

**CHALLENGES FACED BY CHILDREN AND YOUTH:
THE RESPONSES OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICE PROVIDERS IN
NIGERIA**

**Proceedings of the 8th National Research Conference and
Network Meeting of Children and Youth in Agriculture Programme in Nigeria**

(CYIAP-Network)

Editors

**Dixon O. Torimiro, *Ph.D.*
Banji O. Adisa, *Ph.D.***



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CHALLENGES FACED BY CHILDREN AND YOUTH: THE RESPONSES OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICE PROVIDERS IN NIGERIA¹

Adedoyin, S.F.²

College of Agricultural Sciences,
Olabisi Onabanjo University,
Yewa Campus, Ayetoro, Ogun State.

INTRODUCTION

The issue of food insecurity is not only the most important, but also the greatest challenges in the development world today. A study by FAO (2003), revealed that Africa suffers food insecurity most extensively of all development regions of the world and that 42 countries in this region belong to the group of low-income food deficit countries (LIFDC). The most vulnerable groups are the women and the children. According to UNICEF (1998), a child is any person under the age of eighteen years. Viewed from the cultural perspectives, a child can be defined as one who is still under parent custody and control without an independent means of livelihood. Therefore, a child is an individual who is under the age of eighteen and under parent care. Youth on the other hand, is a period in an individual's life which starts between the end of childhood and entry into the world of work. According to Olanrewaju (2004), the group of people (children and Youth) were considered in the past as mere consumers who were not worthy of any attention.

Historically speaking, children and youth constitute the beginning and the foundation. Hereditary, Developmental and Environmental factors had been identified as the major determinants of what they will be in life and when they are not properly brought up the future is doomed. This calls for providing an enabling environment for their proper growth and development to responsible and reliable adult and future leaders. CYIAP classified children to include all categories or people with ages ranging from 0 to 18 years of age. In his own contribution Ijere (1998), claimed that children and youth form a

very significant proportion of the population of Nigeria and are potent force in agricultural and rural development programmes. While Jibowo (1998), Torimiro (1998) and Adedoyin (2002) characterised the youth as possessing innovativeness, proneness to minimal risk, faster reaction time, less fear of failure, less conservativeness, greater physical strength, greater knowledge acquisition propensity, social prosperity, faster rate of learning, love for adventure and preference for boldness, and these culminate in the nature of youth.

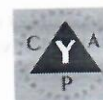
The youth represent the future and hope of every country. The high resources invested in them today have both immediate and long-term benefits. Where they exist and are functioning well, children and youth development programmes mounted by various development service providers play an important role in capacity building like skills of individual young people, strengthening families and communities and working towards sustainable agricultural and national development.

The theme for this year, conference is therefore, to direct in order to proffer solutions to challenges facing children and youth in the developing countries of the world like Nigeria and what the development service providers had been doing and what need to be done for them in order to achieve our goal as a developing nation. Although the youth often have little or few economic assets such as land and property, but they have the time, energy and intelligence needed to learn and improve their knowledge and capabilities for positive change and development. Unlike adults, who may have fixed ideas, children and youths are generally highly flexible to adjust or adopt innovations for development.

Children and youth learn the skills; knowledge and aptitude (KAS) needed to cope with every day life. Enhancing these life skills has a significant impact on the lives of young people, their families and countries. Positive youth development proffers aimed at providing an enabling environment where children and youths become empowered through the acquisition and development of skills are the same of the area where service providers could come in. They should also provide opportunities for moving children and youth towards mutually responsible and rewarding involvement with others that constitute social maturity. Service provides could also help to develop skills and fulfill the roles that will help young ones to acquire the characteristics of

¹ Keynote Address delivered at the Conference.

² Prof. S.F. Adedoyin is the President of CYIAP-Network and the current Provost, College of Agricultural Sciences, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Yewa Campus, Ayetoro, Ogun State.



adulthood as well as self reliance through positive children and youth development programmes.

An environment that is child central provide opportunities for young people to acquire the skills that expand personal competence and confidence which are based on the personal characteristics, traits, needs and interest of each young persons (Coleman (1972) as Bird *et al.* (1998). The above submission brought into focus the need for proper nurturing of young ones into taking up social role in their communities contributing to the well being of others. This among other things spurred the effort that culminated into the establishment of the National Research and Development Network of Children and Youth-In-Agriculture Programme (CYIAP-Network), in Nigeria.

CYIAP is research and development network which focuses on human capital development with emphasis on children and youth for effectives and efficient harnessing, orientation towards creativity, entrepreneurial and management skills development, and specifically for motivating them towards productive participation in agricultural, rural community and National development processes. The Network has profited immensely from the wisdom of great Greek philosopher, plot who likened children lean-to clean slate on which nothing has been written. Whatsoever a child wants to be or do in the later years can easily be written on it through a deliberate programme of sensitisation, orientation, education, socialisation and participatory involvement by development service providers. It is in the light of the fore-going that CYIAP operates since its establishment in 1995 with a mission to propagate a deliberate but skillful programme aimed at giving capacity, authority and power to child and youth so that they can have a good future.

It is worthy of note that CYIAP – Network is working with farm children, farm youth and other stakeholders especially development service providers in child development and agricultural transformation. Development service providers are important for providing solutions to the challenges faced by children and youth most especially in its rural areas. They should come in the areas of capacity building, empowerment and strengthening of children and youth and their organisation; mobilizing investment of public sector, private sector, non-pgoernmental organisation, community based organisation and donors' fund into children and youth development activities/prgrammes; value

orientation; organising poverty reduction, wealth creation and employment generation programmes; and educating, improving and building the capability of children and youth in the use of information and communication technology.

CONCLUSION

A critical factor in sussstainable development is the establishment and strengthening of children and youth developement programmes by all stakeholders. This is in realisation that children and youth determines the future of any nation, those driving the boat of development, most especially, development service providers implement strategies that would enhance decent livelihood of our future generations.

Finally, I enjoin all the participants at this conference to ponder on the issues relating to challenges faced by children and youth, and the responses of development service providers in Nigeria in order to ensure a proper development of our farm children and youth for a better tomorrow.

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COMPLEMENTARY USE OF ORAL AND VISUAL MEDIA FOR INNOVATION DELIVERY TO YOUTH AND CHILDREN: THE LAGOS STATE AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY EXPERIENCE

Adedoyin, S.F, Aderinto, A and O. Oseni

College of Agricultural Sciences,
Olabisi Onabanjo University,
Yewa Campus, Ayetoro, Ogun State.

Children and youth represent the vibrant segment of the Nigerian population on whose shoulders the future of all facets of the nation's economy including agriculture rests. Stimulating and sustaining their interest in agriculture is therefore critical to future sustainable agricultural production. Extension service uses different strategies to disseminate improved agricultural technologies to farmers including youth. Oral and visual media are among the methods adopted for innovation delivery. The two methods appeal to different senses and are therefore expected to make different impact. This study therefore examined the complementary use of visual and oral media as a strategy of innovation delivery to farmers, especially youth in Lagos State. One hundred and twenty (120) farmers were randomly selected from selected village in two agricultural zones of Lagos State. Data collected through interview schedule were analyzed using frequency count, percentages, Chi square and Pearson Product Moment correlation (PPMC). Results show that 93.3 percent of the respondents were below 50 years. Seventy percent were male while 30.0percent accounted for female. Eighty-eight percent were married while 12.0percent were single. Also, 47.0percent of the respondents had secondary education while 26.9percent, 13.4percent and 12.6percent attended adult literacy classes, primary school and post secondary education respectively. 73.1percent had regular contact with extension while 26.9percent expressed occasional contact with extension agents. Audio and visual methods in use include Radio, Posters. Meetings, Radio & Extension agents (EAs), Agents & Posters. TV and Agric Show, Film show, EAs & Posters. Respondents expressed that complementary use of audio and visual media influenced the rate of adoption of technologies (79.0percent). However no significant relationship was established between education ($\chi^2 = 39.28 p < 0.05$), household size ($\chi^2 = 10.61 p < 0.05$), farming experience ($\chi^2 = 30.49 p < 0.05$) and age ($\chi^2 = 12.19 p < 0.05$) of respondents and use of visual and oral media.

INTRODUCTION

Youth represents the vibrant segment of the Nigerian population on whose shoulders the future of all facets of the nation's economy including agriculture rests. Taking cognizance of the peculiar realities of poverty, unemployment and deprivations in Nigeria and other developing countries which make some individual to still depend on others for survival, protection and development up to the age of 40 years, Children in Agriculture Programme (CIAP) defines youth as people from ages 19-40 years. People in this age bracket according to Adedoyin (2005), have a lot of energies that could be properly directed towards productive life through meaningful extension programmes, especially in the rural areas where a great percentage of Nigerians reside. Eighty percent of Nigerians reside in rural areas with children and youths constituting a large

segment of the rural population (Auta and Omotayo, 1995).

Integrating rural youth into the rural economy, which is predominantly agricultural in nature will

inject the much-needed vigour into the food production and agriculture-based industrialisation of Nigeria on a sustainable basis. Stimulating and sustaining their interest in agriculture is therefore of immense importance to sustainable agricultural production. Extension service delivery is one of the avenues to promote agricultural production among the rural populace including the youth. Extension uses different communication strategies to disseminate improved agricultural technologies to farmers. Akeredolu and Ajayi (1995) opined that extension services are essentially communicative. Oral and visual media are among the methods adopted for innovation delivery. The two methods appeal to different senses and are therefore expected to make different impact. Combining the two methods, especially in a way that



one reinforces the other, is likely to make greater and more enduring impact in the lives of farmers. It is against this background that this research effort is directed towards examining the complementary use of visual and oral media as a strategy of innovation delivery to youth farmers in Lagos State.

It is obvious that food production is not at par with the demand of the ever-growing population. This is not an indication of decreases in the agrarian population responsible for agricultural production but an indication of low productivity, non-availability of improved agricultural technology, wrong use of extension teaching methods and poor skill of extension workers. The fact that extension is a link between research and farmers makes looking at how it handles information dissemination to farmers a good focus. Extension is expected to ensure efficient delivery of generated technologies. However most of the information from these research stations is not getting the farmers through the appropriate delivery systems. Different communication strategies are used for technology delivery to farmers for improved productivity. Amongst the methods adopted by Lagos State Agricultural development Authority is the combination of both oral and visual media. These are two different methods that appeal to different senses. Therefore, there is the need to examine the complementary role of the use of rural and visual media for innovation delivery in Lagos State.

Against this background, this study, therefore, poses to investigate the role of visual and oral media in the innovation delivery system of Lagos State Agricultural Development Authority (LASAD). The Specific Objectives are to: identify the personal characteristics of farmers that influence their use of oral and visual information sources; identify the oral and visual media most commonly used by LASASDA for innovation delivery; and determine the complementary role of oral and visual communication media in effective innovation delivery process.

Hypotheses of the study

- Ho1:** There is no significant relationship between personal characteristics of respondents and their choice of oral and visual sources in the study area.
- Ho2:** There is no significant relationship between respondents' use of oral and visual media and their adoption of technologies in the study area..

METHODOLOGY

This study was carried out in Lagos State Villages within two operational zones of LASADA West and Eastern zones were identified. Thirty i.e. 20 percent of the identified villages within the zones were randomly selected for the study. From the selected villages, a total of one hundred and twenty 120 i.e. 10percent of the respondents were randomly selected for the study. Data collected through interview schedule were analyzed using frequency count, percentages and Chi square.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 present the descriptive analysis of selected personal characteristics of respondents. It was observed that 90.3percent of the respondents were less than 50 years while 6.7percent aged above 50 years. The result is indicative of a youth dominated farming population. Youth are known to be adventurous, risk takers therefore farmers in the area are expected to be receptive to innovation. Also, 70percent of the respondents were male while 30percent represented female respondents. This implies that farming enterprise in the study area is male dominated. Result also indicates that 87.4percent of the respondents were married with an average of 4 dependents while 12.6percent were single. This shows that majority of the respondents were responsible individuals who would be desirous of opportunities to increase their performance in farming activities.

Table 2 presents results of the agricultural enterprises of respondents. It is evident that 40.0percent of the respondents were into crop farming, followed by crop and livestock farming (26.9percent) while fishing and fishing combined with livestock accounted for 19.4percent and 13.4percent respectively. This indicates that majority of the respondents were into mixed farming and would therefore be receptive to messages on mixed farming and also be competent to comment on more than one enterprise.

Results on table 3 revealed that respondents were exposed to a variety of audio and visual media singly and in combination. This therefore places them in a good position to comment on each of the media and their effect on their adoption of technologies. It is evident from the result that while meetings with EAs ranked first among the audio method, the use of posters while EAs were at work ranked first among the audio-visual method. This result stresses the important role of EAs in



information delivery irrespective of the media used. There is therefore the need to increase farmer-EA ratio and strengthen the capacities of the EAs to efficiently deliver appropriate messages to farmers.

Table 4 revealed that majority (66.7percent) of the respondents preferred the use of audio-visual media to any other media. It is evident from the result that given the opportunities, farmers would appreciate a situation in which EAs would always be around to answer questions that bother on messages since media in which EAs is a component took the first four positions.

Results on table 5 revealed that majority of the respondent adjudged audio-visual methods as being effective and had influenced their adoption of innovation. This may be as result of the fact that method appeals to a variety of sense. The availability of the EAs to reinforce the effect of the method is also a critical factor.

Test of Hypotheses

Table 6 revealed no significant relations between person characteristics (farming experience, age, education, household size of respondents and their use of audio-visual media. This may be due to the fact that they do not really have any significant influence on the design of packages brought to them by the EAs. However, a significant relationship was established between media use and adoption of technologies. This further reiterates the complementary role of audio and visual media in innovation delivery.

CONCLUSION

Against the background that youth have the potential to contribute to sustainable agricultural and industrial development of the country, there is the need to respond to the challenges faced by

them in the area of agricultural production. Improved agricultural practices should be made available to them using appropriate media that will stimulate and sustain their interests in the introduced innovations. Based on the finding of this study, the use of both oral and visual media has the potentials to assist youth in overcoming blocks to adoption of innovation.

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Table 1: Selected personal characteristics of respondents

Variable	Frequency (percent)
Age (Years)	
<20	24 (20.2)
20-50	87 (73.1)
>50	9 (6.7)
Total	120 (100.0)
Sex	
Male	84 (70.0)
Female	36 (30.0)
Total	120 (100.0)
Marital Status	
Married	102 (88.0)
Single	18 (12.0)
Total	120 (100.0)
Household Size (Members)	
1-2	55 (46.2)
3-4	0 (0.0)
>4	65 (53.8)
Total	120 (100.0)
Education	
Adult Literacy class	16 (13.5)
Primary Education	32 (26.9)
Secondary education	56 (47.1)
Tertiary education	16 (12.5)
Total	120 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 1998

Table 2: Agricultural enterprise of the respondents

Variable	Frequency (percent)
Crop farming	48 (40.0)
Crop and Livestock	32 (26.7)
Fishing	6 (21.6)
Fishing and livestock	14 (11.7)
Total	120 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 1998.



Table 3: Distribution of respondents based on their exposure to audio-visual methods of innovation delivery

Variable	Frequently	Occasionally	Never
Radio	54 (45.0)	47 (39.2)	19 (15.8)
Posters	32 (26.7)	50 (41.7)	38 (31.7)
Meetings	80 (66.7)	22 (12.2)	18 (15.0)
Radio & EAs	40 (33.3)	50 (41.7)	30 (25.0)
Agents & Posters	103 (85.8)	8 (6.7)	9 (7.5)
TV and Agric. Show	10 (8.3)	50 (41.7)	60 (50.0)
Film show, EAs & posters	35 (29.2)	60 (50.0)	25 (20.8)

Source: Field survey, 1998

Note: Percentages are in parentheses

Table 4: Respondents ranking of the media based on preference.

Variable	frequently (percent)
1 st Film show, EAs & posters	80 (66.7)
2 nd Agents & Posters	75 (62.5)
3 rd Meetings	60 (50.0)
4 th Radio & EAs	40 (33.3)
5 th TV and Agric. Show	30 (25.0)
6 th Radio	10 (8.3)
7 th Posters	5 (4.2)

Source: field Survey, 1998.

Table 5: Respondents rating of the perceived impact of audio-visual media on their adoption of innovation

Variable	Effective	Not effective	I do not know
Crop production	81(67.5)	7(5.8)	32(26.7)
Livestock farming	99(82.5)	15(12.5)	8(6.7)
Fish farming	104(86.7)	0(0.0)	16(13.3)

Source: Field Survey, 1998.

Note: Percentages are in parentheses



Table 6: Relationship between respondents' personal characteristics and the use of audio-visual media.

Variables	X² cal	X² Tab	df	Decision
Farming Experience,	30.49	33.14	4	Not significant
Age	12.19	16.12	5	Not significant
Education,	39.28	40.02	7	Not significant
Household Size	10.61	11.10	5	Not significant



ORIENTATION OF THE YOUTH TOWARDS ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITIES IN CRAFT AND COTTAGE INDUSTRIES IN RESPONSE TO WIDESPREAD YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT*

Oyatoye, E.T.O.

Department of Agricultural Economics,
University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria.

A lot has been said about the challenges faced by children and youth in Nigeria, a country where over 45 percent of the population is made up of children below age 15. We do know, for instance that, one out of seven children die before age four due largely to lack of good Health care. The nation is today, being ravaged by acute poverty. Two out of every three Nigerians live on less than one U.S. dollar a day. As a matter of fact, Nigeria has been classified as the 13th poorest country in the World (World Bank, 1996a, 1996b). Table 1 shows the trend in poverty level in Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

In spite of Nigeria's oil wealth (the nation is the 6th largest oil producing nation in the world), the poor constitutes about 70 percent of the Nigerian population. The World Bank Poverty "Task Force" (1996 report) on Sub-Saharan Africa identified the following factors as the root causes of poverty in the Sub-region:

- i. Inadequate access to employment opportunities;
- ii. Inadequate physical assets such as land and capital and minimal access by the poor to credit, even on a small scale;
- iii. Inadequate access to the means of supporting rural development in poor regions;
- iv. Inadequate access to market where the poor can sell goods and services;
- v. Low endowment of human capital.;
- vi. Destruction of natural resources leading to environmental degradation and reduced productivity;
- vii. Lack of participation, i.e. failure to draw the poor into the design of development programmes.

In addition to the above, numerous characteristic of a country's economy and society as well as some external influences create and perpetuate poverty. These include:

Political instability and civil strife; systemic discrimination on the basis of gender, race, ethnicity, religion or caste; ill-defined property rights or unfair enforcement of rights to agricultural land and other natural resources; corrupt politicians and rent-seeking public bureaucracies; economic policies that

discriminate against or exclude the rural poor from development process and accentuate the effects of other poverty creating processes; large and rapidly growing families with high dependency ratio; market imperfection owing to high concentration of land and other assets; distorted public policies; and external shocks owing to changes in the state of nature (climatic and other changes) and conditions in the international economy.

Biases in national economic and social policies can contribute to poverty by excluding the rural poor from the benefits of development and accentuating the effects of other poverty creating processes. Policy biases that generally work against the poor include:

- Urban bias in public investment for infrastructure and provision of safety net;
- Implicit taxation of agricultural products through the so-called support prices and over-valued exchange rate;
- Direct taxation of agricultural exports and import subsidies;
- Subsidies for capital intensive technology;
- Favouring export crops over food crops; and
- Bias in favour of large land owners and commercial producers with respect to rights of land ownership and tenancy, publicity provided extension services and access to subsidized credit.

These policies can have both short and long term effects on the poor. The effects are particularly significant in the context of the Structural Adjustment Programme that many developing countries have undertaken to restore macro-economic stability and expand the capacity of the economies to increase production, employment and income.

Unemployment is one of the most serious problems that plague the economies of all developing countries



like Nigeria. Today, a large number of Nigerian children and youth are out of school without any visible means of livelihood. A lot of children are being abused by their parents all in an effort to eke out a miserable living. A child that should still be under the protective eyes of both parents is being sent out to hawk on the streets. Some are sent out to strangers' homes and strange environments as domestic helps. Indeed, the catalogue of challenges facing children and youth is very long. The question is "how did Nigeria find itself in this situation and what possible solution could be proffered for getting the country out of this lingering malaise?" An attempt will be made to provide some answers to these questions in this paper.

The economic environment of Nigeria is at present very harsh. There is widespread youth unemployment. Craft or petty commodity production and other cottage industries which used to offer gainful employment to the youth have suffered considerable decline due to competition from cheap, mass produced goods and the massive rural-urban drift of able-bodied youths in search of white-collar jobs that are just not there. The consequence of this is wide spread unemployment in the cities, multiplication of urban squalors, high rate of crime and considerable pressure on the nation's resources to provide social amenities and law enforcement in the cities.

In the face of the foregoing, the major objective in this paper is to review the activities of cottage industries in Nigeria with special reference to calabash-carving industry. Specifically, the paper, identified different agriculture – based small scale industries and review their activities; estimated and compared gross margins and value added in these industries and by so doing, demonstrated the income generating potentials of such Industries; and recommended the revamping and modernizing of such industries to development service providers in the country as a way of addressing some of the challenges faced by children and youth in the country.

METHODOLOGY

Results from two (2) separate studies have been combined in this paper. The studies are those carried out on cottage industries in Oyo State (a case study of calabash carving industry) and those done by the author on small scale industries in Nigeria (a case study of selected enterprises in Kwara State).

Sampling Procedure and Data Collection

For the first study, the sample used was made up of gourd producers (farmers) and calabash carvers. Both primary and secondary data were employed. Primary data was obtained by use of structured questionnaires using random sampling techniques for both the farmers and the calabash carver. Thus, two sets of questionnaires were broadly drawn to cover socio-economics characteristics of the farmers (gourd farmers) and the calabash carvers. Additional secondary information was obtained from Oyo State Ministry of Trade, Industries and Cooperatives and other published works.

A sample of sixty (60) calabash carvers and one hundred and forty(140) gourd farmers were selected from Oyo township and surrounding villages. Only forty one (41) Questionnaires from the carvers were found useful for analysis while one hundred and four questionnaires from the gourd farmers were also analysed.

