society and marketing strategies respectively, twelve percent has advisory services on health and safety, and none on IFP production. Sixty four percent of those who had contact with extension services agreed that such contacts were through non-governmental agencies. Only eleven percent ever received advisory services from governmental extension agencies.

Correlation analysis showing the relationship between IFP and other explanatory variables

The variables investigated were subjected to Pearson correlation analysis. The result represented in table 2 showed that youth empowerment had significant correlation with major economic activity ($r = 0.864$), income from IFP ($r = 0.862$), IFP progressiveness ($r = 0.801$), resource-use-efficiency ($r = 0.742$), output to time ratio ($r = 0.760$), cost profit-ratio ($r = 0.792$), type of training ($r = 0.964$), divisibility ($r = 0.744$), marketing system ($r = 0.794$), respondent's attitude towards IFP ($r = 0.806$), availability of local technicians ($r = 0.916$), cosmopolitanness ($r = 0.857$), and rate of returns ($r = 0.884$). The other variable which was significant

negatively with youth empowerment was complexity ($r = -0.841$). The above information established that, an increase in the value of the above significant variables would result in corresponding increase in the youth empowerment. These variables therefore, served as an icon pointing to the fact that, IFP project could serve as a viable extension service delivery for youth empowerment, if well orchestrated into other developmental programme design for youth development.

CONCLUSION

The study was able to identify that majority of IFP producers were youth with mean age of 270 years, who major occupation has enhanced, high degree of external orientation with high sense of confidence. The mean income of the respondents per annum was N108,000.00., and had access to formal banking facilities, but only few (18.0%) could acquire loan from the bank, due to the attached collateral security. The project could be started on a small scale with capital ranges between N3,000.00-N5,000.00., and all the processes involved at every stage of the project could be handled by an individual. The most crucial aspect of IFP project was that, the production had a very high rate of returns over time, and the demands runs throughout the year, with high market demand from different races, and class of people.

Although the respondents had contact with non-governmental extension services, but the services they rendered was not in relation to their economic activities.

It is therefore recommended that governmental extension programme be strengthened and equipped with IFP packages as part of their services to empower the youth. In addition formal credit facilities need to be well restructured and monitored, so as to curb all the unnecessary bureaucracy shielding the low class from accessing formal loan.

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Table 1: Table showing distribution of the respondent's responses to the assessment of some variables on IFP project N = 400

Variables	Remark	percentage	Frequency
Access to extension services	Poor	288.0	72.0
	Fair	76.0	19.0
	Good	36.0	9.0
Assessment of extension activities	Poor	344.0	86.0
	Fair	40.0	10.0
	Good	16.0	4.0
Assessment of the marketing system	Poor	18.0	3.0
	Fair	76.0	18.0
	Good	316.0	79.0
Attitude to IFP production	Unfavourable	32.0	8.0
	Favourable	358.0	89.5

Source: Field survey, 2006.

Table 2: Results of correlation Analysis showing the relationship between youth empowerment and selected IFP variables.

Variables	Correlation coefficient(r)	Coefficient of determination (r ²)
-major occupation	0.831**	0.691
-feasibility	0.781**	0.610
-manageability	0.791**	0.794
-complexity	0.841**	0.707
-compatibility	0.932**	0.861
-type of training	0.964**	0.929
-access to formal loan	0.069	0.005
-cost- profit ratio	0.792**	0.627
-output to time ratio	0.760**	0.578
-resource- use- efficiency	0.742**	0.551
-progressiveness	0.801**	0.642
-income from IFP	0.862**	0.743
-rate of return	0.884**	0.781
-divisibility	0.774**	0.559
-nature and type of extension service introduced	0.015	0.000
-input affordability.	0.628**	0.394
-space required	0.862**	0.743
-marketing system	0.794**	0.630
-availability of local technician.	0.916**	0.839
-type of skill.	0.774**	0.599
-supporting infrastructures	0.621**	0.385
-respondents attitude to IFP production	0.806**	0.650
-contact with extension services	0.054	0.003
-no of advisory service received.	0.110	0.012
-no of employee by the producers	0.692**	0.479
-attracted benefit.	0.868**	0.753
-cosmopolitaness attracted	0.857**	0.734

Source: Field survey, 2006.

** Significant at p = 0.05. Critical value of r is 0.196.



THE NEED FOR RURAL YOUTH INVOLVEMENT IN TECHNOLOGY GENERATION AND TRANSFER FOR SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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The concept of technology generation and its transfer for agricultural development dates back to man's history on earth. They were shaped by the prevalent socio-economic and cultural conditions. These systems have to keep pace through the ages with increase in population and dire need for white-collar jobs in urban centres by rural youth. In recent time, agricultural technology generation is by research system designed to develop improved technologies. But bringing such technologies to the end users- farmers, however appropriate from the strategic point of view, is highly resource intensive, both financially and in terms of management requirements. In the case of Nigeria, funds are inadequately and irregularly supplied to the research centres. In addition "Research-Extension Farmers Input Linkage System" is not equally given its necessary attention for it to effectively disseminate the current developed technologies to its clientele. These and other conditions have contributed in lowering the performance of the sector. This indicates that a number of important issues have to be resolved for effective technology generation and its ultimate transfer to the teeming farmers population in the country. Of course, one of the means is to develop strong and lasting linkage between technology generation and dissemination continuum is to involve youth in the processes. The paper highlights the place of youth in technology generation and transfer in the agricultural sector. Also mentioned are constraints hindering efficient generation and transfer within the system. The means of proper implementation and strengthening research-extension linkage and stimulating youth interest in Agricultural and sustainable development form part of the conclusive aspect of the paper.

