Changing Social Values, Transparency and Sharp Practices: Impacts on Agricultural and Rural Development

PROCEEDINGS

of the

24th ANNUAL NATIONAL Congress

of the

Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN)

held at

LADOKE AKINTOLA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, OGBOMOSO, OYO STATE

Between

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GENERAL INFORMATION

The Nigerian Rural Sociological Association (NRSA) was formed on January 7, 1981. Its inaugural congress was held from November 7 to 11, 1983 with the theme "Agriculture and Social Development in Nigeria".

NRSA is a broad-based professional association with membership cutting across universities, agricultural research institutes and other agricultural/rural development agencies both from the public and private sectors. Membership is open to all professionals who are interested in advancing the development of the rural folks.

This volume is the proceeding of the 24th Annual National Congress held at Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomoso, Oyo state between 11 and 15 October 2015. The papers contained herein were peer reviewed before publication.

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Content

ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCE OF CORRUPTION IN AGRICULTURAL/RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND REMEDIAL STEPS

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Being a paper presented at 24th Annual Congress of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN) held on 12th October, 2015 at Ladoke Akintola University of Technology Ogbomoso

INTRODUCTION

What is Corruption?

Corruption is a very popular word believed to be posing one of the world's greatest challenges at the moment which constitute a major hindrance to sustainable development especially in developing countries, including Nigeria. Considering the diverse perspectives of corruption, the term may be considered as having different meanings to different people, race, or class. To some, it is just a way of life and there is no big deal about it, while to others it is a grave sin that should not only be avoided and deserves attached punitive measures towards offenders. It is therefore pertinent to establish what we understand by the term 'corruption'. Different people have come up with different definitions and understandings of what exactly corruption is. Corruption according to Transparency International (2010) is the abuse of entrusted power for private gain. It is said to exist whenever any individual placed in a position of trust misuse the authority granted to him or her for personal gain or the benefits of others. Nye (1967) defined corruption as "…behaviour which deviates from the normal duties of a public role because of private-regarding (family, close private clique), pecuniary or status gains; or violates rules against the exercise of certain types of private-regarding influence. This includes such behaviours as ***bribery*** (use of rewards to pervert the judgment of a person in a position of trust); ***nepotism*** (bestowal of patronage by reason of ascriptive relationship rather than merit); and ***misappropriation*** (illegal appropriation of public resources for private-regarding uses)" Corruption is as old as human existence as there had been widespread illegality and corruption since ancient civilisation beginning from ancient Egypt, Israel, Rome and Greece down to the present day (Dike, 2003, Lipset and Lenz 2000). It is therefore important to note that corruption is not peculiar to any continent, country, region, ethnic group or political class. It may be found in both political and bureaucratic offices and may be petty or grand, organized or unorganized. It is factual that there are traces of corruption everywhere in the world. It exists in all countries, both developed (USA, Europe, Australia) and developing (Africa, Asia), in the public and private sectors, as well as in non-profit and charitable organizations. Two major differential factors in how weighty corruption gets across nations of the world include the perception of corruption by the people and the political will to fight it. The level of corruption can largely be influenced by societal cultural dictates and value systems. While in some societies, morality has been jettisoned and corruption is almost unavoidable being taken as a way of life, to others, corruption is totally unacceptable and the corrupt are adequately punished.

It is very unfortunate and pathetic to note that our country Nigeria is one of those countries where corruption is now seen as a way of life. Our leaders as well as the followers are corrupt and the "cancer" has defied all the necessary medicines. The culture of corruption has now extended to every aspect of our public life such that the slogan now is "if you cannot beat them you join them". We have reached a stage where honesty is no longer seen as the best policy but rather as foolishness; and hard work, as not being smart. People display their ill-gotten wealth without being questioned of its source nor do they get prosecuted by the government even when indicted while the society still refer to such individuals as role models. For the convicted individuals, they explore plea bargain as a soft landing while some are welcomed back from prison in a heroic and grand manner, heading straight to the place of worship for thanksgiving. According to Ariyo (2006), "the level of corruption in the country has gone beyond mere corruption but leaning more on the side of insanity on the part of eminently corrupt Nigerians. Out of the 175 ranked countries in the world, Nigeria was ranked 136th with countries like Ghana, Mozambique etc doing far better than Nigeria (Transparency International, 2014). The country has consistently been ranked over the years as being in the top 7 per cent of most corrupt countries in the world. Of course this is not a statistics to be proud of as it is disgusting and deplorable.

Corruption in Nigeria's Agricultural Sector

Corruption in Nigeria remains one of the most menacing obstacles to the nation's agricultural development and consequently, poverty alleviation. The present poor state of food security in the country can be partly attributed to failed policies and outright manipulation of strategies by public office holders for personal financial gains.

Corruption distorts agricultural policies, undermines political developments, democracy, economic development, the environment to mention a few. Corruption issues affect land title and tenure, credit availability, quality of supplies, product standard and certification, water allocation, marketing and development of agribusiness. The Nation's agricultural sector over the years has been fraught with greed and corruption. If we are not careful, corruption may kill us. This is because more than 70 per cent of the nation's populace earn their living from agriculture and if this group of people who produce the food we eat cannot succeed because of corruption, then my assertion about the lethal nature of corruption may soon become a reality. There is a direct correlation between our standing as a nation and the development of agriculture (Omotesho, 2015). Corruption is not only a bane of our agricultural development it is also inimical to sustainable development and has largely defied present and past efforts to stymie it. The situation is more worrisome given that the poor are often the most affected. According to Bottelier (1998) "Corruption is a double jeopardy for the poor and unprotected, they pay a high share of monopoly rents and bribes, while they are often deprived of essential government services."

The Nigeria agricultural sector epitomises all forms of corruption ranging from fraud and embezzlement to bribery, extortion, appropriation of resources for personal use and influence peddling.

Corruption in the Nigeria agricultural system arises under the following circumstances

i. **Government contracts**: Bribes are given to influence "successful" bidders of agricultural project contracts; the terms of the contract; and even the quality of the projects which end up being compromised. Corruption during the procurement process affects development in several ways. Dolling out huge sums of money to bribe government officials in the course of pursuing agricultural projects contracts usually have a direct impact on the cost of executing the projects and invariably result in the government paying more so that the firms can recoup the costs of bribery, huge government funds are therefore expended on small projects that can only serve a fraction of the agricultural community. Bearing in mind these funds could have been put to alternative uses in the nation which had to be forgone for these bogus projects to get executed. It is pertinent to note that corruption does not only affect the cost of agricultural projects but also the quality of the projects. This is particularly so when firms bribe inspectors and regulators to avoid meeting contract provisions or product standards. Corrupt firms rather than invest in productive measures, spend so much scarce resources in cultivating government contacts and to remain in business.
ii. **Government benefits**: This is often the most common avenue for corruption in the agricultural sector. People bribe to access government credits and subsidies even when it is apparent that they do not qualify for such financing schemes. Such has also been the case where individuals and companies strive and lobby in securing licenses and permits to engage in lucrative agricultural activities like importing certain agricultural products e.g. rice in high demand and in short supply. This often results in poor quality products, undelivered goods and high prices. Worst still is that most of these service providers either divert most of the inputs meant for farmers use or make such inputs highly inaccessible to farmers. Such inputs like fertilizers, pesticides, insecticides and others rarely get to the target audience at the right time and in the right quantity. According to the immediate past minister of agriculture, Dr. Akinwumi Adesina, Nigeria lost over N776 billion ($4.8 billion) to corruption or an average of N 26 billion annually in the seed and fertilizer sector between 1980 and 2010. During this period, over N873 billion ($5.4 billion) was spent on fertilizer subsidies of which not more than 11 per cent of farmers received the inputs (The Sun Newspaper, 2014). Government officials force farmers to pay unnecessary fees and percentage before granting them credits which ordinarily they are entitled to. The introduction of the Growth Enhancement Support (GES) scheme in 2012, which seeks to bypass fraudulent middlemen by distributing subsidised fertiliser and other agricultural inputs directly to farmers enabling them to buy two bags at N 2,750 each was a good step in the right direction. However, the system is bedevilled with its own form of corruption. For example and as experienced in some states, farmers were invited to come and pick up their fertilizers but they were not given. Its either the workers were not there, or when there, they complained of delay in the delivery of the inputs. There were cases of nepotism, malfeasance and racketeering; some farmers had to pay bribes to get what belonged to them by paying more than the pegged price. In some states, farmers had to pay for the seeds that were supposed to be given to them free of charge while in some others, the subsidized inputs meant for the farmers were sold to traders, civil servants and other impostors who were not farmers and then the names of the actual farmers were ticked off in the register as having taken their allocation.

iii. **Government revenue**: Bribes are given by agricultural entrepreneurs to reduce the amount of taxes, fees, dues, custom duties, and other public utility charges. This invariably limits government's ability to execute community development projects in the rural areas.
iv. **Time savings and regulatory avoidance**: bribes are given to speed up the granting of permission, licenses and permits to carry out activities that are perfectly legal. This is the so-called "grease money" to turn the wheels of bureaucracy more smoothly, speedily and hopefully in the right direction. Producers often attempt to bribe produce inspectors in a bid to get the desired certification.
v. **Influencing outcomes of legal and regulatory processes**: bribes are given to provide incentives to regulatory authorities to refrain from taking action, and to look the other way, when private parties engage in activities that are in violation of existing laws, rules and regulations. In most cases these monitoring and evaluation are not actually done. At most what is done is that personnel who are trusted with these responsibilities sit down in their offices and conjure up report that may not have any bearing with the true position of the existing programme. The government spends billions of Naira to fund subsidy programmes but commit only fewer resources to monitor them effectively.

Consequence of Corruption

The consequence of corruption in the Nigerian agricultural sector is devastating and killing. High levels of corruption stand at the epicentre of the food insecurity problems. Corrupt governments cannot be expected to develop and implement sound long-term agricultural policies, including land tenure and water management, against a background of institutional instability.

Corruption widens the already yawning gap between the rich and the poor rural farming households. It inhibits social and economic development, impacting negatively on attempts by international as well as regional development institutions to fight hunger and famine coherently and systematically. It deprives ordinary citizens of the benefits that should accrue to them even in the presence of plenty.

A corrupt system is a demoralising system and discourages people from working together for the common good. People are no longer encouraged to go into agriculture because they feel it is a long way to getting rich or making it to the top. In some cases, how people behave in a society depends on their perception of other people's behaviours. Individuals who ordinarily would not get involved in corrupt practices have decided there is no alternative but to focus their intellectual energy away from legitimate productive, but less rewarding pursuits to figuring out ways to 'get around' the system. This is very harmful to food security and economic growth. Corruption is highly detrimental to our agriculture and our farmers. Year in, year out, resource-poor farmers in rural areas have complained about being neglected, and it has become apparent that corruption in agricultural practices brings about unequal and limited access to productive resources and outputs. It undermines economic development by generating considerable market distortions and inefficiencies.

Empirical evidence has shown that high levels of corruption are associated with lower levels of investment. In a corrupt environment, prospective investors in the agricultural sectors are wary of putting their money into the development of the sector because they may be required to pay so much money in bribes in acquiring the necessary inputs and required documentation.

Corruption in the agricultural sector is regressive in the sense that its costs and negative economic impact tend to fall more heavily on the poor resource farmers and agropreneurs who make up a larger percentage of the sector. It often results in increased costs of inputs, and consequently the cost of food production thereby hurting the economy and impoverishing the farmers even further.

Elite Capture of Agricultural Projects

Another serious form of corruption in the agricultural sector is the elite capture of agricultural projects. This is particularly more worrisome because it occurs among members of the community that are supposed to be the arrow heads of agricultural development projects. Elite capture is the frequent tendency of local elites (local individuals or groups with disproportionate access to social, political, and economic power) to dominate or capture participatory projects (Mansuri and Rao 2004; Dasgupta and Beard 2007). One good example of elite capture is the misappropriation or illegitimate re-distribution of agricultural inputs by local implementers or politicians influencing the target of the program so that it benefits them more directly, instead of the people the project is designed to help. This is highly abnormal and treacherous because the members of the community are supposed to be more concerned about the development of their source of livelihood than anyone else. It is very unfortunate that most Nigerians, being so myopic, have allowed greed to becloud their common sense of reasoning to the extent that they only care about the present and their personal gain at the expense of the larger society. The painful thing is that this form of corruption is very difficult to control because these are people that are educated and are supposed to be the drivers of agricultural

development in the community. In a popular Yoruba adage, we will say "kokoro ti n je efo, inu efo lo wa".

Recommendations

Though completely eradicating corruption in the agricultural sector might be an uphill task, the following recommendations will prove essential in dousing the challenge.

Strengthening the Judicial System - There is no way we can fight corruption without a vibrant and uncompromising judicial system. We must move away from the era when only those that steal goats and hens are sent to jail whereas, those that steal in billions if not trillions are celebrated or at worse they end up in what is now termed "plea bargain". It will be good to take a clue from the Chinese court that jailed the former vice president of Agricultural Bank of China Ltd for life for accepting more than 30 million Yuan ($4.80 million) in bribes (The Reuters, 2015). No matter how highly placed an individual may be, the person must be made to face the full wrath of the law if found guilty of corruption. In Nigeria this is often not the case. What we have most times is endless court cases with very little or no conviction. A common excuse given is "lack of evidence to prosecute the alleged criminal". We are fast getting to a stage where the citizens are beginning to doubt the efficacy of the nation's judicial system and anti-corruption agencies. What is frustrating is that Nigeria has the financial resources to fight corruption and develop proper law enforcement agencies. The corrupt has to be stopped from getting away with it. But if the judiciary is itself corrupt, the problem is compounded and the public at large without rule of law

Creating Environment for Checks and balances - Placing a large amount of responsibility on one person can make a project vulnerable to corruption. The more activities public officials control or regulate the more opportunities exist for corruption. Environment for checks and balances have to be created and this entails the incorporating of various reviewers and approval processes in decision making. Efforts should be made to limit the discretionary power of public officials in distribution to the private sector. The nation should not grant too much discretionary powers to officers who are in position to grant favour to others (businessmen in particular), such as officers who are in charge of distributing agricultural inputs. These officers often create artificial scarcity to attract bribes from the desperate farmers.

Participatory Approach to Developmental Projects - Incorporating local people in agricultural development projects would minimize corruption among practitioners in the agricultural sector. This however depends crucially on providing an enabling institutional environment, which requires government's commitment, and accountability of leaders to their community to avoid elite capture of the agricultural projects. It has become apparent that there is a greater need to consult with farmers not only about the questions that they wish resolved (Campbell and Sayer, 2003), but also on the manner in which the issues preventing access to various solutions, including technologies, could be resolved (Twomlow *et al*., 2008a). The process must be farmer centred, fully involving the intended beneficiaries from the early stages of problem identification through to adaptation Twomlow *et al*., 2008b).

As intended beneficiaries of the project, it is expected that the intended beneficiaries of the project will work to ensure the success of the projects. The broader the ownership of a project,the narrower the avenue for corruption. By all logic, therefore, anti-corruption strategies should work to greatly enhance participation in the design, implementation and evaluation of programs to improve accountability.

Security of employment and the professionalism in public service - The less secure a public official perceive his job to be, the greater the incentive for such public official to pursue self-serving rather than public-serving ends. The situation is made worse when limited funds meant for professional development, training and motivation of employees is either diverted or not released for the purpose after due approval has been given by appropriate authority. The fact that civil servants in the country go for months without getting paid their wages also does not help matters. Aside from encouraging corruption, low and delayed pay has other detrimental effects on the attitudes and performance of public employees. It contributes to dwindling motivation, low morale, increased inefficiency, moonlighting, absenteeism, loss of self respect and dignity. Hence, rather than considering the matter only from the corruption point of view, a more wide-ranging civil service reform programme, including adjusting salaries to cover the living expenses of an average family when inflationary expectations have been brought under control should be given careful and serious attention.

Societal Reforms and Ethics - No initiative whether on food security or poverty alleviation or anything else will work in the absence of ethical public behaviour. To tame the surge of corruption in Nigeria, the general population needs to be re-orientated to a better value system. The lack of ethical standards throughout the agencies of government and business organizations in Nigeria is a serious drawback. According to Bowman (1991), *ethics* is action, the way we practice our values; it is a guidance system to be used in making decisions. The issue of ethics in both the private

and the public sector encompasses a broad range, including a stress on obedience to authority, on the necessity of logic in moral reasoning, and on the necessity of putting moral judgement into practice (Bowman 1991). Preaching the gospel and practice of virtue is the ultimate solution to behavioural change and reduction in corruption. To win the war on corruption, adherence to ethical standards in decision-making must be the foundation of the nation's policies. Without ethics in the conduct of the affairs of the nation, the apparent wars on corruption might just end up in futility. Emphasis should be placed on age-long value of hard work, honesty, and integrity as well as due process, accountability, and transparency in the public service. We as members of the public have a huge role to play by insisting on honesty and integrity in government and business. We must see reasons why we should not pay bribes but rather report incidents of corruption to the authorities and why we should teach our children the right values of honesty, hard work and integrity.

Appropriate Punishment and Enforcement - Applying appropriate and commensurable punishment to corrupt acts is crucial to promoting the culture of accountability and probity in the agricultural sector. The popular saying is that corruption cannot be wiped out completely in any sector but evidences from Scandinavian countries have shown that a corruption free society is possible when perpetrators are adequately punished for their corrupt practices. Though paradoxically, Nigeria has over the years instituted some corruption-fighting commissions among which are- the Code of Conduct Bureau, Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC), Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) yet the level of corruption in various sectors remain alarming due to lack of political will to appropriately sanction the corrupts. It is one thing to institute anti-corruption agencies and another thing to impartially enforce appropriate sanctions. Without enforcement, tough laws have no impact on reducing corruption and may foster general cynicism about reform efforts. The best law has no value if it is not enforced.

Education of Farmers - An uneducated farmer is an ignorant farmer. However, ignorance is not an excuse in the court of law. It is therefore essential that farmers and other players in the agricultural sector be educated on the need to be morally upright. Education of the farmers will increase their level of awareness and improve their access to information. This will make them to be more conscious of their right and give them the courage to ask questions when they feel they are being cheated. Being equipped with the appropriate knowledge through education will empower the farmers to become part of the solution to the problem rather than the victims of corruption.

Centre for Democracy and Governance (1999) had articulated some anti-corruption measures which if applied to the agricultural sector will go a long way in reducing corruption in the sector:

Privatization: Privatization offers a clear means to limit the authority of government vis-a-vis transfer of ownership and administrative control to an efficient holding. By removing the government from some economic activities; it eliminates bureaucracy and corruption in procurement and financial contracts. The prospects of privatization led to the cliché 'Government has no business doing business'; However, the process of privatizing government enterprises and agencies itself could be vulnerable to corruption. To ensure the integrity of the process, privatization requires special measures of transparency and thus should have adequate regulatory and commercial legal framework to protect consumers and investors.

Liberalization: This offers a more straightforward means to limit government's authority. Eliminating tariffs, quotas, exchange rate restrictions, price controls and permitting requirements could simply strip officials of the power to extract bribes. At the same time, removing such controls reduces transaction costs, eliminates bottlenecks and fosters competition. This also illustrates the point that dismantling controls, getting rid of subsidies, preventing price distortions, and "getting prices right" in general, form a key element in economic reforms and for the establishment of a properly functioning market economy. Unfortunately, corruption places severe constraints on a country's capacity to undertake economic reforms. This is because reforms require greater transparency, accountability, free and fair competition, deregulation, and reliance on market forces and private initiative, as well as limiting discretionary powers, special privileges, and price distortions

Freedom of information legislation: This will improve accountability by enhancing the transparency of government operations. It counteracts official secrets acts and claims of national security that impede corruption inquiries. Freedom of information legislation also informs citizens of the procedures for government services, curtailing attempts to subvert the system or to demand gratifications for information that legally should be public. Activities carried out by the press and public prosecutors in the leading industrial countries to investigate and expose bribery have created greater public awareness of the problem. A responsible press is essential to gather, analyse, organize, present and disseminate information to create greater public awareness and to provide the momentum for undertaking

CONCLUSION

Agriculture remains a critical component for economic development and food security in our country today. It is the mainstay of the majority of the rural people and a critical component for poverty reduction. If corruption in the agricultural sector is allowed to continue, then our goal of becoming one of the top 20 economies in the world by the year 2020 is only a mirage. There is no doubt that a lot of money will be saved and available for agricultural and community development if corruption is eliminated from the agricultural system in Nigeria. A corruption-free agricultural sector will attract foreign investors, international development funding, increase foreign direct investments, and reduce poverty. To achieve this feat however, it behoves on all of us to always act with integrity, conscientiousness and fear of God. We must all accept the fact that *fanning the embers of corruption is the culture of impunity*. In the words of Bess Myerson, "the accomplice to the crime of corruption is frequently our own indifference." all parts of the society must share the responsibility for curtailing corruption because all are willing or unwilling participants. If we must get out of this quagmire, there has to be a complete value reorientation in our system. The war against corruption has to be fought from the three axes of prevention, detection, and commensurable punishment for the corrupt. The government must put mechanisms in place for citizens to hold authorities to account on matters of corruption.

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CHANGING SOCIAL VALUES, TRANSPARENCY AND CORRUPTION IN AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA: REFLECTIONS FROM PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

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Being a paper presented at 24th Annual Congress of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN) held on 12th October, 2015 at Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomoso

Preamble

Let me thank the president of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria and the organizing committee of this congress for giving me the opportunity to be here to add my voice to the discussion of this very important topic on which Nigerians have heard so many voices for almost as long as this country has been in existence. One day can hardly pass without one hearing people talk about corruption in Nigeria. Interestingly, everybody seems to have similar opinion in public that corruption is bad. Yet it does appear to some of us that the same people who shout the loudest in public about how bad corruption is, would seem to be the ones who go into their closets plotting or greedily scheming on how to outsmart the system put in place to check or prevent corruption. More often than not, one gets to hear that the same loud and passionate voices are later indicted in corruption related misdemeanor. Indeed when one read about or listen to Nigerians speak passionately about corruption in the popular media one begin to wonder if those perpetrating it are some aliens from another world.

Distinguished ladies and gentlemen, although corruption is widely discussed in Nigeria, evidence-based analyses on this subject in the area of agriculture and rural development are scanty. Our analysis in this paper will be supported by personal experience during our rather very short stint in government and I believe this is the reason I was invited to come and speak.

Changing social values

Social values are set of rules, norms, principles, morals ethics, standards and ideals of behavior held as collectively acceptable by a group of people in a society. These determine the collective understanding and interpretation of the concept of good or evil, moral or immoral, pleasant or unpleasant etc. These shape the actions and guide the behavior of members of a community or society.

When we talk about changing social values, we are saying that our interpretation of good and bad, moral and immoral, obnoxious and pleasant etc. might appear to have been or is being somehow altered. I would like to tell this story to illustrate this interpretation. When I was growing up as a young boy in the 60s, I had a friend who lived in the same street. We went to the same primary school. His father's house was just behind our own. So we played together, made toys, shared toys and exchange play objects. Some of the common play objects then are bicycle wheel, used motorcycle tires, and used motor tires (which were not really common then). We played with these objects by wheeling them down the streets and running and beating with stick or bare hand as they rolled bye.

One fateful evening, my friend found an unusual huge play object which apparently was a used and abandoned truck tire. I saw him beaming with excitement, waving glowingly as he pushed the huge tire passed by my house. "Lucky boy" I thought, because my own father would not approve of me rolling that kind of strangely huge play object down the street. If he found me with it, he would question how I came about it and forbid me form keeping it. How wrong I was! His father was just like mine; strict, disciplined and uncompromising. Not long after he passed my house, I saw my friend sad-faced, returning with his father with cane in one hand, tears rolling down my friend's cheeks and the massive tire wobbling lazily ahead of him as he laboriously rolled it back to where he found it. What happened? My friend had received a good spanking from his father for bringing such a strange toy around the house and had forced him to return it to where he found it or to whoever gave it to him.

Looking back at what happened in that story, if a child comes home from school with a strange toy today, would parents even notice? Most parents would not, because they are too busy making a living! If my friend as an adult and also a parent now, comes back to our town today with an aircraft would anyone care about how he got the money to buy it? Would anyone raise eyebrows? Has our collective sense of morality changed from what it was then, now? Answers to these questions are a reflection of whether or not our social values are changing.

Transparency and corruption

Transparency means openness and accountability in conducting government or private business or social transactions in a community, organization or country. Transparency International (TI) an independent global watch dog defines corruption as the abuse of entrusted power for

private gain, in public and private sectors. It is further described as abuse of position, bribery and secret deals. According to TI, countries are scored based on assessments of the prevalence of bribery of public officials, embezzlement of public funds, kickbacks in public procurement, and questions about the effectiveness of public anti-corruption efforts. TI scores countries on a 10-point scale, with zero being the most corrupt (Table 1). The average score of Nigeria on this scale in the last ten years is just about 2.5 indicating as expected, very serious levels of corruption in the country with us almost in rank with countries like Somalia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Uganda and Sudan.

Corruption in our own context in Nigeria might not require any careful or rigorous definition. It is easy for anyone in Nigeria to understand what it means because of its pervasive nature. The evidence of corruption is visible all around us. Bad roads often reconstructed every four years by successive administrations at huge costs; huge budgets for development that never materialize; over bloated contracts which are never executed; and politicians' ostentatious lifestyles as a result of sudden wealth obtained through stolen public funds. Many people in Nigeria would therefore understand corruption to mean any form of perversion, manipulation of the process of accessing public goods and services or subversion of due process to get things done. Bawa et al (2013) described corruption as an age-long phenomenon that has been known to pose a serious challenge to developmental efforts of many developing countries of the world in the areas of agriculture, education, economy, and politics as well as in social spheres of human existence.

Corruption and Agricultural development in Nigeria

Our focus in this section of the discussion is how corruption has affected agriculture and rural development. Nigeria has a fast growing population of over 150million people. About 65 percent of this population is believed to be involved in the agriculture sector of the economy. Despite this fact the growth rate of food production estimated at an average of 6 percent per annum in the last decade has not kept pace with the growing population. This has led to huge food deficits with staggering amount of funds expended on importing food which on its own has become a source of corruption. The nature of farming is changing in Nigeria as the farm population ages, rural male workers are migrating to urban areas, and many rural areas are rapidly becoming urbanized particularly in the south western part of the country.

Corruption in government contracts for agricultural input supplies is a common occurrence everywhere in Nigeria. Somebody once asked this question: If all government agencies, ministries of agriculture and other public institutions responsible for servicing the agricultural sector in Nigeria are closed down today, will farmers protest? The answer to this question is, no. Farmers will not protest simply because famers may not see these organizations as supportive or beneficial to them.

A State governor once closed down the Agricultural Development Programme (ADP) in his state. According to him, the agency was irrelevant as far as agricultural development was concerned. Farmers did not protest. Although the idea of closing down the ADP in itself is not a good one, it only goes to show how unpopular public institutions are to the people who are supposed to be the primary beneficiaries of their activities and services. This mainly is a result of public perception of these institutions particularly as far as corruption is concerned.

Another very common corruption related practice among public agriculture agencies is poor quality of goods and services, undelivered goods and inflated prices which are typical outcomes of collusion between government officials and private sector firms. An example is a government agency procuring fertilizer from a private sector company at an inflated price and receiving a share of the profit. This invariably increases the cost of agricultural production and eliminates competition in the fertilizer industry as other firms have little chance of winning government contract. The last administration at the centre dealt with this problem by introducing E-wallet as part of the Agricultural Transformation Agenda of the administration. This substantially curbed corruption in the management of subsidy on fertilizer in the last four years. We are made to understand that other African countries are coming in droves to study the system. This system needs to be sustained in order to continue to reap its beneficial effects.

