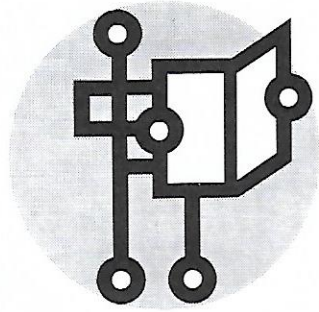


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**ANNALS OF CHILD AND YOUTH
STUDIES**

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 (CY AP-Network: visit our website www.cyiapnetwork.org for more information) held at Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode, Nigeria on the 28th November, 2006, it was resolved that a journal named Annals of Child and Youth Studies (ACYS) of the Network be established. Dr. Dixon Olutade Torimiro, an Associate Professor in the Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural 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.

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FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE EFFECT OF UNDP MICRO-CREDIT SCHEME ON RURAL YOUTH EMPLOYMENT GENERATION IN OSUN STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The study isolated crucial factors associated with the effect of the UNDP micro-credit programme on Rural Youth Employment Generation (RYEG) in Osun State, Nigeria, identify micro-credit related variables influencing RYEG, examine the changes in social and economic status of beneficiaries of the scheme, and identify the constraints associated with UNDP micro-credit scheme. The study was conducted in three Local Government Area (LGAs) with selection of one LGA from each administrative zone purposively based on LGAs with considerable number of youth participated in micro-credit scheme. A total of one hundred and twenty beneficiaries of UNDP MCS were selected for the study. Data collected through the use of structured questionnaire were analyzed using frequency counts, percentage, means, standard deviation and factor analysis. The result shows that the mean age of the beneficiaries of the scheme was 48.39 with standard deviation of 8.32 implied that the beneficiaries were at their middle ages and very active. About 50.8 percent were female, 49.2 percent were male beneficiaries. All of them belong to one social organization or the other. Majority could read and write and had large household sizes. The major observed change in social and economic status of beneficiaries was increased in their sources of income with the mean score of 3.17. Crucial factors isolated which made UNDP MCS to have effect on RYEG are personal experience, demographic factor, loan disbursement, administrative factor, group influence, employment resources and scheme monitoring strategies. The major problem encountered by the beneficiaries was lack of training of beneficiaries on skill development and business strategies. It was recommended that adequate funds should be set aside by the government, non-government agencies and other institutions with this scheme for disbursement to the beneficiaries. Also skill acquisition programmes are essential ingredients for increased productivity.

Key words: Effect, Micro-credit, Employment generation, Rural youth, Beneficiaries.

Introduction

The problem of unemployment is posing a great challenge to almost every country of the World, most especially now that the entire globe is confronted with economic meltdown. In recent times, the incidence of unemployment in Nigeria is becoming multi dimensional, deep and widespread cutting across all facets of age groups, educational strata and geographical entitles (Chen, 2000). Employment is a very important issue for the future development of Nigeria and a cardinal issue of the Millennial Development Goal. Employment is emphasized in rural economy since majority of people living in the rural areas in Nigeria are in abject poverty. This is because the rate of unemployment has been on the increase particularly among the rural youth who formed the vital source of manpower and leaders of tomorrow. This is corroborated by Gwary et. al (2008) who submitted that youth constitute an important segment of any community. He further defined youth as a state of transition between children and adulthood characterized by energy, intelligence and hope. Based on this definition, individuals within the age bracket of 15 and 50 are energetic, intelligent and full of hope and adapted for the study.

Entrepreneurial development is essential to employment generation and poverty reduction especially among the rural populace in general and rural youth in particular where

unemployment and poverty thrive. Employment generation can be achieved when individuals make use of new opportunities and taking full advantage of such opportunities. In order to reduce unemployment, government, non-government organization and even international organizations have provided different opportunities to enhance entrepreneurial development. Among all these opportunities is the UNDP micro-credit support scheme. UNDP is one of the development agencies which launched micro-credit programmes for rural communities (IFAD, 2001).

Most rural youths are jobless primarily because of lack of resources to work with and also rural areas in developing countries are facing the problem of underdevelopment in terms of physical infrastructure and these are engendering massive rural-urban drift. These rural youths therefore require assistance in the form of production credit in order to generate employment opportunities, increase their income, consequently improve their standard of living and curb their exodus from rural to urban areas in search of white-collar jobs. One of the efforts directed at poverty reduction by UNDP is micro-credit scheme which encourages formal banks and non-governmental organizations to support micro-credit for the rural youths. The UNDP micro-credit scheme was designed to help the under privileged and marginalized poor (rural youths inclusive) to have

access to credit to develop and finance productive income generating activities including farming. Availability of micro-credit and the establishment of micro-finance institutions are on the increase in Nigeria (Anyanwu, 2004). The sole aim of UNDP micro-credit support scheme in Osun State was to ensure proper financing of micro-enterprise. Micro-enterprise financing is the provision of financial services to the poor who are not served by the more conventional financial institution (CBN, 2006).

However, rural people generally found it difficult to obtain credits from formal financial institution and this led to the establishment of micro-finance institutions which UNDP made use of to disburse their credit facilities in Osun State and in other parts of the country. The establishment of micro-finance institutions has become more necessary in that CBN, (2006) indicated that the formal financial institution provide services to about 35 percent of the economically active population, while the remaining 65 percent are excluded. According to the report, the 65 percent that are excluded are often served by the informal financial sector through non-governmental organization (NGOs), micro-finance institution, money lenders, friends, relative and credit unions.

In view of the above, the broad objective of the study is to assess factors associated with the effect of

UNDP Micro-Credit Scheme (UNDPMCS) on Rural Youth Employment Generation (RYEG) in Osun State, Nigeria and specifically to identify micro-credit related variables influencing RYEG in the study area; examine the changes in social and economic status of beneficiaries of scheme; isolate crucial factors associated with the effect of UNDP micro-credit scheme on RYEG activities among the beneficiaries and identify constraints of UNDPMCS in the study area.

Methodology

The study was conducted in Osun State, Nigeria. The state has a population of 3, 423, 535 (Natural Population Commission, 2006). The State is located in the South Western part of Nigeria and lies within latitude 7° and 9° North of Equator and longitude 2.75° and 6.76° East of Greenwich Meridian. It shares common boundaries to the North with Kwara State; to the South with Ogun State; to the West with Oyo State and to the East with Ondo State. Osun State is made up of 30 Local Government Areas and 6 Administrative zones. The zones are Ede, Ife, Ikirun, Ilesa, Iwo and Osogbo. Primary data were collected for the study using a well structured questionnaire. A multi stage random sampling technique was employed in the selection of the respondents for the study. The first phase involved the purposive selection of one local

government area from each administrative zone based on the LGA with considerable number of micro-credit youth participants. The second phase involves the random selection of two villages from each LGA and ten (10) participants from each village. A total of one hundred and twenty beneficiaries of UNDPMCS were selected for the study. Data collected were analyzed using frequency counts, percentage, means, standard deviation and factor analysis to satisfy the objectives set for the study.

Results and Discussion

Age: The socio-economic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 1. Data here show that majority of the respondents (85.8%) were within the age bracket of 21 to 50 years while only 4.2 percent of the respondents were above 50 years of age.

The results revealed that many of the beneficiaries were in their youthful and active ages. This finding is supported by Adegboye and Eniolorunda, (2006) that youths are very important in the society because they are very active in anything they determine to do. The age structure of the beneficiaries of UNDP micro-credit scheme reveals that the mean age was 48.39 with the standard deviation of 8.23.

Sex: Detailed analysis shows that women benefited fairly more than men. About 50.8 percent of the respondents (beneficiaries) were

female while 49.2 percent of the respondents were male beneficiaries. The reason for more female beneficiaries than men were probably the short term condition of the loan and low interest rates of the loan which made it more appealing to women than men.

Marital Status: Majority (98.4%) of the respondents were married while 1.6 percent of the respondents were single and divorce.

Religion: Data in Table 1 also revealed that 52.5 percent of the beneficiaries practice Islamic religion, while 45.0 of beneficiaries were Christians.

Membership of Social Organization: Data in Table 1 show membership distribution of beneficiaries of UNDP Micro-credit Scheme in different social organizations. About 42.5 percent belong to religious group while, 92.5 percent were members of traders' association. Also, 33.3 percent of respondents were members of cooperative societies whist 27.5 percent belong to community-based organizations. Membership of social organizations has helped beneficiaries of UNDP Micro-credit Schemes, simply because UNDP disbursed loans to every beneficiary via groups he or she belongs to.

Household size: The results in Table 1 show that only 1.7 percent of the beneficiaries of UNDPMCS had not more than 5 household members. Majority (78.3%) of the beneficiaries had between 6 and 10 members while

14.2 percent had between 11 and 15 members. The mean household size was 8.32 and standard deviation of 3.04, this suggests large household size of the beneficiaries of UNDP micro-credit loan. The findings revealed that the beneficiaries of the scheme made use of family labor as a result of large household size. The finding agrees with Bamire et al (2002) who asserted that large family size is associated with great labor force for timely operations of employments of the beneficiaries.

External Orientation: Data in Table 1 also, show the extent to which beneficiaries of UNDP micro-credit have travelled from their places of residence to other places. The results show that 54.1 percent of the respondents travelled outside the state, while 36.0 percent travelled to other villages in their LGAs while only 0.8 percent travelled to other areas in their villages. Just 3.3 percent travelled outside the country. The results show that beneficiaries of the scheme had fairly high orientation within and outside their states. This afforded them the opportunities to mix with people belonging to different professional groups or employment activities.

Level of Education: Table 1 also show respondents' distribution based on level of education. Data in the table show that 4.2 percent had tertiary education while 31 respondents representing 25.8percent of respondents attended secondary school. Also, 25.0 percent had primary

education while 31.7 percent receive education through adult literacy programme. Only 13.7 percent never attended school. The findings show that majority of the respondents were able to read and write. The findings also corroborate the findings of Reardon (1997) that better educated individuals are more likely to migrate to take up employment opportunities in other areas, as they have greater chances of success than their less educated counterparts.

Changes in Social and Economic Status of Beneficiaries:

The results in Table 2 show the rank order of statements on social and economic statuses of beneficiaries of UNDP micro-credit loans. The statement with the highest mean score of 3.17 was increase in income generating sources. This implies that beneficiaries were able to increase their sources of income through UNDP loans. Also, increase in annual income and enhancement of savings by the beneficiaries was the statement which was ranked next to increase in income generating sources with score of 3.14.

This indicates that beneficiaries' annual incomes increased and that they were able to make savings from the profits realized from their enterprise. The statement with the least mean score of 1.66 was improved access to production resources. This might be due to the fact that the groups which the beneficiaries belong to, lack production resources such as:

land, shopping complexes, processing machine and packaging equipment, etc.

Problems Encountered by the Beneficiaries of the Scheme

The results in Table 3 show the percentage distribution of the beneficiaries of the scheme based on constraints faced by them in accessing and committing UNDPMCS loans to use major constraints encountered were lack of training of beneficiaries on skill acquisition and business strategies as proved by half (50.0%) of the respondents. Inadequate fund was the constraint given by 48.3 percent of the beneficiaries while 27.0 percent advanced short period of loan repayment as a major constraint. Non-involvement of the beneficiaries' right from the planning stages was recorded from 18.3 percent of the beneficiaries as a constraint. Only one beneficiary (0.8%) of the respondents had corruption as the major constraint.

Factors Associated with the Effect of UNDP micro-credit Scheme on Rural Employment Generation

Using Kaiser's criterion as published in Koutsoyannis (1977) decision rule, only factors having latent roots greater than one (i.e. $\lambda > 1$) were considered and retained in the analysis. The factors retained were then named based on the similarity of the features in the variables contributive to them (Table 4). Consequently, the following seven factors were identified, viz: personal experience ($\lambda=2.649$),

demographic factor ($\lambda= 1.924$), loan disbursement ($\lambda= 1.452$), administrative factor ($\lambda =1.324$), group influence ($\lambda =1.175$), employment resources ($\lambda =1.134$) and scheme monitoring strategy ($\lambda =1.035$). The variables which contributed to personal experience were the extent of training/workshops benefits by the beneficiaries with loading factors of ($L=0.704$), frequency of loan disbursement to individual beneficiary ($L=0.687$), frequency of meeting attendance ($L=0.643$) and external orientation ($L=0.495$) as shown in Table 5.

The implications of these findings are that the extent of benefits from the training or workshop organized with regards to the use of the loans given would go a long way to assist individual beneficiary. Also the more the loans are disbursed to each beneficiary the greater the effect on the rural employment generation. Furthermore, frequency of meeting attendance and external orientation would as well help beneficiaries of the scheme because these may likely expose them to greater business opportunities.

Table 5 also shows variables which contributed to demographic factors such as: age ($L=0.689$), total household size of the beneficiaries ($L=0.656$) income per annum realized ($L=0.575$) and years of schooling ($L=0.528$). Age and total household sizes of the beneficiaries would go a long way influencing the effect of the

scheme on rural employment activities generated. Also, annual income realized by each of the beneficiaries exerts influence on the effect of UNDP loan scheme on rural employment generation. Variables such as: amount of loan collected with loading factor of ($L=0.575$), group existence ($L=0.485$), decision making on loan issues ($L=0.1419$) and group strength ($L=0.3557$) had contributed to loan disbursement factor. The amount of loan collected through groups' influence had gone a long way in determining the effect of the scheme on rural employment generation. Administrative factor had variables which influenced it such as: cost of processing loans ($L=0.515$), decision making process on loan ($L=0.446$), number of training/workshop organized for the beneficiaries ($L=0.446$) and membership of social organization ($L=0.318$), group influence factor had the variables like group strength ($L=0.569$), group leadership selection ($L=0.510$), income per annum/beneficiary ($L=0.398$) and monitoring strategies on loan usage ($L=0.284$). The implication here is that group strength exerts a lot of influence on members. Employment resources was a crucial factor with variables such as group resources ($L=0.529$), number of monitoring strategies on loan usage ($L=0.404$) and groups' leadership selection pattern ($L=0.390$). When productive resources are owned by groups, members of such groups

would want to make full use of the resources and thus would go a long in assisting them in their business endeavors having accessed loan. Scheme monitoring strategies was another factor with variables such as group resources ($L=0.491$), number of monitoring strategies on loan usage ($L=0.545$), number of decision making patterns on loan issue ($L=0.378$) and number of leadership selection patterns ($L=0.335$) which were significantly contributive to the factor. The higher the number of monitoring strategies on the usage of group resources particularly loans given to individual beneficiary, the more prudent and economical, members of the group. This would further enhance group solidarity, and cohesiveness.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study revealed that respondents were in their youthful and active ages with the mean age of 48.393 years. Women were involved more than men in the scheme. The reason for more young women involvement than men might be due to short term condition of the loan and low interest rates. Majority (98.4%) of the respondents were married with mean household size of 8.32 with a standard deviation of 3.04 which suggests large household size. Majority of the respondents travelled far and wide and this facilitated their responses to employment innovations in farming and non-farming enterprises. The main change observed in socio-economic

statuses of the beneficiaries was that it has increased their savings or sources of income-generating activities. Principal factors associated with the effect of UNDP micro-credit scheme on rural employment generation are: personal experience (12.5%), demographic factors (22.7%) loan disbursement (32.1%), administrative factor (39.5%), group influence (41.5%), employment resources (53.1%) and scheme monitoring strategy (59.5%). The major constraints encountered by the beneficiaries of the scheme were lack of training of beneficiaries on skill development and business strategies (50.0%) and inadequate funds committed to the scheme (48.3%). Based on the findings from this study, the following recommendations are made so that adequate steps would be taken for the improvement of service delivery practices in the UNDP micro-credit scheme in Osun State and other parts of Nigeria.

- ❖ Credit facilities should be made available to beneficiaries adequately so as to enable them engage in more productive employment opportunities and this will increase productivity.
- ❖ The amount of loan given should be increased and this will also go a long way to influence the

beneficiaries' lives positively.

- ❖ Government should facilitate establishment or formation of more groups through which loans will be disbursed and encourage joint ownership of group resources such as land, shopping complexes, processing machines, sewing machines, etc. which can be harnessed by individuals having accessed loans through their groups.
- ❖ The process involved before securing the credit facilities should be simple while putting in place scheme monitoring strategies.

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Table 1: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

| Variables | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|------------------|-------------------|
| Age (in years) | | |
| 21-30 | 12 | 10.0 |
| 31-40 | 43 | 35.8 |
| 41-50 | 60 | 50.0 |
| 51-60 | 05 | 4.2 |
| TOTAL | 120 | 100.0 |
| Mean Age: | = 48.39 | |
| Standard Deviation | = 8.23 | |
| Sex | | |
| Male | 59 | 49.2 |
| Female | 61 | 50.8 |
| TOTAL | 120 | 100.0 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Married | 118 | 98.4 |
| Single | 01 | 0.8 |
| Widowed | 01 | 0.8 |
| TOTAL | 120 | 100 |
| Religion | | |
| Christianity | 54 | 45.0 |
| Islamic Religion | 63 | 52.5 |
| Traditional Religion | 03 | 2.5 |
| TOTAL | 120 | 100.0 |
| Membership of Social Organization | | |
| Religious Organization | 51 | 42.5 |
| Community-based Organization | 33 | 27.5 |
| Political Association | 05 | 4.2 |
| Occupational/Artisanal Organization | 25 | 20.8 |
| Village Council | 07 | 5.8 |
| Cooperative Societies | 40 | 33.3 |
| Trader's Group | 111 | 92.5 |
| Farmer's Group | 10 | 8.3 |

| Household Size | | |
|-----------------------|------------|------------|
| 1-5 Members | 02 | 1.7 |
| 6-10 Members | 94 | 78.3 |
| 11-15 Members | 17 | 14.2 |
| 16-20 Members | 06 | 5.0 |
| > 20 Members | 01 | 08 |
| TOTAL | 120 | 100 |

Mean: 8.32

Standard Deviation 3.04

External Orientation

| | | |
|------------------------------|------------|--------------|
| To Other Areas in Village | 01 | 0.8 |
| To Other Villages in the LGA | 07 | 5.8 |
| Outside the LGA | 43 | 36.0 |
| Outside the State | 65 | 54.1 |
| Outside the Country | 04 | 3.3 |
| TOTAL | 120 | 100.0 |

Level of Education

| | | |
|---------------------|------------|------------|
| Tertiary Education | 05 | 4.2 |
| Secondary Education | 31 | 25.8 |
| Primary Education | 30 | 25.0 |
| Adult Education | 38 | 31.7 |
| No Formal Education | 16 | 13.3 |
| TOTAL | 120 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014.

Table 2: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Based on Social and Economic Status of Beneficiaries of UNDP Micro-Credit Scheme.

| Observed changes in social and economic status | Very much | Much | Very | Little | None | Rank mean score | Position |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|----------|
| *Economic | | | | | | | |
| Increase in income generating sources | | | | | | | |
| | 61(50.8) | 30 (25.0) | 22 (18.3) | 7.0 (5.8) | - | 3.17 | 1st |
| Increase capacity for self reliance | 45 (37.5) | 32 (26.7) | 30 (25.0) | 40. (9.9) | 1 (0.8) | 2.86 | 4th |
| Increase in annual income | 54 (45.0) | 37 (30.8) | 21 (17.5) | 8 (6.6) | - | 3.14 | 2nd |
| Expansion of business enterprises | 37 (3.8) | 23 (19.2) | 32 (26.7) | 15 (12.5) | 9 (7.5) | 2.25 | 9th |
| Increase in number of employee | 28 (23.3) | 33 (27.5) | 30 (25.0) | 13 (10.8) | 2 (1.7) | 2.35 | 8th |
| Improved access to production resources | | | | | | | |
| | 18 (15.0) | 12 (10.0) | 30 (25.0) | 32 (26.7) | 28 (23.3) | 1.66 | 12th |
| Enhanced savings | 21 (17.5) | 30 (25.0) | 24 (20.0) | 16 (13.3) | 30 (25.0) | 3.14 | 2nd |
| *Social | | | | | | | |
| Increasing in food consumption patterns | | | | | | | |
| | 29 (24.2) | 36 (30.0) | 30 (25.0) | 21 (18.0) | 3 (2.5) | 2.56 | 5th |
| Increasing in membership of social organization | 21 (18.0) | 36 (30.0) | 30 (25.0) | 33 (28.0) | 10 (8.3) | 2.10 | 10th |
| Wider participation in group's decision making | 30 (25.0) | 36 (30.0) | 27 (23.0) | 15 (12.5) | 11 (9.2) | 2.48 | 7th |
| Participation in growth development planning | | | | | | | |
| | 18 (15.0) | 24 (20.0) | 28 (23.3) | 31 (26.0) | 19 (16.0) | 1.91 | 11th |
| Increase in number of articles of convenience owned | 30 (25.0) | 32 (27.0) | 34 (28.3) | 21 (18.0) | 2 (1.6) | 2.53 | 6th |

Percentage in parenthesis. Multiple responses were given.

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 3: Percentage distribution of respondents based on the constraints encountered on the scheme

| Constraints | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Lack of training of beneficiaries on skill development & business strategies | 60 | 50.0 |
| Inadequate fund committed to the scheme | 58 | 48.3 |
| Short period of loan repayment | 32 | 27.0 |
| Non-involvement of the beneficiaries right from the planning stage | 22 | 18.3 |
| Inadequate motivation from the government | 21 | 17.5 |
| Poor monitoring of the scheme by the government/agency concerned | 14 | 11.7 |
| Business failure | 7 | 5.8 |
| Instability in governance of the country | 2 | 1.6 |
| Problem of corruption among leaders | 1 | 0.8 |

Multiple responses were given

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 4: Principal Component Analysis of Factors Associated with the Effect of UNDP micro-credit Scheme on Rural Employment Generation

| S/N | Factor Label Names | Eigen Value | Proportion Variance | Percentage Variance | Cumulative Percentage Variance |
|-----|----------------------------|-------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. | Personal Experience | 2.649 | 0.125 | 12.5 | 12.5 |
| 2. | Demographic factor | 1.924 | 0.102 | 10.2 | 22.7 |
| 3. | Loan Disbursement | 1.452 | 0.094 | 9.4 | 32.1 |
| 4. | Administrative Factor | 1.324 | 0.074 | 7.4 | 39.5 |
| 5. | Group Influence | 1.175 | 0.670 | 7.0 | 46.5 |
| 6. | Employment Resources | 1.134 | 0.660 | 6.6 | 53.1 |
| 7. | Scheme Monitoring Strategy | 1.035 | 0.639 | 6.4 | 59.5 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 5: Variables contributing to factors associated with the effect of UNDP micro-credit Scheme on rural employment generation

| S/N | Factor and contributing variables | L | L ² | ΣL ² |
|-----|---|-------|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. | Personal Experience | | | |
| | The extent of training/Workshop benefits by the beneficiaries | 0.704 | 0.496 | |
| | Frequency of loan disbursement | 0.687 | 0.472 | 1.211 |
| | Frequency of meeting attendance | 0.495 | 0.245 | |
| 2. | Demographic factor | | | |
| | Age | 0.689 | 0.475 | |
| | Household size | 0.656 | 0.430 | 1.52 |
| | Income (per annum) | 0.575 | 0.331 | |
| | Years of schooling | 0.528 | 0.279 | |
| 3. | Loan Disbursement | | | |
| | Amount of loan collected | 0.575 | 0.331 | |
| | Group existence | 0.485 | 0.235 | |
| | Decision making on loan | 0.142 | 0.020 | 0.71 |
| | Group strength | 0.356 | 0.127 | |
| 4. | Administrative Factor | | | |
| | Cost of processing loans | 0.515 | 0.265 | |
| | Decision making on loans | 0.446 | 0.199 | |
| | Number of training/workshop organised | 0.446 | 0.199 | 0.76 |
| 5. | Group Influence | | | |
| | Membership of social organisation | 0.318 | 0.101 | |
| | Group strength | 0.569 | 0.324 | |
| | Group leadership selection | 0.510 | 0.260 | 0.82 |
| | Income/per annum | 0.398 | 0.158 | |
| 6. | Employment Resources | | | |
| | Monitoring strategies on loan usage | 0.284 | 0.081 | |
| | Group resources | 0.529 | 0.278 | |
| | Monitoring strategies on loans | 0.404 | 0.163 | 0.59 |
| 7. | Groups' leadership selection | | | |
| | Groups' leadership selection | 0.390 | 0.152 | |
| | Scheme Monitoring Strategies | | | |
| | Group resources | 0.491 | 0.241 | |
| | Monitoring strategies on loans | 0.545 | 0.297 | |
| | Decision making patterns on loans | 0.378 | 0.143 | 0.793 |
| | No of leadership selection patterns | 0.335 | 0.112 | |

Significant contributing at $P \leq 0.01$; L = Loading factor $L^2 =$ the square of loading $\sum L^2$
 latent root for factor **Source:** Data analysis, 2014

DETERMINING THE PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON THE IN-SCHOOL YOUTH ATTITUDE TOWARD AGRICULTURE AS A CAREER IN OGUN STATE, NIGERIA.

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Abstract

The paper determined the influence of parents on the attitude of in-school youth toward agriculture in Ogun State, Nigeria. A multistage stage sampling procedure was used to select the respondents. Data were gathered through structured interview schedule from 210 students were proportionately selected from Senior secondary schools in four Administrative Zones of the states. Data collected were analyzed using appropriate descriptive and inferential statistical tools. The result showed that the respondents had a mean age of 17 ± 1.92 years and 51.9 per cent were male, also majority (71.4 %) were Christians. 72.2 per cent were indigenes while 92.4% had travelled outside their immediate environment. Majority (79.5%) of their parents belong to active age group (30-60 years) with mean household size of 2.11 ± 0.7 . Only 25% of their parents were farmers and 34.7% were traders. 66.2% of them had less than 0.7 ha of land. In crop production activities, respondents participated well in mulching (mean = 2.56), storage of produce (mean = 2.56) and processing and packaging (mean = 2.40). While in animal production activities, animal slaughtering (mean = 2.28), collection and grading of eggs (mean = 2.28), pen cleaning and sanitation (mean = 2.26) and giving water to farm animals (mean = 2.10) were activities where the respondents participated well. There were significant association between respondents' level of participation in agricultural activities and their religion affiliation ($\chi^2=19.670$; $p \leq 0.01$) and nativity ($\chi^2=10.397$, $p \leq 0.01$). There were positive significant relationship between age ($r=0.42$; $p \leq 0.01$), cosmopolitanness ($r=0.61$; $p \leq 0.01$), nativity ($r=0.50$; $p \leq 0.01$), membership in social organization ($r=0.64$; $p \leq 0.01$) and participation in agricultural activities. Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that the participation of in-school youths in agricultural activities was very low in spite of their parental influence due to the negative attitude that they have

towards agriculture. It was recommended that motivational programmes on agriculture should be organized for these youths.

Keywords: participation, parental influence, in-school youths, attitude, agricultural activities

Introduction

The roles of agriculture remain significant in Nigeria economy despite the strategic importance of the oil sector. Agriculture primarily provides employment for Nigerians and accounts for more than one third of total Gross Domestic Product (GDP). More than 70% of the working adult populations in Nigeria are employed in the agricultural sector directly or indirectly and over 90% of Nigeria's agricultural outputs come from peasant farmers who dwell in rural areas (Abubakar 2011).

The reliance on agriculture for food production and food security at domestic, regional and global levels depend on youth productive force. This is the generation which is expected to rise in the coming years for food production and food security (Proctor and Lucchese, 2012). Also the contribution of agriculture to farmers' income and rural development depends on the active participation of youth who are the potential labour force. They are characterized by innovative behaviour, minimal risk aversion, less fear of failure, less conservativeness, greater physical strength and greater knowledge

acquisition propensity (Umeh *et al.*, 2011).

In addition youths represent the most active segment of the population and the engine that do most productive work of the society (Adesope, 1996). The youths have also been identified as constituting the major resource base for any country which wants to embark on any meaningful agricultural and rural development projects (Onuekwusi, 2005).

Ugwokwe, Adesope and Ibe (2005) also noted that youths have been part of the overall agricultural development process in Nigeria because of the immense contribution of agriculture to the economy. In many countries youth integration in agricultural activities is important for the development of agricultural sector. This is because that youths have potential to overcome some major constraints in agriculture development as they are more open to new ideas and practices than adult farmers (Daudu, 2009) Though youth have desirable qualities that can promote agriculture, most of them have strong apathy toward it. This has resulted in mass unemployment and lack of sustainable livelihood among youth. With fewer youth into agriculture, the long term

future of agriculture sector is in question (Chikezie, 2012). Adebayo *et al* (2006) noted that despite their (youths) rich rural life, farming background and experience, rural youths are yet to actively and productively participate in the development of the nation's agricultural sector.

Apantaku (2004) also stated that most of the students mostly youth do not like and would not practice agriculture as a career or study it in college because of the drudgery involved in Nigerian agriculture, parents and peer influence, low prestige associated with farming in Nigeria, and low/slow cash return/profit. Apart from these, field cultivation and other farming activities in secondary schools are being used as punishment by school authorities; agricultural activities also have poor image and are usually looked down upon by youths because it is believed that only the nonentities or failures that engaged in such acts. Agassizade (2005) also came up with the factors that make young people reluctant to take up agriculture as career and participate in agricultural activities. These include difficulty of agricultural work, poor career prospects, low income, lack of necessary facilities for agriculture, lack of facilities in rural areas, lack of attention to the agricultural from community, lack of policy makers and organization's

attention to agriculture, and the lack of young interest to agriculture.

Adokan and Baleshvid (2008) stated reasons why students join the " Future Farmers of America " organization and agricultural activities. He showed that the youths whose parents are already members of this organization are most willing to do so. In the same vein, children's family background and home experiences are found to exert powerful influences over their professional career (Faulkner, 2009). However in Nigeria, parents who are doctors, nurses, lawyers, politicians, members of the armed forces and other professions desire that their children take after them in their careers but this is not so in the agricultural profession. The farmers wish their children to become professionals in other fields such as law, medicine, accounting, and engineering and not agriculture. Their reason was the arduous way of life and suffering they experienced in farming. Thus, youths participation in agricultural activities will be affected by the influence of their parents since no parents want to encourage their children to take up farming profession because people have negative impression about agricultural activities, they often believe that only nonentities or failures engaged in farming activities.

According to Nnadi and Akwiwa (2008), the background and orientation of the youths by virtue of their parents' occupation would influence their desires, interests and engagements. Similarly, youth whose parents are farmers have greater probability of participating in agriculture than youths whose parents are not farmers. Parents who encourage their children to take agricultural activities sometimes influence them to commit to those activities full-time. The earlier a youth is introduced to an interest area, the more time he has to explore it and strengthen his skills. Some people choose a career simply because by adolescence they have been involved in it so long feels like second nature. The activities parents choose for their children also influences career selection (Williams, 2015). Since parents exert great influence on children's career (in-school youths), hence, there is need to investigate influence of parents on the attitude of in-school youths' participation in agricultural activities in Ogun State.

Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study was to determine parental influence on the in-school youth attitude toward agricultural activities in Ogun State, Nigeria. The specific objectives were to:

- (1) describe the personal characteristics of in-school youths participating in agricultural activities in the study area;
- (2) describe socio-economic characteristics of the parents of in school youths; and
- (3) identify the various agricultural activities in which the in-school youths participated in.

Hypothesis of the study

There is no significant relationship between participation of in-school youths in agricultural activities and their personal characteristics.

Methodology for the study

The study was conducted among in-school youths of ages 12–24 years in Ogun State, Nigeria. Multistage sampling procedure was used to select respondents. One local Government area (LGA) was randomly selected from each of the 4 administrative zones, Ilaro from Yewa zone, Ijebu North from Ijebu zone, Sagamu from Remo zone and Ifo from Egba zone. 20 per cent of all the secondary schools were proportionately selected in all the chosen LGAs to have Ilaro (3) Ifo (2), Ijebu North (4) and Sagamu (3) with a total of 12 secondary schools. And finally, 5 per cent of all the senior secondary school students in the chosen secondary schools were randomly selected. A total of 210 students were interviewed for the study. Validated

and pre-tested interview schedule was used to elicit information on personal characteristics of the respondents, the personal and socio-economic characteristics of their parents and agricultural activities they participated in. The data were summarized using descriptive statistics while Chi-Square and Correlation analyses were used to make inferences from the hypothesis.

Measurement of variables

The dependent variable was conceptualized as level of participation of in- youth in agricultural activities. The dependent variable was measured by calculating total participating score of each respondent from various indicators arising from various areas of agricultural activities (crop productions and animal production). The reaction was against a 5-point scale Likert type scales of participation ranging from Never Participate (1 point), Seldomly Participate (2 points), Occasionally Participate (3 points), Regularly Participate (4 points) and Always Participate (5 points) as used by Baba *et al.*,(2014). The total score per respondent was further classified into three categories as follows: low, moderate and high level of participation using mean of total participation score plus/minus standard deviation

Results and discussion

Personal characteristics of the respondents

Results in Table 1 revealed that 57.6 percent of the in-youths were above 16 years, while 41.4 per cent were between 13-16 years and only 1.0 percent were 12 years and below. Their average age is 17 years with standard deviation of 1.92. These is in line with Jibowo and Sotomi (1996) who observed that youths are between the ages of 12-24 years are creative, energetic and innovative and always ready for productive activities, therefore, these qualities should be harnessed by motivating and encourage them to participate in agricultural activities. About 52 percent were male while almost average (48.1%) were female, this implies there is little differences in school enrollment of boys and girls in the study area. Majority (72.2%) were indigenes while few (27.8%) were non-indigenes. This implies both indigenes and non-indigenes in the study area value education by sending their wards and children to school. Average (50.9%) of the respondents was 3rd, 4th, and above 4th born of their family while few (49.1%) were 1st and 2nd born of their family. This shows that they were mostly from large households. This finding is agreement with Adisa (2001) that majority of rural households in the Southwestern Nigeria are large households.

Furthermore, it was observed that social organization the respondents belonged to was in this order Young Farmer's Club(38%), Literal and Debating Society(37.1%), Man-O-War (35,7%), Cultural Group (33.8%), Red Cross Society(32.4%), Action Health Club (30%), Jet Club (27.1%) and 4H Club (20%). This implies that participation in social organization like young farmer's Club might influence their participation in agriculture. Vast majority 92.4% claimed that they had traveled outside their communities; this means that they had high level of exposure which might assist them in their academic performance.