Analytical Technique

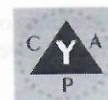
Data generated from the study was subjected to simple statistical and budgetary analysis. Averages of all sizes of gourds were used to estimate gross margins for the gourd farmers and to calculate cost and returns to calabash carvers.

Gross margin is taken as the surplus remaining after variable costs have been deducted from the value of production or gross income.

Gross Total Gross Margin = Value of minus
Variable Cost Output.

Provided the common cost stays constant, any increase in whole farm gross margin will raise profit by exactly the same amount.

In the second study the population consists of agriculture based small scale industries in Kwara



State. The list of the agro-based small scale industries studied is presented below:

1. Poultry Industries
 - a. Tranquility Farms, Adewole Industrial Estate
 - b. Modern Well Farms, Adewole Industrial Estate.
2. Bakery Industries
 - a. Arico Bakery, Omu-Aran
 - b. Popoola Bakery, Omu Aran
 - c. Delite Bakery, Ilorin.
3. Feedmilling Industries
 - a. Caffan Feedmilling Industries, Ilorin
 - b. Lardex Feedmilling Industries, Ilorin.
4. Flour Milling Industry
 - a. Opeyemi Flour Milling Industry, Offa.
5. Saw Milling Industry
 - a. Alake Saw milling Industries, Ilorin
 - b. Gideon Olusola Saw Milling Industries, Ilorin
6. Gari Processing Industries
 - a. Ore-Ofe Gari Processing Industry, Osi-Ekiti
 - b. Alhaja Gari Processing Industry, Afon, Asa.
7. Soap Making Industry
 - a. Twins Soap Industry, Igbaja, Ifelodun
 - b. Bola Soap Industry, Ilorin.
8. Soya Beans Oil Processing Industry
 - a. Soya bean Oil processing Industry, Ilorin
9. Black Soap Processing Industry
 - a. Odo-Owa Black Soap Industry, Ekiti
10. Rice Milling Industries
 - a. Nda-Kuta Rice Milling Industry, Ajase Ipo,

The sample was collected based on the listing of agriculture-based small scale industries by the Industrial Development Centre (I.D.C.) Fifty-one agro-based small scale industries were listed by the IDC and these industries were grouped under ten (10) different categories. At least, one enterprise was selected from each of the categories for study.

Primary data were obtained by use of structured questionnaires. Oral interviews were also done to seek clarifications on some issues not covered by the questionnaires. Background information regarding the major activities of agro- based small scale industries in Kwara State was obtained from the Ministry of

Commerce and Industry and the Industrial Development Centre.

Analytical Technique

Average prices of all inputs were used to estimate gross margins for the investments and to calculate costs and returns.

Justification

Past studies that examined the role of small scale industries in the process of economic development have indicated that the areas of contribution included generation of employment and income for the masses (Fichad, 1968). Similarly, the report of a study of 1057 small scale industries in the United States (Lewis *et al.*, 1968) showed that small scale enterprises neither retrenched their personnel nor contracted their plants during recession as these were already operating at minimum levels because small scale enterprises are often more careful in the use of material and human resources than their large scale counterpart.

Moreover, the down -sizing (or right sizing) of the public service in Nigeria attendant on the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) and the low capacity utilization of large scale industries as a result of foreign exchange constraints (and some other inconsistencies in the economy e.g. inadequate infrastructural facilities) with the consequent labour lay-off make the attention being paid to agriculture based small scale industries more relevant now than ever before.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Calabash decoration is a craft widely practised in Nigeria. Calabash carving is a process by which artistic designs and names are inscribed on the surfaces of the calabash wares to give some aesthetic values which remain permanent on the calabash when dry. Elaborate geometric designs and pictorial patterns are burnt on the surface of the calabash. Calabash patterns are divided into carved pattern, scraped pattern, scorched pattern, engraved pattern, decoration with extraneous materials, carved coconut (a related technique).

Carved calabashes used to be one of the most important utensils in Yoruba homes.

They serve as (1) trays for carrying loads (Igba), (2) gourds for storing liquid (Akeregbe), (3) bowls for drinking (Aha), (4) Laddle for striring liquid and



soup (Ipon), Saucer-shaped carving for scooping solid (Igbako), calabash drums (Sekere), carved calabash electrical fittings and other carved gift items. The calabash bearing trees (*Crescentia cujele*) is propagated only vegetatively through cuttings that have been left for days to wither before planting. The maturity period of the plant is between three (3) and four (4) years after which it flowers. The flower develops to form the fruits – gourds. Soambitious is the behaviour of the tree that it produces more fruits than it can bear thus resulting in a weight too heavy for the tree to bear. Some branches may subsequently break from the trunk.

It is thus essential to help the tree by providing a pillar/pillarsto support the burdened branch/branches. The gourd that produces the calabash is green till maturity. It is spherical and has an average diameter of 25cm. The number of gourds on the tree at any point in time is put at an average of 50, all at different stages of development. The plant does better in the tropical rain forest.

It requires high annual temperature with rain lasting for about seven (7) to eight (8) months annually. The high temperature and high precipitation result in high relative humidity which favours flowering and fruiting. The plant requires well-drained sandy loam soil which is rich in nutrients. It will also grow well on other types of well aerated Soil.

Other species of gourds are bottle gourds (*Langenaira vulgaris*) and snake gourd (*Tricho santhis anguira*). These are shrubs plants that creep on the top of the soil. These species are characterized by an extensive root system. They are cultivated through seeds and take about three months to mature. They are the most common of the carved calabashes.

Processing Gourds into Calabashes

The preparation of a decorated gourd or calabash is a long and painstaking process. Before carving into calabash, the gourd must first be prepared. It is taken when ripe and soaked in a stream or water hole until the contents are completely rotten.

It is then opened and the inside thoroughly cleansed after which it is dried in the sun.

During soaking, the skin gets bloated and soft, but as it dries, it becomes hard so that it can be worked upon like wood. Some tribes cut the gourd horizontally into two, the top portion being used often as a lid for the base; but others cut it across vertically. The different shapes thus produced lead to different forms of ornamentation.

The natural colour is warm yellow and it is often left in this state. If, however, the fine layer of the cuticle or outer skin is scraped off, the craftman has a white surface to decorate. Alternatively, the calabash may be rubbed with a concoction of millet leaves which gives it a beautiful old rose colour or it may be stained indigo or deep orange or burnt sienna. After decoration, these various colours receive a further rich patina through constant handling and through hanging in a smoky hut until they show a sombre polish. Thus, even without decoration, the basic colour and texture of calabashes cover a large range and some of them are very beautiful.

Supply of Gourds

One of the major problems confronting calabash-carvers is the availability of raw materials used in carving. There is no deliberate plantation of the calabash-bearing trees in Nigeria (Jenik, 1974). In the Southern part of Nigeria where there is a suitable ecological and climatic condition for the growth of the crop, very few people plant gourds even at subsistence level. Most farmers have not acknowledged the fact that calabash-bearing plant is an economic plant. In most parts of Oyo State, instead of planting gourds for its economic/commercial value, farmers and villagers plant it at the front and back of their houses as a shade tree for the hot, dry season thus leaving the calabashes so produced to burst and drop as a result of over heating by the sun.

The problem of supply of gourds is further compounded by the fact that the forest services are not directly concerned with the promotion and development of this "minor forest produce." What most carvers do is to meet local farmers and villagers who happen to have ten to twenty stands of calabash-bearing trees on their farms for supplies.

Cost and Returns Analysis

Returns to carvers include returns to operator's labour and management.



These are very difficult to separate because the family and the industry are closely associated in a traditional cottage industrial setting.

Returns = Total Revenue minus Total Costs

Table II shows costs and returns in the calabash – carving industry. Carvers have been grouped into four categories according to their turn over per annum for the purpose of cost and returns analysis. From Table II, the overall average return in the industry is N18, 623.72. The highest return of N29, 168.64 was earned by carvers in Group D who have the highest turnover of 2,778 calabashes. The lowest return was earned by carvers in Group A (N8, 891.40). When compared with the opportunity cost of labour which is almost zero, given the rate of unemployment in the country, the returns show that calabash carving can be depended upon as a provider of livelihood.

Gross Margin Analysis of Gourds Production

Gross margin analysis is a useful planning tool in situations where fixed cost is a negligible portion of the enterprise cost as in the case of gourd production.

As already indicated in the methodology, gross margin is gross value of output minus variable costs. Elements of variable cost in gourd production include labour cost, transportation cost, cost of seed and storage cost. Total revenue of gourd farmers was found to be N1, 117.02 while total variable cost was found to be N534.30. Gross margin (N1, 117.02 – N534.72) equals N582.30.

The average area cultivated to gourds was found to be 0.59ha. Thus, gross margin per ha. was found to be about N987.3. What this means is that a farmer who can put more hectares into gourd production stands a chance of earning some thousands which is far better than being unemployed. Gross margin for the different agro-based enterprises is as shown in Table III.

How Nigeria Found Itself in the Present Situation of Widespread Youth Unemployment despite Opportunity that Abound in Cottage Industries

The outstanding characteristic of modern economic history has been the spread of

industrialization to virtually every sector of the globe. By contact and contagion, by deliberate imitation and accidental adaptation, the Industrial Revolution has proved to be a continuing and not finite social transformation (Moor, 1951).

Industrial development, in fact, has become the most commonly prescribed panacea for most of the materials woes of mankind. The original doctrine of comparative advantage which seemed to have condemned some areas of the world to perpetual suppliers of raw materials for processing elsewhere has been challenged by eminent scholars (Myrdal, 1969, 1970; Presbisch, 1959). Consequently, a theory and pattern of analysis has developed which blames a substantial amount of the difficulties encountered by many under-developed countries on the deterioration of their terms of trade. These have led to the recommendation of industrialization as the principal remedy. Obviously influenced by such theories and analysis, governments in many less developed and predominantly agricultural countries of the world have embarked on programmes of industrial development.

The initial development strategy adopted by Nigeria was industrialization based on large-scale enterprises. With this strategy, Nigeria could only achieve a fragile industrial development. The large-scale industries which were set up tended to be capital intensive and inappropriate given the country's resource endowment.

Their equipment and technical manpower have continued to be imported. As a result, the triple objectives of achieving high level of local value-added, foreign exchange saving and technology transfer have not materialized. In addition, a high percentage of the population could not be absorbed by the industrial sector because of the limited capacity of that sector to absorb labour. The weakness of the industrial sector has manifested in the alarming rate of youth unemployment in the country.

In response to these weaknesses of large scale manufacturing enterprises, a number of scholars and institutions are now counseling the adoption of small-scale Industries, especially of the rural cottage type as a vital aspect of development strategy in Nigeria.



Craft and Cottage Industries

A clarification of terms is in order at this juncture. Artisans or craft producers transform raw materials such as animal skins, metal, clay or vegetable products into directly consumable goods (Arnould, 1979). Craft workers own their own means of production. The elaboration and control of specialized tools set craft work apart from agricultural production in which labour power and its control is the principal factor in the production process (Terray, 1975). The site of production is a work unit of less than ten (10) workers within which there is some division of labour.

Semi-hereditary craft guilds often organize the craft at a regional, political level. Members of a simple production unit share in some way, short-term costs and revenues. Together, they also assume the long-term costs of demographic, technical and social production (Arnould; opcit). Traditional crafts include hat-making, mat and basket weaving, gourd-utencil making, weaving, pottery, black-smithery, silver and gold-smithery, cotton spinning, tie and die, weaving and calabash-carving among several others.

Cottage industries have been defined as enterprises employing less than ten (10) full-time workers and not using motive power or machinery. Cottage industries in Nigeria depend mainly on agriculture and forestry. According to Robock (1962), cottage industries may be defined as those manufacturing enterprises which possess locational advantage when sited proximate to agricultural raw materials, forestry raw materials, fishery raw materials, other natural resources and/or local markets. This definition includes the traditional cottage industries and the modern small medium scale industries.

Olayide *et al.* (1981) identified three types of cottage industries. The first type is based on the self-sufficiency approach. It makes use of people's idle time and is ordinarily labour intensive. Included in this type are such enterprises as the hand-loom weaving. The second type emphasises handicrafts and some of the native arts expressed in objects of considerable attractiveness. Notable examples

are calabash carving around Oyo (Oyo State) and brass work in and around Nupe (North Western Nigeria). The third type is a form of activity occurring at the fringes of an over-all industrial complex where some processes in the production sequence of a large-scale industry are "framed or contracted out" to various individuals handling the process on a cottage industry basis. It is known that the present day Japan makes substantial use of such production along cottage industry line (Bohr, 1954).

Furthermore, two aspects of rural industrialisation can be linked effectively to, or organised as a cottage industry complex. A good example is the establishment of integrated modern forest industries as a set of linked cottage enterprises involving saw-milling, pulping, furniture, paper, board, plywood carving etc. with optimal utilization of all felled timber.

This is not to say that these types of industries do not exist in cities and other urban areas, but the distinction is due to the locational advantage expressly stated in the definition given above. They either supply the means of production to agriculture or they process raw materials produced by agriculture.

Food processing industry is a sub-sector of small-scale agro-based industries. Processing generally entails changing the physical form of a commodity though its chemical composition might also be changed in the process. Food processing which involves preservation and packaging is the main activity in the utilization of food crops and this holds immense promise for industrial activity in Nigeria.

Agriculture based small-scale industries which process cassava into "gari" is a very important industry in Nigeria. Gari is in high demand particularly in the urban areas. Rice processing industries are also very important agro-based small-scale industries in Nigeria particularly in parts of the country where rice production is in large quantities like areas around the Guinea Savannah vegetation belt covering Niger, Benue, Kogi and some other states.

The tannery industries were producing leather products from processed hides and skins at about 90 percent capacity before the oil boom (Ejila, 1992). The manufacture of local soap (Ose dudu) which is produced from expelled oil of palm kernel is a



popular pre-occupation of the Yoruba. The product has very high demand both as toilet soap and herbal remedy in the treatment of sores and skin infections. Groundnut oil, a product from crushed seeds and the cake are used extensively in Nigerian feed milling industry as an ingredient (protein source) in poultry diet (starter, growers, layers and finishers' mash) and other monogastric animal feed manufacturing and also for domestic human consumption

The Advantages of Developing Craft and Cottage Industries

Rural craft industries ensure a fuller utilization of local materials and they tend in the course of economic development to gradually enlarge in scale and often to develop into typical urban manufacturers (Seers, 1963). This is true of manufacturing and maintenance of simple tools and agricultural equipment and the closely related farm requisites such as bricks, tiles, pottery, basket making etc.

The advantages of developing cottage industries are immense and may be summarized thus: (i) the capital need is very small; (ii) a reserve of experienced and skill exists in the villages and can be harnessed without much difficulty; (iii) it reduces unemployment, stems labour migration to cities and stabilizes the rural economy, and lastly; (iv) it may enhance import substitution in the national economy and solve the problem of unfavorable trade balance.

Two main arguments are frequently advanced in support of cottage industries. First, it is contended that employment comes to be created where people are and with the minimum "fuss or muss". If production is centred in the home, there is the valuable opportunity offered to members of the family who can effectively turn the idleness to some useful end. Secondly, only a very small amount of capital is ordinarily required. This arises from the fact that capital requirements for new buildings tend to be small since production is based in the home in addition to the fact that machinery required is ordinarily of a simple, low-cost type.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the significance of indigenous industries has been stressed. Dadwell (1955) has argued that industries like weaving, calabash making and the like will promote the development of under-developed countries where the agricultural sector of their economies have so far failed to bring about the desired development. Cottage industry is seen as one of the ways of having economic take-off and breaking the vicious circle of poverty. The literature has emphasized the increased value-added, employment generation and rural development role of most cottage industries and scholars are increasingly calling for efforts to encourage rural areas to produce in small rural workshop, agro-based products which are demanded not only by the rural people but also in the cities. These are industries that are closely integrated with and meet the needs of the local communities in which they are located and represent viable and sustainable response to challenges faced by children and youth in the country.

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Table 1: NIGERIA, TREND IN POVERTY LEVEL: 1980 – 1996 (%)

Year	Poverty Level	Estimated Population (m)	Total	Density
1980	28.1%	65		17.7
1985	46.3%	75		34.7
1992	42.7%	91.5		39.2
1996	65.6%	102.3		67.1

Source: F.O.S. National Census Survey (1999)

Table 2: Cost and returns in calabash carving industry per carver per year

Group	Average No. Carved Calabashes Sold Per annum	Number of Carvers	Total Sales	Average Sales	Average Revenue	Average Expenditure	Average Returns
A	Below	11	13,392	1,218	22,435.86	13,544.16	8,891.40



	1,500						
B	1501-2550	11	22,176	2,016	36,895.80	22,417.92	14,474.88
C	2551-3550	12	33,136	2,928	54,519.36	32,559.36	21,960.00
D	3551-4600	7	26,583	3,798	71,402.40	42,233.76	29,168.64
		41			46,312.61	27,688.60	18,623.73

Table 3: Average Gross Margin for Each Enterprises

Enterprise	Representative Total Revenue	Average Total Revenue (N)	Average Total Variable Cost (N)	Average Gross Margin (N)
Bakery	4,737,260	8,343,666.67	2,060,226.00	6,283,440.00
Feed Milling	1,246,000	19,151,000.00	5,947,000.00	13,207,000.00
Gari Processing	1,171,200	806,000.00	324,840.00	481,160.00
Black Soap	82,960	95,980.00	5,822.50	90,157.50
Flour Milling	3,377,400	3,244,570.00	1,900,500.00	1,344,070.00
Saw Milling	4,553,000	63,679,200.00	44,152,400.00	19,526,800.00
Soap Production	13,973,000	8,453,875.00	1,149,790.00	7,304,085.00
Soy-bean Oil	918,000	918,000.00	761,300.00	156,700.00
Rice Milling	2,094,435	2,094,435.00	1,604,900.00	48,953.00
Poultry	2,794,790	5,140,215.00	2,513,714.50	2,556,500.00



PROTECTING AND SUPPORTING SUSTAINABLE ENVIRONMENT FOR THE SURVIVAL OF THE NIGERIA CHILD

B.O. Adisa

Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development
Obafemi Awolowo University,
Ile-Ife.

M.A. Oladoja

Olabisi Onabanjo University,
Ago Iwoye.

The focus of this paper is on protecting and supporting environment for the survival of Nigeria child. The assumption is that the Nigeria environment plays a vital role in life support system as it provides the basic resources for all socio-economic activities in the country. It is further assumed that Natural and human made threats, socio-cultural problems and direct and indirect consequence of the country's economic development activities have all contributed to the degradation of this rich and exhaustive resource. Without an enabling environment, the Nigerian child can not grow and develop to a responsible adult and future leader. The Nigerian child has been variously abused and enslaved. These abuse hamper their normal physical, mental, social and psychological development. The state and extent of environmental problems in the country have become formidable obstacles to the development and survival of the citizenry. In several part of the county, indiscriminate solid waste disposal, water pollution, oil spillage, erosion, flooding, deforestation, air pollution and desertification are threatening the welfare of the people. As a result, biological production is destined to collapse. Families will no longer be able to produce enough food for themselves and their livestock and in most case children are the victims of malnutrition. In the face of such serious environmental problems threatening the survival of the Nigerian child the question asked in this paper is how can we preserve, protect and support the environment in the 21st century?. This general objective of this paper is therefore to review the state of Nigerian environment and its implications for the survival of the Nigerian child and give policy recommendations.

INTRODUCTION

The Nigerian environment is endowed with vast natural resources, which are vital for the survival of human existence. The Nigerian environment not only plays a vital role in the life support system, it practically provides the basic resources for virtually all socio-economic activities among men, women and children in the country. The abundance of this resource between 60s and the early 70s attracted a higher human resource use interaction in the country. These resources which become a source of foreign exchange to the country led to our being carried away in the euphoria of abundance. The era was popularly referred to as "oil boom era". Natural and human made threats, socio-cultural problems as well as direct and indirect consequences of the country's economic development activities have all

contributed to the degradation of this rich and exhaustive resource.

These resources include our land, forests and other vegetations, minerals, surface and underground water plus all forms of life which water supports, are some of the most obvious resources with which we have been endowed. The forest has been known to provide certain benefits for man. These according to Idumah *et al.* (2002), include fruits, honey, nuts, oil, tannis, medicine, gum, resin, fibre and other materials. These are usually sources for fodders for livestock, timber for building and furniture, poles as well as fuelwood, which account for a large part of household energy needs of the rural people. In their own contribution, Agun and Abu (1990), assert that forest are good resources of income to the rural populace who depend on the forest for some non-timber products like leaves of plants, edible fruits, firewood and charcoal, chewing sticks, palm



products e.g. palm wine, broom, palm kernel and palm oil. The forest has always been recognized as a habitat for wildlife, regulator of water shed and resort for recreation purposes and of course its ability to protect the landscape. We must remember also the rich reservoir of the skills, which manifest themselves in the arts and crafts of Nigeria. We need to appreciate the full range of our resource, which God has given to us as a country. Environmental management and protection has received a considerable boost on Nigeria since independence. Nonetheless, several parts of the country still face familiar threats. In the north, desert encroachment continues to destroy the ecological balance historically maintained by nomadic groups, with the result that overgrazed and depleted pastures are reducing livestock productivity. The extent and causes of both deforestation and desertification has become formidable obstacle to agriculture development.

In recent times, several reversible and irreversible damages are being inflicted daily on the environment through human actions, especially in the area of agriculture production among others. According to Nwachukwu (2002), major environmental problems facing the Nigeria environment ranges from sprawling industrial and domestic wastes; loss of biodiversity; air and water pollution; oil pollution; drought and deforestation; flooding; coastal and gully erosion; land degradation; urban decay and squatter settlement; trans-boundary movement of toxic materials; climate change and ozone layer depletion to trade in endangered species. In order to check the above environment problems have threaten the survival of the country and the people therein, attempts have been made to protect, support and regenerate the environmental resources of the country. Apart from the effort of the Ministries of Environmental and Ministries of Agriculture in all the 36 states, several donor-assisted protection projects (such as the European Economic Community - assisted Environmental Protection Projects and World Bank-assisted Forest I and Forest II projects) have adopted strategies apparently aimed at curtailing the desertification and other major environmental problems. In Nigeria, Environmental protection and support is assuming an important dimension and

particularly more so in the survival of the country's future generation (the Nigerian child). Against this background, this paper undertakes a general survey of the Nigeria Environment as it relates to the survival of the Nigerian child. Specifically, it examines the concept of environmental support and protection, elucidates the plight of the Nigerian child in the face of environmental degradation, identifies major environmental problems and its consequences on the survival of the Nigeria child, and assesses Nigeria's approach to environmental support and protection.