We had some personal experiences of how corruption develops in the management of fertilizer subsidy when we served as Commissioner for Agriculture in Ekiti State. Here is one story. Ekiti State indented for over 9000 metric tons of fertilizer from the Federal government. The indentation was made before our appointment as Commissioner. On assumption of duty, we reviewed the whole process and suggested that the fertilizer could be used over a period of at least three years. The state would save a minimum of N3 billion if this was done because the cost of fertilizer for that year deducted at source from the state allocation was over 1billion Naira. The entire state has just a little above 450,000 hectares of arable land. Less than 60 percent of this was under cultivation at any particular time. The annual fertilizer consumption by farmers should be within a range of 2000 and 3000 metric tons. With the cooperation of the State governor we went ahead

and repaired all the fertilizer stores in all the sixteen local government areas in the state and ensured that fertilizer was dropped in all the local governments in preparation for our plan to keep about 6000 metric tons for the next two or three years.

The officer in charge of marketing fertilizers was opposed to my suggestion. He came to me privately to educate me on why the State indented for such a huge quantity of fertilizer. He then counselled that this was the only way Commissioners and political office holders made money. I cautioned him and got him transferred to another unit so that he would not impede our plans to save funds for the state.

Unfortunately, a few months later, the governor's election was nullified and an interim government took over. The interim government, we were later informed, sold the over 9000 metric tons of fertilizer to northerners just a few days after taking over.

The man in charge of fertilizer marketing then, whom we transferred to another unit would later confirm this incident through an angry text message sent to me as he announced his retirement early this year i.e. seven years after the incident. I would have quoted the text message exactly the way he sent it but he mentioned specific names that could get such people into trouble if I did. He was angry because we did not allow him to defraud the state and make easy money as he was transferred to a different unit of the Ministry of Agriculture.

The reason for telling this story here is to show that civil servants are the brains behind most corruption cases in public institutions in Nigeria. As soon as a political appointee takes office, the first assignment of civil servants is to study the appointee carefully and determine whether or not he would be a willing ally in fraud and embezzlement of public funds. Once this is established all other things begin to fall in place. We do not believe that any politician can steal one kobo of public funds without the consent and collusion of civil servants. They understand the routes and leakage points. They deliberately create loop holes which they exploit when the opportunity presents itself, and more importantly they know how to cover the tracks once the deal is sealed.

We had a story similar to the earlier one regarding sharp practices in procurement. But this time, procurement of tractors was involved. The contract for the procurement of 15 tractors for the state ministry of agriculture was awarded by an administration preceding our own. But it was executed during our tenure. The contractor is the son of an ex-military governor in another part of the country. He came in with refurbished tractors instead of new ones. The tractors supplied are Belarus Tractors with the configuration and morphology of 1970s model instead of 2008 model. The refurbishment and painting were so shabbily done that we could see fresh paints on the hoses and points where there should be no paints. The repainting was probably carried out in a local workshop here in Nigeria. It was so distinctly obvious!

We rejected the tractors on behalf of the state government and told the contractor to supply new ones. Of course the contractor attempted bribing us to accept the tractors as new, we warned everyone connected with the deal that whoever received bribe risked dismissal. Meanwhile, tractors imported into Nigeria are supposed to obtain certification from the National Centre for Agricultural Mechanization (NCAM) in Ilorin. This contractor got certification despite the fact that the tractors were not new. On verification from NCAM, the officer in charge confirmed the certification but explained that the tractors were certified not as new but for their compatibility and ability to operate efficiently in our environment and terrain.

As we can see from the foregoing story, even though several layers of checks and safety nets are put in place by government to prevent fraud and corruption, contractors, civil servants and politicians usually devise crafty and creative ways of circumventing these checks. We were informed that as soon as the administration we served left office, the tractors were accepted and the remaining contract funds released. Four years later, we found out that none of the fifteen tractors purchased then was working. This is not only a monumental loss to the State government but also a huge drain on the resources of the state. The minimum lifespan of a truly new tractor is about ten years. Funds that would have been gone into other development initiatives would have to be redirected to procurement of another set of tractors.

Another major area of activity of public institutions which constitute a source of corruption in the agriculture sector is in product standards and certification. Before farmers were encouraged to form cooperatives for the purpose of produce inspection and certification there were reports that individual producers often bribe produce inspectors to get the desired certification. The development of multipurpose and producer cooperative groups in the 70s with significant focus on produce quality assurance and improvement centres in rural communities helped support objective grading of products by pooling produce for inspection thus eliminating the opportunity for individual producers to offer bribes. This is why our raw cocoa and groundnuts rated very high in the international markets and attracted premium prices over a long period of time. Today the story is different. Deregulation has brought in crooks and charlatans who hardly care about standards and who do not know what to look for in the certification of produce for export. Consequently

our agricultural products get to the international markets only to be underprized or rejected outright.

With the increasing number of Africans resident in Europe and America, the market for agricultural produce from Africa increased substantially in the last two decades. Unfortunately, Nigeria has not been able to tap adequately into these markets because of inability to meet phytosanitary and other produce standards. This is fallout of the sharp practices in pre-shipment produce inspection and other similar corrupt practices. Smaller countries like Ghana, Togo, Cot D'Ivoire and East African countries have been reaping bountiful profits from export of produce to these countries.

Another area where opportunity for corruption in government agencies is created is in product pricing and sale. Where government agencies buy of inputs such as agrochemicals, seeds and equipment for distribution to farmers or for resale, many civil servants compromise their integrity and solicit bribes in return for favours. Fink (2002) noted that agriculture marketing boards create opportunities for corruption in the developing world. These parastatal boards according to him, provide a marketing avenue for producers, but often deliver smaller profits to farmers than a competitive market would provide because of embezzlement or because the boards hold down food costs to consumers. The ability to set price independent of market forces creates a further source of corruption. Private sector agribusinesses are necessary for supplying inputs, processing food, transporting and marketing of agricultural products, yet corruption also impedes agribusiness development. The licensing and permits for transportation, storage, processing and business startup are sources of corruption, which according to Fink (2002) put a check on the development of competitive agribusiness.

Subsidized credit is necessary for the growth of the agriculture sector in Nigeria. Federal and state governments have always created opportunities for subsidized credit for farmers over the years. Numerous cases of nepotism, bribery, favoritism and outright fraud have been reported regarding administration of subsidized credit by state and Federal agencies. Even financial institutions appear not to be different in the way government subsidized credit facilities are administered as many small farmers often complain of lack of access to such facilities.

In the 1990s when government agencies appear to have failed the donor community across the globe in the management of donor funds, and to avoid unnecessary bureaucratic bottlenecks often created by government agencies, it was argued that NGOs would do a better job. Many donors started dealing with NGOs. These donors soon became disillusioned as many NGOs were quick to prove that they too could devolve into corrupt relationships with famers, credit agencies and even government agencies. Many unemployed individuals and groups formed NGOs partly with the aim of creating job opportunity for themselves and in the process mismanaged donor funds.

How can corruption in the agriculture sector be checked?

Like in football where every Nigerian becomes a coach whenever there are international matches involving the country, it would appear that every Nigerian has a solution to the problem of corruption whenever there is a public discourse on it. Some of the suggestions range from the absurd to the extremely radical. Some believe that corruption can only be tackled by killing everybody involved. We do not share these radical views.

However we align ourselves with the suggestions of Fink (2002) who affirmed as follows:

- "Efforts to fight corruption should emphasize TAAPE (Transparency, Awareness, Accountability, Prevention, and Enforcement). Within this framework, the following strategies have been useful.
- Evaluate corruption in agriculture sector by starting at the market and working backwards to production (warehousing, transportation, licenses, grading, etc.).
- Join private and government sources to remove impediments such as road inspection points and replace them with effective "non rent-seeking" methods. Build the case for the government to monitor problem areas while privatizing as many of the steps as possible. Work to shorten the commodity chain from the producer to the market by introducing contract arrangements between the cocoa farmers (for example) and the ultimate processor of the product.
- Where commodity chains are shortened, explore the possibility of the processor granting credit to the farmer. Develop creative approaches for solving the credit problem and the supply chain simultaneously.
- Where marketing boards fail to be effective, encourage their entry into competition with emerging private sector businesses.
- Develop projects with producers' groups and involve stakeholders. Develop a broad base of cooperating host workers. "

Although the foregoing recommendations are not new and are actually relevant in the Nigerian context, a critical look at some of the strategies

adopted in fighting corruption recently may assist in re-strategizing for better effectiveness. One of the policy options of government put in place recently to curb corruption is the Single Treasury Account system. This was adopted to keep a tab on government revenue and determine where, when and how funds are disbursed. This centralization of fund management may not necessarily be the solution to large scale corruption in virtually every government institution in Nigeria. Even if it could there has to be a careful application of the policy. A situation whereby investors in the Nigeria stock market are losing funds (over 1.3 trillion Naira was reported to have been lost between May and October 2015, Pulse News Online 8th October, 2015) and some foreign players in the sector are actually withdrawing their investment, is not good for the Nigerian economy. Over centralization of funds control may actually be counterproductive in the sense that government agencies could devise criminal means of keeping away funds generated without keeping them in Banks in the name of the government agency.

We are of the opinion that Universities in particular should be excluded from the Single Treasury Accounting System because they are not income generating organs of government. There are adequate checks and balances in the system to prevent large scale fraud. Although this has not worked 100percent in the past, Federal Universities have not been known to witness the kind of monumental fraud that is reported elsewhere across the country. For one thing, the STA policy violates the autonomy status of Nigerian Universities. Besides, it could impede the process of accessing and retaining international donor funds for research by Nigerian Universities. Universities need these donor funds to remain competitive since the Federal government is not really doing much in funding research. We therefore call on the Federal government to exclude Universities from the STA policy.

Many people have recommended improved funding of the agriculture sector as a way of solving some of the problems of the sector. The African Union Maputo accord agreed that 10 percent of annual budget of member countries should be voted for the Agriculture sector. This agreement is not being honoured by Nigerian government even though it was signatory to it. While agreeing with the suggestion for improved funding, we do not agree totally that better funding would reduce corruption. Even with the current budget levels, the percentage that actually goes into direct farmers' services is just about 2percent (Table 2). Indeed, improved funding may also result in increased corruption. However if improved funding would create more access for farmers to credit facilities, production inputs and services, improved mechanization, irrigation facilities particularly in parts of the country where irrigation is not being practiced, better rural road network, guaranteed market for farmers' produce, improved storage facilities and better rural infrastructure that could guarantee improved value addition we totally support it.

The question however is where will this improved funding come from given dwindling government resources and the fiscal realities of our time. The Academic Staff Union of Nigerian Universities (ASUU) once fought to get the Tertiary Education Fund (TETFUND) established to solve a similar problem in the education sector. This has worked and indeed has improved infrastructural development in the Universities across the country. A similar fund should be established to take care of the agriculture and rural development sectors of the Nigerian economy.

Conclusion

We agree with the recommendation by Ladele *et al*. (2013) that increased pressure should be applied to enforce transparency in the agriculture sector, re-orientation of citizens on moral standards including our traditional values and value system as a way of improving the state of transparency in the agricultural sector in Nigeria. Our position however is that Nigerians should be ready to change their attitudes towards corruption and corrupt individuals. Going by the ethnically coloured comments by some Nigerians when the issue of corruption is being discussed in the social media, corrupt individuals would appear to have the tacit support of some members of their ethnic groups when they are indicted by law enforcement agencies. This should not be at all. Nigerians must join hands to fight the monster called corruption if we do not want corruption to "kill" Nigeria.

Table 1: Transparency international corruption perceptions index 2010-2014

SN	Country	2010 Rank	Score	2011 Rank	Score	2012 Rank	Score	2013 Rank	Score	2014 Rank	Score
1	Botswana	1	33	32	6.1	30	65	30	64	31	63
2	Mauritius	2	39	46	5.1	43	57	52	52	47	54
3	Cape Verde	3	45	41	5.5	39	60	41	58	42	57
4	Seychelles	4	49	50	4.8	51	52	47	54	43	55
5	South Africa	5	54	64	4.1	69	43	72	42	67	44
6	Namibia	6	56	57	4.4	58	48	57	48	55	49
7	Ghana	7	62	69	3.9	64	45	63	46	61	48
8	Rwanda	8	66	49	5.0	50	53	49	53	55	49
9	Lesotho	9	78	77	3.5	64	45	55	49	55	49
10	Malawi	10	85	100	3.1	88	37	91	37	110	33
11	Liberia	11	87	91	3.2	75	41	83	38	94	37
12	Egypt	12	98	112	2.9	118	32	114	32	94	37
13	Gambia	13	91	77	3.5	105	34	127	28	126	29
14	Swaziland	14	91	96	3.1	88	37	82	39	69	43
15	Burkina Faso	15	98	100	3.0	83	38	83	38	85	38
16	Sao Tome and Principe	16	101	100	3.1	72	42	72	42	76	42
17	Zambia	17	101	91	3.2	88	37	83	38	85	38
18	Senegal	18	105	112	2.9	94	36	77	41	69	43
19	Benin	19	110	100	3.1	94	36	94	36	80	39
20	Gabon	20	110	100	3.1	102	35	106	34	94	37
21	Ethiopia	21	116	120	2.7	113	33	111	33	110	33
22	Mali	22	116	118	2.8	105	34	127	28	115	32
23	Mozambique	23	116	120	2.7	123	31	119	30	119	31
24	Tanzania	24	116	100	3.1	102	35	111	33	119	31
25	Eritrea	25	123	134	2.5	150	25	160	20	166	18
26	Madagascar	26	123	100	3.1	118	32	127	28	133	28
27	Niger	27	123	134	2.5	113	33	106	34	103	35
28	Uganda	28	127	143	2.4	130	29	140	26	142	26
29	**Nigeria**	**29**	**134**	**143**	**2.4**	**139**	**27**	**144**	**25**	**136**	**27**
30	Sierra Leone	30	134	134	2.5	123	31	119	30	119	31
31	Togo	31	134	143	2.4	128	30	123	29	126	29
32	Zimbabwe	32	134	154	2.2	163	20	157	21	156	21
33	Mauritania	33	143	143	2.4	123	31	119	30	124	30
34	Cameroon	34	146	134	2.5	144	26	144	25	136	27
35	Cote d'Ivoire	35	146	154	2.2	130	29	136	27	115	32
36	Central African Republic	36	154	154	2.2	144	26	144	25	150	24
37	Comoros	37	154	143	2.4	133	28	127	28	142	26
38	Congo-Brazzavile	38	154	154	2.2	144	26	154	22	152	23
39	Guinea-Bissau	39	154	154	2.2	150	25	163	19	161	19
40	Kenya	40	154	154	2.2	139	27	136	27	145	25
41	Democratic Republic of Congo	41	164	154	2.2	160	21	154	22	154	22
42	Guinea	42	164	164	2.1	154	24	150	24	145	25
43	Angola	43	168	168	2.0	157	22	153	23	161	19
44	Equatorial Guinea	44	168	172	1.9	163	20	163	19	-	-
45	Burundi	45	170	172	1.9	165	19	157	21	159	20
46	Chad	46	171	168	2.0	165	19	163	19	154	22
47	South Sudan	47	172	177	1.6	173	13	173	14	171	15
48	Somalia	48	178	182	1.0	174	8	175	8	174	8

Federal Government budget for agriculture for the period of 2010-2015

Budget items	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Proposed National Budget (Trillion ₦)	-	4.07	4.69	4.92	4.6	-
Agriculture Budget (Billion ₦)	58.77	81.2	78.9	81.4	66.6	40.70
Percentage dedicated to Agriculture services to farmers (%)	-	1.81	1.66	1.77	1.47	0.9

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THE EFFECTS OF CORRUPTION ON NIGERIA'S AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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A keynote paper delivered at the 24th Annual Congress of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN), held on the 12th October, 2015 at Ladoke Akintola University of Technology Ogbomoso

INTRODUCTION

Protocols

I thank you for giving me the opportunity to deliver the Keynote address at your annual congress on the theme 'Changing Social Values, Transparency and Sharp Practices: Impact on Agricultural and Rural Development.'' The sub-themes of corruption, change, values and development underpin your conference theme. In my view, these issues are germane in the new dawn of change that the Buhari Presidency proclaimed before and after the administration began officially on May 29, 2015. I am hopeful that the conversations in this conference will bring forth the needed light that is urgently needed to guide the government and the governed as Nigerians systematically navigate the journey of the change process.

The choice of the topic ''The Effects of Corruption on the Nigerian Agricultural and Rural Development'' for this keynote address is significant for least two reasons. First, the new administration of President Buhari has made the fight against corruption a critical pillar of its agenda. The President has repeatedly said that ''if Nigeria does not kill corruption, corruption will kill Nigeria''. Hopefully, the paper may offer some useful insights that may help the government in its war against corruption. Second, partly due to corruption, a majority of the urban and rural population had been excluded from the benefits of the oil boom and the high growth rates of last decade. When a majority are excluded, their stake in the system weakens and when that happens, the security of the system is threatened. Neither the included nor the excluded can have sustainable peace or joy.

My focus in this keynote address is to provide a clear conceptualization of corruption and its connection to agricultural and rural development in the last few decades. I have organized the rest of the address into four parts. First, I review the state of agriculture and rural development. Second, I provide a working definition of corruption. Third, I explain the nexus between corruption, agriculture and rural development. Finally I offer some concluding remarks on how agriculture and rural development could be stimulated as the extent and scope of corruption in Nigeria is minimized.

I. The State of the State of Agriculture and Rural Development in Nigeria

It is well established in the policy discourse in Nigeria that agriculture remains one of the major contributors to GDP, non-oil export incomes and employment. Tables 1 and 2 show the shares of agriculture's contributions to nominal and real GDP respectively. Both Tables show (1) that the share of agriculture in total GDP remains significant and (2) though the shares of agriculture declined in the 1970s the decline was reversed from the 1980s. The literature on Dutch Disease explain the decline of agriculture in the 1980s: the boom in oil export altered relative prices and policies against agriculture. The change in relative prices and urban biased in economic policies triggered rural-urban migration that adversely affected agriculture.

Table 1: Sectoral Structures of Nigeria's Nominal GDP:1960-2013 (%)

	Agriculture (1)	Crude Petroleum (2)	Manufacturing (3)	Building and Construction (4)	Wholesale and Retail Trade (5)	Services (6)	Sum of (1)-(6)
1960-70	56.4	2.9	6.5	4.9	12.7	15.5	98.9
1971-80	28.9	21.4	7.3	8.1	17.7	14.6	98.0
1981-89	34.4	35.9	4.2	1.1	14.0	10.4	100
1990-2010	35.3	35.4	3.1	1.1	13.7	11.3	99.9
2010-2013	22.8	15.8	6.6	3.0	16.6	35.1	99.9

Source: Computed from CBN (2012) and NBS (2014) by Ogunyiola and Garba (2014)

Table 2: Sectoral Structures of Nigeria's Real GDP:1960-2013 (%)

	Agriculture (1)	Crude Petroleum (2)	Manufacturing (3)	Building and Construction (4)	Wholesale and retail trade (5)	Services (6)	
1981-1989	38.1	27.4	5.0	1.7	14.7	12.7	99.6
1990-2010	41.2	24.4	4.0	1.4	14.4	14.4	99.8
2010-2013	23.0	14.6	7.2	3.4	18.7	31.5	98.4

Source: Computed from CBN (2012) and NBS (2014) by Ogunyiola and Garba (2014)

The Dutch Disease effects of the oil boom adversely affected the capacity of agriculture to play its role of facilitating self-sufficiency in food, stimulating value-adding activities and generating export earnings. Prior to the 1970s, Nigeria was a major exporter of cash crops such as palm produce, groundnut, cocoa, and rubber and was self-sufficient in food crops such as rice, yam, cassava, millet, maize, sorghum, soya beans, etc. From the era of the oil boom, export income from agriculture declined while food imports rose significantly with the result that agricultural net exports became negative.

The structural shifts from agriculture (a factor driven sector) to oil (another factor driven sector) did not reflect the type of structural transition that propels economies to global competitiveness and sustained growth. First, the oil sector is largely an enclave sector employing a relatively small number of Nigerians. In addition, the preferred resource management strategies of the federal government were **passive joint ventures contracts** or **production sharing contracts**. Though the Federal Government by law controls mineral resources of Nigeria, it chose to cede active control of the ''commanding heights'' of the industry to rational major oil companies who enjoy the support of their powerful governments. The major oil companies exploit the obvious naivety of the State to dominate the oil and gas industry and acquire strategic advantages which they exploit to limit the capacity of Nigeria to derive optimal value from the oil and gas industry.

Second reason why the structural shift did not advance Nigeria's economic development was that the international market for oil and gas is inherently volatile. As a result, the Nigerian economy and its fiscal system hang precariously on a volatile anchor. This neither allows for macroeconomic stability nor sustainable growth let alone development. Consequently, the fortune of the Nigerian economy from 1973 has mirrored the cycles of boom and bust of the international oil market. The latest phase of the cycle has led to macroeconomic instability (fiscal imbalance and external imbalance) and fiscal crisis where all tiers of government are dependent on loans to pay their workers. Such precarious fiscal circumstances as began to be experienced from 1981 puts development in reverse gears.

As shown in Tables 1 and 2, the share of agriculture declined in 1970-80 but began trending upwards between 1981 and 2010. This underscores the point that Nigeria never made the transition from a factor driven economy to an efficiency driven economy and is classified as a factor driven economy by the Wold Economic Forum (WEF) in its Global Competitiveness Index even after more than five decades of independence. The WEF's 2013-2014 report indicated that Nigeria's basic requirements for competitiveness which include institutions (129^{th}), infrastructure (135^{th}), macroeconomic environment (46^{th}) and Health and Education (146^{th}) placed Nigeria in 135^{th} place out of 147 countries. According to the WEF's 2013-2014 Report, though Nigeria's large market size and its potentials for economies of scale are attractive to investments, the negatives were overwhelming. The report emphasized that:

"efforts need to be taken to diversify (the) economy into the non-oil sector and increase long-term competitiveness. Institutions remain weak (129th) with insufficiently protected property rights, high corruption, and undue influence. The security situation in the country, already seriously worrisome, continues last year's downward trend to 142nd. Additionally, Nigeria must continue to upgrade its infrastructure (135th) as well as improve health and primary education (146th). Furthermore, the country is not harnessing the latest technologies for productivity enhancements, as demonstrated by its low rates of ICT".

With such poor basic requirements for competitiveness, it follows that Nigerian agriculture is not competitive a fact attested to by its low productivity and negative net exports. Given that Nigeria's rural population depend largely on small holder subsistence farming for sustenance, the productivity and returns from such small holding powered by traditional technology is very limited. As a result, the rural population in Nigeria faces high risks of very high incidence of poverty. Table 3 shows that by whatever measure, the poverty rate in the rural parts of Nigeria is significantly higher in the urban centres. The rural-urban poverty gap ranged from 11.45% (relative poverty) to 21.6% (Food Poor) in the 2010 National Bureau of Statistics(NBS) survey while the incidence of poverty ranged from 48.3% (Food Poor) to 73.2% (relative poverty).

Table 3: Urban/Rural Incidence of Poverty by different Poverty Measures including Food Poor, 2010

Sector	Food Poor	Absolute Poverty	Relative Poverty	Dollar Per Day
Urban	26.7	52.0	61.8	52.4
Rural	48.3	66.1	73.2	66.3
Difference	21.6	14.1	11.4	13.9

Source: National Bureau of Statistics. HNLSS 2010

The high incidence of national and rural poverty is not caused resource or population constraints. For Nigeria has 84 million hectares of arable land, 263 billion cubic meters of water, two of the largest rivers in Africa, cheap labor force to support agricultural production and a potentially large market of 167 million people. The under-development of Nigerian agriculture and that of the rural areas are such that Nigeria is unable to feed itself. On average, Nigeria spent about $421.75 monthly on food imports in the last three years implying a food import bill of over $5 billion per annum. Much of the import bill is spent on wheat, rice, sugar and fish which Nigeria ought to be net exporters.

BOX 1: Development Plans and Programmes Targeting Rural Areas

A. Development Plans

1. First National Development Plan(1962-1968);
2. Second National Development Plan(1970-1974);
3. Third Natioal Development Plan(1975-1980);
4. Fourth National Development Plan(1981-1985);

B. Rolling Plans

5. Rolling Plans 1990-1992,
6. Rolling Plans 1993-1995
7. Rolling Plans 1996-1998

C. Other Plans

8. Vision 2010
9. 2004-National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) and the state and Local Government equivalents –SEEDS and LEEDS
10. 2007-The 7 point Agenda, 2007
11. Vision 20:2020

D. Programmes

12. 1972-National Accelerated Food Production Programme and the Nigeria Agricultural and
13. Cooperative Bank
14. 1976-Operation Feed the Nation (OF)
15. 1979-Green Revolution Programme (GRP)
16. 1986- Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP)
17. 1986-Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI),
18. 1987-Better Life Programme for Rural Women (BLP)
19. 1987-National Directorate of Employment (NDE)
20. 1987 -Peoples Bank of Nigeria (PBN), 1987
21. 1989- The National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND)
22. 1990- Community Bank (CB)
23. 1991-National Agricultural and Land Development Authority (NALDA), 1991
24. 1993-Family Support Programme and the Family Economic Advancement Programme,
25. The National Youth Employment and Vocational Skills Development Programme
26. Integrated Community Development Project
27. 2001-National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) to replace the Poverty
28. 2012- You Win
29. 2012-Sure P

Source: Organized from Paul, S. O., Agba, M. S. and Chukwurah, D. C. (2014)

What is responsible for the under-development of Nigerian agriculture and of its rural areas? Mr Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, my view it would be wrong to blame the poor state of Nigerian agriculture and the under-development of its rural areas on a paucity of plans and programmes. This is because at least 12 major plans and visions were designed between 1960 and 2010 (see Box 1). The plans include the four national development plans (1962-85), three rolling plans (1990-98), two visions (2010 and 20:2020), one agenda (7 Point Agenda) and the National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS).

Second, between 1972 and 2012, at least 18 major programmes and institutions that have direct relevance for agriculture or rural development were designed, established or implemented. Of the 18 programmes, the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was the key game changer. Among other things, it led to the dissolution of marketing boards and all government structures that supported agricultural development on the false premise that the market will solve the agricultural problem and promote long term growth.

Often, Nigerian analysts often assert: the plan or programme is good, the problem is implementation. The assertion of course is wrong: no plan is good if it ignores the feasibility of its being implemented. My argument therefore, is that often vested interests undermine the soundness of plans and programmes at both the conceptual and at the point of implementation and by so doing foreclose the possibility of transformation or development. Therefore, it is the vested interests and the ideas that they breed that we could locate some of the fundamental causes of underdevelopment. I will illustrate with the SAP.

The agricultural problem is recognized in the economic theory and policy discourse as the tendency for agricultural prices and incomes to rise when harvests are below expectations and to fall when harvest are above expectations. The volatility in prices and incomes and the fact that prices and incomes fall when harvests are good discourages investments in agriculture. Economic theory had recommended price and income stabilization as key to resolving the agricultural problem. The US, European Union, China, Japan and most large economies heavily subsidize and protect agricultural production and their farming population because of the consequences for food security and sustainable growth. Yet, the US and its allies under the so called Washington Consensus pressured Nigeria and many small open economies to stop protecting and supporting their farmers through Marketing Boards. The exposure of farmers to vagaries of the market profited economies that import cheap cash crops from Nigeria. Without government support (technology, price, income and quality assurances), productivity and quality suffered and volatility in the global market cause commodity prices and farmers' incomes to be highly volatile discouraging farming.

Economic theory also recommends stimulus when an economy goes into recession as Nigeria's economy did in 1982-86 when the cycle of oil glutkicked in and persisted. Yet, the powers behind the Washington Consensus counter-intuitively recommended deflationary policies for Nigeria under the false pretext that it was a growth-oriented structural adjustment programme (SAP). It was not therefore surprising that the Nigerian economy was sapped of its growth oxygen and declined to such an extent that it was immediately demoted from the status of a lower middle income economy to that of a low income economy by those who falsely marketed SAP as growth-oriented.