Results in Table 2 revealed that majority (79.5%) percent of the respondent belong to active age group (30-60 years old) while few (19.1%) were above 61 years old. 32.3 percent of the respondent parent were traders, 25.2 percent were farmers, 12.9 percent were civil servants while 29 percent belonged to other professions. Majority (71.15) of respondent parent had family farm with average farm size of 0.75 há. In addition, vast majority (87.2%) had less than 1 ha of farmland as family farm while 12.4 percent had more than 1 ha farmland. This implies that most parents in the study area practised subsistence farming and since background and orientation of the youths by virtue of their

parents` occupation would influence their desires, interests and engagements and also provide opportunities for their children to practise agriculture. Majority (74.3%) of the parents moderately influenced and encouraged their children to take up agriculture as a profession and also to engage in agricultural activities, 8.8 percent of the parent exerted high influence on them to participate in agricultural activities while few (17%) were indifferent. This may be attributed to the fact that many of their parents were living in rural communities and they had their own farm where they practised subsistence farming. 60 percent of respondent parents had secondary education, few (23.8%) attended primary schools while 16.2 percent had post-secondary education, which implies majority of their parents were well educated and this might influence their career guidance of their children to take up agriculture as a profession. Vast majority (96.2%) percent had traveled out of the community while only 3.8 percent had not out their community. The implication of their travelling experience will increase their production, easy disposal of farm produce for better price and profit. This could influence them to send some of their children to schools. Majority (74.7%) belonged to one social organization or the other while the

remaining (25.3%) did not belong to any rural social organization. This could influence their parents to discover and guide their wards, the prospect and opportunities in agriculture as a profession.

Participation in land preparation and planting activities

Results in Table 3 revealed that the highest level participation in land preparation and planting activities among the respondents was on transplanting (2.83), followed by seed dressing (2.70), tree felling (2.48), planting of seeds (2.37), stumping (2.30), land clearing (2.28) in that order. Comparing their individual means to grand mean (2.38), their level of participation in most of these activities is very low because it is only transplanting, seed dressing and tree felling that they participated well. Their participation is very low in other land preparation activities; this could be attributed to the fact that students are not interested, creative and innovative in agriculture. Most of them would not want soil their hands, perceived field work as dirty job and meant for erring ones.

Participation in post-planting activities

Results in Table 4 revealed that mulching (mean = 2.56) ranked the highest among the post planting activities in which respondents

participated, followed by storage of produce (mean = 2.56), processing and packaging (mean = 2.40), marketing (mean= 2.34), weeding (mean= 2.00) in that order. Comparing each individual means with the post planting grand mean (2.07), it shows that the in-school youth were participating well in the following post planting activities mulching, storage of produce, processing and packaging and marketing. This might be as result of the fact that these activities are less strenuous and motivated seeing their parent doing them.

Parental contributions/influence on youth participation in agricultural activities

Results in Table 4 showed that my parent wanted me to take over his farming activities (mean=3.35) was ranked highest, followed by my participation in agricultural activities was as a result of the advantages my parents to me (mean=3.08), my parents were educated farmers (mean=2.92), my father encouraged me to take up farming activities (mean=2.90), my parents were not interested in my participation in agricultural activities (mean=2.87) and my parents discouraged me from taking up agricultural activities (mean=2.83).

Participation in animal production activities

Results in Table 6 revealed that participation level among the respondents was highest on animal slaughtering(2.28) and collection and grading of eggs (2.28), followed by pen cleaning and sanitation (2.26), giving water to farm animals(2.10), dressing of slaughtered animals (2.03) and purchase and transport of feeds(2.03), marketing of animals(1.99) in that order. Comparing each of the individual means with the grand mean for animal production activities (2.08), in-school youth only performed well in few of these activities this might be because many of their parents engaged only in crop production activities rather than animal production activities.

Hypothesis testing

Results in Table 7 revealed that at 0.05 level of significance, religion affiliation ($\chi^2=19.670$); and nativity ($\chi^2=10.397$) of the respondents had significant association with level of participation in agricultural activities. Whereas sex ($\chi^2=0.991$) and position in family ($\chi^2=21.46$) had no significant association with the level of respondent participation in agricultural activities.

Results in Table 8 revealed that at 0.01 level of significance, respondents' age ($r=-0.42$), cosmopolitaness ($r=0.61$) and membership of organization ($r=0.64$) had significant relationship

with level of participation in agricultural activities. Thus, the higher the age of the in-school youth, the higher the level of participation in agricultural activities, this could be attributed to increasing consciousness and self-realization of the importance of agriculture with age based on experience. This finding is in agreement with Nnadi and Akwiwu, (2008). Also the more they are involved in school organisations like Young Farmer Club, the higher their participation in agricultural activities.

Conclusion and recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, although in-school youths are involved in some agricultural activities due to their parental influence and family background, they generally show unfavourable attitude towards participating in agricultural activities. It was recommended that government and other relevant agencies should organize motivational programmes like field trips and excursions for in-school youths. Also parents should intensify their efforts to encourage their youths to choose agriculture as a career and school farms should not be used as site for punishing school offenders. These will encourage them and stimulate their greater participation in full-

time agriculture and increase food production.

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Table 1: Distribution of respondents by selected personal characteristics

| Personal Characteristics | Frequency | Percentage | Mean | Std Deviation |
|---------------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------|----------------------|
| Age | | | | |
| Below 12yrs | 2 | 1 | | |
| 13- 16yrs | 87 | 41.7 | 16.86 | 1.92 |
| Above 16yrs | 121 | 567.6 | | |
| Sex | | | | |
| Male | 109 | 51.9 | | |
| Female | 101 | 48 | | |
| Nativity | | | | |
| Indigene | 148 | 72.2 | | |
| Non-indigene | 64 | 27.8 | | |
| Length of residency(yrs) | | | | |
| < 3 yrs | 5 | 2.4 | 2.39 | 1.18 |
| 3-6 yrs | 2 | 1 | | |
| > 6yrs | 203 | 96.6 | | |
| Position in the Family | | | | |
| 1 st and 2 nd | 103 | 49.1 | | |
| Others | 107 | 50.9 | | |
| External orientation | | | | |
| Had traveled | 194 | 92.3 | | |
| Never travelled | 16 | 7.7 | | |
| Social organisation membership | | | | |
| Young farmer's Club | | 38 | | |
| Literal&Debating Society | | 37.1 | | |
| Man-O-War | | 35.7 | | |
| Cultural Group | | 33.8 | | |
| Action Health Club | | 30 | | |
| Jet Club | | 27.1 | | |
| 4H Club | | 20 | | |

Source: Field survey, 2014,

Table 2: Distribution of respondents by selected personal and socio economic characteristics of parents (n=210)

| Personal Characteristics | Frequency | Percentage | Mean | Std Deviation |
|---------------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------|----------------------|
| Age (Father) | | | | |
| Below 30 yrs | 3 | 1.4 | | |
| 30-60yrs | 167 | 79.5 | | |
| Above 61yrs | 40 | 19.1 | | |
| Sex | | | | |
| Male | 170 | 81.0 | | |
| Female | 21 | 10 | | |
| Parental influence | | | | |
| No influence | 36 | 17.1 | | |
| Moderate influence | 156 | 74.3 | | |
| High influence | 18 | 8.6 | | |
| Occupation | | | | |
| Trading | 68 | 32.8 | | |
| Farming | 53 | 25.2 | | |
| Civil service | 27 | 12.9 | | |
| Others | 62 | 29.1 | | |
| Educational level | | | | |
| Primary school | 50 | 23.8 | | |
| Secondary school | 126 | 60 | | |
| Post secondary | 34 | 16.2 | | |
| External orientation | | | | |
| Had traveled | 202 | 96.2 | | |
| Never travelled | 8 | 3.8 | | |
| Social organisation membership | | | | |
| Yes | 160 | 74.7 | | |
| No | 40 | 25.3 | | |
| Family farm ownership | | | | |
| Yes | 153 | 71.1 | | |
| No | 57 | 28.9 | | |
| Farm size | | | | |
| | | | | 27 |

| | | | |
|-----------|-----|------|-----|
| (hectare) | | | |
| < 1 ha | 184 | 87.4 | 0.7 |
| >1 ha | 26 | 12.4 | |

Source: Field survey, 2014

Table 3: Rank-order of the contribution of parental influence on respondent participation in agricultural activities

| Statement | SA % | A % | U % | D % | SD % | Mean | Rank mean |
|--|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|------|-----------------|
| My children must be farmers to take over my farming activities | 27.1 | 31.4 | 12.9 | 6.7 | 21.9 | 3.35 | 1 st |
| My parents are educated farmers | 13.3 | 31.4 | 15.2 | 19.2 | 14.8 | 2.92 | 3 rd |
| My participation agricultural activities is as result of the advantages my parents told me | 19.0 | 30 | 12.7 | 18.6 | 16.7 | 3.08 | 2 nd |
| My parents are not interested in my participation in agric. Activities | 11.4 | 30 | 9.5 | 34.3 | 15 | 2.87 | 5 th |
| My parents discourage me from taking up agric. as profession | 17.1 | 30 | 6.7 | 24.3 | 18.1 | 2.83 | 6 th |
| My parents encourage me to take up farming activities as profession | 15.3 | 26.1 | 19 | 20 | 13.3 | 2.90 | 4 th |

Grand mean = 2.99, * multiple responses SA – strongly agree, A-agree, U – undecided, D- disagree, SD- strongly disagree

Source: Field survey, 2014

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by participation in land preparation and planting activities (n=210)

| Activities* | Never Freq | Seldomly Freq | Occasionally Freq | Regularly Freq | Always Freq | Mean | Rank order |
|--------------------|------------|---------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------|------|-----------------|
| Land clearing | 87 | 34 | 47 | 26 | 16 | 2.28 | 6 th |
| Tree felling | 86 | 23 | 28 | 39 | 24 | 2.48 | 3 rd |
| Controlled burning | 113 | 27 | 21 | 31 | 18 | 2.11 | 7 th |
| Stumping | 95 | 27 | 35 | 34 | 19 | 2.30 | 5 th |
| Heap making | 124 | 27 | 22 | 19 | 18 | 1.95 | 8 th |
| Seed dressing | 61 | 48 | 34 | 26 | 41 | 2.70 | 2 nd |
| Planting of Seeds | 98 | 25 | 30 | 26 | 31 | 2.37 | 4 th |
| Transplanting | 60 | 40 | 29 | 36 | 45 | 2.83 | 1 st |

Grand mean=2.38, * multiple responses **Source:** Field survey, 2014**Table 5 : Distribution of respondents by participation in post-planting, processing and marketing activities (n=210)**

| Activities | Never Freq | Seldomly Freq | Occasionally Freq | Regularly Freq | Always Freq | Mean | Rank order |
|------------------------|------------|---------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------|------|------------------|
| Supplying | 81 | 53 | 35 | 21 | 20 | 1.91 | 6 th |
| Thinning | 98 | 37 | 37 | 27 | 11 | 1.66 | 11 th |
| Weeding | 112 | 33 | 28 | 26 | 11 | 2.00 | 5 th |
| Mulching | 68 | 39 | 41 | 42 | 20 | 2.56 | 1 st |
| Fertilizer application | 103 | 25 | 31 | 33 | 18 | 1.80 | 9 th |
| Herbicide application | 122 | 27 | 34 | 13 | 14 | 1.90 | 7 th |
| Compost application | 117 | 27 | 27 | 13 | 15 | 1.80 | 9 th |
| Harvesting | 127 | 25 | 28 | 23 | 7 | 1.85 | 8 th |
| Processing & packaging | 88 | 31 | 31 | 36 | 24 | 2.40 | 3 rd |
| Storage | 77 | 34 | 39 | 36 | 24 | 2.50 | 2 nd |
| Marketing | 83 | 48 | 24 | 34 | 21 | 2.34 | 4 th |

Grand mean=2.07; **Source:** Field survey, 2014,

Table 6: Distribution of respondents by participation in animal production activities (n=210)

| Activities | Never Freq | Seldom Freq | Occasionally Freq | Regularly Freq | Always Freq | Mean | Rank mean |
|---------------------------------|---------------|----------------|----------------------|-------------------|----------------|------|------------------|
| Pen cleaning | 99 | 30 | 29 | 32 | 20 | 2.26 | 3 rd |
| Purchase and transport of feeds | 115 | 23 | 41 | 12 | 19 | 2.03 | 5 th |
| Feeding | 116 | 27 | 31 | 20 | 10 | 1.87 | 9 th |
| Egg collection & grading | 97 | 28 | 33 | 33 | 19 | 2.28 | 1 st |
| Watering of animals | 115 | 23 | 26 | 28 | 18 | 2.10 | 4 th |
| Animal slaughtering | 99 | 22 | 41 | 27 | 21 | 2.28 | 1 st |
| Carcass dressing | 120 | 24 | 19 | 34 | 13 | 2.03 | 5 th |
| Sexing | 130 | 33 | 16 | 19 | 12 | 1.89 | 8 th |
| Mating | 132 | 27 | 32 | 8 | 11 | 1.76 | 10 th |
| Marketing | 118 | 28 | 26 | 25 | 13 | 1.99 | 7 th |

Grand mean = 2.08; * multiple responses

Source: Field survey, 2014

Table 7: Chi-square analysis between personal characteristics and level of participation (n=210)

| Personal characteristics | χ^2 | D.F | P value | Decision |
|--------------------------|----------|-----|---------|----------|
| Sex | 0.991 | 2 | 0.91 | NS |
| Religion affiliation | 19.670* | 4 | 0.03 | S |
| Nativity | 10.397* | 6 | 0.03 | S |
| Position in family | 2.146 | 4 | 0.707 | NS |

*significant at $p \leq 0.05$, Source: Field survey, 2014

Table 8: Result of correlation analysis between level of participation and respondent personal characteristics (n=210)

| Personal Characteristics | Correlation Coefficient (r) | P- value | decision |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Age | 0.42** | 0.05 | S |
| Cosmopolitenesss | 0.61** | 0.01 | S |
| Class in school | 0.55 | 0.709 | NS |
| Membership of organization | 0.64** | 0.002 | S |
| Length of residency | -0.231 | 0.442 | NS |
| Household size | -0.106 | 0.455 | NS |

** significant at $p \leq 0.01$, **Source:** Field survey, 2014

ABANDONED AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: EFFECT ON YOUTHS' PARTICIPATION IN AGRICULTURE IN ONDO STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The study assessed the effect of abandoned agricultural development projects on the youth participation in agricultural and rural development activities in Ondo State Nigeria. It specifically identifies types of abandoned projects in the rural communities of the study area and determines the rural youth perception of effects of this abandonment of their future participation agricultural development projects. A multi-stage sampling procedure was used for sample selection. In the first stage, three Local Government Areas (LGAs) were purposively selected 'n the second stage, simple random sampling technique was used to select two rural communities in each LGA selected and lastly, at the third stage, snow – ball sampling technique was to select 18 youths from each rural community selected. In all, one hundred and eight (108) youths were selected for the study. Structure Interview Schedule used to elicit qualitative and quantitative data from the respondents. The data collected were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The mean age of respondents was 21.91 ± 9.58 years while majority (73.1%) percent had secondary school education. Significant associations were found between the effect of abandoned agricultural development project and sex ($\chi^2 = 25.429$; $P \leq 0.05$), marital status ($\chi^2 = 58.578$; $P \leq 0.05$). Also, there were positive regression coefficient between the years spent in formal education ($b = 0.114$) and year of residence ($b = 0.170$) and the effect of abandoned agro-development project on the level of participation of youth in agricultural development project. In conclusion, abandonments of agricultural development projects had negative effect on future participation of youth in agricultural activities, and as such sustainability of agricultural related enterprises may also be affected negatively, if agricultural advisory services are not giving attention it deserves in the country.

Introduction

Earlier conception of the term 'community development' had a different emphasis. At least with respect to tropical Africa, the idea of community development project was first conceived by the colonial office in Britain in 1920s as a special development model for rural areas of its dependent territories (Ekong, 2010). However, the pre-colonial agricultural development strategy was with colonial master's interest to boost their domestic industries using African countries as a raw material production center, thus their development scheme fade off just like the British cotton grower association which acquired a 10.35 kilometer square of land on Moore plantation Ibadan in 1910 for the purpose of cotton production, to boost their local textile industry back then in Britain and this project became abandoned (Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (FMARD), 2000)

The post-Colonial era promises a better life for our rural dwellers, thus, the special agricultural development schemes introduced by the Federal Government were aimed at boosting food production and farmers income through provision of agricultural infrastructure, inputs and effective extension work. These include the National Accelerated Food Production Project (NAFPP) which was introduced in 1972, the Agricultural Development projects,

ADP (1975), the Accelerated Development Area Project (ADAP), (1982) and the Multi-state Agricultural Development Projects MSADP (1986). Other programmes were the Operation Feed the Nation OFN (1976), the River Basin Development Authority, (RBDA) (1973), the Green Revolution Programme (1980), the Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure, (DIFRRI) (1986), the National Directorate of Employment, (NDE) (1986), the Nigeria Agricultural Insurance Scheme (NAIS) (1987) and the National Fadama Development Project (NDFP) (1992) (Jibowo,2000).

In recent years, the Poverty Alleviation Programme, (PAP) (2000) and National Economic Empowerment and Development (NEEDS) (2004) all these Agricultural development projects to mention a few, were introduced to agricultural production system of Nigeria to enhance socio-economic development in the rural areas that will enhance their livelihoods but unfortunately most were abandoned. The projects now are of no use to the rural communities where they are cited than a waste of time, resources and efforts. The alarming increase in the number of abandoned projects in Nigeria today has become a great concern to many well meaning Nigerians who sees the need for such projects to be

completed by the various level of government that initiated and embarked on such projects from the beginning.

There is no doubt that at the Federal, State and Local Government levels of government, most of the projects awarded by these governments suffer problems of abandonment. Some of the projects collapsed even before completion. Incidences of collapsed building today show the consequences of abandoning projects for a long period before completion. Such building might have suffered harsh weather conditions, which eventually causes their collapse. In nearly all the rural community in Nigeria today, there are leftover of the properties of these so-called agricultural development projects introduced at one time or the other, which are rusting away under rain and sun shine. One cannot but start wondering that of what use a agricultural development project will be, if introduced today and abandoned tomorrow.

Theoretical framework

Several theories have been advanced to explain human behaviour in social, economic and cultural processes, however, the social systems theory is adopted for this study. This theory was used to analyse the existing situation in the rural community and the various sub-systems such as family, peer group, school and other social

institutions like Church, Mosque and so on. The impact of these sub-systems on self or personality of individual which affects their participation in rural development activities was analysed using the system theory. System is defined as a complex of elements or components directly related in a causal network such that each component is related to at least some others in a more or less stable way within a period of time (Bertalanffy, 1951 and Buckley, 1967). Therefore, it is important to specify that this study was laid on social system theory of corporate actors, which look into the way social life is organised and, sometimes, transformed (Bertalanffy, 1951, Buckley, 1967 and Patterson, 2007). It questions the everyday assumptions which sharpen individual lives and reflects in a systematic manner on such issues as the division of power, nature of identity, forms of agency and rationality; and human experiences as pre-modern, modern or post-modern subjects. It serves as a field of critical inquiry which is interdisciplinary in character, and addresses the various social and human sciences.

Social system theory offers an extensive selection of documents that explore the complexities and interpret the nature of social behaviour and organisation (Patterson, 2007). Coleman (1994)

attacks traditional social theory for doing little more than chanting old theoretical mantras and for being irrelevant to the changes taking place in society and incapable of helping us to know where society is headed. Sociological theory (as well as sociological research) must have a purpose and a role in the functioning of society. He is in favour of social theory that is interested not just in knowledge for the sake of knowledge but also in a search for knowledge for the reconstruction of society. He argues that both corporate actors and human actors have purposes. Furthermore, within a corporate structure such as an organization (for instance, agricultural development agents), human actors (for instance, rural youths) may pursue purposes of their own that are at variance with corporate purposes. Both may be considered actors because they have "control over resources and events, interests in resources and events, and the capability of taking actions to realize those interests through the control". Of course, there have always been corporate actors, but the old ones, like the family are steadily being replaced by new, purposively, constructed, freestanding corporate actors (development agents). The existence of these new corporate actors raises the issue of how to ensure their social

responsibility. Therefore, social system theory of corporate actors emphasizes the socialization process and the close fit between the individual and society; as it affects participation of individual in group activities, which invariably affect the community productivity, maturity and worth within the social system to which they belongs. The interaction between the corporate actors, human actors and their host communities in Ondo State would suggest whether the level of participation of youth that involved in agricultural and rural development activities is high, medium and low which show their productivity, maturity and worth within their communities.

Statement of research Problem

The basic philosophy of agricultural extension is helping target audience to help themselves in improving their socio-economic well being. But a sizeable number of the agricultural technologies developed over the years to improve the performance of the farmers are still lying on the shelves yet to be implemented, even those that were introduced and implemented were done - halve way and latter abandoned as new administration comes to power and left to surfer poor funding. The focus of the extension arms of agriculture is to bring meaningful agricultural development projects to better the

lot of the rural dweller and cater for their felt needs, but the presence of the ugly look of the abandoned agricultural development projects discourages change agents (Agricultural Extension Officers), thus make their competency and mission questionable in terms of discharging their duty effectively. The implications of abandoned agricultural development projects which are rampant in our rural communities today cannot be overemphasized, it has being felt to aid: low technological adoption rate (Carney, 2002), low participation among the youth and rural dwellers in agricultural development activities, also it has being argued to change their perception toward rural development activities as just a political campaigning strategy and as such, a ridiculously waste of one's time getting one involved in them. For these reasons, most of the progressive and energetic youths who are not interested in politics will remain adamant to agricultural development activities that even target youth development; which resulted into their low participation; therefore, such level of participation might be extremely lower and discourage development/change agents. This study was therefore conceived to provide answers to the following research questions among others: what are the causes of abandoned agricultural development project in Nigeria? and what will be

the implications of these abandoned projects on the participation of rural youths in future development activities that could be initiated?

The study assessed the effects of abandoned agricultural development projects on the youth participation in rural development activities in Ondo State, Nigeria. It specifically identify types of abandoned projects in the rural communities of the study area; describe the demographic characteristic of rural youth that are adversely affected by abandoned agricultural development projects and determine the rural youth perception and relationship between abandoned agricultural development projects and their participation.

The null Hypotheses tested was there is no significant relationship between some of the selected rural youth demographic characteristic (age, sex, religion, marital status, income, level of education and so on) and effect of abandoned projects on their participation in community agricultural development projects.

Methodology

The study was conducted in Ondo State. The State has eighteen Local Government Areas (LGAs). The State covers an area of 14,788.723sq.km. It lies in-between longitude 4⁰31' and 6⁰00' East and latitude 4⁰15' and 8⁰15' North. Ondo State was purposively selected for the study because of its Historical and Cultural features, also

the State is one of the Oil producing States in Nigeria, and thus abandoned development projects of both Government and private parastatals are common in the rural areas of Ondo state. A multi-stage sampling procedure was used for sample selection. In the first stage, three Local Government Areas (LGAs) namely, Ilaje, Okitipupa and Odigbo were purposively selected because abandoned agricultural development projects were identifying in these LGAs. In the second stage, simple random sampling technique was used to select two rural communities in each LGA selected namely; Igbokoda and Igbegunrin in Ilaje, Igbodan and Ayeka in Okitipupa LGA while Ore and Ilu - Titun were selected in Odigbo. At the last stage, snow - ball sampling technique was used to select nine in - school and nine out - school youths totaling 18 youths from each rural community selected. In all, one hundred and eight (108) youths were selected for the study. Structured Interview Schedule was used to elicit quantitative data from the respondents. The data collected were analyzed using frequency counts, mean and standard deviation, Chi - square and regression analysis.

Dependent variable: The dependent variable is the effect of abandoned agro-development projects on respondents'

participation in agricultural development activities. It was measured by given attention to level of participation of youths in the five main overt and covert actions in community projects development steps suggested by Pearson (1966) as reported by Siyanbola (1995), quoted by Adisa (2001). These are level of participation in problem identification, decision making, planning (plan of action), implementation (execution of plan) and evaluation of community development projects. Six indices were used to measure level of participation on each of these steps and respondents total scores were determined from the summation of values obtained from each separate score. Every positive response received a score of one while negative response received a score of zero. Thus, youths that did not involve in steps toward her community project development activities was scored zero. While youths who were fully involved in the steps of community project development activities identified were scored a maximum score of 30. The participation were categorised into three categories depending on their scores, to determine their level of participation in agricultural project development activities. However, their level of participation was categorised into three levels using their mean scores and standard deviation; based on the assumption

that the level of involvement scores assumed a normal distribution. This was operationalised as follows: High level was perceived by youths with mean level of participation score plus one standard deviation and above. Low level was perceived by youths with level of participation score below mean level of involvement score minus one standard deviation scores. Medium level of participation was perceived by youths with mean scores in between the high and low level of participation.

Results and Discussions

Demographic characteristic

Data in Table 1 shows that the mean age of respondents was 21.91 years and standard deviation of 9.58. The result agreed with Otunmara (2000), Onemolease and Alakpa (2005), Torimiro *et al.* (2008) and Akpomovia (2010) assertion that individuals between the age bracket of 18 and 40 years were considered as youth in line with the fact that, it is a formative period that involves the encoding of virtues that make up life. About 52.8 percent were female and majority (86.1%) of the respondent was Christians. Also, majority (78.1%) of the respondents were single.

The entire respondents had a form of formal education, although at various levels, only 1.9 percent stopped at primary school level, while majority (73.1%) had

secondary school education and 25.0 percent had tertiary education.

The indigene status distribution of the respondents shows that about 53.6 percent were indigene; majority (78.7%) had a farming parentage background which enhanced their involvement in farming activities. Also, it was revealed that about 35.8 percent engaged in non-farming activities such as civil service, tailoring, motor mechanics, carpentering and other occupations, 14.5 percent were into farming and farm related enterprises, 49.2 percent were students, while 8.2 percent of the respondents were jobless. This finding is in agreement with the study of Muhammad-Lawal *et al.* (2009) and Akpomovia (2010) that reported a low interest of youth in agricultural related business.

Among the respondents, those whose incomes are under ₦5000.00K were 54.6 percent, those with income between ₦6000.00K - ₦10,000.00K were 14.8 percent while those with incomes above ₦11,000 accounted for 30.5 percent. This finding is in agreement with Ayinde (2006), Muhammad-Lawal *et al.* (2009) and Akpomovia (2010) which reported that low level of income observed among the youth could be due to the fact that some of them were dependent (students) and others engaged in petty – trading.

Youth Perception of Effects of Abandoned Agro – Allied Projects towards Participation in future Agricultural Development Projects

From the data in Table 2 collected using 10 perceptual statements, about 33.6 percent of the respondents strongly agree to the statement that 'abandonment of the supportive agricultural development projects has left them no choice than to travel to big city in sort of white collar job. Higher percentage (44.5%) agreed with the statement that the development project that were executed were not based on the felt need of the people, thus they were government project and had nothing to do with them. About 41.8% of the respondents claimed that money and funds directed towards their agro-development scheme were always embezzled by politicians and as such proposed projects were abandoned. Higher percentage (52.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed to the statement that the last agricultural development project that was abandoned reduced their status and income and as such they may not be involved in future project.

In agreement to Torimiro and Laogun (2005), they are not favourably disposed to the view that rural project(s) development activities should be purely elders affairs, because they felt that there is much to gain (project sustainability)

in the joint involvement of both the youth and the elders at this particular stage of project(s) development.

In Figure 1, few (15.73%) of the respondents had a favourable perception to participate in future developmental activities in agriculture, 59.06 percent of the respondents had a moderate perception toward agricultural development activities in future and 25.21 percent had an unfavourable perception toward participation in agricultural related development activities in future. This finding agreed with Bie (1996), Oyatoye (2006), Ayinde (2006) and Akponvwia (2010) that youth nowadays are alert to their responsibilities as agent for change and future hope of every country. Therefore, where they exist and are functioning well, rural development projects play an important role in building skills of individual young people, strengthening families, strengthening communities and working towards sustainable agricultural and rural development as a major contributor to the overall progress of a country.

Types of abandoned agricultural development projects

Data in Table 3 revealed that the agricultural development projects that were in the study area which were abandoned are cassava flower processing factory, farm input

center, farm roads, farm tractors and equipment, storage facilities to mention few. In Figure 2, about 55.1 percent of the respondents agreed that these projects were in fair working condition, 4.1 percent agreed that were in good working condition while 41.8 percent indicated that they were no longer functioning. This finding is in agreement with Adisa (2001), Barlow and Beeh (1995) concerning lukewarm attitude and policies of government and other rural development stakeholders towards self-help projects. Some of which include inconsistent policies, inadequate interest on rural development, over politicization of development efforts and corruption of top government officials. If urgent attention is not given to re-address these attitude of government, the much needed rural transformation to meet Millennium goal of 20-20-20 (MGDs) will be a mirage if the rising expectation of the local groups are allow to turn into rising frustrations and eventually rising hostility against the governments.

Testing of hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between rural youth demographic characteristic (age, sex, religion, marital status, level of education, number of years of residency, number of years of formal education, occupation ethnicity

etc) and effect of abandoned project on their perception to participation in agricultural development project.

Data in Table 4 show the result of Chi-square analysis. At $P \leq 0.05$, significant associations were found between the effect of abandoned agricultural development project and sex ($\chi^2 = 25.429$; $P \leq 0.05$), marital status ($\chi^2 = 58.578$; $P \leq 0.05$), religion ($\chi^2 = 76.406$; $P \leq 0.05$) and indigenous status ($\chi^2 = 25.949$; $P \leq 0.05$). The findings show that sex, marital status, religion and indigenous status have positive and significant association with effect of abandoned project on their perception to participation in agricultural development project. Although none of the studies reviewed by the researcher has empirically considered the relationship between the variables among the rural youth and their participation developmental projects, but one can still deduce reasons for the various findings based on the general studies of involvement and participation.

Otunmara (2000); Muhammed-Lawal *et al.* (2009) and Onemolease and Alakpa (2009) have identified sex, marital status and religion as part of determinants to rate of participation of youth in development and vocational activities. Torimiro and Laogun

(2005) also noted that indigenous occupation may allow youth to involve more than others in an activity that is relevant to their needs. However, Onemolease and Alakpa (2009) and Akpomovia

(2010) empirically found that sex and marital status were positive and significantly related to involvement in self-help as a strategy for rural development in Nigeria.

Torimiro *et al.* (2003); Okorie *et al.* (2009); Muhammed-Lawal *et al.* (2009); Onemolease and Alakpa (2009) and Akpomovia (2010) further identified sex, marital status and religion as also being positive and significantly related to participation of youth in rural development activities. This implies that level of participation of youth in rural development activities can be positively influenced by the variables. Furthermore, the contingency coefficient (C) values of 0.19, 0.29, 0.01 and 0.17 for sex, marital status, religion and indigenous status respectively, revealed that these associations were weak. Thus, the percentage variation of CBYOs involvement in rural development activities is attributed to the following factors: sex (19%), marital status (29%), religion (1%) and indigenous status (17%). Therefore, the alternative hypothesis was accepted because sex, marital status, religion and indigenous status were significant.

Result of regression analysis

The positive regression coefficient of age ($b = 0.143$), income/month ($b = 2.564$), year spent in formal education ($b = 0.114$) and year of residence ($b = 0.170$) in Table 5

show that each of these variables increase the effect of abandoned agro-development project on the level of participation of youth in agricultural development project. The T-value shows that four of these explanatory variables contribute significantly to decision of youth to participate in future agricultural development projects. These are age ($b = 0.143$; $p \leq 0.01$), income/month ($b = 2.564$; $p \leq 0.01$), year spent in formal education ($b = 0.114$; $p \leq 0.01$) and year of residence ($b = 0.170$; $p \leq 0.01$)

Analysis of variance for the regression F-value = 4.622 at 0.05 level of significance implies that the null hypothesis should be rejected. R^2 value of 0.214 shows that the selected demographic characteristics considered as regression inputs in this study can only explain 21.4 percent of the variations found in the decision of youth toward participation in future agricultural development projects.

Conclusion

In view of the fact that youth have potential to contribute and enhance sustainable agricultural and rural development of the country with hope of promoting industrial revolution in the country, there is the need for agricultural development stakeholders to stop the spate of abandoning development projects so that it encourage youth participation in agriculture. Also, improved agricultural practices and

laudable agricultural projects should be introduced to them using appropriate media that will stimulate and sustain their interests in agricultural productivities. Based on the findings of this study, abandonment of agricultural development project has negative effect on future participation of youth in development activities, and as such sustainability of agricultural related enterprises may also be affected negatively. Agricultural advisory services has potentials to assist youth in overcoming their negative attitude towards agriculture as profession and participation in future agricultural development projects aiming at enhancing food security in the country.