Keywords: Youth involvement, Technology generation, Transfer and development.

INTRODUCTION

The general failure of development efforts to adequately address the central concerns of farmers and farming communities is reflected by major drawbacks experienced during the design and implementation of research and extension projects in the 1980s. These emerged from supply-oriented rural development strategies followed by donors, and national policy makers, which resulted in inadequate response of research and extension systems to the specific needs of farmers and/or farming communities.

The strategy adopted in this paper is to review relevant issues pertaining to technology generation and transfer in the agricultural sector under developing economy. Secondly, discuss the need for youth involvement in technology generation and transfer and major constraints associated with the dissemination of improved agricultural technologies are highlighted with the view to strengthening youth involvement effective generation and transfer system and call for relevant changes in the mechanisms of technology generation and transfer, pointing out factors hindering the development of the sector in that direction.

DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION OF CRITICAL TERMS

It is pertinent at this juncture to set out the operational definitions and/or explanation of certain key terms. This is done to achieve clarity in content and partly to establish some basic parameters for our value judgement.

Concept of youth

Youth is a period in an individual's life, which starts between the end of childhood and entry into the world of work. United Nations defined the youth as young men and women between the ages of 15-24 years (Seider, 1996). However, the definition of youth, according to age category may not satisfy the universal interest due to the variations in laws, customs, and constitution, but by implication, the youth in Nigeria may be categorised as young men and women between the ages of 13-30. Since the expected age of entry into secondary education or vocational apprenticeship training is 13, that is the age of entry into the youth, while someone above the age of 30 is not expected to participate in the National Youth service Corps (N.Y.S.C.), a youth programme for the graduate from either universities or polytechnics (Torimiro, 1998).

The youth constitutes a potent force in agricultural and rural development programmes. This category of people

According to Ekong (2003), form a very significant proportion of the population of Nigeria. Youth, according to Ekong (2003) include all categories of people with ages ranging from birth to 18 years. Such categories include infancy and early childhood (0-5 years), childhood (6-12 years), and adolescence (13-18 years).

The United Nation Convention on the right of the child described individual between age 0-18 years as Children. However, children in Agriculture programme (CYIAP) has adopted 0-18 years as the age for children based on the fact that the country recognises people over 18 years of age as mature enough to vote and be voted for at elections. Also, using the dependency factor, most people of ages up to 18 years still depend on adults for their survival, protection, provision of basic needs and development. In the same vein, CYIAP has adopted a more elastic age range for youth, which is 13-40 years, based on circumstances of poverty, unemployment and deprivation that are prevalent in Nigeria (Adedoyin, 2000).

For the concept of youths to be well understood, Jibowo (1989) and Torimiro (1995) characterised youth as possessing: innovations proneness, minimal risk aversion, faster reaction to time, less fear of failure, less conservatism, greater physical strength,

greater acknowledgement acquisition propensity, social propensity, faster rate of learning, love for adventure and preference for boldness, and these culminate in the nature of youth in rural area, which may be resourcefully applied to good agricultural production activities. However, Ijere (1998) noted that the potentials of this category of people are yet to be tapped to a greater rural development advantage. Jibowo and Sotomi (1996) in their studies of rural youth in Odeda Local Government Area of Ogun State, a rural setting have found that the youths in rural areas equally possess similar agricultural production qualities possessed by the older people, but these are yet to be resourcefully integrated into rural and agricultural development programmes in Nigeria.

Youth represent the future and hope of every country. The high resources invested in young people today have both immediate and long-term benefits. Where they exist and are functioning well, rural youth programmes play an important role in capacity building like skills, of individual young people; strengthening families and communities and working towards sustainable agricultural and rural development as a major contributor to overall progress of a country (Bie, 1996). Although, rural youths often have little or few economic assets such as land and property, Contado (1996)

remarked that they have the time, energy and intelligence needed to learn and improve their knowledge and capabilities for positive change and development. Unlike adults, who may have fixed ideas, rural youths are generally highly flexible to adjust or adopt innovations for development.