Most of the other programmes in Box 1were less comprehensive that SAP. Most were stand-alone programmes that were neither rooted in sound analysis or sound evidence about their appropriateness or effectiveness. Many of the programmes were neither sustainable nor effective in targeting the real challenges of the agricultural sector, rural economy or the national economy. Some were regime promoting policies (Operation Feed the Nation, Green Revolution Programme, Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI),Better Life Programme for Rural Women (BLP), Family Support Programme and the Family Economic Advancement Programme, You Win and Sure-P) hence, did not outlive the regimes that promoted them. None of the programmes systematically and successfully addressed the deficiencies in the basic requirements for sectoral, regional and national competitiveness such as institutions, infrastructure, health, education, science and technology.

My main argument therefore, is that the intentions and the actions of the programmes were inherently corrupt. Consequently, they had neither the intention nor the capacity to transform Nigerian agriculture or Nigeria's rural areas. To justify my claim, I have to conceptualize corruption.

What is Corruption?

There are diverse definitions of corruption. Let me just reproduce three.

"inducement to wrong by improper or unlawful means (as bribery)" - The Oxford Unabridged Dictionary

"An act done with intent to give advantage inconsistent with the official duty and the rights of others. - The Lectric Law Library's Lexicon

"The act of doing something with an intent to give some advantage inconsistent with official duty and the right of others, a fiduciary's official's use of a station or use of office to procure some benefit either personally or for someone else contrary to the rights of others."- Garner (2004, p.370)

Two things are immediately obvious in the three definitions. The first is that corruption involves corrupt actions. Article 15-22 of the United Nations Convention Against Corruption provides a set of actions that are corrupt: ''bribery, embezzlement, misappropriation, diversion of public property, illicit enrichment, abuse of functions/office (whether in the public or private sector), as well as the stages and methods of laundering the proceeds thereof'' (reproduced from Garba and Okeshola, 2008). Second, corrupt actions are driven by corrupt intention: corrupt actions are intended to confer unfair advantage and to underminea person, group of persons, process (es), system (s), organizations, institutions, economy, nation, region or a multilateral system.

A third aspect of corruption that is less emphasized is that corruption is reciprocal: for each every act of corruption, there is the corrupter and the corrupted. That is why indexes of corruption such as Transparency International (TI) or Global Integrity Index (GII) paint only a partial view of corruption. They exclude the global corrupters who manipulate global financial and trading institutions, global and national markets, national economic policies through self-centred ''expert advises'' and their international and local foot soldiers that bribe public and private sector agents to facilitate the actualization of the hidden agenda which are shy of publicity because of their blatantly corrupt intentions, actions and consequences. The corrupter and the corrupted tend to be human beings, groups, organizations, institutions or nations or multilateral organizations. By this conceptualization, it is corrupt to focus only on corrupt nations and

pretend to be analyzing corruption. This is because such indexes intentionally presents distorted views of the multiple actors and dimensions of corruption. In doing so, such indexes and those who compile them corrupt understanding of the true nature and scope of the problem of corruption nationally and globally. The reciprocal nature of corruption implies that the corrupting party and the corrupted party are liable for the acts and intended purpose of corruption. Hence, the corrupter and the corrupted must both be held to account.

The fourth aspect of corruption is the **consequences of corruption.** Corruption affects both the corrupter and the corrupted. Corruption despoils the moral character of both the corrupter and the corrupted. In addition, it distorts and weakens institutions and incentives as well as social, economic and political processes and contracts rendering them unable to function efficiently, effectively and justly. Corruption tends to make the corrupter and the corrupted inefficient, ineffective, unjust and unfair.

I can now justify my argument. First, let us consider the facts. Nigeria is small open economy with a colonial history. As a small open economy, its influence on the global market and multilateral trading and financial architecture is weak. Its colonial heritage has made it so far, impossible to build a nation with clear ethos and identity in its education, economics, culture and politics.

Now let us consider the implications. Small open economies like Nigeria are highly vulnerable to the most dangerous devices of global corrupters who deploy and use words and ideas to corrupt and enslave minds and thoughts. A corrupted mind like a corrupted hard drive is a danger to all cognitive processes given that it is in the mind that all cognitive processes (perception, insight, awareness, discernment, observation, learning, reasoning, communication and association) take place. The danger is that when we do not develop and apply the equivalent of anti-virus to our minds, we expose ourselves to being corrupted wittingly or unwittingly. My view is that the most dangerous corruption is the corruption of the mind for it is in the mind that intentions and actions are developed long before they become visible or discernible to others. The danger is that most of us in the developing countries are at risk because our educational, social, economic and political systems were constructed and nurtured by players whose intentions and actions are inherently corrupt. The antidote to such corruption is true knowledge, wisdom and understanding. Otherwise, no real transformation can take place in the physical. There would be much corrupted intentions and actions and, corrupt consequences but no transformation or development. This is because corrupt intentions give birth to corrupt actions and corrupt actions give birth to corrupt consequences.

The Nexus between Corruption and Nigeria's Agriculture and Rural Development

The conceptualization of corruption gives primacy to intentions or vested interests and ideas in understanding how corruption undermines Nigerian economic development of which agriculture and rural development are parts thereof. A close analysis of Box 1 will easily unmask or reveal the vested interests and ideas embedded in the plans and programmes. For instance, the influence of traditional development economies on economic planning experience of Nigeria between 1960 and 1985 is obvious. Rooted in ideas such 'vicious cycle of poverty'; 'dual gap model', 'big push' and so on, 'development planning' inevitably promoted a habit of dependence on the drugs of 'development finance' fuelled by the deceit of a non-existent 'development finance' provided by 'development partners'. These phrases - 'development finance' and 'development partners' – and similar ones like development aid are corruption of their true meanings for they mask the true intentions of the players and masters of the game. The true intentions are revealed by the absence of transformation in sectors, regions and nations that received 'development finance and support' and the profitability and growth of 'development partners'.

By 1986 long after the neo-cons had supplanted the Keynesians, the ideas shifted from state-centred to market-centred 'development financing' causing a shift from 'development planning' to SAP plus rolling plans. Still, neither Nigerian agriculture nor the rural areas experienced transformation in institutions, infrastructures or technology in this period. Neither agriculture nor the Nigerian economy has become efficiency or innovation driven. Indeed, the government that implemented SAP is generally recognized as the one that institutionalized corruption in Nigerian economy, social and political lives. It is also clear from NBS data that poverty rose across Nigeria significantly after 1986. Table 3 shows the progressive worsening of the economic welfare of Nigerians. Clearly, the percentage of extremely poor has risen significantly after 1985 from 12.1% in 1985 to 38.7% in 2010. In addition as shown in Table 4, the number of Nigerian in poverty rose from 34.7 million (46.3%) to 112.47 million (69%).

Table 3. Relative Poverty: Non-poor, Moderate poor and the Extremely poor, 1980 - 2010

Year	Non-poor	Moderately poor	Extremely poor
1980	72.8	21.0	6.2

Year	Non-poor	Moderately poor	Extremely poor
1985	53.7	34.2	12.1
1992	57.3	28.9	13.9
1996	34.4	36.3	29.3
2004	43.3	32.4	22.0
2010	31.0	30.3	38.7

Source: NBS, Harmonized Nigeria Living Standard Survey, 2010

Table 4: Relative Poverty Headcount from 1980-2010

Year	**Poverty Incidence (%)**	**Estimated Population (Million)**	**Population in poverty (Million)**
1980	27.2	65	17.1
1985	46.3	75	34.7
1992	42.7	91.5	39.2
1996	65.6	102.3	67.1
2004	54.4	126.3	68.7
2010	69.0	163	112.47

Source: National Bureau of Statistics. HNLSS 2010

Conclusion

In the inaugural address I presented at the University of Ibadan in May 2012, I wrote,

'The data on resources, output and outcomes and public finance that I have carefully analysed supports the thesis that *sound economic outcomes are impossible if management and leadership are unsound*. However, the nexus between outcomes and management and leadership involves ideas and vested interests which if unsound, corrupt management and leadership producing choices and actions that doom outcomes on a sustained basis.'

I hoped through my inaugural to 'direct attention away from false hopes and false expectations that unsound ideas and vested interests embodied in economic management and leadership have tended to impose on Nigerians.'

I have similar hopes for this conference. It would be truly wasteful if much of the conversations and discussions focus on ideas pregnant with unsound intentions and interests that are poorly interrogated. As I emphasized in my inaugural, we must shift away from a 'tendency to compartmentalize our participation as academics in management, in leadership and in public service to a degree that we are contented with our inputs even when the outputs and outcomes are unsound or, the inputs time and time again fail to bear the desired fruits.' Most of us here have served in government in one way or the other or have intention to serve. I urge us all 'to carefully and honestly examine our contributions to the ideas, intentions, actions and the consequences that are visible in data and in realities of our nation. Then we may begin to make our conferences more than a part of the vibrant global talking industry where much is said, but not much is done. In our typical creativeness and innovativeness which unfortunately, corruption is sucking out of our policy process, Nigerian have correctly characterized the industry as NATO: No Action, Talk Only. My hope is that this conference will be truly fruitful and substantially productive. Thank you and God bless you for listening.

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TRANSPARENCY, CORRUPTION AND SHARP PRACTICES: THE POLICY ANALYST'S VIEWPOINT

Gbolagade B. Ayoola

A Keynote Address/Lead Paper Delivered at the 24th Annual National Congress of Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN), at Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomoso, 12th October 2015

Introduction

In this paper, I set out to illuminate the action words in the title as given to me – Transparency, Corruption and Sharp practices; then to circumscribe the mindset of the so-called policy analyst, with particular reference to the policy economist like me. Nonetheless the point must be made from outset that policy analysis is not an exclusive preserve of the economist as widely believed. It is the convergence point of all professionals interested in the analysis of what government is doing or not doing and how it is being done. It may as well be that the policy economist is more concerned in this task than other professionals, probably owing to the universality of the economy in itself and the procession of the appropriate tools of analysis and the diction to communicate the results.

First is a stylized definition of Corruption as: the misappropriation of public properties, resources and facilities to oneself or others for private gain. Though the policy concerns about corruption is not traceable, some old Indian manuscript of about 2500 years cited corrupt practices as a policy menace (Daniel Kaufmann), which was perceived in terms of popular clones of the word: dishonesty, double dealing, fraud, misconduct, wrongdoing, adulteration, debasement, graft; etc. In present day public life in Nigeria as also elsewhere, corruption manifests in several modes, which include: paying or receiving bribes; peddling influence; exaggerating outcomes; the adverse effects on economy or society being: increased transaction costs of governance; higher price of products and services than normal; society turns on its head by featuring discrimination, inequality, market distortions; misallocation of resources; to name just a few.

Second is a stylized definition of Sharp practices, which connotes sneaky or cunning behaviour apparently within the rules or law but deceitful or exploitative somewhat. The variants of this present in terms of unethical behavior, fraud, dishonesty, misconduct, taking undue advantage of someone and situation, or cutting corners, etc. That is, sharp practices and corrupt practices are opposite sides of the same coin.

Last is a stylized definition of Transparency, as: a process or behavior that is easy to see for others what actions are being performed; that is, shedding light on decisions and transactions involved open, thereby promoting responsibility, accountability and due process.

Next, we highlight the concerns of a Policy analysis about corruption and its variants as illuminated above; which analysis represents a convergence point of all professionals: that is, the outcome of policy analysis depends on the professional spectacle the analyst wears at a particular point in time. Nonetheless the domain of policy analysis is dominated by economists or agricultural economists as the case may be, whose concerns reflects his application of the economic principles to the analysis of policy decisions (i.e. what government does/does not do, has done/has not done or intends to do/does not intend to do). Hence the emergence of a special knowledge area spuriously known as economics of corruption, which implies that a market exists for corruption to take place (otherwise known as black market) which has a demand side and a supply side, and whereby a price prevails in that market in terms of what society loses to corruption. The key issues in a black market economy pertain to: Rent-seeking; Back-of-the-hand dealings; fake products/substandard products, etc.

Analytical mindset of policy economist

The policy analysts' viewpoint stems from an analytical focus on the market for corruption or sharp practices. The demand side of this market comprises actors such as political office holders, civil servants and other public service providers, etc.; while the supply side comprises the general public, contractors, job seekers, students, etc. The policy analyst then puts his sharp analytical focus on two frameworks – a) policy cycle, which defines a sequence of technical steps from Problem identification to Design/formulation, to Appraisal or verification, and to Implementation including supervision, monitoring/evaluation/Impact assessment; and b) policy process, which defines a sequence of administrative steps, from Articulation of the problem, to Verification, to Adoption, Authorization, Publication and possibly Legislation. The issue of corruption can emanate from either approach, which the instrumentality of policy economist may be analyzed and addressed using the market framework.

In this framework, corruption in high places may be viewed with three lenses, namely: Public sector, Private sector, and Academia. The critical forms of corruption in the public sector involve the

entrenched rent-seeking behavior of public servants and influence peddling by job and favour seekers from the public officers. This is the reason for the NGOs to exist to serve as partners to government and watchdog of government at the same time.Farm & Infrastructure Foundation (FIF) is an example of such NGOs in the agriculture sector, promoting policy best practices in agriculture and rural development devoid of corrupt and sharp practices; which its lessons of practical experience in performing the policy advocacy role poses two questions:

- Who funds policy advocacy as a public good and service? Which suggests a role perceptionfor Government, Non-government andInternational community.
- When the policy advocate runs into trouble with policy authorities or violators in the course of fighting corruption, curtailing sharp practices or promoting transparency, who bails him out? Which suggests a role perception for civil society, Media and International community.

As regards the private sector, the critical sources of corruption involve the different situations of imperfect market, in terms of Monopoly, Monopsony, or Monopolistic competition; against which the need arises for regulatory bodies such as NADAC (National Agency for Drug Administration and Control), SON (Standards Organization of Nigeria) or Professional associations. Lastly, the manifestation of Corruption in academia pertains to: Academic dishonesty, Academic fraud, Academic impunity, etc.[1]These malpractices create the need for oversight bodies to be established in the academic sector; such a body being NNMA(Nigerian National Merit Award) which was established to maintain an ethical focus on the sector with a view to promoting academic best practices and rewarding excellence in the knowledge society.

Corruption and Sharp Practices in the Agricultural Sector

The policy analyst's viewpoint about corruption derives from a dichotomous typology, namely: Random/Systematic, as to whether predictable or not; Deterministic/Stochastic, as to t whether the parameters of the probability distribution are observable or measurable;Localized/Systemic, as to whether the effect of corruption is restricted to an organ of the system or the whole system; Transient/Chronic, whether temporary or permanent; Mild/Severe, as to whether the effectswhether debilitating or life threatening; etc.

Against these definitional backgrounds, we examine the agricultural sector that we are familiar as a fertile ground for wanton corruption or sharp market and nonmarket practices to thrive; this we do with particular reference to the fertilizer sector; this is based on my many years of experience as a member of the National fertilizer Technical Committee (NFTC) at the instance of the agriculture minister under successive administrations.

Three fertilizer policy eras may be identified. The first is the era of FPDD (Fertilizer Procurement and Distribution Division), which was established in the Federal Department of Agriculture in 1976 and existed till about 2002. The division enjoyed the monopoly of fertilizer importation in the country, which it distributed to all parts of the country through network of fertilizer depots and distribution points, for delivery to the states for onward sale to farmers. A high but uniform subsidy rate was applied at all locations in the country and all the quantity of fertilizer used by farmers were so subsidized, which peaked at about 1.2 MT in 1992 or so.

However, as the rate and volume of fertilizer subsidy was high so also was the extent of corruption and sharp practices it fostered? In the multiple roles assigned FPDD during this era, the attendant corrupt practices among the actors include: a) rent seeking among public officers who collude with suppliers in round tripping the same consignment of fertilizers and raise fictitious invoices for payment by the government; and b) fraudulent practices among transporters and contractors and other handlers of fertilizer consignments from seaport to the hinterland, whereby trailer loads of subsidized fertilizers disappeared enroute to diverted through unintended channels for sale at higher prices in the open market or at the borders with neighboring countries; etc. The several efforts of government to block the leakages in the subsidy policy failed in quick succession, such that even when policemen were attached to trailers as escorts, the policeman, driver and the truckloads of fertilizers simply vanished together. Thus it was during this era that fertilizer became so much politically visible as a source of quick money for corrupt people in the country. Eventually government liberalized the market by withdrawing from importation.

The second was the era of FFD (federal Fertilizer Department) created in the ministry in 2002. The department implemented the so-called Market Stabilization Scheme (MSS), which featured lower subsidy rate (25%) and smaller quantity of intervention quantity of about 250,000 MT. Yet corruption and market sharp practices persisted in forms have: adulteration, short bag weights and lack of truth in labeling,among others. Moreover, fertilizer round trippingpersisted -

[1] For more on academic corruption, see Bamgbose and Ayoola (2015)

collusive practice to take out fertilizer from government warehouses to be resupplied in several rounds to make up the expected quantity awarded to particular suppliers, instead of direct sale to farmers at subsidized prices.During this era, theinitial attempts to stop these corrupt or sharp practices in the fertilizer market featured a policy experiment with a Voucher Scheme designed to bypass the illicit flow of the subsidy payment to wrong channels, followed by a proposal to establish a fertilizer regulatory body NAFRAC (National Agency for Fertilizer Regulation and Control) which did not reach a logical conclusion before a new administration was ushered in in May 2011.

Third was the era of Instinctively FISS (Farm Inputs Support Services) Department, created midstream in the ministry, as the hub for the implementation of Growth Enhancement Scheme (GES) a technologically elegant programme to better eliminate the middlemen in the subsidy delivery channel. To this end, 50% price subsidy was delivered to registered farmers through the use of mobile telephone, to be redeemed by agro-dealers. Yet the abuse of subsidy policy persisted in different dimensions, such as: Buy-back operations (collusive practice whereby an outside supplier buys fertilizer back from registered agro dealer for resale in the open market, for which the agro dealer would later claim the subsidy as if they sold to farmers; Impersonation and proxy redemption whereby fertilizer subsidy flows to people other than the farmers as originally intended; Multiple registration that created room for same farmer receiving subsidies many times; Elite not rural in nature (Network problems; technology failures); Supply of fake products; Increased rent seeking behavior among public officials; Emergence of fly-by-night fertilizer and seed producers – all culminating in a heavy debt burden for the succeeding administration to the tune of about N60.5 Billion.

Curbing Corruption and Sharp Practices in Agricultural Sector

As pointed out earlier, the three postulates about policy best practices to curb corruption and sharp practices in agriculture sector are: transparency, accountability, and policy due process. Three propositions correspondingly emerge therefrom:

- That, citizen participation in the policy process is a necessary albeit not sufficient condition for transparency of the policy process for agricultural development
- The greater the participation of the generality of the people in agricultural policy decisions affecting their lives, the more transparent the decisions become and the fewer the incentive for policy officers to engage in corruption and sharp practices in implementing such decisions;
- That, the rights-based policies better engender programme accountability than need-based policies
- The stronger the foundation of public policies in fundamental human rights, the greater the scope for policy authorities to be accountable to the people who voted them into power, and the less corrupt the public officers will be;
- That policy due process is coded in constitutionality and the rule of law
- The more stricter the public officers follow and obey the extant rules and laws governing the policy process, the more transparent the policy process becomes and the fewer the instances of corrupt and sharp practices in the agricultural sector.

Hence my dominant viewpoint as a policy analyst is anchored on the concept of right to food, as the panacea in dealing with the menace of corruption and sharp practices that have slowed down the progress of agricultural sector for many years. In this context, the flagship project of FIF is the National Campaign on Right to Food, which it launched since 2007/2008. Under my close watch, the campaign seeks to change the perception of food by policy authorities and people alike, from the traditional notion of food as a mere human need to the more progressive notion of food as a human right.

Traditionally food is perceived as a basic human *need*, which implies that the failure of policies in meeting the food entitlements of the people is practically inconsequential; but not as a basic human *right,* which implies that the failure to of policies to meet the food entitlement of the people is actionable, justiciable and ultimately remediable under the law. The difference between the two notions is not farfetched: while the former notion – food as a human need - views the role of government in formulating and implementing food policies as obligatory only (i.e. mere charity or an act of doing the people a favour), the latter notion – food as a human right - views the role of government in this regard as mandatory (i.e. owed as a duty), so as for people to be able to hold the government to account when its policies fail to meet their food entitlement.

Here lies the panacea to fertilizer corruption and other sharp practices in the agricultural policy process. That is, under the regime of right to food the process is all transparent for the people to see through it, so corrupt officers government can easily be held to account even in the law court, when corruption and market sharp practices prevent the realization of people's right to food[2].

[2] For more details about FIF's campaign on Right to Food see Ayoola (2015)

Thus, contrary to the popular but wrong notion of right to food, it is not an apology of state socialism that implies that government should provide food for the people free of cost. Rather, the kernel of right to food as an obligation of government to deal a blow to the menace of corruption and sharp practices in the agricultural sector, is three-fold as follows:

1. Obligation to respect the right to food – i.e. to recognize the right of people to nutritious food, which stipulates the state's exercise of power to refrain from acts capable of destroying people's access to food through unfavourable public policies;
2. Obligation to protect the right to food – i. e. to protect the right of people to nutritious food, which entails regulation of the activities of non-state actors or private sector, that are inimical to people's food entitlements.
3. Obligation to fulfill the right to food – I. e. to help people in protracted suffering when with provision of food at critical times, which entails the provision of food assistance to vulnerable groups and other such people as those that are temporarily displaced from their natural habitats.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The endemic nature of corrupt and sharp practices in the agricultural sector has its roots in the limited participation of the people in the policy process and the lack of transparency and accountability in the policy process for agricultural development.

In this regard, Right to Food offers holistic and philosophical solution approach to addressing the issues of corruption and sharp practices by subordinating the policy authorities as duty bearers to the wish of the people as right holders, so the government can become more transparent and be held accountable for its actions and inactions.

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THE ROLE OF RURAL SOCIOLOGISTS IN AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL TRANSFORMATION AGENDA

Being presidential address presented at the formal opening ceremony of 23rd Annual Congress of the Nigerian Rural Sociological Association held at University of Benin, Benin, Edo state

Prof. Ademola Adekunte Ladele
President, Nigerian Rural Sociological Association

Introduction

Protocols

It is my pleasure to welcome you to the 23rd Annual National Congress of the Nigerian Rural Sociological Association on behalf of our entire membership. Despite the fact that the protracted industrial action of the Academic Staff of Universities Union of last year lingered till the season of our annual congress, we thank God we were able to meet at University of Uyo, Akwa Ibom State, although the attendance could have been better. We however made a good success with the stakeholders' interactive forum with the rural community members, who graced the opening ceremony. It was through this forum that we reinforced our policy to reach out to our rural communities at the association level through all available channels to keep them informed and strengthened on contemporary development initiatives.

The theme of this year's congress: ***Social Engineering on Sustainability of the Agricultural Transformation Agenda*** is apt and topical against the background of agricultural policy direction and strategies of the administration of President Goodluck Jonathan on Agricultural Transformation Agenda [ATA].

Under the leadership of the Hon. Minister of Agriculture, Dr. Akinwumi Adesina, the Nigerian Agricultural Transformation Agenda, initiated in 2011, has been evaluated and scored as a major achievement of the Federal Government. However, it is important to clearly define the stake of a professional body like the Nigerian Rural Sociological Association, which is the subject of my address and the thrust of this year's theme congress. Social engineering here implies the practical application of sociological principles to particular social problems.

The Agricultural Transformation Agenda [ATA] is one of the most comprehensive and robust development programme ever adopted in Nigeria to tackle the intractable challenges facing agriculture and the rural sector. It is considered as the cardinal tool to combat the major ills of the Nigerian economy including poverty, food insecurity, unemployment, poor infrastructure and low human development index. It is equally a major strategy to move the nation closer to the ideals of the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme [CAADP] powered by NEPAD; and the Millennium Development Goals [MDGs], thus engendering better livelihoods for all Nigerians.

In blueprint, ATA would appear to be the long awaited breakthrough that will put to rest the dominant problems the nation had grappled with for many decades since oil became our major source of revenue. [[]] The real challenge is about the myriads of abuses generating from oil resource allocation. However, the implementation of the Agenda so far is pointing critical attention to pertinent social issues concerning the major stakeholders that could make or mare this laudable agenda. Pertinent are social issues surrounding the capability of the farmers, rural people, agro-processors, agri-input dealers, credit facilitators, marketers, exporters and importantly the policy makers to deliver within the policy framework of ATA.

It is essential to know the social psychology, technical capacity and the socio-economic climes within which these major stakeholders operate. Such knowledge generated through media channels and government official reports are insufficient to reflect the real benefits to smallholder farmers and the rural folks in terms of improved livelihoods and welfare. Unless we rural sociologists and other social scientists critically examine the implementation process by empirical analyses and qualitative but evidence-based researches, it is difficult to establish the validity of these claims. It is in this vein that we gather here in a couple of days to address these questions:

How much of the opportunities of the ATA would an ageing farmer population, frustrated rural youths and marginalized women uptake?

Are the new entrants into farming – young school leavers, civil servants on part-time farming and retirees better positioned for improved technology uptake and farm production?

To what extent does climate change pose as bottleneck to the ATA and what is government doing about it?

These and many more questions relevant to the understanding of the social frameworks within which the ATA is being deployed are what the 23rd Annual National Congress is poised to address.

The Nigerian Transformation Agenda Implementation in a nut-shell

In 2012, Nigeria embarked upon a wide ranging **Agricultural Transformation Agenda**

(ATA) to harness its agricultural potential and reduce the nation's food imports, while creating jobs and expanding value addition to locally-produced agricultural products. The overall goals of the ATA are to add 20 million tons to annual domestic food supply and create a total of **3.5 million jobs** by 2015. This represents the biggest effort by government in recent time, to grow agriculture in the country's history.

Through radical policy reforms and a radical role for government and expanded incentive for the private sector, the initiative is ***creating an enabling environment for private sector investment*** that will modernize Nigeria's agriculture. With support from all levels of government, Nigeria's ATA agenda has begun to:

a. ***Shift the lens through which agriculture is viewed, moving away from treating agriculture as a tradition to agribusiness - a government-enabled, private sector-led priority;***
b. ***Concentrate Investments in infrastructure to unlock economies of scale for food processing and value-added activities in areas know as Staple Crop Processing Zones (SCPZs);***
c. ***Strengthen the policy and investment climate to attract private-sector investment and improve competitiveness; and***
d. ***Transform the financial landscape through innovative financing approaches to stimulate development in the sector across the value chain.***

To actualize the above, definite components were established, namely:

a. Policy and Institutional Change (PIC);
b. Growth Enhancement Support (GES);
c. Value Chain Development (VCD);
d. Farm Business Services (FBS);
e. Market Development Initiative (MDI); and
f. Women and Youth Development (WYD).

Thus far, the score card on the implementation of these strategies reads thus (Thisday, 2014):

1. The Nigerian agricultural sector is attracting unprecedented Foreign Direct Investment. Over the past two years, the sector has attracted $4 billion in private sector executed letters of commitment to invest in agricultural value chains, from food crops, to export crops, fisheries and livestock.
2. Presently, Nigeria has reached a 60 per cent sufficiency in rice production, a feat, which the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) recently described as capable of raising world rice output significantly, in the next 12 next months.
3. The Nigeria Agricultural Bank is being restructured and recapitalised to provide loans to peasant farmers at single digit interest rates.
4. Export of dried cassava chips began in July 2012, which will earn the country $136 million annually in foreign exchange. It is noteworthy that Nigeria is the largest producer of cassava in the world with about 42 million MT produced per annum.
5. Through the efforts of the Ministry of Agriculture under the Agricultural Transformation Agenda, around $8 billion in private investments has been attracted to agric business, crop production, processing and other forms of value addition.
6. The Federal Government also has succeeded in cleansing the rot in fertiliser distribution system. The direct procurement and distribution of fertilisers, by the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, has given way to a new dispensation where fertilisers are now sold directly to farmers by private agri-input dealers.

On the contrary, we have also heard claims that the achievements of ATA are being orchestrated and over-bloated; and that despite the huge capital investment claims, the average smallholder farmer has not significantly felt the impact. This viewpoint cannot be dismissed as rumours or antics of the opposition class, if placed within the periscopes of what globally accepted databases and factsheets are generating concerning our nation. Providing some of these would better drive home my viewpoint.