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Table 1: Distribution of respondents by demographic characteristic

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage | Central tendency |
|--------------|------------|------------|------------------|
| Age | | | |
| 13 – 19 | 60 | 55.6 | X = |
| 20 – 29 | 32 | 29.6 | 21.91 |
| 30-39 | 8 | 7.4 | S _x = |
| 40-45 | 8 | 7.4 | 9.58 |
| Total | 108 | 100 | |

| | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|------------|
| Sex | | |
| Male | 51 | 47.2 |
| Female | 57 | 52.8 |
| Total | 108 | 100 |
| Religion | 93 | 86.1 |
| Christianity | 13 | 12.0 |
| Islam | 2 | 1.9 |
| Traditional | 108 | 100 |
| Total | | |
| Marital status | 85 | 78.7 |
| Single | 21 | 19.4 |
| Married | 2 | 1.9 |
| Divorced | 108 | 100 |
| Total | | |
| Educational status | 2 | 1.9 |
| Primary | 79 | 73.1 |
| Secondary/technical | 27 | 25.0 |
| Tertiary | 108 | 100 |
| Total | | |
| Indigenous status | 57 | 53.6 |
| Indigene | 51 | 46.4 |
| Non-indigene | 108 | 100 |
| Total | | |
| Occupation | 85 | 78.7 |
| Farming | 16 | 14.8 |
| Non farming | 108 | 100 |
| Total | | |
| Income | 59 | 54.6 |
| Less N5,000 | 16 | 14.8 |
| N6,000 | 33 | 30.8 |
| N10,000 | - 108 | 100 |

Above N11,000

Total**Source:** Field survey, 2011X = Mean, S_x = standard deviation.**Table 2: Distribution of respondents by their perception about abandoned agro-development project**

| Perceptual statement | Strongly agree (%) | Agree (%) | Disagree (%) | Strongly disagree (%) | Weighted Mean Average (WMA) |
|---|--------------------|-----------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| Abandonment of supportive agricultural development projects has left me no choice than to travel to big cities in sort of white collar job | 33.6 | 28.2 | 13.6 | 17.3 | 1.708 |
| Development projects in my community are only used by politicians as always embezzled by politicians, so proposed project are abandoned | 42.7 | 35.5 | 5.5 | 9.1 | 2.046 |
| Money and funds directed toward my village development scheme are always embezzled by politicians, so proposed project are abandoned | 41.8 | 24.5 | 11.8 | 14.5 | 1.862 |
| Development are not based on the felt need of the community, thus it is government projects and not my business | 30.9 | 14.5 | 22.7 | 24.5 | 1.444 |
| Politicians only used names of development projects to sort for political position and they are not serious about them in the real sense | 48.2 | 26.4 | 4.5 | 13.6 | 2.019 |
| Opportunity of hired labour and financial benefit during execution of agricultural development projects are only given to their political party members | 37.3 | 28.2 | 14.5 | 11.8 | 1.828 |
| My religious/believe system forbids my participation in project that lead to embezzlement of public fund, thus I need not be involved in futurep | 23.6 | 29.1 | 16.4 | 22.7 | 1.454 |
| The last agricultural development project that was abandoned reduced my status and income; as such, I will not be involved in future | 52.7 | 21.5 | 15.3 | 10.7 | 2.164 |

| | | | | | |
|--|------|------|------|------|-------|
| Government only announce programme on radio/television without executing them | 44.5 | 19.1 | 13.6 | 14.5 | 1.853 |
| Income earn from farming is too low, I cannot depend on it solely for a living | 33.6 | 28.2 | 13.6 | 17.3 | 1.708 |

Source: Field survey, 2011

Table 3: Types of abandoned agricultural development projects

| FACILITIES | AVAILABILITY | | | | PRESENT WORKING CONDITION | | | | | |
|---|--------------|------|---------------|------|---------------------------|------|------|------|-----------|------|
| | Available | | not available | | Good | | fair | | abandoned | |
| | freq | % | freq | % | freq | % | freq | % | freq | % |
| Processing factory (cassava flower mill) | 67 | 60.9 | 34 | 30.9 | 8 | 7.3 | 11 | 10.0 | 74 | 67.3 |
| Farm input center | 49 | 44.5 | 48 | 43.6 | 8 | 7.3 | 17 | 15.5 | 60 | 54.5 |
| Veterinary/animal care center | 81 | 73.6 | 19 | 17.3 | 19 | 17.3 | 46 | 41.8 | 24 | 21.8 |
| Agricultural advisory service | 66 | 60.0 | 33 | 30.0 | 4 | 3.6 | 50 | 45.5 | 33 | 30.0 |
| Farm credit center | 61 | 55.5 | 37 | 33.6 | 5 | 4.5 | 20 | 18.2 | 62 | 56.4 |
| Good road that lead to farming area | 45 | 40.7 | 54 | 49.1 | 5 | 4.5 | 17 | 15.5 | 66 | 60.0 |
| Asses to tractor and other equipment | 46 | 41.8 | 54 | 49.1 | 5 | 4.5 | 5 | 4.5 | 83 | 75.5 |
| Storage facilities for harvested products | 34 | 30.9 | 64 | 58.2 | 4 | 3.6 | 7 | 6.4 | 80 | 72.7 |

Source: Field survey 2011

Table 4: Result of Chi Square analysis and contingency coefficient showing association between Demographic Characteristics and the effect of abandoned agricultural development project on participation of youth in agricultural development project.

| Variables | X^2_c | df | C | Decision |
|-----------|---------|----|-------|----------|
| Sex | 25.429 | 1 | 0.019 | S |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------|---|-------|---|
| Marital status | 58.478 | 2 | 0.029 | S |
| Religion | 76.406 | 1 | 0.001 | S |
| Indigenous status | 25.949 | 1 | 0.018 | S |

Number of respondents = 108

Level of significant = 0.05

Degree of freedom = df

Significant = S

Not significant = NS

Contingency coefficient = C

χ^2 = Chi-square

Source: Field survey, 2011

Table 5: Regression analysis showing relationship between selected Demographic characteristics of youth and effects of abandoned agricultural development project on perception of the respondents to participate in agricultural development activities

| Variable | Un- standardiz ed coefficient(b) | t - value | P - value |
|--|---|-----------|--------------|
| Constant | 2.548 | 2.480 | 0.000 |
| Age | 0.143* | 1078 | 0006 |
| Number of year residence | 0.170* | 2048 | 0.0 |
| Number of year spent in formal education | 0.114* | 1189 | 0.014 |
| Income/month | 0.564* | 2100 | 0.002 |

*significant at $p \leq 0.05$; Model summary: F - value = 4.622; $R^2 = 0.214$

Source: Field survey, 2011

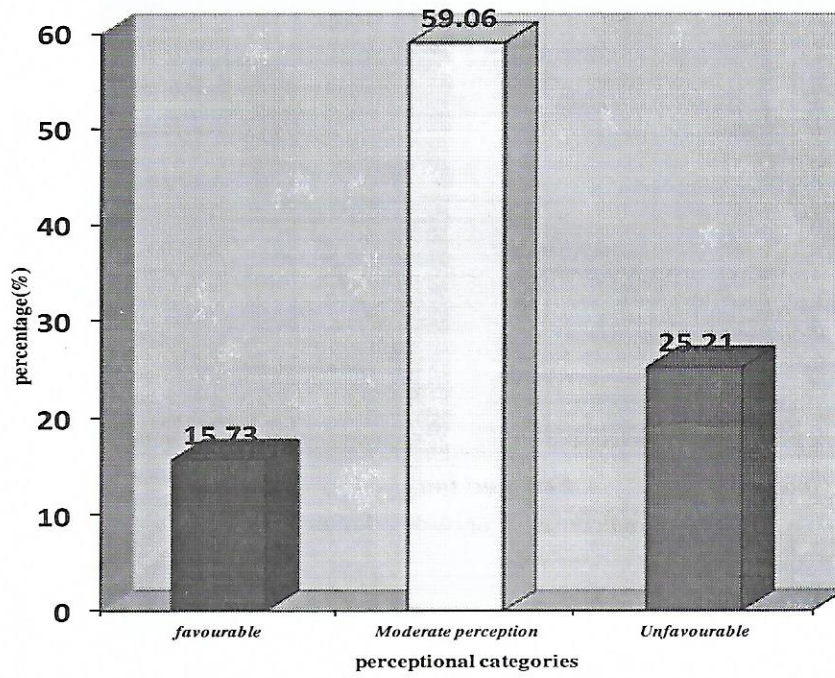


Figure 1: Percentage distribution of respondents' perception of effects of abandoned agricultural projects

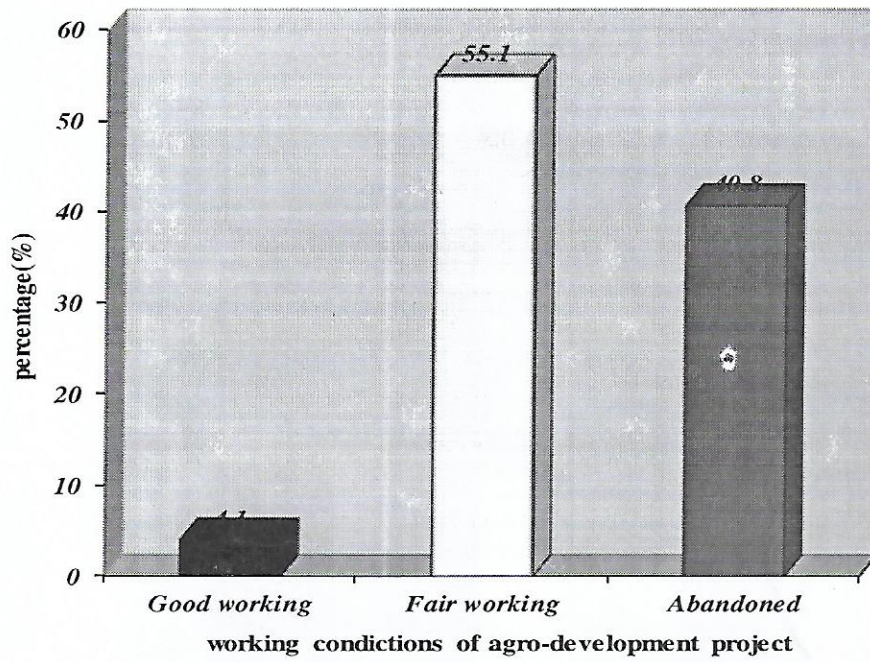


Figure 2: Distribution of respondents' perception of working condition of abandoned agricultural projects

AN ASSESSMENT OF MOTHERS' PREFERENCE FOR CHILDREN'S CLOTHING: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF URBAN AND RURAL AREAS IN OSUN STATE, NIGERIA.

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Abstract

This study assessed and compared the mothers clothing preference for children in the urban area typified by Ile-Ife and rural area selected Iyanfoworogi in Osun state of Nigeria. One hundred and twenty women were selected from Iyanfoworogi and Ile-Ife using snowball sampling technique. Structured interview schedule was used to elicit quantitative information from the respondents. Statistical techniques such as frequency count, percentage and ANOVA were used in data quantifications. The results indicated that majority (71.6%) of the respondents were between the age category of 21 and 30. The results also revealed that many of the respondents (73.33%) bought wears for the children. The results revealed further Cost (81.17%), Quality (85.83%), Fashion (97.5%) were some of the determinants for selection of wears for children. The data further revealed that majority (81.67% and 95.5%) both rural and urban mothers preferred wears for the children. 100 percent of the urban respondents had knowledge of fibre and colourfastness as compared to 8.33% in the rural area. The result also revealed that there was no significant difference between rural and urban mothers in the selection of wears for children native ($F= 0.09$), ($F=0.03$) and both native and ($F=0.38$) at $p < 0.05$ level of significance. Across rural and urban areas, wears were preferred to native ones. It is, therefore recommended among others that efforts should be intensified to encourage mothers to supplement wears with the locally customised garments in order to preserve the local culture.

Keywords: Mothers, clothing preference, wears, rural, urban

Introduction

Culturally, the procurement of children's clothing was known to be the responsibility of the woman of the house who could be either the wife or mother. Mothers appear to take care of domestic matters in the house in which buying of clothes is not excluded. Food, clothing and shelter are the most important needs of human beings. Most families allot a huge amount to food and second on the priority list is clothing in the family budgeting. Mothers as the ones purchasing clothes for the children mostly exert a considerable influence on the distribution of a family's finances (Noreen, 2011). Clothing is as important as food since no one could go about naked which is an abomination among the Yorubas and could be synonymous with insanity. Children totally depend on their mothers as far as clothing is concerned. When mothers shop for clothing for

children they look for garments that are washable, do not have to be ironed, will keep their shape, and, in the case of nightwear, feel comfortable. Apart from visual appearance or aesthetic, some important features commonly considered when making choice as it is the role of mothers to take care

of the material. Every mother would want to stylishly clothe her children in garments that befit the occasion putting into consideration fibre content, styles and durability of the garment (Guatam, 2005).

Mothers who desire to clothe their children properly are always willing to pay any amount of money for a product as long as there is value for money. The basic necessity of clothing remains same though the type of clothes chosen varies in different locality. Children are the budding citizen who tries to decide or gradually tend to decide on their likes and dislikes from early childhood themselves. In fact, everyone wants to enjoy the freedom of selecting clothes and children are no exception to this because of better styles and added appeals of clothes which seem to have made Nigerians to embrace Western ways of dressing. Hence, it becomes important for the mothers to select the clothes that are liked and accepted by the children. Before clothing purchases, the mothers preplan for amount to be spent, fibre content and garment style. Generally, mothers are assumed to have knowledge of clothing materials in terms of latest styles, colours, prints and patterns that children enjoy most. According to Gordon (2004) mothers have knowledge of textile materials and evaluate them by touch and visual

appraisal. Today, the market is flooded with varieties of garments for all age groups with many different styles, patterns, colour and so on. Sometimes tailor-made garments do satisfy by the quality sewing and styles as expected by the consumers.

However, in the busy world of today, majority of the urban mothers purchase ready-mades, especially when time is the constraint as well as when plan to purchase an exclusive occasional wear. Both rural and urban mothers would recently though prefer their children dressed in western wears that is ready made garment because of its low prices and availability of these items, durability, better sewing qualities and fashion trend which encouraged the use of white man's style of dressing, but sometimes option was open for tailor-made too. Most urban mothers being learned are aware of clothes that are comfortable and user friendly (Mintel, 2001). Although rural mothers who tend to cloth their children in the western ways may resolve to purchasing these materials in form of used clothing. Generally, mothers as consumer agents on behalf of the children appear to be scarce in literature. Therefore, an attempt has been made to assess the clothing preferences between urban and the rural mothers.

Specifically, the study was to:

- (i) assess the clothing preferences of mothers between rural and urban area;
- (ii) examine the factors considered by mothers in the purchase of children's clothing; and
- (iii) assess the level of knowledge of rural and urban mothers as regards fibre and colour fastness of clothes.

The study hypothesized that there is no significant difference in the clothing preference between urban and rural mothers for their children.

Methodology

The study was carried out in Ile Ife and Iyanfoworogi a rural village settlement on Ondo express road. The city of Ile-Ife sits in what is today Osun State in southern Nigeria located on the longitude 4.6N and 7.5°N, surrounded by hills and is about fifty miles (80.467kms) to Ibadan and Osogbo. The village-Iyanfoworogi lies along the road to Ondo: ten kilometers, west of Ile-Ife. The study employed a survey design. The sample of the study comprised 120 snowball selected urban women from two wards in Ile-Ife and rural women from a ward in Iyanfoworogi reason being that Ile-Ife is densely populated compared to Iyanfoworogi which is a rural settlement in Ile-Ife metropolis.. Data collected for the study was

through the use of structured interview schedule which was administered in local language by the researcher at Iyanfoworogi. Respondent's preferences as regards children's clothing and determinants of mothers' selection of wears for the children were assessed. A 3-point scale: known, not known and just heard was used to determine mothers' knowledge of fabric fibre and colourfastness of clothe materials. The data collected were analysed using frequency and percentages and the analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis.

Measurement of variables

Mothers' preference for children's clothing was measured in relation to the locality, the respondents' occupation, income per month and the knowledge of fibre and colorfastness of fabric. The high earners amongst the respondents in the urban area sourced and bought for their children from boutiques while rural sourced same for their children from the local markets.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socio-economic Characteristics of Respondents

Socio-economic characteristics of respondents are presented in Table 1. The data in Table 1 reveal that more than (65.5%) of rural women and 38.3 percent of urban women

were between the age category of 26 and 30 years. The mean age of rural women was 29.17 whereas that of urban women was 29.01. This is an indication that many of them belonged to active age who showed interest in dresses from Western world. Farming was the major occupation of 80.0 percent of urban women and teaching/civil service was the major occupation of 60.0 percent of urban women. This depicts that many of the rural women were actively involved in farming activities. Among rural women, 41.6% had no formal education whereas more than half (58.3%) of urban mothers had post secondary education among urban mothers as compared with rural mothers. This shows a higher level of education among the respondents as having education will aid their access to information in which clothing is not left out. This result is in agreement with the outcome of the research of Adisa *et al* (2004) which opined that literacy level of respondents would aid their access to information globally.

Results in Table 1 also reveal that 51.7 percent of rural mothers had between 7 and 12 household size whereas 93.3 percent of urban mothers had between 1 – 6 household size. More than half of rural mothers (51.7%) and 93.3 percent of urban mothers had between 1 and 4 children. Data on

income show that 86.7 percent of rural mothers had income of below ₦20,000 while 45.0 percent of urban mothers had income of between ₦20,001 and ₦40,000 just as about 3.3 percent of rural mothers and 48.3 percent of urban mothers earn between ₦40,001 and ₦60,000. The relatively buoyant financial status of most urban mothers may however encouraged the purchase of readymade wears from the West for the children.

Data in Table 2 show types of wear mothers preferred clothes for the children, where sourced and how often they were bought. From the Table, many of the respondents 61.7 percent of rural and 81.7 percent of urban mothers bought readymade just as about 6.7% and 3.3% of rural and urban mothers bought native for the children. This is an indication that both rural and urban mothers preferred readymade which were convenient to shop for and available. This is in agreement with the outcome of the research of Hansen (2004) which states that western fashions have become increasingly the norm in Africa and the consumer preferences seems to be away from the traditional African style to more western style clothing. This finding also corroborates with the findings of Ogunduyile (2003) which submits that the beautiful traditional clothing have been abandoned for

used clothing of western world. Results also show that 100 percent of rural mothers and 61.7 percent of urban mothers sourced their children's clothing from the local market just as about 38.3 percent urban mothers sourced from the boutique. Results reveal further that more than half (73.3%) of rural mothers and 61.7% urban mothers occasionally bought wears for their children which were as a result of their poor financial status.

Data in Table 3 revealed factors considered important to acquisition of wears and the respondents determinants for selection of wears for children. Among rural and urban mothers, cost (cheap) (89.17%), Quality (85.83), Fashion (97.5%), Time saving (100%) and lack of professional tailors, (84.17%) respectively were considered important to acquisition of ready-made wears for children among rural and urban mothers. Across rural and urban areas, income (100%), Quality (100%), Fashion (95.0% and 98.33%) and occasion (51.17% and 93.33%) were some of the determinants of respondents' selection of wears for children. This is an indication that respondents preferred clothes that are in vogue for their children because wearing these clothes associates them with the Western culture and matches what they see on television. This finding

corroborates with the findings of Horton (2006) which states that the emergence and increasing demands for wears could be attributed to their durability, fashion trend and better sewing qualities inherent in these clothings.

The results of respondents' preference of wears are shown in Table 4. From the Table, majority (81.67% and 95.0%) rural and urban respondents preferred ready-made wears compared to native wears. This is an indication that western dresses were preferred as compared to native ones due to Western influence on the local culture. This finding corroborates with the findings of Mahale (2009) which submits that fashion trend has encouraged the use of white man's' style of dressing.

Results in Table 5 showed the results of respondents' knowledge of fibre and colourfastness of fabric. From the Table all (100%) of the respondents in the rural area had poor knowledge of fibre identification, with very less percent of rural women (8.33%) that had knowledge of colourfastness. However, in the urban setting, all (100%) of the urban respondents and (78.33%) good knowledge of fibre and colourfastness of fabric with very less percent (28.33%) having knowledge of composite fibres.. This is in variance with the findings

of Vastala (2001) which states that mothers generally are knowledgeable of textile materials. Results in Table 6 showed the ANOVA results of clothing preference between rural and urban respondents. Results from the Table show that there was no significant difference at 0.05 level of significant existed between rural and urban respondents in the clothing preference for children. From the results, there is an indication that both rural and urban mothers preferred readymade and dressed their children in Western ways of dressing. This could be the result of over exposure to foreign culture. This result is in line with the findings of (Prasad, *et al*, 2000) which found that dichotomy was becoming irrelevant with urbanisation and globalization.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Clothing is one of the most personal components of daily life which gives identity and confidence to the wearer, children not excluded. It is evident from the study that both rural and urban mothers preferred ready-made wears to native ones. The majority of the rural mothers had no knowledge of fibre content and colourfast of clothes chosen for the children yet preferred these clothing items that they have little

or no knowledge about whereas their urban counterparts had adequate knowledge of the fibre content and colourfastness of these clothes. Therefore, efforts should be made to encourage the use of native wears so that children who are leaders of tomorrow would showcase Nigeria's cultural heritage and carry on the pride of national identity. Similarly, ready-made wears could be redesigned to incorporate the Nigerian culture and its good ethics. It is therefore recommended that efforts should be intensified to encourage mothers to patronize locally produced wears to supplement western dresses. Also, consumer education is needed for both rural and urban mothers in the clothing field through Home Science Extension workers on the aspects of composite fibres, cloth material identification, types of weaves, colour fastness and functional aspects of clothing such as fitting, comfort, construction lines and durability of garments.

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Table 1: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

| Variables | Rural | | Urban | |
|------------------------|--------------|------|--------------|------|
| | Frequency | (%) | Frequency | (%) |
| Age (Years) | | | | |
| 16 – 20 | 4 | 6.7 | 1 | 1.7 |
| 21 – 25 | 11 | 18.3 | 8 | 13.3 |
| 26 – 30 | 32 | 53.3 | 23 | 38.3 |
| 31 – 35 | 7 | 11.7 | 27 | 45.0 |
| 36 – 40 | 5 | 8.3 | 1 | 1.7 |
| 40 and above | 1 | 1.7 | - | - |
| | Mean = 29.17 | | Mean = 29.01 | |
| Occupation | | | | |
| Farming | 48 | 80.0 | 3 | 5.0 |
| Trading | 7 | 11.7 | 14 | 23.3 |
| Teaching/Civil Servant | 1 | 1.7 | 36 | 60.0 |
| Artisan | 4 | 6.6 | 10 | 16.7 |

| Educational Status | | | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------|------|----------------|------|
| None | 25 | 41.6 | 3 | 5.0 |
| Primary | 22 | 36.7 | 6 | 10.0 |
| Secondary | 13 | 21.7 | 16 | 26.7 |
| Post-secondary Education | - | - | 35 | 58.3 |
| Household Size | | | | |
| 1 – 6 | 20 | 33.3 | 56 | 93.3 |
| 7 – 12 | 31 | 51.7 | 4 | 6.7 |
| 13 and above | 9 | 15.0 | - | - |
| | Mean=7 | | Mean=8 | |
| Total number of children | | | | |
| 1 – 4 | 31 | 51.7 | 5.6 | 93.3 |
| 5 – 8 | 19 | 31.7 | 2 | 3.3 |
| > 8 | 10 | 16.6 | 2 | 3.3 |
| | Mean=6 | | Mean=7 | |
| Income/Month | | | | |
| Below 20,000 | 52 | 86.7 | 1 | 1.7 |
| 20,001 - 40,000 | 6 | 10.0 | 27 | 45.0 |
| 40,001- 60,000 | 2 | 3.3 | 29 | 48.3 |
| 60,001- 80,000 | - | - | 1 | 1.7 |
| 80,001and above | - | - | 2 | 3.3 |
| | Mean=30,719.30 | | Mean=46,850.88 | |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 2: Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to Type of Wears bought, where sourced and how often

| Variables | Rural | | Urban | |
|--------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|
| | Frequency | (%) | Frequency | (%) |
| Wears | | | | |
| Native | 4 | 6.7 | 2 | 3.3 |
| Ready-made | 37 | 61.7 | 49 | 81.7 |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|----|--------|----|------|
| Both | 16 | 26.6 | 5 | 8.3 |
| Preowned | 3 | 5.0 | 4 | 6.7 |
| Where Sourced | | | | |
| Local Market | 60 | 100.00 | 37 | 61.7 |
| Boutique | - | - | 23 | 38.3 |
| How Often | | | | |
| Always | 2 | 3.3 | 21 | 35.0 |
| Rarely | 14 | 23.3 | 2 | 3.3 |
| Occasionally | 44 | 73.3 | 37 | 61.7 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 3: Percentage distribution of Respondents according to factors considered important to acquisition of Wears for Children.

| Wears | Cheap | | Quality | | Fashion | | Occasion | | Culture | | Time sharing | | Lack of Professional Tailors | | | |
|------------|-------|-------|---------|-------|---------|------|----------|-------|---------|------|--------------|-----|------------------------------|----|------|---|
| | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % |
| Native | 13 | 10.83 | 17 | 14.17 | 3 | 2.50 | 9.5 | 79.17 | 21 | 17.5 | - | 0 | 19 | 15 | | |
| Ready made | 107 | 89.17 | 103 | 85.83 | 117 | 97.5 | 25 | 20.83 | 99 | 82.5 | 120 | 100 | 101 | 84 | | |

Determinants of Respondent's Selection of Wears for children

| Variable | Income | | Cultural Value | | Quality | | Fashion | | Weather | | Occasion | |
|----------|--------|---|----------------|---|---------|---|---------|---|---------|---|----------|---|
| | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|----|-----|----|------|----|-------|----|-------|---|------|----|-------|
| Rural | 60 | 100 | 21 | 35.0 | 60 | 100.0 | 57 | 95.0 | 2 | 3.33 | 31 | 51.17 |
| Urban | 60 | 100 | 15 | 25.0 | 60 | 100.0 | 59 | 98.33 | - | 0 | 56 | 93.33 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 4: Frequency distribution of Respondents according to Preference of Wears

| Wears | Rural N=60 | | Urban N=60 | | Total N=120 | |
|----------------------------|---------------|-------|---------------|------|----------------|-------|
| | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % |
| Native | 7 | 11.67 | 2 | 3.33 | 9 | 7.5 |
| Ready-made | 49 | 81.67 | 57 | 95.0 | 106 | 88.33 |
| Both (Native & Ready Made) | 4 | 6.67 | 1 | 1.67 | 5 | 4.17 |

N= Number of Respondents

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 5: Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to knowledge of Fibre and Colourfastness of Fabric

| Variable | Rural Mothers | | | | | | Urban Mothers | | | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|-------|-----------|-------|------------|-------|---------------|-------|-----------|-------|------------|-------|
| | Known | | Not known | | Just heard | | Known | | Not known | | Just heard | |
| | Fr | % | Freq | % | Fr | % | Freq | % | Fr | % | Fr | % |
| Cotton fibre | eq | | 60 | 100 | eq | | 60 | 100 | eq | | eq | |
| Polyester fibre | | | 60 | 100.0 | | | 49 | 81.67 | 4 | 6.67 | 7 | 11.67 |
| Composite fibre | | | 60 | 100.0 | | | 17 | 28.33 | 2 | 3.33 | 41 | 68.33 |
| Care label/seals | | | 53 | 88.33 | 7 | 11.67 | 55 | 91.67 | 1 | 1.67 | 4 | 6.67 |
| Non -Iron wash wear | | | 60 | 100.0 | | | 60 | 100.0 | | | | |
| Cut and Sew | 37 | 61.67 | | | 23 | 38.33 | 60 | 100.0 | | | | |
| Yarn count | | | 60 | 100.0 | | | 3 | 5.0 | 22 | 36.67 | 35 | 58.33 |
| Pre-owned clothes | used | 60 | 100.0 | | | | 60 | 100.0 | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|----|-------|----|-------|---|-------|-------|-------|----|-------|----|-------|
| Care of Fabric laundering | | | 60 | 100.0 | | 60 | 100.0 | | | | | |
| Size | 52 | 86.67 | | | 8 | 13.33 | 60 | 100.0 | | | | |
| Texture | | | 60 | 100.0 | | | 32 | 53.33 | 19 | 31.67 | 9 | 15.0 |
| Colourfast articles | 5 | 8.33 | 55 | 91.67 | | | 47 | 78.33 | 3 | 5.0 | 10 | 16.67 |
| Absorbency | 14 | 23.33 | 46 | 76.67 | | | 59 | 98.33 | | | 1 | 1.67 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 6: Result of ANOVA Test on Clothing Preference between Rural and Urban Respondents

| Wears | Sum of squares | Rural N=60 | Mean square Urban N=60 | F | Sig |
|--------|----------------|---------------|------------------------------|-------|-------|
| | | | | | |
| Native | Between group | 0.013 | 0.013 | 0.093 | 0.740 |
| | Within Groups | 52.091 | 0.169 | | |
| | Total | 52.104 | | | |
| Ready | Between | 0.092 | 0.012 | | |

| | | | | | |
|-------------|---------|--------|-------|-------|-------|
| Made | Groups | 76.554 | 0.134 | 0.036 | 0.527 |
| | Within | 76.646 | | | |
| | Groups | | | | |
| | Total | 0.012 | | | |
| Both | | 48.015 | 0.131 | 0.381 | 0.536 |
| (Native and | Between | 48.027 | 0.124 | | |
|) | Groups | | | | |
| | Within | | | | |
| | Groups | | | | |
| | Total | | | | |

Source: Field survey, 2014

ATTITUDE OF YOUTH'S TOWARDS ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS OF OGUN STATE, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship development is essential for achieving rapid economic growth in Nigeria. Attitude of youth towards the development of entrepreneurial potential is essential for the actualisation of the goal of entrepreneurial development in Nigeria. Therefore, attitude of youth in higher institutions in Ogun State towards entrepreneurship development was investigated. One hundred and twenty youth were sampled through a multistage sampling procedure. The data obtained were described using frequency and percentage and analysed using Chi-square at $p \leq 0.05$. Results revealed favourable attitude (74.2%) of the youth towards entrepreneurship development. Also, high level (64.2%) of entrepreneurship development was attained by the youth. The entrepreneurial skills acquired by the youth while in school include driving ($\bar{x} = 2.91$), desktop publishing ($\bar{x} = 2.88$), managerial ($\bar{x} = 2.65$) and painting skill ($\bar{x} = 2.01$). Problems identified as impeding entrepreneurship development in the area include lack of infrastructural facilities ($\bar{x} = 2.43$), lack of fund for youth development ($\bar{x} = 2.51$) and policy instability ($\bar{x} = 2.24$). The hypotheses showed a significant relationship between level of entrepreneurship development and the attitude of youth in the study area ($\chi^2 = 10.27$, $p \leq 0.05$). A significant difference was observed in the agricultural skills gained before and after exposure to agricultural extension services. The study concluded that youth of higher institutions were desirous of developing their entrepreneurship potential. The study recommended provision of adequate funds and infrastructural facilities as well as continuity in government policy for the sustainable entrepreneurship development and rapid economic growth in Nigeria.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship development, youth, higher institutions, entrepreneurship skill

Introduction

Entrepreneurship as a driver of economic growth is gaining recognition in Nigeria. The global push for culture of enterprise is spreading among the countries of the world. The realization that the western education is no longer the only panacea to escape unemployment and poverty further established a backdrop for the development of individual entrepreneurial potential. Hence, the increasing focus on the development of the entrepreneurial individuals especially the youth throughout the world.

The high global levels of youth unemployment and changing nature of work constituted a major factor contributing to the increasing potential for youth entrepreneurship (Hansemark 1998). In Nigeria, the rate of unemployment among the youth is alarming. Alfred and Ojo (2011) posited that thousands of tertiary education graduates are jobless after several years of leaving schools.

Efforts in the past aimed at building the entrepreneurship potential of the youths and creating wealth resulted in the formulation of policies leading to the establishment of agencies and implementation of programmes. Many programmes such as National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Community Banks, Cooperative Bank and lately Skill Acquisition Programmes by various levels of government and

non-government organisation were implemented. Other programmes include youths in Agriculture, Women-in-Agriculture and access to small loan for small scale industries and cottage industries (Fasina 2011 and Alfred and Ojo 2011). The two approaches that were adopted for implementing these programmes include the provision of credit facilities for small-scale industries and the establishment of the training centres known as Industrial Development Centre (IDC). The various avenues were established to foster development of entrepreneurial skills among the Nigerian youth.

In addition, the government of Nigeria introduced the teaching of entrepreneurship courses in the curriculum of secondary and tertiary schools to instil the culture of entrepreneurship and establish further research and development of the courses in entrepreneurship. This portends a good omen for the nation is economy. However, these efforts have not achieved the desired results. While much hopes are on the graduates of higher institutions for employment generation and economic recovery, previous graduates from the nation's irony towers are yet to make any meaningful impact on the nation's economy. Despite the available opportunities for entrepreneurship development, high rate of employment has continued

unabated. There is a continuous display of little or no ability for entrepreneurship ability by the Nigerian graduates.

A number of psychological abilities have been suggested as predictors of entrepreneurship behaviour in the literatures. According to Gorman (1997) the propensity towards entrepreneurship is associated with personal characteristics such as attitudes. Researchers have shown that formal entrepreneurial education can affect attitude of students towards entrepreneurship development (Halten 1995, Hansemark 1998, Gorman 1997, Walstad and Kourilsy 1998). While many work have been done on the psychological characteristics affecting entrepreneurship development, limited information still exist on the attitude of youth towards entrepreneurship development in Nigeria. Therefore, this study was embarked upon to investigate the attitude of youth towards entrepreneurship development among youth of higher institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Specifically the study aimed to

1. examine the socio economic characteristics of the respondents;
2. determine the level of entrepreneurship development in the area;
3. identify various entrepreneurship skills

acquired by the respondents;

4. ascertain respondents' access to information on entrepreneurship development; and
5. Investigate problems impeding entrepreneurship development of the respondents.

The hypothesis tested for the study was.

Ho.: There is no significant relationship between attitude and level of entrepreneurship potential of the respondents.

Methodology

Ogun State has 21 higher institution of learning the highest among any state in Nigeria. There include ten state owned, three Federal owned and eight private higher institutions. (Ogun State Government 2012)

The first stage was the purposive selection of 10 state owned institution in Ogun State. The second stage involved the random selection of 40 percent or 3 higher institution in the state. While the third state was the selection of 10 percent or 3 faculties from the selected institutions 5 percent or 50, 47 and 23 youth were randomly selected from the Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, MoshoodAbiola Polytechnic, Ojere and Federal College of Education, Osiele respectively. This translate

to a total of 120 respondent that were interview in the state.

Measurement of variables

Attitude was measured using 14 attitudinal statements on a Likert-type format with 5 response options (strongly agreed = 5, agreed = 4, undecided = 3, disagreed = 2, and strongly disagreed = 1 and was reversed for the negatively worded statements). The maximum score was 70 and the minimum was 14. Attitudinal score was generated and categorised into favourable, and unfavourable attitude using the mean method. Level of entrepreneurship development were arrived at by 2 response options (yes =1 and no=2) to the list of entrepreneurship skills. Composite score which was generated from their responses were categorised using the mean method into high and low level of entrepreneurship development.

Socio-economic characteristics including: age was measured in actual age. Religion affiliation and sex were while sex measured on a nominal scale Respondents indicated their marital status as either married or single. Access to Information for Acquiring Entrepreneurship development was measured by presenting a list of sources of information to the respondents on 4 point scale (very frequent (4), frequent (3), occasionally (2), not available (1)). Problems impeding development of

entrepreneurship Potential was measured on 3 response options to a list of generated problems that may affect development of youth entrepreneurship potential (very serious (3), serious (2), not serious (1)).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 1 revealed the socioeconomic characteristics of respondents. Majority (97.5%) of the respondents fell within the age of 18 and 30 years old. Data on marital status revealed that majority (89.2%) of the respondents as single. The sex of the substantial number of the respondents was female (56.7%). This finding tends to support MDGs for increasing the enrolment of the female child in schools. The majority (67.5%) of the respondent were Christians (67.5%) and do not belong to any social programmes (79.2%).

Youth attitude to Entrepreneurship development

Data in Table 2 showed that majority (74.2%) of the respondents have favourable attitude towards development of their entrepreneurship potential. This implies possession of right attitude by youth would lead to the actualization of their entrepreneurship potentials.

Level of Entrepreneurship development

Chart 1 showed that majority (64.15%) of the respondents have high level of entrepreneurship skill. This implies a willingness to become an entrepreneur in future.

Areas of Entrepreneurship Skill

Chart 2 showed the various areas of skills acquired by the respondents. Using the weighted means of 2, the respondent rates acquiring skill ($X = 2.91$), desktop publishing ($X=2.88$), managerial skill ($X=2.65$) catering works ($X=2.49$) and painting ($X=2.01$). There is the likelihood of the youth creating jobs in future with the present entrepreneurial skills.

Access to Information on Entrepreneurship Development

Table 3 showed that the source of information on entrepreneurship development of their entrepreneurship potential with their mean scores. This revealed that newspaper (2.18), research institution (2.90), religion house (2.08), seminar (2.12), journal (2.8), extension agent (3.37) and IDC (3.48). This implies that IDC, extension agencies, research institutes were most accessible to the respondents. This support the study of Brockhaus (1980) which says Television, newspaper, seminar and internet are more

accessible in the development of the entrepreneurship potent. This implies that high access information source would foster rapid development of entrepreneurship potentials.

Level of access to information on entrepreneurial development

Table 4 revealed that access level to information on entrepreneurship development was high (73.05%). This implies that respondents would have the information needed to form their attitude towards entrepreneurship development. High access to information has been found to support attitude formation.

Problem Impeding Development of Entrepreneurship Potential

Result in Table 4 revealed the problems impeding development of entrepreneurship potential. Using the weighted means of 1.5 the majority of the respondents appear to be confronted with the listed problems. However, the problem of fund for youth development ($X = 2.51$), problem of infrastructural facilities ($X = 2.43$), problem of instability in government policy ($X = 2.24$) appear as the most serious problems. Inhibiting the development of entrepreneurship potential in youths.