Youth also learn the skills; knowledge and aptitude (KAS) needed to cope with every day life. Enhancing these life skills has a significant impact on the lives of young people, their families and communities. Positive youth development programmes aim to provide an environment where youth become empowered through the acquisition and development of skills that explained their personal resources. It provides opportunities for moving the youth towards mutually responsible and mutually rewarding involvement with others that constitute social maturity (Coleman, 1976). Young people are also helped to develop skills and fill roles that help them acquire the characteristics of adulthood as well as self-reliance through positive youth development. These characteristics include: a sense of competence-feeling that one can make a contribution and what is done is of value of other people; a sense of belonging a feeling that one has a place where one knows one belongs; a sense of power or potency-feeling that one can exercise some control over persons, organisations and

institutions that control or try to control one's life (Bird, et al. 1998). All these virtues are good and relevant potentials for effective participation in agricultural production activities.

In a variety of relationship, young people have found meaning in experiences through interaction with other people's ideas and thinking. Youth development provides young people with a learning environment in which they interact with a wide range of people across age from young and old to peers. It also provides for young people to interact with people of varied experiences. The variety of relationships that young people are exposed to provide opportunities for modeling and observational learning (Gobeli, 1996).

Young people are vulnerable to positive influences and in particular look to adult and older youth for role models. The context for learning is a social cell or relationship, which include the attitudes and behaviours of both the adult and young person (Ekong, 2003) that contributes to development. Moreover, on the study of youth relationship, Gobeli found that young people have opportunities to draw conclusions, and make connections in relationships, through exposure to ideas, role models and new ways of looking at things that may be different from their own. Adult/youth

relationship provides an opportunity for caring, trusting relationship between youth and adult. This relationship can be characterised by situational leaderships provide opportunities for a wide variety and range of adult/youth relationships. However, the development of youth competence and confidence over a period of time means that youth initiative increases and adult directions decreases and youth become empowered as resource to their community.

An environment that is child centered provides opportunities for young people to acquire the skills that expand personal competence and confidence which are based on the personal characteristics, traits, needs and interests of each young person. Social role taking or youth participation, according to Gobeli (1996) provides a balance between self-fulfillment and service and includes a range of interaction between adult and youth. Youth take on social role in their communities contributing to the well being of others. Youth development activities provide supportive environment that other realistic expectation of young people. They provide a structure that enable young people to initiate, choose and discover from a variety of options to be involved in every issues from family to community. This supportive

environment provides opportunities for young people to be accepted and integrated into the organisation and community as resources. They have an opportunity to try out different roles and other adult activities in a safe and supportive environment. Young people also serve their communities and are seen as capable, significant and that they can achieve.

Arokoyo and Auta (1992) considered youths as people who have the age maturity but have not yet acquired the full right and duties of adult life. Like marriage and earning a livelihood both for one and for one's family. They further stressed that youths are people who are still in school, who have neither started work nor set up their homes. In addition, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1995) defined youth as "the period of time when someone is young especially the period between being a child and being fully grown. Rural youth are very vital but untapped abundant resources that need to be harnessed if there is going to be any meaningful level of development in the rural area. Since according to Ijere (1998) youth constitutes 55% of Nigeria population, a well coordinated programme that channels their energy in a productive way will yield positive benefits to the nation. However, it is worthy to note that several constraints are militating against youth participation in

agricultural activities. Therefore, efforts should be geared at devising appropriate strategies aiming at removing these constraints. By so doing, rural youths will be made to take up agricultural activities for their career and livelihood.

Technology

Ekong (2003) reported that the term "technology" could not be easily defined in absolute terms because at several stages in man's history, it has meant different things to different people in different places. Nevertheless, relevant definitions are provided. Ekong (2003) reported that, technology is "an applied science". Thus technology is seen as the outcome of scientific research, and went further to state, that most enlightened people see technology as the source of all innovations.

On the other hand, Alugo (1996) explained technology as the application of scientific knowledge including skills necessary to deploy principles, procedures, and process that can be used to modify or manipulate the behaviour of the physical world to serve a human or social purpose. The views of these authors are almost the same. Thus technology is the application of scientific ideas, which should be beneficial to humanity. Lastly, Ekong (2003) saw technology as the study which leads to acquiring

skills knowledge and procedures for making, using or doing useful things and it is the heart of any development in any country of the world.

Technology generation

Ijere (1998) posited "technology generation" as the process by which new improved, cost-effective and high-yield production methods are developed to enhance productivity of available resources, such as land, capital and management. The technology could be mechanical, biological and/or chemical. Jibowo (1987) pointed out that agricultural research generation in the research institution system is designed to produce improved technologies, and the knowledge used by the agricultural sector. However, for improved technologies to have impact on national development they should be made available to those in the productive systems. For such technologies to have significant impacts on the sector, they must be:

- economically viable,
- technologically viable,
- culturally compatible, and
- environmentally friendly.

Technology transfer

Ekong (2003) opined that technology transfer does not occur in a vacuum. It is effected within the framework of "technology development transfer application system", comprising many

agencies, corporate bodies, organisations and institutions in simple terms, "technology transfer" means the dissemination of improved or proven agricultural technologies to farmers through various agencies, corporate bodies, organisations, and institutions. Most of these improved technologies are developed in research centres.