- Nigeria was ranked 156th of 187 countries in the world ranking of nations using the HDI [UNDP, 2011]. The country remains among low human development nations; ranked 152nd in 2013, with HDI = 0.5 and incremental value of 0.0004, compared to the previous year.
- Also on Nigeria's HDI, the Multi-Dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) shows that 54.1% of the population live in poverty [HDI, 2011]. Nigeria improved to 34.1% with MPI = 0.310 in 2013 (OPHI, 2013).
- Life expectancy in Nigeria according to international estimates was 47.65yrs in 2011 [UNDP, 2011]. This according to UNDP (2013) has risen to 51.9.
- The 2011 Ibrahim Index of African Governance released by the Mo Ibrahim Foundation ranked Nigeria 41st out of 53 countries studies with a score of 46.5 against Cape Verde 78.0, Ghana 66.0 and Sao Tome 60.2.

The 2014 Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG), released on Monday, shows that Nigeria ranks 37th out of 52 African countries. The Director of the IIAG at Mo Ibrahim Foundation, Elizabeth McGrath, said that the score was insignificant, because Nigeria deteriorated further in two of the four major categories of the index – safety and rule of law and human

development. It is instructive to note that Ghana was 7th out 52 African countries.

In all these, our interest as a professional association is neither to be partisan nor to vilify or applause any stakeholder involved in the actualization of the goals of ATA. It is against this background that we need to remind ourselves and articulate our position for the sake of ethics, professional relevance and posterity.

The role of rural sociologists in ATA

1. We need to mandatorily contribute to the agricultural policy processes and rural development strategies adopted by the government through our research and development activities to assists policy makers shape up and deepen their agenda. It is through our empirical and evidence-based research that realities could be reflected. From historical perspective, rural sociological scholarship has a long tradition of involving people, communities, and natural resources due in part to its location in the university land grant system of the US. The movement generated thereof culminated into the passage of Hatch Act of 1887 and Smith-Lever Act of 1914 concerning funding and public service status of extension work. It eventually matured to the founding of the Rural Sociological Society in the United States in 1937, to promote teaching, research and outreach thus influencing government policies on agriculture and rural sector (International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, 2008).
2. We need to generate social theories, models and conceptual frameworks that will proffer workable solutions to social problems with tradition and culture undertone. Such is relevant to enrich our curricula and for recommendation to the government.
3. We need to assist the rural population to have a voice in the policy process informed by proper understanding, correct interpretation and participation in development programmes. This is contrary to the status quo in which government policies were not derived from beneficiaries' perspectives and needs. This has implications on ownership and sustainability.
4. Our participation as an association in the highest decision making body on agriculture, the National Council on Agriculture and Rural Development is long overdue. The presence of a body of NRSA calibre is very important. This will give us better understanding about government's agenda and opportunity to articulate and complement the position of other stakeholders especially the rural masses, whose voices are muffled by the might of the powers that be.
5. There is the need for NRSA to develop a robust policy advocacy programme as a follow up to our stakeholders' interactive forum. As our democracy is growing, the quality of participation in how the populace (which is largely rural) is being governed is extremely poor. The practice of our rural folks, waiting till the election period before demonstrating their rejection of politicians is rather wasteful and unacceptable. Through our policy advocacy agenda, the policy makers and politicians should be assisted through objective monitoring and reviews on their programmes as 'rural feedbacks'. It is only through this that the ugly incidence 'stomach infrastructure' would be curtailed.

Concluding Remarks

I have gone this far in my address to call our attention to the need for professional bodies in general and specifically, the Nigerian Rural Sociological Association to reposition and strengthen themselves as think tanks that will assist governments in the development agenda requiring altruistic use of our scientific knowledge.

Finally and without prejudice to the vote of thanks session, I would like to personally thank our our Chief Host; the Vice-Chancellor, University of Benin – Professor O. G. Oshodin for accepting to host us and for the generous support and donation. I would like to also thank the keynote speaker – Professor M. K. Yahaya, the Hon. Commissioner of Agriculture and Rural Development, Niger State; for taking time to prepare and present the keynote address despite his very tight schedules. I would like to extend our appreciation to the lead paper presenters – Mr. Godson Ononiwu, of USAID/MARKETS and Professor Ike Nwachukwu, Michael Okpara University, Umudike.

Before I close, I will like to acknowledge the good job done by the Local Organising Committee members under the leadership of Dr. Friday Omoregbee for their dogged effort to make this congress a reality. We also thank the Dean of Faculty of Agriculture and Head of Department of Agricultural Economics and Extension for their contributions to this congress. I wish everyone a productive and memorable experience as we fully participate in the proceedings of this congress.

Thanks and God bless you all.

THE IMPERATIVES OF SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF CORRUPTION BY RURAL SOCIOLOGISTS

Being Presidential Address presented at the Formal Opening Ceremony of 24th Annual Congress of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN) held at Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomoso, Oyo state

Prof. Ademola Adekunte Ladele
President, Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria

Introduction
Protocols

It is with great pleasure that I welcome you to the 24th Annual National Congress of the Nigerian Rural Sociological Association. We thank God for making it possible for us to converge once again upon this professional platform to press on towards meeting the cardinal goals of the association – to address the myriads of challenges facing rural dwellers; proffer solutions to rural life transformation needs and expand the boundaries of knowledge pertaining to the well-being of the rural population, amongst others. Between NRSA UNIBEN 2014 and now, so many remarkable events have taken place in Nigeria that have made the subject of corruption very topical and a-must-visit by an association that should be in the frontline of the struggle for a better rural Nigeria from professional and academic perspective.

Without being pre-emptive of the outcome of the last general elections held earlier this year, our association has become very uncomfortable about the dimension of corruption and culture of impunity have assumed in Nigeria and their attendant deleterious consequences on rural development. It is an acceptable fact that the rural people bear the bigger portion of the burden of pain corruption has imposed upon Nigerians.

Hitherto, the battle against corruption in Nigeria has been fought with a kid's glove with the media literally making news on which people generally talk and grumble about without any real terminative action. Meanwhile, social scientists and the academia generally have always shied away from touching this monster in their research efforts. From my earlier investigations to know why, I got responses like the subject of corruption is very dry and difficult to research into as it cannot be measured and that the affair is clandestine in nature. I wonder if corruption could be more hideous than the parasites in our blood streams, that scientific researchers have crafted tools to deal with.

Several myths about corruption have been debunked and researchers in nations that are not as embattled with this canker worm are indeed taking frontline position in corruption studies. The Hungarian Gallup Institute, the Transparency International and many centres for comparative politics and economics in the United States, Europe and China. As far back as 2002, the Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences in collaboration with The Friedrich Ebert Foundation, Germany held a seminar on Corruption and Development in Africa, at least 10 other African countries were represented but not Nigeria.

Earlier articles (though not-empirical) on corruption in Nigeria can be traced to the Department of Economics in University of Ibadan (Olopoenia, 1998 and Oyejide, 2008;). Eker (1981) directly mentioned corruption and agricultural extension services. In more recent time, the works of late Professor F. S. Idachaba, classical amongst which is - the Nigeria agricultural economy and corruption – makes a significant inroad to evidential studies on corruption in agriculture. Since 2013, when the first empirical study (Fadairo, 2013) under my supervision was submitted to the Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development at Ph. D level, efforts into empirical/evidential research on corruption in agriculture is gradually gathering momentum. It is believed that the theme of the congress and the attendant sub-themes will further open up the eyes of many of our members who still believe that researching into corruption, sharp practices and transparency is either not needful or a very hard nut to crack will have a re-think.

Without pre-empting the array of issues the keynote address and the lead papers will raise; and the variety of findings and submissions that would emanate from our plenary sessions, I would like to make certain categorical submissions. These will be on the purported abstractness of the theme/subthemes of this congress which would help to put spanner to the knotty issues on pursuing scientific research into corruption in agriculture and rural development. It also reveals the imperativeness of the need to aggressively pursue research into all spheres of causes and consequences of corruption.

1. We shall not go too far in terms of effect and meaningful contributions to anti-corruption policies and strategies, if our research does not go deeper than addressing official corruption. We should go deeper into the psychology, sociology, behavioural, cultural and economic elements informing our perceptions towards corruption. In a research work on the attitude and perception of public office holders in the

agricultural sector in south west Nigeria to corruption (Ladele and Fadairo, 2011), about 53% of the respondents showed a favourable perception towards corrupt practices (Fig 1.); an indication that official corruption is fast becoming a cultural problem in our social system.

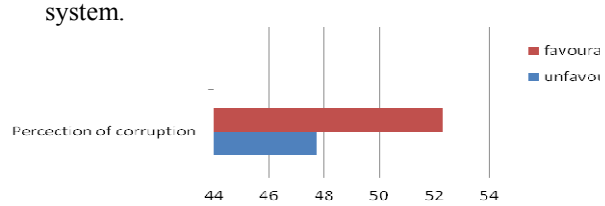

Figure 1: Perception of corrupt practices of public office holders in the Agricultural Sector in SW Nigeria

It should be possible to establish from peoples' socio-cultural background, what makes the difference between these two groups. Poor background, greedy orientation or rural urban exposure etc can be looked. Gureje (2015), 'asserted that there are people with character and personality impairments that should make them unfit for office or for leadership and possibly many of them holding political posts but may never come for treatment. May be, our collaborative research findings may find pschophatic test as a pre-requisite for higher office in Nigeria. People with character and personality impairments will become even more pronounced when they get to positions of leadership'!

2. Empirical or evidential analyses would likely yield better results in reducing official corruption as the consequences and need for policy action become more obvious than when left at the level of mere allegations and reportage on media channels. For instance, many Nigerians, especially our rural people cannot reasonably imagine what we are losing with so much 'common wealth' stacked away in foreign bank accounts unless we empirically or evidentially demonstrate such. As an illustration, a news item in the Sun UK, that a particular Nigeria ex-government official was 'nabbed while she was looking at buying a massively expensive apartment at one Hyde Park, with 13 billion pounds (about $20 billion at the rate of 1:1.53), an equivalent of over 3 trillion naira (https://www.naij.com/582821-just-former-ex-minister-diezani-caught-hiding-n3-9-trillion-uk-report.html)! Placing this side by side with the report that the longest sea-bridge, about 46km long, was recently completed in China at the cost of more than $1.5 million within a period of 4 years will have better impressions and reactions from Nigerians including policy our law- makers.
3. In the last five years, most Nigeria's development indicators, including the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) have not improved, despite commendable interventions such as Agricultural Transformation Agenda by the Federal Government of Nigeria. The CPI of Nigeria has ranged between 24/100 in 2010 to 27/100 in 2014. As serious as this social ill is; there is paucity of empirical or evidence-based research on the subject. Since approaching research agenda from the worst scenario (corruption) may present a subject nobody wants to talk about and it can largely be addressed by perception. Early attempts at empirical research into corruption has shown that studies on sharp practices, transparency, accountability, integrity and organizational management practices which either are direct or inverse correlate of corruption have been found to be helpful. Hence the theme of our congress as 'Changing social values, transparency and sharp practices – Impacts on agricultural and rural development', without mentioning the keyword corruption.
4. Individual and collective behaviour is guided by the underlying set of societal values as transmitted within the society contemporaneously and inter-generationally. Rules governing behaviours and concepts of good or bad for orderliness of the society or community can mildly or severely be corroded by emergent alien sets of values imposed on the society by a ruling class or political leadership (Idachaba, 2014). It would appear that in our social value systems over the last three decades there have been more of nuances of social ills than of progress. One social problem that has become so widespread and has permeated the fabrics of all our economy is **corruption**. All sectors, both formal and informal - government, health, education, business and commerce, agriculture; even including the religious sector are be-devilled by it. In effect, it has tremendous debilitating effect on people's livelihoods. While corruption has a global spread, it is more concentrated in the developing world and highly debilitating in sub-Saharan Africa, including Nigeria. Should this not suggest that more research attention should then be paid?
5. Despite the fact that several myths which have developed around corruption as a research subject have substantially been dismantled (thanks to the works of The Hungarian Gallup Institute and Transparency International), social scientists including rural sociologists who have contributed little towards unravelling this challenge. Verma (2005) rates corruption as the number one enemy of effective governance; and it possibly constitutes a greater social ill, which threatens our economy more than insurgency, poverty, youth

unemployment, HIV/AIDs and food insecurity (Ladele, 2010).

From the on-going it is expected that this congress will change our attitude as rural sociologists to realise that we have more role to play in addressing corruption as a research subject than hitherto presented. I should also be clear that tackling research on corruption only at official parlance will be highly limited and appear as mere scratching the subject on the surface.

Without pre-empting the scope and depth of the papers to be presented at this congress, I would like to suspect that the efforts that would be presented here will be just the beginning of an enduring and sustained professional research agenda. If this august assembly consider it necessary, it may dovetail into a research and advocacy movement larger than the present NRSA, which will be too strong to be ignored in the policy arena because of the realism of the data-base being generated.

Concluding remarks

By providence and coincidentally, the effort to register the Nigerian Rural Sociological Association brought up a technical issue from the desk of the Registrar General of the Corporate Affairs Commission which led to the re-naming of our association as Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN). With this new nomenclature, our association should more strategically position herself to play more positive role in proffering solutions to life transformations of Nigerians, majority of who are in the rural areas. If this does not happen, I can only illustrate our inaction with 'ability without commensurate action'. I think I can best illustrate this by a short video clip on 'the able-bodied being led by the crippled'.

I wish you all productive deliberation during this congress!

Thank you all!

ANALYSIS OF CORRUPT PRACTICES MILITATING AGAINST EFFECTIVE EXTENSION DELIVERY IN NIGERIA: A CASE STUDY OF AKWA IBOM STATE, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
Corruption has been identified as a monster that impedes progress towards desired ends wherever its presence is manifested. Agricultural extension delivery system is not immune to corruption. However, documented information on the various forms of corruption, and the extent to which they impede progress in agricultural extension service vis-à-vis the Agricultural Development Programme (ADP) Akwa Ibom State in particular and Nigeria in general is scanty. The study was, therefore, conducted to find out the various forms of corruption prevalent in Nigeria, Akwa Ibom State ADP as case study. In conducting the study, 135 extension personnel were randomly selected from the state through stratified random sampling technique. The state was stratified into the three ADP zones. Forty five extension personnel were selected from each zone, giving a total of 135 as the sample size. The result of the analysis of data obtained with aid of a questionnaire showed that the forms of corruption that ranked high included award of contracts to less competent bidders, abnormal cash payments, high commission charged, conversion of office equipment, vehicles to personal use. The study found no significant difference between the sample and population mean ratings of corruption indicators in Akwa Ibom State.
Keywords: Corrupt practices, extension personnel, effective extension delivery.

INTRODUCTION

Corruption has been identified as an enemy of progress and development the world over; and is exhibited in many forms. It is seen as an accountability problem because it is perpetrated by those in positions of authority and trusted with the responsibility of managing public resources, or providing services needed by the public. Most often, in Nigeria, it has been discovered that public servants including political office holders have corruptly enriched themselves by abusing the rights and privileges of their offices.

Detecting corruption is not always easy, as it involves two or more people in a secret illegal deal, and those not involved can hardly know what is going on. The Encarta English Dictionary defines corruption as dishonesty for personal gains which involves immorality or depravity. It is wrong-doing by those in special positions of trust. The term is used to refer to self-befitting conduct by public officers and others dedicated to public service. Exploitation, sleaze, bribery, fraud, venality, harm, debasement, degeneracy vice, etc. are all forms of corruption (Encarta Encyclopedia, nd). The term bribery is used synonymously with corruption, and it is defined as giving or receiving something of value to influence a transaction. Other related terms include extortion, which is demanding a sum of money (or goods) with a threat to harm if demands are not met; conflict of interest where an employee has personal or economic interest in a transaction; kickback- a portion of the value of contract demanded as bribe by an official for securing the contract, illegal gratuity- giving, or receiving something of value after transaction is completed, in acknowledgement of some influence over the transaction; commission fee used by companies or individuals to obtain the services of an agency/agent for assistance in securing a commercial contract.

Nigeria has been variously ranked by Transparency International at different times. Her best ranking on *Transparency International's* corruption perception index (CPI) under President Goodluck Jonathan was 143rd in 2011, 139th in 2012, 144th in 2013, and with the 2014 position bettering that of 2013 by eight places. The latest ranking is a giant leap from that of 2000, when Nigeria was rated the world's most corrupt country by *Transparency International* (*https://www.transparency.org/cpi2013/results*). Corruption is now entrenched in Nigeria that any kind business with Nigerian bureaucracy must take it into account. The situation is now so bad that government officials take bribe to get government business done. Politicians, retired civil servants, judges, and a few army generals have engaged in corrupt practices. Nigerians are known to live above their legitimate income. In Nigeria, corruption is akin to cancer. It is like a ball of snow once set rolling, it must increase. This has been the Nigerian experience with corruption developing to such staggering proportions, that it is now not only the bane of the nation, but has largely defied present and past efforts to stem it (Okoye, 2015).

Agricultural extension has as its ultimate goal, the removal of rural people from the poverty trap. This is to be achieved through extending improved technological recommendations to the farmers for adoption, which is expected to translate into increased yield and income, which in turn translates into improved standard of living. However, this goal has been largely unrealized. Hence, poverty still pervades rural life in Nigeria (Agbarevo and

Okwoche, 2014). The level of rural poverty in Nigeria, it may be argued, is a reflection of the level of corruption in ADP (and in Nigeria generally) , charged with the responsibility of helping rural farmers to increase production, income and overcome poverty; but many farmers and Nigerians generally below the poverty line of one United States dollar ($1.00) a day.

Poverty appears to be the greatest problem of developing countries, such as Nigeria. Although high degree of affluence may be exhibited by the ruling and elite classes, many people live below the poverty line of one USD per day. Poverty has persisted in Nigeria especially, among rural dwellers, who are predominantly farmers because of neglect, even though 70 per cent of Nigerians are rural dwellers; hence, they are referred to as the neglected majority. Various government agricultural and rural development programmes and projects have been undertaken to boost food production and incomes of rural dwellers, and consequently their standard of living but with little results. The rural dwellers still live in abject poverty without access to basic infrastructure. In this regard, World Bank (1990) observed that many countries within the sub-Saharan Africa region, including Nigeria, have many millions of people living on less than $370.00 USD a year.

Rural poverty and under development have persisted, apparently because it has been difficult for Nigeria to dismantle all structures which have tended to prevent rural dwellers from complete realization of their full potentials The greatest impediment to rural development and alleviation of rural poverty appears to be poor access to production resources, poor or absence of infrastructure and poor/lack of entrepreneurial and technical skills due to corruption (Agbarevo and Age, 2013). The ruling class in Nigeria, politicians, top civil/public servants and business men have exploited the poor, the neglected rural majority because corruption has eaten Nigeria like cancer. In this regard, Ruzindana (1999) asserted that corruption in Africa is a problem of routine deviation from established standards and norms of public officials and parties with whom they interact, and The Agricultural Development Programme is not immune to it.

Corruption has continued to thrive in Nigeria in spite of anti-graft laws in the country because the perpetrators are not afraid since they can buy their freedom from being tried or jailed. Corruption is exhibited in the following ways: bribery, abnormally high commission percentage, lavish gifts received, award of contracts without due process, abuse of decision making process, making payments for goods not supplied, inflation of contract value, embezzlement of public funds, poor dispensation of justice, doctoring/falsification of documents, having private meetings with contractors hoping to tender for contracts, making payments through a third party, not following guidelines in promotion, study leave, demanding bribe from sub-ordinates as well as outsiders, among others (Ayobami, 2011).

The Agricultural Development Programme (ADP) is a government agency, charged with the responsibility of assisting farmers to make incremental food production through extension education involving getting farmers to adopt improved agricultural technologies. The Agency cannot be said to be free from corruption but the extent to which corruption has affected the Agency (ADP) is apparently unknown. It is in this regard that this study was conceptualized.

METHODOLOGY

The area used for the study is Akwa Ibom State. Akwa Ibom State is located in the South-East agro-ecological zone and South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria. It lies between latitude $4^{0}33$ and $5^{0}33$ North and longitude $7^{0}33$ and $8^{0}35$ East. The State has a population of 3, 920,208 (National Population Commission, 2006). It is made up of thirty-one Local Government Areas. About seventy percent (70%) of the population lives in the rural area, and are predominantly farmers. The population of the study included all the agricultural extension personnel in Akwa Ibom State Agricultural Development Programme. The sample consisted of one hundred and thirty five (135) extension personnel randomly selected from the study area. The sampling procedure involved the use of stratified random sampling technique. The state was stratified into the three ADP zones. Forty five extension personnel were selected from each zone, giving a total of 135 as the sample size. Data for the study data were collected with the aid of structured questionnaires, which reflected corruption indicators.

Corruption was measured using a three-point rating scale containing identified corruption indicators, to which the respondents responded to by ticking the appropriate option. The three-point rating scale involved rating of the perceived level of corruption thus: high, moderate, and low, to which numerical values 1, 2 and 3 were assigned respectively. A three- point rating scale of 3, 2, and 1, add up to 6, which gives 2 as the mean when divided by 3. The scale was modified thus: a mean of 2.05 and above for each corruption indicator was regarded high, while 1.5 – 2.049 was moderate, and less than 1.50, low corruption respectively. The mean rating of corruption relative to the corruption indicators used for the study was used to determine the overall level of corruption in the system. The z-test was used to test the hypothesis to determine whether a significant difference existed between the population and sample means at 95%

confidence level ($p \leq 0.05$), and 134 degrees of freedom.

RESULTS

Results from Table1 show that the corruption indicators that ranked in the corruption index were, award of contracts not favourable to the organization but for personal interest with a mean of 2.71. This was followed by unexplained preference for certain contractors during tendering with a mean of 2.70. The third fourth and fifth most prevalent corrupt practices were abnormally high commission or percentage being paid by a contractor; which may be split in two accounts to cover up (mean 2.64); abnormal cash payments various kinds (2.60) and conversion of official vehicles, equipment, etc., to personal use (2.60) respectively. Others that ranked high with means above 2.05 were misappropriation of funds (mean 2.53), granting opportunity for training, seminars, workshops not based or merit (2.38). Inflation of contracts/making high value expenses (mean=2.38), raising barrier to participation of key persons in the tendering and building process (mean=2.37), avoidance of independent checks in tendering and award of contract (mean 3.35), exerting pressure for payments to be made urgently or ahead of schedule (mean=2.28), holding private meetings with contractors hoping to tender (mean=2.20), making unexpected illogical decision to certify projects (mean=2.11), employment of individuals who do not have the expected knowledge expertise (mean=2.10), disappearance of documents, or minutes of meetings (mean=2.16), invoices written in excess of contract purchase value (mean = 2.09). The overall mean of 2.270 is very high on a three-point corruption rating scale.

Table 1: Analysis and ranking of Corruption Indicators

Corruption indicators	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	$\bar{x}$
Abnormal cash payment	5	44	86	2.60**
Payments made urgently or ahead of schedule.	29	39	67	2.28**
Payments made when goods are not supplied.	54	61	20	1.75
An abnormally high commission percentage	9	31	95	2.60**
Private meetings with public contractors or companies hoping to tender for contracts	38	34	63	2.20**
Lavish gifts being received.	57	47	31	1.84
An individual who takes time off even if ill, or holiday or insists on dealing with specific contractors himself or herself	42	59	34	1.94
Making unexpected or illogical decisions, accepting projects contracts	21	78	36	2.11**
The unusually smooth process cases where an individual who does not have the expected level of knowledge expertise employed.	54	13	68	2.10**
Abuse of the decision process or delegated powers in specific cases	54	54	27	1.80
Awarding contracts not favourable to the organization either because of the terms or the period.	-	39	96	2.71**
Unexplained preference for certain contractors during tendering period	4	29	92	2.70**
Avoidance of independent checks on the tendering or contracting.	24	40	71	2.35**
Raising barriers around specific role or department which are keys in the tendering or contracting process.	12	61	62	2.37**
Bypassing normal tendering or contracting procedures	20	91	24	2.03
Invoices being agreed in excess of the contract without reasonable cause	41	41	53	2.09**
Missing documents or records regarding meetings, decisions, etc	24	66	45	2.16**
Procedures or guidelines not being followed.	36	58	41	2.04
The payments of making funds available for high value expenses for school fees (or similar on behalf of others)	9	66	60	2.38**
Granting of opportunity for training, seminars, workshops not based on merit.	22	25	88	2.49**
Demanding bribe from subordinates before giving them their due.	55	25	55	2.00
Grand mean	2.27**			

On the other hand, forms of corruption that were rated moderate, that is, those with means ranging between 1.5 and 2.05 included: not following due process, bribery, by passing normal tendering or contracting procedure, with payments made through third party scoring least on the corruption practices scale, followed by receiving lavish gifts, coming to work on holidays/when on leave to deal with certain contractors, abuse of decision process.

Table 2: Z-test Analysis of Significance of Difference between Sample and Population Mean Ratings of level of corruption in ADP

Groups	X	SD	P≤ 0.05	z-cal	Decision
Sample	2.270	0.314	1.96	0.08	H_0 Accepted
Population	2.275				

Discussion

Seventeen out of twenty forms of corruption ranked high in the corruption scale of the study. The implication of this is that there is high level corruption in agricultural extension delivery in Nigeria. If the level of corruption as found by the study is converted into percentage, it gives over seventy percent (70.83%). This is the scenario not only in extension organizations in Nigeria but the general state of the nation in corruption because the level of corruption in any state in Nigeria would not differ significantly from what happens in other states of the Federation. This agrees with Okoye (2015), who observed that corruption has developed to such staggering proportions that it is now not only the bane of the nation but has largely defied present and past efforts to stem it. And that for most part, corruption in Nigeria is encompassing with abuses from government officials, such as embezzlement, nepotism, bribery, extortion, influence peddling and fraud.

The finding that many forms of corruption exist within the ADP in Nigeria as seen in seventeen corrupt practices loading high, agrees with Ayobami (2011), who reported bribery, private gain, ghost workers, dishonesty, illegal behaviours exhibited by public officials, among others. It has been estimated that Nigeria has lost over four billion US Dollar ($400.00bn) since independence due to corruption (Wikipedia free Encyclopedia, nd). The high level of corruption in Akwa Ibom ADP is a reflection of what is happening in other states, generally. The corruption in ADP, which is linked to poor agricultural extension delivery, low food production and continued poverty of the rural farmers is a major reason for massive importation of food by Nigeria, leading to a drain of our foreign exchange earnings. If agricultural extension delivery were efficiently executed with minimum level of corruption, the situation would have been different. In this regard, Ugochukwu (2015) pointed out that corruption in the agricultural sector, which has resulted in low food production has led to a situation where Nigeria imports rice worth eighty billion United States Dollars ($80bn), and is a shame even when the country has the potential to be self-sufficient in food production. Statistics have shown that Ebonyi and Ekiti States can produce all the food Nigeria needs if given less than the amount used for rice importation. Uzochukwu (2015) further observed that corruption is among the biggest challenges in Nigeria, and it is clear to every Nigerian citizen that the level of corruption in the corruption index is high. This is in agreement with the high level of corruption found in the Agricultural Development Programme (ADP) by the study. He further observed that corruption is found in the entire sectors of the country. Be it small or big sector, there is every possibility of observing corrupt practices when critically examined he concluded. Many corruption indicators, as found by the study have tended to impede agricultural extension delivery, and by extension, food production and rural development leading to poverty. This is corroborated by Oseni (2008), who further posited that poverty and corruption have been described as Siamese twins that are inextricably linked together. Rural poverty is, therefore, linked to poor agricultural extension delivery, arising from corruption in ADP as found by the study.

CONCLUSION

The study has revealed that corruption looms large in the Agricultural Development Programme in Nigeria. Tackling corruption in ADP is a condition for effective agricultural extension delivery in Nigeria. In addition, anti-graft agencies in Nigeria should be overhauled, and given teeth to bite with their search light beamed on public agencies including ADP to stem the tide of corruption in the system for improved extension delivery.