THE CONCEPT OF ENVIRONMENTAL SUPPORT AND PROTECTION

The term environment may be defined as an embodiment of conditions or circumstances, which influence the rate cause of economic, social and political behaviour. In common usage, the term environment is usually associated with natural environment, which encompasses soil, water, air, vegetable and mineral resources (Awolola, 1996). In actual sense, the term environment includes the above as well as man-made, socio-economic environment such as physical and social infrastructure, since no productive activities occurs in an environment devoid of a political-socio-economic framework.

According to Caldwell (1970), environmental protection means that part of resources management which is concerned with the discharge to the environmental protection.

- the protection of natural environment
- the protection of man himself and his fellows against his own action; and
- the protection of future generations against the actions of the modern man.

The protection of natural diversity is rational for the ethics of stewardship, the ethics of reverence for the Man can only conserve, manage and preserve natural resources by lending his support to environmental ethics is a set of moral values. It refers to values that will guild, organize, plan and manage the environmental resource. Ethics must be acceptable, comprehensive and universal in its application. It must recognizes the sanctity and



values of other lives in the universe. It must have the moral obligation to restrain communities, construction firms and governments from destroying the environment. Environmental support can therefore be defined as the help or co-operation by all the stakeholders in ensuring adherence to environmental ethics.

Environmental protection cannot succeed in our society without the support and co-operation of all stakeholders who are directly and indirectly involved in checking the culture of resource abuse destruction and greedy exploitation. Sir Horace Planket writes "Destroy your cities and they will be rebuilt within a year, but destroy your agricultural land and grass will grow on the streets of your cities in a year". Therefore, environmental support and protection has a survival value in ensuring survival of the whole environmental system created for the past, present and future generations.

THE PLIGHT OF THE NIGERIA CHILD

A child is any person under the age of eighteen (18 years). According to UNICEF (1998), a child means any human being below the age of 18. The United Nations General Assembly on the rights of the child, also adopted the use of age in describing the child as any human being below the age of 18 years. Viewed from the cultural perspective, a child according to Fadipe (1970), can be defined as one who is still under parents' custody and control without an independent means of livelihood. Therefore, a child is an individual who is under the age of 18 and under parental care. Hereditary, developmental and environmental factor have been identified as the major determinants of child's personality. Development lives in child include the development ability to think objectively, the ability to think qualitatively social understanding, the ability to use words to express and communicate thoughts responsible behaviour, (Taylor 1982). Therefore, parents have desire and responsibility to teach their children the best way to become responsible adults and future leaders.

According to Mbanefoh (2002), personality is the sum total of the general characteristics which distinguish an individual from others. This is

reflected in the traits of abilities, beliefs, attitudes, values, motives and habitual mode of adjustment. The personality of the child affects the extent to which he/she fits happily and harmoniously into the environment.

The various agents of socialization, such as the home, schools, church/mosques, peer group have their roles to play. The Nigerian child is in a serious dilemma (rural or urban); his rights are infringed upon and he has no voice of his own. To most people of the world, slavery has been over since the universal declaration of the human rights in 1948. The very word conjures horrific pictures of brutality and oppression. In the minds of many, slavery belongs to the past. Today's slavery comes in many forms and it has provided to be one of mankind's most persistent plagues. The stories of modern slaves are heartbreaking. According to Osuma (1990), modern day slaves are often children. They toil against their will, are used as farm labour, sexually abuse, asked to hawk at odd times, exposed to child battering, child deprivation, child neglect, infanticide, child undernourishment, child imprisonment and prostitution. Some children are even soil/abused by their own parents. The human rights organization's Anti-slavery International calculate that over 200 million children and youths still live in some form of slavery. This type of abuse hampers the normal physical, mental, social, emotional and psychological development of a child for a meaningful adult life.

According to Olawale and Solola (1999), modern forms of slavery, such as the sales of and trafficking in children, a phenomenon that has recently become a major continental, regional and national border activity translating to child labour and abuse. Empirical evidence has reported that the number of working children between 5 and 14 years of age in developing countries is estimated to be 250 million. It is estimated that 61 percent of them are in Asia, 32 percent in Africa and 7 percent in Latin America (UNICEF 1998). The greatest blow to the emancipation and liberation of the Nigerian child was the rejection of the draft children bill by the National Assembly members despite its approval by the Federal Executive Council on August 1, 2001. Two reasons were reported in the media for the



action. First, that children will become rebellious and lawless and second, that the tent of the bill run contrary to the culture and religion of a few representatives, most especially from northern Nigeria. The rejection of the Bill for posed a serious threat to the right and survival of the Nigerian child. There is need for Nigerians to protect and support an enabling environment for proper growth and development of its children. To treat children's problems lightly today is to count disaster. Such neglect truly places a generation at risk. Therefore, there's a battle to be fought. There's are obstacles to be overcome. There's a world struggle for human dignity to be won. Let us address ourselves seriously to the task ahead. The Nigerian child must survive.

THE STATE OF NIGERIAN ENVIRONMENT AND SURVIVAL OF THE NIGERIAN CHILD

Many years before the arrival of colonialists in Nigeria, the Nigeria landscape was bless with innumerable identified species f flora and fauna and covered with numerous minerals and stones. Every community had a unique ecosystem, care for and revered and on which people depend for their economic, social and spiritual development. There were shrines, reserve areas, forestry and habitats. The colonization of Nigeria altered the ecological system. Nigeria interpreted 'development' to mean felling of trees, leveling shrines and destruction of forests. Today, wildlife is rapidly disappearing, some extinct, other threatened and endangered. Thick forests are denuded, shrines and sacred lands defiled, stripped bare and raked; landscape of unique value devastated, rives, lakes and stream pollution; bogs, mashes, swamps and wetland drained.

Similarly, Nigeria's population is increase tremendously thereby putting pressure on the remnants of nature. Human demands affect the capacity of the natural environment for self-regeneration and renewal (Olubanjo, 1996). With the development of the complex and sophisticated technology, human has accelerated the use and exploitation of natural resources most of them indispensable, finite and irreplaceable, non-renewable resources. The discovery of Nigeria fossil fuels with the resultant financial boom, the building of gas pipelines, express and highways, hydro-

electric, schemes, the construction of a new capital city, and neighbourhood in urban and rural landscape, industrial and communal projects mings and other associated development area increasingly converting agricultural and wild land into non-agricultural lands. Baba (2000), assert that if present land use trends continue and unless better conservation measure are implemented, Nigeria stands to loose a substantial part of its heritage in species and genetic resources within the next decade.

The protection and preservation of the natural ecological diversity in Nigeria has been considered seriously by government, institution, individual and communities especially on how it affect the survival of the Nigeria children who are the future of the country. The state of serious environmental deterioration in Nigeria is reflected in the variety on environmental problems that presently characterise the Nigeria environment. Some of these have been identify and discuss below.

Indiscriminate solid waste disposal: This is one of the major environmental problems in Nigeria. With a population of over 120million, Nigeria is under the scourge of excessive and indiscriminate dumping of refuge of all sorts. This has not only be offensive to see on our roads and in the neighbourhood, but has been posing a very serious hazard to the Nigerian child and the general public. This act is very common in the urban areas, Nwachukwu (2002), report that in 1990 alone, over 786, 076 tonnes of waste came from Lagos alone, and in just 10 years (2002), it got to over 1,000,000 (one million) tonnes. Nowadays, it is common for one to see heap of rubbish taking over roads and this has resulted in many motor accidents.

Water pollution: The pollution processes in the industries led to discharge of waste materials either n the gaseous, solid or liquid form. Perhaps the worst hit by the discharge of this affluence from the industries is water ways. Almost all our industries discharge the effluents, without prior treatment into rivers, estuaries, the lagoon or the sea. Many of the effluents are toxic, posing health problems to the citizenry. These toxic materials include DDT, dyes, mercury and cadmium. Farmers are also guilty of



this offence as a result of their use of chemical fertilizer and pesticides. These chemicals have short and long term effect on the health of member of the families most especially the children. It has also been reported that vegetation around the edges of these contaminated rivers is drying up and there is no trace of fish life within 3 km from the effluent discharge point (Nwachukwu, 2002).

Oil spillage: Another environmental problems which has caused huge loses in terms of human life, natural resources and infrastructure is the oil spoilage commonly experienced in the Niger-delta. Communities like Obigbo, Okrika, Ogoni and many others have had their fare share of these ugly debacles. Many farm lands have been lost to oil spillage, while fishing activities, which is a major occupation of the people in the Niger Delta, have been greatly affected due to formation of oil film on the water bodies. This also prevents natural aeration and leads to high mortality of aquatic life.

Air pollution: As a result of industrialisation in Nigeria in recent times, a high rate of atmospheric pollution in the country's industrial area has been reported. For example, if you try to use a clean white handkerchief to wipe your face by noon you will notice the amount of soot that would have registered on the handkerchief. This is just an expression of what it is the air. The mains causes are fuel combustion sources from industries (vehicle, generator emissions). Health wise, these pollutants cause several medical disorders, such as reduction of the oxygen carrying capacity of the blood and aggravation of cardiovascular (health) disease. Prolonged low level of exposure to carbon monoxide is also known to reduce visual perception and ability to perform intellectual tasks among children.

Deforestation: The discriminate removal of forest and other forms of vegetative cover from a site without its replacement has been a major environmental problem in Nigeria. Although this phenomenon has occurred since the dawn of civilization from various parts of the world indicate that it is now on the increase due to increase socio-economic activities. This has resulted in the loss of biodiversity and threats to total oxygen available in

the atmosphere through reduce precipitation and this ultimately affects human and wild life.

Flooding: This is another environmental problem that has devastated Nigeria's ecological structure. Flooding resulted in structural and erosional damages, disruption of socio-economic activities, transport, communication, loss of life and property of food, water and environment in general. A very serious case of the effect of the flooding is the Ogunpa flood in Ibadan which occurred in 1980, which was as a result of human being negative influence on the environment.

Desertification: Nigeria is currently losing a large part of its land to desert conditions most especially in the state in the northern part of the country (Borno, Jigawa, Kebbi, Sokoto and Yobe). It has been estimated that about 0.6 kilometers of land are lost to desert encroachments every year in Nigeria. The reduction in farm land and pasture for livestock has a great effect on the survival of Nigeria children either directly or indirectly.

SUSTAINABLE ENVIRONMENT: PART OF COMPREHENSIVE STRATEGY FOR THE SURVIVAL OF NIGERIAN CHILDREN

According to Rogers (1996), development is defined as a widely participatory process of social change in a society intended to bring about social and material advancement for the majority of the people through their gaining greater control over their environment. This process as defined by Rogers has serious implications. Among then are those concerned with provision of an enabling environment which will promote the desire to change. The current state of the Nigerian environment as pointed out earlier needs not render anyone hopeless. This is especially because the governments at national, state and local levels as well as non-governmental organisations have consciously been engaged in action and programme's aimed at providing an enabling environment for the survival of Nigerians by addressing most of the enormous environmental problems so as help promote a qualities Nigerian environment.



For instance, on 27th November, 1998, the Federal Government of Nigeria, introduced a national policy on the environment. The policy set the goals of environmental management in Nigeria.

- to ensure for all Nigerian a quality of environment adequate for their health and well being;
- to serve and use the natural resources for the benefit of present and future generations; to restore, maintain and enhance the ecosystems and ecological processes essential for the functioning of the biosphere to preserve biological diversity and principles of optimum sustainable yield in the use of living natural resources and ecosystems;
- to raise public awareness and promote understanding of essential linkage between environment and development and to carry individual and community participation in environmental improvement efforts; and
- to co-operate in good faith with other countries, international, organization/ agencies to achieve optimal use of trans-boundary natural resources and effective prevention of trans-boundary environmental pollution.

The goal of the Nigerian policy on environment is there to achieve an integrate holistic and systematic view of environmental issues including the survival of the Nigeria child. Also in 1997, Nigeria signed the UN Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCO) and since then the country has been involved in a series of activities to show her commitment towards upholding this convention and other similar ones. In 1999, the Federal Government launched a vigorous tree planting campaign exercise under the theme, "A tree for Democracy". The programme focused on the education of the population (men, women and children) to enable their participation in the programme. Their participation is therefore only possible when it is firmly based on rational and enlightened attitudes. Non-governmental Organisation such as Nigeria Conservation Foundation (NCF) initiated and ran a desertification control programme in Kano between 1997 and 2000. Their intervention has been as a useful intervention strategy for providing major natural barrier to the process of desert encroachment. Nigeria's version of the international

Agenda 21 is another example of concrete efforts at sustainable Nigeria environment, most especially for generations to come. The policy, in addition to the report of the version 2010 committee on ecology is now supported by expanding environmental awareness and education programme among youths and children at all levels of our formal education sector.

Further, the ratification of other environment related international treaties and convention such as the convention of Biodiversity, Ramsar-convention on Wetland and others could be seen as an indicator of a prospective future for the Nigeria child. The dedication of a ministry to environmental issue by the Federal Government is a major indicator of better times for the Nigeria child.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is concluded in this paper that environmental problems affects proper growth and development of the child. Therefore, providing, supporting and protecting a sustainable environment is a must for Nigeria to achieve its desired development in the 21st century. It examined the various environmental problems facing the attainment of a sustainable environment necessary for the survival of the Nigerian children and observed that the federal government has shown her concern for solving the problems. Therefore, solutions to environmental issues must embrace cooperative and participatory actions among stakeholders. This is in term of individuals, communities, NGOs, local, state and federal government as well as international organizations. Environmental Education (EE) and training programmes as well as public awareness most especially among Nigerian youths and children are therefore recommended. Environmental education must be introduced to primary and secondary school system. Also there is need for government agencies working in concert with non-governmental organization to involve children in these programme planning and development. There is need by policy makers, environmentalist and development experts to investigate alternative policies to address the major environmental problems in Nigeria, especially as it affects the survival of the Nigeria child. The political leadership



needs to be better inspired towards forging intense cooperation among all sectors (public and private) for the purpose of addressing our environmental problem and issues of survival for the Nigerian child.

It is our collective duty to ensure a brighter and more qualitative Nigerian environment in the 21st century where our children and great grand children will have abundant and sustainable natural resource utilisation for their survival.

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Table 1: Forest de-reservation in some states of Nigeria (1979-1985)

State	Area affected Km ²
Bauchi	223.01
Bendel	527.50
Borno	496.32
Kaduna	1307.24
Kano	1113.00
Kwara	335.38
Niger	273.34
Ondo	53.44
Oyo	88.44
Plateau	1194.81
Total	5524.48

Source: Mbakwe, 1986



SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CHOICE OF FASHION IN CLOTHING AMONG FEMALE YOUTH IN DELTA-STATE, NIGERIA

Tunrayo Taibat Adebisi

Department of Home and Hotel Management

College of Agricultural Sciences,

Olabisi Onabanjo University

P.M. B0012,

Yewa Campus, Ayetoro, Ogun-State

Email address: adebisitunrayo@yahoo.co.uk

The study was to find out the socio-cultural factors that are influencing fashion in clothing among female youth in Delta State Nigeria. The sample was made up of hundred respondents randomly selected from Delta-State. Validated and structured interview schedule was used for data collection. The data were analysed using frequency and percentage. The findings of the study indicated that youths generally are fashion conscious. They budget wisely for their dressing. Both age and education had influence on the current fashion trend. Recommendations were made among others that mass media be used to enlighten female youths on current fashion.

INTRODUCTION

Generally, clothes are worn to protect the body from the elements of weather such as rain, sun and wind. Clothes also cover and adorn the body. They are also used in maintaining modesty and fixing status. According to Ukpore (2006), clothing is one of the basic needs of man. An individual's health and wellness are greatly influenced by textiles worn as well as those encounter in living and working places. Anyakaoha and Eluwa (2002) opine clothing as one's social, mental, spiritual and economic values expressed his/her personality to others. What one wears is determined by several factors: they are protection, custom, religion, improvement of mental attitude, social class, fashion and money available. Clothing can also impair or enhance health. For instance, dirty clothes can harbour germs which can cause skin infection and restrictive or tight clothing can interfere with free movement and blood circulation.

In Nigeria society among the female youth are the unmarried, married and the divorced. The unmarried ones are very fashion conscious except for some that are religiously inclined.

They spend more on the apparels. They have fewer responsibilities and wear clothes to adorn themselves and to attract the opposite sex. Their age range mostly between eighteen (18) to thirty-five (35) years. The married female youths whose responsibilities are already defined simply wear clothes to adorn and cover their nakedness. This category of youth spends less on apparels because of their added responsibilities, Their age range fall between twenty-one (21) to fifty (50) years. The divorced who need a companion dress to cover their body and attract opposite sex. Fashion modifies, renews, adapts and extends the modes of the past but it is very rarely to bring about a wholly new department (Hatch, 1991).

Ufot (1992) defines fashion as adoption of what is in vogue while Anyakaoha and Eluwa (2002) assert that fashion is knowing what suits one and what to wear at any point in time. Diagbare (1998) establishes the fact that of all the signals we send out of the world, personality indicator that can be the strongest in clothing. She further goes on to say that our clothing reveals how we think and look. The way we dress conveys a sense of our inner self as well. The subject of our thought made visible. So clothing is very important. Its message is doubly strong.



Most female youth in Delta State are fashion conscious. They wear what is in vogue not minding whether it fits their physical self or personality. The majority of the youth wear revealing dresses because they want to identify themselves with what is in vogue. However, a good dress sense which most female youth lack in Delta State is how to use fashion to enhance their own good points and to be well dressed for every occasion. Body characteristics or forms like general body contour, facial feature, amount of hair, hair colour are important factors to consider when choosing apparels like clothes, shoes, jewelries just to mention a few.

Research Questions

- What are the socio-cultural factors influencing female youths in their choice of clothing?
- Which fashion is in vogue among the unmarried and married female youths in Delta State of Nigeria?

Objectives

The objectives of this study are stated as follow:

- To investigate the socio-cultural factors that influence the choice of fashion among female youths in Delta State of Nigeria.
- To find out the effect of weather on the choice of clothes and their dressing apparels,
- To examine societal view on female youths mode of dressing

Hypotheses

- There is no significant difference in socio-cultural factors influencing the choice of fashion among unmarried and married youths in Delta State of Nigeria.
- There is no significant different on clothing apparel among unmarried and married youths in Delta State.

METHODOLOGY

This research used a survey method and intended to find out the socio-cultural factors influencing the choice of fashion in clothing among female youth in Delta State of Nigeria. Hundred (100) female youths are selected using stratified systematic sampling from four towns from Delta

State, Nigeria. Fifty married and fifty are both unmarried and separated female youth were selected as the respondents. The data from the interview schedule were analysed using frequency, percentage means and standard deviation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

For occupation, 20 percent of the respondents were trading, 24 percent were of civil service, 27 percent were teaching, 11 percent were of the medical field while 12 percent were unemployed. This implies that they are still very active and take cognisance of clothing despite the nature of their occupation. For their qualification 5 percent were primary six certificate holders, SSCE were 22 percent while OND were 1percent and NCE were 36 percent. Bachelors Degree Holder were 22 percent, Master Degree Holder were 7 percent, Ph.D holder were 1percent while no formal education were 6 percent. For the marital status, 54 percent were unmarried, 40 percent married and 6 percent divorced/separated. Data presented in Table 1 reveal that majority (84) of the respondents were within the age group of eighteen to forty (18-40years). This implies that at this stage, the group is very conscious about their choice of clothing for occupation. Data in Table 2 show the socio-cultural factors influencing the choice of fashion among female youth in Delta State. About 87 percent of the respondents agreed that Nigerian youths generally are fashion conscious, 8 percent are in disagreement while 5 percent are undecided 75 percent of the respondents agreed that education has influence on the choice of fashion 17percent are in disagreement while 8 percent are undecided. The respondents agreed that age (38%) has influence on the current fashion trend, 45 percent disagreed while 17 percent are undecided 26 percent agreed that weather conditions influence female youth choice of dressing 50 percent are in disagreement 24 percent are undecided 21 percent agreed that most women have wardrobe for different seasons e.g. Harmattan and raining season 58 percent are in disagreement while 21 percent are undecided. 68 percent agreed that there is more awareness in the use of cosmetics among educated youth in Delta State. 22 percent in disagreement while 10 percent are undecided, 76 percent agreed the value of current fashion trend, 14 percent were in disagreement while 10 percent were undecided.



About 53 percent of the respondents were very conscious of their body characteristics in their choice of dressing apparels, 17 percent were in disagreement while 18 percent were undecided. 37 percent agreed that youth do not harmonise colour in the current fashion trend, 47 percent were in disagreement while 16 percent are undecided. About 64 percent agreed that there is different between the mode of dressing of literates and illiterates 19 percent were undecided. 95 percent agreed that youth desired some satisfaction from the use of their dressing apparels. 10 percent were in disagreement while 4 percent were undecided, About 72 percent agreed that the current fashion trend afford the same opportunity of using the same style of fashion for both literate and illiterates female youths while 14 percent were in disagreement while 14 percent were also undecided.

This implies that female youth have seasonal dressing apparels as well as occasional clothing. This supports Adegoke, (1977) that a fashionable youth must have a good dress sense that is "taste coupled with style". There is also more awareness in the use of cosmetics among educated ones. The youth were also very conscious of their body characteristics. Also the current fashion trends afford the respondents the same opportunity of using the same style of fashion for both literate and non literate youths.