Linkage strategy

Linkage strategy is explained here as all actions for ensuring the continuous flow of information, knowledge and resources between the various actors or components of a system or sub-system. In the remaining part of this paper, the following are reviewed

- Institutional issues in technology generation and transfer
- The research-extension linkage
- Recommendations, and
- Conclusion.

INSTITUTIONAL ISSUES IN TECHNOLOGY GENERATION AND TRANSFER

The demand for technology in the agricultural sector due to population expansion, and its adoption differ within the universe of farmers' productive systems. Therefore, effective farmers' participation in technology development and transfer has a positive influence towards the development of the sector. For example, mobilising farmers' organisations in support of research and

technology transfer is often found to be essential because it facilitates the implementation flow. It is important to state here that bringing technology to farmers, however appropriate from strategic point of view, is highly resource intensive both financially and in terms of management requirements. As earlier stated, agricultural technologies are developed in the research centres, and are disseminated through various means. These include training and outreach programmes, print and electronic media and scientific shows and exhibitions.

The issue of technology generation and transfer in the agricultural sector has taken numerous dimensions. In some countries, most especially in the less developed, unavailability of the technology could be the major factor leading to the low performance of the sector. In others, despite its availability, due to certain some constraints such as its costs and unfavourable reforms, will not significantly alleviate poverty, transform the rural areas and move the sector forward. This implies that in the presence of constraints, technology availability alone will not solve the problems of rural poverty and rural transformation. On the other hand, the demand for technology differs greatly among farmers worldwide. This is due to the differences in environmental conditions and the variations in factors of production (land, capital and

management), all of which create different technological limitations.

For example in Nigeria, problems such as the persistent power outage and the continuous drop in the value of the currency (the Naira), coupled with poor and irregular funding of the nation's agricultural research centers are clear reasons hampering the generation and transfer of improved technologies to farmers. Similarly, failure to adequately reward the inventors of certain technologies in these centres could discourage further initiatives/inventions. Due to the complexity, diversity and instability of the farm system, great care is required in selecting external stimuli to be used to produce changes in the performance of the agricultural system. Adequate resources must be assigned to enhance technology generation and transfer performances which can improve farmers' productivity and incomes while conserving natural resources. Therefore, technology must be considered within the broader frame of reference recognising the processes leading to its subsequent transfer and adoption.

THE YOUTH IN RESEARCH EXTENSION LINKAGE

A number of important issues have to be resolved for effective technology generation and transfer to farmers. For example, the linkage between research

and extension is a key area. History reveals that the two developed independently and still tend to work separately in most countries. In Nigeria the two have a profound influence on the performance of the agricultural sector and rural development. Most of the nation's agricultural research institutes and research centres have extension outlets to disseminate their current developed technologies.

Institutional issues such as land tenure arrangements, inconsistency of agricultural policies and the dwindling nature of the economy, could also be considered as additional factors that could determine the nature of technology generated and the extent of its dissemination to the end users farmers. There are many problems with the management of research extension linkages. These include funding, continuity and the way in which the mechanisms are used or the representation of the components as pointed out by Ekong (2003). The financial resources are often lacking because the activities are not always budgeted for, but if they are budgeted they are the first to be cut as soon as the system has financial problems. Recent World Bank projects in the country are clear examples of this situation. Secondly, problems may arise during linkage due to the organisation and placement of the different actors (researchers and extensionists) in the

system. This can go a long way towards reducing the effectiveness of the mechanisms. And finally, in certain cases, one does not know who in the organisation is responsible for the management of the linkages.

Ekong (2003) reported that three types of development took place in the area of linkage between research and extension for effective technology transfer system in the agricultural sector. These are:

- Functional improvements at the field level are being ensured through on-farm research initiatives.
- Structural improvements are being ensured in some countries most especially Latin America and Asia (India), either through placement of research and extension under single umbrella or through the formation of committees of people drawn from research and extension.
- Functional improvements, where research and extension are viewed as a continuum in the technology generation and transfer system and distinguished from programmes or structural improvement.

Linkage for effective technology transfer can be achieved when certain conditions are met. First, common interests and goals-between all the parties concerned. Second mutual respect (most especially between research and extension). Third, mutual

interdependence. Lastly, common funding as indicated above. Thus, research and extension in agriculture are contingent on the conditions that the motivation and goals of all those involved are consistent with each other. And a more effective linkage can establish avenues where the goals can be reconciled with each other.

There are two avenues through which such linkage could be strengthened. First, by involving extensionists in researcher-managed trials or farmer-managed trials; and second by using research scientists as subject matter specialists in support of the extension programme and adequately compensated to ensure their interest and motivation. There are two avenues through which such linkage could be strengthened. First, by involving extensionists in researcher-managed trials or farmer-managed trials; and second by using research scientists as subject matter specialists in support of the extension programme and adequately compensated to ensure their interest and motivation.

In Nigeria, considerable scope exists for improving the transfer of comprehensive viable agricultural technology packages including institutional support for poverty alleviation and the general improvement of the rural economy. To achieve these, certain conditions have

to be fulfilled.