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ASSESSMENT OF AGRICULTURAL INCOME GENERATING ACTIVITIES OF RURAL WOMEN IN IBARAPA AREA OF OYO STATE

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the agricultural income generating activities of rural women in Ibarapa areas of Oyo state. A sample size of 105 respondents was randomly selected using a multi-stage sampling procedure from Ibarapa Central and North Local Government Areas. A structured interview guide was used in data collection. The data was analyzed with frequency counts and percentages and Chi square. Data revealed that most (61.9%) of the rural women were between 40 – 60 years and with the mean age of 48 years. The highest educational status of the respondents was primary education while trading was the highest off-season activities engaged in by the respondents'. Agricultural activities performed by the rural women cut across all farming operations. The majority (78.8 %) of the respondents engaged in harvesting operations, while 68.6% of the respondents engaged in agricultural activities on their farm while 63.8% of the respondents perform the activities as a paid worker. The result of the $\chi 2$ test revealed that there is the significant relationship between the religion ($\chi 2=17.371$, $p< 0.05$), educational level ($\chi 2=67.286$, $p<0.05$), place of residence ($\chi 2=70.200$, $p<0.05$) and mode of agricultural activities performed by the rural women. Based on the findings, it was recommended that the development agencies should aim at empowering the women in their fields of operation.

INTRODUCTION

Agricultural income generating activities of rural women in Nigeria is seen as additional earning to sustain livelihood, support family as well as serve as a means of personal and developmental purpose. It helps rural women to fight hunger, poverty and food insecurity within their locality. Therefore, Agricultural led growth played an important role in reducing poverty and transforming the economies of rural communities in many developing countries, but the same is not yet in Africa, as most countries are yet to meet the criteria for a successful agriculture revolution (Ibekwe, *et al*., 2010). According to Staatz and Dembele (2007), increasing agricultural productivity has been a major challenge in Sub-Sahara Africa (SSA), where 62% of the population (excluding South Africa) depends on agriculture for their livelihoods. Since the early 1960s, agricultural production in SSA has failed to keep pace with population growth (Benin, 2006).

Although women make up half of the world population, their participation in various activities is not the same as men. Women are responsible for about 50% of the world food production and in some countries of sub-Saharan African (including Nigeria), it is often heard that women produce 60 to 80 percent of food in most developing countries and half of the world's food supply (Momsen, 1991; Mehra and Rojas, 2008). Women's contribution to agricultural production varies from country to country, and among different enterprises. Without the participation of women in the development process, society as a whole cannot be said to develop sufficiently. Nevertheless, due to gender discrimination. Rural women engage in diverse income generating activities to ensure their household food security. These include availability, adequacy, accessibility and sustainability of access to food. The element of availability, accessibility utilization, and sustainability in a larger context embrace the supply, demand the adequacy of food at all time. According to the World Bank (2003), Lanjouw (2001) and Meludu, *et al.*, (1999), rural households worldwide engage in a variety of non-farm activities to generate income, and these included food processing, trending, mat weaving, and pottery. Rural livelihood diversification is then defined as the process by which households construct a diverse portfolio of activities and socio support capabilities for survival and to improve their standard of living.

Rural income generating activities cover all the income generating activities in the rural areas. It includes on-farm, off-farm and non-farm activities. Income generating activities allowed the rural women to be more involved in self-productive activities and it has also empowered women by enabling them to making economic decisions. The experience of different researchers shows that empowerment of women through income generating activities brings about significant improvement in women participation in household decision making, family planning, children survival rate, health and nutrition and children education, especially female education (Steele, Amin, and Maved, 1998). According to Khandker, (1995), pervasive poverty has affected millions of rural women at many levels, and thus, alleviation required diverse measures. The most important interventions were those that provide employment and income generating an opportunity to rural women and these enhance their living standard.

Hence, the pertinent questions that guided this research work are the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in the study area,

the agricultural income generating activities engaged in by the respondents and the significant relationship between the socio-economic characteristics and income generating activities of the respondents.

METHODOLOGY

Study area - The study was carried out in Ibarapa East, Central and North local Government areas in the Southwestern part of Oyo State. There were seven major towns and hamlets in the area. Thearea shares boundaries with Ido Local Government area of Oyo state in the east, Iwajowa Local Government Area in the North, Abeokuta, Ogun State in the South and Ayetoro/Imeko, Ogun state in the West. The vegetation of the area is largely rainforest and savanna, thus allowing for the cultivation of wide array of arable and perennial crops. The rainfall pattern in the area follows a tropical pattern with an annual rainfall ranging from 1000m-1430mm and relatively high temperature. The occupation of the people is largely farming (predominantly subsistent farming) and some pocket of commercial agriculture. Also, there is the sizeable proportion of the inhabitants engaged in other occupations and vocations such as civil service, trading artisan and provision of services. The people in the area emerged from different tribes in Nigeria. However there are a few foreigners there also. The dominant tribe in the area is Yoruba, which form about 95% of the population and they are the original settlers in the area. Historically, the area is dominated by Yoruba tribe who are decent of several clans of Yoruba land.

Source of data, sampling techniques and sample size - Primary data was used through structured interview guide to the selected rural women in various fields of livelihood activities. The structured interview guide covered the socio-economic characteristics of the rural women like age, sex and level of education. It also included livelihood activities performed and regularity of involvement. The sample size for the study was drawn from the study population of rural women in Ibarapa area using a multi-stage sampling technique.

In the first stage, purposive sampling technique was used to select the two local government areas covering the seven communities in Ibarapa area, and these were Ibarapa North and Ibarapa Central. This is because the location of the study falls within the rural settings. In the second stage, one community was randomly selected from each of the local government area, and they are Igangan and Igboora. The third stage involves the selection of two political wards selected from each of the two rural areas. While the fourth stage involve the random selection of thirty (30) respondents from each of the four wards to give a total of 120 respondents. A total of 105 interview guide were used for the data analysis which gives a total responses of 87.5%, while 12.5% remaining were discarded.

Data was analyzed with descriptive and inferential statistics such as Chi-square

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Personal characteristic of respondents - The result in Table 1 indicates that the mean age of rural women was 47.7 years. Some women (61.9%) were between the age range of 41 – 60 years while few (3.8%) of them were above 60 years. Thus, many of rural women are expected to be agile and able-bodied full of characterized with strength.

Less than half (45.7%) of the respondents were divorced, 42.9% were married, 9.4% were single while 1.9% were widowed. It implies that most of the respondents are lack behind in family tier of relationship as early parts of their lives were full of procreation purpose and later divorced.

Furthermore, result in Table 1 indicates that the mean years of farming experience of the respondents was 15.05 years. Half of the women had less or equal to 10 years of farming experience. While very few (1.9%) of rural women had 51 – 60 years of farming experience. This implies that farming experience of women is reasonable enough for them to tap into any future innovation either from extension agents or other sources. Also, Table 1 shows that 34.3% of respondents had primary education completed 31.4% of them agricultural women who had the secondary school completed but few 5.7% complete tertiary education. This finding indicates that the women in the study area are to some extent literate.

The mean household size of the rural women was 5.14. Most (63.8%) of rural women has household size ranging from 1 – 5 persons. This implies that the household head to some extent has a sizeable number of family labour as situation demands. Below half 41.0% of the respondents in the study area were traders, 13.3% were civil servant while 37.1% of the respondent were artisan. A slightly above average 64.7% of the respondents earned less than eleven thousand ₦11,000 per month from their profession while very few 1.9% of women farmers earned greater than thirty–one thousand naira per month. This implies that the respondents could be described as low-income earners.

Table 1: Socioeconomic characteristic of respondents, n=105

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean/Mode
Age			
<40	36	34.3	47.7
41-60	65	61.9	
>60	4	3.8	
Religion			

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean/Mode
Muslim	43	41.0	
Christianity	47	44.8	
Traditional	15	14.3	
Marital status			
Married	45	42.9	
Single	10	9.5	
Divorced	48	45.7	
Widowed	2	1.9	
Years of experience			
<40	53	50.5	15.08
11-20	34	32.5	
21-30	7	6.7	
31-40	9	8.6	
41-50	0	0	
>60	2	1.9	
Educational level			
No primary education	30	28.6	
Primary education	36	34.3	Primary
Secondary education	33	31.4	
Tertiary	6	5.7	
Household size			
<5	67	63.8	5.14
6-12	38	36.2	
Other occupation			
Trading	43	41.0	Trading
Civil servants	14	13.3	
Teaching	9	8.6	
Others	39	37.1	
Income realized from other occupation			
<N1000	5	4.8	
1000-11000	68	64.7	₦ 9136.76
12000-20000	23	22.0	
21000-30000	7	6.7	
>31000	2	1.9	
Total	105	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Agricultural activities performed

The data in Table 2 shows that above half 52.4% of the respondents engage in land clearing operations, 57.1% of the respondents engage in land preparation, 63.8% of the respondents involved in planting operation, while 61.9% of the rural women engage in weed control, most (60.0%) of the rural women perform fertilizer application. This is an indication that most of the rural women engage themselves in these various operations because of lack of labourers, to save cost, have ability to perform the task. Also, 78.8% of rural women engage in harvesting of farm crops as their income generating activities, while 63.8% of respondents work as hired labour for others in the area as a means of income generating activities. Furthermore, most (63.8%) of the respondents revealed that they engage in off-farm activities during the off-season to support their livelihood activities.

Table 2: Agricultural Activities performed (n = 105)

Agricultural production activities* `	Yes (%)
Engage land clearing	55 (52.4)
Engage in land preparation	60 (57.1)
Engage in planting operation	67 (63.8)
Engage in weed control (Mechanical & Chemical)	65 (61.9)
Perform fertilizer application	63 (60.0)
Engage in harvesting operation	82 (78.8)
Engaged in hired labour	67 (63.8)
Engaged in family labour	68 (64.8)
Engage in Off-farm livelihood activities	67 (63.8)

Source: Field survey, 2014.
* Multiple Responses
Figures in parentheses are in Percentage

Mode of performance of agricultural activities

Results in Table 3 shows that majority (68.6%) of the respondents perform the agricultural activities on their farm as personal business as an income generating activities, while 31.4% of the respondents perform agricultural activities as a paid worker e.g. wage labourers on farms, processing sites and services providers. This is an indication that most of the rural women in the study area involves themselves in agricultural activities as a personal business to earn living for their family, carried out most farming work on daily basis.

Table 3: Mode of Activities Performed

Mode of Activities performed	Frequency	Percentage
As a paid worker	33	31.4
As personal business	72	68.6
Total	105	100

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Relationship between socioeconomic characteristics and agricultural income generating activities

The result in Table 4 shows that there is significant relationship between the socio-economic characteristic and agricultural income generating activities of the respondents. Result in

Table 4 showed significant relationship exist between religion ((χ^2 = 17.371, p< 0.05), educational level ((χ^2 = 67.286, p<0.05) place of residence ((χ^2 = 70.200, p<0.05) and the mode of agricultural income generating activities performed. This implies that educational level has an influence on income generating activities. The academic knowledge acquired by rural women in the study area can widen the experience of these women especially in the packaging of their products to ensure a profitable income generating activities.

Table 4: Results of Chi-square ((χ^2) test showing the relationship between socio-economic characteristic of respondents and agricultural income generation activities

Variables	x^2	Df	p-value	Decision
Religion	17.371	3	0.000	Significant
Marital status	63.876	3	0.000	Significant
Educational level	67.286	4	0.000	Significant
Place of residence	70.200	1	0.000	Significant

Source; Field survey, 2014

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusion

Based on the findings, it can be therefore concluded that women in the study area are active economically and not passive. They engage in all agricultural activities as men.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the findings and the conclusion of the study:

1. The government should organize training for the women on better and modern practice in various agricultural activities.
2. Empowerment packages should target at areas of specialization of rural women.
3. Educational level of rural women should be increased through adult and non-formal educational programmes'.
4. Agricultural development programmes should be initiated by the government for the betterment of the rural women.
5. Training programmes should be organized on regular intervals to give targeted groups opportunities to learn and express themselves in public and improve their self-confidence.
6. The government should open-up opportunities for rural women farmer to participate in on-farm employment, through the development of rural industrial for poverty reduction among rural households.

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ASSESSMENT OF NON-FARM LIVELIHOOD DIVERSIFICATION STRATEGIES OF FARM-FAMILIES IN EPE AGRICULTURAL ZONE, LAGOS, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
Inefficiencies, rising poverty and low return on investment have predisposed farmers to engaging livelihood in many non-farm livelihood diversification strategies. This necessitated investigation into farm-families' non-farm livelihood diversification strategies in Epe Agricultural zone, Lagos, Nigeria. It investigated respondents' personal characteristics, identifies their non-farm activities, determined their level of involvement, factors motivating them and benefits derived from and constraints faced in engaging in non-farm activities. Data were collected from 109 randomly sampled farm-families using a multistage sampling procedure through structured questionnaire. Data were analyzed using frequency counts, percentage mean and chi-square. Result reveals that average age of farmers was 40.6 years, majorities (61.5%) were male, married (68.8%) and literate (95.5%). Petty trading, 'Ajo' collection, boat construction, craft making and fish net weaving are non-farm activities respondents engaged-in. Better returns on investment and risk of farming were pull and push factors motivating farmers into non-farm activities. Better housing quality, medical care and access to farm inputs markets were some of the benefits derived from non-farm activities. Poor infrastructure like market channel, electricity and water supply was a major constraint to non-farm activities. There was no significant relationship between farmers' sex and livelihood diversification (X^2=24.650; P>0.05). Advocacy of a bottom-up policy to support non-farm livelihood diversification activities as alternative approach to overcome corruption and unethical conducts in Nigerian agricultural sector is thus recommended.
Keywords: Non-farm livelihood, diversification strategies, farm-families.

INTRODUCTION
Agriculture was the major livelihood before the advent of crude-oil exploration in Nigeria. The changing socioeconomic, political, environmental and climatic atmosphere in Nigeria and other developing countries across the globe has continued to aggravate the living conditions of most households especially those living in the rural areas (Oluwatayo, 2009). In most developing economies, rurality is linked to agriculture. The major occupation of rural dwellers is farming and thus the priority of successive government since independence is geared towards rural and community development strategies.

Ajani and Igbokwe (2014) reveal that agriculture led growth played an important role in reducing poverty and transforming the economies of rural communities in many developing countries, but the same has not yet occurred in sub-Saharan Africa. Warren (2002) posits that intensification of agricultural production or diversification of income sources have been the two most widespread adaptations of rural people to the crisis of traditional livelihood strategies. Warren (2002) further asserts that the concept of diversity according to sustainable livelihoods research is the exploitation of multiple assets and sources of revenue. He stated that, diversity is an intrinsic attribute of many rural livelihood strategies.

According to Hussein and Nelson (1999), livelihood diversification includes both on and off-farm activities which are undertaken to generate income additional to that from the main household agricultural activities, via the production of other agricultural and non-agricultural goods and services, the sale of waged labor, or self-employment in small firms, and other strategies undertaken to spread risk. Included in this are what has been termed 'activity or environment diversification' in agriculture, or more radical migratory strategies. Rural Nigeria is predominantly characterized with farming as well as certain other primary production activities. Oni and Fashogbon (2013) opined that agricultural-based livelihood in rural Nigeria has a higher level of poverty than other occupational groups. Agrarian sector in rural areas is subjected to incidences of local variations in weather conditions, variations in income levels and thus access to qualitative food. Therefore, there is need to diversify sources of income into multiple agricultural and/or non-agricultural income-based livelihood systems. In Nigeria, however, there have been several strategies and interventions by extension agency of government and other extension agencies on a private model in building a sustainable rural livelihood.

The Rural Non-Farm Economy (RNFE) according to Davis (2003) may be defined as comprising all those non-agricultural activities which generate income to rural households (including income in-kind and remittances), either through waged work or in self-employment. In some contexts, rural non-farm activities are also

important sources of local economic growth; tourism, mining, timber processing, etc. thus, the RNFE is a key concept and indicator to the rural development and economy at large due to its production linkages and employment effects, while the income it provides to rural households represents a substantial and sometimes growing share of rural incomes (Davis, 2003). An ideal classification of the RNFE according to Davis (2003) should capture some or all of the following distinctions:

- Activities closely linked to farming and the food chain, and those not part of that chain - since agricultural linkages are often important determinants of the RNFE's potential for employment and income generation;
- Those producing goods and services for the local market, and those producing for distant markets (tradable) - since the latter have the chance to create jobs and incomes independently of the rural economy; and,
- Those sufficiently large, productive, and capitalized to generate incomes above returns obtainable in farming, and those that offer only marginal returns - since this reflects the RNFE capacity to generate local economic growth. Although low return activities can maintain households above the poverty line; they usually do not foster growth.

Beyond the participation of rural dwellers in farming, other non-farm activities like, trading, lumbering, crafts making, and wage labor are some of the types of activities that farm-families engaged with as primary and secondary activities. Conversely, there is a support over time of the argument as to why developing countries should move away from agriculture and invest in technology. Since most population of developing nations is found in agrarian sector, it is evident that we cannot significantly and sustainably reduce food-insecurity without transforming the living conditions and livelihood intensification of farm-families.

The concern for agriculture, farm-families livelihood diversification and their corresponding environment become synonymous, with a common root and that the bedrock of agriculture and agricultural development in Africa is to attain food security and sectorial development. Increasing the agricultural profitability of smallholder farmers and creating rural off-farm employment opportunities is of a major concern of extension intervention. More so, the activities of farm-families in livelihood diversification need a proactive attention from extension practitioners. This study therefore was aimed to assess livelihood diversification of farm-families in the study area. The specific objectives of the study were:

1. To describe the personal characteristics of the respondents in the study area
2. To identify non-farm activities that respondents engaged-in in the study area
3. To determine the level of involvement of respondents in non-farm activities in the study area
4. To ascertain the factors motivating respondents into non-farm enterprises
5. To ascertain the benefits respondents derived from non-farm activities in the study area
6. To identify the constraints that respondents faced in engaging in non-farm activities in the study area

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Epe Agricultural zone of Lagos State, Nigeria. There are twenty Local Government Areas in the states according to 1999 constitutions. And thirty-seven Local Development Areas were created by the state administration in 2003 to help develop the communities and villages in the state. Badagry, Epe and Ikorodu are the three major agricultural zones in the state. However, Epe was surveyed purposively due to its predominance in agricultural activities in the state. It lies on the north bank of Lekki Lagoon and has road connections to Ijebu-Ode and Ikorodu. It is located at coordinates 6°35′N 3°59′E and at the 2006 Census, the population of Epe was 181,409. Modern Epe is a collection point for the export of fish, cassava, corn, green vegetables, coconuts, cocoa, palm produce, rubber, and firewood to Lagos. Special leaves useful in preserving kola nuts are trucked to Ijebu-Ode, Shagamu, and the other main kola-shipping towns. Epe is best known for its construction of the motorized, shallow-draft barges that navigate the coastal lagoons. This is one of the major off-farm activities that are predominant in the zone. Fishing however, is a major occupation of the Epes and a form of farm diversification into other agricultural enterprises.

The population of this study was the farm families in Epe. The farm families are those households that predominantly engage in farming as primary occupation. A purposive sampling technique was used to draw Epe from the three agricultural zones in the state. Data were collected using multistage sampling procedures. There are six Local Council Development Areas (LCDA) in Epe; Agbowa, Epe, Eredo, Ibeju, Itoikin and Lekki. At stage one, 50% of the LCDAs were drawn out of six using paper ballot.

At second stage, 40% of total farming communities from selected LCDA was randomly drawn. Hence, farm communities surveyed in Agbowa include Ota-Ikosi and Odo-Onasa; Eredo; Odo-Egiri, Noforija, Ilara and Odoragunshen respectively while, Ago-Hausa and Orugbo were communities surveyed at Itoikin. In the third stage, 15% of sample frame of farm-families from all the

selected communities in each LCDA were randomly drawn. A total of 109 respondents were selected as the study sample size. Data were collected using questionnaire. This was subjected to both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Personal characteristics of farmers in the study area - Table 1 presents the results of personal characteristics of farm-families in the study area. The average age of farmers surveyed was 40.7 years. The farmers therefore are in their active age of production. This factor shows strength and agility among majority of the farmers because they were still young and within the work-active age bracket. The implication of this age is that, famers will be willing to intensify or diversify their income into more productive ventures that could improve their livelihood. This result is in agreement with the opinion of Ogunlade, Oladele and Babatunde (2009) that reported that young farmers are agile, manipulative, progressive, mobile and willing to assist other farmers passing on agricultural information. Also, Jaji, (2014) reported that age determines the level of dynamism and experience of an individual's ability to take decisions and participate actively in the development of self and the community. However, age of household-head above fifty could be considered ineffective and inefficient to be actively involved in livelihood activities to provide household income. This is supported with the view of Amogne (2014) that said that, the likelihood to engage in nonfarm diversification decreases as the head of household grows in age.

Result on gender distribution shows that, there were more male-headed farm-families (61.5%) than female-headed farm-families (38.5%). This is in consonance with the report of Oluwatayo (2009) that majority of the respondents were males (55.5%) engaging in different livelihood activities in the study area. Educational status of respondents reveals that 5.5% did not have formal education, 11.0%, 34.9% and 48.6% had primary, secondary and tertiary education, respectively. This distribution shows that the bulk of all the respondents are educated and this could possibly affect their desire for engagement in multi-dimensional livelihood diversification. The result of the marital status of respondents shows that 68.8% were married while 25.7% and 5.5% were single and divorced or widowed respectively. The implication is that married farm-families would possess the required psychological needs of spouse motivation in improving the household status.

Result in Table 1 also depicts that more than half (56.9%) of respondents had below five (5) people living together and feeding from the same pot with the household head. Those with about 6–10 members constituted 39.4% and 11–15 members were 3.7%. This implies that the household size is fair and this is expected to provide a fair standard of living to the farm-families. Also, farming (45.9%) was the major occupation of respondents, but almost 45.0% of the respondents engaged in both farming and non-farming activities. However, 59.2% of respondents affirmed that farming enterprises was their major source of family income. Also, 60.0% of the respondent lived in a semi-permanent house made with iron roofed but plastered with mud walls. Furthermore, 37.1% and 2.9% of the respondents lived in permanent house and iron sheet roofed with mud walls (see Figure 1).

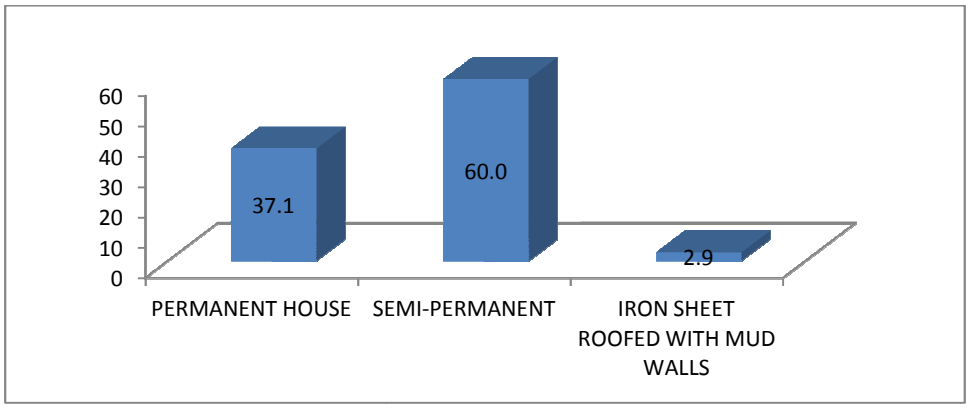

Figure 1: Types of respondents' house

Types of non-farm activities in the study area

Table 2 reveals that 72.8% of the respondents engaged in farm intensification, 46.5% engaged in non-farm intensification while 67.0% engaged in both on-farm and non-farm diversification. Out of the four categories of non-farm enterprises presented, self-help enterprise (77.1%) was the enterprise that farmers engaged most in the study area. Wage labor (64.1%) and home based enterprise (50.5%) were some other activities that

farm-families participated in providing income for the families. However, 70.3% of the farm-families did not participate in migratory enterprise. Thus, their livelihood diversification into non-farm activities is to provide alternate sources of income to the family and also, to generate income that could be invested into farming; the major occupation of the farm-families. Petty trading (25.8% and 'Ajo' collection (39.7%) were the major form of self-help activities that farm-families engaged-in within the study area.

Table 2: Distribution of respondents by types of non-farm activities

ITEMS	YES Freq. (%)	NO Freq. (%)
Farm intensification only	75 (72.8)	28 (27.2)
Non-farm diversification only	47 (46.5)	54 (53.5)
Engagement in both on-farm and non-farm	69 (67.0)	34 (33.0)
Engagement in home based enterprises	52 (50.5)	51 (49.5)
Participation in other self-help enterprises	81 (77.1)	24 (22.9)
Engagement in wage labor	66 (64.1)	37 (35.9)
Involvement in any form of migratory enterprises	30 (29.7)	71 (70.3)

Source: Field survey, 2015

Level of involvement in non-farm activities

The result in Table 3 presents different types of non-farm activities that farm-families in the study area engaged-in. They participated moderately (43.5%) and highly (25.8%) in petty trading, 46.6% and 39.7% involved in "Ajo" collection moderately and highly respectively. About 36.0% 25.0% and 19.4% were involved in boat construction, mat and fish net weaving, respectively. However, about 45.7% household heads moderately involved their children in trade hawking. Significantly, female household-heads participated low in dish washing at occasions (71.4%) and babysitting (75.0%).

Table 3: Distribution of respondents by level of involvement in non-farm activities

Level of non-farm involvement	Low Freq. (%)	Moderate Freq. (%)	High Freq. (%)
Petty trading	19 (30.6)	27 (43.5)	16 (25.8)
Boat construction	23 (46.0)	18 (36.0)	9 (18.0)
Cloth making	28 (66.7)	12 (28.6)	2 (4.8)
Mat weaving	26 (59.1)	11 (25.0)	7 (15.9)
Commercial house keeping	18 (54.5)	11 (33.3)	4 (12.1)
Fish net weaving	21 (67.7)	6 (19.4)	4 (12.9)
Tree felling	22 (59.5)	10 (27.0)	5 (13.5)
Ajo collections	10 (13.7)	34 (46.6)	29 (39.7)
Cooking at occasions	23 (56.1)	10 (24.4)	8 (19.5)
Hair platting	20 (66.7)	8 (26.7)	2 (6.7)
Dish washing at occasion	20 (71.4)	6 (21.4)	2 (7.1)
Baby sitting	21 (75.0)	7 (25.0)	0 (0.0)
Involvement of children in income trade-hawking	22 (47.8)	21 (45.7)	3 (6.5)

Source: Field survey, 2015

Factors motivating farmers into non-farm activities

Table 4 presents both pull and push factors that motivate household farmers into participation in non-farm activities. Result of all the motivational factors shows that respondents agreed to majority of all the items except that 61.4% said that limited farm income due to subsistence system of farming did not push household farmers into non-farm activities. However, 69.9%, 58.8%, 72.8% and 72.1% affirmed that risk of farming, seasonal nature of farm produce, household size and drought and land tenure problem push farm-families into non-farm activities. Results also shows that 84.8% agreed that pull factors from non-farm activities provide better returns on investment. Also, 57.2%, 60.5% and 49.5% said high demand for goods and services for family chores, exposure to urban center and flair for household wealth pull them into non-farm activities.

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by factors motivating household farmers into non-farm activities

Motivating factors	Yes (%)	No (%)
Pull factors		
Better returns on investment	84.8	15.2
High demand for goods and services	57.2	42.7
Exposure to urban center	60.5	39.4
Flair for household wealth	49.5	50.5
Push factors		
Risk of farming	69.9	30.1

Motivating factors	Yes (%)	No (%)
Seasonal nature of farm produce	58.8	41.2
Household size	72.8	27.2
Drought and land tenure problem	72.1	27.9
Limited farm income due to subsistence system	38.6	61.4

Source: Field survey, 2015

Benefits derived from non-farm activities

Benefits of diversification into non-farm activities were presented in Table 5. Results show that 72.2% of the respondents said that non-farm activities provide a better housing quality. Also, 73.1% of the respondents said that non-farm activities provides access to farm input markets that could aid better farm output. This implies that farm-families diversify into non-farm activities in order to improve their farm activities but not to neglect farming activities. 70.4% of the respondents affirmed that non-farm activities provide better educational status to farm-families, 63.9% said that, it open access to a better medical care and 55.7% said it changes the general status of farm-families. This implies that, farm-families were aware of basic education on home economies, healthy living and basic domestic information that could improve the productivity of farm labor, improve nutritional status of families, provides basic information on environmental and sanitation issues and open access to information on credit facilities and other needed farm input for improved farm productivity. Hence, extension intervention is required as rural or sectorial vacuum filler to farm families.