Data presented in Table 3 show the clothing apparel among unmarried and married youths in Delta State. The two groups are exposed to the same clothing apparel. Unmarried youths put on more trousers single wrapper and blouse, mini/shirt and blouse and high heeled shoes. Mainly the married youth put on two wrappers and blouse. Therefore, the null hypothesis which says that there is no significant difference in their clothing apparel was rejected. This simply means that there is significant difference among the clothing apparel of unmarried and married female youths in Delta State.

From the analysis, the findings show that both married and unmarried youths rank income and protection to be major factors influencing the choice of fashion in clothing apparels among female youth in Delta State. This was followed by

religion. The single youth believed social class is the fourth while married ones viewed culture as their fourth factor. The married ranked weather as a factor influencing choice of fashion in clothing among married female while the unmarried ones ranked personality as their fifth factor. Both groups ranked impression as the sixth factor. The married female youth ranked custom as their seventh factor while unmarried ones grouped season. Ranking was social class among the married while it culture among the unmarried lastly, personality was ranked among the married ones and custom as the least factor that unmarried female youth chosen.

CONCLUSION

In Delta State Nigeria this was study was carried out, youths wear clothes principally to cover their bodies. Other reasons include culture, custom, religion and impression. Also the public frown at unpopular dressing of youth who wear revealing clothes or wrong dressing apparels that are not harmonising colours. The study also revealed that most youths in Delta-State do not have clothes for different seasons. It is not unusual to find youth using fabrics that are not suitable for our climate in making their dresses. In most cases, are uncomfortable in them and also fanning themselves or sweating profusely. Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- Moderate and decent fashion should be displayed on mass media. Since youth watch, listen and read through media therefore, it should be used to enlighten and encourage youths on modestly and decency.
- Youths must take into consideration individual attributes and biological endowments while shopping and dressing.
- In choosing a design for dresses youths should take into consideration one's size and figure because one might end up choosing design that is not meant for the figure.

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Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents

	Variables	Statement	Frequency	percent
1	Age	18-20 years	10	100.0
		20-30years	55	55
		30-40years	19	19
		40-50year	16	16
		Total	100	100.0
2	Occupation	Trading	30	30.0
		Civil Service	24	24.0
		Teaching	23	23.0
		Medical field	11	11.0
		Unemployed	12	12.0
		Total	100	100.0
		3	Qualification	Primary six
SSCE	22			22.0
OND	1			1.0
NCE	36			36.0
B.Sc.	22			22.0
Master	7			7.0
Ph.D	1			1.0
Total	100.0			100.0
4	Marital Status	Unmarried	44	4.0
		Married	50	50.00
		Divorced/Separated	6	6.00
		Total	100	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2006



Table 2: Socio-Cultural factors influencing the choice of fashion among female youth in Delta State

S/ N	Statements		Agreed	Disagreed	Undecided	Total
5	Nigeria female youths are fashion conscious	Frequency percent	87 87.0	5 5.0	8 8.0	100.0
6	Education has influence on the current fashion trend	Frequency percent	75 75.0	8 8.0	17 17.0	100.0
7	Weather condition influence youths choice of dressing	Frequency percent	26 26.0	24 24.0	50 50.0	100.0
8	Age has influence on the current fashion trend	Frequency percent	38 38.0	17 17.0	45 45.0	100.0
9	Most youths have wardrobe for different season e.g. (harmattan, rain)	Frequency percent	21 21.0	21 21.0	58 58.0	100.0
10	There is more awareness on the use of cosmetics among educated youths.	Frequency percent	68 68.0	10 10.0	22 22.0	100.0
11	Youths are very conscious of their body characteristics in their choice of dressing apparels	Frequency percent	53 53.0	16 16.0	31 31.0	100.0
12	Youths budget wisely for their dressing apparels	Frequency percent	65 65.0	18 18.0	17 17.0	100.0
13	Youths consider do not harmonize colour in the current fashion trend	Frequency percent	76 76.0	10 10.0	14 14.0	100.0
14	Female youths do not harmonize colour in the current fashion trend	Frequency percent	37 37.0	16 16.0	47 47.0	100.0
15	There is difference between the mode of dressing of literate and illiterate youths	Frequency percent	64 64.0	17 17.0	19 19.0	100.0
16	Society does not frown at the present fashion trend	Frequency percent	59 59.0	15 15.0	26 26.0	100.0
17	Female youths derive some satisfaction from the use of their dressing apparels	Frequency percent	95 95.0	4 4.0	1 1.0	100.0
18	The current fashion afford the same opportunity of using the same style of fashion for both literates and illiterates	Frequency percent	72 72.0	14 14.0	14 14.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2006



Table 3: Clothing apparel among unmarried and married youths

	Unmarried	Married
Fashion in vogue-trousers	42	26
Two wrappers and blouse	10	41
Single wrapper and blouse	39	29
Long skirt and blouse	23	33
Mini skirt and blouse	51	10
High heel shoes	48	20
Total	213	159

Source: Field Survey, 2006

Table 4: Analysis of Socio-cultural factors influencing the choice of clothing apparel among female youths of both groups.

Factors	Married	Unmarried
Season	5	7
Income	1	1
Culture	4	6
Religion	3	3
Personality	9	5
Impression	6	8
Protection	1	1
Custom	7	9
Social class	8	4

Source: Field survey, 2006



EFFECTS OF YOUTH MIGRATION ON FARMERS' AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN EGBEDORE LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OSUN STATE, NIGERIA.

Akangbe J.A, G. Adesiji And O. I. Akinpelu

Faculty of Agriculture,
University of Ilorin,
Nigeria

The effects of your migration on agricultural production of farmers in Egbedore Local Government Area of Osun State were examined. A sample of 120 respondents consisting of 12 farmers each of the selected 10 wards in the area were picked using the multi-stage stratified random sampling technique. Data were collected through interview schedule. The result of the investigation revealed an average household size of eight people. The mean age group of the respondents is 25years. Both young men and women migrate. The hypothesis tested showed a significant difference on frequencies of migration of both male and female ($\chi^2 = 5.38, P < 0.05$). Male migrate more than female. The family labour which the rural farmers depend solely upon was reduced drastically. The hypothesis tested revealed a significant difference on the number of family labour used before and after migration ($\chi^2 = 4.83, P \geq 0.05$). The drift in human movement caused a reduction in the farm size where ($\chi^2 = 3.57, P \leq 0.05$). The result further revealed high cost of production, low productivity, reduction in annual income and a fall in standard of living. On the positive side, the non-migrants in the village increased their land ratio their emigrant household members sent money and modern equipments to make their farm-work less tedious. Prominently, rural – urban migration by the youth is responsible for the down ward trend of agricultural development in Nigeria. There is therefore, need to provide functional infrastructure in the rural area by the government; and in particular both the government and philanthropists should site agro-allied industries in the rural areas to reduce rural-urban migration and create jobs for the unemployed youth.

INTRODUCTION

Nigeria's economy was founded on agriculture. Before, the oil boom agricultural production was concentrated in the rural areas where farmers had fertile farmland and human resources in abundance. The income obtained from the sale of farm product was sufficient to cater for farm families and for foreign exchange. The discovery of oil and its subsequent exploration and exportation brought a set back to Nigeria's agriculture because, the government shifted attention from the agricultural sector to oil industry which encouraged the drifting away of young able-bodies from rural areas to the urban. Agricultural production is now left in the hand of old men and women and younger children. In the long run the number of farmland put into cultivation as a result of reduction in labour force diminished greatly, thus affecting rate of production in income realised from agriculture.

Movement away from the place of origin of either a permanent or a temporal nature had become an option to improve the life chances of a wider spectrum of the population of the

developing countries (UN,1996) especially farm youth. Adams (1993) explains that when the combined effects of income and land are considered, males from poor and landless households have the highest propensity to migrate and that poverty and landlessness combine to push many rural farmers to work elsewhere away from their villages.

A theoretical analysis by Achanfue- Yeboah (1993) shows that migration in Africa is determined by economic factors like employment, social factors such as education and, demographic factors such as population growth. The theory further shows that the existing socio –economic institution in Africa tend to support the prevalence of rural-rural and rural-urban migration. Presently, Nigeria like most other African countries is at a stage where it realised that proficiency in rural development depends on sustained growth in rural incomes and standard of living derived primarily from agriculture (Igbokwe *et al.*, 2005). The need for reliable fertile land, employment and steady income is the most important factor underpinning rural-urban migration. There is considerable evidence indicating that on the average rural -rural migrants are the group with lowest standard of living. It then seems indisputable that the common concern of migrant farmers is to improve



their economic prospects within the constraints of seasonal unemployment, land shortage, poor soil and price instability.

In the light of the problems above the following questions become pertinent: what factors are responsible for migration of youth? How frequent do the youth migrate? What effect does migration have on agricultural production?

Against this background, this study was, therefore designed to determine the effects of rural-urban migration of youths on agricultural production. Specifically, it investigated the factors responsible for youth migration; identified the effect of migration on agricultural production; and determined the frequency of youth migration.

It was hypothesised that there was no significant difference, in farmers agricultural production obtained from the following: The frequency of migration of both sexes; the Number of family labour used before and after migration; the size of farm cultivated before end after migration; and that there was insignificant difference on agricultural production and educational background of the respondents.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Egbedore Local Government Area of Osun State. The LGA covers approximately 94 sq km. it has as its neighbours, Irepodun LGA to its North; Edo LGA to the South; Osogbo and Ejigbo LGA to the West and East, respectively. It has a population size of about 44,552 people according to provisional census 1991. The LGA is located on a thick tropical rain forest with its headquarter at Awo. Agriculture is the major occupation of the people. Their farming is characterised by peasant cultivation of food crops like yam, maize cassava, cocoyam, melon, okra, vegetables bananas, plantain etc. while cash crops include cocoa, kolanut, timer palm, produce etc.

Since the study was conducted in Egbedore LGA, a multi-stage stratified sampling technique was adopted to select a total of 120 farmers from the five political zones (zones A, B, C, D and E) in the study area that formed themselves into strata. Within the zones, two

political wards were chosen to give ten wards. From the ten wards twelve respondents were

randomly picked. Interview schedule was the research instrument administrated.

The data was analysed using descriptive percentages and mean while inferential statistical tools used was chi-square.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The result of the study revealed that 75 percent of the respondents were male farmers while 2.5 percent were females. The average age of respondents was 25 years. The average household size was eight. The opinion of the respondents on the reason for migration was sought. It was found that majority of the absent members of the household left the rural area for urban centre in search of employment either in the formal or informal sector. Studies carried out by Udo (1982) and Makinwa, (1982) have shown that economic factors are often the most important determinants of migration. Data in Table 1 show reasons for migration in the study area. Reasons mentioned by the respondents included employment (69.2%); and to further their education (12.0%). Some of the respondents (10.0%) said they migrate for the purpose of apprenticeship, while 3.5 percent said it was to enable them find joint partner in business 6.0 Percent of the respondents gave reasons for migration as to change environment, while others (1.01%) migrated in search of political or religious freedom. Among the reasons mentioned were employment and higher education opportunities. This shows that these opportunities were lacking in the study area. Hence the government and other organizations should look into these areas for possible intervention. Also rural facilities should be improved upon to enable the rural residents live a very decent and comfortable life.

The data in Table 1 show that 53.3 percent of the respondents agreed that between 5 to 10 people migrated in one year from each of the villages where the study took place. Majority of the respondents (70.8%) noted that most migrants seldomly come back to the village instead they constituted occasional visitors that show up for festivals and other functions. It was further revealed that the frequency of migration and revealed that 61 percent of the respondents claimed that youth migration occurred more at the end of major festivals like Christmas and Sallah. However, 20 percent indicated that young people moved away during planting



season; some other 14 percent said movement occurred during off- season when there was less work on the farm and the remaining 5 percent said movement was done during harvest period.

The implications of the above findings are that there will be decreased in size of farmland put under cultivation, change in the cropping pattern from labour intensive to less labour intensive, while the farmers will be forced to hire labour. These will result to increase in cost of production and, reduction in their annual income as a result of low output, and hence low standard of living. This implies that the development of rural areas may not be achieved for a long time especially as the out -flow of migrants will continue to be on the increase if government fails to take necessary action. The positive effects though meager, will serve as incentives to the non-migrants.

The data presented in Table 2 revealed both negative and positive responses. The negative responses include reduction in annual income. 63.2 percent which ranked highest followed by high cost of production 62.5 Percent; reduction in farm size 6.9 Percent, low productivity 60.6 percent. Fall in standard of living 60.56 percent and reduction in family labour 58.8 percent ranked the least. The positive response indicated that it helps to influence government in providing amenities 57.4 percent which ranked first, followed by improving social conditions of the returnees 57.4 percent; increase in farmers land ration 56.3 percent, increase in farmers' income 56.1 percent and, it provide non-migrants with modern implements 36.6 percent which ranked the least.

The result of the hypothesis tested using chi-square revealed that there was significant difference in the frequency of migration of male and female $\chi^2 = 5.38$, $P < 0.05$. Male tend to migrate more than their female counterparts; they have the boldness of leaving the home and being on their own than the female. The movement of men away from this farming environment has great impact on agricultural production, ranging from drastic reduction in cultivable land, productivity and income resulting in poor standard of living of the people.

Further, there is a significant difference in the

number of family labour used previously before migration and after, ($X^2 = 4.829$, $p < 0.05$). Since many family members have migrated, the farm labour is left in the hands of few. Significant difference was also found between size of farm land cultivated presently and previously ($X^2 = 3.57$, $p < 0.05$). the reason for the reduction in farm size was probably due to the fact that the family labour used previously have been left in the hands of aged men with primitive tools as a result of the flight of young and agile men.

A significant difference in the frequency of migration was also established between the education status and acquired occupation of the respondents ($\chi^2 = 2.63$, $p < 0.05$). The young and educated members of the family move to the towns where they can find jobs that match their qualifications.

CONCLUSION

Both negative and positive effects of migration were established in the study. Negatively, the farmers experienced reduction in annual income, high cost of production, reduction in farm size, low productivity, fall in standard of living and reduction in family labour. This negative impact brought a lot of set-back to agricultural production in the area, thereby increasing the poverty rate of the ruralites. The government therefore, should provide more social functional infrastructures through this; farmers will maintain large farm sizes. There will be increase in their production; more income will be realised and a good living standard will be guaranteed. Likewise, government and philanthropists should site industries particularly agro-allied industries in the areas where unemployed youths could be gainfully employed. The provision of effective agricultural extension services will equally boost agricultural development. The positive effects of migration that influenced government in providing amenities and improving social conditions of the people should be encouraged.

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Table 1: Distribution of farmers based on their response to migration
n=120

Response	Frequency	Percentage
<u>Reason for migration</u>		
Employment (economic factor)	83	69.2
Further Education	14	12.0
Apprenticeship	12	10.0
Change of environment	7	6.0
To find partner/join partner in business	3	2.5
Political or religious freedom	1	1.01
<u>Number of People that Migrate per village</u>		
Less than 5 people per year	32	26.7
5-10 people per year	64	53.3
10-20 people per year	24	20.0
<u>How often migrants come back home</u>		
They always come home	35	39.2
They seldomly come home	85	70.8
<u>Frequency of Migration</u>		
At the end of festivals	73	61.0
During planting Season	24	20.0
During off season	17	14.0
During harvesting period	6	5.0
TOTAL	120	100.0

Source: Field survey 2000



Table 2: Effects of youth migration
n=120

Effects	Absolute percentage	Average Option	Ranking
Reduction in family labour	58.8	2.04	6
Reduction in farm size	60.9	1.97	3
Low productivity	60.6	1.98	4
Reduction in annual income	63.2	1.90	1
Fall in standard of living	60.6	1.98	5
High cost of production	62.5	1.92	2
Increase farmers land ratio	56.3	2.13	9
Increase in farmers income	56.1	2.14	10
Influence government to provide amenities	57.4	2.09	7
Provide non-migrants with modern implements	36.6	3.28	11
Returnees help to improve social condition	57.6	2.09	7

Source: Field Survey 2000



PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS PUPILS IN OYO STATE, NIGERIA

Taylor O. A; Dada, O. M and B. B Odufuwa

College of Agricultural Sciences,
Olabisi Onabanjo University,
Yewa Campus, Ayetoro

Academic performance of primary school pupils is the most urgent concern among parents and essential for sustainable development. The influence of parents on academic performance of some selected primary school pupils in Oyo State, Nigeria was investigated. The sample size was 100 pupils selected through a multistage sampling technique. The primary data collected with the aid of structured interview schedule were described and analyzed with percentages and Chi square respectively. Results showed that father ($\chi^2=28.89, \alpha=0.05$) and mother's education ($\chi^2=30.40, \alpha=0.05$) had significant association with academic performance of a child. Also, a significant association between variables like learning facilities, ($\chi^2=28.96, \alpha=0.05$), parental factors ($\chi^2=34.01, \alpha=0.05$) and academic performances were established. Based on these findings, sincere and meaningful response at tender age by parents being the primary development services provider to the educational development of their children is recommended among others. This is capable of empowering them to overcome challenges confronting them and become useful to the society and the nation at large.

INTRODUCTION

A child is the development unit of a nation. A nation who desires to grow should desire in the development of its children that is fostered through education. For revitalisation and sustainable development of the nation's economy, the educational development of a child is of paramount importance. Children who grow through a well developed and implemented educational programme in an enabling environment where culture, self-reliance, dignity, integrity, honesty are inculcated would become responsible adults equipped to overcome challenges and cause positive changes in economy (Omotor, 2002). Child development is fundamental for productive adulthood because adult personality takes its roots in childhood (Gbadamosi, 2003). Education becomes therefore an indispensable tool through which the development of a child is guaranteed.

Educational system in Nigeria begins with the primary education. The failure or success of the whole system of National policy on Education is dependent on the primary education (Davis and

Afolabi, 2002). Primary education provides a solid foundation for the educational development of a child. It is the bedrock of the formal educational system (Gbadamosi, 2003). Primary education inculcates permanent literacy, numeric and the ability to communicate effectively in children, which enable them to function effectively in the society (Gbadamosi, 2003).

The need for a child to begin well which determined his end in life rests on the care, love and the qualitative educational training provided by the parents. The family is the first and foremost contact of a child before the outside world. According to Ajayi (1999) children gain a lot from their parents. Parents are therefore the first and foremost important teachers of a child, which make them to be regarded as the primary development service providers.

Through socialisation, children learn culture of their parents. Part of the expected services to render is to inculcate good character, integrity, dignity, honesty, decency and maturity and encourage academic excellence in their wards at tender age with which they grow and become useful resources to the nation. The



involvement of parents in the educational process of their wards consequently, needs to be ascertained.

To this end, the study examined the influence of parents on the academic performance of the primary school pupils in Oyo state, Nigeria. The study addressed the following objectives:

- (1) ascertain characteristics of pupils and some selected socio-economic characteristics of the parents;
- (2) examine contribution of provision of learning facilities on the academic performance; and
- (3) consider the role of parents in the academic performance of the pupils.

The hypotheses of the study were:

- i) There is no significant relationship between some selected socio-economic characteristics of parents and academic performance of the pupils.
- ii) There is no significant relationship between parental factors and academic performance of the pupils.
- iii) There is no significant relationship between provision of learning facilities and academic performance of the pupils.

METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted in Oyo state. One hundred pupils were selected randomly using a multistage sampling technique. Fifty percent of the 6 zones in Oyo State were selected resulting in selection of the following three zones: Molete, Oke-ado and Foko. Fifty percent (50%) of the total number of primary schools contained in each zone was selected, giving rise to six schools in all. Twenty per cent (20%) of the total number of primary five pupils in each selected school gave rise to 100 pupils. This serves as the sample size for the study. The interview schedule was used as the research instrument to elicit information from the respondents. The collected data were described and analyzed using percentages and chi-square at 0.5 level of significance

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the distribution of respondents by their parent' characteristics. The age range for the majority (59.0%) of respondents' mothers was 31-39 years old and a higher percentage (46.0%) of the respondents' fathers fell into 40-49 years age category. This implies that mothers are relatively younger than the fathers. This probably accounts for the awareness and positive disposition and attributes that mothers have, which are usually channeled towards the education of their wards. They are active and agile in mind to be able to adjust to change, which characterised the age category. This positive disposition would go a long way to help their children' performance in school. This assertion agreed with Barnard and Martell (1995) which says that the main responsibility of rearing children falls on the mothers' shoulder.

A higher percentage (47.0%) and (41.0%) of fathers and mothers respectively possessed secondary school certificate or its equivalent. This suggested that the parents are literates. The literacy level of the parents plays a significant role in qualitative child's socialization and initial education (Ekemode *et al.*, 2003). Through the parental education, which often manifests in their reading habits, serve as source of inspiration and encouragement for the growing child thus influence their performance in school. This finding agreed with the assertions of Otu (1992) and Banji (1999), which says that parents who have formal education see the need for the adequate monitoring of their children in school.

Majority (60 %) and (65.0%) of both the father and mother were traders. This suggests that the parents are self-employed. Hence, they may have control over their time of departure from work and time of close from work. By being available on time in morning and in night to attend to educational needs. This was supported by Agboola (2000) which says that the family socio-economic status indices such as occupation, educational level etc are strongly related to academic achievements of the children.

Table 2 illustrates respondents' characteristics. The respondents' sex was in ratio 1:1. This implies that both male and female are sent to school irrespective of their gender. This further establish the parents



awareness about the importance or needs for the female child to be educated just like her counterpart in order to make them participate in the decision making and contribute to developmental matters.

The majority of the respondents (60.0%) came from a family of at most 4 implying a small family. Children from this family tend to be catered for, receive sound education and enjoy good parent interaction because of their small size. This inherently influences academic performance of children from such family. This finding corroborated the outcome of the research study conducted by Otu (1992) which states that intelligence varies directly with the size of the family.

About 45 percent of the respondents' parents were low-income earners realising less than N20, 000 per month as income. The parents' income determines the proportion available for education of their children for payment of tuition, procurement of learning materials and consumption of balance diets all of which contribute to level of performance of pupils in school. The proportion of income assigned by poor parents to the education of their wards would be small not enough to provide qualitative education for their children. Such parents enroll their children in low standard schools, which affect the educational background of the child. This assertion agreed with Levine *et al* (2003) which state that poverty directly correlate with educational performance of the children.