First, the newly introduced technologies on crops production system, in particular, should focus on labour productivity and expended employment. Second, the introduced technologies should not demand large amount of working capital on the part of the farmer until viable and suitable credits and other rural financing systems are put in place. Third, the marketing channels for inputs such as seeds, fertilizer, implements, other chemicals, and output of newly introduced crops must not be excessively risk-borne. Finally, the new technologies and the crops in particular where varieties are introduced should take into account the agricultural resource base and be environmentally sound. Thus, they should ensure that soil fertility and sustainability of agriculture are considered.

The above points clearly indicate that, new technologies disseminated can be utilised more efficiently if a number of policy and institutional issues are resolved. One important means of strengthening extension services in the country is to develop strong and lasting linkage between technology generation and dissemination continuum.

Youth in agriculture

Rural youth have been found to be involved or participated in some

farming activities such as land clearing, weeding, harvesting, processing etc. However, due consideration have been given to the various hazards in which the youth are exposed in the course of their participation in farming activities. Recent studies have also revealed that majority of these farm youth, that is the rural children participating in farming activities are socialised into farming activities right from age four (Adedoyin *et al.*, 1998 and Torimiro and Lawal, 1998). These children are noted to be very significant but neglected component of farming families. Their contribution to farm/home food security and rural production activities.

Alugo (1998) in her study of farmers' children (youth) in Ife South Local Government Area in Osun State, reported that about 90 percent of youths were on farm after school hours and during holidays. Children (youth) took part in activities such as seed selection for planting, food and meat processing, food preparation and harvesting.

In a survey of rice farm in Cameroon, Futzo (1977) noted that children (youth) contribute as much as 35% labour to pre-harvest activities and 31% to harvesting activities. Jibowo (1992) reported that in South-Western Nigeria, fathers gave a small portion of land to their sons to practice their own independent farming during their spare time. He further stated that this period

female youths are physically stronger than adults.

7. Greater knowledge acquisition propensity: The eagerness to learn more is prevalent among youths than adults.

8. Social propensity: The inclination to socialize exists more among the youth than adults. The youth socialize largely to learn, avoid boredom, engage in group activities for mutual assistance and device socio-emotional support from the group.

9. Faster rate of learning: Youths learn at a faster rate than the adults. This because of the declining activities of sense organs of seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting and touching, whose activities are directly supportive of learning.

Ijere (1998) supported this position when he observed that the potentials of rural youths have not been explored and exploited to a great advantage. The degree of participation of in-school youths in agricultural activities is associated with one or more factors which in turn influence extent or level of commitment to supply an enabling environment. Zhiri (1998) identified that institutional, teachers, students, societal and subject problems affects the participation of in-school youths in agricultural activities.

CONCLUSION

A number of important issues still have to be resolved for the generation and transfer of technology relevant to the nation's farming communities. This includes improved research-extension

effective extension system, the youth constitutes a potent force. This is because youths have a number of characteristics which when nurtured and utilised, are invaluable assets to agricultural extension and rural development. The characteristics are summarised below (Jibowo, 1989), quoted in Alao (1996) sustainable development in rural Nigeria.

1. Innovation proneness: The youth are predisposed to bringing about new changes for personal, occupational and community development. They are frequently in hurry to do so.

2. Minimal risks aversion: They have little dislike for taking on matters which would lead to their personal development.

3. Faster reaction time: The youth reacts fast talk, walk, and run faster than the adult.

4. Less fear of failure: The youths ventures into the unknown readily because he has less fear of failure. This is due to the fact that in case of failure, he has opportunities for future trials; he also has little or no investments which might be threatened by failure.

5. Less conservatism: The youth years for change more than the adult. He is therefore in undeclared competition with adults who benefits from the current arrangements and therefore struggle for their preservation.

6. Greater physical strength: Male and

was usually when the child had attained the age of 10-12 years and may last till the age of 14-18 years. For children (youth) are usually employed in the transportation of farm products from the farm to their homes and nearby markets where they assist their mothers (parents) in the sale of farm produce in the market. Also farm children (youth) are seen hawking in the streets in the evening with farm produce, which are ready for sale.

In the formal school system, the National Policy on Education (NPE) stipulates that agriculture be taught as a vocational subject at the secondary school level. The policy also favours the acquisition of agricultural skills by a method of guided discovery, with students learning by doing. In this view, the 6-3-3-6 educational system which aims at producing school learners who could employ themselves provides for the teaching of agricultural sciences as a compulsory subject in junior secondary level. The implication of this is that over 4 million Nigerian children (youth) in secondary schools would have an opportunity of acquiring some basic knowledge of agricultural science at this level of education (C.B.N., 1994).