Result of hypothesis testing

The result in the Table 5 revealed that there is a significant

relationship between attitude of youth and level of youth entrepreneurship development ($x=10.27, p=0.05$). It can be inferred that the more favourable attitude youth displayed towards entrepreneurship development the more their participation.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The study concluded that youth displayed a favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship development in the area. Also, the level of entrepreneurship development was high generally. In particular youth acquired entrepreneurial skills in the areas such as professional training on marketing skill, driving skill, painting, catering works, desktop publishing and managerial skill. Lack of infrastructural facilities, problem of instability of government, problem of fund for youth development, constituted a major problem to entrepreneurship development in the area. Furthermore access to information source was high. Youth in particular had access information sources such as newspaper, research institution, religion house, seminar, journal, extension agent and IDC. Attitude was found to be related to entrepreneurship development statically. The study concluded that there was high willingness of the youth towards entrepreneurship development and recommended the provision of

functioning infrastructure facilities, adequate funding and the creation of enabling environment through formulation of youth related policies for achieving sustainable entrepreneurship development.

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Table 1: Socio-economic characteristics of respondents

| Socio-economics | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| Age | | |
| Young (18 – 30) | 117 | 97.5 |
| Middle (31 – 35) | 3 | 2.5 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Single | 107 | 89.2 |
| Married | 13 | 10.8 |
| Sex | | |
| Male | 52 | 43.3 |
| Female | 68 | 56.7 |
| Religion | | |
| Christian | 81 | 67.5 |
| Islam | 37 | 30.8 |
| Tradition | 2 | 1.7 |
| Member of social club | | |
| None | 95 | 79.2 |
| Louis club | 7 | 5.8 |
| Lioness | 3 | 2.5 |
| McCoy | 1 | 0.8 |
| Islamic society | 6 | 5.0 |
| Rotary club | 4 | 3.3 |
| Donald club | 2 | 1.7 |
| Sunshine youth club | 2 | 1.7 |

Table 2 Distribution of Respondent by Level to Attitude towards Development of the Entrepreneurship Development N = 120

| Level of attitude | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| Favourable | 89 | 74.2 |
| Unfavourable | 31 | 25.8 |

Source: Field survey, 2010

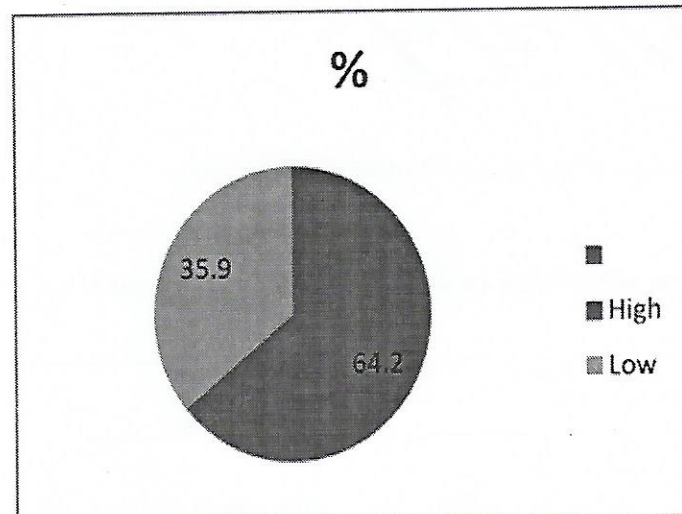


Chart 1 level of entrepreneurship development

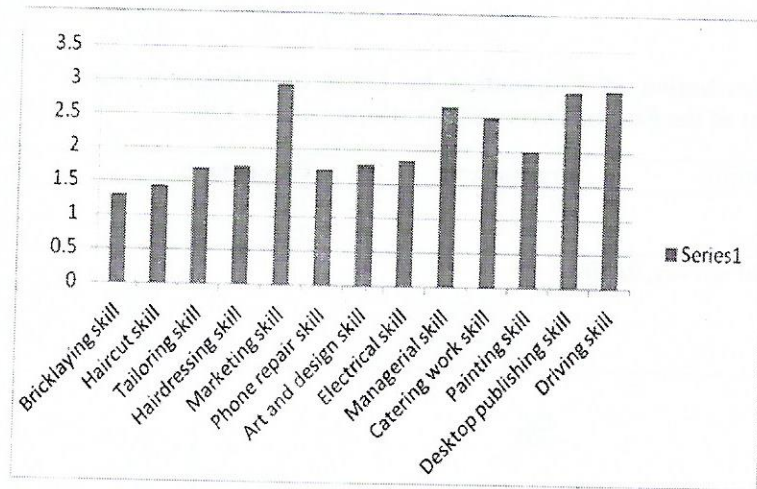


Chart 2 : Mean scores of the areas of Entrepreneurial skills

Table 3: Access to information on entrepreneurial development N = 120

| Source of information | v. Frequent | | Frequent | | Occasional | | Not available | | X |
|-----------------------|-------------|------|----------|------|------------|------|---------------|------|------|
| | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | |
| Radio | 8 | 6.7 | 28 | 23.3 | 21 | 17.5 | 63 | 52.2 | 1.84 |
| Newspaper | 14 | 11.7 | 31 | 25.8 | 37 | 30.8 | 38 | 31.7 | 2.18 |
| Research insti. | 46 | 38.3 | 27 | 22.5 | 37 | 30.8 | 10 | 8.3 | 2.90 |
| Religion house | 5 | 4.2 | 39 | 32.5 | 41 | 34.2 | 35 | 29.2 | 2.08 |
| Seminar | 24 | 20 | 40 | 33.3 | 40 | 33.3 | 16 | 13.3 | 2.12 |
| Television | 4 | 3.3 | 14 | 11.7 | 54 | 45.0 | 48 | 40.0 | 1.78 |
| Internet | 4 | 3.3 | 17 | 14.2 | 52 | 43.3 | 47 | 39.2 | 1.82 |
| Journal | 34 | 28.3 | 44 | 36.7 | 26 | 21.7 | 16 | 13.3 | 2.8 |
| Exten. Agency | 77 | 64.2 | 20 | 16.7 | 13 | 10.8 | 10 | 8.3 | 3.37 |
| IDC | 75 | 62.5 | 31 | 28.8 | 9 | 7.5 | 5 | 4.2 | 3.47 |

Source: Field survey, 2010

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by level of access Information Source N = 120

| Level of access to Information source | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------------------|------------|--------------|
| Low | 32.5 | 27.25 |
| High | 87.5 | 73.05 |
| Total | 120 | 100.0 |

Source: Field study, 2010

Chart 3: Problems impeding entrepreneurship development

Table 5: Chi-square relationship between youth attitude and level of entrepreneurship development

| Attitude | x-cal | x-tab | df | Decision |
|-------------------|--------|-------|----|----------|
| Level of attitude | 10.268 | 9.49 | 4 | S |

Source: Field Survey, 2010

EFFECTS OF FADAMA III PROJECT ON YOUTH EMPOWERMENT SCHEME ON COWPEA PRODUCTION IN ISEYIN LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OYO STATE

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Abstract

Youth empowerment has been known to facilitate development of the economy. This study investigated the effects of Fadama III Project youth empowerment scheme on cowpea production in Iseyin Local Government Area of Oyo State. Data were collected using structured questionnaires administered to forty-five youths using two-stage sampling technique. Data generated were analysed with descriptive (frequency counts, percentage and means) and inferential (Chi-square, PPMC and ANOVA) statistical tools. The study revealed that 48.9% of the respondents were between the age group of 30 – 39 ($\bar{x} = 34.5$), majority were male (73.3%) and married (71.1%). Also, majority (46.7%) had secondary education while 60.0% had household size of 5 – 7 ($\bar{x} = 5.7$). The youth farmers indicated that lack of modern implements to harvest cowpea (88.9%), lack of access to credit (68.9%) and problem of post-harvest storage facilities and diseases infestation (66.7%) were serious constraints in cowpea production in the study area. Result of the correlation analysis showed significant differences between respondents' farm size ($r = 0.765, p \leq 0.05$), farming experience ($r = 0.625, p \leq 0.05$), age ($r = 0.392, p \leq 0.05$), and cowpea production. The ANOVA table revealed significant relationships between respondents' yield ($F = 4.145, p \leq 0.05$), income ($F = 3.842, p \leq 0.05$) before and after intervention of Fadama III. The study recommended that access to credit and research on post-harvest storage facilities and diseases infestation must be improved upon to ease cowpea production.

Keywords: Fadama III Project, Youth Empowerment, Cowpea Production

Introduction

Agriculture is an important sector in the economic development and poverty alleviation drive of many countries. Its importance is more pronounced in the developing countries including Nigeria where it is the main thrust of national services, employment, food and foreign exchange earnings (Adebayo and Okuneye, 2005). The role of agricultural sector as the largest earner of foreign exchange was overtaken by the oil sector. Despite that, agriculture engages about 70% of the labour force (NBS, 2007). Even though, agricultural holdings are generally small and scattered; farming is often the subsistence variety, characterized by simple tools and shifting cultivation. Governments in Nigeria have come up with programmes to stimulate youth's interest in agricultural production since the late 1980s. In 1986, the Federal Government established the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) to provide vocational training to the youths and in 1987, the better life programme was created to empower women, especially female youths in the rural areas through skill acquisition and health care training (Akpan, 2010).

In addition, the Peoples Bank and Community Banks were established in 1989 and 1990 respectively, to provide credit facilities to low income earners embarking on agriculture on agricultural production and other micro enterprises, with special

consideration to youth engaging in agricultural production (Akpan, 2010). Youth is a state of transition between childhood and adulthood characterized by the possession of attributes such as energy, intelligence and hope which enable the youth to improve their knowledge and capabilities (Erenie, 2002). The United Nation's Youth Agenda (UNYA) (2004) defined a youth as an individual between the ages of 15-24 years.

Youths constitute about 40% of the Nigerian population (NPC, 2006) and are the major group much needed for agricultural transformation. Youth in agriculture has been described as a very important structure for land and agrarian reform which will go a long way towards promoting the interest of youths in the agricultural sector of the economy (Gwanya, 2008). Hence, empowering the youths facilitates development of the economy. Odebode (2000) opines that in Nigeria, youth formed a very significant proportion for rural communities for which their existence and potentials are well known. Evidence has however, shown that a number of factors militate against youth participation in rural communities development efforts to ensue transformation in behavior and in their involvement in rural community development activities. Due to enormous potential known to be considerably underutilized, it becomes obvious to identify where youth involved in rural development could be utilized for a desired change

in the rural areas and the country at large. Youth with sound physical and matured health are the active population of any nation. Hence, their participation in agricultural activities go a long way in shaping the developmental height of the nation.

Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*) is a crop of great economic importance in Nigeria. It is an essential component of many cropping systems and it constitutes a cheap vegetable source of protein. Its protein content is about 20 – 25% and is double the protein values of most cereals. Cowpea also fixed atmospheric nitrogen through symbiosis with nodule bacteria (*Rhizobium sp*) thereby enriching the soil. It is drought tolerant and able to survive under low soil moisture conditions (IAR&T, 2010).

Agriculture in Nigeria has untapped potential to create jobs, both directly and indirectly. In order to attract young people, agriculture will need to be more dynamic and appealing than it is now, and young people will need to view the sector more positively than they do now (Institute of Development Studies, 2012).

The importance of Fadama lands stem from the high level of residual moisture even during dry season as well as during drought conditions. The Fadama are also generally higher in organic matter and nutrients than adjacent upland soils (Kyuma, 2001). Until recently, little attention has been given to Fadama lands. The Third National Fadama Development Project (Fadama III) was established with the

main thrust to sustainably increase the incomes of all inclusive Fadama users namely: farmers, pastoralists, fisher folks, hunters, gatherers and service providers, through empowering communities to take charge of their own development agenda and by reducing conflicts among users. The project is being implemented in 36 States and FCT (Nigeria National Report, 2009).

The Project Development Objective (PDO) of Fadama III was to increase users of rural and water resources on a sustainable basis. The implementation of the Third National Fadama Development Project commenced in 2009 in Oyo State. The project is a development intervention jointly financed by the World Bank (55.6%) and the federal, state and local governments in the ratio of 5.1%, 17.1% and 8.9% respectively while the participating communities contributed 13.3.% (PIM, 2009).

Justification of the Study

The rapid decline in agricultural cowpea production has been attributed to the continuous decline in agricultural labour. This consequently in occasioned by the continued efflux of the youth and school leavers from the rural farming communities in search of employment and greener pasture other than agriculture.

In addition, Miri (1996) posited that the survival of agriculture requires the attraction and attention of the younger generation whose perception of agriculture is ostensible. A generation who would rather work in an office

than out in the fields getting their hands dirty with soils. Thus, it is not surprising that most young people in the developing world express a desire to leave farms. FAO (2000) enlisted Nigeria amongst the nations that were technically unable to meet their food needs from rain-fed production given their low level of inputs. Cowpea production in Nigeria is predominantly rain-fed although supplemented with irrigation in the dry season. One way to harness the agricultural potential of the country is by exploiting the Fadama which is small-scale, farmer-based, privatized irrigation system for crop production especially during the dry season. Hence, it substitute large scale irrigation system of production, which failed to meet the food self-sufficiency and food security of the country (Baba, 1993). The importance of Fadama cropping system especially cowpea production arises from the fact that Fadama activity afforded people some opportunities at a time they would have been idle, besides, the surplus labour during dry seasons is utilized unlike in the rainy season when labour is a constraint (Sanda and Ayo, 1994). Hence, youth involvement in cowpea production will therefore not only fill the much needed narrowing gap of demand and supply of cowpea in the study area, but improve the socio-economic life of the rural people and harness the development of vocational agriculture among the rural youths in the state.

Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- describe the socio-economic characteristics of youth in the study area
- examine the access of youths to Fadama III intervention in the study area
- identify the benefits derived by youths from Fadama III in the study area
- ascertain the production level of youths before and after the intervention in the study area
- identify the constraints undermining the components and scheme of the Fadama intervention in the study area

Methodology

The study was conducted in Iseyin Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria. Iseyin is approximately 100 kilometers North of Ibadan. It has a population of 236,000 (NPC, 2006). The local government area is on the coordinates 7° 58'N 3° 36'E. Iseyin Local Government shares common border with Akinyele, Oyo West, Itesiwaju and Ibarapa East Local Governments to the West, East, North and South respectively. The primary industry of the study area is cotton-based textile known as "Aso Oke". Tobacco is also grown and it is as a result of this that one of the biggest tobacco companies owned by the British and Americans had an office in the city. The major ethnic group in the area is Yoruba. Crops grown in the study area include yam, maize, cassava and cowpea. Farmers in the

study area also keep livestock's such as cattle, poultry, goat, sheep and pigs. And the permanent tree crops planted by farmers include cashew, mangoes, oranges and cocoa. A two-stage sampling technique was used for the study. Three youth groups (Ado Awaye, Nico-Ogun/Osun River Basin and Otiri Farm Settlement) with population size of 162, 135 and 153 respectively, noted for cowpea production within the study area were purposively selected. Simple random sampling was used to select 10% of the population from each groups to make a total of 45 respondents. Structured questionnaire was used to collect data for the study.

Results and Discussion

Socio-economic characteristics of respondents.

Data in Table 1 show that majority of the respondents (48.9%) were between the age group of 30 – 39 ($\bar{x} = 34.5$), male (73.3%) and married (71.1%). By implication therefore, most of the youths involved in the Fadama cowpea project would be responsible people who have family to cater for as evident by their marital status.

Majority (46.7%) had secondary education of Islamic faith (60.0%) and household size (60.0%) of 5 – 7. As shown in Table 1, the primary occupation of majority of the youths (91.1%) was farming and only 17.8% had less than 10 years' experience in farming. This finding is probably due to the rural nature of the study area (Iseyin Local Government) where

farming is the major occupation of the inhabitants.

Respondents Frequency of Access to Fadama Intervention

As shown in Table 2, majority of the respondents (93.3%) had regular access to extension/advisory services in the study area. This is not unconnected with the fact that extension/advisory services was one of the components of Fadama III and that most of the personnel in Fadama III are seasoned extension officers who were seconded from Oyo State Agricultural Development Programme. Only 2.2% and 4.4% respondents respectively claimed that they regularly access credit facilities and linkage with agricultural insurance in the study area. This implies that agricultural finance was not part of the package for Fadama III Project and that the youth farmers did not enjoy any credit facility and may likely be ignorant of the Nigerian Agricultural Insurance Scheme (NAIS) which was established to underwrite risks associated with agriculture. This is in line with Amusat and Olagunju (2013) who asserted that Agricultural Insurance Scheme are not usually included in empowerment schemes in Nigeria.

Respondents' Extent of Benefit derived from Fadama III Intervention

Table 3 on respondents' extent of benefits derived from Fadama III intervention shows that majority

(88.9%) indicated that they derived benefit to a large extent on extension/advisory services, followed by provision of leasing land for farm activities (86.7%). Also, majority of the respondents indicated that they derived less benefits on access to farm credit (53.3%) and supply of farm inputs free of charge (48.9%) were to a lesser extent. It follows that most of the benefits derived from Fadama III Project youths empowerment scheme on cowpea production in the study area were on extension services, transfer of technologies on cowpea production, access to markets and provision of leasing land for farm activities. This result gives credence to the assertion that most empowerment programme on agriculture especially for youths need to have extension component (Fawole and Tijani, 2012).

Respondents' Constraints from Fadama III Intervention

Table 4 shows that Fadama III Project youth empowerment scheme were affected by different constraints. Among the serious constraints, lack of modern implement to harvest cowpea (88.9%) was the common constraint, followed by lack of access to credit (68.9%) and closely followed by problems of post-harvest storage facilities and diseases infestation (66.7%). Youths in the study area further identified lack of access to credit constituting a serious constraint (68.9%). This implies that the project does not empowered the youths with credit facilities but provide grants to improve their productivity and

livelihood. Based on the findings in this table, relevant government agencies should try to provide credit facilities for cowpea farmers, problem of lack of modern implements to harvest cowpea should also be transferred by extension agency to research institutes with a view to generate technologies to solve this problem.

Respondents Yield of Cowpea and Income

The result of the study as shown in table 5 indicates the cowpea produced by the participants in the Project Youth Empowerment Scheme. The average farm size (ha) of youths before the introduction of Fadama III was 1.4ha compared to the average size of 2.7ha after the intervention of Fadama III Youth Empowerment Scheme on cowpea production. This reveals that there was a marginal increase of 1.3ha in the area of land used for cowpea production. This may be due to encouragement and benefit derived from the scheme such as external advisory services, supply of farm inputs free of charge, transfer of relevant technologies on cowpea production, provision of leasing of land for farm activities.

Table 6 reveals that the average yield and income of youth farmers before the intervention were 1,289kg of cowpea and ₦167,377.80 respectively while the average yield and income were 22,583kg of cowpea and ₦343,044.40 respectively after the intervention. It is obvious that the yield and the income of the

participants increased after the intervention due to the aforelisted benefits derived by youths who participated in the project. Therefore, the Fadama III Project introduced in 2009 in Oyo State by the World Bank and the Federal Government has the potential to contribute to Millennium Development Goal of poverty reduction by 2015.

Relationship between Socio-economic Characteristics and Cowpea Production

The Chi-square analysis in Table 7 tested relationship between selected socio-economic characteristics and cowpea production. Results show that there was significant relationship between marital status ($\chi^2 = 6.223, p \leq 0.05$), educational attainment ($\chi^2 = 9.280, p \leq 0.05$) and cowpea production in the study area. It implies a married youth would engage in cowpea production from which he can provide household food for his family, thus acting responsible. Likewise, one's education level can make one aware of the nutritional benefit of cowpea, hence their involvement in cowpea production.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation in table 8 shows the relationship between age, farming experience, household size and farm size and cowpea production in the study area. Results reveal significant relationship between farming experience ($r = 0.625, p \leq 0.05$), farm size ($r = 0.765, p \leq 0.05$), age ($r = 0.392, p \leq 0.05$) and cowpea production. This implies that farm size, farming experience and age

have great impact on level of production of cowpea in the study area. It follows that an experienced farmer with an adequate farm size is expected to harvest more cowpea from his production activities.

The results of ANOVA in Table 9 and Table 10 also showed that there are significant relationship in the cowpea yield ($F = 4.145, p \leq 0.05$) and income ($F = 3.842, p \leq 0.05$) of the participants before and after the Fadama III youth empowerment scheme on cowpea production was introduced in the study area. This agreed with the findings of Nwanze (2010) and USAID (2005) that it is possible to attain higher yields per hectare of crops provided quality inputs are used as experienced during intervention and empowerment scheme.

Conclusions and Recommendation

The Fadama III Youth Empowerment Intervention Scheme on cowpea influenced access to extension/advisory services, agricultural inputs (seeds, chemical, etc.), farm machinery and marketing opportunities by the youths and resulted in large expanse of farm cultivated, higher yield and income of the youths above what they produced or earned before the intervention on cowpea production of Fadama III Project. It is therefore, concluded that intervention of Fadama III Project has potential to guarantee access to advisory service and input supports by the farmers and by implication to

guarantee optimum cowpea production on youth plots as well as sustainable income generation for our unemployed youths. The youths in empowerment scheme of cowpea production should be helped and encouraged by relevant authorities through provision of needed resources to alleviate the constraints identified in the study area. In addition, activities of Fadama III on cowpea production, have to be expanded to cover all categories of farmers if the nutritional intake of the farm families are to be enhanced.

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Table 1: Socio-economic characteristics of respondents (n = 45)

| Variables | Frequency | Percentage | Mean value |
|--------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Age (years) | | | |
| 20 – 29 | 12 | 26.7 | |
| 30 – 39 | 22 | 48.9 | |
| 40 and above | 11 | 24.4 | 34.5 |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 33 | 73.3 | |
| Female | 12 | 26.7 | |
| Marital Status | | | |
| Single | 11 | 24.4 | |
| Married | 32 | 71.1 | |
| Widower | 2 | 4.4 | |
| Educational status | | | |
| No formal education | 7 | 15.5 | |
| Primary education | 5 | 11.1 | |
| Secondary education | 21 | 46.7 | |
| Tertiary education | 12 | 26.7 | |
| Household size | | | |
| 2 – 4 | 10 | 22.2 | |
| 5 – 7 | 27 | 60.0 | |
| 8 – 10 | 8 | 17.8 | 5.7 |
| Religion | | | |
| Islam | 27 | 60.0 | |
| Christianity | 15 | 33.3 | |
| Traditional | 3 | 6.7 | |
| Farm experience (years) | | | |
| Less than 10 | 8 | 17.8 | |
| 10 – 19 | 14 | 31.1 | |
| 20 – 29 | 12 | 26.7 | |
| 30 and above | 11 | 24.4 | 18.5 |
| Primary occupation | | | |
| Farming | 41 | 91.1 | |
| Student | 1 | 2.2 | |
| Trading/business | 2 | 4.4 | |
| Civil servant | 1 | 2.2 | |
| Secondary occupation | | | |

| | | |
|------------------|----|------|
| Farming | 5 | 11.1 |
| Trading/business | 8 | 17.8 |
| Teaching | 2 | 4.4 |
| Hunting | 1 | 2.2 |
| Artisan | 2 | 4.4 |
| No response | 27 | 60 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 2: Respondents' frequency of access to Fadama III intervention

| S/N | Elements of Intervention | Regularly | Sometimes | Never |
|-----|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1. | Agricultural inputs (seeds, chemicals, etc.) | 29 (64.4) | 16 (35.6) | 0 (0) |
| 2. | Extension/advisory services | 42 (93.3) | 2 (4.4) | 1 (2.2) |
| 3. | Credit facilities | 1 (2.2) | 28 (62.2) | 16 (35.6) |
| 4. | Linkage with insurance | 2 (4.4) | 19 (42.2) | 24 (53.3) |
| 5. | Marketing opportunities | 29 (64.4) | 14 (31.1) | 2 (4.4) |
| 6. | Farm machinery | 29 (64.4) | 2 (4.4) | 14 (31.1) |

Source: Field Survey, 2014.

Table 3: Respondents' extent of benefits derived from Fadama III intervention

| S/N | Benefits | To a large extent | To a lesser extent | Not at all |
|-----|--|-------------------|--------------------|------------|
| 1. | Supply of farm inputs free of charge | 22 (48.9) | 22 (48.9) | 1 (2.2) |
| 2. | Access to farm credit | 3 (6.7) | 24 (53.3) | 18 (40.0) |
| 3. | Extension/advisory services | 40 (88.9) | 5 (11.1) | 0 (0) |
| 4. | Transfer of relevant technologies on cowpea production | 31 (68.9) | 4 (8.9) | 10 (22.2) |
| 5. | Access to markets | 26 (57.8) | 19 (42.2) | 0 (4.4) |
| 6. | Provision of leasing of land for farm activities | 39 (86.7) | 3 (6.7) | 3 (6.7) |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 4: Respondents' Constraints from Fadama III Intervention

| S/N | Constraints | Serious | Mild | Not a constraint |
|-----|------------------------------|-----------|-----------|------------------|
| 1. | Unstable government policies | 18 (40.0) | 15 (33.3) | 12 (26.7) |
| 2. | Unfulfilled | 16 | 17 | 12 (26.7) |

| | | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | promises | (35.6) | (37.8) | |
| 3. | Lack of access to credit | 31 (68.9) | 12 (26.7) | 2 (4.4) |
| 4. | Untimely supply of inputs | 18 (40.0) | 15 (33.3) | 12 (26.7) |
| 5. | Inadequate training/extension services/advisory services | 20 (44.4) | 13 (28.9) | 12 (26.7) |
| 6. | Use of top-bottom approach | 26 (57.8) | 13 (28.9) | 6 (13.3) |
| 7. | Market accessibility problem | 19 (42.2) | 15 (33.3) | 11 (24.4) |
| 8. | Lack of storage facilities | 17 (37.8) | 17 (37.8) | 11 (24.4) |
| 9. | Lack of modern implement to harvest cowpea | 40 (88.9) | 5 (11.1) | 0 (0) |
| 10. | Problems of post-harvest storage facilities and diseases infestation | 30 (66.7) | 7 (15.6) | 8 (17.8) |

Source: Field Survey, 2014.

Table 5: Respondents' farm size of cowpea

| Characteristics | After introduction of Fadama III | | Before introduction of Fadama III | |
|----------------------|----------------------------------|------------|-----------------------------------|------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Farm size (hectares) | | | | |
| Less than 3 | 31 | 68.9 | 42 | 93.3 |

| | | | | |
|-------------------|-----|------|-----|-----|
| 3 – 4 | 11 | 24.4 | 3 | 6.7 |
| 5 – 6 | 2 | 4.4 | - | - |
| 7 – 8 | - | - | - | - |
| 9 – 10 | 1 | 2.2 | - | - |
| Average farm size | 2.7 | | 1.4 | |

Source: Field Survey, 2014.

Table 6: Respondents' Average yield and Average Income of cowpea

| Characteristics | After introduction of Fadama III | | Before introduction of I | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|------------|--------------------------|------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Yield (kg/hectare) | | | | |
| Up to 5,000 | 42 | 93.3 | 43 | 95.6 |
| 5,001 – 10,000 | 1 | 2.2 | - | - |
| 10,001 – 15,000 | - | - | 2 | 4.4 |
| 15,001 – 20,000 | - | - | - | - |
| 20,001 – 25,000 | 1 | 2.2 | - | - |
| 25,001 and above | 1 | 2.2 | - | - |
| Average yield (kg) | 2,582.7 | | 1,288.9 | |
| Income (₦) | | | | |
| Up to 300,000 | 27 | 60.0 | 40 | 88.9 |
| 300,001 – 600,000 | 13 | 28.9 | 4 | 8.9 |
| 600,001 – 900,000 | 3 | 6.7 | 1 | 2.2 |
| 900,001 – 1,200,000 | 1 | 2.2 | - | - |
| 1,200,001 and above | 1 | 2.2 | - | - |
| Average income (₦) | 343,044.4 | | 167,377.8 | |

Source: Field Survey, 2014.

Table 7: Chi-square relationship between respondents' socio-economic characteristics and cowpea production

| Variable | χ^2 | df | p - value | Remark |
|------------------------|----------|----|-----------|-----------------|
| Marital status | 6.223 | 2 | 0.045 | Significant |
| Educational attainment | 9.280 | 3 | 0.026 | Significant |
| Sex | 0.268 | 1 | 0.735 | Not significant |
| Primary occupation | 2.109 | 2 | 0.348 | Not significant |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|-------|---|-------|-----------------|
| Secondary occupation | 3.692 | 4 | 0.449 | Not significant |
| Religion | 1.711 | 2 | 0.425 | Not significant |

Source: Field Survey, 2014.

Table 8: Correlation analysis between respondents' socio-economic characteristics and cowpea production

| Variable | r - value | p - value | Remark |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|
| Farm size | 0.765 | 0.000 | Significant |
| Farming experience | 0.625 | 0.000 | Significant |
| Age | 0.392 | 0.008 | Significant |
| Household size | 0.232 | 0.125 | Not significant |

Source: Field Survey, 2014.

Table 9: ANOVA of difference between respondents' cowpea yield before and after intervention of Fadama III

| Source | Sum of Square | df | Mean Square | F | Sig | Remark |
|----------------|---------------|----|-------------|-------|-------|-------------|
| Between groups | 15.502 | 31 | 0.500 | 4.145 | 0.000 | Significant |
| Within groups | 6.998 | 58 | 0.121 | | | |
| Total | 22.500 | 89 | | | | |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 10: ANOVA of difference between respondents' cowpea income before and after intervention of Fadama III

| Source | Sum of Square | df | Mean Square | F | Sig | Remark |
|----------------|---------------|----|-------------|-------|-------|-------------|
| Between groups | 16.267 | 36 | 0.452 | 3.842 | 0.000 | Significant |
| Within groups | 6.233 | 53 | 0.118 | | | |
| Total | 22.500 | 89 | | | | |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

RURAL YOUTHS ACCESS TO INFRASTRUCTURAL FACILITIES: IMPLICATION FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN IDDO LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OYO STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The study investigated rural youths access to selected infrastructural facilities and its implication on agricultural development in Iddo Local Government Area of Oyo State. Data on personal characteristics, availability of infrastructural facilities, accessibility to selected infrastructure and constraints faced in the use of infrastructural facilities were collected with the use of a structured questionnaire and interview guide from one hundred and twenty (120 youths) from six villages using simple random sampling technique. The results from the study show that 53.3% of the youths were female while 46.7% were male with a mean age of 15 years and mean household size of 6 persons per household. About half (55.8%) of the youth have their own farm and cultivate maize, cassava and vegetables as major crops. Primary school, electricity, pipe borne water and communication facilities were the infrastructural facilities available in the study area. However, pipe borne water, health care and communication facilities were not accessible to 54%, 60.8% and 59.2% of the respondents respectively. Constraint in accessing infrastructure as indicated by the respondents were power outage (100%), insufficient drugs at healthcare centres (50%), poor medical facilities (50%), inadequate teaching materials (81.7%), lack of conducive teaching environment (59.2%) and high cost of communication devices (59.2%) among many others. Chi-square analysis shows a significant association ($p < 0.05$) between education and accessibility to selected infrastructural facilities ($\chi^2 = 11.15$, $df = 3$); ownership of farm land was also found to have significant association with accessibility of selected infrastructural facilities ($\chi^2 = 6.16$, $df = 1$). It is therefore recommended that infrastructural facilities should be made accessible at affordable cost to rural youths to enhance

agricultural productivity by government and non-governmental organization.

Key words: Rural youths, Infrastructural facilities, agricultural Development.

INTRODUCTION

Rural infrastructure which comprise of rural roads, market, irrigation system, water supply, telecommunication facilities, health and education facilities are basic to the quality of life in rural areas and important pivot for economic growth and development. Investments in rural infrastructure have resulted in phenomenal growth in agricultural production, while rapid growth in agricultural production has led to a significant trickle-down effect for the rural poor (Binsinwager, Kahandker and Rosenzweig 1993). Infrastructure plays an important role, especially in a developing country context where a larger percentage of the poor section of the society depends on this sector for subsistence living (Tariq, 2008). The growth enhancing nature of infrastructure warrants a closer scrutiny of the relationship between the level of agricultural development and the level of availability and or accessibility to infrastructure. This assumes importance because the agricultural sector plays a dominant role in alleviating poverty and the overall growth of the agricultural sector and its components such as growth of agricultural employment,

income and output depend largely on the level of investment made on infrastructure.

Nigeria's rural communities are endowed with youths between ages 13 and 30 years who constitute over 32 percent of the rural population (Torimiro, 2008). The Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations as cited by Adewumi (1999) defined youths as young men and women between the ages 14 – 24 years. People in this age bracket have a lot of energy that could be utilized for a meaningful and productive life if they have access to infrastructural facilities. Adedoyin (2005) posited that a crucial factor in sustainable development is the establishment and the strengthening of youths because they have a number of characteristics amongst which are innovative proneness, minimal risk aversion, faster reaction time, less fear for failure, less conservation, greater physical strength, greater knowledge acquisition propensity, faster rate of learning among many others which when nurtured and utilized are invaluable assets to sustainable agricultural development.

Retaining youths in the rural areas has been a major problem as they continue to migrate to urban areas

looking for white collar jobs; thereby leaving the aged in the rural areas to do farm work. Some of the reasons adduced to this according to Torimiro (2008) are lack of rural infrastructure and social amenities, poor living standards of the rural dwellers, high taste for city life among many others. The provision of rural infrastructure in developing countries is an integral to their development and yet it often does not receive adequate attention from the government.

Investment in rural infrastructure is essential to increase youth access to input which will lead to output market, to stimulate rural non-farm economy and vitalize rural towns, to increase consumer demand in rural areas and to facilitate the integration of rural youths into national economy (Anderson and Shimokawa, 2006).

This study therefore investigated rural youth access to infrastructural facilities and the implication on agricultural development.

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Ido Local Government Area of Oyo State with rainfall pattern of about 1.83 mm and about four months of dry season. Ido is the largest LGA in Oyo State covering about 3,570 sq. km. It is predominantly rural with major occupation of the inhabitants being farming. The farmers grow crops such as maize,

yam, tomatoes, melon and vegetables. The study focused on five selected infrastructural facilities which directly concerns the youths. They are electricity, pipe-borne water, health centre, schools and communication facilities. Data were collected through structured questionnaire and interview guide. Six villages were randomly selected namely Idi-Amu, Aba Dada, Akufo, Adejumo, Elemusonso and Koguo. Twenty youths were sampled per village using the convenient sampling technique making a total of 120 youths. Descriptive statistics such as frequency count and percentages were used to analyze the data while chi-square analysis was used to test the relationship between personal Characteristics of respondents and their accessibility to some infrastructural facilities

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1.1 Personal Characteristics of Respondents:

Findings in table 1 shows that about half (53.3 %) of the youth sampled were female and the mean age was 15 years, 10 percent had no formal education, while 58.3 percent had secondary education. This is in line with the findings of Islam (1997) that education enhances the productivity of the workforce and stimulates entrepreneurial activity. This is also supported by the assertion of Gordon and Craig

(2001) that education increases skill level. The household size of majority of the respondents (47.5%) ranged from 4-7 members per household with mean household size of 6. This implies that there will be more hands to work on the farm. This is in line with the findings of Reardson (1997) that family size affects the ability of household to supply labour to the farm sector.