In Table 3, higher proportion of father (34.0%) departed from home before 7am while the mothers (30.0%) stay between 9-10am before going to work. This implies that mothers create time to take care of their wards thereby performing their roles as care givers. It seems that fathers devote much of their time to their works possibly to be able to perform their financial role. This tends to have positive influence on the academic performance of the children.

Table 4 presents some variables used to measure parents' factor. A higher percentage (38.0%) of the respondents lived in one room apartment. Children living in this kind of residence tend to

have insufficient living space, place for homework and private reading. This would therefore contribute to poor academic performance of such children. About 40 percent of the respondents lived with their care givers (father and mother). There is great tendency for these children to enjoy greater care, feeling of security, motivation and confidence, which encourage good academic performances. Parents' relationship also influence academic performances of the child directly as children tend to see them as role models.

Majority (73.0%) of parents check their wards school works. All of them (100.0%) show care for their children. Majority (78.0%) of them buys gifts as incentives for better performance. Also, the majority (57.0%) enrolled their children in extra classes to improve their academic performance. However, a few of the parents (35.0%) pay for transportation of their wards either by school bus or by public cab. This would be as a result of their low-income capacity. Involvement of parents in education of their wards helps in supporting the children as learners thereby making them to be psychologically stable for learning and this have positive influence on performance in school.

Table 6 presented the majority of the respondents (67.0%) and (69.0%) having English and mathematics textbook respectively, 49.0% had other textbooks. All the respondents (100.0%) had not more than six (6) note books and had both desk and table for study. All the primary schools cited used (100.0%) pit toilet. Inadequate provision of learning materials contributes to poor academic performance of a child as supported by Adaralegbe (1997).

Hypothesis 1 which stated that no relationship existed between parents socio-economic characteristics and academic performance was tested by χ^2 = chi-square. The result presented in table 6 showed a significant relationship between parents' characteristics such as mothers' education and fathers' occupation and academic performance. This finding is in support of Otu (1992) and Agboola (2000) that established that family socio-economic status such as occupation, education, family size etc. is strongly related to academic achievement of the children.



The relationship between parents' factor and academic performance was tested using chi-square tool and presented in Table 7. A significant relationship was found between parents' factor and academic performance of pupils. Inference drawn from this finding was parents' factor tend to relate directly to academic performance of the children.

In table 9, the relationship between learning facilities and academic performance was tested using chi-square test at 0.05 level of significance. The result showed a significant relationship between learning facilities and academic performance of pupils. This was also supported by Adaralegbe (1997).

CONCLUSION

This paper attempted to examine the parental influence on academic performance of pupils in primary schools. Parent socio-economic characteristics such as mothers' education, fathers' education were found to have significant relationship with academic performance of their children. Also, learning materials and parents' factor significantly related with academic performances of the children. While majority of parents were traders they tend to have time for the education of their children, which contribute to their good performance academically.

Based on these findings, the study recommended the following:

1. There is need to further plan programmes to improve literacy level of the parents as part of the efforts to improve the academic performance of pupils.
2. All the stakeholders should provide adequate learning facilities and infrastructure to help improve academic performance of pupils.
3. There is need to provide and strengthen guidance counseling units of all primary schools to help counsel parents on how to help their wards develop good learning culture which will result in good academic performance.

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Table 1: Distribution of respondents by their parents' socio-economic characteristics N=100

Socio-economic characteristics	F	%	F	%
	Father		Mother	
Age (years)				
< 30	2	2.0	3	3.0
31-39	23	23.0	59	59.0
40-49	46	46.0	18	18.0
50-59	15	15.0	17	17.0
60 and above	14	14.0	3	3.0
Academic qualification				
No formal education	3	3.0	7	7.0
Primary school certificate	26	26.0	34	34.0
JSS/ tech certificate	3	3.0	4	4.0
G.II/ WAEC certificate	47	47.0	41	41.0
N.C.E	10	10.0	13	13.0
B.Sc	11	11.0	1	1.0
Occupation				
Civil servant	20	20.0	14	14.0
Banker	12	12.0	15	15.0
Trader	60	60.0	65	65.0
Farmer	8	8.0	0	0.0

Source: Field Survey, 2006



Table 2: Distribution of respondents by their characteristics N=100

Respondents characteristics	F	%
Sex		
Male	55	55.0
Female	45	45.0
Total	100	100.0
Age (years)		
6-8	36	36.0
9-10	42	42.0
11.13	18	18.0
14-16	4	4.0
Total	100	100.0
Family size		
< 5	60	60.0
5-6	21	21.0
7-8	5	5.0
8-9	10	10.0
10 and above	4	4.0
Total	100	100.0
Family income /month		
< 10,000 -<20,000	81	81.0
20,000 - <45,000	5	5.0
45,000 and above	19	19.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Survey, 2006



**Table 3: Distribution of respondents by parents' daily departure and arrival time
N=100**

Work schedule	Father		Mother	
	F	%	F	%
Departure time (am)				
Before 7	34	34.0	7	7.0
7 - 8	13	13.0	21	21.0
9-10	11	11.0	30	30.0
After 10	10	10.0	21	21.0
Unemployed	32	32.00	21	21.0
Total	100	100.0	Total	100
Arrival time (pm)				
Before 5	7	7.0	30	30.0
5 - 7	-	-	17	17.0
8 - 10	51	51.1	16	16.0
10 - 12	10	10.0	16	16.0
Total	100	100.0	Total	100

Source: *Survey, 2006*

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by parents factor N=100

Parents factor	F	%
Parents' residence		
Bungalow	10	10.0
One room	38	38.0
Room and parlor	25	25.0
Flat	19	19.0
Family compound	8	8.0
Total	100	100.0
Pupils care giver		
Mother	6	6.0
Father	20	20.0
Father and mother	40	40.0
Grand parents	17	17.0
Relative	17	17.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: *Survey, 2006*.



Table 5: Distribution of respondents by parent interest in their study

Parents' interest in pupils study	Yes	%	No	%
Checking of school work	73	73.0	27	27.0
Caring for pupils	100	100.0	-	-
Buying gift for pupils	78	78.0	12	12.0
Enrolling pupils in extra class	57	57.0	43	43.0
Paying pupils transport to go to school	35	35.0	65	65.0

Source: Survey, 2006.

Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to provision of learning facilities

Leaning facilities	Yes		NO	
	F	%	F	%
English text book	68	68.0	32	32.0
Mathematics text book	67	67.0	33	33.0
More than 4 text book exercise	49	49.0	51	51.0
< 6 note books	100	100.0	0	0.0
≥ 6 note books	0	0.0	100	100.0
Possession of desk &table	100	100.0	0	0.0
Type of toilet facility				
pit	100	100.0	0	0.0
Water closet	0	0.00	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2006

Table 7: Test of relationship between parents' socio-economic characteristics and academic performance.

Socio-economic characteristics	χ^2 tab	χ^2 cal	D. F	Decision
Father's age	9.49	4.13	4	N S
Mother's age	26.30	16.16	16	N S
Mother education qualification	26.30	28.89	16	S
Father education qualification	31.41	17.95	20	NS
Family size	31.41	24.99	20	N. S
Father's occupation	26.30	30.40	16	S
Mother's occupation	26.30	25.71	16	N. S
Family income	21.03	13.47	12	N. S

Source: Derived from field survey, 2006. Level of significant 0.05. D.F=Degree of freedom, S=Significant, NS=Not Significant



Table 8 Test of relationship between parent factor and academic performance

Variable	χ tab	χ cal	D.F	Decision
Percent factors	15.17	34.01	8	S

Source: *Derived from field survey, 2006 Level of significant 0.05, D.F=Degree of freedom, S=Significant, NS=Not Significant.*

Table 9: Test of relationship between learning facilities and academic performance

Variables	χ^2 tab	χ^2 Cal	D.F	Decision
Learning facilities	26.30	28.96	16	S

Source: *Derived from field survey, 2006, Level of significant 0.05, D.F=Degree of freedom, S=Significant, NS=Not Significant*



UTILISATION OF IMPROVED MAIZE SEEDS AMONG RURAL FARM YOUTH IN ORIADE LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OSUN STATE, NIGERIA

Adeyemi, A. A.¹ Adekunmi, A.O.¹ and V.O. Okorie²

1. Osun State College of Education,
Ila-Orangun.
2. Department of Agricultural Extension & Rural Development,
Faculty of Agriculture,
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife,
Nigeria.

This study was undertaken to statistically analyse the use of improved maize seeds by rural youth in Oriade Local Government Area of Osun State, Nigeria. Seven rural communities were selected for the study i.e Ipetu-ijesa, Erin-Ijesa, Erin-Oke, Ikeji-Ile, Alabameta, Akunrin and Oke Aise. 120 copies of a structured interview schedule were administered to elicit information from the rural youth that were randomly selected. The data collected were analyzed by the use of frequency, percentages and inferential statistics. The results revealed among others, that the use of improved maize seeds was not all that popular among the rural youth just as only 48.33% used improved maize seeds. While about 51.06% of those that used improved maize seeds purchased between 0-20kg, 34.04%, 10.64% and 4.24% purchased between 21-40 kg, 41-60 kg and 61-100 kg, respectively. 68.09% of improved maize growers cultivated (0.1-4.0) acres. More over, 57.45% and 31.91% of the respondents had to travel between 1-40 km and 41-80 km, respectively to purchase the seeds. Results of the regression revealed that 98% of variation in Y (rural youth's use of improved maize seeds) was explained by X_1 (cost of improved maize seeds), X_2 (farm size planted) and X_3 (distance of seed depot). To improve rural youth's use of improved maize seeds, the study suggested putting in place an improved seeds' depot which would cater for the youth. Also, subsidy on improved maize seed should be encouraged by the government.

INTRODUCTION

Good quality seed occupies a pivotal position in Nigeria's strategy to improve agricultural productivity and rapidly enhance food production to feed the ever-increasing population and, at the same time, improve the country's economy. It is no exaggeration that the effectiveness of all other inputs like fertilizers, crop protection chemicals, and modern technology is dependent on the availability of high-quality seeds to our farmers at the right time and in required quantities (Joshua 1980). The use of improved seed has always been the first priority of successful National Food Production Programmes. Dedicated plants breeders have laboured to harness the seed power to solve world hunger. After water, the most vital requirement for crop production is good seed, next come fertilizers, pesticides and other inputs which are even more expensive than improved seed (Joshua, 1986). The demand for improved seed is increasing and to cope with it, the programme of action during the 4th National Development Plan must be a massive scale, just as high priority should be placed on seeds in order to trigger green revolution (Liman, 1980).

According to Food and Agriculture Organisation (1979), national policy on seed multiplication aimed at building an integrated and coordinated National Seeds Programme and capable of meeting increased requirement of improved seeds by Nigerian farmers. The effort of the Federal Department of Agriculture in initiating and obtaining governmental approval for the above named national seed multiplication policy coupled with financial assistance to the state seed multiplication units have yielded significant increase in the quantity of improved seeds. It is fair to mention that the present administration has demonstrated good political will to solve the problem of seed programme. Special emphasis has been given to adequate provision of improved planting materials for Nigerian farmers in the presidential speech. In addition, the sum of 4.9 million Naira has been allocated for seed programme development in 1986 (Joshua, 1980).

In the same vein, Kim (1986) posited that, for the purpose of achieving self-sufficiency in maize production in Nigeria that the Federal Government of Nigeria launched a "Hybrid Maize Development Project in 1982 and asked International Institute of Tropical Agriculture



(IITA) to develop locally adapted high yielding, disease resistant hybrids. The IITA hybrid maize project was initiated in 1979 and has been strengthened by the Nigerian federal government since 1982, by this time, the IITA maize scientist developed over 2,000 streak resistant lines. This is in consonance with IITA's report (1991) which indicated that the Federal Government of Nigeria declared Hybrid maize a high-priority crop in 1981 and contributed \$500,000 U.S. to IITA for research. More so, Joshua (1986) reported that in Nigeria, that research work on development of the new rice, maize and cowpea varieties was carried out by National Cereal Research Institute (NCRI), Ibadan while the research works on sorghum, millet and wheat varieties were concentrated in Institute of Agricultural Research (IAR) Samaru, just as the National Root Crops Research Institute (NRCRI), Umudike specialises on root crops.

In an attempt to efficiently assist in the procurement of better farming input seeds, the Federal government performs many other activities at different periods of change in government. In 1983, the Federal Ministry of Science and Technology created nine Nationally Coordinated Research Projects (NCRP). They were each given token start up funds of N50, 000, and were operating under functioning Farming Systems Research (FSR) programmes. The research Institutes are the Institute of Agricultural Research and Training (IAR&T) at Ibadan, the National Cereals Research Institute (NCRI) at Badeggi, the Institute for Agricultural Research (IAR) at Sumaru and National Root Crops Research Institute (NRCRI) at Umudike (Joshua, 1986).

Oyaide (1988) observed that FSR is a relatively new field of agriculture and is primarily aimed at farming systems, which are technically sustainable and economically sound. In his analysis Anojulu (1986) reported that the improved crop varieties of crops planted by many Nigerian farmers brought about an average increase in the national average yield of crops. For example, the national average yield of maize got increased from 0.9 tonnes/ha to 2.5 tonnes /ha for open pollinated varieties, and as high as 4-6tonnes/ha for hybrids, and of upland rice from 0.9 tonnes/ha to 2.2 tonnes/ha, while low land rice is from 1.5 tonnes/ha to 3-4 tonnes/ha.

This implies that improved seeds can enhance agricultural production. Thus, the objectives of the

were, therefore, to: examine the utilization of improved maize seeds by rural youth in the study area; determine the extent to which the rural youth have used improved maize seeds; estimate the factors affecting the use of improved maize seeds; and make appropriate recommendations for extensive use of improved maize seeds.

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Oriade Local Government Area of Osun State. The areas surveyed include *Ipetu-Ijesa, Erin-Ijesa, Erin-Oke, Ikeji-Ile, Alabameta, Akunrin and Oke Aise*. Agriculture is the main occupation of most people in the study area. The data were collected by administering 120 copies of a validated and structured interview schedule on respondents that were randomly selected. Data were analysed by the use of frequency, percentages and inferential statistics.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Farm information of the respondents

Generally, people of these areas grow both food and tree crops. It was observed during the field survey that the rural youth intercropped cassava with other crops such as maize, yam and shallow rooted crops like tomato, pepper, melon and okro. Data in Table 1 show that rural youth were more predominant in Ipetu-Ijesa (21.67%), Erin-Oke (15%) and Ikeji-ile (15.83%). Age affects the readiness of an individual would want to take risk. It has been argued that as the age goes up, the less an individual tends to risk taking. In line with this, rural youth whose ages fall between 18-21, 22-25, 26-29 and 30-33 should be able to adopt the use of improved maize seeds better.

Majority (90%) of the respondents cultivated more than one plot of land, this could be due to the problem of land tenure and land fragmentation which limits farm size per plot available to an individual. Thus, an individual would have to acquire more plots of lands at places in order to make up his or her desirable farm size. The fact that the rural youth's farms are not together in a place, invariably, discourages their planting of certain crops and improving the farmland through the use of some soil conservative measures.

Data in Table 2 show that only 48.33 percent of the respondents used improved seeds. This implies that the use of improved seed was not popular a practice among the rural youth. The improved



mainly planted was maize. The reason being that maize has many improved varieties and they are readily available. Another reason is that rice production is limited to some farmers in the local government. Only the farmers who got them involved in rice production knew about its improved varieties.

Improved cassava cuttings and vegetable seeds are not readily available to the rural youth for whatever reasons. Data in Table 4 show that majority (51.06%) of the rural youth did not more than 20kg of improved maize seeds. The reason could be due to lack of enough land for farming or the rural youth did not have enough money to embark on large use of improved maize seeds. The Data presented in Table 5 show that 68.09 percent of the respondents cultivate more than 4 acres of land used for the improved maize seeds. This could be due to non-availability of enough improved seeds for the rural youth or because most of the rural youth are not used to cultivation of improved maize seeds. These, invariably, would result in a set back in the productivity of the rural youth.

Data presented in Table 6 show that those youth who used the improved maize seeds traveled between 1km and 80km to get the seeds. This could be contributory to the low level of utilisation of the improved maize seeds observed among the respondents.

Estimation of the factors affecting use of improved maize seeds by rural youth

The model used here is represented by equation (1)

$$Y = f(x_1, x_2, x_3, e_1) \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

Where:

Y = Use of improved maize seeds by rural youth

X₁ = Cost of improved maize seeds

X₂ = Farm size planted

X₃ = Distance from seed depot

e₁ = Random disturbance.

Three functional forms of the above model namely; Linear, Cobb-Douglas and semi-log functions were specified for the regression analysis.

The three forms are:

Linear

$$Y = b_0 - b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 - b_3 x_3 + e_1 \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

Cobb - Douglas

$$Y = b_0 x_1^{b_1} x_2^{b_2} x_3^{b_3} e^u \dots\dots\dots (3a)$$

This model was estimated by taking its natural logarithm and specified as

$$\ln Y = b_0 - b_1 \ln x_1 + b_2 \ln x_2 - b_3 \ln x_3 + U \dots (3b)$$

Semi-Log

$$Y = b_0 - b_1 \ln x_1 + b_2 \ln x_2 - b_3 \ln x_3 + e \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

Relationship between the independent and dependent variables (a priori expected signs)

Since the use of improved maize seeds according to economic theory decreases with increase in the cost of the improved maize seeds, x₁ has inverse relationship with Y hence x₁ should have negative sign (-ve). As the farm size expands, more improved maize seeds will be used to cover the land area, hence x₂ has direct relationship with Y. x₂ should therefore have positive sign (+ve). As the distance where the improved maize seeds could be got increases, the rural youth get discouraged the more in using improved maize seeds, hence distance is inversely related with the use of improved maize seeds, x₃ should therefore have negative sign (-ve)

Data presented in Tables 7, 8 and 9 show the results of the linear, Cobb-Douglas and semi-log functions, respectively applied to the model. Cobb-Douglas function was chosen because it has the highest value of adjusted R² = (0.980), highest F-value of 526.712, least standard error of estimates and fully fulfilled the a priori expectation. The lead equation is therefore:

$$\bar{Y} = 0.344 - 0.152 X_1 + 0.671 X_2 - 0.174 X_3$$

R² = 0.980. This, therefore, implies that 98% of the variability in Y (Use of improved maize seeds) was explained by variables X₁ X₂ and X₃.

F ratio = 526.712. This explains the effect of all the explanatory variables in the model. F is significant at 5%.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the results of descriptive statistics, it could be deduced that the use of improved maize seeds was not all that popular among the rural youth in the area of study. Regression results also show that cost of improved maize seeds (x₁), farm size planted (x₂) and distance of improved seeds depot(x₃) affect the use of improved maize seeds at a particular growing season.

The findings in this study suggest that the rural youth need be more enlightened on the importance and use of improved seeds, these seeds also should be made accessible to the rural youth at a cheaper



cost and in sufficient quantities. The above suggestion can only work if more extension workers are employed, trained and sent to the farmers in the interior villages and towns, and also if the Ministry of Agriculture will increase the supply of improved seeds to the state and local government ADPs.

Federal Government needs to increase the importation of fertilizer and should supply to the rural youth at subsidised prices. Farm tools, chemical and materials should be made available at subsidised prices and loan or credit need to be granted to the interested rural youth.

The local government needs to see to it that the reconstruction of the damaged roads and infrastructural facilities are adequately carried out and made available for these rural youth.

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Table 1: Distribution of rural youth by location

Names of rural communities	Frequency	Percentage
Ipetu-Ijesa	26	21.67
Erin-Ijesa	16	13.33
Erin-Oke	18	15.00
Ikeji Ile	19	15.83
Alabameta	14	11.67
Akunrin	17	14.17
Oke Aise	10	8.33
Total	120	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2006.

Table 2: Number of farms plots cultivated by rural youth

No of plots cultivated	Frequency	Percentage
1	12	10.00
2	47	39.17
3	29	24.17
4	22	18.33
5	10	8.33
Total	120	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2006

Table 3: Distribution showing rural youth using improved seeds

Improved seed varieties	Frequency	Percentage
Maize	47	39.17
Rice	4	3.33
Cassava	6	5.00
Vegetable	1	0.83
Those who do not grow improved Seeds	62	51.67
Total	120	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2006



Table 4: Quantity of improved maize seeds used by rural youth

Quantity of improved maize seeds used (kg)	Frequency	Percentage
0-20	24	51.06
21-40	16	34.04
41-60	5	10.64
61-100	2	4.26
Total	47	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2006

Table 5: Area of farms plots used in cultivating improved maize seeds.

Area under improved seeds (acres)	Frequency	Percentage
0.1 – 4.0	32	68.09
4.1 – 8.0	7	14.89
8.1 – 12.0	4	8.51
12.1 – 16.0	3	6.38
16.1 – 20.0	1	2.13
Total	47	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2006

Table 6: Distance traveled to get improved maize seeds by rural youth.

Distance traveled by farmers (km)	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 40	27	57.45
41 – 80	15	31.91
81 – 120	3	6.38
121 – 160	2	4.26
Total	47	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2006

Table 7: Linear function

	Constant term b_0	Independent variables			R^2	Adjusted R^2	F-Ratio
		X_1	X_2	X_3			
Parameter Estimates	0.853	1.054	0.45	0.785	0.766	0.722	321.679
Standard Error	2.27	0.78	0.54	0.46			
t-ratio	0.324	1.932	1.80	1.931			
			6				

Source: Field survey, 2006



Table 8: Cobb-Douglas (linearised function)

	Constant term b_0	Independent variables			R^2	Adjusted R^2	F-Ratio
		$\text{Ln}X_1$	$\text{Ln}X_2$	$\text{Ln} X_3$			
Parameter Estimates	0.344	-0.152	0.671	-0.174	0.981	0.980	526.712
Standard Error	0.235	0.116	0.226	0.162			
t-ratio	1.312	2.340	2.419	3.031			

Source: Field survey, 2006

Table 9: Semi-Log Function

	Constant term b_0	Independent variables			R^2	Adjusted R^2	F-Ratio
		$\text{Ln}X_1$	$\text{Ln}X_2$	$\text{Ln} X_3$			
Parameter Estimates	25.651	-10.340	12.340	3.122	0.962	0.951	108.216
Standard Error	15.251	5.542	14.762	6.802			
t-ratio	3.186	3.146	1.050	0.236			

Source: Field survey, 2006



THE EFFECTS OF HIV/AIDS ON RURAL HOUSEHOLD LIVELIHOOD IN NIGERIA: ANTICIPATING THE CONSEQUENCES

Ojo, T.F., Ajila, K.O., and Faborode, H.F.B.