A critical factor in sustainable development is the establishment and strengthening of youth programmes. In agricultural development through an

linkage and adequate/regular funding for research centres. The paper has not specifically dealt with any of the improved technologies in the discussions. Nevertheless, such technologies have contributed in improving the farmers' productivity, both in terms of increased food production and sustainable income generation in the country. This could be through the adoption of improved technologies in the areas of improved planting materials, better agronomic practices, pest and disease control measures, harvesting, processing and packaging and storage practices. Therefore, for a more realistic development of the sector, it is necessary to have some integration of the sector in the areas of technology generation and transfer, and manpower planning and training for effective strategies for technology generation and transfer in agricultural development in Nigeria.

Based on the issues identified and discussed in this paper, the following recommendations are put forward with the view of tackling the major problems militating against effective technology generation and transfer in the country.

1. Technology development that allows resource preservation, sustainable agriculture, and employment generation at increased labour productivity is needed to move the sector forward.

2. To assist resource - poor farmers, employment needs to be directed towards capital formation.
3. Public policy has to provide an environment for technology generation, transfer and utilisation.
4. Appropriate broad-based policy and technology generation and programmes for the spread and adoption of technology must complement each other.
5. All concerned, however, should not lose track of the specific need to make technical change work in favour of the resource-poor farmers.

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SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME: ASSESSMENT OF THE SCHOOL LUNCH PROGRAMME OF OSUN STATE GOVERNMENT OF NIGERIA

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The study was designed to assess the school lunch programme of Osun State Government of Nigeria. Seven schools were randomly selected and assessed for the study. It was found that the programme was only designed for pupils in kindergarten and primary one. They all had the same food time table that was used for the entire State but there were some differentials in the type of meat and meat alternatives used, which were dictated by availability of fund. Foods were served in plates provided by the school once a day. Same portion size was given to all the children, free of charge. Provision of snack was not part of the programme. The four food plan was used to assess the food given to children. Bread and cereals had one equal serving per week while meat and meat alternatives had two servings for two days and one for every other day. Milk and milk alternatives had just one serving per week while fruits and vegetables were totally absent. 87.1 percent of the children preferred the school foods to their lunch packs and 95 percent would want steamed beans (moinmoin) to be in the menu. There was a minimum of 4.8 percent increase in enrolment. It was recommended that the school feeding programme should cover all the classes in the school and that fruit should be included in the menu. Children should also be considered in menu planning to take care of food preferences.

Keywords: children, School lunch, Diet diversification Intervention programme

INTRODUCTION

There are more children of school age, and more children going to school than ever before, around 90 percent of the world's children now survive beyond their 5th birthday. These successes raise new concerns. Ill health and nutrition compromise both the quality of life of school-age children and the potential to benefit fully from what might be the only education they receive (UNICEF, 1995). Around the world about 300 million children are continually hungry, and 100 million of them, mostly girls, do not attend school (IFPRI, 2001). School feeding is increasingly seen as a way not just to improve poor children's nutrition and education but also as a vehicle for fighting diseases. Besides, drawing poor children into school, school feeding programmes provide vital calories and nutrients (IFPRI, 2004). In less developed countries, children live with full-blown nutritional deprivation. Children who are malnourished or even experiencing short-term hunger are limited in several capacities which can be corrected by giving adequate nutritious food.

Nutritional and health status are powerful influences on a child's learning and on how well a child performs in school. Children who lack certain nutrients in their diet (particularly iron and iodine), or who suffer from protein-energy

malnutrition, hunger, parasitic infections or other diseases, do not have the same potential for learning as healthy and well-nourished children. Weak health and poor nutrition among school-age children diminish their cognitive development either through physiological changes or by reducing their ability to participate in learning experiences (Del Rosso, 1999).

Moreover, deficiencies of critical nutrients such as iodine, vitamin A and iron among the school aged are pervasive (Partnership for Child Development, 1998). Evidence suggests that children who are hungry or chronically malnourished are less able to learn. Hunger and malnutrition reduce school performance while iodine and iron deficiency are critical for cognitive development. The poverty status of most parents in Nigeria is keeping millions of children out of school in spite of the launch of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) in 1999 and the enactment of the UBE Act in 2004 aimed at achieving the United Nations Millennium Development goals of Education for All (EFA) by 2015.

A school feeding program was launched by the Nigeria government with a view to attracting more children to school. Though school enrolment has increased, statistics by the Federal Ministry of Education show that seven

million children who should be in school are presently out of school in the country. The government has begun some programmes to woo pupils back to school. One of these programmes is the introduction of a free lunch programme in school, especially in rural areas and poor urban suburbs. The pilot scheme of the free lunch programme launched recently by the Nigerian President is aimed at preventing health risks among the school children. School food service is one of the world's most extensive programmes of applied nutrition. It is supposed to provide wholesome, attractive, appealing, moderately priced meals, which meet the nutritional needs of children. These meals make an important contribution to both the mental and physical growth of the child's formative years. Through positive educational experience, the children learn to eat a variety of foods given to him or her through the feeding programme and also develop sound food habits (Todd, 2005).