Results from the study also show that farming is the major occupation of both parents (60.8% and 61.7% respectively). It was further shown that 40% of the youths were into cultivation of maize, vegetables (40.0%) and cassava (40.8%). This implies that some youths still have interest in farming and to sustain this interest, they should be encouraged by providing them with some basic infrastructural facilities which will make them stay in the rural area and take farming as a profession and therefore serve as a replacement for the ageing farming population.

1.2 Availability of Infrastructural Facilities

Results in Table 2 show the availability of infrastructural facilities in the study area. Secondary school was found to be the least available infrastructure in the study areas as indicated by 16.7% of the respondents. This

implies that much pressure would be placed on the available secondary school.

Sixty percent (60%) of the youth claimed that electricity is available in their communities; pipe borne water was also available as indicated by 65% of the respondents, while only 25% indicated the availability of health care facilities. It was observed during the study that only one health centre served about three communities while the other two communities have to travel to where the centre is located. This implies that there will be more pressure on the existing health care facilities. 54% of the respondents also indicated availability of communication facilities such as GSM (telephone) while the remaining 45 percent said there were no communication facilities in their locality.

This is connected with the submission of Adeoye (2007) that lack of adequate and reliable infrastructure affects the daily lives of every rural African family. Family efforts to escape poverty and lift themselves above subsistence level are limited by the present poor access to vital information. This rural neglect leads to negative consequences such as rural-urban drift resulting in unemployment of youths, high crime rate, prostitution, child labour, insecurity, money

laundering, poverty, proliferation of shanty living areas, spread of diseases, overstretching of available facilities and infrastructures in the urban areas (Harande, 2009).

1.3 Accessibility to Selected Infrastructure

Table 3 shows that electricity was available in six communities but only accessible to members of a community as indicated by 16.7% of the respondents. It was observed that electric poles and high tension wires pass through the other villages but there were no supply of electricity to any of the villages. This may be attributed to lack of transformer to step down the high voltage for domestic consumption. Lack of power supply will probably affect the use of other infrastructure such as processing machines, storage equipment and communication facilities which will definitely impact negatively on agriculture as well as socio-economic life of rural youth. This is in line with the observation of Kesside (1993) and Alaba (2001) that poor and dull life will impact negatively on youth.

Pipe borne water is not accessible to 54 percent of the respondents; Healthcare facility is not also accessible to 60.8% of the respondents. The community primary school is accessible to majority (89.2%) of the respondents, while communication

is not accessible to 59.2%. These findings are in line with Fakayode *et al.* (2008) who observed that the rural population has limited access to services such as schools, health centres and about half of the population lack access to safe drinking water.

IFAD (2007) opined that rural infrastructures in Nigeria have long been neglected, while investment in health, education and water supply has largely been focused on the cities. As a result, the rural population has extremely limited access to services such as schools and health centres and about half of the population lack access to safe drinking water, limited educational opportunities and health and these have perpetuated the poverty cycle.

1.3 Constraints Faced in Accessing Infrastructural Facilities

Table 4 shows that lack power supply is a very serious constraint in the study area. There is no electrical power to pump the borehole water. All that is available in the area is the hand pump machine, which has constituted serious constraints as indicated by 92 percent of the youths. Insufficient drugs and poor medical facilities are also very serious constraints to 50 percent of the respondents to healthcare facilities. The classrooms are not conducive to learning; inadequate learning

materials are definitely very serious constraints to schools as indicated by 59.2 percent and 81.7 percent of the respondents, respectively, while high tariff and high cost of communication devices are also very serious constraints to 45 percent and 59.2 percent of the respondents, respectively. Infrastructure contributes directly to poverty alleviation by providing and supporting the delivery of key services. Inadequate infrastructure is one of the key bottlenecks for successful utilization of agricultural research and technology because it limits options and agricultural outputs. Failure to accelerate investment in rural infrastructure will make a mockery of efforts to achieve the agricultural transformation agenda of the present Federal Government of Nigeria. Improved accessibility to infrastructure is therefore an indispensable pre-requisite for the provision of adequate living conditions in rural areas

1.4 Chi square analysis showing the relationship between personal Characteristics of respondents and their accessibility to some infrastructural facilities

Table 5 show that education ($\chi^2=11.15$, $P < 0.05$) and farm ownership ($\chi^2= 6.16$, $P < 0.05$) are significantly related to youth access to selected infrastructure. Education is one of the most important means

of empowering youth with knowledge, skills and self confidence necessary to participate fully in the development process. Education will empower the youths on the need for infrastructural development which will enhance agricultural productivity. Ownership of farmland will also boast income generation needed by the youth for the procurement and maintenance of infrastructure and this will help to improve the standard of living of the youth in the rural areas.

CONCLUSION

Inadequate and poor quality infrastructure has been known to have implications on persistence poverty. The study has shown that youths in the study area have low access to infrastructural facilities such as electricity, pipe borne water, Healthcare centre, secondary school and communication facilities. This accounts for poverty differentials between the youths in the rural areas and those in the urban area. Hence, if the youth in the rural areas decide to migrate to urban areas, this will negatively affect the need for continuity and sustainability of agriculture as a noble traditional occupation which is a major economic and of cultural importance in Nigeria. It is therefore recommended that the

government and the various stakeholders in agricultural and rural development give necessary attention to the problem of inaccessibility of rural youths to infrastructural facilities in the study area.

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Table 1: Personal characteristics of the respondents (n= 120)

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percentage | Mean |
|-------------------------------|-----------|------------|------|
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 56 | 46.7 | |
| Female | 64 | 53.3 | |
| Age | | | |
| 13-17 | 65 | 54.2 | |
| 16 – 22 | 54 | 45.0 | 15 |
| 23 and above | 1 | 0.8 | |
| Educational attainment | | | |
| No formal education | 12 | 10.0 | |
| Primary education | 38 | 31.7 | |
| Junior secondary | 24 | 20.0 | |
| Senior secondary | 46 | 38.3 | |
| Household size | | | |
| 2 - 3 | 3 | 2.5 | |
| 4 – 5 | 43 | 35.83 | |
| 6 – 7 | 57 | 47.5 | 6 |

| | | |
|-----------------------------|----|-------|
| Above 7 | 17 | 14.17 |
| Farm Ownership | | |
| Yes | 67 | 55.8 |
| No | 53 | 44.2 |
| *Crop produced | | |
| Cassava | 49 | 40.8 |
| Maize | 48 | 40.0 |
| Vegetables | 48 | 40.0 |
| *Father's Occupation | | |
| Farming | 73 | 60.8 |
| Trading | 8 | 6.7 |
| Transporter | 21 | 17.5 |
| Civil servant | 12 | 10.0 |
| Clergy | 6 | 5.0 |
| *Mother's Occupation | | |
| Farming | 74 | 61.7 |
| Trading | 34 | 28.3 |
| Civil servant | 12 | 10.0 |
| Transporter | - | - |
| Clergy | - | - |

Source: Field survey, 2013

*Multiple choices

Table 2: Availability of Infrastructural Facilities (n=120)

| Infrastructural Facilities | Available | | Not Available | |
|----------------------------|-----------|---|---------------|---|
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----|-------|-----|------|
| Electricity | 72 | 60.0 | 48 | 40.0 |
| Pipe born water | 78 | 65.0 | 42 | 35.0 |
| Health care | 30 | 25.0 | 90 | 75.0 |
| Primary school | 120 | 100.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Secondary school | 20 | 16.7 | 100 | 83.3 |
| Communication facilities | 65 | 54.2 | 55 | 45.8 |

Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 3: Accessibility to infrastructural facilities (n = 120)

| Facility | Level of accessibility | | | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|------|----------------------|------|----------------|--------|
| | Always accessible | | Sometimes accessible | | Not accessible | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Electricity | 20 | 16.7 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 83.7.0 |
| Pipe borne water | 29 | 24.2 | 37 | 30.8 | 54 | 45.0 |
| Healthcare | 29 | 24.2 | 18 | 15.0 | 73 | 60.8 |
| Primary school | 107 | 89.2 | 13 | 10.8 | 0 | 0 |
| Secondary school | 48 | 40 | 23 | 19.7 | 49 | 40.8 |
| Communication facility | 31 | 25.8 | 18 | 15.0 | 71 | 59.2 |

Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 4: Constraints in accessing facilities

| Constraint | Not serious | | Serious | | Very serious | |
|--|-------------|------|---------|------|--------------|-------|
| | Freq. | % | Freq. | % | Freq. | % |
| a) Electricity | | | | | | |
| (i) No power supply | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 120 | 100.0 |
| (ii) High tariff | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| (iii) Poor maintenance | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| b) Pipe borne water | | | | | | |
| (i) No power supply to pump water | 0 | 0 | 11 | 92.0 | 73 | 60.8 |
| (ii) Insufficient water during dry season | 37 | 30.8 | 23 | 19.2 | 24 | 20.2 |
| (iii) Proximity problem | 18 | 15.0 | 36 | 30.0 | 30 | 25.0 |
| c) Health facility | | | | | | |
| (i) Insufficient drugs | 0 | 0 | 18 | 15.0 | 60 | 50.0 |
| (ii) Shortage of medical personnel | 0 | 0 | 24 | 20.0 | 54 | 45.0 |
| (iii) Poor medical facilities | 0 | 0 | 18 | 15.0 | 60 | 50.0 |
| (iv) Proximity | 12 | 10.0 | 12 | 10.0 | 54 | 45.0 |
| d) School | | | | | | |
| (i) High school fees | 54 | 45.0 | 18 | 15.0 | 48 | 40.0 |
| (ii) Insufficient teachers | 36 | 30.0 | 54 | 45.0 | 30 | 25.0 |
| (iii) Not conducive classroom | 6 | 5.0 | 43 | 35.8 | 71 | 59.2 |
| (iv) Inadequate learning materials | 0 | 0 | 22 | 18.3 | 98 | 81.7 |
| e) Communication | | | | | | |
| (i) Poor network | 24 | 20.0 | 31 | 25.8 | 47 | 39.2 |
| (ii) High tariff | 12 | 10.0 | 36 | 30.0 | 18 | 15.0 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|----|------|----|------|
| (iii) High cost of communication device | 0 | 0 | 31 | 25.8 | 71 | 59.2 |
|---|---|---|----|------|----|------|

Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 5: Chi square analysis showing the relationship between personal Characteristics of respondents and their accessibility to some infrastructural facilities

| Personal characteristic | χ^2 value | df | P-value | Decision |
|-------------------------|----------------|----|---------|----------|
| Sex | 1.32 | 1 | 0.250 | NS |
| Age | 6.76 | 3 | 0.080 | NS |
| Education | 11.15 | 3 | 0.011 | S |
| Household size | 0.29 | 8 | 0.344 | NS |
| Farm ownership | 6.16 | 1 | 0.011 | S |

NS = not significant S= Significant

Source: Field survey, 2013



ASSESSMENT OF KNOWLEDGE OF CHILD'S RIGHTS ACT IN OGUN STATE: IMPLICATION FOR SOCIALIZING CHILDREN THROUGH FARMING

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Abstract

The Child's Rights Act (CRA) was enacted in 2003 by the national assembly and subsequently domesticated into the Child's Rights Law (CRL) in Ogun state so as to ensure the effective implementation of the CRA by reducing incidences of child abuse and maltreatment in Ogun state and ultimately in Nigeria. This study therefore assessed the knowledge of CRA in Ogun State and how this relates to socializing children through farming. This study made use of questionnaires and interview schedules to elicit information from the respondents. The awareness and knowledge of CRA was assessed by sampling 90 children, 65 parents and 60 teachers from rural and urban areas of Ogun state. Social workers (28) were then sampled to identify the challenges facing the CRA implementation in the state. Data collected were analyzed using percentages and means presented in tables and charts. Results showed that majority of the residents were aware of the CRA. Also, it was further revealed that more urban than rural residents were aware of the CRA. Furthermore, it was revealed that only 29.3% of the respondents had knowledge of the content of the CRA. The challenges facing the implementation of CRA include non-acceptance of some parts of the Act by people, people not reporting the incidence of child's rights violations, poor financing of CRA implementation programmes and lack of public awareness of the CRA. The lack of knowledge of the CRA by residents also explains why the involvement of children in agriculture for grooming purposes is misconceived with concepts such as child labour. The study concluded that socializing children through farming requires a deep understanding of the CRA so as to act in the best interest of children while ensuring sustainable

food production in Ogun State through agriculture. Finally, this study recommends that training programmes that will improve the knowledge of residents about the CRA should be organized by government agencies, NGOs and private individuals

Keywords: Child's Rights Act, Knowledge of CRA, Socialization, Children, Farming.

Introduction

The Child's Rights Act (CRA) is a product of at least two international instruments on the protection of children's rights- the United Nations' Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and the African Union's Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (AUCRWC). Nigeria, being a signatory to the above documents (and having ratified the UNCRC and AUCRWC since 1991 and 2000 respectively), promulgated the CRA in 2003 after about a decade's heated debates on the draft child's rights bill by the National Assembly.

It is the consolidation of all legislations on the rights of the child as far as Nigeria is concerned (UNICEF, 2011). The Act states all the rights and responsibilities of the child without leaving out the duties and obligations of government,

parents/caregivers and other authorities. It protects the Nigerian child from all vices dangerous to his/her physical, mental and spiritual development by prohibiting child marriage and child

betrothal; tattoos and skin marks; use, production and trafficking of narcotic and other drugs by children; buying, selling and hiring of children for the purpose of begging, hawking and prostitution; unlawful sexual intercourse; recruitment of children into the armed forces, etc (Part III of the CRA, 2003).

With these provisions, one would have thought that the Nigerian child will lead a better life free from all forms of abuses and maltreatment since the promulgation of the CRA and its subsequent domestication by at least 24 states of the federation. This is not so because the Nigerian child is still found to be abused and maltreated in form of child labour, street hawking, child trafficking, etc not only in homes but also in schools, eateries/hotels and even on farm most especially by their primary caregivers. In Nigeria, children are still found roaming about the streets begging for money or hawking petty goods while they were supposed to be in school either to cater for themselves or contribute to family/household income (Owolabi, 2012). The effects of child abuse practices vary

depending on the intensity with which the child is involved. These may include poor health condition of the children; lateness to, absence from or even drop-out from school; depression in children and lack of concentration in school (Khartri, 2004). These incidences can also lead to teenage/unwanted pregnancy which may be accompanied by sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) due to the fact that such children may not have adequate knowledge of how to prevent pregnancy and STDs. Due to the poor condition of living in rural areas, rural-urban migration of children and youths takes place. The implication is two-sided. The first is that the population of capable men and women in the rural areas who are supposed to work on farms to provide food for the nation is reduced since according to UNESCO (2006), most of the trafficked persons are women and children from rural communities where agricultural activities take place. In this case food production and security are directly threatened due to the enormous contribution of this group of people to agricultural production. The second side of the effect is that the urban cities become over-populated, which is associated with increased crime rate and other vices. Also, the labour market has become super-saturated resulting in a reduction in the value of labour

(Ofuoku, 2010). The ultimate effect is that there may be increased child mortality rate as well as maternal death which imply a reduction in the population of the active work force of the nation. Hence, the Nigeria is at stake if the children are continually to be maltreated (such as Owolabi, 2012; Umobong, 2010; Okoye, 2011).

Scholars have attributed the causes of the prevalence of child abuse practices despite the enactment of the CRA a decade ago primarily to the inadequate implementation of the CRA and other child-related legislations. Poverty was found by Lachman *et al.* (2002) to be one of the challenges facing child protection in Africa. They believed that a poor parent would make use of all strategies, including child abuse practices, within his/her disposal for survival. One of such instruments for survival by most parents is their children (Okoye, 2011). Other reasons for the prevalence of child abuse in the country are traditional cultural practices (Sossou & Yogtib, 2008), inadequate resources (Onyango & Lynch, 2006), apathy as a result of lack of understanding and full appreciation of the Act (Bamgboye, 2011), lack of awareness and poor knowledge of the Act (Bamgboye, 2011; Okoye, 2011).

In order to bring to light, the level of awareness and knowledge of CRA among residents of Ogun state

as well as establish the challenges facing CRA implementation in the state, this study assessed the knowledge of CRA and the challenges facing its implementation in rural and urban areas of the State. The concept of socializing children through farming was then discussed in line with the findings of this study.

Methodology

Ogun State was purposively chosen for this study because it is one of the first states that domesticated the CRA since March, 2004 (less than six months after the Act was promulgated in Nigeria) and also, the different forms of child abuse are still prevalent within the state. In fact, a 2006 report of UNESCO mentioned Ogun as one of the states which provided more trafficked persons (children included) in Nigeria. The report further stated that an increased number of people are trafficked from rural communities in Oyo, Osun and Ogun states in the South-West. The State is created from the old Western State on February 3, 1976 by the then regime of General Murtala Mohammed. It borders Lagos State to the South, Oyo and Osun states to the North, Ondo State to the east and the Republic of Benin to the west. It lies between longitudes 2° 45' and 3° 55'; and latitudes 7° 01' and 7° and characterized by 1,000mm to 2,599mm annual rainfall in the

northern and southern parts respectively. The 2006 population census presented in the FRN Gazette (2007 and 2009) which put Ogun as one of the few states with higher population of females than males.

The state has three (3) senatorial districts divided into twenty (20) local government areas (LGAs)- Abeokuta North, Abeokuta South, Ado-Odo/Ota, Egbado North, Egbado South, Ewekoro, Ifo, Ijebu East, Ijebu North, Ijebu North East, Ijebu Ode, Ikenne, Imeko-Afon, Ipokia, Obafemi-Owode, Ogun Waterside, Odeda, Odogbolu, Remo North, Shagamu. The residents of Ogun state are primarily civil servants, farmers, traders and artisans.

The respondents used in this study were drawn from four categories of stakeholders concerned with the welfare of children from rural and urban communities of the State. These categories are the children (90), the parents (65), the teachers (60) and the social workers (28). This was achieved through a multistage sampling procedure described below: The first stage involves the purposive selection of Abeokuta south LGA because it is the only LGA in Ogun state that is purely urban with no rural area and the random selection of two (Obafemi-Owode and Sagamu) LGAs out of the remaining 19 LGAs. Stage two entails the

random selection of a school from the list of public secondary schools obtained from Teaching Service Commission's (TESCOM) website. Stage 3 involves the random selection of 50% of the teachers and 30% of students (from 1 junior and 1 senior class) from the selected public secondary schools. The fourth stage involves the convenient sampling of 65 parents from communities around the sampled schools while the final stage entails the selection of all social workers who attended the meetings of Child Protection Network (CPN), Ogun and Coalition of Non-Governmental Organizations in Ogun state (CONGOS) held on 28th February and 27th March, 2013 respectively. Different copies of interview schedules were used in eliciting information from parents and children while questionnaires were administered to teachers and social workers. Parents, teachers and children responded to questions on personal characteristics, awareness of CRA and knowledge about the content of the CRA while social workers responded to questions on personal characteristics and challenges faced by them in ensuring CRA implementation in Ogun State. Respondents' awareness of the Act was measured nominally as aware-1, not aware-2 with figures 1 and 2 serving the purpose of identification only with

no mathematical meaning while the knowledge of CRA by respondents was measured by presenting the respondents with a 10-item scale consisting of knowledge questions elicited from the provisions of the Act on a 2 point rating of True or False. Each correct response represents 1 point on the knowledge scale. The points were summed for each respondent and their scores (converted to percentages) was used in classifying respondents into those with no knowledge at all (0%), low knowledge (10-30%), average knowledge (40-60%) and high knowledge (70-100%). Challenges faced during the implementation of the Act was measured with an 11-item scale as Yes (1) and No (0). The frequencies obtained from which item was used to rank the challenges in descending order of importance. Data collected were entered into the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 19.0 and analyzed with frequency counts, percentages and means. The results were presented in distribution tables and charts. The results were then discussed with reference to findings from previously existing studies by comparing between rural and urban communities and among the different categories of stakeholders (children, parents and teachers).

Results and Discussion

Personal characteristics of respondents

Children

Table 1 show that up to 84.4% of the sampled children were in the 15-17 years age bracket. The mean ages also pointed out that rural children (16.5 years) were older than urban children (16.2 years). This is attributed to the fact that rural children start primary school later than their urban counterpart. More than half (53.3%) of the sampled children were girls implying that more girls than boys were found in Ogun state. This is in line with the 2006 population census presented in the FRN Gazette (2007 and 2009) which put Ogun as one of the few states with higher population of females than males. As also shown in Table 1 boy-girl ratio is closer in rural areas than urban areas of Ogun state. This implies that higher proportion of girls is clearly observed in urban areas which may mean that rural girls are trafficked to urban cities as their services are highly needed as house helps in urban areas.

Over sixty percent of the sampled children were Christians while 36.7% were Muslims and only 1.7% professed the traditional religion. This supports the fact that the two major religions in the state are Christianity and Islam. The findings also imply that more of the rural children practice Christianity than the urban children. As shown

in Table 1, children live in households of varied number of people with a mean family size of 6.4 persons.

Table 1 further illustrates that rural households are larger than urban households with mean household sizes of 6.5 and 6.2 persons respectively. About 22.2% of the children stayed with single parents while more than two-thirds (67.8%) of them stayed with both parents and only 10% lived with extended family members. The implication is that families prefer to be together with their children than giving them to extended family members as 90 percent of the children in this study stayed with their parents and is in line with the findings of Ojebiyi (2010) that reported that majority of children stayed with at least either of the parents. It is also inferred from Table 1 that higher proportion of urban children lived with extended family members than rural children and this is based on the fact that urban parents are usually the "busy" type going to offices or other places of work as early as 7am and returning home as late as 9pm.

The urban children's fathers were found to be predominantly traders followed by artisans and farming while those in rural areas were primarily farmers and traders. Mothers in both areas of the State were reported in this study to be traders. It was also deduced from

Table 1 that there are more urban mothers who were traders, civil servants and artisans while there are more rural mothers who were farmers and housewives. The dominance of fathers in farming and civil service and that of mothers in artisan works is a confirmation of the findings of Ashimolowo and Ojebiyi (2009). Both parents were also found to be engaged in more than one livelihood activities.

As further revealed in Table 1, more than 90% of the parents in both areas had one form of formal education or the other. Differences set in when talking about the extent to which the parents (fathers and mothers) were educated. It was inferred that educational level of parents in urban areas was higher than that in rural areas. This goes in the same direction with Mulkeen (2005) who posited that rural parents often have a lower level of education. This also accounts for the higher proportions of urban parents in civil service and higher proportions of rural parents in farming and trading. Education is therefore an important variable that influences the awareness and knowledge of CRA by parents and this will go a long way in determining whether child's rights are being freely violated by parents or not. This confirms the position held by Keng (2004) that parents who are educated themselves have

more enlightened attitudes toward education and provides their children with a more stimulating environment for education than parents with less education.

Parents

ResultsTable 2 indicated that there was no record of under-aged parents (< 18 years) in Ogun state and just about 10.8% of the parents were older than 50 years. This implies that most (84.6%) of the parents were in the active work force category (18-50 years). This means that there is the likelihood that these parents will require the assistance of their children in carrying out their livelihood activities. Also, women of this age bracket are said to be sexually active and engage in child bearing and rearing practices. More than half of the sampled parents were mothers with higher proportion of urban and rural parents being mothers and fathers, respectively. As with children, more than half (53.8%) and 40% of the parents practiced Christianity and Islam respectively implying that residents of Ogun State were predominantly Christians. As expected, Table 2 reveals that there were more rural parents professed the worship of traditional gods than urban parents and is in line with the findings from children. A mean family sizes of approximately 5 persons was found in Ogun state with higher family sizes in rural than urban areas of the

state. Majority (69.2%) of the parents were married with higher proportion in rural than urban areas. As further indicated in Table 2, more of the rural than urban parents were never married and widowed. This implies that although the marriage institution is highly cherished in the rural areas than in the urban cities, some rural women become parents without getting married. This is attributed to unwanted pregnancies among young women which resulted from pre-marital sexual intercourse caused by deception, poverty and lack of sex education in rural areas. A clear difference is observed in the highest educational level attained by parents in rural and urban areas as shown in Table 2. Urban parents were observed to have higher level of education than their rural counterparts. This is because urban parents had more access to education and is in line with the position of Adelabu (2008) who stated that rural dwellers have no access to education. Khattri, Riley and Kane (1997) also disclosed that low educational attainment is often widespread in rural areas. Approximately half (50.8%) of the parents were artisans while about one-third (32.3%) and 29.3% were traders and farmers respectively. Table 2 further discloses that civil service and trading were more prevalent among parents in urban than those in rural

areas while farming was the predominant occupation of parents in rural areas. The occupational distribution of the parents is therefore a function of their gender, education and age as implied from the findings of this study that rural parents were involved in low-income earning occupations.

Teachers

As found in Table 3, teachers in Ogun state were still in the economically active age category of 16-55 years which constitutes the working population of a nation. This is evident from the mean age of the interviewed teachers (36.05 years) and supports the findings of Adebayo (2012) who found that teachers in Ogun state are youthful in age. It further implies that most of them already have children and are still having children and will therefore be able to assist in ensuring that child's rights are not violated while also ensuring that the CRA is adequately implemented due to their innovative nature as described by Fakoya and Daramola (2005). Disaggregating the data in Table 3 by location of place of work shows that teachers in urban areas are older than those in rural areas.

Table 3 also indicates that Ogun state teachers were predominantly females (68.3%). The findings presented in Table 3 further shows that more male teachers were found in rural areas than female teachers

while the reverse was the case in urban schools. This may be because male teachers are more likely to stay and live in rural areas when transferred to rural schools than female teachers especially when they are married. Furthermore, Christianity was found to be the predominant religion in Ogun state among the teachers as up to five out of every six (83.3%) teachers practiced Christianity while less than 20 percent practiced Islam. None of the teachers worshipped the traditional gods. This may be due to their education and enlightenment which made them to prefer being identified either as a Muslim or a Christian than to be called a traditional worshipper. The gap between the years of teaching experience of rural and urban teachers in Ogun state teachers is wide. As shown in Table 3, the mean years of teaching experience of urban teachers almost doubles that of the rural teachers. This is also evident from the fact that higher proportion (67.5%) of the rural teachers had between 1 and 10 years of teaching experience while higher proportion of urban teachers had as high as between 21 and 30 years. This therefore corroborates the position of Mulkeen (2005) that rural schools have less experienced teachers, as the more experienced ones find ways to move to more desired schools in urban cities.

As evident from Table 3, majority (66.7%) of the teachers were married. It was also shown that more teachers in rural than urban schools were unmarried while more of the teachers in urban than rural schools were divorced. The difference in matrimonial status of rural and urban teachers is best explained by the age difference that exists among the two groups of teachers. The mean family size of the teachers is approximately 5 persons with the majority having family sizes of 1-5 persons while very few had large family sizes. The mean family sizes indicated that rural teachers had smaller family sizes than urban teachers. Distance between married teachers and their partners is also a reason for the smaller family sizes among teachers in rural areas.

As expected, almost all the teachers (98.3%) had post secondary education. Table 3 also reveals that rural teachers were less qualified than urban teachers. This supports the position of Mulkeen (2005) and explains why rural education is less qualitative than urban education. Aggregately, close to two-thirds (63.3%) of the teachers reside in flat apartments with higher proportion (75%) being among the teachers in urban areas. In a similar vein, more urban teachers possessed cars as means of transportation than teachers in rural schools.

Social workers

More than half (53.6%) of the social workers were women with mean age of 39.18 years. The age distribution shown in Table 4 depicts that up to 14.3% of the social workers were between 51 and 70 years implying that older people were also involved in providing social services. The presence of aged people among the social workers is an indication that some people now provide social services to children after their retirement. The mean age is also an indication that majority of the social workers were still young and in the economically active age category. This is subsequently expected to positively affect child protection in the state.

Table 4 further reveals that more Christians (82.1%) than Muslims (17.9%) were into social work. No social worker professed the traditional religion. About 75 percent were married with majority (53.6%) having small family sizes of 1-4 persons (53.6%). Close to two-fifth (39.3%) took social services as their primary occupation.

Unlike other categories of respondents (parents and teachers), none of the social workers were single parents through divorce or separation implying that they were able to manage their matrimonial homes than other groups of people because they understood the effect

of single parenthood on the life of children. Table 4 also indicates that all the social workers possessed at least secondary education with close to three-fifth (57.1%) having up to the first degree.

More than 10 percent also had post graduate qualifications implying that the sampled social workers were highly educated group of people. Table 4 further shows that social workers had a mean social work experience of 8.45 years. Both the educational qualifications and experience of social work possessed by the social workers are two important tools in the delivery of social services and hence will facilitate their delivery of social services to people, especially the children.

This study therefore supports the position of many scholars on the potentials of social workers in creating awareness of child's rights. For instance, the International Federation of Social Workers has declared that social work is a human rights profession (Healy, 2008). Sossou and Yogtiba (2008) also believed that social workers by their training are equipped with skills and techniques of mass education of citizens on the issues of the rights of the child.

Awareness of CRA by rural and urban residents of Ogun state

An aggregate of 65.1% of the respondents were aware of the

CRA. This implies that close to two-thirds of the residents of Ogun state were aware of the CRA and is in line with the findings of James (2008) who reported that majority of his respondents (children and parents) were aware of the CRA. The findings of this study contradict the findings of Okoye (2011) who reported that majority of his respondents (residents of Nsukka, Enugu state). The higher level of awareness of CRA in Ogun state is attributed to the domestication of the CRA into CRL in the state and this accounts for the disparity in the findings of Okoye (2011) whose study was conducted in Enugu state where the Act has not been domesticated till date. Figure 1 reveals that across all categories of respondents (children, parents and teachers), urban parents were more aware of the CRA than their rural counterparts. It was also deduced from Figure 1 that in both rural and urban areas, teachers had the highest level of awareness of CRA followed by children while parents had the least level of awareness of CRA. This implies that interaction between students and teachers has increased the children's awareness of CRA. Hence, the school as an institution is highly relevant in creating awareness of CRA among the residents of Ogun state.

Knowledge of CRA by respondents

Table 5 shows that over 70 percent of the respondents had no knowledge of the CRA while the remaining (29.3%) had the knowledge of CRA at different levels. This implies that despite the reported high awareness of CRA by the respondents, majority of the residents of Ogun state do not know about the content of the Act and this further reveals that efforts has not intensified at increasing residents' knowledge through training programmes and provision of copies of CRA to residents. Furthermore, Table 5 shows that more of the urban respondents had high knowledge of the CRA than those in rural areas. Hence, child trafficking of children is more common from rural areas because rural residents' ignorance of CRA was exploited by the traffickers. This is also true for other forms of abuse associated with children.

The highest proportion of respondents with no knowledge of the CRA is observed among the parents. About two-thirds (68.3%) of the teachers also had no knowledge of the Act while 61.1% of the children also had no knowledge of the Act. The findings of this study is in accordance with that of Okoye (2011) who reported that 19% having knowledge of the Act. The implication is that across the different categories of

respondents, the knowledge of CRA is low in the study area and this explains the prevalence of child abuse in Ogun state since majority of the residents had no knowledge of the Act.

Challenges facing CRA implementation

All the suggestions given in this study were endorsed by majority (at least 75.0%) of the social workers to be the challenges facing CRA implementation in Ogun state. However, the social workers differ in which of the challenges is more important than the others as depicted by Figure 2. The challenges listed in order of importance were non-acceptance of some parts of the Act by the people (96.4%), not reporting incidences of CRVs by people (89.3%), religious belief concerning the minimum age of marriage (89.3%), poor finance (85.7%), lack of enforcement and public awareness (85.7%), lack of coordination of efforts (85.7%), absence of family courts (82.1%), insufficient trained personnel on child welfare (82.1%), insufficient documentation on CRVs (75.0%), the belief that it is a taboo for a child to sue or report his/her parents/guardians in the pursuit of his/her rights (75.0%) and absence of specialized children police unit (75.0%).

The findings of the present study concur with the positions of the

Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Youth Development (2000) and Ajayi and Torimiro (2004) that apart from delay in passing the bill by states, one of the major constraints why people do not have knowledge of the Act, is lack of appreciation of the rights of children by the civil populace. This problem was attributed to the country's customary traditions and values (Okoye, 2011). While contributing to the challenges facing CRA implementation, Akinwumi (2009) traced the failure to effectively implement the CRA and curb CRVs to the country's failure to educate her citizens on human rights generally and child rights specifically. Akinwumi contributed further that lack of enforcement and public awareness is a major challenge to the practical implementation of the CRA. Poor finance, inadequate infrastructure, inadequate information, general poverty and inadequate trained personnel were also reported by Afonja (1999) as constraints to child's rights. The findings were also in line with the submission of James (2008) which summarized the challenges to the enforcement of the CRA in Nigeria as lack of enabling environment, traditional and cultural beliefs, religious beliefs, inadequate functioning and training of the law enforcement agencies and illiteracy.

The Child's Rights Act and socializing children through farming

Agriculture is a very important sector in ensuring the sustainable development of a nation like Nigeria. However, this sector is currently been practiced by rural dwellers who are mostly aged men and women while children and youths are been migrated to urban cities due to the poor living condition of rural areas of Nigeria. Due to the age factors of the participants in the agriculture sector, farmers require the assistance of their children to improve the nation's agricultural productivity (Oyekunle *et al.*, 2013). Socializing the children through farming became a necessity due to the fact that rural children are key future role players in agriculture (Adedoyin, 2000). Torimiro and Lawal (1998) identified the steps to socializing children into farming as varying from merely accompanying parents to farm, observing farming activities, taking on independent farming assignments and fully participating in farming activities. These steps are dependent on the age and maturity of the child. Any of the socialization processes that is inappropriate to the age and maturity of the child may undermine the child's rights to

education, health, life, dignity, recreation among others and hence regarded as child abuse.

Following the findings of this study which revealed low knowledge of CRA among rural and urban residents (especially the rural parents) of Ogun State, the chances that the residents will "unknowingly" abuse the rights of children through child labour and other forms is very high. Also, not accepting some parts of the Act by the respondents been the most important challenge facing the implementation of CRA in Ogun state suggests that people rejected those sections that go in contrary to their tradition.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Across the different categories of respondents, rural residents were older, had larger family sizes, had lower educational status and engaged more in low income earning occupations like farming than their urban counterparts. Also, urban residents were more aware and more knowledgeable of the CRA than their rural counterparts. Parents also had the least in terms of awareness and knowledge of CRA. This study therefore concluded that efforts at implementing the CRA in Ogun state has not been successful and accounts for the prevalence of abuse and maltreatment of children among the residents of Ogun State.