Table 5: Distribution of respondents by benefits household farmers derived from non-farm activities

Benefits of non-farm activities	Yes Freq. (%)	No Freq. (%)
Provision of better housing qualities to household farmers	70 (72.2)	23 (23.7)
Pathway to rural-urban migration that transform the socio-cultural status of household	74 (76.3)	22 (22.7)
Pathway to empowerment through training and education to household farmers	71 (72.4)	26 (26.5)
Provision of better educational status to household farmers	69 (70.4)	27 (27.6)
Provision of access to farm input markets that could aid better farm output	68 (73.1)	25 (26.9)
Household accessibility to better medical care	62 (63.9)	34 (35.1)
Change the general status of farmers household	54 (55.7)	41 (42.3)

Source: Field survey, 2015

Constraints to non-farm activities

Constraints that respondents faced in participating in non-farm activities were presented in Table 6. Result reveals that 36.1% and 51.5% of respondents indicated that poor infrastructures like market channel, poor electricity, bad road network and portable water supply were minor and major constraints respectively to non-farm activities. Lack of information about the technicality and accessibility of non-farm output to consumers were perceived as minor and major constraints by 47.4% and 40.7% of the respondents, respectively. Also, 54.6% of the respondents perceived policy support of government and relevant agencies as minor constraint to involvement of farmers in non-farm activities. However, 34.0% of the respondents did not perceived cost of investment in non-farm activities as constraint to involvement in non-farm activities. This result implies that, if necessary intervention and social amenities are provided, livelihood pattern or status of farm-families through participation in non-farm activities would be improved and thus, agricultural production would be enhanced.

Table 6: Constraints household farmers faced in non-farm activities

Constraints faced in non-farm activities	Not Freq. (%)	Minor Freq. (%)	Major Freq. (%)
Poor infrastructures like market channel, electricity and water supply	12 (12.4)	36 (36.1)	50 (51.5)
Lack of information about the technicality and accessibility of non-farm output to consumers	12 (12.4)	46 (47.4)	39 (40.2)
Limited local demand of goods and services by consumers	26 (28.0)	45 (48.4)	22 (23.7)
Policy support for non-farm activities by government and other	27 (27.8)	53 (54.6)	17 (17.5)
Cost of investing in non-farm activities is heavy and readily affordable by farm household	33 (34.0)	56 (57.7)	8 (8.2)

Source: Field survey, 2015

Chi-square analysis

Table 7 presents result of chi-square analysis of relationship between selected respondents' personal characteristics and their livelihood diversification. Results shows that there were no significant relationships between respondents' sex (X^2=24.650); educational status (X^2=68.176); marital status (X^2=37.35), major occupation (X^2=45.976.) and their livelihood diversification strategies of farm-families. The findings on respondents' sex and livelihood diversification is in consonance with the study of Oluwatayo (2009) that female-headed households are more diversified (combining two or more livelihood activities) than their male-headed counterparts. This result implies that female household farmers are efficient in doing business like petty trading, cooking at occasions and other livelihood activities that provides more income to farm-families as home-based enterprises than their male counterpart. This could be possible because female-head are more vulnerable to poverty than their male-head counterpart. Also, the result on respondents' education agrees with the view of Amogne (2014) that educational level of the household head has a significant and positive effect on household's non-farm diversification as well as household welfare.

The finding on respondents' marital status shows that, 13.7% and 55.1% of married respondents have high and low level of contribution to economic profile respectively. This contribution aid agricultural specialization and household specialization, hence, this strategy has much been optimally utilized in the study area to promote high standard of living. There is evident in the study area as most married household engage in fish specialization of fishing and diverse processing of fish for sales. Also, most single male of the study area specialized in boat construction and other artisan activities that are peculiar to riverine areas. However, 37.6% of respondents have high economic profile from farming as their major occupation. 36.9% respondents that engage in both on and off-farm activities have high economic profile. This implies that, respondents are disposed to farming as major occupation and they are likely to concentrate in this sector except if their income is not taking care of their household expenditure.

Table7: Chi-square analysis of respondents' selected personal characteristics and livelihood diversification strategies at P-level $\leq$ 0.05

Selected personal characteristics	χ^2	df	P-Value	Remarks
Sex	24.650	24	0.425	Not significant
Education	68.176	72	0.606	Not significant
Marital	37.351	48	0.867	Not significant
Major occupation	45.976	48	0.556	Not significant

Conclusion and recommendations

This paper assessed non-farm livelihoods diversification strategies of farm-families. Major occupation of the respondents was farming while some engaged in both farming and non-farm activities. More than half of the respondents derived major family income from farming enterprises. Majority have semi-permanent house that is iron roofed, mud walls but plastered. No significant relationship exists between farmers' selected personal characteristics and their category of livelihood diversification strategies. Female have high contribution to economic profile than male. Respondents with secondary and tertiary education have high contribution into economic profile of their households. Better returns on investment pull farmers into non-farm activities while household size pushes them into non-farm activities. Following the results from this study, the following are recommendations for policy formulation and implementation.

1. There is need for a holistic extension service delivery approach to observe and note in one hand, present risk averting enterprises as alternative to farm families for a sustainable livelihood diversification
2. There is need for advocacy of a bottom-up policy driven support for non-farm livelihood diversification activities to support the socio-economic sectors of developing areas of the state.
3. There is need for intervention, either from private and public agencies for policy support that will equip poor households with better skills, increased investment in infrastructure, and accessibility to financial resources through community driven approach.

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CORRUPTION – THE BANE OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT
Rural area is critical to national discourse in Nigeria, not only because it hosts the country's wealth of oil and agriculture – the two major mainstay of the country's economy, but also because about eighty percent of the country's population reside and work in rural areas. Realising the importance of rural community in national development, successive governments embarked on programmes targeted at impacting rural lives and communities. However, developmental strategies by successive administrations both at Federal and State levels have not yielded much desired results especially for intended beneficiaries. Although the failure could be attributed to plethora of factors, the paper examined corruption as it clogs rural development in Nigeria. Corruption pervades all institutions – Federal, State or Local Government, Nongovernmental Organizations (NGOs), and even philanthropic organizations. Resources meant for rural development are either mismanaged or diverted to private purse and this led to crumbling standard of many rural amenities such as agricultural institutions and facilities, hospitals and health services, education, roads, power and water supply. The effects are felt in projects abandonment, shoddy execution of projects and in some cases, non execution of projects for which fund had been earmarked. Thus, corruption ensured that governments' policies and strategies towards poverty reduction in rural areas have in fact contributed to poverty escalation in the areas. Therefore, for rural areas to experience true development, the following steps are recommended. There should be transparency and accountability among all stakeholders; bottom up approach; and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) to project siting and implementation; and sincere dedication of officers of regulating agencies.
Keywords*:* Regulating agency*,* corruption and rural development*.*

INTRODUCTION

The term "Rural" connotes different meanings to different people, organisations and governments www.ruralhealthinfo.org/topics/what. This then presupposes that people, organisations or governments define rural to suit their purpose. That is what is "rural" can vary widely between nations, and rarely, are these rural definitions in agreement with one another (Reynnells, 2016; Nicholas *at al*., 2015) thereby making generalization problematic. However, anything rural is generally viewed as encompassing all population, housing and territory not included within the urban area. That is whatever is not urban is therefore considered rural (Ele, 2006) though there are several yardstick being employed to define rural area. Therefore, rural area or countryside is a geographic area that is located outside cities and centres of towns. Usually, rural areas are sparsely populated with scattered settlement patterns having low level of social, economic and political activities (Laah, 2013; Ezeah, 2005; Afolayan, 1995) when compared with urban areas. However, the fact that an area is designated as rural does not mean that it is not strategically important. Even in an urbanising world, the position of rural areas where agricultural activities reside is crucial and very important. This is because more people move to urban cities as their new place of abode; their exodus means that rural areas have to produce more food as more mouths have to be fed. Whereas, less number of people were left in rural areas to produce the food needed for the teeming population. The rural area is very germane to any nation apart from provision of food and fibre because it serves other functions such as: provision of labour force for urban areas/industries, harbouring tourist attractions, haven for undisturbed natural habitat and ecosystem, repository of artefacts and culture, among many others.

Having realised the importance of the rural areas, this then brings us to what constitutes rural development. According to Obetta and Okide (2010) rural development is an integrated approach to food production as well as physical, social and institutional infrastructural provisions with an ultimate goal of bringing about quantitative and qualitative changes which result in improved living condition of the rural people. Realising, very well, the importance of rural area and the fact that the rural area is very significant to the nation, then must we leave it undeveloped? This question has prompted several efforts to develop the rural areas in the past by successive governments through various programmes. Some of such programmes are: National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) in 1973, Agricultural Development Programme (ADP) in 1975, Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) in 1976, River Basing Development Authority (RBDA) in 1976, Green Revolution (GR) in 1980, Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) in 1985, National Directorate of Employment (NDE) in 1987, Better Life for Rural Women in 1987, Nigerian Agricultural Insurance Corporation (NAIC) in 1987, Community Bank in 1990, National Fadama Development Project (NFDP) in 1992, National Special Programme for Food Security (NSPFS) in 2002, National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy

(NEEDS) in 2004, etc, (Yusuf, 2013; Abdulhamid, 2008). Also, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO) such as Justice, Development and Peace Commission (JDPC) of the Roman Catholic efforts are located in rural areas through their Diocesan Agricultural Development Programmes (DAP).

However, Yusuf (2013) had opined that in spite of all agricultural and rural development efforts enumerated above, the realisation of their goals has consistently been plagued by plethora of constraints, the worse of which is corruption. The concern for corruption stems from the trend and magnitude of the consequences of the problem on rural development. Corruption was identified by Soyombo (2006) as the major problem causing crime, poverty and underdevelopment in Nigerian rural areas, posing threat to national social and economic development. So widespread is the problem that most people believe that ALL public officers are corrupt, it is also widely believed that people seek public offices for selfish and corrupt reasons rather than the zeal to serve the public. This is substantiated by a public opinion poll by The Guardian of Thursday 22, 2011:11 which indicated that more than three-quarters of the respondents across the country identified selfish and personal interests as the reasons for corruption which invariably causes urban and rural underdevelopment.

Objectives of the study

The general objective of this study is to discuss corruption as it has affected rural development in Nigeria. The specific objectives are to:

1. discuss the causes of corruption in our society,
2. identify those who were involved in corrupt practices in the process of rural development,
3. discuss manifestation of corrupt practices in Nigeria, and
4. proffer solutions that can stem the tide of corruption in our societies.

Causes of corruption in our society

Corruption has been described by Aluko (2006) as the act of illegally diverting of resources meant for public good in a defined geographical area by a few privileged individuals or groups, for personal use. Expatiating further, Acha (2010) viewed corruption as all activities of political class and public office holders that pervert public interest by using public funds for personal gains and other immoral abuse of power and these include actions such as bribery, misappropriation of resources, nepotism, misapplication of funds, outright theft and forgeries. Therefore, corruption has been a cankerworm that is destroying rural development efforts. The money appropriated or earmarked for project of rural development were either diverted especially into purse of individuals or shared among the officers that implement the projects. Sometimes, such funds were even misapplied on some other items that have no relevance to the initial vision envisaged for a particular rural development project without any sanction because the person who would have meted out the sanction might have partaken in the act of money sharing. Uzochukwu (2015) described the rating of corruption in Nigeria as depicted by Transparency International in which Nigeria, among some other countries of the world, in year 2000 survey of 90 corrupt countries, Nigeria topped as the most corrupt country; in 2001 out of 91 countries, Nigeria was the second most corrupt; in 2003 out of 133 countries, Nigeria maintained her 2nd most corrupt while in 2012 out of 176 countries Nigeria was rated 37th corrupt nation. Ugochukwu (2015) went further that in 2013 out of 177 countries, Nigeria ranked 33rd corrupt country, in 2014 out of 174 countries, Nigeria ranked 38th most corrupt country. Whereas countries like New Zealand and Denmark were rated as corruption-free countries. Babalobi (2008) listed some germane factors causing corruption in our societies as culture and acceptance of corruption by the populace, weak government institutions and lack of transparency and accountability in public service. Other corruption-causing instances in our societies are:

1. Unbridle quest for amassing wealth: Uncontrolled craze for wealth stimulates officials entrusted with funds for development to divert such funds into private pockets. This is attested to through the current waves of prosecutions of individuals by Economic and Financial Crime Commission in the country.
2. Delay/unpaid salaries and wages: Arrears of unpaid salaries and wages make public officials cut corners by stealing development projects' funds to cater for personal needs.
3. Poor pay incentives: Poor pay packages make public officials look for ways to augment their salaries by diverting monies meant for project execution into their pockets. This will definitely reduce the amount of money available for project implementation.
4. Weak/absence of key anti-corruption agencies: Laws establishing anti-corruption agencies are weak. This makes these agencies to be like a toothless bulldog that can only bark but cannot bite. The corrupt officials that were caught were usually let off the hook and continue corrupt activities as a result of the weak laws.
5. Lack of political will: Weak political strength to fight corruption encourages perpetrators of corruption to continue unabated.

Perpetrators of corruption

There are various categories of people involved in perpetrating corrupt practices in Nigerian rural areas. Since corruption cannot arise without someone is perpetrating it.

Agency officials – these are the people who have the authority of any agency (be it public, private or NGOs) to take decisions and implement policies on rural development for the agency they represent. In the course of performing their statutory duties by exercising the power and authority bestowed on them, they misuse, misapply and abuse such power and authority. This then leads to corruption. Many officials have demanded bribes directly or indirectly before they perform their normal assignments this is a form of corruption which has negative effect on life of people that were meant to benefit the output of such agency.

6. Project contractors – these are the categories of people who provide services, procure materials or execute projects, at an agreed cost, for the community on behalf of an agency. Many contractors were known to have been eloped with contract money without providing any service and the money was never returned to the agency from whom they won the contract. The 'supposed beneficiaries' will be at the disadvantaged as their situation before awarding the contract still remain the same even though it was apparent such project if executed would have brought relief and enjoyment to the target audience.
7. Political office holders/high ranking government officials – these are people who are political heads or high ranking officials of the nation, ministries, departments and agencies. They are in charge of national resources and through their actions and inactions have perverted their duties. The period of Abacha regime witnessed high profile of corruption where billions of naira was diverted to individual purse with impunity.
8. Compromised local leaders – these are people selected among the rural/local people to liaise and collaborate with agency officials to jointly execute developmental projects in their locality, who connive together with agency officials to perpetuate corruption.

Manifestation of Corrupt Practices

There are several ways by which corruption is perpetrated and manifested against our rural areas. Corruption is lethal and actually kills. Several lives have been lost due to corrupt practices by people in authority, who for instance embezzle or misappropriate health funds, thus depriving rural hospitals of essential equipment and materials thereby causing avoidable deaths; or who misappropriate funds for road construction and maintenance and thus causing undesirable carnage on rural – urban roads as a result of poor construction and ill-maintenance. Ironically it is the masses and commoners who suffer more for corruption. On one hand, they do not get the basic services (such as health services, portable water, electricity, qualitative educational infrastructure for their children, etc) required for human life, and on the other hand, they are too poor to get alternatives – unlike the elites who have generators as substitute for epileptic power supply; who sink boreholes in their houses, send their children to abroad or private school, and access overseas medication or in standard private hospital. However, some of the ways by which corruption manifests as enumerated by Mirzayev (2015) are discussed as follows:

1. Artificially high prices and low quality of services rendered. This is manifested as there is usually lack of competitive bidding for contracts of projects that were meant for rural areas. "Big men" and politicians use their fraternities, connections and affiliations with supervising officials to manipulate rules and procedures to gain undue advantage to win the contract as the only bidder and sole provider of the services. The resultant effect of this action is high priced execution of contracts and low quality of jobs done for rural people.
2. Inefficient allocation of resources. The best practices required that there be a tender process to select the best contractor that will offer the best service who will ensure the efficient use of resources through a combination of best price and quality. In a corrupt environment, those contractors that would not have been qualified through tender and bidding processes are always given the contract job to execute. Eventually, substandard and or failed job/project would be delivered, which may not be good for people's use.
3. Uneven distribution of wealth. In a corrupt environment, oligarchy connives with project officials to get undue patronage and unmerited advantage of winning the contract job.
4. Low quality of education and healthcare centres and service delivery. Corruption increases cost of education and healthcare in the rural areas. Illegal and unofficial transactions that were made in a corrupt environment, where "connections" play an important role in recruitment, selection, appointment and promotion of teachers and healthcare workers who provide services in rural areas would not deliver the best. This leads to low quality of education and healthcare services in the rural areas since these service providers were the products of corrupt system.
5. Agitation and instability: Corruption breeds restiveness where people become aggrieved because they felt neglected as a result of corruption by development officials. These 'neglected categories of people' turn themselves into agent of destruction. This is

much felt in Niger Delta where youths take into arm struggle when they perceived themselves as being marginalized.

It could therefore, be inferred from the aforementioned that the effects of corruption is colossus and is felt through project abandonment, shoddy execution of projects and non-implementation of projects for which funds had been earmarked. It could be seen that rural areas suffered as a result of corrupt practices. In line with this, Odekunle (2015) asserted that the consequences of corruption for the nation continue to be devastating to the extent that it is "killing" rural economy, politics and socio-culture thus resulting in unjustifiable underdevelopment. Hence, corruption remains endemic, pervasive and systemic in virtually all areas of Nigeria's public and corporate life. This is a very dangerous trend because the country's development system can be grounded which may cause people to suffer. Mirzayev (2015) opined that corrupted economies are just not able to function properly because corruption prevents natural laws of economy from functioning freely and as a result, corruption in a nation's political and economic operations causes its entire society to suffer.

Way Out

In order to have an effective sustainable rural development, there are some various steps to take, some of which are enumerated below:

1. Transparency and accountability between and among all stakeholders of rural development must be a watchword. That is, agency officials, political office holders, project contractors and local leaders must embrace transparency and accountability throughout the process of rural development.
2. Bottom up approach rather than conventional top down approach to rural development must be embraced. That is, there must be a paradigm shift from usual practice of top down on issues bothering on (rural) development. Projects in which participatory rural appraisal (PRA) methodology is employed always seem to succeed and sustained by the host community because it is not perceived as being good for the community by outsiders (agency officials) and imposed on them. Rather, the community members themselves would have rated it as being a priority project which becomes their felt need. PRA ensures that felt needs of the clientele are prioritised and this brings about project sustainability. Community people will regard such project as "our project". This will make the people in the community realised that the project is their own, which would have been revealed and well discussed during PRA that it is a priority project of development. Ani (2007) corroborated this when he opined that the best programme of agricultural and rural development are those determined by local people themselves in conjunction with extension staff working together. The effect would be joint supervision between the service providers and local people themselves. This will reduce the tendency to divert the fund meant for such projects as the local people would be involved in monitoring the execution of the project. In this case, people in the community would cherish the project because they have ever been fully involved and participated in the process from the preliminary stage to implementation stage, taking active part in all decisions about the actions and activities.

World Bank (2000) claimed that despite the emphasis on development in most third world countries towards agriculture and rural areas, development are still hindered by institutional and administrative problems, characterised by schemes imposed on the rural poor, rather than clientele participation. Therefore, if rural development officers are transparent enough to employ PRA methodologies, this will go a long way to curb diversion of fund as fund earmarked for PRA activities will actually be used for PRA. At the end this will give our rural areas the needed impetus to develop.

3. Sound policies that will ensure rural development must be put in place by governments.
4. Genuine social reformation and change of attitude by everybody in the society is required.
5. PRA of project siting and participatory approach to project implementation must be strictly adhered to.
6. There must be honest and patriotic dedication to duties by officials of implementing/regulatory agencies who oversee rural development programmes.
7. Government should embrace the challenge of strengthening anti-graft agencies

Therefore, the paper hereby concur with the opinion of Eneh (2011) that individual and corporate commitment to the banishment of corruption is recommended as way forward in the country's rural development initiatives.

Conclusion

It is hereby concluded that corruption is prevalent in our nation and it is really affecting the development of our rural areas negatively. There must be change of attitude by all stakeholders in the process of rural development so that systems in the rural areas could function effectively.

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DETERMINANTS OF ADOPTION OF IMPROVED TECHNOLOGIES BY SMALL SCALE RUBBER FARMERS IN EDO STATE, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
The study assessed rubber farmers' adoption of improved technologies and determined those variables affecting adoption decisions by the respondents. Data were obtained from 137 rubber farmers sampled from the three Local Government Areas (Ovia North-East, Ovia South-West and Uhunmwode) producing rubber in Edo state. Factors that influence the adoption of rubber technology were evaluated using multiple regression analysis which where four functional forms (Linear, Semi-log, Exponential and Cobb-Douglas). Results show that 44.5% of the respondents had a monthly income of more than N20,000. Technologies adopted include weeding (100%), fire trace (94%), pruning (53%), and holing/dibbling (10.7%). Educational qualification of respondents was mainly post primary (52.6%) and primary (25.5%) education respectively; Majority of the respondents had a household size 9-12 (45.3%) . Extension contact of respondents was very poor, (81.8% had no contact with extension agents). Only 18.2% of the respondents had extension contact and this led to very poor awareness (100%) that led to low yield. Also, 83.8% variation in the regress and adoption of rubber technology was explained by the regressors. Similarly, the F value was statistically significant at 5% probability level, indicating model fitness. The study therefore recommends that: Rubber Research Institute of Nigeria (RRIN) should collaborate with relevant agencies and non-governmental organizations to give regular training to rubber farmers and ensure improved extension delivery as required to improve farmers' level of awareness.
Keywords: Farm Technology, Adoption, Rubber farmers, Extension.

INTRODUCTION

Rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) is a perennial dicotyledonous plant, which belongs to the family *Euphorbiaceae* and is grown commercially over millions of hectares. Rubber was discovered by Columbus and later by Spanish explorers during the 15th and 16th centuries in the Amazon jungles of South America. One of the first uses was to 'rub' out graphite or charcoal marks on paper and parchment, an important use at that time and one which gave the mysterious substance the name by which it is now known as rubber (Banmeke *et al,* 2009).

Nigeria was among the World's leading rubber producers before the oil boom in the 1960's. Nigeria was the biggest producer of natural rubber in Africa and ranked sixth in the world, contributing about 3 percent of the world output between 1957 and 1960 (Agwu, 2006). Consequently, it contributed immensely to the Nigerian economy within these periods. However, Mgbeje (2005) reported that Nigeria's rubber output has declined sharply to less than half of its level of production at the beginning of the 1990s when production grew from 68,000 metric tonnes in 1975 to 116,000 metric tonnes in 1995 before it started a steady decline to 46,000 metric tonnes in 2004. For instance, between 1970 and 1986 the output of rubber decreased from 65,000 metric tonnes to 36,000 metric tonnes, representing a decrease of 56.3 percent (CBN, 2000). Also between 1992 and 1996, rubber output decreased from 129,000 metric tonnes in 1992 to 91,000 metric tonnes in 1996, representing about 29.5 percent decrease (Rubber Statistics Bulletin, 2000). Hence, the export of rubber declined leading to its reduced contribution to the Nigerian economy. This decline in production is linked to its laborious production methods, use of low quality/low yielding planting materials, infrequent maintenance and destructive (poor) tapping methods, inadequate marketing outlets, competition through the use of synthetic rubber, high costs of inputs, unstable prices due to lack of adequate marketing information (Agwu 2006).

Natural rubber which is traditionally native to the Amazon jungle of South America was introduced to Nigeria from England around 1895, with the first rubber estate established in Sapele in the present day Delta State in 1903 (Giroh *et al*, 2007). Rapid growth of rubber production was noticed by 1925, there were already thousands of hectares of rubber estates that were predominantly owned by Europeans in Southern Nigeria. It should be noted that Nigeria has a very vast potential for rubber production, especially in many of the southern States in the country where the vegetative and climatic conditions are suitable for its production.

Aigbokaen *et al* (2000); Abolagba and Giroh (2007) reported that rubber can be grown extensively in most of the states in the southern part of Nigeria (Edo, Delta, Ogun, Ondo, Abia, Anambra, Akwa-Ibom, Cross River, Imo, Ebonyi and Rivers states) where the annual rainfall range between 1800mm and 2000mm per annum.

The most important part of the rubber tree from the growers' view point is the bark, which

contains the latex producing tissues (Delabarre and Serier, 2000). The authors added that the primary and major product of rubber latex (the milky juice obtained from the rubber tree) is very useful as it contains about 25 to 45 percent rubber by weight and can be processed into secondary products such as crepe rubber, crumb rubber and sheet rubber for onward processing into finished products. Rubber performs basically three functions in the Nigerian economy which includes the provision of raw materials for agro-based industries, foreign exchange earning and in the provision of employment. With regards to the provision of raw materials; rubber and rubber products can be put into almost innumerable uses. The latex from rubber is a vital material in the automobile industry as it is used in the manufacture of tyre, car bumpers, transmission belt, car mat, seats etc. The latex is also used for the manufacture of adhesive, baby feeding bottle teat, condom, domestic and industrial gloves, balloons, balls, eraser among others (Abolagba *et al,* 2003). Apart from latex, the rubber tree produces seeds and wood, which are also of economic value to the grower. The rubber seeds when processed produce oil alkyd resins used for paints, soap, skin cream and hair shampoo. The rubber seed cake left as residue after the oil has been extracted from it is also valuable in compounding livestock feeds (Agwu, 2006).

Windapo (2002) viewed assessment of factors influencing farmers' adoption of new innovations as an important consideration in adoption studies. Many researchers are of the view that the non-adoption of improved farm practices and implementation of new innovations is one of the major reasons for low productivity in agriculture, and natural rubber production is not an exemption (Aigbekaen *et al*., 2000; Giroh *et al*., 2007). It is against this background that answers were sought for the following research questions:-

i. What improved rubber technologies are available in the study areas?
ii. Are the rubber farmers aware of these technologies?
iii. To what extent have farmers adopted the technologies?
iv. What factors determine the adoption of these technologies?

Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to isolate the determinants of adoption of improved technologies by small scale rubber farmers in the study area. The specific objectives were:

i. to examine the socio-economic characteristics of small scale rubber farmers.
ii. to ascertain smallholders awareness of the use of improved rubber technologies.
iii. to identify the factors affecting adoption of improved rubber technologies.

Hypothesis of the study

The socioeconomic characteristics of small holder rubber farmers has no significant influence on their adoption of improved production technology

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Edo South senatorial zone. Edo state is made up of three (3) senatorial zones namely: Edo South, Edo Central and Edo North senatorial zones. Edo South senatorial zone consist of seven (7) Local Government Areas namely: Oredo, Egor, Ikpoba-Okha, Ovia North-East, Ovia South-West, Orhionmwon and Uhunmwonde. However, the three (3) major Local Government Areas producing rubber in Edo state namely Ovia North-East, Ovia South-West and Uhunmwonde were purposively sampled for this study.

The climate and vegetation of these areas favour the growth and establishment of rubber plantation. Oredo and Egor Local Government Areas are not rubber producing areas in the zone. This is as a result of the fast growing developments and urbanization tendencies.

Edo State has a population of 3,233,366 people which accounts for approximately about 2.4% of the total population of the country (NPC, 2006). It has a land area of 19,819km^2, and population density of 163.14. It is between longitude 05^0 04', North and 06^0 43' East and latitude 05^0 44' North and 07^0 34' North. It is bounded in the north by Kogi State, in the south by Delta State in the west by Ondo State and in the east by Kogi and Anambra States and is made up of 18 Local Government Areas.