Studies conducted in 2000 by the Lagos State Ministry of Education, show that 80 per cent of the population of school children especially those in public schools belong to parents of low social class who cannot adequately provide for their children's special health needs. School feeding programme have been shown to increase children's nutritional status, raise school enrollment,

improve attendance and more recently, address community health problems. This study, therefore, focuses on the Assessment of School Lunch Programme of the Osun State Government and how it has helped to reduce negative effects of malnutrition among children. Specifically, it looks out the types of school feeding programme that are available in the study area; identifies the different types of meals served, prepared and/or bought as school meals; assesses the school feeding programme and the impact of school feeding programme on enrolment in school and attendance.

METHODOLOGY

A total of seven schools were randomly selected and interviewed in the Central Local Government, Ile Ife, Osun State. Interview schedule was used to collect information from 140 pupils that were randomly selected in primary schools to source information on their socio-economic characteristics, school feeding programme characteristics, children's eating habits. The school meal was compared to the four food plan of meat and meat alternates, milk and milk products, fruits and vegetables and bread and cereals of which should have 2, 2, 4 and 4 servings per day, respectively. This was further scored to know the level of diversity in meal per day.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Age, Sex and Class of Children

Data in Table 1 indicated that 91.4 percent of the respondents were between the ages of 4 and 8 years, while 7.9 percent were between the ages of 9 and 12. Only about 0.7 percent were older than 13 years. This simply implies that majority of the children were between the ages of 4 and 8 years. The Data showed that 53.6 percent of the respondents were males while 46.4 percent were females. The data on Table 1 showed that 63.6 percent were in primary one while 36.4 percent were in the kindergarten class.

Child's Eating Habits

Breakfast before school

The data in Table 2 revealed that 92.8 percent of the children ate breakfast before going to school just as 3.6 percent did not eat breakfast. And only about 3.6 percent of the children took their breakfast to school. Although, most of these children ate breakfast but the fate of the children who don't have breakfast to eat in school is very terrible because they have the tendency of not being able to assimilate before the service of school lunch.

Number of meals per day

Data in Table 2 showed that 96.4 percent of the children ate four times daily while 2.9 percent ate three times in a day. However, only about 0.7 percent ate five times in a day. It is also important to note that these meals they

indicated that they took included school meals given to them by the government. This means that there is a probability that these children are underfed in their homes.

School Lunch Programme

School gives food daily

Data in Table 3 revealed that all the respondent (100%) claimed to have received one square meal daily from their schools. None of the schools gave the children snacks. Children were served the same portion of food via the plates provided by the school. Also children cannot ask for more food. Lunch is served by 11.00 am.

Payment for school lunch

The data in Table 3 showed that none of the children (0%) paid for the school lunch. This implies that the School Lunch Programme was made free by the government to improve education amongst other things.

Time Table review

Data measured in Table 3 showed that the meals time table was not reviewed by the government. This therefore, limits the possibility of the children to have a variety of meals and afford a supply of additional nutrients that might not be supplied adequately by previous meal time tables.

Government Support after feeding programme launch

Government supports the feeding programme fully in supply of money and materials to enhance the school feeding programme.

School Lunch Programme Characteristics

Type of school feeding programme

All the schools visited had the Government School Lunch Programme in operation. The meal was prepared in the school premises by a food vendor employed by the government. The food was apportioned by the food vendor, arranged on trays and distributed to the pupils. In all the schools, the children ate the food in their classrooms. The food was served daily in accordance with the programme's meal time table.

Diet Diversification in the School Lunch

The School Lunch was assessed against the four food plan of fruits and vegetables; bread and cereals; meat and meat products; and milk and milk products; and the numbers of servings were presented against the meal per day for each of the group. The meals were more of bread and cereals and meat and meat products. Milk and milk product was given only on Wednesday while fruits and vegetables were completely absent. However the meal for Wednesday and Thursday had double servings of meat and meat products.

Child Reaction to School Lunch

The data revealed that all the children (100 %) liked the school food. Data in Table 4 further showed that all the children (100 %) finished the food given to them by the government. This could probably mean that the food is very palatable and not served heavily such that the children could finish the food. From data in Table 4, it is observed that majority of the children (95 %) were satisfied with the programme food menu. About 1.4 percent of the respondents wanted yam to be on the menu, also 1.4 percent said that they would have preferred *eba* on the menu. However only 0.7 percent wanted *moinmoin*, macaroni and mashed beans on the menu.