Socializing children through farming is a good development towards improving agricultural productivity and ensuring food security in developing countries like Nigeria. This is because it will assure the sustainable development of the nation. The socialization processes should however, be in line with established legislations regarding children such as the CRA. Hence, this study concluded that improving the knowledge of the residents, especially those in rural areas, is expected to lessen the prevalence of child abuse practices as people are expected to understand how to socialize children through farming without necessarily violating the rights of the child.

Finally, this study recommends that training programmes that will improve the knowledge of residents about the CRA should be organized by government agencies, NGOs and private individuals.

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Table 1: Percentage distribution of rural (63) and urban (27) children by their personal and family characteristics

| Characteristics | Urban (%) | Rural (%) | Total (%) |
|-------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Age (years) | | | |
| 12-14 | 11.1 | 17.5 | 15.6 |
| 15-17 | 88.9 | 82.5 | 84.4 |
| Mean | 16.2 years | 16.5 years | 16.4 years |
| Religion | | | |
| Islam | 40.7 | 34.9 | 36.7 |
| Christianity | 55.6 | 65.1 | 62.2 |
| Traditional | 3.7 | 0.0 | 1.1 |
| Family size (number) | | | |
| 1-5 | 44.4 | 34.9 | 37.8 |
| 6-10 | 55.6 | 61.9 | 60.0 |
| >10 | 0.0 | 3.2 | 2.2 |
| Mean | 6.2 | 6.5 | 6.4 |
| Who children live with | | | |
| Father only | 7.4 | 7.9 | 7.8 |
| Mother only | 7.4 | 17.5 | 14.4 |
| Both parents | 70.4 | 66.7 | 67.8 |
| Extended family members | 14.8 | 7.9 | 10.0 |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 40.7 | 49.2 | 46.7 |
| Female | 59.3 | 50.8 | 53.3 |
| Fathers' occupation | | | |
| Farming | 37.0 | 46.0 | 43.3 |
| Trading | 48.1 | 42.9 | 44.4 |
| Civil service | 29.6 | 20.6 | 23.3 |
| Artisan | 37.0 | 19.0 | 24.4 |
| Mothers' occupation | | | |
| Farming | 3.7 | 19.0 | 14.4 |
| Trading | 66.7 | 63.5 | 64.4 |
| Civil service | 25.9 | 11.1 | 15.4 |
| Artisan | 7.4 | 4.8 | 5.6 |
| Housewife | 7.4 | 22.2 | 17.7 |
| Fathers' education | | | |
| None | 3.7 | 4.8 | 4.4 |
| Primary education | 22.2 | 20.6 | 21.1 |
| Junior secondary education | 7.4 | 11.1 | 10.0 |
| Senior secondary education | 22.2 | 34.9 | 31.1 |
| Post secondary education | 44.4 | 28.6 | 33.3 |
| Mothers' education | | | |
| None | 3.7 | 6.3 | 5.6 |
| Primary education | 29.6 | 25.4 | 26.6 |
| Junior secondary education | 0.0 | 11.1 | 7.8 |
| Senior secondary education | 18.5 | 36.5 | 31.1 |
| Post secondary education | 48.1 | 20.6 | 28.9 |

Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 2: Percentage distribution of rural (40) and urban (25) parents based on their personal and social characteristics

| Personal and Social characteristics | Urban (%) | Rural (%) | All (%) |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Age (years) | | | |
| <18 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 18-50 | 72.0 | 92.5 | 33.8 |
| >50 | 16.0 | 7.5 | 10.8 |
| Mean | 45.56 | 39.68 | 41.94 |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 32.0 | 57.5 | 47.7 |
| Female | 68.0 | 42.5 | 52.3 |
| Religion | | | |
| Islam | 40.0 | 40.0 | 40.0 |
| Christianity | 56.0 | 52.5 | 53.8 |
| Traditional | 4.0 | 7.5 | 6.2 |
| Family size | | | |
| 1-5 | 64.0 | 60.0 | 61.5 |
| 6-10 | 28.0 | 40.0 | 35.4 |
| >10 | 8.0 | 0.0 | 3.1 |
| Mean | 4.84 persons | 5.40 persons | 5.18 persons |
| Marital status | | | |
| Never married | 4.0 | 12.5 | 9.2 |
| Married | 68.0 | 70.0 | 69.2 |
| Divorced | 12.0 | 0.0 | 4.6 |
| Widowed | 8.0 | 12.5 | 10.8 |
| Separated | 8.0 | 5.0 | 6.2 |
| Education | | | |
| No formal education | 16.0 | 20.0 | 18.5 |
| Primary education | 24.0 | 40.0 | 33.8 |
| Secondary education | 28.0 | 35.0 | 32.3 |
| Post secondary education | 32.0 | 5.0 | 15.4 |
| Occupation | | | |
| Farming | 8.0 | 42.5 | 29.2 |
| Trading | 36.0 | 30.0 | 32.3 |
| Civil service | 24.0 | 17.5 | 20.0 |
| Artisans | 56.0 | 47.5 | 50.8 |

Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 3: Percentage distribution of rural (40) and urban (20) teachers based on their personal and professional characteristics

| Personal and social characteristics | Urban (%) | Rural (%) | All (%) |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Age (years) | | | |
| ≤30 | 20.0 | 40.0 | 33.3 |
| 31-40 | 20.0 | 47.5 | 38.3 |
| 41-50 | 50.0 | 12.5 | 25.0 |
| 51-60 | 10.0 | 0.0 | 3.3 |
| Mean | 40.85 years | 33.65 years | 36.05 years |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 30.0 | 32.5 | 31.7 |
| Female | 70.0 | 67.5 | 68.3 |
| Religion | | | |
| Islam | 15.0 | 17.5 | 16.7 |
| Christianity | 85.0 | 82.5 | 83.3 |
| Family size | | | |
| 1-5 | 45.0 | 72.5 | 63.3 |
| 6-10 | 55.0 | 27.5 | 36.7 |
| Mean | 5.40 persons | 4.53 persons | 4.82 persons |
| Marital status | | | |
| Never married | 20.0 | 25.0 | 23.3 |
| Married | 65.0 | 67.5 | 66.7 |
| Divorced | 15.0 | 7.5 | 10.0 |
| Years of teaching experience | | | |
| <1 | 15.0 | 10.0 | 11.7 |
| 1-10 | 25.0 | 67.5 | 53.3 |
| 11-20 | 25.0 | 17.5 | 20.0 |
| 21-30 | 35.0 | 5.0 | 15.0 |
| Mean | 14.70 years | 7.38 years | 9.82 years |
| Educational qualification | | | |
| SSCE | 0.0 | 2.5 | 1.7 |
| NCE | 0.0 | 25.0 | 16.7 |
| Grade II | 0.0 | 7.5 | 5.0 |
| B.Ed. | 30.0 | 37.5 | 35.0 |
| PGD (Education) | 30.0 | 17.5 | 21.7 |
| Others | 40.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 |

Source: Field survey, 2013

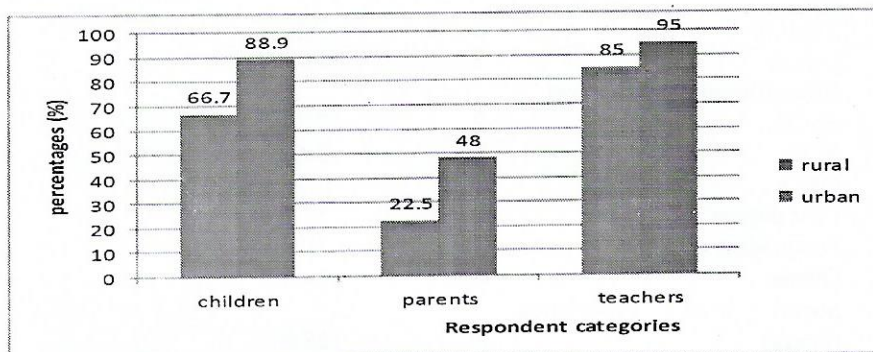


Figure 1: Bar chart showing the awareness of CRA by rural and urban children, parents and teachers

Table 4: Personal and social characteristics of social workers in Ogun state (n = 28)

| Characteristics | Frequency | Percentages | Mean |
|---------------------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| Age (years) | | | |
| ≤30 | 9 | 32.1 | 39.18 years |
| 31-40 | 8 | 28.6 | |
| 41-50 | 7 | 25.0 | |
| >50 | 4 | 14.3 | |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 13 | 46.4 | |
| Female | 15 | 53.6 | |
| Religion | | | |
| Islam | 5 | 17.9 | |
| Christianity | 23 | 82.1 | |
| Traditional | 0 | 0.0 | |
| Marital status | | | |
| Married | 21 | 75.0 | |
| Never married | 7 | 25.0 | |
| Family size | | | |
| 1-4 | 15 | 53.6 | 4.5 persons |
| 5-8 | 12 | 42.9 | |
| 9-12 | 1 | 3.6 | |
| Primary occupation | | | |
| Social service | 11 | 39.3 | |
| Civil service | 8 | 28.6 | |

| | | | |
|----------------------------------|----|------|------------|
| Trading | 2 | 7.1 | |
| Others | 7 | 25.0 | |
| Educational qualification | | | |
| SSCE | 2 | 7.1 | |
| NCE | 1 | 3.6 | |
| OND | 2 | 7.1 | |
| First degree | 16 | 57.1 | |
| Postgraduate | 3 | 10.7 | |
| Others | 4 | 14.3 | |
| Social work experience | | | |
| (years) | 8 | 28.6 | |
| Less than 1 | 8 | 28.6 | 8.45 years |
| 1-5 | 8 | 28.6 | |
| 6-10 | 2 | 7.1 | |
| 11-15 | 2 | 7.1 | |
| >15 | | | |

Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 5: Percentage distribution of rural and urban respondents by their knowledge level of CRA

| Knowledge categories | Rural residents (%) | Urban residents (%) | Aggregate (%) |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------|
| No knowledge at all | 74.8 | 61.1 | 70.7 |
| Low knowledge | 1.4 | 0.0 | 0.9 |
| Average knowledge | 8.4 | 6.9 | 7.4 |
| High knowledge | 15.4 | 31.9 | 20.9 |

Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 6: Knowledge of CRA by categories of respondents

| Knowledge categories | Children (%) | Parents (%) | Teachers (%) |
|----------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| No knowledge at all | 61.1 | 86.2 | 68.3 |

| | | | |
|-------------------|------|-----|------|
| Low knowledge | 2.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Average knowledge | 11.1 | 4.6 | 5.0 |
| High knowledge | 25.6 | 9.2 | 26.7 |

Source: Field survey, 2013

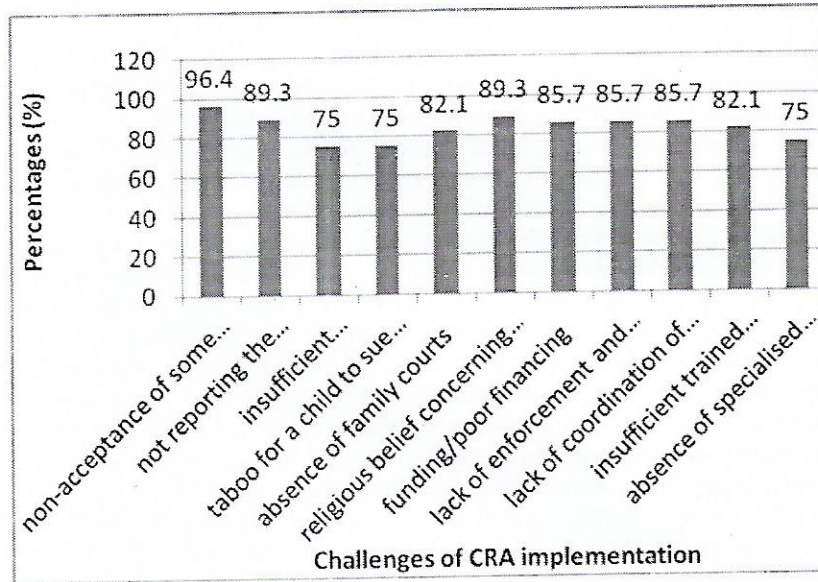


Figure 2: Bar chart showing the challenges facing CRA implementation in Ogun state

SPATIAL DETERMINANTS OF YOUTH'S LIVELIHOOD ACTIVITIES IN OSUN STATE: A GENDER ANALYSIS.

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Abstract

The study spatially determined youths livelihood activities in Osun State on a gender basis. Specifically, it identified the socio-economic characteristics of the rural youths, identify the specific spatial factors influencing the choice of youth livelihood activities and categorised rural youths assets base status on gender basis. Multi-stage sampling procedure was used to sample 126 respondents. The study revealed that male respondents were relatively older than their female counterparts. Christianity and Islam were the dominant form of religion in the study area respectively. Nearness to market (84.6% and 77.1%), nearness to major cities (80.2% and 77.1%) and nearness to major roads (83.5% and 71.4%) for males and females respondents were the major spatial factors determining rural youths' choice of livelihood while nearness to natural resources (1.1% and 2.9%) and quarry were the least factor that influenced the respondents choice of livelihood activities. Results also established that age ($r=0.503$; $p\leq 0.01$), household size ($r=0.392$; $p\leq 0.01$), years of formal education ($r=0.353$; $p\leq 0.01$), , farm size ($r=0.322$; $p\leq 0.05$) and farming experience ($r= 0.501$; $p\leq 0.01$) were the correlates of choice of livelihood activities among the youths. It was therefore concluded that a great proportion of the respondents had low livelihood asset bases and resources which are needed to enhance their livelihoods.

Key words: Spatial factor, livelihood, asset base, rural farm families.

Introduction

The desire of agricultural extension is to have a pro-poor development approach that would assist rural farm families particular the youths attain their desired livelihood needs. Hazell (2002) posits that the rural youths, who are usually small scale farmers, are the keystones of a pro-poor development strategy. They account for over 90 per cent of agricultural production in developing countries (Spencer, 2002). The rural youths are efficient, usually making good use of their resources, especially resources derived from rural non-farm (RNF) activities which make up between 60-80 per cent of rural household income in the late 1990s as compared with an approximate 40 per cent in the 1980s (Bryceson, 1999). Spencer (2002) stressed further that the livelihood strategies of the vast majority of these small-scale, food-insecure rural youths is characterized by family economies with weak linkages to markets and little or no access to external inputs. They usually cultivate

degraded lands with complex and diversified livelihood activities. Furthermore, most youths involved farming are far from institutional services and infrastructural facilities particularly feeder roads, hence far from extension services. The distance of these category of

people to institutional services creates location difficulties which determine their access to the lucrative non-farm activities that in turn influence the living condition of these people in the rural area.

In Nigeria, the main factors contributing to rural poverty among these category of people are locational and reflect not so much lack of access to land, but location specific lack of access to an array of services and opportunities (road, school, market service, input supplies, power, non-farm activities) as well as environmental constraints (Gordon and Craig, 2001). This view is in line with the earlier submission of Upton (1997) that location influences the choice of non-agricultural enterprise with the belt of commercial activities found along the main line of rail, and main roads and also within close range of main markets.

Against this background, this paper is designed to carefully study the spatial determinants of youth livelihood activities in Osun State on a gender analysis in Osun State, Nigeria. Specifically, it described the socio-economic characteristics of the rural youths and identified specific spatial factors influencing the choice of livelihood activities among the respondents.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical foundation of this study is rooted in Rational Choice

Theory (RCT) championed by James S. Coleman in the early 1990s. The fundamental assumption of rational choice model is that actors are considered to be purposive and intentional. These actors' actions are aimed at their ends or goals, and they are also perceived to have given preferences, values and utility. RCT is unconcerned with what these preferences or sources are. Of importance is the fact that action is undertaken to achieve objectives that are consistent with an actor's preference hierarchy. Rational choice theory also recognizes that individual action is subject to two major constraints (Freidman and Hechter, 1988 and Yixi, 2006). The first is the scarcity of resources (asset bases). A second source of constraints on individual action is social institutions, which according to Freidman and Hechter, (1988) and Yixi, (2006), may include norms, laws, agendas, rules, and policies. These institutional constraints provide both positive and negative sanctions that serve to encourage certain actions and to discourage others. Making rational choice also depends on the availability of information for the actors. It is impossible to assume that all the actors can have at least sufficient information to make the best choice among alternatives. Therefore, there is a growing

recognition that the highly variable quality and quantity of available information has a profound effect on actors' choices.

Methodology

The study was conducted in the three Osun State Agricultural Development Programme (OSSADEP) zones namely: Osogbo, Ife/Ijesa and Iwo with thirteen, ten and seven Local Government Areas (LGAs), respectively. Multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted to select the sample for this study. This involved the following stages. Firstly, proportionate sampling technique was used to randomly select three (3), two (2), and one (1) LGAs from each of the three ADP zones in the State, making a total of six LGAs used. Secondly, three (3) farming communities were then purposively chosen from each of the six (6) LGAs, making a total of eighteen (18) communities selected for the study and thirdly, seven (7) rural youths per village were randomly chosen in each of the eighteen communities. Thus, 126 respondents were selected and interviewed for the study using interview schedule and questionnaire. Data collected were analysed using frequency, percentages, means, standard deviation, appropriate charts and spearman's (rho) correlation coefficient. Also, information

concerning the spatial location of the respondents were collected with the aid of geographic positioning system (GPS) and spatially analysed.

Results and Discussion

Socio-economic characteristics of Rural Farm Family's (RFF's)

Results in Table 1 show the mean age of the rural youths was 25.71 ± 4.2 years for males and 23.40 ± 2.80 years for females, respectively. This implies that youths in the study area conformed with the United Nations (2005) definition of youths as people within the mean age of 24.5 years. Similarly, Nwachukwu (2008) observed that youths are people within the age bracket of 20 and 29 years. Also, about 52.8 percent of the youths were married. It could be inferred that majority of the respondents were expected to be responsible youths on the basis of their marital status. This could spur them into involvement into multiple livelihood activities to meet household expenses and needs.

The mean household size was 3.18 ± 1.02 persons per house for males and 1.23 ± 0.90 persons per house for the females while the mean year of formal education was 9.36 ± 3.9 years for the males and 6.93 ± 2.71 years for the females, respectively. This implies that all the rural youths had a minimum of

9 year of formal education and thus could be regarded as being literate on the basis of number of years spent in formal education. This further confirmed the findings of Farinde (1995), Soyebó (2005), Adesoji, (2009) and Alao (2010), that farmers in Osun State were literate. Although, male youths had slightly higher education status than their male counterparts. This is an indication that male education is preferred to female education in the rural areas of Osun State. The implication of this is that those with formal education could read and write and as such increase their entrepreneurial skill levels which are required for involvement in some rural non-farm enterprises.

In addition, the mean farm size was 1.2 ± 0.3 ha for the males while it was 1.1 ± 0.5 ha for the females, respectively. The higher farm size among males could be due to the fact that in most rural areas, females are usually at the disadvantaged end in terms of land ownership. It is a common phenomenon that land ownership favour the male child than the female child in Sub-Saharan Africa. The implication of this finding is that the lesser the farm size available to the rural youths for farming activities the more their tendency to seek for alternative means of survival outside farming for sustenance.

Spatial factors determining the choice of livelihood among rural farm families

Table 2 show that nearness to market (84.6%) for males and (77.1%) for the females was identified to have the most effect on the choice of various livelihood activities as this was ranked 1st among male and female respondents in the study area. Majority of the respondents indicated that availability of market for the movement of agricultural produce from farms to cities and city goods back to the villages was a major reason for their engagement in various livelihood activities. Field observations also revealed that virtually all the sampled location had at least a periodic market (5 days market) in operation that attracts patronage from individuals domiciled in surrounding and long distant communities. The results indicates that nearness to market has more effects on the choice of livelihood activities among the respondents. This finding corroborates the submissions of Edmond *et al.* (1993) and Fabusoro (2005) that the success of diversification could vary considerably according to local market opportunities.

Other major spatial factor that had a great effect on the rural youth's choice of livelihood activities was nearness to major roads (83.5% and

71.4%) for males and females respondents. This was respectively ranked 2nd and 3rd among them. Also, nearness to major cities (80.2% and 77.1%) for males and females, respectively was ranked 3rd and 1st among them. These factors are closely knit with nearness to market as urban area is often the end point of most agricultural and other products from the rural areas. This implies that road network is necessary in the uptake of these activities as they would facilitate the easy evacuation of harvested farm produce to large market centres often cited in urban areas for disposal. These findings agrees with the assertion of Gordon and Craig (2001) that roads give access to urban centres and enable the rural dwellers to interact more easily with the urban centres especially for marketing of their goods and improvements in social network.

However, nearness to natural resources (1.1% and 2.9%) for males and females respondents, respectively as well as nearness to quarry were the least spatial factors that influenced male and female youths choice of livelihood activities.

Categorization of rural youth assets base

Mean and standard deviation was used to categorize rural youth's asset base into unsustainable,

moderately sustainable and highly sustainable. Results in Figure 1 show that a higher percentage (68.8%) of the rural youth's natural assets base were ranked moderately sustainable, 17.4 percent were ranked highly sustainable while 13.8 per cent were ranked unsustainable in natural assets with a mean of 8.04 and the standard deviation of 5.80. For the physical assets, 10.3 percent RFFs asset base were ranked unsustainable, 82.0 percent were ranked moderately sustainable and just 7.7 percent were ranked highly sustainable with a mean of 7.12 and the standard deviation of 4.05. The implication is that physical asset would have multiple positive effects on possession of other capital assets by the RFFs if access to physical asset like good roads, adequate water supply, and affordable transport could be improved.

More so, 12.2 percent of the RFFs asset base on human assets were ranked unsustainable, 77.0 percent were ranked moderately sustainable and 10.8 percent were ranked highly sustainable with a mean of 7.38 and the standard deviation of 4.44. This implies that a moderately sustainable human asset base would enable the RFFs to engage more fruitfully in livelihood options that will lead to positive livelihood outcomes.

Furthermore, 9.3 percent of the RFFs were ranked unsustainable in financial asset, 78.8 percent were ranked moderately sustainable while 11.9 percent were ranked highly sustainable. The mean financial asset was 7.63 with standard deviation of 4.77. Only 31.8 percent of the respondents were ranked unsustainable in social assets, 48.1 percent were ranked moderately sustainable in social assets while 20.1 percent were ranked highly sustainable in social assets with a mean of 9.76 and standard deviation of 4.39. The overall results reveal that 38.3 percent of the RFF members in the study area had asset base at an unsustainable score, 49.5 percent had a moderately sustainable livelihood asset score, while 12.2 percent had a highly sustainable livelihood asset score. The grand mean for all the categories of livelihood asset was 39.9 with a standard deviation of 15.6.

This could be inferred that a great proportion of the respondents had low livelihood asset bases and resources which are needed to enhance their livelihoods. This finding is in agreement with Fabusoro's (2005) report that rural households in Ogun state with mean livelihood asset score of 24.26 were low in livelihood asset status which is in line with the classification of Macqueen (2001)

that a mean score below 50 indicates a restricted or deteriorating livelihood asset status.

Test of hypotheses

The result in Table 3 showed that age ($r=0.503$; $P\leq 0.01$), household size ($r=0.392$; $P\leq 0.01$), Years of formal education ($r=0.353$; $P\leq 0.05$), and farm size ($r=0.322$; $P\leq 0.05$) respectively had positive and significant relationship with choice of livelihoods activities engaged in by the rural youths. This could be explained thus: the higher the age, the higher the number of livelihood activities engaged in. This might be further explained to mean that the older a person becomes, the more diversified his/her experience that might induce him to take up different livelihood activities. Also, the higher the household size, the more diversified the choice of livelihoods among the respondents in the study area. This might be due to the fact that the responsibility of caring for a large household demands multiple streams of income for the household hence the choice of livelihood activities. Moreover, the higher the years of formal education, the more likely the choice of livelihoods activities among the respondents in the study area. Years spent in formal education increases the propensity of respondents to diversify into many livelihood activities due to knowledge acquired and skills

developed. Furthermore, the larger the size of the farm, the more the livelihood activities by the respondents. The contribution of farm size to the choice of livelihoods activities was 10.37 percent.

The result in Table 4 show that nearness to major road (0.433 ; $P\leq 0.01$), Nearness to major market ($r=0.421$, $P\leq 0.01$), Nearness to major city ($r=0.401$, $P\leq 0.01$) and Nearness to major school ($r=0.301$, $P\leq 0.05$) respectively had positive and significant relationship with choice of livelihoods activities engaged in by the rural youths. This could be explained thus: the more the available road (nearness to major roads) the more the influence on the choice of livelihood activities of the rural youths. The availability of major roads (access road) had been found to be the key factor in influencing other development activities. The results further showed that major roads contributed 18.75 percent to the influence on choice of livelihood activities of the rural youths. Also, the more the major market available, the more the livelihood activities to choose from by the rural youths. This finding corroborates the submission of Dercon and Hoddinott (2005) that access to market towns affects economic activity in rural areas. Stressing further that the more

remote they are from towns, the less likely households are to purchase inputs or sell a variety of products. Moreover, the coefficient of determination of the variable, major city, was 0.1608. This means the higher the number of major city around the settlements of rural youths the more the choice of livelihood activities available to them. This might be due to the various economic opportunities available in and provided by the major cities. This finding is in tandem with the finding of Dercon and Hoddinott (2005) that urban areas, including regional centres such as local market towns, provide household with new opportunities to sell goods and services. Furthermore, the Table revealed that the variable contributed about 9.06 percent to the change in the choice of livelihood activities of the rural youth..

This might mean that the more the availability of major schools around the rural farm families, the more the exposure to Western influence and the higher the probability of a trickle-down effects from the school in terms of knowledge, skill and attitude that eventually influences the choice of livelihood activities of the rural youths.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It was concluded that male respondents were relatively older than their female counterparts. The average household size among rural youths was between 10 and 7 persons per household, respectively. Among the spatial factors influencing the respondents choice of livelihood activities, nearness to market, nearness to major cities and nearness to major roads were ranked 1st, 2nd and 3rd while nearness to natural resources and quarry were the least factor that influenced the respondents choice of livelihood activities in among the respondents. Nearness to major road, major market, major school and major city were the correlates of rural dwellers' choice of livelihood activities in Osun State, Nigeria. The study therefore, recommends road construction, establishment of markets and schools as priority projects to be executed by the government in every location irrespective of their disadvantages if the asset base of the rural dwellers is to be increased with a view to boosting their livelihood activities.

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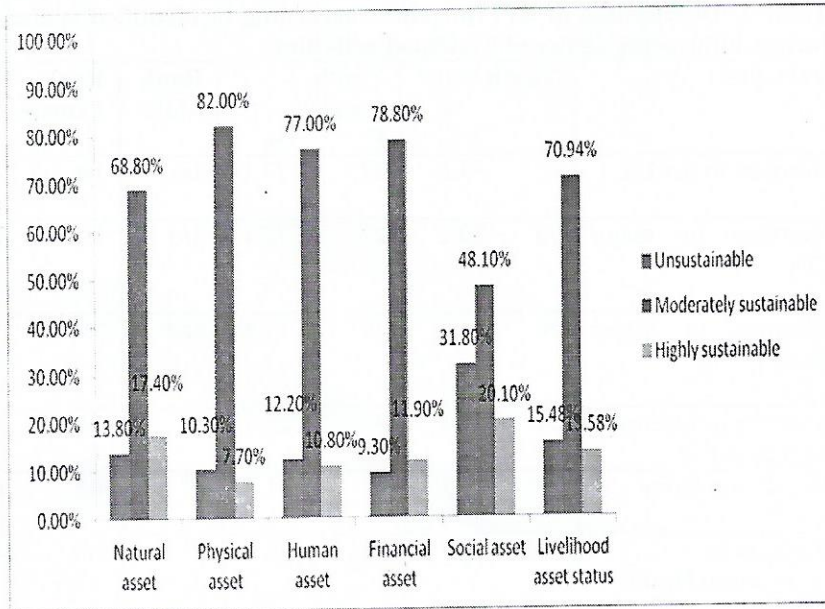
Table 1: Distribution of Rural Farm Family members by demographic characteristics

| Variable | Youth male n=91 | | Youth female n=35 | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|------|----------------------|------|
| | Freq | % | Freq | % |
| Age (Years) | | | | |
| < 30 | 83 | 91.2 | 31 | 88.6 |
| 31 – 60 | 8 | 8.8 | 4 | 11.4 |
| > 60 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Mean | | 25.1 | | 23.4 |
| Standard deviation | | 4.20 | | 2.80 |
| Marital status | | | | |
| Married | 47 | 51.6 | 20 | 57.1 |
| Divorced | 2 | 2.2 | 3 | 8.6 |
| Widowed | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Single | 42 | 46.2 | 12 | 34.3 |
| Household size | | | | |
| Below 7 | 68 | 74.7 | 19 | 54.3 |
| 8-12 | 23 | 25.3 | 16 | 45.7 |
| Above 12 | 3.18 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Mean | 1.02 | | 1.23 | |
| Standard deviation | | | 0.90 | |
| Years of formal education | | | | |
| <6 | 25 | 27.5 | 18 | 51.4 |
| 7-12 | 51 | 56.0 | 17 | 48.6 |
| >12 | 15 | 16.5 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Mean | 9.36 | | 6.93 | |
| Standard deviation | 3.95 | | 2.71 | |
| Farm size (ha) | | | | |
| <1 | 50 | 54.9 | 25 | 71.4 |
| 1-2 | 26 | 28.6 | 4 | 11.4 |
| >2 | 15 | 16.5 | 6 | 17.2 |
| Mean | 1.2 | | 1.1 | |
| Standard deviation | 0.3 | | 0.5 | |

Source: Field survey, 2012; RFF = Rural Farm Family

Table 2: Distribution of RFF members according to identified spatial factors influencing choice of livelihood activities

| Variables | Youth male | | Youth female | | Rank Male | Rank Female |
|--|------------|------|--------------|------|------------------|-------------|
| | F | % | F | % | | |
| Nearness to market | 77 | 84.6 | 27 | 77.1 | 1st | 1st |
| Nearness to major City | 73 | 80.2 | 27 | 77.1 | 3rd | 1st |
| Nearness to Major Road | 76 | 83.5 | 25 | 71.4 | 2nd | 3rd |
| Nearness to extension Agent's office | 34 | 37.4 | 9 | 25.7 | 4 th | 6th |
| Nearness to River | 27 | 29.7 | 11 | 31.4 | 5 th | 4th |
| Nearness to Government Health facilities | 30 | 32.9 | 10 | 28.6 | 6 th | 5th |
| Nearness to Financial Institution | 34 | 37.4 | 8 | 22.9 | 7 th | 7th |
| Nearness to major School | 28 | 30.8 | 8 | 22.9 | 8 th | 7th |
| Nearness to Religious ground | 11 | 12.1 | 8 | 22.9 | 9 th | 7th |
| Nearness to forest Reserve | 12 | 13.2 | 3 | 8.6 | 10 th | 10th |
| Nearness to Natural resources | 1 | 1.1 | 1 | 2.9 | 11 th | 11th |
| Nearness to Quarry | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 12 th | 12th |



Source: Field survey, 2012.

Figure 1: Categorization of Rural Youth Assets base

Source: Field survey, 2012.

Table 3: Correlation analysis showing the relationship between choices of livelihood activities engaged by the rural youths and their socio-economic characteristics

| Variables | Correlation coefficient (r) | Coefficient |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------|
| Age | 0.503** | |
| 0.2530 | | |
| Household size | 0.392** | 0.1537 |
| Years of formal education | 0.353* | |
| 0.1246 | | |
| Cosmopolitaness | 0.311* | 0.0967 |
| Farm size | 0.322* | |
| 0.1037 | | |
| Farming Experience | 0.501** | |
| 0.2510 | | |
| Membership of social groups | 0.315* | 0.0992 |
| Interaction with extension agent | 0.109 | |
| 0.0119 | | |

Source: Field survey, 2012

**Significant at the 0.01 level

*Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 4: Correlation analysis showing relationship between choice of livelihood activities among the rural youths and spatial factors

| Variables determination (r^2) | Correlation coefficient (r) | Coefficient of |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|
| Major road 0.1875 | 0.433** | |
| Major market 0.1772 | 0.421** | |
| Financial institution 0.0640 | 0.253 | |
| Health facility 0.0445 | 0.211 | |
| Religion ground 0.0493 | 0.222 | |
| Major school 0.0906 | 0.301* | |
| Major river 0.0462 | 0.215 | |
| Major city 0.1608 | 0.401** | |
| Extension agent office 0.0493 | 0.222 | |
| Forest reserve 0.0404 | 0.201 | |
| Natural resources deposit 0.0548 | 0.234 | |
| Quarry site 0.0666 | 0.258 | |

Source: Field survey, 2012

**Significant at the 0.01 level

*Significant at the 0.05 level

CONTRIBUTIONS OF HIGH QUALITY CASSAVA PROCESSING PLANT TO STUDENTS' SKILL ACQUISITION IN CASSAVA PROCESSING IN FEDERAL COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, ABEOKUTA, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

This study was carried out to assess the contributions of High Quality Cassava Processing Plant to the Students' skill acquisition in cassava processing in Federal College of Education, Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 130 respondents for this study. Descriptive and Inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. Results of this study showed that 68.50% of the respondents were within 20 – 24 years while 60% were females. Many (48.50%) of the respondents were in Credit grade level. Most (88.50%) of the respondents were Yoruba ethnic. 45.40% of the respondents resided inside campus. 14.60% of the respondents were personally responsible for their studies. The results further revealed that cassava grater, press, dryer (flash), fryer, and sieve were very adequate while cassava peeler, washer and sealing machine were inadequate; cassava sorter, packaging and labeling equipment were not available. Meanwhile, above 70% of the available equipment were in good working condition. Almost all the respondents acquired skills in quality garri processing (99.20%), starch production (65.40%) and cassava paste making (72.30%) whereas students were not exposed to improved packaging (7.70%) and proper waste management (9.20%). Effective transfer of cassava processing skills to the

students were hindered by high cost of the processing plant and spare parts (100%), epileptic power supply (98.50%), inadequate resource personnel (91.60%), short time allocated to the practical session (88.80%) among others. Pearson Product Moment Correlation results indicated significant relationship between the adequacy of cassava processing facilities and its contributions to the students' skill acquisition at $p < 0.05$. It is hereby recommended that more resource personnel should be employed to facilitate the transfer of cassava processing skills to the students while private organisations should collaborate with government to provide alternative source of power to enhance quality cassava products, high income and youth empowerment in the study area.