Faculty of Agriculture,
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

This paper offers exposition on the anticipated consequences of effect of HIV/AIDS on rural household livelihood activities. It specifically offers explanation on the foreseeable effect of HIV/AIDS related sickness and subsequent death of a household member on land distribution, agricultural production, labour market, and use of capital in agriculture. It also presents a current orthodoxy that has emerged over the past decades concerning the effect of the disease on agriculture. Recommendations on how to halt the further spread, and reduce to the barest minimum, the effect of the pandemic on the nations' rural household and their livelihood activities were also made.

INTRODUCTION

HIV/AIDS is not just a public health problem; it has far reaching consequences for all social sectors and for development (World Bank, 2003). In 2003, in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) 26 million people were living with HIV, including 3.2 million who became infected during the year, aside the approximately 2.3 million people that were killed, making the region the most affected in the World (Oyewale, 2004). The epidemic is affecting young people disproportionately with 15-24 years old accounting for half of all new HIV infections world-wide and more than 6,000 youths contracting the virus everyday (UNAID, 2004). The first HIV/AIDS case in Nigeria was reported in 1986, since then, the epidemic has grown steadily. As distasteful as the news of the outbreak of the disease was, not many Nigerians took early warnings about the dangers of the disease very seriously. While some believed that the pandemic was a disease for prostitutes, others felt that it was a disease for the elite only or perhaps a disease caused by malnutrition and so on. As people made a choice of turning their back on the disease, its prevalence mindlessly soared, slashing through the young and old, rich and poor. According to a zero prevalence survey conducted by the Federal Ministry of Health, the rate of HIV/AIDS prevalence, which stood at about 1.8% in 1991, came to 3.8% in 1993 and just between 1995 and 1996, escalated to 4.5%. As if that was not enough the spread continued to 5.4% in 1999, while in 2001 the level of spread climbed to 5.8% (Federal

Ministry of Health, 2004). The 2003 technical report on the National HIV sentinel survey reported a drop in national prevalence from 5.8% in 2001 to 5.3% in 2003. The report, however, cautioned that women attending public health facilities may not be representative of women in the general population, and that this is one of the limitations of the Antenatal Clinic (ANC) sentinel survey. The report sounded a note of warning that the reported drop in 2003 point prevalence is not sufficient to conclude that AIDS epidemic has either stabilized or is on a downward trend, and that it will be dangerous to relax intervention efforts based on this observation.

It is currently estimated that there are between 3.2 and 3.8 million persons living with HIV/AIDS in Nigeria (UNAIDS, 2004). It is important to reemphasize this point, given the less than serious attitude of public and private sector organizations towards AIDS control in Nigeria. Effectively, combating the AIDS pandemic will require a coordinated multi-sectoral approach. Although, many stakeholders in the agricultural sector embrace the idea of playing a role in combating HIV/AIDS, there has been very little analysis by agricultural policy analysts to guide them. Despite the fact that the pandemic is now in its third decade in Nigeria, available analysis to date provided a very murky picture of how HIV/AIDS is affecting the agricultural sector and the livelihood of widows, orphan children and youths who are at receiving end of the diseases. Until there is a clear understanding of the effect of the pandemic on rural household



livelihood agricultural activities, policy makers will be inadequately prepared to forecast anticipated changes to the agricultural sector and respond proactively in order to mitigate the likely effect of the disease on the nation. Against this backdrop, this paper seeks to explain the current understanding of the effect of HIV/AIDS on agricultural and rural livelihoods, and to offer recommendations for mitigating the effects.

UNDERSTANDING CURRENT ISSUES ON THE EFFECT OF HIV/AIDS ON AGRICULTURE AND RURAL LIVELIHOODS

Effects of HIV/AIDS on Land Distribution

It is estimated that by the year 2025, the number of male and female adults in the age ranges between 40 and 64 years will be less than half of what would have been in the absence of AIDS (Jayne et al. 2006). As afflicted households lose productive members of their families including those possessing the rights to their households' land, conflicts over the inheritance of land may escalate over the coming decades (Barnet and Blaikie, 1992). After incurring a death as a result of AIDS, poor and disadvantaged households most of the time may have difficulty maintaining their rights to land. Widows, orphan children, and youths are particularly vulnerable to losing access or ownership rights to land after the death of the husband and father. The cumulative effects of loss of land rights may turn out to be an increase in the concentration of land within the small farm sector, with land being reallocated at the margin from poor households to relatively wealthy ones. This is a likely outcome, if relatively wealthy households are better able to maintain their control over land after incurring a prime-age death in the family and also if they are able to gain control over land assets shed by poorer households that cannot continue to productively use their land after incurring a death. Land dispute and possible land concentration over time are consistent with broader economy – wide predictions that AIDS is likely to exacerbate income inequality in many countries (Lehutso-Phooko and Naidoo, 2002).

Influence of HIV/AIDS on Agricultural Production

Agriculture is a labour demanding activity, which involves every member of the household including children and youths. With the present rate at which

HIV/AIDS is spreading, the agricultural sector is bound to be affected with labour shortage and increased labour cost resulting from sickness and subsequent death of household members, as a result of the disease if left unchecked. Empirical evidence to date does indicate that AIDS is having a measurable adverse impact on household agricultural production (Jayne *et al.*, 2006). Yamano and Jayne (2004) reported a general decline in agricultural production among rural households suffering a prime age death due to HIV/AIDS, relative to non-afflicted households. It was observed that male head-of-household death cases suffered a 68 percent reduction in the value of net agricultural output (after deducting costs of inputs). They further found that households suffering the death of head of household or spouse were largely unable to replace the labour lost through the death. Studies have also shown a significant decline in labour productivity among HIV – positive farmers (Fox *et al.*, 2003) and agricultural; and related companies reliant on hired labour are suffering from rising cost and falling profits as a result of the disease in hard hit countries of Africa (Rugalema, 1999).

Effect of HIV/AIDS on Labour Market

The future effect of HIV/AIDS on agriculture requires an understanding of how labour is likely to shift between urban and rural areas, and between agricultural and non-agricultural activities due to the devastation on the population of the country by this disease. Harris and Todaro (1970) identified three broad employment categories that labour allocates itself to; viz: the agricultural sector; the formal sector, mainly in the urban areas but also in small towns commercial farms and rural civil service (where wages generally exceed those of agriculture); and the "informal" sector, where jobs and business are relatively easy to find but pay relatively little (e.g. petty trading, blacksmith, tailoring, crafts, shoes mending etc).

Many people especially young men and women, who have migrated to urban areas in search of formal sector jobs but could not obtain one often find themselves in the informal sector. If sizeable fraction of workers in all three sectors are forced to quit working because of illness, subsequent death and related caregiving function especially from AIDS related cases; and if surplus labour exists in an underemployed informal sector, then rising costs of



agricultural labour caused by incipient AIDS related labour shortage will induce labour migration from the informal sector to agriculture. This invariably may induce labour migration out of the urban informal sector into agriculture in rural areas to meet with the short fall of labour due to AIDS induced deaths. In this way underemployment in the informal sector is likely to act as a shock absorber to buffer the agricultural sector from labour shortage.

However, the supply of labour from the urban and informal sectors is not infinite. As the long-term effects of the disease progress through the next several decades, it is unclear whether the demand for agricultural labour will eventually outstrip the supply of underemployed labour in the informal sector. If the agricultural sector continues to absorb labour at a faster rate than the overall population growth rate, then labour shortages may indeed begin to manifest in future decades.

Effects of HIV/AIDS on the use of capital in agriculture

Agriculture-led structural transformation has almost always involved increased intensification of capital in the farm production process (Johnson and Kilby, 1975). The main types of capital-led intensification have featured improved hybrid seed, fertilizer and chemicals. Farm households tend to utilize remittance and off-farm income as a main means to purchase expensive assets, which are used to capitalize farm production. These sources of income are often jeopardized among AIDS afflicted households, particularly those that are asset-poor and vulnerable (Denovan *et al.*, 2003). Cash constraints on farm intensification are compounded during illness and after death, due to a rise in medical and funeral expenses and caregiving by other members of the household, which reduces their income-earning potential. According to Yamano and Jayne (2004), afflicted households attempt to first sell of small animals and productive farm equipments and other assets in response to severe cash requirements after a death in the family. They are forced to reduce their use of cash inputs in agriculture; the cumulative effect may be a decline in the proportion of small-scale farmers able to produce a marketable surplus from farming.

CONCLUSION

A current accepted view has emerged over the past decade concerning the effects of HIV/AIDS on agriculture. The most commonly cited effects according to Jayne *et al.* (2006) are: reduction in area cultivated; shifting area into less labour-intensive crops, such as cassava and away from more labour-intensive (higher-values) cash crops like cocoa; reduction in weeding labour, which contributes to lower yields and thus lower crop value; reduction in use of other inputs because of lack of finances resulting from the loss of wage income of the diseased and health/financial expenses; decline in crop production, losses in off-farm income and increase poverty; and loss of accumulated knowledge and skill due to AIDS related death on the part of farmers and extension agents.

On the basis of the above, three scenarios are most likely to play itself out: firstly, as the supply of skilled and semi-skilled labour becomes relatively constrained as the disease progresses, the cost of skilled labour in the formal sector is likely to rise; secondly, AIDS may slow the rate of labour migration from rural to urban areas. Migration of labour from urban to rural areas may help rural household and communities preserve existing farming systems or slow the transition to less intensive ones; and thirdly, agricultural systems are likely to become less capital-intensive in hard-hit areas as assets and wealth are depleted. The effects of AIDS on agriculture and rural household livelihood appears to strike hardest on the poor, and the disease may exacerbate income inequalities as poor households sell off assets and land to those who can afford to buy.

Despite the high prevalence levels, the majority of Africans between 70–99 percent (depending on the country) are not infected with HIV. This is cheering news. Thus, effective HIV prevention strategies are urgently needed to reverse the course of the epidemic. To be effective, prevention interventions must address the continuum of prevention from delayed sexual debut to condom promotion, from voluntary counseling and testing to stigma reduction at community level.



Policies that improved women's rights (e.g. land tenure security for widows) might also reduce the spread of AIDS associated with women resorting to risky behaviours caused by poverty and disenfranchisement as widows and their children are most vulnerable to losing their land and becoming substantially poorer after suffering the premature death of the husband.

There is a need to focus on attitude and sex behaviour change among agricultural extension workers and to utilize them as forces for positive behaviour change in the community as agricultural extension workers possess attributes known to be correlated with HIV contraction, viz: mobility, education, and relative affluence.

There is also the need to redress gender bias in agricultural programmes by agricultural extension officials – men tend to receive the specialized crop husbandry and marketing knowledge as well as control and ownership of many resources which women can only gain access and use rights through marriage. When marriage links are broken through the death of the spouse, and women are denied access or use of the resources or lose them through property grabbing, by relatives, they are frequently left with only their body and the bodies of their daughters to gain access to food, money, or property rights. Programmes that seek to ensure gender equality in participation and access will have a protective effect for the society, as well as empowerment of the women folk protecting them and their children against HIV/AIDS.

Young people are more vulnerable to HIV, especially with the demise of both parent due to AIDS related death, but they are also the hope of changing the course of the AIDS epidemic. They are tomorrow's leaders, thinkers, and decision makers and it is vital that they play an integral part in responding to the epidemic. When young people are given appropriate tools and support, they can become powerful agents for change. A comprehensive HIV prevention strategy for young people bringing about attitude and sex behaviour change is required. Early sexual debut, transgenerational sex and gender disparities highlight the fact that education alone will not protect the youth of Nigeria from infection. Access

to confidential health services and condoms, and protecting the rights of young girls, are also required to lower HIV prevalence among youths.

Also, mobilizing the educational system to become a vehicle for a comprehensive prevention and care programme for school-age youth is needed. Mainstreaming HIV prevention and AIDS care for young people into other sector such as religion, workplace, sports and media which are known to be a great interest to youths is also very important in providing information and services to prevent this pandemic.

Lastly, addressing gender inequality by improving young girls' opportunities to obtain education and skills training, by protecting their rights and boosting their income earning prospects. There is also a need to change the damaging concepts of masculinity that define boys' lives and negatively affects those of girls. The government at the centre needs to clearly transmit the message that sexual exploitation of and violence against young girls and boys are unacceptable.

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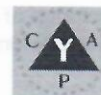
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ROLES OF PRIVATE AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES IN ENHANCING FARM PRODUCTIVITY AMONG YOUNG FARMERS IN IWO LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OSUN STATE, NIGERIA

Ayinde J.O.¹, Shomoye, F. H.² and Ajayi F.O.¹

1. Department of Agricultural Education, Osun State College of Education, Ila-Orangun, Osun State.

2. Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Sociology, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State.

Email: tundeyjoy@yahoo.com

The study investigated the roles of Farmers' Development Union (FADU) as private agricultural extension services to young farmers in Iwo Local Government Area (LGA) of Osun State, Nigeria. Data were collected from the beneficiaries and FADU officials with the aid of validated and structured interview schedule and questionnaires. The respondents were selected for the study using purposive and random sampling techniques. In all, 100 respondents were interviewed. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentages while inferential statistics (Spearman's rank order correlation) was used to test stated hypotheses. The results revealed among others that majority (72 percent) of the youth involved in FADU activities were between ages of 21 and 30 years, male (79percent), had fairly moderate education (41percent) and low level of income (₦30,000.00k and below). It was also found out that majority (98percent) indicated that FADU promotes saving and credit scheme among the members. The result of the Spearman's rank order correlation between expected and the actual performed roles was high ($r = 0.78$) but promotion of input delivery was not given attention it deserved. Hence, it was suggested that FADU should make provision for timely supply of input like loans, locally made processing machineries, improved seedlings and animal varieties on regular basis.

INTRODUCTION

Agriculture remains the mainstay of the Nigerian economy in terms of national output and employment generation. In Nigeria, the application of modern techniques such as fertilizers and high yielding crop varieties in farming has been fraught with some problems. Access to credit is also a serious constraint to the growth of the sector (FAO, 1989). Many strategies have been used in pursuing the goal of agricultural development in Nigeria. Some of the strategies are the launching of Farm Settlement Scheme (FSS) in 1960, National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) in 1968, River Basin and Rural Development Authority (RBRDA) in 1976, Agricultural Development

Programme (ADPs) in 1985, Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) and National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) in 1991 to mention but few. Despite the efforts of the Ministry of Agriculture during this era, the Nigerian Agriculture did not reach its

targets. This failure necessitated the need for improvement in agricultural production to feed the teeming population of the country and improve their economy.

Curtain (2002), quoted in the World Youth Report (2003), defines youth as a phase when a person moves from a time of dependence (childhood) to independence (adulthood). One of the most common definitions of youth in quantitative terms comprises persons between age 15 and 24. It is used by both the United Nations and the World Bank and is applied in many social indicators (UNESCO, 1985). The youth constitute a potent force in agricultural and rural development programmes (Jibowo, 1989). These categories of people according to Umaru (1992) form a very significant proportion of the rural population in Nigeria. For the youth to be well understood Jibowo (1989) and Torimiro (1995) characterised the youth as possessing: innovation proneness, minimal risks aversion, faster reaction time, less fear of failure, less conservative, greater knowledge acquisition propensity, faster rate of learning, love for adventure, preference for boldness and these culminate the nature



of youth in rural areas, which may be resourcefully applied to good agricultural development activities.

Youth represent the future and hope of every country. The high returns on resources invested in young people today have both immediate and long-term benefits. Where they exist and are functioning well, rural youth programmes play an important role in building life skills of individual young people; strengthening families and communities; and working towards sustainable agricultural and rural development as a major contributor to the over all progress of a country (Bie, 1996). The agricultural sector in Nigeria witnessed a considerably high level evolution within the last three decades. This has been occasional primarily by the desire to increase food production to enhance self-sufficiency and empower the rural youth economically. These efforts have resulted in the aggregate growth of Nigerian food production at about 2.5 percent per annum but food demands increase to 3.5 percent (Okunmadewa and Olayemi, 2002). The implication of this is that the supply of one of the most important among the primary needs of man (food) remains in a state of shortfall in Nigeria.

The inability of government alone to cope with the development of agricultural and rural areas is well acknowledged in government circles and among the citizenry. This awareness led to the involvement of some private individuals and organisation in the agricultural development process. These private individuals and organisations are called Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). NGOs refer to a wide range of organised groups, systems or service units that are not directly or indirectly set up, funded, controlled and operated by government or any of its agencies (Adedoyin and Omolafe, 1995). It can also be described as any national or international private non-profits making institutions with developmental objectives. (Bebbington, *et al.*, 1993). However, government may play regulatory and supervisory roles, which will help to enhance their effective functioning in some cases.

Prominent among the NGOs that has participated

and is still participating in agricultural and rural development in Nigeria is Farmers' Development Union (FADU), it is an umbrella for grassroots farmers' organisation in Nigeria founded in 1989 with main aim of assisting members in their enterprises. World Bank and some other international NGOs financed FADU in its earlier stages of establishment. Currently FADU is now financed through members' contribution, profit from the sales of farm inputs (agrochemical) and group members' farm output supply.

Even though the government placed emphasis on agriculture to some extent, Nigerians are still facing shortage of food supply (Okunmadewa and Olayemi, 2002). The implication of this is that the supply of one of the most important among the primary needs of man remains insufficient in Nigeria. Recently, this country continues to witness an alarming drift of young people from the rural areas to the cities. This has caused a great decline in food production resulting in increase in prices of food commodities (Okunmadewa and Olayemi, 2002). This led government to encourage private individuals and organisations to participate in the agricultural development process. Despite involvement of NGOs in agricultural and rural development activities in the country, youth are still yearning to improve their standard of living. Therefore, it is the intention of this study to find answers to the following questions: What are the roles of NGOs (FADU) in agricultural and rural development activities of the youth in Iwo Local Government Area (LGA) of Osun State? What are the agricultural extension services provided to young farmers by FADU? What are the benefits derived by the young farmers from FADU?

This study was generally designed to investigate extension services provided to young farmers by FADU in Iwo (LGA) of Osun State. Specifically, it identified the roles of FADU in relation to young farmers' agricultural production; identified the agricultural extension services provided to young farmers by FADU; and examined the benefits derived by young farmers from FADU.

Consciousness of membership or belonging to a group can be stirred between persons coming from the same village through the recognition of common village problems and aspirations as shown by Ekong (2003). Hence, the null hypothesis is stated thus, Ho: There is



no significant difference between the expected roles and performed roles of FADU to young farmers in Iwo LGA of Osun State.

MEHTODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Iwo Local Government Area (LGA) of Osun State which shares boundaries with Lagelu Local Government Area of Oyo state in the south, Oyo Local Government Area of Oyo state in the West, Ayedire Local Government Area of Osun state in the East and Ola-Oluwa Local Government Area of Osun state in the North. The Iwo people are predominantly Yoruba's with few Fulani nomads. They are farmers producing Cocoa, Kola nut, Palm-Kernel and Oranges as cash crops and food crop like Yam, Maize and Vegetables.

The target populations were the young farmers who are between the ages of 18 and 30 years and were beneficiaries of FADU programmes in Iwo LGA, of Osun State. A simple random sampling technique was used to select five villages out of about 9 major villages found in Iwo Local Government Area. The villages selected for the study were Telemu, Ogbagba, Ashamu, Kuta and Ile-Ogbo, while the rest were Lakelu, Ilemowu, Ikire-Ile and Petupele.

In each village selected, 20 respondents (youth beneficiaries) were randomly selected. In all, 100 respondents were selected for the interview using structured and validated interview schedule and questionnaire. Furthermore, personal interview was conducted with the officers of the FADU. The secondary data were sourced from FADU annual reports, bulletins, and journals of various relevant institutions, seminars, past projects, textbooks and newspapers. Descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequency were used to summarise the data. While Spearman's rank order correlation analysis was used to test the hypothesis of the study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Selected socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

The data in Table 1 show the distribution of respondents by socio-economic characteristics. About 43 percent of the respondents were between the ages of 26 and 30 years, 29 percent were between the ages 21 and 25 years, 22 percent were between the ages 15 and 20 years while 6 percent were between the ages 21 and 30 years. This reflects the fact that in the rural areas in which the FADU groups are located, most of the youth which FADU was dealing with were between age of 15 and 30 years. About 79 percent of youth that were participating in FADU activities were male while 21 percent were female. The population of male and female participants will probably influence the participation in-group activities. Large number of male participants will have positive influence on the group participation because male can influence females, particularly their wives to participate or not to participate in group activities. The respondents level of education was measured with respect to number of years spent in formal school. About 42 percent had between 1 and 6 years of primary school education, 41 percent had between 7 and 12 years of secondary education, 9 percent had above 13 years of tertiary education while 8 percent had no formal education. These findings are in agreement with Ekong (2003) that education broadens individual horizon to decide his level of participation in any organisation, which will be of direct benefit to him or her.

About 53 percent of the respondents were earning below ₦30,000.00k per annum, 32 percent earned between ₦30,000.00k and ₦50,000.00k per annum, 10 percent earned between ₦51,000.00k and ₦100,000.00k per annum while only about 5 percent earned ₦101,000.00k and above per annum.. The result show that the majority (85 %) of the respondents were categorised as low and perhaps middle income earners and would likely embrace FADU activities to gain from the experience of FADU experts who were perceived as experienced farmers because of their status.