It was also interesting to note that 87.1 percent of the children preferred the school meals while only 12.9 percent preferred home meals. This speaks a lot about what the majority (87.19%) of the respondents ate at home and about what the government gave them as school meals. Table 6 also revealed that 42.9 percent of the respondents were over excited about the school lunch programme and expressed so much joy, while 27.9 percent of children felt very excited. Also, about 27.9 percent were just excited about the programme, just as 1.4 percent felt well about the programme. This reveals that all the children were elated and excited about the programme which indicates that

Table 1: Distribution of personal characteristics of child

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age of child		
4-8	128	91.4
9-12	11	7.9
>13	1	0.7
Sex of child		
Male	75	53.6
Female	65	46.4
Class of child		
Kindergarten	51	36.4
Primary one	89	63.6

Table 2: Child's eating habits

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Child eats before going to school		
Yes	130	92.8
No	5	3.6
Takes it to school	5	3.6
No of times child eats/day		
Three times	4	2.9
Four times	135	96.4
Five times	1	0.7

Table 3: Distribution of school lunch characteristics

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
School gives food		
Yes	140	100
No	0	0
Number of times school gives food		
Once	140	100
Twice	0	0
School gives snacks		
Yes	0	0
No	140	100
Same portion for all		
Yes	140	100
No	0	0
Plate for food collection (food service)		
School plate	140	100
Asking for more food (extra servings)		
Yes	0	0
No	140	100
11.00am	140	100
Same time daily		
Yes	56	40
No	14	10
It's some times late	70	50
Do children pay for the lunch		
Yes	0	0
No	140	100
Time table review (school data)		
Yes	0	0
No	7	100

Table 4: Time Table for the School lunch programme of Osun State

Day	Food
Monday	Rice + stew + fish
Tuesday	Beans + stew + egg
Wednesday	Rice + Beans + <i>egusi</i> + fish + tea
Thursday	Beans + stew + fish
Friday	Rice + <i>egusi</i> + fish

Table 5: Diet Diversification in the School lunch programme of Osun State

Day	Food	Fruit & Veg.	Bread & cereals	Meat & products	Milk & Products	Score
Monday	Rice + stew + fish	0	1	1	0	2
Tuesday	Beans + stew + egg	0	1	1	0	2
Wednesday	Rice + Beans + <i>egusi</i> + fish + tea	0	1	2	1	4
Thursday	Beans + stew + fish	0	1	2	0	3
Friday	Rice + <i>egusi</i> + fish	0	1	1	0	2

Table 6: Child's Reaction to School Lunch Programme

Variable	Freq.	Percentage
Does child like the food		
Yes	140	100
No	0	0
Does child finish the food		
Yes	140	100
No	0	0
Child has allergies		
Yes	0	0
No	140	100
Food not present but child likes		
None	133	95
Moinmoin (steamed beans)	1	0.7
Yam	2	1.4
Eba (cassava flakes)	2	1.4
Macaroni	1	0.7
Beans (mashed)	1	0.7
Food preference		
School food	122	87.1
Home food	18	12.9
Child's reaction to lunch stoppage		
Stop coming	2	1.4
Go to another school with feeding programme	3	2.1
Complain	26	18.6
Others	23	16.4
Indifferent	86	61.4
Child finds it difficult to listen when hungry		
Yes	19	13.6
No	121	86.4

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Table 6: Child's Reaction to School Lunch Programme

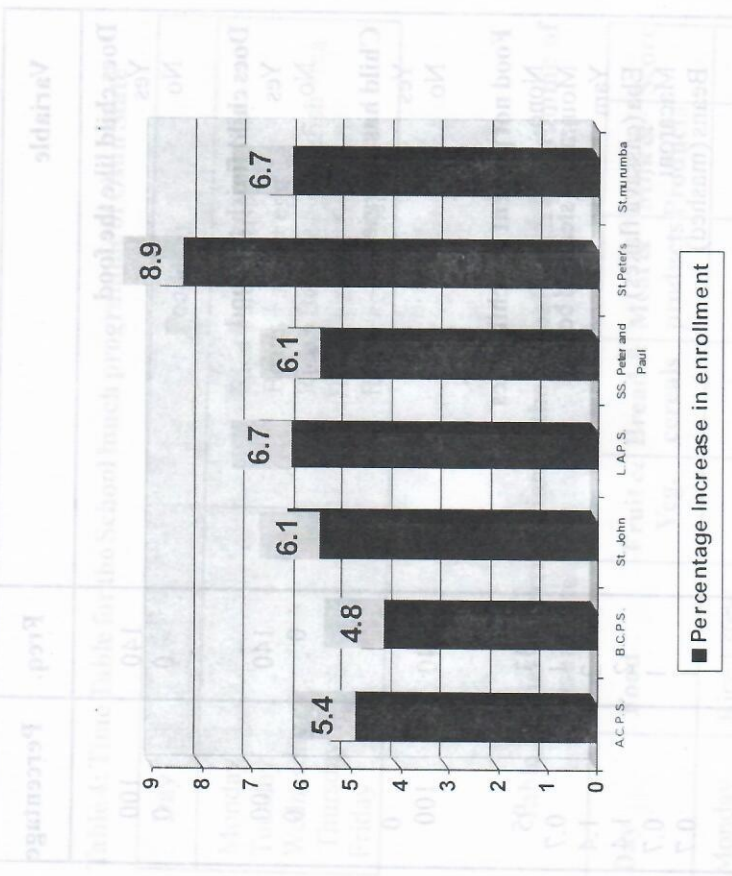


Figure 1: Increase in enrollment as a result of School Lunch Programme

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