Keywords: contributions, skills acquisition, students, cassava processing plant, quality products

Introduction

Africa is one of the continents of the world where some 600 million people are dependent on cassava for food (International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) 2013). Cassava per capita consumption is very high and provides about 80% of the total energy intake of many Nigerians (Ani, 2010). The growth in cassava production has been primarily due to rapid population growth, large internal market demand, complemented by the availability of high yielding improved varieties of cassava, a relatively well-developed market access infrastructure, the existence of improved processing technology and a well-organized internal market structure (Onyinbo *et al.*, 2011). Products derived from

cassava include *garri*, starch, *tapioca*, *fufu*, pellets, flour, chip and so on. Recently out of 186 million metric tonnes produced in the world, Nigeria accounted for 36 million metric tons (Tell, 2004) and in 2004 production was 55.69 million metric tons (Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), 2004). Cassava suddenly gained national prominence following the pronouncement of the Presidential Initiative in 2002 on composite cassava flour (i.e. to incorporate cassava powder into bread making) in Nigeria. The intent of the initiative is to use cassava as the engine of growth in Nigeria. More specifically, the goal is to promote cassava as a foreign exchange earner in Nigeria as well as to satisfy national demand for cassava products. Cassava production and

processing is a reliable source of income, household food security, industrial raw materials, and youth and women empowerment (FAO, 2011; Omoare *et al.*, 2013). However, cassava roots are the most perishable of the major root crops and deteriorate in air at ambient temperature in a few days which led to poor pricing and high post-harvest losses. In subsistence agriculture the plants are left in the ground until needed for food or for processing (Soetan, 2005). Therefore, it must be properly processed to enhance its quality, consumption, shelf-life, transportation, and foreign demand. These objectives could only be realized through improved processing techniques. Thus, skill acquisition in cassava processing is capable of job creation, self-employment, food security, income, poverty reduction, economy growth among others. Agencies like the National Directorate of Employment in Nigeria (NDE), National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) were created out of the need to provide self-employment through vocational skill training for many of the unemployed youths to enable them gain economic self-reliance (NDE, 2003). High Quality Cassava Processing Plants (e.g. Step B project) were also installed in some

Universities and Colleges of Education in Nigeria as a way of promoting cassava and minimize post-harvest losses. Despite these efforts unemployment appears to be shooting up the sky as many of Nigerian youths have no access to modern cassava processing facilities that are found in agricultural vocational schools. Evidently, Nigeria is lagging behind in preparing her workforce for the challenges of the rapidly changing global economy (Adefiaye, 2004). Rising unemployment, lack of skilled workers, high dropout rates, and the changing demographic nature of the work force constituted impediments to economic growth and development in Nigeria. Eneji (2000) opined that Nigeria needs a major breakthrough in an attempt to come out of these abject poverty situations which have youths and graduates unemployment as major attributes. It is very important to note that Nigeria might face near extinction of the farming population resulting from incapacitation of her farmers by age. For that, the nation must invest copiously in education with particular attention given to agricultural education. Graduates of Agricultural education can easily get themselves either self-employed or employed by either the

government or other private agencies. It is hereby become important to assess the contributions of High Quality Cassava Processing Plant to the students' skill acquisition in cassava processing in Federal College of Education, Abeokuta as this will not only improve the quality of cassava products but will also promote household food security, women and youth empowerment, and poverty alleviation in the State and Nigeria at large.

Specific objectives are to

- i. ascertain personal characteristics of the respondents in the study area
- ii. examine the cassava processing skills acquisition facilities available in the study area
- iii. evaluate the adequacy of instructional facilities for cassava processing in the study area
- iv. assess the contributions of high quality cassava processing plant to the students skill acquisition in the study area
- v. identify constraints to effective transfer of cassava processing skill to

the students in the study area

Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between the adequacy of cassava processing facilities and its contributions to the students' skill acquisition in the study area.

Description of study area

The study was carried out in Federal College of Education, Abeokuta Ogun State, Nigeria. Federal College of Education, Abeokuta was established in 1976 as the Federal Advanced Teachers College, in addition to three other similar Colleges that were previously in existence at Okene, Pankshin and Yola. It is the first tertiary institution in Ogun State. Abeokuta, the location of the College, is a historic Yoruba town founded by the Egbas in 1830 and is the capital of Ogun State. The town's geographical location makes it easily accessible. The nation's seaport and industrial centre, Lagos is 104 kilometres to the South, while Ibadan, the largest city in the country is 77 kilometres to the North. The Federal College of Education, Abeokuta provides three-year full-time and five-year sandwich courses respectively

leading to the award of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE).

Sampling techniques and sample size

Federal College of Education, Abeokuta was purposively chosen for this study because of the installation of cassava processing plant in the institution and its prime importance in the production of quality cassava products. Among the various schools in the institution is the Department of Agricultural Education, School of Vocational studies. Simple random sampling technique was used to select sixty percent of the students from two hundred and seventeen (217) of the final year students of Agricultural Education to make a total of one hundred and thirty (130) respondents as sample size for this study.

Data collection method

Data for this study were collected with the aid of questionnaire. The questionnaire was subjected to face validity by consulting experts in the fields of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development. Items found ambiguous and lacking in clarity were eliminated. Test-retest was carried out with ten (10) final year agricultural students who were not included in this study to ascertain the reliability of the instrument.

Total scores were computed for each week and analyzed to get correlation coefficient (r) between two sets of scores. A reliability coefficient of 0.75 and above was termed reliable.

Measurement of variables

Variables such as age, sex, grade level, family/guardian support, residence and ethnicity were measured at both interval and nominal levels. The adequacy of cassava processing facilities was measured in terms of facility availability to students ratio using 3-point indicator as Very adequate, Inadequate, and Not available. Also, the state of cassava processing facilities was taken. This was measured at nominal level as Functional and Not functional. Contributions of vocational education to skills acquisition was measured in respect of the students' ability to make various cassava products using 3-point indicator as Greatly contributed, Somehow contributed, and Not contributed. Challenges to effective agricultural vocational education were measured using 3-point indicator as Extremely serious, Moderately serious, and Less serious.

Method of Data Analysis

Objectives of this study were subjected to descriptive statistics

such as percentage, mean and frequency distribution while Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used to analyze the hypothesis.

Results and discussion

Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

Results in Table 1 revealed that the mean age of the respondents was 22.89 years. About seventy percent (68.50%) of the respondents were between 20 - 24 years of age while 4.60% were above 30 years of age. This indicates that respondents are young and economically active. They have ability to learn new things and acquire skills. This result supports the previous findings that most young people in the world are in this age bracket and they are economically active part of the population (Boyd and Ellisor, 2007 cited in Oyediran and Omoare, 2014). Majority (60%) of the respondents were females while 40% of the respondents were males. This shows the dominance of the female agricultural students in the Department of Agricultural Education. This may not be unconnected with the mandate of the Colleges of Education to produce qualified young teachers which encourage more young ladies to troop into teaching profession and it will go a long way to assist in

transfer of the skills acquired by the female students to other fellow women outside the school. Many (48.50%) of the respondents had Credit grade while very few (3.10%) had Distinction. This finding indicates that most of the students are above average in academic performance, hardworking and committed to their studies. Most (88.50%) of the respondents were Yoruba while 9.20% and 2.30% were Igbo and Egede/Ohori respectively. This can be attributed to the fact that the institution is located in southwest, Nigeria where Yoruba ethnic predominate. The findings of this study also revealed that 45.40% of the respondents stayed inside school while 54.60% resided outside the campus. The reason is that the hostel facilities in the school are very limited hence all the students cannot secure accommodation in the school. Majority (93.30%) of the respondents were sponsored by their parents while 14.60% of the respondents personally financed their studies. The implication of this is that apart from parental support in terms of financing, the students have keen interest in learning and acquiring skills and knowledge for improved production and better living.

Adequacy of cassava processing facilities

The results in table 2 showed that cassava dryer (98.50%), cassava press (93.10%), cassava fryer (70.80%) and cassava sieve (66.20%) were very adequate while cassava peeler (73.80%), cassava grater (33.80%) and labeling machine (100%) were inadequate. However, it was indicated by all (100%) the respondents that packaging equipment, cassava sorter and storage facility were not available in the study area. Packaging is the science, art, and technology of enclosing or protecting products for distribution, storage, sale, and use (Schneider *et al.*, 2010). The implication of this is that the students will not be able to have exposure and practical usage of these essential processing facilities that are inadequate or not readily available for teaching.

Functionality of cassava processing facilities

From results in table 3, it was revealed that cassava peeler, cassava grater, cassava dryer, cassava press, cassava fryer and cassava sieve were in good working condition. This could be due to newness of the equipment and good maintenance practice by the officers in charge of the plant and school authority. This implies that

the equipment can work optimally when in use.

Contributions of High Quality Cassava Processing facilities to students' skills acquisition

According to the National policy of Nigeria (FRN 2004), the philosophy of education is based upon a strong, united and self-reliant nation. Egbule, (2002) viewed Agricultural Education to mean the teaching of skills, values and other forms required knowledge in products. Agro-processing is an important operation to reduce spoilage, waste and other losses in quantity and quality of farm produce between the time of harvesting and time of marketing/consumption (Ofoh, 2009). Almost all the respondents acquired skills in making quality garri, starch and cassava paste. The implication is that the students can use these acquired skills to establish their own small/medium scale cassava processing factories, produce quality cassava products for public consumption and become employers of labour. Meanwhile, students were unable to acquire much skill in packaging and waste disposal management because the facilities were not on ground.

Challenges to students' skills acquisition

Several constraints affect cassava processing which limit the contribution of the crop to the development of Nigeria's economy (Ntawuruhunga, 2010). The results in Table 4 showed that epileptic power supply was ranked 1st as a major constraint confronting skill acquisition in the study area. This constraint is a national problem and it is seriously affecting the space of skill acquisition in cassava processing because the machines are power driven. Inadequate functional processing facilities were ranked as 2nd major constraint to skill acquisition by the students while inadequate resource personnel constituted the 3rd major impediment to the transfer of knowledge and skills to the students on cassava processing. There is the problem of low quality training among vocational students (Yussuf and Soyemi, 2012) because of inadequate instructional materials. Thus, emphasis is much on theory and certification rather than skill acquisition and proficiency training. Similarly, respondents identified high cost of spare parts, too short time allocated for the practical session, and inadequate of raw materials as major challenges inhibiting skills acquisition in the study area.

Testing of hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between the adequacy of cassava processing facilities and its contributions to the students' skill acquisition in the study area.

Results of correlation showed a positive and significant relationship between the adequacy of cassava processing facilities and its contributions to the students' skill acquisition at $p < 0.05$. This implies that the more the availability of processing facilities the higher the rate at which the students are exposed to the practical session which in turn facilitate skill acquisition in cassava processing. That is, the students have 79% chances to acquire skills for every 1% available of high quality cassava processing equipment in the study area. This is in line with findings of Moseri, (2000) that the conditions for an effective agricultural development include a high average educational attempt, adequate capital, quantity and quality of land and technology, development of quality production skills, formation of agricultural associations and supporting services, facilities and programmes.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that the provision of adequate and functional high quality cassava processing facilities have direct

bearing on students skill acquisition in producing quality cassava products in the study area. However, the full potential of this plant is affected by myriads of problems.

Recommendation

Based on the findings of this study it is hereby recommended that:

- i. The students should seize this opportunity to learn and acquire skills in cassava processing which will make them to be job creators and self-reliant.
- ii. Private organisations should support government in providing stable source of power supply (e.g. solar energy, big electric generating set) and other essential infrastructure, and processing facilities to the school.
- iii. The school management should employ more resource personnel and see the project beyond teaching aids, expand the project as another means of generating fund internally.

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Table 1: Personal characteristics of respondents (n = 130)

| Variables | Frequency | Percentage | Mean (yrs.) |
|--------------|-----------|------------|-------------|
| Age (years) | | | 22.89 |
| < 20 | 12 | 9.20 | |
| 20 – 24 | 89 | 68.50 | |
| 25 – 29 | 23 | 17.70 | |
| 30 and above | 06 | 4.60 | |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 52 | 40.00 | |
| Female | 78 | 60.00 | |

| Grade level | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----|-------|
| Distinction | 04 | 3.10 |
| Credit | 63 | 48.50 |
| Merit | 56 | 43.10 |
| Pass | 07 | 5.40 |
| Ethnicity | | |
| Yoruba | 115 | 88.50 |
| Igbo | 12 | 9.20 |
| Egede/Ohori | 03 | 2.30 |
| Residence proximity to school | | |
| Inside campus | 59 | 45.40 |
| Outside campus | 71 | 54.60 |
| Sponsorship | | |
| Personal | 19 | 14.60 |
| Parents | 87 | 66.90 |
| Guardian | 24 | 18.50 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 2: Distribution based on adequacy of cassava processing facilities (n = 130)

| Cassava processing facilities | Very adequate | Inadequate | Not available |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Cassava peeler | 34 (26.20) | 96 (73.80) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava washer | 0 (0.00) | 130 (100) | 0(0.00) |
| Cassava sorter | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) | 130 (100) |
| Cassava grater | 37 (28.50) | 93 (71.50) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava press (screw/hydraulic) | 121 (93.10) | 09 (6.90) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava dryer (flash) | 128 (98.50) | 02 (1.50) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava sieve | 86 (66.20) | 44 (33.80) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava fryer | 92 (70.80) | 38 (29.20) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava waste disposal system | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) | 130 (100) |
| Packaging | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) | 130 (100) |
| Sealing | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) | 130 (100) |

| | | | |
|------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| Labeling | 0 (0.00) | 130 (100) | 0 (0.00) |
| Storage facility | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) | 130 (100) |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Values in parenthesis are percentages

Table 3: Distribution based on functionality of cassava processing facilities (n = 130)

| Cassava processing facilities | Functional | Not functional |
|---------------------------------|--------------|----------------|
| Cassava peeler | 130 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava washer | 06 (4.60) | 124 (95.40) |
| Cassava sorter | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava grater | 130 (100.00) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava press (screw/hydraulic) | 125 (96.20) | 05 (3.80) |
| Cassava dryer (flash) | 130 (100.00) | 0 (0.00) |
| Cassava sieve | 100 (76.90) | 30 (23.10) |
| Cassava fryer | 110 (84.60) | 20 (15.40) |
| Labelling machine | 69 (53.10) | 0 (0.00) |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Values in parenthesis are percentages

Table 4: Contributions of cassava processing facilities to students' skills acquisition (n = 130)

| Contributions to skills acquisition in: | Greatly contributed | Somehow contributed | Not contributed |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------|
| Quality garri processing | 129 (99.20) | 01(0.80) | 0 (0.00) |
| Good starch production | 94 (72.30) | 23 (17.70) | 0 (0.00) |
| Hygienic cassava paste making | 85 (65.40) | 36 (27.70) | 09 (6.90) |
| High quality powder cassava flour | 54 (41.50) | 69 (53.10) | 07 (5.40) |
| Improved packaging | 10 (7.70) | 67 (51.50) | 53 (40.80) |
| Proper waste management | 12 (9.20) | 15 (11.50) | 103 (79.30) |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Values in parenthesis are percentages

Table 5: Distribution based on challenges to students' skills acquisition (n = 130)

| Challenges | Extremely serious | Moderately serious | Less serious |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| Inadequate resource personnel | 119 (91.60) | 06 (4.60) | 5 (3.80) |
| Inadequate functional processing facilities | 123 (94.60) | 07 (5.40) | 0 (0.00) |
| Epileptic power supply | 128 (98.50) | 02 (1.50) | 0 (0.00) |
| Poor maintenance | 56 (43.10) | 44 (33.80) | 30 (23.10) |
| High cost of spare parts | 122 (93.80) | 08 (6.20) | 0 (0.00) |
| Too short time allocating for the practical session | 114 (87.70) | 16 (12.30) | 80(0.00) |
| Inadequate raw materials | 106 (81.50) | 15 (11.60) | 9 (6.90) |
| High cost of acquiring the processing plant | 130 (100.00) | 0 (0.00) | 0 (0.00) |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Values in parenthesis are percentages

Table 6: Relationship between the adequacy of cassava processing facilities and its contributions to the students' skill acquisition

| Variable | r | p-value | Decision |
|-----------------------------------|------|---------|----------|
| Adequacy of processing facilities | 0.76 | 0.00 | S |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

S – Significant at $p \leq 0.05$

**INVOLVEMENT OF FARMERS' CHILDREN IN FAMILY
INCOME GENERATING ACTIVITIES FOR A SECURED FUTURE
IN ODEDA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OGUN STATE,
NIGERIA**

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the involvement of farmers' children in agricultural and other family income generating activities in the study area. A Multistage Sampling technique was used to select 112 respondents for the study. Chi-Square and Pearson Product Moment Correlation were used to analyze the data. Results showed that the mean age of the children was 14.12 years and 55.35% were females. Most (66.96% were Christians with 41.96% in primary schools and 58.04% in secondary schools. Farmers' children were involved more in petty trading (53.56%) and hunting (19.63%) than other income generating activities. The rate of involvement in other income generating activities varies among the children. Most (76.79%) showed low interest in farming. Most (90.17%) regarded tiredness after returning from the school as the foremost constraint to their involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities. Other constraints identified were drudgery associated with some income generating activities (80.35%), perceived effect on academic performance (53.57%), hazards associated with some income generating activities (32.14%), and lack of rural infrastructural facilities (8.92%). Correlation analysis showed a significant relationship between the children's age ($r=0.43$, $p<0.05$) and their involvement in agricultural and other family income generating activities. Chi-Square analysis showed a significant association between the children's sex ($\chi^2=12.64$, $p\leq 0.05$), education

($\chi^2 = 5.12, p \leq 0.05$) and their involvement in agricultural and other family income generating activities. It was concluded that sex and education played significant roles in children's involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities.

Keywords: Involvement; farmers' Children, Income generating activities, Secured future.

INTRODUCTION

In order to survive, humans engage in various income generating activities to provide income and sustenance for individuals and households. Rural households particularly combine various activities with farming in order to meet their needs especially during agricultural off season. They also engage in other activities so as to guard against occasional failure of agricultural enterprises such as sudden flood, delay in rainfall, drought, fall in price of agricultural produce, fire outbreak, climate change and other unforeseen challenges. Also, in an attempt to meet their various consumption and economic necessities, coping with uncertainties and responding to new opportunities, people living in the rural areas in developing countries engage in different income generating activities as a means of livelihood diversification (De Haan and Zoomers, 2003).

Agriculture is by far the most important industry in Nigeria and therefore occupies a strategic position in the economy. However, in recent times, agricultural

production has been on the decline, perhaps due in part to the low productivity levels of small scale farmers who are responsible for a greater percentage of the total food production. Millions of people experience prolonged hunger resulting in malnutrition, growth retardation, susceptibility to diseases and sometimes outright death due to starvation. According to NARP (1997), nearly half of Sub-Saharan Africa's total population lives in households that are suffering from food deprivation, not because they lacked capacity to produce enough food for its rapidly growing population but rather that the wrong focus has often been applied by planners in food security strategies.

Jibowo (1998) emphasized that students who grew in rural areas are more likely to show interest and be involved more in agriculture and other income generating activities than those who grew up in urban centers. Adedoyin (2000) also reported that rural children were future role players in the economy of any nation.

Involvement was conceptualized by Paul (1987) as an active process by which people influence the direction and execution of a development in terms of income, personal growth and self-reliance. Involvement of farmers' children in the context of this study connotes the physical participation of rural children in agricultural production and other income generating activities with a view to increasing family labor force hence increasing family income and ensuring a secured future for the children. The Nigerian government, through the various development agencies has made attempts at assisting rural households so that they can improve their levels of agricultural production and income generation through other non-farm activities. Farmers are ageing and becoming less active in their involvement in agric production activities. To improve their production therefore, they need to involve their children in agriculture and other income generating activities.

To combine too much income generating activities may not be feasible for a single farmer. It is therefore imperative to involve farmers' children in such activities with a view of generating more income for the family and lay a foundation for a secured future for the farmers' children.

It is against this background that this study provided answers to the

following research questions: What are the income generating activities available to the children to be involved in? To what extent are the children involved in these activities? How do the children perceive farming and other family income generating activities? Are the children interested in getting involved in these activities? What are the constraints associated with children's involvement in agricultural and other family income generating activities. In providing answers to these questions, the study examined the involvement of farmers' children in these activities. Specifically, the study identified the income generating activities available to the children to be involved in, determined the extent to which the children were involved in such activities, examined farmers' children's perception of farming and other income generating activities, determined children's interest in getting involved in income generating activities of the family and identified the constraints associated with the children's involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities. The following hypotheses stated in the null form were tested: there is no significant relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of farmers' children and their involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities,

there is no significant relationship between the constraints experienced by farmers' children and their involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Odeda Local Government Area of Ogun State. The Local Government Area has an extensive land mass with an area of 1263.45 square kilometers. It shares boundaries with Abeokuta South, Abeokuta North, Obafemi-Owode, and Ido and Ibarapa Local Governments of Oyo State in the South, West, East and North respectively. The set ups of the study area is basically rural and the inhabitants are predominantly farmers who practice mixed cropping and mixed farming, and also engage in other income generating activities. They grow tree crops, prominent among which are cocoa, kola nut, oil palm, oranges and mango, as well as food crops like yam, cassava, plantain, banana maize and cowpea. Major livestock in the area include poultry, pigs, goats, sheep and cattle. The Local Government has 104 primary schools and 27 secondary schools, both public and private. The population of the study consists of farmers' children in the study area. A multistage sampling procedure was used to select 112 respondents from the two extension blocks in the study area (Ilugun and

Opeji blocks) which have 6 and 8 cells respectively. Three (3) cells (50%) were randomly selected from Ilugun block and four villages were selected randomly from each of the cells to have 12 villages while 2 households were randomly selected from each of the villages to have a total of 24 households from Ilugun block. Four (4) cells (50%) were randomly selected from Opeji block and 4 villages were selected randomly from each of the cells to have 16 villages while 2 households were randomly selected from each of the villages to have a total of 32 households from Opeji block. Two (2) children whose parents were predominantly farmers were randomly selected from each of the households. In all, 48 children from Ilugun block and 64 children from Opeji block made a total of 112 children as the respondents for the study. Primary data used for the study were collected through the administration of interview schedule tailored towards realizing the objectives of the study. Variables studied included the personal characteristics of the children, involvement of children in agricultural and other income generating activities, interest of children in agriculture and other income generating activities, children's perception of agriculture and other income generating activities and constraints associated with children's involvement in

agricultural and other income generating activities. Descriptive statistical tools were used to describe the personal characteristics of the respondents. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) and Chi-square were used to test the hypotheses of the study.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Socio economic characteristics of the farmers' children

As indicated in Table 1, the mean age of the Children was 14.12 years. This suggests that the children were old enough to participate in most of the agricultural and other family income generating activities engaged in by their parents. Majority (55.35%) were female while most (66.96%) were Christians with 41.96% in primary schools and 58.04% in secondary schools. In addition, majority (64.28%) used 3-4 hours on family income generating activities per day while 58.03% used 1-2 days per week on family income generating activities. Many (47.32%) of the children have 4-6 years of experience on family income generating activities. In other words, they have been involved in these activities in the last 4-6 years and have been contributing to the household income. This aligns with the findings of Basa (1998) who confirmed that children contribute as high as one third of household

income. This finding is also in agreement with the ILO (2009) who observed that in Nigeria, an estimated 12 million children were involved in various categories of work including agriculture. The implication of this to agricultural extension practice is that the more the children were involved in agricultural and other income generating activities, the better the family income and livelihood.

Interest of children in family income generating activities

As shown in Table 2, most of the farmers' children showed an interest in involving in petty trading (56.25%) and food vending (41.96%). Other activities that attracted a fair interest by the children are craft making (38.39%), charcoal making (37.50%) and alcohol production (35.71%). Many (41.06%) of the children showed low interest in farm related activities (farming and farm labor). The low interest shown by the children might be due to the drudgery associated with farming. The result is in agreement with Akinkanmi and Williams (1997) who found that children's interest in farming activities is rapidly diminishing. In the same vein, Auta (1999) deduced that the cause of the diminishing can be attributed to inadequate and improper integration of children (youths) into agricultural policy of the nation.

For agricultural extension to have more positive impact on the agrarian society, the interest of rural children should be aroused and sustained such that they can become future farmers with a view of improving agricultural production in Nigeria.

Involvement of Children in income generating activities

Children play vital roles in national development. This was attested to by the results on various activities engaged in by the children as indicated in Table 3. Twelve major family income generating activities were identified as the most common activities being carried out by the farmers in the study area. The results indicated that children were regularly involved in petty trading (42.85% and hunting (17.85%) than other activities. The ILO (2009) observed that in Nigeria, an estimated 12 million children were involved in various categories of work including agriculture. Confirming further, children's involvement in family income generating activities particularly agriculture, Jobowa (1999) inferred that for decades in south-western Nigeria, fathers used to give their children a small portion of land to practice his own independent farming and that will be the period when the child has attained the age between 10-18 years. Involvement of farmers'

children was low in activities such as artisan jobs, charcoal making and alcohol production. The low involvement in such activities might be attributed to the drudgery associated with them.

Constraints associated with children's involvement in income generating activities

In Table 4, most (90.17%) of the children indicated tiredness after returning from the school as the foremost constraint to their involvement in farming and other family income generating activities. The drudgery associated with activities such as farming, farm labor, charcoal making artisan jobs and alcohol production was ranked as the second constraint. Other identified constraints were perceived effect on academic work (53.57%), hazards involved in some activities (32.14%) and lack of rural infrastructure with 8.92 percent. The absence of infrastructural facilities has heightened the level of involvement of children in farm activities. This result agrees with the opinion of Doigaramaci and Naidu (1985) who maintained that socio economic development is inversely related to the incident of child farm labor. By implication, the constraints reduced the children's involvement in agricultural and other family income generating activities.

Hypotheses testing

Hypothesis One

HO₁: There is no significant relationship between the personal characteristics of the farmers' children and their involvement in family income generating activities. The personal characteristics of the children that were considered are: age, sex, religion, education, number of days spent on agricultural and other income generating activities per week and number of hours spent on family income generating activities per day.

Results showed that there are significant relationships between the children's sex ($\chi^2 = 12.64$, $P \leq 0.05$), education ($\chi^2 = 5.12$, $P \leq 0$) and their involvement in family income generating activities. Female children were involved more in activities such as food vending. Children in higher classes were also involved in family income generating activities and petty trading less than those in lower classes both at the primary and secondary school levels. This implies that female children were involved more in activities that require less energy to carry out. This is justified considering the feminine nature of the female children. Less involvement of children in higher classes might be attributed to the volume of academic work available to such students. Results on correlation test

showed a significant relationship between the childrens' age ($r=0.43$, $p<0.05$) and their involvement in agriculture and other family income generating activities. This implies that the age of the children may determine the activity (s) he or she can be productively involved in.

Hypothesis Two

HO₂: There is no significant relationship between the constraints experienced by the children and their involvement agricultural and other family income generating activities.

Result in Table 7 showed that there is a significant association between tiredness after returning from school ($\chi^2 = 4.70$, $P \leq 0.05$), drudgery associated with some activities ($\chi^2 = 21.32$, $P \leq 0.05$), hazards involved in some activities ($\chi^2 = 17.53$, $P \leq 0.05$) and involvement of children in agricultural and other family income generating activities. For example, tiredness after returning from school can prevent a child from involving in farming and other income generating activities. The drudgery and operational hazards associated with some activities such as farming, farm labor, artisan jobs and craft making can also discourage the children from involving themselves in agricultural and some other activities. Lack of rural infrastructure can also affect children's interest in agriculture. Such children will be more

interested in migrating to the urban centres for other more lucrative activities. The implication of this is that the more the severity of the constraints, the less the children's involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities and vice – versa.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study assessed the involvement of farmers' children in agricultural and other family income generating activities. It was established that the children were involved in different family income generating activities with their parents but they were involved more in some activities than the others as a result of the inherent constraints associated with each of the activities. Many of the children were not interested in farming. It was found that there are significant relationships between the children's sex, age and education and their involvement in agriculture and other family income generating activities. These three variables therefore played significant roles in the children's involvement in income generating activities. The constraints experienced by the children also affected their involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities.

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

1. Farmers' children should be encouraged to get themselves involved more in agricultural and other family income generating activities.
2. Modern farm machineries/equipments should be made available to the farmers to remove the drudgery associated with farming in order to encourage the farmers' children.
3. Rural infrastructure should be provided to arouse the interest of farmers' children in agriculture and other family income generating activities.

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Table 1: Personal characteristics of the farmers' children.

| Variable | Mean | SD | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------|------|----|-----------|------------|
| Age (Years) | | | | |
| 6 - 10 | | | 8 | 7.14 |
| 11 - 14 | | | 32 | 28.57 |
| | | | 161 | |

| | | | |
|---|------------|-------|--|
| 15 – 18 | 67 | 59.82 | |
| 14.12 years | | 2.95 | |
| Above 18 | 5 | 4.46 | |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 50 | 44.64 | |
| Female | 62 | 55.35 | |
| Religion | | | |
| Christianity | 75 | 66.96 | |
| Islam | 36 | 32.14 | |
| Education | | | |
| Primary 1 -3 | 22 | 19.64 | |
| Primary 4 – 6 | 25 | 22.32 | |
| Junior Secondary | 36 | 32.14 | |
| Senior Secondary | 29 | 25.89 | |
| Number of days spent on family income generating activities/week | | | |
| 1-2 | 65 | 58.03 | |
| 3-4 | 36 | 32.14 | |
| 5.21days | 2.34 | | |
| 5-6 | 7 | 6.25 | |
| 7 | 4 | 3.57 | |
| Number of hours used on family income generating activities/day | | | |
| 1-2 | 37 | 33.03 | |
| 3-4 | 72 | 64.28 | |
| 3.79 hours | 1.14 | | |
| 5-6 | 3 | 2.67 | |
| | 162 | | |

| Experience in income generating activities (Years) | | |
|--|------|-------|
| 1-3 | 40 | 35.71 |
| 4-6 | 53 | 47.32 |
| 5.05 years | 2.42 | |
| 7-9 | 12 | 10.71 |
| 10-12 | 7 | 6.25 |

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 2: Interest of children in agricultural and other family income generating activities

| Interested | | |
|--|------------|-----------|
| Income generating activities | Percentage | Frequency |
| Farming | 23.21 | 26 |
| Farm labor | 20 | 17.85 |
| Hunting | 22 | 19.64 |
| Palm wine tapping | 25 | 22.32 |
| Charcoal making | 42 | 37.50 |
| Alcohol production | 40 | 35.71 |
| Petty trading | 63 | 56.25 |
| Artisan jobs (Carpentry, bricklaying etc.) | 18 | 16.07 |
| Craft making (Basket making etc.) | 43 | 38.39 |
| Food vending | 47 | 41.96 |
| Transport (Commercial Motorcycle) | 38 | 33.92 |
| Daily collection | 22 | 19.64 |

Source: Field Survey, 2013

* Multiple responses

Table 3: Involvement of Children in agricultural activities

| involvement Activities | Level of | | |
|---|------------|------------|--------------|
| | Rarely | Regularly | Occasionally |
| | Freq (%) | Freq (%) | Freq (%) |
| Farming | 19 (16.96) | 89 (79.46) | 4 (3.57) |
| Farm labor | 5 (4.46) | 90 (80.35) | 17 (15.17) |
| Hunting | 20 (17.85) | 2 (1.78) | 90 (80.35) |
| Palm wine tapping | 7 (6.25) | 17 (15.17) | 88 (78.57) |
| Charcoal making | 2 (1.78) | 4 (3.57) | 106 (94.64) |
| Alcohol production | 6 (5.35) | 5 (4.46) | 101 (90.17) |
| Petty trading | 48 (42.85) | 12 (10.71) | 52 (46.42) |
| Artisan jobs (Carpentry, bricklaying etc.) | 6 (5.35) | 8 (7.14) | 98 (87.50) |
| Craft making (Basket making etc.) | 12 (10.71) | 10 (8.92) | 90 (80.35) |
| Food vending | 8 (7.14) | 14 (12.50) | 90 (80.35) |
| Transport (Commercial Motorcycle) (13.39) | 91 (81.25) | 6 (5.35) | 15 |
| Daily collection (10.71) | 96 (85.71) | 4 (3.57) | 12 |

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 4: Constraint associated with children's involvement in income generating activities

| Constraint | Rank | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|------|-----------|------------|
| Tiredness after returning from school | | 101 | 90.17 |
| Drudgery associated with some activities | | 90 | 80.35 |

| | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----|-------|---|
| Perceived effect on academic work | 60 | 53.57 | 3 |
| Hazards involved in some activities | 36 | 32.14 | 4 |
| Lack of rural infrastructure | 10 | 8.92 | 5 |

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 5: Results of correlation test showing the relationship between the personal characteristics of the children and their involvement in agricultural and other income generating activities.

| Variable Decision | r | p |
|--------------------------|------|------|
| Age S | 0.43 | 0.04 |
| Farming Experience NS | 0.06 | 0.90 |

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 6: Chi – square result of the relationship between the personal characteristics of the children and their involvement in agricultural activities.

| Variable Decision | χ^2 | df | p |
|----------------------|----------|----|------|
| Sex S | 12.64 | 1 | 0.00 |
| Religion NS | 10.98 | 2 | 0.13 |
| Education S | 5.12 | 3 | 0.00 |

Source: Field Survey, 2013

S= Significant, NS= Not Significant

Table 7: Result of the association between the constraints experienced by the farmers' children and their involvement in income generating activities.

| Constraints | χ^2 | df | p | Decision |
|--|----------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------------|
| Tiredness after returning from school | 4.70 | 1 | 0.03 | S |
| Drudgery associated with some activities | 21.32 | 6 | 0.02 | S |
| Hazards involved in some activities | 17.53 | 6 | 0.00 | S |
| Perceived effect on academic work | 2.23 | 5 | 0.32 | NS |
| Lack of rural infrastructure | 12.02 | 2 | 0.06 | NS |

Source: Field Survey, 2013

S=Significant

AN ASSESSMENT OF RURAL FARM YOUTHS' VULNERABILITY TO HIV/AIDS IN OSUN STATE

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Abstract

This study assessed the level of vulnerability of rural farm youth to HIV/AIDS in Osun State. Specifically, this study sought to describe the personal and socio-economic characteristics of rural farm youth, examine their level of knowledge of HIV/AIDS vis-à-vis transmission, prevention, care and support for the people living with HIV/AIDS, determine their psycho-social characteristics, and identify correlates of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS vis-à-vis indulgence in risky behaviours. A validated interview schedule and questionnaire were used to elicit information from 120 respondents aged between 13 and 30, who were selected through multistage sampling procedure in Osun State Nigeria. Data collected were subjected to both descriptive and inferential analyses. The results revealed that over half the respondents were highly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS. At 0.01 level of significance religion ($X^2 = 235.45$, $C = 0.60$) and marital status ($X^2 = 68.99$, $C = 0.82$) were found to have strong association with the rural youths' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. Also, level of education ($r = -0.363$), number of years spent in school ($r = -0.405$), communication skill ($r = -0.257$), socio-economic condition of the family ($r = -0.392$), perception of HIV/AIDS ($r = -0.314$) and perception of sex education ($r = -0.312$) had significant but inverse relationship with their level of vulnerability at 0.01 level of significant. More so, knowledge of HIV/AIDS ($r = -0.234$) had significant and inverse relationship, but at 0.05 level of significant. However, at 0.01 level of significance, number of wives of father ($r = 0.410$) had positive and significant relationship with rural youth's level vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. The study concluded that religion, marital status, number of wives of the father increased vulnerability to HIV/AIDS, all these called for a well-articulated campaign designed to educate the populace about the danger in indulging in risky behaviour. The study recommended that increasing farm youths' knowledge and improving their perception would like reduced vulnerability to the disease.