Edo State has two major vegetational belts namely: the Forest Belt of the south and central parts while the Guinea Savannah is in the northern part. The mean annual rainfall in the northern part of the state is between 127cm and 152cm, while the southern part has 252–254cm of rainfall. The average temperature ranges from a minimum of 24^{0}c to about 33^{0}c (FOS, 1994). The focus of the study was on small scale rubber farmers in three (3) local government areas of Edo south namely Ovia North-East, Ovia South-West and Uhunmwode. The sampled population was 150 small scale rubber farmers in the study areas.

The sampling frame consisted of 150 rubber farmers in the study area. The list of rubber farmers was obtained from Edo state ministry of Agriculture and rural development, tree crops unit of the federal ministry of Agriculture. However, 137 farmers responded.

A multi-stage sampling technique was employed as follows:

One senatorial zone was purposively selected from the three senatorial zones of Edo state.Three local government areas were selected which are known to have small scale rubber farmers in Ovia North-East, Ovia South-West and Uhunmwonde from the senatorial zone Six (6) communities (i.e. two from each of the local government area producing rubber was purposively selected), from the list of the registered communities that was provided by Tree Crop Unit of Edo State Ministry of Agriculture. From the list of the registered farmers provided by the Ministry of Agriculture, Tree Crop Unit, twenty-five (25) rubber farmers were randomly selected in each community, making a total of 150 farmers used for the study.

The primary data was obtained through the use of well structured questionnaire to elicit information from rubber farmers (respondents) in the study area. Data were collected with the assistance of Edo State Agricultural Development project (EDADP) extension workers and Rubber Research Institute of Nigeria (RRIN), Iyanomo extension workers The socio-economic characteristics data elicited from the respondents include: their level of awareness and adoption of improved rubber technologies and the constraints faced by the farmers in the adoption of these technologies. Oral interview was also used to obtain information that were not captured by the questionnaires.

Measurement of variables

Contact with extension was measured by the number of times respondents were visited by Extension agents. Sources of information on improved rubber production practices; Respondents were asked to indicate which of the following eight information sources are available to them and ticking the one that is most appropriate; ADP/Ministry of Agriculture, RRIN organized Workshop/ Seminar, Trade fairs, Newspaper, Rubber Estates, Radio/ TV, Friends and Cooperative societies. Adoption of Rubber Technology; This was measured by advising the respondents to tick either of the following options; aware, not aware, adopted and never adopted for each of the eleven (11) improved technology associated with rubber production in the study area. Adoption score were obtained by summing the proportion of eleven technologies being used.

RESULTS

Results from Table 1 show that respondents were aged between 31-40 years (19.7%), 51-60 years (19.7%), and >60years (39.5%), indicating that rubber production is dominated by aged farmers Married respondents were 98.5% indicating married and experience farmers. This findings is in consonance with Abolagba *et al* (2003) who found that the aged formed major source of labour in natural rubber production and marketing. The educational qulification of the rubber farmers were 83% (at least primary education) indicating that the farmers were literate coroborating Ogunfiditimi (1981) and Igbinosa (2008) who found the level of education of farmers in Oyo and Ondo States in Nigeria to have positive significant relationships to adoption of improved varieties of cassava, maize and cocoa. Few respondents (17.5%) had farm size below 1.5 hectares. Most of them (54%), had farm size between 1.5 – 2.5 hectares while 28.5% had farm size greater than 2.5 hectares. This result is in conformity with Aigbekaen *et al* (2000) who reported that small farm holdings constitute more than 70% of all farming activities in Nigeria. Most of the respondent (55.3%) had farm monthly income of less than N20,000. However 44.5% of them had a monthly income of more than N20,000.

Table 1: Socioeconomic Characteristics of respondents, n= 337

Educational level	Frequency	Percentage
Age (Years)		
31-40	27	19.7
41-50	24	17.5
51-60	27	19.7
>60	56	39.5
Marital status		
Married	135	98.5
Single	2	1.5
Household size		
9-12	62	45.3
13-16	20	14.6
Educational Status		
Non-formal	23	16.8
Primary	35	25.5
Post primary	72	52.6
Tertiary	7	5.1
Farm Size (Ha)		
1.5 and below	24	17.5
1.6 – 2.5	74	5.4
>2.5	39	28.5
Income (Monthly)		
<10,000	21	15.3
10,000-20,000	55	40.2
>20,000	61	44.5

Field Survey 2015

Contact with extension agents

Table 2 shows the distribution of respondents on the basis of rubber farmers' contact with extension agents. The result revealed that only 18.2% of the respondents had contact with extension agents which shows that extension delivery in the study area was very poor, which will definitely impede rubber production.

Table 2: Respondents contact with extension agents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage

Whether visited or not		
Yes	25	18.2
No	112	81.8
Total	137	100
Frequency of visit		
Never	112	81.8
Twice	25	18.2
Total	137	100

Source: Field survey, 2015

Awareness and adoption of technology

The result on the sources of information clearly shows that respondents lacked technological information from Government agencies such as ADP/Ministry of Agriculture and RRIN (Agencies charged with the responsibilities of developing appropriate technology and disseminating it to the rubber farmers). 17.5% of the respondents obtained information from rubber estates, 3.6% from cooperative societies and 0.7% from Rubber Research Institute of Nigeria (RRIN) organized workshop/seminar. Technologies adopted were weeding, (100%) fire trace (92.7) and pruning (49.6%). This is in consonance with the finding of Igbinosa (2008) who found that regular weeding of rubber plantations is good field hygiene and it creates airy and less humid environment which leads to the reduction of microbial attack on rubber latex.

Table 3: Technologies aware of and adopted by respondents

Technology	**Awareness**		**Adopted**	
	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Weeding	137	100	137	100
Fire trace	130	94.9	127	92.7
Pruning	72	52.6	68	49.6
Holing/dibbling	15	10.9	14	10.2
Intercropping	3	2.2	1	0.7
Improved clones of rubber {(NIG) 800 and 900 series}	0	0.00	0	0.00
Spacing (6.7m x 3.4m)	0	0.00	0	0.00
Thinning	0	0.00	0	0.00
Cover cropping	0	0.00	0	0.00

Source: Field survey, 2015

Relationship between farmers' characteristics and technology adoption

The estimated functions were evaluated in terms of the statistical significance of R^2 as indicated by F-value, the significance of the coefficients as given by the t-value, the signs of the coefficient and the magnitude of standard errors. Based on these statistical, economic and econometric criteria, the linear form was selected as the best fit and result is presented in Table 4. From the table, it could be ascertained that age, innovations for which the respondents were aware and farm size carry the expected signs. Also, 83.8% variation in the regress (adoption of rubber technology) was explained by the regressors. Similarly, the F value was statistically significant at 5% probability level indicating model fitness.

Table 5: Linear regression for test of relationship between socioeconomic characteristic of small farmers and adoption of farm technologies

Variable	Coefficient	Standard error	t-value
Constant			
X_1 = Farming experience	.330	.259	1.275NS
X_2 = Household size	-.003	.005	-.667NS
X_3 = Times visited by extension agents	-.040	.036	-1.108NS
X_4= Educational level	-.002	.040	-.040NS
X_5 = Age	-.077	.043	-1.792NS
X_6 = Income	.013	.058	.224NS
X_7= Total innovations aware of	-.011	.046	-.230NS
X_8 = Farm size	.986	.040	24.400***

F value 90.389***
R^2 .921
R^2 .848
R^2 adjusted .838
Source: Data analysis, 2015
***, (significant at 5% probability level)

NS, not significant

Conclusion and recommendations

The study revealed lack of awareness as the major reason that hindered the adoption of improved technologies in the study area. Weeding was the highest adopted technology (100%); followed by fire trace (92.7%), and pruning (49.6%). The use of improved clones of rubber (NIG 800 & 900 Series) was not adopted. Contact with extension was a mirage, thereby impeding adoption and appropriate yield. In view of the above findings, the study recommends the following:

1. A sustained contact with Agricultural Extesion agents is of crucial necessity.
2. There should be collaborative effort (by all the extension agencies) in organizing regular training for the farmers in order to improve their capacity.
3. Youth should be encouraged to play active role in rubber production

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COMMUNITY BASED PEACE BUILDING AGENTS' (CBPBA) PREFERENCE FOR ICT COMPONENTS IN MANAGING AGRARIAN CONFLICTS IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
ICT components can be channelled to make the work much easier. Therefore this study assessed Community Based Peace Building Agents' (CBPBA) preference for these components in managing agrarian conflicts. A total of 132 CBPBAs from the list of 1220 CBPBAs were randomly selected and administered with questionnaires. Data obtained were analysed and interpreted using appropriate statistical tools. Majority (100%, 93.2%, 91.6% and 90.1%) of the CBPBAs received relevant conflict reconciliation messages from friends, town crier, community leader and radio respectively. CBPBA ranked conflict prevention, mediation and negotiation methods first, second and third respectively. CBPBAs are highly accessible to non electronic and print components with higher proportion of accessible rating pooled mean score of 9.2 while friends and community leader (3.1 and 2.9 mean scores respectively) were the most preferred non electronic communication components. Base on the findings ICT components must be accessible and within easy reach of the CBPBA.
Keywords: ICT components, building institutional capacities, agrarian conflicts

INTRODUCTION

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), are changing the manner in which people all over the world work as well as how goods and services are produced, distributed and marketed in the society. Use of the radio, television, Internet, mobile telephony and wireless-based applications has led to increasing discussion about the creation of a knowledge-based economy and accelerate productivity, which lead to overall development (Hattotuwa, 2010). He also confirmed that radio, television and print materials have been acknowledged as channel of communication playing vital role in providing information and messages that restructure popular opinion. These communication tools can be used to incite violence as well as carry messages that help prevent violent conflict, and promote peace and reconciliation(Tim and Nicole, 2005).. For instance the capability of the media to inflame hatreds and promote violence has been relatively well documented from studies of the role of the radio in Nazi, Rwanda and former Yugoslavia propaganda campaigns (Tim and Nicole, 2005). ICT components such as mobile phones, crowd sourcing technologies, and social networks have enabled messages to be amplified, information flows to be accelerated, and new spaces opened up for the involvement of individuals and communities to play a role in the various phases of the conflict cycle (Coyleand Patrick,2009) . The use of these new technologies has changed the nature of communication flows that contribute to crisis and disaster response, conflict monitoring and early warning, civilian protection, community peace building, and state-building activities. With the use of ICT components information dissemination is moving from a rigid top-down hierarchical approach to an increasing reliance on mobile, inclusive, interactive tools, building on a wealth of information gathered from locals and those outside of traditional development, humanitarian and peace building communities (ICT for Peace Foundation,2011). This transformative switch to a more bottom-up approach, focusing on the individuals and communities in crisis and conflict areas, creates opportunities for improved real-time communication with a range of agencies, but also creates opportunities for greater self-sufficiency in times of crisis and conflict. In essence, these new tools have changed what information can be gathered and accessed, who can participate in the communication process, and also, who can be a peace builder. For any improvement in the lives of the poor to be lasting and sustainable, it must include strengthening the powers of poor people to participate in the processes of development and this means strengthening their capacity to communicate. Communication for peace involves the use of a variety of information communication components to support the processes of activities involved in resolving violent conflict and establishing a sustainable peace. It has been found that there are 4 ways in which ICT components can be used to bring peace to feuding community these are: channels of communication flows between the following entities, between individuals in conflict; within a group where conflict exists; within groups or communities in conflict; between communities and organizations such as multilaterals, government, and NGO's where cooperation and coordination are issues (Huttotuwa ,2010). There are lot of different ICT components that are currently used for peace building. Traditional methods, like community meetings, radio, , and newspapers, are the most common tools to inform

communities and organizations. However, the addition of new communication tools like mobile phones, SMS, and social media, individuals, communities and organizations are complement these traditional forms of media. These new tools as shown in Figure 1facilitate more information gathering and interactions between users. In their application to peace building, these new tools can contribute to greater knowledge about changing conditions on the ground, needs of communities that are enduring or have endured violence, and even increase contact and understanding between opposing groups. The following distinctions have also been made in terms of the tools used and how information is conveyed: ***One to Many broadcast:*** radio, Television, web mobile applications and short message service (SMS) broadcast; ***One to One:*** Voice, mobile and SMS; (Huttotuwa,2010)

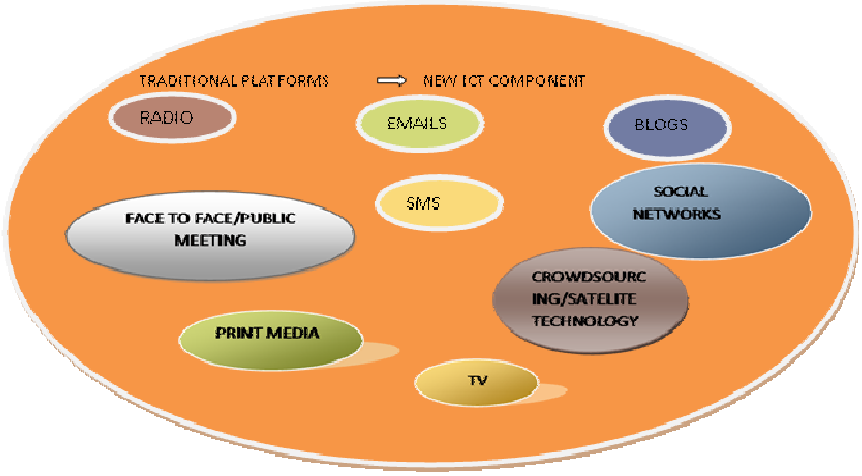

Figure 1: Communication for peace building. Source: Search for Common Ground (SFCG) (2010)

Information technology can provide the capacity to match agricultural and conflict management expertise to farmer need through organising participatory information dissemination programme. In actual fact violent conflict devastates food production, destroys crops, farm equipment, seed stock, and other farming capital. Also violent conflict reduces access to water, drives farmers from their land, and hindered transportation networks needed by farmers. It is the principal obstacle preventing many developing nations from emerging from poverty because the nation economy will be diverted to promoting violent conflict instead of those things that will lead to development of the country (Ikejiaku 2009). If agriculture is to be the engine by which developing nations will lead their people to greater prosperity, understand how conflict and violence affect their communities and providing resources and guidance for disrupting those dynamics become pertinent. Offering services to help improve farm productivity and build rural well-being is paramount to hunger in developing nation. However where violence is endemic, people are more than twice as likely to be undernourished, and their children are both more than three times as likely to be unable to attend school and also twice as likely to die before age five than those in other developing countries.6In Nigeria there is hardly a year where there is no major violent conflict. Quantitative impact study of the conflict on farmers' livelihood the indicated that the conflict had severe impact on livestock and crops in rainforest and savannah areas (Bolarinwa, 2007). Conflicts are a fact of life, they occurred whether people want them or not. Hence, conflict management and attempt to build peace among people involves helping people to recognize ways of making their behaviour helpful to resolving their perceived differences as well as turning the differences into constructive development. Several intervention programmes had been organised to proffer solutions to the violent conflicts. The most effective among the intervention programmes were those that made use of media campaigns, training workshops on conflict mediation and mitigation as well as joint training on reconciliation and forgiveness (Albert,2001). The participants were drawn from farmers /village heads, the youth, the professionals/artisans and community leaders in Ife/Modakeke and Tiv/Jukun in Osun and Taraba states, respectively, which constitute the focus of this study. These participants formed bottom-up community based peace builders in their communities. They were assigned the responsibilities to disseminate training information to others and serve as conflict situation monitoring and settlement stakeholders within the communities. Hence, there was relative peace within the communities after the peace building committees have been organised. A community based peace builder is expected to have expertise and credibility in problems related to agriculture and agricultural resource use, principally land and water. Moreover conflict arising from

disagreements over land ownership, access, and use are their natural focus. Issues such as land disputes, conflict between pastoralists and farmers, and the demobilization of violent youths are specific functions of community based peace builders in the two states. For instance, in the wake of violent conflict Community Based Peace Building Agents (CBPBA), manage a range of support services, help in demobilizing violent youth, making them productive members of the farming communities. Also they can educate farmers in dispute on evidentiary standards within the legal system. Several ICT components have been introduced/ diffused into the communities since CBPBAs have been established in the two communities but few/ no study have/has examined CBPBA use of ICT components for peace building within the communities hence, there is need to examine the CBPA use and preference of ICT components in discharging their duties within their communities. Hence the following research objectives were set:

1. description of personal characteristics' of community based peace building agents ,
2. identification of sources of receiving and sending peace building information,
3. determining conflict reconciliation methods adopted by community based peace building agents,
4. ascertaining the accessibility of community based peace building agents to information communication technology components,
5. ascertaining the availability and cost implication of using information communication technology components by peace building agents and finally
6. determining community peace building agents' preference for Information Communication Technology Components

METHODOLOGY

Multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select Community Based Peace Building Agents(CBPBA) in Osun and Taraba states' core conflict areas. The first stage dealt with purposive selection of CBPBAs that participated in peace building training /workshop organised by peace intervention building organisation. In stage two, simple random sampling technique was used to select 132 (11.0%) representatives of CBPBA from the list of (1,220) made available in the study areas. Hence, total of132 CBPBA were interviewed using questionnaires.

The key concepts investigated are: description of personal characteristics' of community based peace building agents , identification of sources of receiving and sending peace building information, determining conflict reconciliation methods adopted by community based peace building agents, ascertaining the accessibility of community based peace building agents to information communication technology components, ascertaining he availability and cost implication of using information communication technology components by peace building agents and finally determining community peace building agents' preference for Information Communication Technology Components. The ICT components classification cut off pooled means is 6.4 while the cut off point mean for specific ICT components is 1.5 using 3 point Likert scale. Moreover any component with price rating means score lower than grand components price rating 6.1 score was regarded as having lower price while any components with price component means score above 6.1 was in high cost price categories as indicated in Table 5.CBPBAs preference for ICT components for disseminating information was measured using 5 points Likert scale of which the cut off point for high and low preference is 2.5. If score is higher than 2.5 it is a highly preferred component while lower than 2.5 is a lower preferred component. Data obtained were analysed and interpreted using appropriate statistical tools such as regression.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personal Characteristics of Community based Peace Building Agents

Table1 shows the personal characteristics of CBPBA that made them functional within the community. The first of the personal characteristics that was considered was their age which indicated that (90.9%) of CBPBA were in age range of (15-45). Their age range indicated that they are within the ages that constitute a strong working and labour force within the community. Hence, they are capable of discharging their duty effectively. Another attribute of the CBPBA that made them functional was that majority (68.2%) of them were married. This quality made them belong to responsible group in the society hence they are able to carry out responsible assignment in the society. All (100%) of the CBPBA had one form of education or the other that enable them to read and write. The quality that made them effective seeking and sending reconciliation information that maintain peace within the society. In addition, 68.2% and 31.8% of male and female CBPBA respectively participated in conflict resolution in the community. Peace building requires more than men's contributions. Women need to take part because they were involved actively in the conflicts as combatants, victims or supporters. Leaving them out is an opportunity cost, yet they face barriers to full participation ranging from the physical to the social (Shastry, 2009). Various stakeholders within the society were the one that constituted the CBPBA as indicated in Table 1. Village Head, Farmers, Youth, Artesian Professional and Community Leader

Table1: Personal characteristics' of community based peace building agents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
15-30	40	30.3
31-45	80	60.6
45-60	12	9.1
Marital Status		
Single	30	22.7
Married	90	68.2
Divorced	3	2.3
Widowed	9	6.8
Education		
None	0	0
Adult Literacy	10	7.6
Primary School Certificate	10	7.6
Secondary School Certificate	55	41.7
OND/NCE	30	22.9
HND/BSC	10	7.6
MSC	11	8.3
Ph.D	6	4.5
Religion		
Christianity	62	47.0
Islam	70	53.0
Sex		
Male	90	68.2
Female	42	31.8
Community based Peace building Agents' Categories		
Village Head	20	15.2
Farmers	60	45.5
Youth	30	22.7
Artesian	11	8.3
Professional	6	4.5
Community Leader	5	3.8

Source: Field survey 2015

Sources of receiving and sending peace building information

As indicated in Table 2, majority (100%, 93.2%, 91.6% and 90.1%) of the CBPBAs received relevant conflict reconciliation messages from friends, town crier, community leader and radio respectively. As for the dissemination of conflict resolution information, Higher proportion (91.7%, 83.0%,72.7%, and 76.5) of CBPBAs disseminated conflict resolution through , mobile phone, friends, group/ association and community leader respectively. The implication of the finding is that CBPBA were making use of traditional information communication technology more than convention/ electronic ICT and print media. However, the conventional ICT such as radio, television and mobile phone have gained ground as channel of communication among CBPBA. Among the print media (83.3% and 63.6%) of CBPAB received and disseminate information respectively using bulletin of intervention programme. Similarly (Yahaya,2002) found that in dissemination of relevant agricultural information to farmers radio, television and some print media were the most relevant communication channels to farmers .The implication of the finding is that while components of dissemination of peace information by CBPBA should be strengthen the use of other ICT components should be promoted.

Table 3.2: Sources of Receiving and Sending Peace Building Information

Variables	Receiving		Sending	
	Freq	**Perc**	**Freq**	**Perc**
Radio	120	90.1	60	45.5
Television	90	68.2	20	15.2
Mobile hone	96	72.7	121	91.7
Bulletin	110	83.3	84	63.6
Internet	35	26.5	35	26.5
News paper	26	19.7	6	4.5
Community Leader	121	91.6	101	76.5
Town Criers	123	93.2	25	18.9
Friends	132	100	110	83.3
Group/Association	114	86.4	96	72.7

Source: Field survey 2015

Conflict Reconciliation Methods Adopted by Community based Peace Building Agents

Table 3 indicated conflict resolution methods adopted by the CBPBAs within the society. Out of 7 conflict resolution methods CBPBA ranked conflict prevention, mediation and negotiation methods first, second and third respectively. That is they have adopted these methods for solving conflicts in the society. The implication of the finding is that the CBPBA concentrate on making use of settlement outside the court which is known as Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) and also avoided violent means of settling conflict as indicated in Table 3 below. Odoh Ben(2015) opined that effective deployment of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) processes in the justice system will go a long way in substantially reducing the recourse to criminal conducts in managing civil relationships. It can be achieved by the establishment of Community Justice Centres. Other ADR programmes such as avoidance system can also be effectively deployed to resolve disputes to the satisfaction of the parties thus preventing the recourse to violent self-help and criminal conduct in managing civil relationships (Odoh Ben, 2015). Promoting these styles of resolving conflict will contribute substantially to reducing violent conflict in Nigeria.

Table 3: Conflict Reconciliation Methods Adopted by Community based Peace Building Agents

Conflicts Reconciliation Methods	Frequency	Percentages
Avoidance	17	12.8
Negotiation	124	93.9
Mediation	130	98.5
Arbitration	15	11.4
Adjudication	25	18.9
Coercion	0	0.0
Conflict Prevention	132	100

Accessibility of Peace Building Agents to Information Communication Technology Components

The results in Table 4 reveal that CBPBAs are highly accessible to non electronic and print components with higher proportion of accessible rating pooled mean score of 9.2 compared with accessible lower rating mean score of (6.8 and 3.2) for electronic and print components respectively. View accessibility from point of each component, the result in Table 4 revealed that community leader component had highest accessibility mean score 2.7 in non electronic components followed by mobile phone usage with higher accessibility mean score of 2.5 in electronic components. It could be deduced from the result that CBPBA have lower accessibility mean score for other components indication that CBPBA don't have access to, records or retrieve peace building information from other ICT components.

Table 3.4: Accessibility of Information Communication Technology Components to peace building agents

Communication components	Mean score	Pooled mean score
Conventional/Electronics		
Radio	2.0	6.8
Television	1.5	
Mobile hone	2.5	
Internet	0.8	
Print Components		
News paper	0.5	3.2
Bulletin	1.2	
Hand bill	1.5	
Traditional Components		
Community Leader	2.7	9.2
Town Criers	2.5	
Friends	2.5	
Group/Association	1.5	
Grand Pooled Mean		.6.4

Availability and cost implication of using information communication technology components by peace building agents

Table 5 indicates that all the ICT components are available for conflict reconciliation however, the degree of the availability to CBPBA varied per components. Considering the cost implication of using ICT components, Table 5 reveals that electronic ICT components prices are too high with pooled price rating mean score of 11.9 compared to 0.7 prices rating pooled mean score recorded by non electronic ICT components. This indicated that these non electronic ICT components attracted lower price hence CBPBA made use of it. Specifically electronic components such as internet, social network and print components such as newspaper recorded highest price rating mean score of 3.0 respectively as shown Table 5 compared with other components in each categories. It could be deduced from the result that high cost of electronic components could be a determinant factor for CBPBA non accessibility to use of some of the components for peace building in the society likewise the print media.

Table5: Availability and Cost Implication of Using Information Communication Technology Components by Peace Building Agents

Communication components	Availability		Prices of Components	
Conventional/Electronics	Yes	No	Mean score	Pooled mean score
Radio	132(100.0)	0 (0.0)	0.5	11.9
Television	132(100.0)	0 (0.0)	2.9	
Mobile hone	132(100.0)	0 (0.0)	2,5	
Internet	40(30.3)	92(69.7)	3.0	
Social net work	20(15.2)	112(84.8)	3.0	
Print Components				
News paper	45(34.1)	87(65.9)	3.0	5.7
Bulletin	52(39.4)	80(60.6)	1.2	
Hand bill	67(50.1)	65(49.9)	1.5	
Traditional Components				
Community Leader	129(97.7)	3(2.3)	0.5	0.7
Town Criers	132(100.0)	0 (0.0)	0.2	
Friends	132(100.0)	0 (0.0)	0.0	
Group/Association	110(83.3)	22(16.7)	0.0	

Communication components	Availability		Prices of Components		
Conventional/Electronics	Yes	No	Mean score	Pooled score	mean
Grand Pooled Mean				6.1	

Community peace building agents preference for information communication technology components rating scores

As shown in Table 6 the most preferred electronic communication components by CBPBAs to effectively discharge their conflict reconciliation function were, mobile phone and radio (mean scores 3.5 and 3.2 respectively). Meanwhile, bulletin and hand bill distribution (mean score 1.6) were the most preferred components in the print category. In the same vein, friends and community leader (3.1 and 2.9 mean scores respectively) were the most preferred non electronic communication components. It could be deduced from the result that the most preferred ICT components for the dissemination of peace building information are mobile phone, radio and friends. The reasons for preferring these components could be adduced to accessibility and availability of the component to CBPBAs.

Table 6: Community peace building agents' preference for Information Communication Technology components

Communication components	Rating mean score
Radio	3.2
Television	2.8
Mobile hone	3.5
Bulletin	1.6
Internet	1.0
News paper	1.5
Hand Bill	1.6
Community Leader	2.9
Town Criers	2.6
Friends	3.1
Group/Association	2.7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Major findings of this research revealed that:

- CBPBA age range indicated that they are within the ages that constitute a strong working and labour force within the community. Hence, they are capable of discharging their duty effectively.
- all the CBPBA had one form of education or the other that enable them to read and write.
- woman participated in CBPBA because they were involved actively in the conflicts as combatants, victims or supporter.
- majority of the CBPBAs received relevant conflict reconciliation messages from friends, town crier, community leader and radio respectively and disseminated conflict resolution through, mobile phone, friends, group/ association and community leader respectively.
- out of 7 conflict resolution methods CBPBA adopted conflict prevention, mediation and negotiation methods first, second and third respectively as methods for solving conflicts in the society. CBPBAs were highly accessible to non electronic and print components.
- all ICT components were available for conflict reconciliation however, the degree of the availability to CBPBA varied per components and finally
- the most preferred electronic communication components by CBPBAs to effectively discharge their conflict reconciliation function were, mobile phone and radio.