Roles played by FADU in the area

Data in Table 2 show the distribution of respondents by roles played by FADU in the area. About 94 percent agreed that it promotes saving and credit scheme, 86 percent agreed that it facilitates given loans to farmers



(beneficiaries), 84 percent agreed that FADU played the role of giving information about modern agricultural practices, 78 percent agreed this it promotes adult education, 70 percent agreed that it promotes exchange visits to non FADU projects to improve farmers' skill, 62 percent agreed it facilitates improvement of community owned facilities and management of water project affectation, 42 percent agreed that it facilitates improvement in processing technologies, 28 percent agreed that it provides / supplies improved seed varieties at reduced rate, 24 percent agreed that it promotes health facilitates and 6 percent agreed that it facilitates provisions of market opportunity for farmers.

These findings are in consonance with the past studies, which confirmed that as time goes on, the more paternalistic and charity – oriented NGOs have come to the conclusion that instead of donating food, clothing and medicine along, the rural dwellers must be helped to become more self sufficient and productive (Fernandez, 1989).

Extension services of FADU

Data presented in Table 3 show the distribution of respondents by extension services of FADU. Majority (98 %) of the respondents acknowledged that FADU promotes saving and credit scheme and gives information about modern agricultural practices. About 86 percent agreed that it facilitates loans to farmers while 78 percent were of the opinion that it promotes adult education. The other extension services are in the following order: it promotes exchanges visits to non FADU project (70 %), it facilitates improved community owned facilities and management of natural resources (62 %) and 28 percent agreed that it facilitates promotion of input delivery system (Seeds and seedlings).

Hypothesis testing

Data in Table 4 show the result of the hypothesis testing. This hypothesis was tested using Spearman's rank order correlation analysis, which is a non-parametric correlation. 10 variables were used for each expected roles and performed roles and the total respondents' summation for each variable were ranked. The value of r (ρ) range from -1.00 through 0 to +1.00. The value between +0.60 to 0.90 is regarded as high relationship

between frequency counts or ranked or ordered set of data (Koleoso, 1999, and Sidney *et al.*, 1988). The result of Spearman's rank order correlation used for testing congruency between the expected roles and performed roles of FADU revealed that, there was relationship between the expected roles and performance roles and the relationship was high r (ρ) = 0.78.

With this outcome the null hypothesis of no congruence could not be accepted. Therefore, the roles performance of FADU in agricultural production of young farmers in Iwo LGA of Osun state is high, when compared to the expectation of members. In conclusion, the result shows that the null hypothesis should be rejected because there was significant differences between the expected roles and performed roles of FADU, however the difference was high r (ρ) = 0.78. The implication of this to the beneficiaries is that majority (74 %) of the members', as indicated, derived high benefits through enhanced cooperative activities introduced to them by FADU officials.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The major roles played by FADU as private agricultural extension services were shown as majority (98 percent) of the respondents indicated that it promotes saving and credit scheme, 86 percent indicated that it facilitates loans to farmers, 78 percent indicated that it promotes adult education, 70 percent indicated that it promotes exchange visits to non-FADU projects and 62 percent indicated that it facilitates improved community owned facilities and management of natural resources.

FADU should make provision for timely supply of input like loans locally made processing machineries, and improves seedlings and animal varieties on regular basis. In addition, FADU beneficiaries, the NGO (FADU) and the government of Osun state must encourage members by giving them adequate and timely information on how to market their products in a way that will enhance the income of the young farmers to enhance benefits to be derived by ground. This will invariably enhance agricultural production in Osun state.



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Table 1: Distribution of the respondents by their socio-economic characteristics
n=100

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age (years)		
15-20	22	22
21-25	29	29
26-30	43	43
31-35	6	6
Total	100	100
Sex		
Male	79	79
Female	21	21
Total	100	100
Years of formal education		
No formal education (0)	8	8
1-6 (primary)	42	42
7-12(secondary)above	41	41
13 (Tertiary)	9	9
Total	100	100
Income(N)		
30,000 and below	53	53
30,000-50,000	32	32
51,000-100,000	10	10
100,000 and above	5	5
Total	100	100

Source: Field survey, 2004



Table 2: Distribution of respondents by role played by FADU

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Promotion of saving and credit scheme'	94	94
Giving information about modern agricultural practices	86	86
Facilitating loans to farmers (beneficiaries)	84	84
Promotion of adult education	78	78
Promotion of exchange visits to non FADU	70	70
Project to improve farmers' skill	62	62
Facilitating improved community owned facilities and management of water project, afforestation	42	42
Improvement of processing technologies	28	28
Provision of improve seed varieties	24	24
Promotion health facilities	6	6

*Multiple responses

Sources: Field survey, 2004

Table 3: Distribution of respondents according to the agricultural extension services provided to young farmers by FADU n=100

Activities*	Frequency	Percentage
Promotion of saving and credit scheme	98	98
Facilitation of loans to farmers	86	86
Promotion of adult education	78	78
Promotion of exchange visits to non FADU projects	70	70
Facilitation of improvement of community owned facilities and management of natural resources	62	62
Promotion of input delivery	28	28

*Multiple responses

Sources: Field survey, 2004



Table 4: Summary of Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient of determination of the congruence between expected roles and performance role of FADU n = 100

	Activities	Expected score	Role rank	Performance role score	Role rank	d	d ²
1	Increased food production	92	1 st	66	4 th	-3	9
2	Increased household income	84	2 nd	70	2 nd	0	0
3	Improved group organisation	56	6 th	54	8 th	-2	4
4	Improved farming knowledge / skill	72	3 rd	68	3 rd	0	0
5	Better access to loan	52	8 th	48	10 th	-2	4
6	Supply improved seed seedlings	48	9 th	5	7 th	2	4
7	Supply of farm tools	46	10 th	52	9 th	1	1
8	Enhanced cooperative as activities	62	4 th	74	1 st	3	9
9	Given information on market outlet	58	5 th	62	6 th	-1	1
10	Promoted linkage with relevant institution	54	7 th	64	5 th	2	4
	Total						36

Sources: Field survey, 2004.



YOUTH INVOLVEMENT IN COMMERCIAL MOTORCYCLING-"OKADA" BUSINESS: IMPLICATION FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Faborode, H.F.B. and Ojo, T.F.

Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural development
Faculty of Agriculture,
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

This paper reviewed, in the light of the current happenings, the implications of youth involvement in commercial motorcycling (okada) business for rural development. The paper examined the genesis of "okada" business in Nigeria, rural youth empowerment, sustainable rural development and balancing the cost and benefits of youth involvement in "okada" business. It, therefore, concluded that there is need for a broad based agricultural extension service with widened focus to incorporate other aspect of rural life that will make it more relevant in the emerging non-farm business sector such as the "okada" business with the creation youth extension unit so as to advise the youth on time management, labour efficiency, entrepreneurship and farm management.

INTRODUCTION

As an agrarian developing nation, Nigeria relies very much on its agriculture for economic development. It provides job opportunities for about 80 percent of its population, with over 90 percent of agricultural production emanating from the farms of rural households (Olanuga and Salawu, 1995). The rural areas are, thus increasingly being, recognised as the key sector in which the predominant farm-family activities primarily include production of foods, fibers and raw materials for agro-industries. Also non-farm activities and vocations such as black smith, gold smith, cloth weaving, dying, tailoring etc are found in rural areas to complement agricultural production. The rural farm-families are made up of men, women, youths, and children.

The youth constitute a veritable force for rural and national development. These young men and women between the ages of 13 and 30 constitute over 32 percent of rural population (Torimiro, 1999). Rural youth in Nigeria, like in many developing nations, are very active in agricultural activities such as food production, processing, distribution and marketing. Apart from agriculture, they also participate actively in physical rural development programmes and projects such as construction works, provision of public facilities (like schools, health centres, toilets, market stalls etc). In addition, they represent the "arrow heads" of income yielding activities such as

handicrafts, sewing, knitting, weaving, black smith etc. These youth according to Ijere (1988) and

Jibowo (1989), have been characterised as possessing innovation prowess, minimal risk

aversion, fast reaction time, less conservation, greater physical strength, greater knowledge acquisition propensity, faster rate of learning, love for adventure and preference for boldness.

Although, these rural youths according to Torimiro (2006) should have constituted a major asset for rural development, it has been a major problem retaining this potent force in the rural areas. They continue to migrate to urban centres for better opportunities and those left behind in the rural areas have virtually deserted farming and non-farming activities for "okada" (commercial motorcycle) business to make quick money for daily sustenance (Ojubanire, 2006). This invariably, results in the depletion of rural labour force and the consequent abandonment of agricultural activities and non-farm occupations for old men and women who are naturally weaker. In essence, the depletion of labour force within the Nigerian rural economy via rural youth's involvement in "okada" business is a bane of sustainable rural development. It is against this background that this paper addresses the following questions: what is the genesis of "okada" syndrome? How would the youth be retained in the rural area so as to harness their potentials in sustainable rural development? How can the migrant



youth be attracted back to explore the opportunities in the rural communities? How can "okada" riders possess vocational skills to fit into their vocations?

This paper, therefore, discusses the genesis of youth involvement in "okada" business, youth and agricultural development in Nigeria, youth empowerment issues, sustainable rural development, balancing the cost and benefits of youth's involvement in "okada" business and its draw implications for rural development.

THE GENESIS OF COMMERCIAL MOTORCYCLING IN NIGERIA

Commercial motorcycling popularly known as "okada" in the South Western part of Nigeria began in the 1980s in cities like Calabar, in Cross-Rivers State, Lafia in the old Plateau State, and many other Northern States of Nigeria. "Okada" business came into prominence around 1994 as a transport and unemployment intervention measure put in place by the then military administrator of Lagos state, Brigadier General Buba Marwa. It was then called "keke Marwa" which came into existence as a result of mass unemployment coupled with incessant traffic congestion in Lagos State. It gained more prominence under the Obasanjo PDP-led government in 1999, which introduced a tricycle popularly referred to as "keke NAPEP" sold under micro credit scheme in order to alleviate poverty by providing self-employment thereby making the beneficiaries self-reliant. Gradually along the line, motorcycles which were formerly used as means of private transportation (by farmers, artisans, and other workers) surfaced like a wild fire in both urban and rural communities for commercial purposes. Today, it has become the most popular means of transportation on Nigeria roads most especially within the cities and in the villages.

Many facts are responsible for the sudden emergence and upsurge in the use of motorcycles for commercial purposes. One is the chaotic traffic problem occasioned by poor and inadequate road networks across the country. "Okada", thus, became a necessity for survival, and as a means of getting to one's destination in the shortest possible time. Two, it also gained prominence in the rural areas where vehicular movement only takes place on market days and at the mercy of rainfall, which often made

the road inaccessible for buses, lorries and taxis. Three, it is used by the government to reduce unemployment, curtail anti-social vices and subsequently engender self reliance among the youth especially, those trooping to urban centres.

Today, government and non-governmental organisations have issued both soft loans and motorbikes on credit to youth at low interest rate as a means of creating employment. Also "okada" operators who are often private individuals purchased motorbikes for youth to ride on their behalf on agreed terms. Little wonder, commercial motorcycles are so numerous on our roads today that it is now generating concerns. Also, questions are now being asked about its existence, continuity and usefulness to sustainable rural development.

RURAL YOUTH EMPOWERMENT

Youth empowerment has a crucial role to play in the development process since the youth constitute a large segment of the Nigerian economy. It is imperative that the youth be constantly sensitised, enlightened, motivated and adequately equipped for the challenges in his environment so as to become self-reliant. This can only be achieved by helping rural youth to organise themselves and take charge of their growth and development. This view is in consonance with Chamala's (1990) submission that "telling adults what to do provokes reaction, but showing them triggers the imagination, involving them gives understanding and empowering them leads to commitment and action". According to him, the term "empowerment" means to enable, to allow, or to permit and can be viewed as both self-initiated and initiated by others". Thus, in Nigeria, governments at the federal, state and local levels as well as individual and non-governmental organisations have, at different times, acted as convergent points or platforms for solving local problems and mobilising human and financial resources for sustainable development. Targeting youth empowerment in rural areas can constitute a cornerstone to achieving poverty reduction in Nigeria.

The use of commercial motorcycle engineered and popularised by the government through its micro-credit schemes for transport and employment intervention has nonetheless, helped to empower the rural youth who on getting to the cities could not get



the “white collar” job that lured them to the cities as well as those who remained in the villages after leaving schools. Although unemployed youth engaging in “okada” business have been empowered to be self-reliant, and also transportation problems may have been solved to some extent, it may be argued that “okada” business has only provided a palliative measure as a means of livelihood, which cannot be sustained leading to a question on whether it can ensure sustainable rural development.

SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The idea of sustainable development has been of interest to various schools of thought. The term “development” is used over a wide range of contexts ranging from the world of commerce and industry to the realms of social and human welfare. Hence, there is economic development, development opportunities, development funding, development aid, development assistance, regional development, social development, community development, rural development, human and youth development among others.

Sustainable development has, thus, been defined as the development that “meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987). In Nigeria, rural economy is agrarian in nature, the mass exodus of the youth to urban centres in search of white collar jobs, and in recent times to service the demand for labour in the booming business of “okada” in the cities and those operating in the rural communities, can be said to hinder rather than enhance youth’s development. Although “Okada” business provides temporary relief to the involved youth through the daily wage, it cannot be referred to as sustainable rural youth development or sustainable rural development. This is because according to Schumacher (1973), development must address the primary causes of poverty, which are “immaterial” not “material”, development does not start with goods; it starts with people and their education, organisation and discipline. Without these three, all resources remain latent and untapped potential. Youth involvement in “okada” business is at variance with the thinking expressed above. For instance, Ojubanire, 2006, reported that for the sake of “okada” business, many youth have abandoned school, they are unable to

participate in community development projects and have also abandoned farming and other non-farm skills representing the “life wire” of rural communities.

Youth development is a process of growing up and developing one’s capacity in positive ways, which typically takes place in the context of the family, peer group, school, and the neighborhood or community. Thus, Pittman (1990) defined rural youth development as “the ongoing growth process in which all the youth in the rural communities are engaged in attempting to (1) meet their basic, personal and socio-economic needs to be safe, feel cared for, be valued, be useful and spiritually grounded and (2) to build skill and competences that allow them to function and contribute in their daily lives.

The youth constituting a large segment of rural economy, which possesses high potential for performance and growth, must not be neglected. The high resources invested on rural youth today, have both immediate and long-term benefit especially where they are made to function well (Stein, 1996). It is, therefore, important to encourage a deliberate but skillful socialisation and education of the youth to become agriculturally sensitive so as to implant in them a favourable disposition towards a career in agriculture in their adult life (Adedoyin *et. al.*, 1998). Such good foundation will not only enhance agricultural productivity and continuity but will also enhance sustainable rural development and equally contribute to national economic development without sacrificing one for the other.

BALANCING THE COST AND BENEFITS OF YOUTH PARTICIPATION IN OKADA TRANSPORTATION BUSINESS

Commercial motorcycle, which is an important segment of the nation’s Intermediate Means of Transportation (IMT) is increasingly being recognised to be capable of making an enormous contribution as load carriers, meeting agricultural transportation needs and improving access to large quantities of safe water (Starkey, 2001). “Okada” riders and operators include retrenched workers, retired government workers, regular government workers, artisans and young school leavers without financial means of furthering their education,



graduates of polytechnics and universities who could not secure regular jobs. These are people who otherwise could have been engaged in social vices but have found reprieve in "okada" business. Majority of the people belonging to this group represent the economically active group in the society who are mostly male youth. Thus, "okada" has become a national phenomenon that has provided readily available jobs for the teaming unemployed youth and at the same time acted as a transport intervention measure to ameliorate the chaotic situation in the transportation sector of the nation engendered by the virtual collapse of roads constructed in the wake of the oil boom in the 1970s. Both the impetus and impact of "okada" as a transport intervention has greatly impacted not only on the economic and social aspects of urban centres but also brought about substantial change in access perceptions among rural dwellers. These changes were emphasised in a survey of market access and related issues conducted in 23 villages on the plateau in 2001 (Porter, 2001). Women in off-road villages no longer considered themselves isolated from service centres and out of touch, even though road investments have been limited. Commercial motorcycle is viewed as a life-line when medical emergencies arise, particularly in the raining season when motor vehicles have difficulties in making use of rural roads and the virtually impassable intra-city roads due to bad roads and transport congestion. Commercial motorcycles are known to be fast, swift and often referred to as the shortest means of getting to one's destination. Although, it can not be disputed that the use of commercial motorcycle has brought about many benefits to the nation in general, however, it is imperative to look into its unwanted (and often unanticipated) social, economic, agricultural, educational, health and political cost, particularly to the rural communities, which provide the bulk of the labour force required in "okada" operation.

The broader implication of youth involvement in "okada" operation can be substantial. Opportunities provided as transport intervention measure through the use of commercial motorcycles ("okada") were observed to be affecting rural development not only positively but also negatively. It is, therefore, important to consider the potential impacts of direct youth involvement in "okada" operations in the areas of agriculture, acquisition of non-farm skills,

health, social life, education, road accidents and crime rate.

COST OF YOUTH INVOLVEMENT IN OKADA BUSINESS

Just as commercial motorcycle may confer important attributes of temporary youth empowerment through daily earnings; it may equally have far-reaching negative implications for rural youth and rural development. Youth involvement in "okada" operation has increased rural-urban migration. Also, youth left behind in rural communities have shown preference for the "lucrative okada" business. This trend has impacted on the entire rural economy (which is centred on agriculture). The male dominated youth who are undoubtedly the economically active group are vigorously involved in "okada" business rather than engaging in farm related activities and community development projects. This phenomenon has not only led to dwindling interest of the youth in farm-related activities but also in non-farm activities such as tailoring, weaving, vulcanizing, blacksmithing, carving to mention a few. Youth engaged in non-farm skills tend to abandon them for "okada" business. Thus, the aged men and women are saddled with the responsibility of heavier workload in farming, continuing with specialised skills and community development projects such as road construction and other social amenities that require direct labour.

The implications of this trend is low agricultural productivity, low exposure of the youth to agriculture and specialised rural skills such as carving and blacksmithing, which may be at the verge of extinction. Thus, the sustainability of agriculture, specialised skills and rural development for future generation is threatened. Youth's involvement and preference for "okada" operation and the inducement to get daily earnings may also have negative implications on the education of the youth in the rural communities. Primary and secondary schools have been observed to enjoy low attendance by rural youth due to their preference for immediate gratification derived from "okada" business as against delayed and more sustainable gratification guaranteed by youth education. There may also be potential negative health impacts due to massive youth involvement in "okada"



business. These include non-utilisation of crash helmet, continuous exposure to adverse weather condition such as wind, rain and sunshine without wearing protective kits. These may lead to pneumonia and damage to the eyes, and persistent use of hard drugs and alcohol leading to loss of coordination, possible accident, and high risk sexual behaviour, which may lead to HIV/AIDS infection. The recklessness exhibited by the male youth dominated "okada" operators on Nigerian roads has continued to generate heated arguments as to whether their activities all over the nation are a blessing or a curse. With that haste come the risk and scars of their recklessness. Road accidents involving "okada" riders often impact particularly and severely on the health of the riders, their passengers and other road users. Many homes are today in pains and anguish as a result of loss of lives, disfigurement or total incapacitation of family members due to 'okada' related accidents. "Okada" related accidents were so common that the orthopaedic wards in Gwagwalada and Asokoro were renamed "okada" wards because most accident cases brought to this ward was "okada" related. The National Orthopaedic Hospital, Igbobi's record showed that 20 percent of the number of accident cases in 2000 came from 'okada' operators (Thisday, 2007).

From available statistics, "okada" related accidents enjoy a disproportionate number of accidents. According to Lagos State Sector Command of the Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC), 597 people have died from 2,934 accidents including 589 cases involving "okada" in the first nine months in 2006 (Thisday, 2007). In this regard, the social and economic cost of youth involvement in "okada" operation is evidently harmful to youth empowerment. Also, Amina Salisu (an aide to the erstwhile Minister of the Federal Capital Territory, Malam Nasir el-Rufai) pointed out that before "okada" was banned recently in Abuja, the accident rate was 140 (Saturday Independent, 2007). The very next month after the ban on "okada", the accident rate drastically came down to 14 from 140.

Apart from increasing the rate of road accidents, there is the increasing rate of crime resulting in cases of armed robbery, kidnappings, assassination on bikes, rapes, etc., which are vices often common among the youth involved in "okada" business. This

has necessitated some state governments in Nigeria to place a limitation on the time of operation of "okada" riders in order to curb their criminal excesses.

CONCLUSION

This paper has revealed among others, the pros and cons of youth's involvement in "Okada" business. Furthermore, it analysed youth's involvement in "okada" business in relation to sustaining the interests of the youth in agriculture and other farm-related activities without which there can be no rural development.

In order to curtail the "okada's" menace and youth's preference for the business, and enhance agricultural development, skill acquisition and sustainable rural development the following are recommended:

- (1.) Establishment of a youth extension unit that will be providing advisory services to youths involved in "okada" business and other non-farm activities on time management, labour efficiency, entrepreneurship and farm management. This unit will have as part of its mandate the duty of re-orientating the youth to embrace delayed gratification by imbibing proper education and skill acquisition rather than making quick daily money through "okada".
- (2) Establishment of skill acquisition centres in the rural areas by the Federal and State governments should be made a reality and implemented forthwith without further delay.
- (3) Sensitising "okada" riders to operate within the ambit of existing road and traffic laws in order to reduce the carnages on the roads.
- (4) Rehabilitating victims of "okada"-related accidents and those who have abandoned known vocations for "okada" to fit back to their original trade (agricultural related activities) in the rural communities.
- (5) Basic infrastructural facilities that serve as pull factor of these youth to urban areas should be put in place by the Local, State, Federal Governments to upgrade the rural areas to a befitting status, so as to attract migrant youth back to the rural communities where opportunities abound for them.



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EFFECT OF CLASS SIZE ON STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TO ACADEMIC WORK IN SOME SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN IJEBU AREA OF OGUN STATE, NIGERIA

Babajide E.A.

Institute of Education,
Olabisi Onabanjo University
Ago-Iwoye, Osun State, Nigeria.

This study examined the effect of class size on students' attitude towards academic work. A descriptive survey research design was adopted. Two sets of questionnaires were structured one for teachers and the other for students. The study was conducted in six randomly selected senior secondary schools in Ijebu Area of Ogun State. Statistical tools such as frequency count and T-test were used to make deductions. The results showed among others that there is significant difference between class size and students attitudes to academic work. It was recommended among others that government should implement policies that can curb unnecessary large classes.