Introduction

The largest parts of the Nigerian population live in the rural areas, where more than half are living below poverty level and over 63percent of the population engages in various farming activities (Ekong, 2003). The major workforce in the rural areas is the youth, whose population is more than half of the total population in the rural areas (Ekong, 2003). This suggests that the go-getter of Nigerian population is the youth population. The youth contribute to the socio-economic and political growth of their communities by providing economic and emotional support for their parents (Jibowo, 2000; Okorie *et al* 2013). The youth are also very significant in agricultural development because they are energetically stronger to participate in crop farming (Jibowo and Sotomi, 1996) than their parents whose age may limit their participation in crop farming. As the rate of HIV infection in the general population rises, making many more people vulnerable to the infection, simply because the chances of encountering an infected partner become higher, this is as a result of a rise in risky behaviours among youth, such as unprotected sex, multiple sexual partners, sharing of unsterilized sharp and pointed objects, transfusion of untested blood, not knowing ones HIV status, unsafe abortion among

others.

Information about HIV/AIDS was still very low in the rural areas, especially among the rural farm youths, making the curb of the virus a little difficult among the rural farm youths. But then, experience had shown that the right approaches, applied quickly enough, and active involvement of young people in sex education, by passing accurate information across to young people, can result in lower HIV infection rates. However adequate information on the level of farm youth vulnerability is still missing in the literature (Torimiro *et al.* 2008). In view of this, this research aimed at providing answers to the question of the factors that make rural farm youth vulnerable to the infection that tend to reduce the population of rural farm youth who are the most vulnerable to the infection, and are the most active to carry out farm operations.

OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this paper was to assess the level of vulnerability of rural farm youth in Osun State to HIV/AIDS. Specifically, this study sought to: describe the personal and socio-economic characteristics of rural farm youth; examine their level of knowledge of HIV/AIDS vis-à-vis transmission, prevention, care and

support for the people living with HIV/AIDS; determine their psychosocial characteristics, and; determine their level of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS vis-à-vis indulgence in risky behaviours; and identify the correlates of their vulnerability.

Conceptual framework

Vulnerability to HIV infection is a result of continued indulgence in certain risky behaviours. If an individual is unable to control the risky behaviour that he/she is exposed to, then such individual becomes vulnerable to HIV infection. The risky behaviours could be cultural, social and economical in nature. Poverty, gender inequality and displacement as a result of conflict or natural disasters are all examples of social and economic factors (UNAIDS, 1998). Certain factors also, influence vulnerability to HIV/AIDS, such as individuals' level of knowledge, variation in attitude, lack of skills whereby to negotiate and practice safe sex and safer drug use. Other factors that influence individual and group vulnerability to HIV and AIDS are gender relations, religious differentiation, sexuality and the social evaluation different forms of sexuality, levels of inter- and intra-community conflict, including warfare, voluntary and forced migration, variations in the

distribution of income and wealth and relationship between young and old. These are the structural features, which systematically render some people more vulnerable than others (Piot and Augletton, 1998; UNAIDS, 2004,1998). Also, sexual health clinics providing contraception and testing and treatment for other STIs are also few and far between (Sofu *et al*, 2003).

Methodology

The study area is Osun State. It lies between latitude $6^{\circ} 50^1\text{N}$ and $8^{\circ} 10^1\text{N}$ on the north-south pole and longitude $4^{\circ} 05^1$ and $5^{\circ} 02^1\text{E}$ on the east-west post (Okorie *et al*, 2013). Osun State was divided into three federal senatorial districts, each of which was composed of two administrative zones. The state was also divided into three Agricultural Developmental Programme (ADP) zones, and they were Oshogbo zone with headquarter at Oshogbo; Ife-Ijesa zone at Ilesa and Iwo zone at Iwo.

Multistage sampling procedure was used to select six Local Government Areas from the three ADP zones in the State. The LGAs chosen under Oshogbo zone were Olorunda, Odo Otin and Ila; under Ife-Ijesa zone-Ife Central and Atakunmosa West, while Iwo zone had only Iwo local government covered for this study. Twenty self-identified farm youths were

randomly selected from each of the selected LGAs to make a total of 120 respondents. Validated interview schedule and questionnaire were developed and used for data collection.

To determine respondents' vulnerability-dependent variable, farm youths were asked to indicate their frequencies of engaging in ten risky behaviours on a five point scale. The behaviours were adapted from UNIEF Manual (2003). The minimum and maximum scores were 0 and 50, respectively. High scores indicate high the degrees of vulnerability. Simple descriptive statistical techniques such as frequency count, mean, percentages and standard deviation were used to describe the data while Chi square analysis (X^2) and Pearson's correlation (r) analysis were used to make deductions. SPSS version 16 was used to perform the analysis.

Results and discussions

Personal and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

Data in Table 1 showed that the respondents' mean age was 21.6 years with a standard deviation of 4.7. While only about 16.7percent of the respondents were in the age range of 27 and 30 years, majority (48.3%) between the ages of 20 and 26 years. Also, about 35percent of the respondents were in the age bracket of 13 and 19 years. This

implies that some (35%) of the respondents were in their teenage years, a period characterised by the appearance of secondary sex characteristics and composed of a set of gradual transitions, which touch upon many aspects of the individual's behaviour, development and relationships (Okorie *et al* 2013). Majority (55.8%) of the respondents were females, while only 44.2 percent were males, this could be as a result of the fact that more male rural farm youth, relative to their female counterparts often migrate urban centres especially during off farm seasons (Torimiro *et al.*, 2008), and this could be the entry point of the infection to the rural areas, the migrating youth could be the source of the infection to the rural areas, who transmit the infection to their female counterpart. This development is also very good for this study because the female gender are believed to be at a higher risk of HIV infection, therefore their opinion count a lot in this study (Deji and Enuwemba 2007). About 66.7 percent of the respondents were Christians, just as 24.2 percent and 9.2 percent were Muslims and traditionalists respectively. This showed that people in the study area were highly religious. Many (65.8%) of the respondents were single, while 25 percent were married, and 2.5percent separated, also,

respondents that were divorced and widow/widower were both 0.8 percent each, but 5percent of the respondents did not respond to the question on marital status. This implied that the larger proportion of the respondents were still single and therefore should have some level of freedom, should be active sexually and economically stable. However, their freedom could expose them to risky behaviour, therefore make them vulnerable to the disease (Okorie *et al* 2013).

The average income per month of the respondents was ₦ 9883.58 with the standard deviation of 14849.28. This showed a great degree of disparity in the average income level of the respondents, showing great degree of difference between those that had sufficient and those that had little. About 12.5percent of the respondents neither read nor write in English language, and that 4.2 percent could only read, while 83.2 percent could read and write in English. The results also showed that 12.5percent of the respondents could neither read nor write in Yoruba language, while 5percent and 82.5percent could only read and both read and write in Yoruba language respectively, this implies that majority of the respondents are probably Yoruba speaking with formal education, because of the relationship between those who

could read and write Yoruba and those that could read and write in English. Among those who responded to Igbo language, many (88.3percent) of the respondents could not read nor write in igbo language, while 5.8percent could only read in Igbo language and the same 5.8percent could both read and write in Igbo language. In the same way, 96.7percent could neither read nor write Hausa, also 3.3percent could only read Hausa language, while none (0.0percent)of the respondents could read and write in Hausa language. Of all the respondents only 2.5percent could read and write in Arabic language, none (0.0percent) could only read the language or not able to read and write in Arabic. But there were 0.8percent of the respondents who could read in other languages, while 1.7percent could read and write in other languages and 97.5percent could neither read nor write in other languages From the table one could infer that the majority of the respondents could read and write in both English and Yoruba, and this implied that the majority had some level of formal education, which is supposed to help them modify their behaviour in order to reduce their vulnerability to HIV infection.

Respondents' Level of knowledge

of HIV/AIDS of respondents, vis-à-vis transmission, prevention, care and support for the people living with HIV/AIDS.

Data presented in Table 4 showed that while majority (69.2%) and few (24.2%) of the respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed, respectively, that *People with multiple sex partners are highly at risk of HIV*, only 2.5percent were undecided, none (0.0percent) strongly agreed, while 3.3percent agreed with the statement. In like manner, only (0.8percent) strongly agreed, while 2.5percent and 30percent agreed and disagreed respectively, that *Sharing unsterilized sharp objects with people can transfer the HIV*, none (0%) were undecided but 65.8percent strongly disagreed with the statement. Furthermore, the statement that pointed out that *Having unprotected sex can cause HIV/AIDS*, 1.7percent strongly agreed, 5percent agreed, 0.8percent were undecided, while 31.7percent and 60.8percent disagreed and strongly disagreed, respectively. Only about 1.7percent strongly agreed, also 1.7percent were undecided and many (62.5%) strongly agreed that *Transfusion of untested blood can transmit HIV*, while 26.7percent and 4.2percent disagreed and agreed respectively.

More so, 9.2percent and 15percent strongly agreed and agreed

respectively, while 6.7percent were undecided, also 35percent and 29.2percent disagreed and strongly disagreed that *Mosquito bites cannot transmit the virus*. As for the statement that *HIV can be transmitted from infected mother to child*, 4.2percent strongly agreed, 7.5percent agreed, 5.8percent were undecided, while 41.7percent and 39.2percent disagreed strongly disagreed respectively. The table also showed the respondents view on the statement that *Handshake cannot transmit the virus*, many (59.2%) strongly disagreed, 20percent and 7.5percent disagreed and agreed respectively, while 8.3percent and 5percent strongly agreed and undecided respectively. Also for the point that *Inhaling droplets from sneeze and cough cannot transmit the virus*, only 7.5percent strongly agreed, while 9.2percent agreed, 10.8percent were undecided, 39.2percent disagreed, and 32.5percent strongly disagreed with the statement.

As for the statement that *Sharing bathroom facilities cannot transmit the virus*, about 10.8percent strongly agreed, 13.3percent agreed, 5.8percent were undecided, 26.7percent, disagreed and 42.5percent strongly disagreed with the statement. As for the point that *Caring for people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) cannot transmit the virus*, only 4.2percent

strongly agreed, while 5.8percent and 39.2percent agreed and disagreed respectively, 5percent were undecided, and 43.4percent strongly disagreed. To the statement that *Being faithful to one sexual partner prevent transmission of HIV*, few (3.3percent) strongly agreed, and 6.7percent agreed, 2.5percent were undecided, while 38.3percent and 48.3percent disagreed strongly disagreed respectively. The statement that *To avoid sharing unsterilized sharp and pointed objects prevent infection*, had just 2.5percent who strongly agreed, 3.3percent who agreed, 5percent who were undecided, while 35percent and 53.3percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. Also the statement on prevention of HIV/AIDS that *To avoid transfusion of untested blood prevent infection*, only 1.7percent strongly agreed, while 5.8percent agreed, 2.5percent undecided, 38.3percent and 50.8percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. About 4.2percent strongly agreed, 6.7percent agreed, 8.3percent undecided, 42.5percent disagreed and 37.5percent strongly disagreed with the statement that *Using condoms correctly and constantly by sexual active reduce risk of HIV infection*.

Also, about 10.8percent strongly agreed, while 13.3percent agreed,

5.8percent were undecided, 26.7percent disagreed, 42.5percent strongly disagreed with the fact that *Taking concoctions before sex cannot reduce risk of HIV infection*. Of the respondents, about 12.5percent strongly agreed, and 9.2percent agreed, also 5.2percent were undecided, while about 30percent and 40percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that *There should be discrimination against PLWHA*. Also, for the statement that *PLWHA should not be shown love and care*, about 10percent strongly agreed, also 10percent also agreed, 5percent were undecided, while 26.7percent and 47.5percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. About 10.8percent strongly agreed and 8.3percent agreed, only 3.3percent were undecided, while 25percent disagreed and 51.7percent strongly disagreed respectively with the statement that *PLWHA should not be provided with basic needs and medication*.

Respondents' perception about HIV/AIDS

Data presented in Table 5 showed that while 40.8percent and 6.7percent strongly disagreed and strongly agreed with the perceptual statement that *HIV/AIDS is a political phenomenon*, about 15percent and 28.3percent agreed and disagreed respectively, only 8.3percent were

undecided. As for the perceptual statement that *HIV is a disease of the poor*, only 3.3percent strongly agreed, about 6.7percent agreed, but 5percent were undecided, while 35percent and 49.6percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. Also, about 6.7percent and 13.3percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively, but 7.5percent were undecided, in like manner, 34.2percent and 38.3percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively to the perceptual statement that *HIV/AIDS is a disease of those who collect money for sex*.

Also, about 11.7percent and 7.5percent of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed, respectively, only 2.5percent were undecided, while 35percent and 43.3percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively with the perceptual statement that *HIV is what elders use to scare unmarried people from engaging in sexual activities*. As far as the perceptual statement that *HIV/AIDS doesn't exist in Africa*, many (69.3percent) and few (5percent) strongly disagreed and strongly agreed, respectively, only 1.7percent agreed, while 23.3percent disagreed but none (0percent) were undecided. On the basis of the response to the perceptual statement *That HIV/AIDS cannot be contracted from one who looks*

healthy, about 5.8percent and 6.7percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively, only 0.8percent were undecided, while 34.2percent and 52.5percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. Furthermore, about 12.5percent and 15percent strongly agreed and agreed, respectively, but 15percent were undecided, while about 23.3percent and 34.2percent disagreed and strongly disagreed with the perceptual statement that *HIV/AIDS is God's punishment for the prostitutes*. The perceptual statement that *HIV/AIDS is a disease of the rich men* had, about 7.5percent who strongly agreed, only 5.8percent agreed, but 8.3percent were undecided, while 25percent and 53.3percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively.

The summary of the respondents' perception about HIV/AIDS is presented in Figure 1. Some (12.5%) of the respondents had negative perception about HIV/AIDS. Figure 4 also showed that many (75.8percent) had indifferent perception about HIV/AIDS while only about 11.7percent had positive perception. From the foregoing, it became obvious that the cultural tie was probably laying its hold on the rural youth, which made three-quarter to be indifferent about HIV/AIDS, and this can influence

the attitude of rural youth which is in line with the submission of Deji *et al* (2007) that perception is the bedrock of attitude which influences a person's decision to adopt or reject a view or an innovation. However, perception is root more or less in cultural norms and values imbibed by an individual, as well as on other related environmental factors.

Respondents' perception about sex education

Results in Table 6 showed that about 17.5percent and 11.7percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively, only 2.5percent were undecided, while 28.3percent and 40percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that *Young people should not participate in sex education*. As for the perceptual statement that *Sex education makes young people promiscuous*, about 14.2percent and 17.5percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively, only about 1.7percent was undecided, while about 29.2percent and 35percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. Also, about 11.7percent and 19.2percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively, but about 7.5percent were undecided, but 24.2percent and 36.7percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that *Exposing young people to sex education is a taboo in our culture*.

In the same way, about 11.7percent and 14.2percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively that *Sex education makes young people think of having sex at a very tender age*, while about 6.7percent were undecided, but 38.3percent and 29.9percent disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively with the perceptual statement. Also, about 11.7percent each strongly agreed and agreed that *Sex education makes parents lose control over their children*, only about 5percent were undecided, while 35.8percent each disagreed and strongly disagreed with the perceptual statement.

A summary of the respondents' perception about sex education is shown in Figure 2. About 14.2percent had unfavourable perception of sex education while few (12.5%) highly favourable perception. A majority (73.3%) of the respondents had indifferent perception of sex education. This showed that the perception of rural youth on sex education was not highly favourable, although, the perception were not too much on the low or unfavourable condition, but the majority (87%) stabilizes around the neutral level of perception of sex education, this may be as a result of the culture of the people which tend to shield young people away from anything that has to do with sex thinking,

which could exposed young people engaging in sex at a very tender age. That is the reason for the call for intensified campaign programme in the rural areas of Nigeria to wipe off wrong perceptions about HIV/AIDS, some of which are cultural based, if the need to eradicate the plague is necessary (Deji and Enuwemba, 2007; Deji *et al* 2008).

Respondents' levels of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS

For the statement on the behaviour of those who share unsterilised sharp and pointed objects with people, 53.3percent did not share unsterilized objects with people, 25percent rarely, 12.5percent often, 10.8percent always shared unsterilized sharp and pointed objects with people. 89.2percent never, 6.7percent rarely, 2.5percent often, 0.8percent often engaged in initiation practices that involve blood. 51.7percent never, 25percent rarely, 12.5percent often, 10.8percent always treated others fresh wound without using hand gloves. Of the respondents 95percent never, 1.7percent often, and 2.5percent always had sex with prostitutes.

For those who engaged in unsafe abortion, 87.5percent never did, 6.7percent rarely, 0.8percent often and 4.2percent always engaged in

unsafe abortion 15.8percent never used condoms whenever they engaged in sex outside marriage while 1.7percent rarely, 10percent often and 65percent always used condoms whenever they engaged in sex outside marriage. 79.2percent of the respondents never took excessive alcohol before engaging in sex, while 5.8percent rarely, 3.3percent often and 6.7percent always took excessive alcohol before engaging in sex. For those who practiced homosexuality, 88.3percent never, and 5.8percent rarely, 2.5percent often, and 0.8percent always practiced homosexuality. 76.7percent of the respondents never, 4.2 percent rarely, 1.7percent often and 11.7percent always found it difficult to refuse people who are not their legal partner sex. A summary of the respondents' level of vulnerability is shown in Figure 3. Over half (56.5%) of the respondents were highly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS, while some (39%) and few (4.5%) were moderately and less vulnerable to the disease. This finding supports those of Piot(2001) and Auta (1992) which indicated that youths in developing countries were highly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS.

Associations and correlates of farm youths' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS

Data in Table 9 showed that at 0.01

level of significance religion ($X^2=235.45$, $C=0.60$), marital status ($X^2=68.99$, $C=0.82$), were strongly associated with the rural youth's vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. At 0.01 level of significance, educational level ($r = -0.363$), number of years spent in school ($r = -0.405$), communication skill ($r = -0.257$), occupation ($r = -0.452$) and socio-economic conditions of family ($r=-0.392$), had significant but inverse relationship with rural youth's vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. However, at 0.01 level of significance, number of wives of father ($r = 0.410$) had positive and significant relationship with rural youth's vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. These implied that educational level, number of years spent in school and communication level makes rural youth less vulnerable to HIV infection, and this is because the education acquired would have given them enough access to information to make them less vulnerable to the infection. In the same way, occupation, and socio-economic conditions of family reduced vulnerability of rural youth to HIV in that, the youth when occupied with an occupation, they would have less time to waste, which could make them engage in risky behavior. More so, youths from rich socio-economic condition family would engage less in risky behaviours, *ceteris paribus* (Akinkunmi, 1997).

Similarly, level of knowledge of rural youth about HIV/AIDS ($r=-0.234$) was significant but inversely related to their vulnerability at 0.05 level of significant, just as their perception of about HIV/AIDS ($r=-0.314$) and of sex education ($r=-0.312$) were both significant but inversely related to their vulnerability at 0.01 level of significance. These implied that increasing rural farm youths' knowledge about HIV/AIDS could make the youths less vulnerable to HIV/AIDS. The findings also indicate that the rural farm youths' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS could be changed by changing their perceptions about HIV/AIDS and sex education.

Conclusion and recommendations

The study has shown that religion, marital status and number of wife(s) that the father had made the rural youth vulnerable to the disease. The people in the rural area were very religious and should have learnt a lot to make them less vulnerable to the disease, but when viewed based on the marital status and the number of wife(s) that the father had, that were in the same way significant to vulnerability, one could infer that religion that permit polygamy is implicated here, since the disease is one that is sexually related. One could also infer from

the result that educational level, occupation and socio-economic conditions of families were relevant to reducing the vulnerability of rural youth to the disease, because education has the responsibility of improving the living standard of rural youth and it impact them with information and knowledge that help them make correct judgment about life, in the same way when the rural youth were occupied with some specific occupation and when their families were alright socio-economically make them less vulnerable to the disease. In the same way, education is very important in giving correct information about every area of life including information about HIV/AIDS vis-à-vis transmission, prevention, care and support. The study therefore recommend that efforts of the stakeholders should be directed towards providing useful information about HIV/AIDS to farm youths in Nigeria.

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Table 1: Distribution of respondents by personal and socio-economic characteristics

| Variables | Frequency | Percent | Central tendency |
|-----------|-----------|---------|------------------|
|-----------|-----------|---------|------------------|

| | age | | |
|--|-----|------|--------------|
| Age | | | |
| 13-15 | 15 | 12.6 | X =21.6 |
| 16-20 | 42 | 34.9 | sd =4.7 |
| 21-25 | 38 | 31.7 | |
| 26-30 | 25 | 20.8 | |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 53 | 44.2 | |
| Female | 67 | 5.8 | |
| Religion | | | |
| Christianity | 80 | 66.7 | |
| Islam | 29 | 24.2 | |
| Traditional | 11 | 9.2 | |
| Marital status | | | |
| Single | 79 | 65.8 | |
| Married | 30 | 25.0 | |
| Separated | 3 | 2.5 | |
| Divorced | 1 | 0.8 | |
| Widow (er) | 1 | 0.8 | |
| No response | 6 | 5.0 | |
| Average income | | | |
| <2000 | 23 | 19.9 | X =9883.58 |
| 2001-5000 | 15 | 12.5 | sd =14849.28 |
| 5001-10000 | 10 | 8.3 | |
| 10001-20000 | 9 | 7.5 | |
| 20001-40000 | 8 | 6.6 | |
| >40000 | 2 | 1.6 | |
| No response | 52 | 43.3 | |
| Number of years spent in school | | | |
| 1-6 | 8 | 6.6 | |
| 7-9 | 9 | 7.5 | X =11.3 |
| 10-12 | 23 | 19.2 | sd =3.8 |
| 13-15 | 12 | 9.9 | |
| 16-18 | 10 | 8.3 | |
| No response | 58 | 48.3 | |
| Communication skill | | | |
| Cannot read or write in English | 15 | 12.5 | |
| Can only read in English | 5 | 4.2 | |

| | | |
|-------------------------------|-----|------|
| Can read and write in English | 100 | 83.2 |
| Can only read in Yoruba | 6 | 5.0 |
| Can read and write in Yoruba | 99 | 82.5 |
| Can only read in Igbo | 7 | 5.8 |
| Can read and write in Igbo | 7 | 5.8 |
| Can only read in Hausa | 4 | 3.3 |
| Can read and write in Hausa | 0 | 0.0 |

Source: Field survey, 2013; X= Mean, sd= Standard deviation, Multiple response N= 120

Table 2: Distribution of respondents by their knowledge of HIV/AIDS, prevention, mode of transmission, care and support for people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA)

| Variables | SA Freq. | A Freq. | UD Freq. | D Freq. | SD Freq. | Central tendency |
|---|-------------|------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|
| People with multiple sex partners are highly at risk of HIV infection | 0 (0) | 4 (3.3) | 3 (2.5) | 29 (24.2) | 83 (69.2) | X=4.6 sd=0.7 |
| Sharing unsterilized sharp and pointed objects with people can transmit HIV | 1 (0.8) | 3 (2.5) | 0 (0) | 36 (30) | 79 (65.8) | X=4.6 sd=0.7 |
| Having unprotected sex can cause HIV | 2 (1.7) | 6 (5) | 1 (0.8) | 38 (31.7) | 73 (60.8) | X=4.5 sd=0.9 |
| Transfusion of untested blood can transmit HIV | 2 (1.7) | 5 (4.2) | 2 (1.7) | 32 (26.7) | 75 (62.5) | X=4.5 sd=0.9 |
| Mosquito bites cannot transmit the virus | 11 (9.2) | 18 (15) | 8 (6.7) | 42 (35) | 35 (29.2) | X=3.6 sd=1.3 |
| HIV can be transmitted from infected mother to child | 5 (4.2) | 9 (7.5) | 7 (5.8) | 50 (41.7) | 47 (39.2) | X=4.1 sd=1.1 |
| Handshake cannot transmit the virus | 10 (8.3) | 9 (7.5) | 6 (5) | 24 (20) | 71 (59.2) | X=4.1 sd=1.3 |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Inhaling droplets from sneeze and cough cannot transmit the virus | 9 (7.5) | 11 (9.2) | 13 (10.8) | 47 (39.2) | 39 (32.5) | X=3.8 sd=1.2 |
| Sharing bathroom facilities cannot transmit the virus | 2 (1.7) | 10 (8.3) | 8 (6.7) | 48 (40) | 51 (42.9) | X=3.8 sd=1.8 |
| Caring for people living with HIV cannot transmit the virus | 5 (4.2) | 7 (5.8) | 6 (5) | 47 (39.2) | 52 (43.3) | X=4.1 sd=1.1 |
| Being faithful to one sexual partner prevent transmission of HIV | 4 (3.3) | 8 (6.7) | 3 (2.5) | 46 (38.7) | 58 (48.3) | X=4.2 sd=1.0 |
| To avoid sharing unsterilized sharp objects prevent HIV transmission | 3 (2.5) | 4 (3.3) | 6 (5) | 42 (35) | 64 (53.3) | X=4.3 sd=0.9 |
| To avoid transfusing untested blood prevent infection | 2 (1.7) | 7 (5.8) | 3 (2.5) | 46 (38.3) | 61 (50.8) | X=4.3 sd=0.9 |
| Using condoms correctly and constantly by sexually active reduce risk of infection | 5 (4.2) | 8 (6.7) | 10 (8.3) | 51 (42.5) | 45 (37.5) | X=4.0 sd=1.1 |
| Taking concoctions before sex cannot reduce risk of HIV infection | 13 (10.8) | 16 (13.3) | 7 (5.8) | 32 (26.7) | 51 (42.5) | X=3.8 sd=1.4 |
| There should be discrimination against PLWHA | 15 (12.5) | 11 (9.2) | 7 (5.8) | 36 (30) | 48 (40) | X=3.8 sd=1.4 |
| PLWHA should not be should love and care | 12 (10) | 12 (10) | 6 (5) | 32 (26.7) | 57 (47.5) | X=3.9 sd=1.4 |
| PLWHA should not be provided with basic needs and medication | 13 (10.3) | 10 (8.3) | 4 (3.3) | 30 (25) | 62 (51.7) | X=4.0 sd=1.4 |

Source: Field survey 2013; ()-parenthesis is the percent; X= Mean, sd= Standard deviation

Table 3: Distribution of respondents by their perception of HIV/AIDS

| Variables | SA Freq. | A Freq. | UD Freq. | D Freq. | SD Freq. | Central tendency |
|---|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|
| HIV/AIDS is a political phenomenon | 8 (6.7) | 18 (15) | 10 (8.3) | 34 (28.3) | 49 (40.8) | X=3.8 sd=1.3 |
| HIV/AIDS is a disease of the poor | 4 (3.3) | 8 (6.7) | 6 (5) | 42 (35) | 59 (49.6) | X=4.2 sd=1.0 |
| HIV/AIDS is a disease for those who collect money for sex | 8 (6.7) | 16 (13.3) | 9 (7.5) | 41 (34.2) | 46 (38.3) | X=3.8 sd=1.3 |
| HIV/AIDS is just what elders use to scare unmarried people from engaging in sexual activities | 14 (11.7) | 9 (7.5) | 3 (2.5) | 42 (35) | 52 (43.3) | X=3.9 sd=1.3 |
| HIV/AIDS doesn't exist in Africa | 6 (5) | 2 (1.7) | 0 (0) | 28 (23.3) | 82 (69.3) | X=4.5 sd=1.0 |
| HIV/AIDS cannot be contracted from one that looks healthy | 7 (5.8) | 8 (6.7) | 1 (0.8) | 41 (34.2) | 63 (52.5) | X=4.2 sd=1.1 |
| HIV/AIDS is God's punishment for the prostitutes | 15 (12.5) | 18 (15) | 18 (15) | 28 (23.3) | 41 (34.2) | X=3.5 sd=1.4 |
| HIV/AIDS is a disease of the rich men | 9 (7.5) | 7 (6.7) | 10 (8.3) | 30 (25) | 64 (53.3) | X=4.1 sd=1.2 |

Source: Field survey, 2013, ()-parenthesis is the percent; X=mean, sd=standard deviation

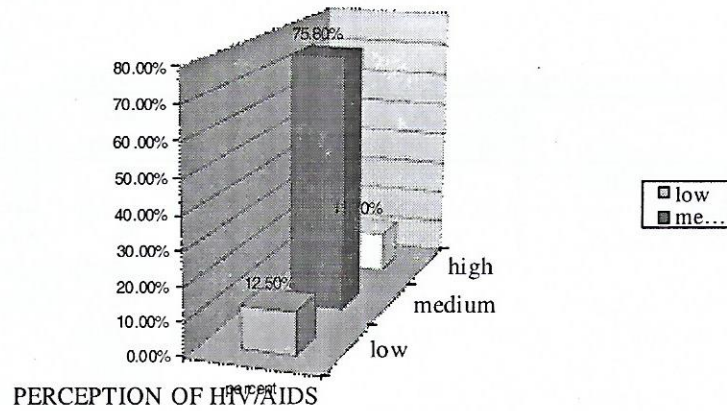


Figure 1: Bar chart showing the summary of respondents' level of perception about HIV/AIDS

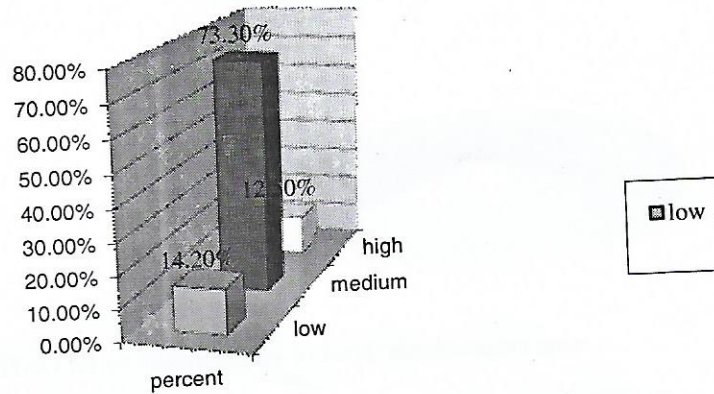
Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 6: Distribution of respondents by their perception of sex education

| Variables | SA Freq. | A Freq. | UD Freq. | D Freq. | SD Freq. | Central tendency |
|---|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|
| Young people should not participate in sex education | 21 (17.5) | 14 (11.7) | 3 (2.5) | 34 (28.3) | 48 (40) | X=3.6 sd=1.5 |
| Sex education makes young people promiscuous | 17 (14.2) | 21 (17.5) | 2 (1.7) | 35 (29.2) | 42 (35) | X=3.5 sd=1.4 |
| Exposing young people to sex education is a taboo in our culture | 14 (11.7) | 23 (19.2) | 9 (7.5) | 29 (24.2) | 44 (36.7) | X=3.6 sd=1.4 |
| Sex education makes young people think of having sex at a very tender age | 14 (11.7) | 17 (14.2) | 8 (6.7) | 46 (38.3) | 35 (29.2) | X=3.6 sd=1.4 |
| Sex education makes parents lose control | 14 (11.7) | 14 (11.7) | 6 (5) | 43 (35.8) | 43 (35.8) | X=3.7 sd=1.4 |

over their children

Source: Field survey, 2013; ()-parenthesis is the percent; X=mean, sd=standard deviation



PERCEPTION OF SEX EDUCATION

Figure 2: Bar chart showing the summary of respondents' level of perception about sex education. Source: Field survey, 2013

Table 7: Distribution of the respondents based on their behaviour

| Variables | Not at all Freq. | Rarely Freq. | Often Freq. | Always Freq. |
|---|---------------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Do you share unsterilized sharp and pointed objects with people | 64 (53.3) | 30 (25) | 15 (12.5) | 11 (9.2) |
| Do you engage in initiation practices that involves blood | 107 (89.2) | 8 (6.7) | 3 (2.5) | 1 (0.8) |
| Do treat others fresh wounds without using hand gloves | 62 (51.7) | 30 (25) | 15 (12.5) | 13 (10.8) |
| Do you have sex with prostitutes | 114 (95) | 0 (0) | 2 (1.7) | 3 (2.5) |
| Do you engage in unsafe abortion | 105 (87.5) | 8 (6.7) | 1 (0.8) | 5 (4.2) |
| Do you use condoms whenever you engage in sex outside marriage | 19 (15.8) | 2 (1.7) | 12 (10) | 78 (65) |
| Do you take excessive alcohol before engaging in sex | 95 (79.2) | 7 (5.8) | 4 (3.3) | 8 (6.7) |
| Do you practice homosexuality | 106 | 7 | 3 | 1 |

| | | | | |
|---|--------------|------------|------------|--------------|
| | (88.3) | (5.8) | (2.5) | (0.8) |
| Do you find it difficult to refuse someone you respect sex, though not your legal partner | 92 (76.7) | 5 (4.2) | 2 (1.7) | 14 (11.7) |

Source: Field survey, 2013, ()-parenthesis is the percent

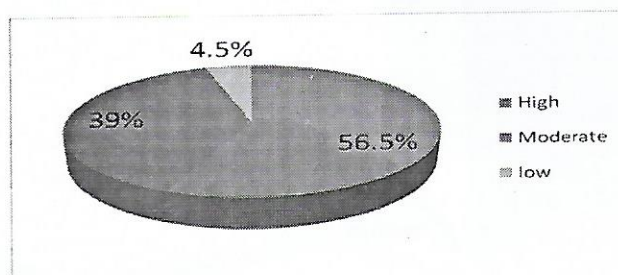


Figure 3: Showing respondents' level of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS

Table 8: Chi-Square Analysis Showing Associations between farm youths' Vulnerability to HIV/AIDS and some of their selected socio-economic characteristics

| Variables | X ² | df | Level of significance | Contingency coefficient | Decision |
|----------------|----------------|----|-----------------------|-------------------------|----------|
| Sex | 18.15 | 19 | 0.513 | | NS |
| Religion | 68.99** | 38 | 0.002 | 0.60 | S |
| Marital status | 235.45** | 76 | 0.000 | 0.82 | S |

Source: Field survey, 2007, **X² is significant at p ≤ 0.01 levels, NS is not significant, S is significant, df is degree of freedom.

Table 9: Result of Pearson Correlates (r) analysis showing correlates of farm youths' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS

| Variables | Pearson's Correlation (r) | Coefficient determination (r ²) |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------|---|
| Age | -0.055 | 0.003 |
| Average income | -0.115 | 0.013 |
| Educational level | -0.363** | 0.132 |
| Number of years spent in school | -0.405** | 0.164 |
| Communication level | -0.257** | 0.066 |

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------|-------|
| Household size of parents | 0.148 | 0.022 |
| Occupation that takes most time | -0.452** | 0.204 |
| Dependence on others | -0.127 | 0.016 |
| Number of wives of parents | 0.410** | 0.168 |
| Socio-economic conditions of family | -0.392** | 0.154 |
| Knowledge of HIV/AIDS | -0.234* | 0.055 |
| Perception of HIV/AIDS | 0.314** | 0.1 |
| Perception of sex education | -0.312** | 0.097 |

** Significant at $p \leq 0.01$ levels

* Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ levels 0.05

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