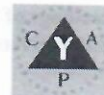
INTRODUCTION

In recent times, there had been complaints from almost all quarters of the Nigerian society that the standard of education has fallen. According to Idorenyin (2003), students' performance in Senior School Certificate Examination (S.S.C.E) administered by West African Examination Council (WAEC), and even in the ones administered by the recently established body called National Examination Council (NECO) continue to deteriorate from year to year particularly in the area of social sciences. This situation does not favour Nigeria's moves towards developing her economic sector in order to attain economic growth and development.

Isaac (2003) posited that the teacher is to be blamed for the poor performance and even when the child is blamed, explanation proffered only in terms of the child's cognitive or intellectual ability. Little or no consideration is given to the fact that the child's conception of himself or herself in the social sciences subjects can affect his or her achievement in school science generally. In his own contribution, Nwachi (1984) asserted that class size possibly affects the intelligence quotient that the child brings up in the classroom. Evidence from several studies in 1947 and 1964 in Britain showed that the greater the numbers of children in the class, the lower the measured intelligence quotient and of course the

attitude of the children towards academics, this applied to all social class levels and it became significant when the classrooms had twenty (20) or less children. This shows that the class size affects the academic performance of children.

Pupils studying in classes of 20 students or less at public primary and middle schools showed better academic performance, created a better room atmosphere and developed better relationships with teachers according to the findings of a recent survey. According to the survey, students in classes with 20 or fewer students attained higher average scores in all school subject than students in other categories both in primary and middle schools. For example, fifth-grade primary school students in classes of 20 or few scored an average of 10.11 points in a 15 points arithmetic test compared with the overall average of 9.72 points. Their scores were the best in all types of questions that guided knowledge and understanding and ability to use knowledge in practice. Toward learning, many said they would study very hard when they work on difficult subjects (Monk, 1992). Helen Pate-Bain (1992), in her report on the class size study, concluded, view education not as a mass production effort, but as a personal and individual experience. The focus is on serving clients-class-size research is not an attempt to reduce class-size, at its best it is an effort to find appropriate casework loads, because much of sound educational practice consists of individual instruction, coaching mentoring and tutoring. We've learned much recently about instructional practice and how students



learn. Yet, the controversial issue of class size and its effect on education practices and student outcome continues to be confusing and often contradictory.

Effective schools research has extended its research agenda by focusing on an expanded number of variables that are presumed to be related to student achievement. Schools are now perceived as a cultural entity where the complex interplay of multiple variables affects the lives of all who learn and teach in those institutions. As the metaphor for American schools has shifted from an assembly time to that of a caring, learning-community, the class-size research agenda has also shifted to include such variables as instructional method, teacher morale and stress teacher work load, student behaviours and attitudes, content areas, student characteristics and grade level. Bennett (1987), in a review of more research, found broad agreement among research on the following conclusion:

- (a) Smaller classes result in increased student-teacher contact.
- (b) Reductions in class-size to less than 20 students without changes in instructional method cannot guarantee improved academic achievement.
- (c) No single class-size optimal for all grade levels and subjects.
- (d) Smaller classes appear to result in greater achievement gains for students with lower academic ability and for those who are economically or socially disadvantaged.
- (e) Classroom management improves in smaller classes
- (f) Smaller classes result in higher teacher morale and reduced stress.
- (g) Individualization is more likely to occur in smaller classes.
- (h) Class size reduction alone does not necessarily lead to adoption of dramatically different instructional methods.
- (i) Class size appears to have more influence on students' attitudes, attention, interest and motivation than on academic achievement.
- (j) Smaller classes are beneficial for children at the primary level, particularly in mathematics and reading.

However, this research study shall be based on the aforementioned as a prompting issue on the background. Hence, it aimed at investigating the effect of class size on selected secondary schools in Ogun State this was for the purpose of ascertaining if class size readily has influence on students attitudes to academic work. The objectives of the study are, therefore, to: evaluate the effect of class size on students attitude to academic work; enumerate the home influencing factors on the students, attitude to academics; analyse the teacher-students relationship towards influencing students' attitude to academic work; ascertain the problems of effective teaching as a constraint to students good attitude to academics; and identify the way-out of the poor situation, that is, suggested recommendation.

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in some secondary schools that were randomly drawn from Ijebu-North Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. The schools selected for the study were: Kegbo Comprehensive High School; Molusi College, Ijebu Igbo; Ago-Iwoye Comprehensive High School; Ago-Iwoye Secondary School, Ago-Iwoye; Ansaru-Deen Girls School; and Sopen Comprehensive High School.

Questionnaires were designed and used to elicit information from the students and teachers of the selected secondary schools. These questionnaires were drawn to assess the implications of class sizes on the students' attitude to academics performance. The questionnaire was categorized into two (2) sections of two (2) forms. Sections A focus attention on the personal data of the respondent, while section B contained the question/statement relevant for carrying out the test of hypothesis. Also, the questionnaire were of two (2) forms i.e. one for the teachers and the other for students. The content validity of the questionnaires was ascertained by giving the questionnaire to experts in the area of sociology.

A Test and re-test method was used to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, which was administered in two schools. Likewise a cronbach co-efficient of alpha was ascertained at 0.76 level of significance.



RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Hypothesis I

Ho₁: There is no significant relationship between the class size and the students' attitude to academics.

The above result substantiated the hypothesis as it showed that there is a significant difference. This is because the table t-value (1.65) is less than than the t_1 calculated (2.57) at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected.

Ho₂: There is no significant difference between a student from a rich home and a student from a poor home in the academic work.

The table value (t_b) at 0.05 level of significance is 1.65 and the calculated t-value (t_c) is 0.175. The table t (t_b) is greater than the calculated t (t_c) value, the null hypothesis is upheld (accepted). This implies that there is no significant difference in academic performance of student from rich homes and those from poor homes.

Hypothesis Three:

Ho₃: There is no significant relationship between the class size and the teachers teaching ability.

The above result substantiated the hypothesis as it showed that there is a significant difference. This is because the table t - value (1.65) is less than the t_1 calculated (3.157) at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected. This implies that the teachers's ability to teach can be enhanced by reducing the number of students in the class appropriately.

Hypothesis Four:

Ho₄: There is no significant relationship between the class size and the understanding of the students.

The above result substantiated the hypothesis as it showed that there is a significant difference. This is because the table t-value (1.65) is less than the t_1 calculated (4.23) at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected.

Hypothesis Five

Ho₅: There is no significant relationship between the class size and the cultural understanding of the students.

The table value (t_b) at 0.05 levels of significance use 1.65 and the calculated t-value (t_c) is 1.31. The table t (t_b) is less than the calculated t (t_c) value, hence the null hypothesis is upheld (accepted). This implies that there is no significant relationship between the class size and the cultural understanding of the students.

The various literature and empirical work examined so far for this research have proved useful in examining the influence and impact of the class size on the students' attitude to academics. So far, also, the findings have revealed that there is a great influence of the number of students in a class on the students' attitude to academic work. Just as the various literatures examined have argued that students in a smaller or how average class perform better in academics than those in a large class. More so, research revealed in the data analysis that the students' financial background has little or no difference in their academic performance. Hence, it was argued empirically that statements from a rich home does not necessarily perform better in their academic work compared to their counterpart from a poor home.

The research also revealed from the hypotheses tested that there is a great impact of the class size on the performance or quality of the teacher, i.e. the teacher performs the teaching task better in a class of normal quantity or size, e.g. a class of less than 30 or 50 students. Computation of the t-test statistics also made a clear-cut revelation that the class size of the students in the school has no relationship with the cultural understanding of the students in terms of the norms and values of the home of such student.

Recommendations

- (a) Sufficient infrastructures should be providing in secondary schools in Ogun State.
- (b) Policies should be made that will able the control of large classes, it has been ascertained that smaller and well controlled classes will have better impact on students disposition to learning.
- (c) More teachers should be employed smaller classes will attract more teachers.



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Table 1: Relationship between class size and students' attitude to work

Respondents	N	X	SD	DF	T.cal	T.tab
Teachers	90	25.7	3.88			
Students	30	25.74	3.86	118	2.57	1.65
Total	120	51.44	7.74			

Source: Field survey, 2006.

Table 2: Relationship between the study habits of student from rich homes and students from poor homes

Respondents	N	X	SD	DF	T.cal	T.tab
Teachers	72	12.75	23.15			
Students	48	7.6	29.67	118	0.175	1.65
Total	120	20.36	52.82			

Source: Field survey, 2006

Table 3: Relationship between class size and teachers teaching ability

Respondents	N	X	SD	DF	T.cal	T.tab
Teachers	75	25.74	3.86			
Students	45	25.7	3.88	118	3.175	1.65
Total	120	51.44	7.74			

Source: Field survey, 2006



Table 4: Relationship between class size and understanding of pupils

Respondents	N	X	SD	DF	T.cal	T.tab
Teachers	75	25.74	3.86			
Students	45	25.7	3.88	118	4.23	1.65
Total	120	51.44	7.74			

Source: Field survey, 2006

Table 5: Showing relationship between class size and the cultural understanding of students

Respondents	N	X	SD	DF	T.cal	T.tab
Teachers	72	12.75	23.15			
Students	48	7.6	29.67	118	1.31	1.65
Total	120	20.36	52.82			

Source: Field survey, 2006



CULTURE AND GLOBALISATION: A GENDER PERSPECTIVE

Williams, C. O.

Tai Solarin University of Education,
Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode, Ogun State

Globalisation has become the watchword from 1990s for an important structural trend. This trend is characterised by the dynamics of an evolving world economy. It has diverse implication for developing countries of the world. This paper approached globalisation and its implication on developing countries from gender and cultural perspectives, with emphasis on the women. It discussed the concept of globalisation as it affects gender development and inequalities. In its conclusion, it justified that globalisation could be meaningful and beneficial to a country like Nigeria..

INTRODUCTION

Globalisation, a process whereby owners of capital are able to move their capital around the globe more quickly and easily resulted in the removal of state control on trade and investment. This is as a result of the spread of new information and communication technologies (ICTs). In the developing countries, Nigeria inclusive, globalisation has brought new opportunities to young women that are familiar with the new information and communication technology. At the same time, it has made a vast number of women and above over 30 years, olds redundant. This is so because they are either in declining industries or are in position of outdated skills (i.e copy typists who are not computer literate). Majority of the world's poor are women and poverty has become a major impediment to their development. In Nigeria today, many small businesses have gone bankrupt,, Living standard have fallen especially among the unemployed and lowest paid workers. It is among uneducated women that these trends have been most manifested. The heaviest burden has fallen on single mothers.

The current economic climate, that is, globalisation, has made its presence felt among most members of the populace, but the women have been especially hard hit for a variety of reasons. Many companies, multinationals, indigenous have reduced their work force. This is as a result of improved technology), which they do through mass retirement without replacement. Obviously, where this course of action is taken the women and children suffer most. Thousands of young school leavers and university graduates entering the job market for the first time are hugely affected by policies of "embargo on

employment". Competition for job is especially fierce in the absence of a corresponding increase in opportunities for work. Many of today's teenagers have little chance of finding jobs. Even those who have jobs have been sharply affected by the economic situation. The condition for work is such that employers are offering relatively meager wages in the sure knowledge that a person is likely to take up the job because there are others waiting to take his place if he leaves. More so, the chance of finding another job is slim. As a result of this situation many young women in the society find themselves doing jobs they dislike intensively but with no alternative. There has been an intensification of child labour to supplement the reduced family income. More and more girls in rural areas are deprived of their fundamental rights to education and are sent out to the cities to work as house keepers. These girls were exposed to all types of abuses, both sexual and physical (Fall, 1995).

GLOBALISATION AND GENDER DEVELOPMENT

Globalisation as a period is distinct from the preceding period because of the emergence of new types of organizations that are more flexible and mobile, due to the fact that it is being facilitated more by information technology (IT). This phase has brought new opportunities for those who have the capacity to take advantage of them, and great risk for those who do not. The result is that the costs and benefits of globalisation are unevenly distributed. Increasing globalisation could provide opportunities for women; for example, creation of new jobs is likely to be in areas that have been traditionally male fields. Redistributing access to knowledge and skills may be easier than redistributing land or accumulation of wealth via



inheritance. The challenge is to consider the complex and multidimensional concept of globalisation and gender. Given the vast scope of globalisation, this paper only touched on certain aspects likely to affect the opportunities and negotiating power of young women. (Angel, 1996:80) explains *Globalisation as a process through which finance investment, production and marketing are increasing dominated by firms whose visions and actions are not confined by national borders or national interests. Such firms continuously review their profit making options on a global basis. Their sphere of decision-making is worldwide and they continually re-adjust and change their portfolios of currencies, customers, factories and offices. Seeking to move their operations outside the full scope of national jurisdiction whenever this will boost profits*".

The effect of this is a significant increase in the speed and volume of cross-border trade, capital and information flow. Globalisation thus implies the creation of new opportunities, risks and benefits. It is also a source of social and cultural conflicts. However three factors have been facilitation for globalisation. These are, as mentioned earlier advanced technologies in communication and transportation, liberalization of trade and investment policies in a more competitive global market environment as a result of deregulation policies. And also the international interest in investing in developing countries. In the developing countries, especially Africa, it is the hinterland that is excluded from inclusion into this global economy. There is high concentration of poverty in the rural areas. Among these people are the female-headed households with young children tend to form the major percentage. Globalisation, movement of production capital therefore has corresponding implications for different groups of women (for instance, the better educated, skilled, poor illiterate). It is also clear that the interests, risks and opportunities resulting from globalisation affect different groups of women differently. What will benefit some women will have a negative impact on the others; others might not even be affected. Since globalisation leads to large scale capital mobility, and large scale movement of labour; The better educated, skilled women and single women will be at advantage over the unskilled and illiterate women. This is so because their (unskilled and illiterate) services might be irrelevant to the

current trend. For instance, it was discussed that the expansion of ready made garment industry in Bangladesh led to the rural-to-urban migration of thousands of young skilled single women. Despite the fact that working conditions are poor, these group of women (female garment workers) prefer this work to their erstwhile domestic service or agricultural labour (Keller and Monica, 1995). This boom in Asia garment industries has created a definite employment opportunity for many Nigerian women. For instance many women in Nigeria today, periodically travel to Asia to import ready made garments and other products to the country.

On the other hand, the relatively poor and less educated women are found in the service sector, this sector tends to be more labour-intensive. They work as clerks, copy typist, secretaries, office cleaners etc. They are considered by multinational and national companies to have natural nimble fingers. They are more docile and willing to accept tough work discipline. They are naturally less inclined to join trade unions than men. They are also naturally more suited to tedious, repetitious work. While men on the other hand have better chances of climbing occupational hierarchies (Elson, 1995). In many developing countries, economic adjustment programmes and contractions in public spending have led to declines in employment opportunities. In some cases, it has forced women out of the labour force. Women are often denied promotion opportunities and access to many areas of work including managerial positions). However, it is an established fact that globalisation, has led to an increase in the employment of women in the manufacturing industries, especially labour service sector and informal sector. Studies carried out by (Jockes 1995) revealed that young women now comprise about one third of all industrial sector workers in developing countries.

GLOBALISATION AND GENDER INEQUALITIES

Despite the new initiatives and commitments, the sad reality is that the situation of women is progressively deteriorating due to globalisation. The reality is that societies with greatest gender equality had grown the fastest, gender equality is crucial to development process. For the new trend to benefit all, marginalization of women must be stopped along with the feminisation of poverty.



Many men believed that women don't need money, because man pays all the bills. Others believed that women were not mature enough to occupy high leadership positions. As a result of this biased view, young girls are often denied access to education (going by tradition women don't lead), ironically many women were in agreement with this opinion. This could be partly due to international oppression on the part of those women in agreement with men, and pragmatism on the part of women who are at a comparative disadvantage in terms of education, social status etc.

The opportunities created by the process of globalisation have opened clear avenues for development, but in the case of Africa, its benefits have not been equitably distributed. This has been a sort of impediment to the advancement of women, particularly those living in the rural areas. Before the goals set in Beijing at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on women are to be realized, social development on a national scale must be strengthened. It has been observed that problems of inclusion in the new trend stem from the fact that women are very differently positioned in relation to the market in different parts of the world. In certain places, where women are socially and culturally excluded that is, they restricted to the home. . . The challenge is to find ways for them to participate. In other places, the challenge is to create markets which are more friendly to women participation.

Women remain very much in the minority among Internet users, and still face huge imbalance in the ownership, control and regulation of new information technologies. The gains of globalisation have not been equitably distributed and the gap between the rich and the poor countries is widening. The gains of globalisation have for the most part been concentrated in the hands of better-off women with higher levels of education and with greater ownership of resources (Sandrasagra 2000). It has been discovered that some of the solutions proposed for women at Beijing platform for action were largely microeconomic. Particular focus is on enabling poor women obtain access to credit in order to start small business (e.g. Agriculture loans). This effort i.e. micro credit as an enabling tool has witnessed many drawbacks. It was found that among female borrowers, there is verbal and physical aggression from male relatives after

taking out loans. The UN development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) buttresses this view when it reported that studies in Bangladesh shows that women run the risk of losing control of the loans to male relatives because they are culturally excluded from participating in markets outside their homes (Sandrasagra 2000). UNIFEM further states the:

Process of globalisation has contributed to widening gap between people and that for wider range of people to gain from globalisation, it must be reshaped to be more people-centred instead of profit centred, and more accountable to women.

Women's role have been increasing in scope because of the impact of economic reforms. Women contribute to the GDP of the nation as part of the labour force, as producers and household income generators. Women are also social service providers, in that they play the role of caretakers of the cultural heritage (mores and norms of the community). Globalisation in the promotion of its macro-economic reforms does not consider poverty elimination and gender equity. Its forces are manipulated to meet the requirement of global economy, by providing enabling environment for the private sector (in particular foreign investors). The result is a trade-off at the expense of small businesses in the informational economy such as market women, petty traders, home workers, women street vendors etc (Stwards, 1992). There is the need to invest more in the education of girls, as this will make a significant contribution to the reduction of poverty in Africa. The result will be economic development, improved community health and national welfare. As a result of lack of education and skills, low percentage of women as opposed to a higher percentage of men, participate in the formal labour force in developing countries. The majority of this low percentage tend to cluster in the lower rungs of work as unskilled and semi skilled workers. Education is crucial for economic growth and poverty reduction. Primary and secondary school education help reduce poverty by increasing the productivity of the poor, reducing early marriage (and control population) improving health and equipping people with skills needed to participate fully in the economy and society. Many girls are denied access to education because of gender discrimination. Family conditions also deny girls the opportunity to fully



realise their potentials. As a result affected girls grow up to become women, who lack the skills and education to push out of a cycle of poverty. Economically many women are still located in subsistence farming and other informal activities which bring low economic returns.

Over 10,000 women from all works of life converged in New York in early June 2000 for the Beijing review process under the theme "Women 2000: gender Equality, development and Peace for the 21st Century. As a result of the awareness created by the Beijing conference, women especially in the developing countries are bringing their unique concerns to the attention of their governments for action. These include domestic violence, lack of access to land and property, unequal pay for work of equal value and negative portrayal of their roles in society (Nduru, 2005). About 189 governments including Nigerian government committed themselves to advancing the goals of equality, development and peace for all women around the world by adopting the Beijing Platform for Action (PFA). The Beijing (PFA) called upon governments to take action in twelve critical areas of concerns identified as barriers to women's empowerment which are:

"Poverty, education, health, violence, armed conflict, the economy and decision making. Institutional mechanism for the advancement of women, human rights, media, environment and the girl-child" (Nduru 2005 :45).

The Nigerian government has since shown her commitment to PFA through the opportunity given to women especially in politics to become deputy governors. Others are given opportunity to occupy various political posts from the local to the national level in the country. Unfortunately, this has become the main yardstick by which women in Nigeria continue to measure change in relation to women empowerment (i.e. this very minimal increase in the number of women occupying political positions in the country). However, there is still a large gap between agreement reached on paper and day to day realities in developing countries of the world. A major challenge is the issue of "*Womens human and legal rights law*". Laws that affect women directly. The education of the female child for example. Such traditional practices as forced marriages, style of inheritance that favours the male and see women as the husband's property, domestic violence, child abuse. All are still in

existence. ..Various governments are playing little or no attention to this aspect which is currently being defined as violations of women's rights.

CONCLUSION:

The "New World Order" i.e. globalisation which is engineered by those who have abused, colonized, marginalized and discriminated against Africa is being imposed on us (Africa) and other developing countries viciously. This is re-colonisation coming under the names of globalisation, liberalisation of world economy, deregulation etc. The forces behind this are the rich industrialized nation states. Their transnational corporations, financial institutions which they control like the World Bank, IMF, WTO, (World trade organization) are co-operating and competing among themselves for the natural resources located in Africa, in our lands and water *they gain more power and control over the policy choices of developing countries.* The impact of this modern way of exploiting developing nations is beginning to take its toll on the masses. The result is that, there is a great resentment felt by young women who believe that they are having a rough time through no fault of theirs. The majority of the youth have no or little faith in the political institutions which show little sign of being able to alleviate their plight. Due to IMF and other policies governments are forced to drastically reduce workforce. Inflation is on the increase and there is a steady growth of unemployment rate. As a result of all these perennial problems tremendous anger can build up over a period of time. Anger that needs only a touch to set it off. In a time of one sided deep economic recession (being felt by certain proportion of the populace), affected people turn to petty crime as a means of supplementing their meager incomes. The steady growth of petty crime, widespread of violence, armed robbery, assault, money laundering cross-border illegal trade trafficking (smuggling) Internet frauds, corruption among government officials, are symptoms of a depraved economy, and general state of affairs. What constitutes correct behavior diminish as individuals lose faith in the ability of the existing order to adequately cater for their needs. Migration to find employment (child trafficking inclusive) is an increasing response to poverty and unemployment. And in trying to meet the needs of them selves and the children women face increasing crisis in their relations to men. (Suisman 1995)