Since other ICT components are good for the dissemination of peace building information making these components accessible and available to CBPBAs will definitely divert their preference to those ICT components. Hence establishment of neutral "shared, neutral learning space" for training, mentoring and e-learning support for CBPAB and the member of the community should be promoted in the study area

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UTILISATION OF AGRICULTURAL INSURANCE AMONG RICE FARMERS IN OGUN STATE

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ABSTRACT
Rice farming like many other farm enterprise is risk prone. However, agricultural insurance has proven to be a veritable tool for reducing this risk. There is therefore the need to have information about the utilization of agricultural insurance among rice farmers to aid planning. This study therefore investigated the utilisation of agricultural insurance among rice farmers in Ogun state. Using multi stage sampling procedure, 113 respondents were selected for the study. Data collected were analysed using Chi-square, PPMC and T-test results reveal that mean age of the respondents was 48 years. Majority (58.4%) were married with a mean household size of 6 persons and 38.9% of the respondents had access to primary education. While majority (58.4%) cultivated on not more than 2 hectares of land, 75.0% of the respondents were not aware of agricultural insurance, therefore, majority (87.0%) didn't utilise it. Whereas 85.8% belonged to an association 42.0%indicated lack of proper understanding of insurance operations as the major constraint militating against the use of agricultural insurance. Respondents' sex, P>0.067 marital status, P>0.093 and membership of association, P>0.070 were significant variables influencing the use of agricultural insurance. However, level of awareness (r=0.680, constraints (r=0.230) and source of information about agricultural insurance (r= 0.451) were all significant to the use of agricultural insurance services. There is a significant difference in the use of agricultural insurance when farmers had access to loan and when they did not. t= 6.110, p=0.000). The study concluded that utilisation of agricultural insurance by rice farmers was low; therefore increased sensitization for awareness creation is recommended.
Keywords: Agricultural insurance, Rice farmers, Insurance Policy,

INTRODUCTION

Rice is a very important staple food that is consumed in all parts of the country by both the rich and the poor (Godwin, 2012;, Omotosho, *et al* 2010; IRRI 2004 and FAO. 1999). Nigeria is currently the highest rice producer in West Africa, producing an average of 3.2 million tons of paddy rice or 2.0 million tons of milled rice (Daramola, 2005). It is also the largest consuming nation in the region, with a growing demand amounting to 4.1 million tons of rice in 2002, and only about half of that demand met by domestic production. Nigeria spent $2.41 billion on rice importation between January 2012 and May 2015. (Premium times, 2015). However, the government has put several strategies in place, including several policies and programs aimed at boosting local production of rice in order to cut down on importation. The very recent agricultural transformation agenda of the last administration worked assiduously on rice as one of the staple crops of interest by not only encouraging local production, but also boosting the rice value chain. The Federal Government of Nigeria launched the Nigerian Agricultural Insurance Scheme (NAIS) on 15th December 1987 and the Nigeria Incentive-Based Risk Sharing System for Agricultural Lending (NIRSAL) on June, 2011 as part of governments' efforts to enhance sustainable food production in Nigeria through the provision of an insurance cover for protection against damage and loss to crops and to also provide extension services to farmers by encouraging them to adopt modern technologies and farming practices. Several studies have been carried out on the willingness of farmers to pay for agricultural insurance. . However, there is limited information on the utilization of agricultural insurance by rice farmers in Ogun Sate, hence the study.

METHODOLOGY

The population of the study comprised of all registered rice farmers in three local government areas in Ogun State, purposively selected because their high level of rice cultivation . These three local Governments Areas are Obafemi Owode, Ewekoro and Yewa North. A comprehensive sample frame of registered rice farmers was obtained from the secretary of registered rice farmers association of Nigeria, Ogun State chapter and was used to proportionately select 36% of rice farmers from each of the local government areas. Random sampling was used to select 58, 31 and 24 farmers from Obafemi Owode, Ewekoro and Yewa North local government area, respectively to give a total of 113 rice farmers for the study. Primary data collection was done through the use of a well structured questionnaire and an interview schedule for the benefit of those respondents who were not able to correctly fill the questionnaire on their own.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Rice farmers' personal characteristics

Table 1 revealed that about (60.0%) of the respondents were 50 years and below. The mean age of the respondents was 48 years. Ibitoye (2011) classified productive age of farmers to be between 20 and 50 years. Ogundele and Okoruwa (2006)

also asserted that it is only farmers that are within the productive age that would possess the strength to carry out productive farming operations. Most of the respondents were males (58.41%). while women rice farmers in the sample were (41.5 %) This brings to fore the important role women farmers play in food production thereby ensuring food security. Ojowu, *et al*.(2007) also confirmed that there is higher productivity rate of women farmers for staple foods. Effiong, J. B, (2015) opined that women's involvement in rice production could also be as a result of their membership of rice farmers association. Majority of the respondents (58.4%) were married, 38.9% had primary education, and 64.6% had a household size of between 4 and 7, while 85.4% were members of an association.

Table 1: Distribution of rice farmers by selected personal characteristics

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age Group		
≤30	12	10.62
31-40	21	18.58
41-50	35	30.97
51-60	25	22.12
61 and above	20	17.71
Sex		
Male	66	58.41
Female	47	41.59
Marital status		
Single	11	9.73
Married	66	58.41
Divorced	7	6.19
Widowed	24	21.24
Separated	5	4.42
Educational level		
No Formal education	17	15.04
Primary education	44	38.94
Secondary education	41	36.28
Tertiary education	11	9.74
Household size		
1-3	14	12.39
4-7	73	64.61
8-11	23	20.35
12 and above	3	2.65
Membership of association	97	85.84
Yes		
No	16	14.16
Years of rice experience		
1-10	43	38.05
11-20	27	23.89
21-30	24	21.24
31-40	14	12.39
41 and above	5	4.43
Rice farm size (ha)		
0.1- 2.0	66	58.42
2.1-4.0	27	23.89
4.1-6.0	19	16.81
6.1 and above	1	0.88
Total	**113**	**100**

Respondents' level of awareness of agricultural insurance

Table 2 reveals that majority (78.8%) of the rice farmers were not aware of agricultural insurance while 21.2% were aware. This suggests that farmers are still not well informed of the existence and operations of the Nigerian Agricultural Insurance Corporation. This may affect their use of the agricultural insurance.

Table 2: Respondents distribution by awareness of agricultural insurance

Awareness	Frequency	Percentage
Aware	24	21.2
Not Aware	89	78.8
Total	113	100

Rice farmers' use of agricultural insurance

Table 3 reveals that an overwhelming majority (87.0%) of the respondents did not use agricultural insurance while only 13.0% made use of agricultural insurance. This suggests that more awareness creation needs to be done to sensitize farmers on the merits of insuring their crops.

Table 3: Respondent's use of agricultural insurance

Use of insurance	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	15	13
No	98	87
Total	113	100

The results on table 4 show that sex, marital status and membership of professional association were significant. This implies that rice farmers who were members of a professional organization were more likely to subscribe to agric insurance than those who didn't belong to any. Therefore, rice farmers should be encouraged to join associations.

Table 4: Logit regression result for farmer's personal characteristics and their level of use of agricultural insurance.

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Err.	Z	P>|Z|
Age	- 0.011207	0.0778171	- 0.14	0.885
Sex	- 5.584716	3.045911	- 1.83	0.067**
Marital status	2.179777	1.295915	1.68	0.093**
Educational level	- 0.6869596	0.9424865	- 0.73	0.466

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Err.	Z	P>|Z|
Religion	2.441484	1.278474	1.91	0.056*
Household size	- 0.2778301	0.5191202	- 0.54	0.593
Income	8.97e-07	7.49e-07	1.20	0.231
Mem. Of Aso.	3.505051	1.936515	1.81	0.070**
Constraints	- 1.529577	1.027509	- 1.49	0.137
Cons.	- 5.200217	4.488797	- 1.16	0.247

The results on table 5 reveal that awareness, constraints and sources of information were all significant. This implies that the low level of use of agric insurance was because low level of awareness. This highlights the need for farmers to be sensitized on the merits of insuring their crops.

Table 5. Test of relationship between farmer's awareness, constraints, source of info and use of agricultural insurance

Variables	**r- value**	**p- value**	**Decision**
Awareness	0.680	0.000	Significant
Constraints	-0.230	0.014	Significant
Source of Info.	0.451	0.000	Significant

Test of difference in the use of agricultural insurance between rice farmers with access to credit and without access to credit

Table 6 shows that there is a significant difference between farmers' level of use of agricultural insurance when they have access to credit and when the farmers do not have access to credit. (t=6.110, p =0.000) This may be because farmers are mandated to obtain insurance package whenever they access any loan either from commercial banks or micro finance banks. It further goes to show that farmers scarcely willingly opt for agricultural insurance packages.

Table 6: Test of difference in the use of agricultural insurance between rice farmers with access to credit and without access to credit

Variable	Sample size	Mean	t	df	Sig.	Decision
Use of insurance with credit	80	0.5832	6.11	112	0.000	Significant
Use of insurance without credit	15	0.4144				

Significant at P< 0.05

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concluded that the utilization of agric insurance by rice farmers in the study area is very low. Farmers who belonged to professional organizations were more likely to subscribe to agric insurance than those who didn't belong. Based on these findings, the study recommends that the government and all other stakeholders should work together to sensitize the farmers on the merits of agricultural insurance. This will substantially increase the number of farmers using insurance. Rice farmers should also be encouraged to join relevant associations as this will enable them to be informed on new opportunities.

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RICE FARMERS' PERCEPTION OF GROWTH ENHANCEMENT SUPPORT SCHEME AS AN APPROACH TO OVERCOMING UNETHICAL CONDUCTS ALONG RICE PRODUCTION VALUE CHAIN IN OGUN STATE, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
*It is no gainsaying that unethical conduct has eaten deep into the Nigerian Agricultural sector. This study assessed rice farmers' perception of Growth Enhancement Support Scheme (GESS) as an approach in overcoming unethical conducts along the rice production value chain in Ogun State, Nigeria. Multistage sampling procedure was used to select 120 registered rice farmers for the study. Data were obtained using a structured interview guide. Results were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Results indicate that the mean age of the rice farmers was 42.2years, 89.2% were married and the mean household size was 5 persons. Findings indicated that the mean farm size was 2.4 hectares. Also, 13.5years and N144, 388 were the means of farming experience and income/season respectively. Majority (98.3%) of the respondents indicated that a major channel of information on GES scheme was through fellow farmers. Furthermore, findings indicated that the major perceived effects of GES scheme were; GES scheme is a strategic tool to curb unethical agricultural practices ($\bar{x}$ =3.60) and GES scheme had drastically reduced the problem of middlemen in sourcing agricultural inputs ($\bar{x}$ =3.39). There were significant correlation between rice farmers age (r =0.284**, p < 0.01), farm size (r = 0.315**, p < 0.01), farming experience (r =0.264**, p < 0.01), income (r = 0.316**, p < 0.01) and rice farmers' perception of GES scheme. Rice farmers differed in their perception of GES scheme across the three study locations (F=3.155, P < 0.05). It was concluded that rice farmers have a favorable disposition and confidence in the GES scheme to curb unethical conducts along rice production value chain*
Keywords: Growth Enhancement Support Scheme, rice production value chain, rice farmers

INTRODUCTION

Rice is a staple food for about half of the human race in the world. About 70 percent of the population of Africa produces an average of 14.6 million tons on 7.3 hectare of land annually and there are more than 40,000 different varieties of rice around the globe. (FAO, 2006). However, government and relevant stakeholder are making effort to increase rice production through the intervention of new and high yielding varieties.

Agriculture remains the mainstay of the economy in most developing countries all over the world particularly in Nigeria. It is the most powerful economic tool for raising poor people's income especially in developing countries where agriculture constitutes the crux of the economy. It account for a large portion of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), represents a major source of foreign exchange earnings, a major source of employment, provision of a market for the products of the industrial sector and other income for the rural population (World Bank, 2008; Food and Agriculture Organization-FAO, 2003). Despite these landmark achievements from agriculture, the returns and productivity from agriculture has been on the decline. Consequently Nigeria has been unable to feed her teaming population, leading to food insecurity.

Over the years in an attempt by the Nigerian government to salvage agriculture, several agricultural reforms, policies and interventions have been launched. Some of the major interventions include National Accelerated Food Production Project (NAFPP), National Fadama Development Project (NFDP), National Special Programme for Food Security (NSPFS), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Farm Settlement Scheme (FSS), The Green Revolution, National Economical Employment Development (NEED) and National Seed Policy. (Jibowo, 2005). However, the successes of the interventions still remain invisible and none of the programmes achieved the desired agricultural transformation and food security in the country.

Furthermore, in an attempt to salvage the problem facing the nation's agricultural food production and in ensuring food security, the Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA) was introduced. The programme which is targeted at producing 20 million tons of food by 2015 was designed to deliver government subsidized farm inputs directly to farmers through the application of mobile phone for linking the farmers with inputs centers (Akinwunmi, 2013). The Growth Enhancement Support (GES) scheme was conceptualized in form of e-wallet, voucher and a scratch card which serves as distribution channels of inputs such as seeds and fertilizers (Osinowo, 2012). The inherent objectives and prospects of GES scheme are espoused as follows, to:

i. remove the usual complexities associated with inputs distribution
ii. encourage critical actors in the inputs value chain to work together to improve productivity
iii. enhance farmers income and promote food security

iv. directly supply genuine small-scale farmers with subsidized inputs.

Corruption is defined as the utilization of power, money, materials, financial resources, contracts, employments, fame, and physiological satisfaction for personal gain. It can also be through legal or illegal immoral practices such as bribery, fraud, abuse of office or robbery. (Fadairo and Ladele 2014; Olusaga 1981). According to Transparency International's corruption perception index, corruption is on the increase in Nigeria with the country currently ranking 134th out of 180 countries (Daily Trust, 2010). However, the major challenges of GES scheme according to Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (FMARD, 2012) were the failure of some farmers to receive e-wallet through their mobile phone after obtaining scratch cards from the state GES scheme coordinator. Some were unable to activate their numbers mainly due to lack of know – how and poor telephone networks among others. It is therefore imperative that government and relevant stakeholders are making effort to remove the complexities with inputs distribution vis–a–vis corrupt related practices in making effort to increase rice production through the intervention of the GES scheme.

The specific objectives were to:

1. ascertain the socio-economic characteristics of the rice farmers
2. identify the channels of information of GES scheme
3. determine farmers' accessibility to agro inputs
4. ascertain the rice farmers perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conducts
5. identify the constraints affecting GES scheme

The hypotheses of this study were stated in the null form that:

$H_0$1: There is no significant association between socioeconomic characteristics and perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conducts

$H_0$2: There is no significant difference in the respondents perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conducts across the study locations

METHODOLOGY

Study area - Ogun state is in the South Western Nigeria, and lies within the tropics. It is bounded to the west by Benin Republic; to the south by Lagos state and the Atlantic Ocean; to the east by Ondo state; and to the north by Oyo and Osun state. The state is mainly dominated by Yoruba ethnic group which is the largest ethnic group in (Ayinde, 2005). The estimated human population is 3,214,161 people (Central Bank of Nigeria - CBN, 2005).

The State falls within the rain forest zones and partly the southern guinea savannah. The mean annual rainfall distribution in the state is about 1300mm (Lawal-Adebowale, 2002), while the annual rainfall varies over the years, the temperature of about 28^{o} C and relative humidity of about 78% relatively remain uniform. The Agricultural Extension Programme comprises of four agricultural zones identified by Ogun State Agricultural Development Programme (OGADEP) as Abeokuta, Ijebu-ode, Ilaro and ikenne zones, each zones.

Sampling procedure and sample size - A multistage sampling procedure was used for selecting respondents for this study. Out of the four (4) agricultural zones identified by OGADEP in Ogun State, three (3) zones; namely Abeokuta, Ilaro and Ijebu-ode were randomly selected. Furthermore, the GESS sub-zone in each of the communities were selected. One (1) GESS sub-zone out of nine (9) GESS zones namely; Ewekoro 1 was randomly selected from Abeokuta zone, Waterside from Ijebu-ode zone while Egbado South was selected from Ilaro zones respectively. The third stage involved the selection of the respondents, 23 registered GESS farmers were selected in Abeokuta, 36 from Ijebu-ode and 61 from Ilaro zone. Thus, a total number of 120 registered rice farmers were interviewed for this study. A structured interview guide was used to elicit information from the respondents. Age of respondents, household size, farming experience and income were measured at interval levels, sex and marital status were measured at nominal level while educational status was measured at ordinal level. Farmers' channels of information on GES scheme was determine on a 4 points rating scale of frequently (4), occasionally (3), seldom (2) and never (1). Farmers' accessibility of agro inputs was ascertained on a 4 point rating scale of regularly (4), occasionally (3), seldom (2) and never (1). The rice farmers perception of GES scheme to curb on ethical conducts was measured using a 21 – items statements rated on a 4 point Likert scale of strongly agree (4), Agree (3), Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1). Also, factors affecting GES scheme was ascertained using a rating scale of severe constraint (3), mild constraints (2) and not a constraint (1) on a total of 12 items. Data were analyzed using frequency count, percentages, Chi-square test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socioeconomic and production characteristics of respondents - As shown in Table 1 the mean age of the registered rice farmers was 42.20 years. This implies that the respondents were middle aged and responsible individuals. This finding is in consonance with Oladejo, Adisa and Ahmed-Akinola (2006) who reported that middle aged people are more active and tends to adopt improved production techniques. Majority (90.0%)

of the respondents were male. This shows that rice farming in Ogun state is dominated by male farmers. Also, the mean household size of the farmer is 5 persons per household. The relatively large household size could serve as source of farm labour and this is in agreement with the findings of Adegbite, Momoh and Alade (2007) who reported that household size is an important factor in any rural development intervention. Majority (89.2%) of the respondents was married and 33.3% of the farmers had secondary school education. This result of the study was corroborated by Alarima *et al* (2011) that an average rice farmer in Nigeria is literate. Mean farmers experience in rice farming was 13.5 years. This implies that the respondents had a considerable experience in rice farming. The mean farmers' income is N81,238.

Table 1: Socio-economic and Production characteristics of respondents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean (Std Dev)
Age			
≤ 30	30	25.0	42.20 (12.12)
31-40	35	29.2	
41-50	25	20.8	
51 and above	30	25.0	
House hold size			
≤ 3	33	27.5	5.21(1.85)
4-6	54	45.0	
6 and above	33	27.5	
Sex			
Male	108	90.0	
Female	12	10.0	
Marital status			
Single	7	5.8	
Married	107	89.2	
Widowed	6	5.0	
Education			
No formal education	23	19.2	
Primary education	21	17.5	
Secondary education	40	33.3	
Adult education	12	10.0	
Tertiary education	24	20.0	
Farming Experience			
≤ 10	82	68.3	13.59 (10.21)
11-20	22	18.3	
21 and above	16	13.3	
Income (₦)			
<50,000	7	5.8	81.238
51,000- 100,000	68	56.7	
> 100,000	45	37.5	

Source: Field survey, 2015

Farmers' channels of information

Table 2 shows the farmers' channels of information and accessibility to agro inputs. Majority (99.2%) and (98.3%) of the farmers got information about GES scheme through fellow farmers and Rice Farmers Association of Nigeria (RIFAN) respectively. This implies that the association RIFAN i.e. connecting rice farmers in Ogun State is very effective and farmers who do not have contacts with extension agents may still have access to information about the GES scheme. Other farmers also frequently received information on GES scheme through radio and television (71.7%), agricultural extension (70.8%), ADP (33.3%) and federal ministry of agriculture (5.8%). These findings agree with the findings of Ajayi (2003) who found that the use of radio and television were one of the major channels of information in Southwest Nigeria.

Table 2: Distribution of farmers by channels of information and accessibility to Agro inputs

Channels of information	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	Rank
Agricultural Extension Agent	83(70.8)	35(29.2)	0.0	4th
Fellow Farmers	119(99.2)	1(0.8)	0.0	1st
Rice Farmers Association of Nigeria	118(98.3)	2(1.7)	0.0	2nd
Radio and Television	86(71.7)	32(26.7)	1(0.8)	3rd
Agricultural Development Programme (ADP)	40(33.3)	73(60.8)	7(5.8)	5th
Federal Ministry of Agriculture	7(5.8)	105(87.5)	7(5.8)	6th

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015 Figures in Parentheses are percentage

Farmers' accessibility to agro inputs

Findings in Table 3 indicate rice farmers' accessibility to agro input and it refers to their ability to get access to fertilizer and seeds through the e – wallet or scratch cards within a given period of time. Majority of the farmers frequently had access to agro inputs through collection centers (98.3%) and agro services centers (98.3%) respectively. Also, others frequently had access to agro inputs through RIFAN (97.5%) and middle men (87.5%). The implication of this study is that farmer's access to agro inputs through the collection centres and agro services centre with the aid of e-wallet will help to revamp the nation's agricultural system and eliminate fraud and unethical conducts in input supply and distribution.

Table 3: Distribution of farmers by their accessibility to Agro inputs (n=120)

Accessibility to Agro Inputs	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	Rank
Middle Men	105(87.5)	14(11.2)	1(0.8)	4th
Collection center	118(98.3)	25(20.8)	3(2.5)	1st
Agro services centre	118(98.3)	2(1.7)	0.0	1st
Fellow farmers	92(76.7)	1(0.8)	0.0	5th
Rice Farmers Association of Nigeria	117(97.5)	3(2.5)	0.0	3rd
Agro dealers	87(72.5)	33(27.5)	0.0	6th

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

The figures in Parenthesis are percentage values

Rice Farmers' Perception of GES Scheme to Curb Unethical Conducts

Findings in Table 4 indicate rice farmers' perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conducts along rice production value chain in Ogun State, Nigeria. Results shows that respondents were of the view that GES scheme is a strategic tool to curb unethical practices within the agricultural sector ($\bar{x}$ = 3.60), GES has drastically reduced to the barest minimum the problem of middlemen in sourcing agro inputs ($\bar{x}$=3.39), agro subsidies can contribute to food security, transformation of Nigerian agricultural system and poverty reduction ($\bar{x}$ =3.39), the scheme is transparent to all on the value chain in taking necessary decision ($\bar{x}$ =3.31) and GES scheme has transformed a lot of subsistence farmers into commercial farmers ($\bar{x}$ =3.31).

However, the least score of rice farmers' perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conduct along the rice production chain were the low level of farmers education has affected the effectiveness of the scheme ($\bar{x}$ =1.90), the fertilizers supplied were not right for the local soil type ($\bar{x}$ =1.89), the seeds supplied were not right for the local soil type ($\bar{x}$ =1.88) and like other agricultural programmes in the country, GES scheme cannot stand the test of time ($\bar{x}$ =1.84). This study corroborated the position of Akinwunmi 2013 that GES scheme is a tool and innovative approach to fertilizer subsidy and input administration through an electronic system that ensures that only registered farmer benefits. The implication of GES scheme in curbing unethical practices within the Nigerian agricultural system was justified through the introduction of e – wallet- a mechanism that ensure direct input delivery to the farmers through the use of mobile phone communication. In essence, the GES scheme has been able to sustain input subsidies; eliminate fraud and corruption to the barest minimum within the Nigerian agricultural system.

Table 4: Distribution of Rice Farmers by their Perception of GES Scheme to Curb Unethical Conducts (n=120)

Perceptual Statements	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
GES is a strategic tool to curb unethical practices in the agricultural sector	74(61.7)	42(35.0)	3(2.5)	1(0.8)	3.60
GES has drastically reduced the problem of middlemen in sourcing agro inputs	52(43.3)	63(52.5)	5(4.2)	0.0	3.39
GES has improved my accessibility to agro inputs	17(14.2)	99(82.5)	2(1.7)	2(1.7)	3.09
The process of applying and sourcing for agro inputs take a long time with GES	14(11.7)	103(85.8)	2(1.7)	1(0.8)	3.08
GES has ensured the timeliness of inputs delivery	8(6.7)	104(86.7)	8(6.7)	0.0	3.00
The location of collection centers are too far from the farmers locations	27(22.5)	93(77.5)	0.0	0.0	3.23
The agro inputs available are inadequate to meet the farmers demand	24(20.0)	89(74.2)	7(5.8)	0.0	3.14
The fertilizer supplied were not right for the local soil type	0.0	0.0	107(89.2)	13(10.8)	1.89
The seeds supplied were not right for the local soil type	1(0.8)	0.0	103(85.8)	16(13.3)	1.88
The low level of farmer education has affected the effectiveness of the scheme	3(2.5)	1(0.8)	97(80.8)	19(15.8)	1.90
GES scheme leaves room for monitoring and evaluation by all stakeholders	32(26.7)	88(73.3)	0.0	0.0	3.27
The scheme is transparent to all on the value chain in taking necessary decision	37(30.8)	83(69.2)	0.0	0.0	3.31
The registration of farmers into the National farmers database is an anti-corruption idea	32(26.7)	88(73.3)	0.0	0.0	3.27

Perceptual Statements	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
GES has transformed about 20 million subsistence farmers into commercial farmers	38(31.7)	77(64.2)	2(1.7)	3(2.5)	3.31
Fertilizer and seed have been made available, accessible and affordable through GES	21(17.5)	95(79.2)	493.3)	0.0	3.14
GES scheme has revamped agricultural system and eliminated fraudulent practices	20(16.7)	95(79.2)	5(4.2)	0.0	3.13
Like other agric programmes in the country, GES scheme cannot stand the test of time	1(0.8)	4(3.3)	94(78.3)	21(17.5)	1.84
GES is a worthwhile programme, well articulated and it should continue.	28(23.3)	92(76.7)	0.0	0.0	3.23
Agro subsidies can contribute to food security, transformation and poverty reduction	47(39.2)	73(60.8)	0.0	0.0	3.39
GES through e-wallet should be sustained to eliminate fraud and corruption in Nigerian agricultural system	21(17.5)	99(82.5)	0.0	0.0	3.19
GES scheme has improved the supply of subsidized inputs	8(6.7)	112(93.3)	0.0	0.0	3.07

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

Overall perception of GES Scheme to curb unethical conducts

Findings in figure 1reveal the grand mean perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conduct along rice production chain. Majority 92(76.66%) score above the mean score (42), therefore having a positive (favourable) perception about the GES scheme to curb unethical practices along the rice production value chain. This implies that the rice farmers have a favorable disposition and confidence in the GES scheme.

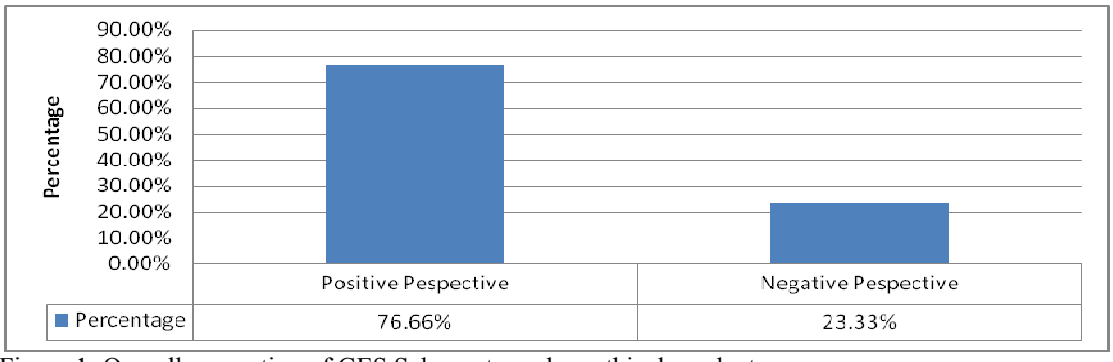

Figure 1: Overall perception of GES Scheme to curb unethical conducts

Factors affecting GES scheme

Result in Table 5 showed various factors militating GES scheme in the study area. The major constraints affecting GES scheme as ranked by the respondents were; poor communication network problem (95.8%), poor quality of agro inputs (95.8%), government policies (95.8%), incomplete farmer data base (95.8%) and inadequate awareness and publicity (94.2%). Findings in Table 5 also revealed insufficient funds for agro dealers (95.0%) and inadequate extension personnel (83.3%) as factor that affected the farmers turn out for the GES scheme in the study area.

Table 5: Distribution of respondents by Factors Affecting GES Scheme (n=120)

Constraints	Severe constraint	Mild constraints	Not a constraint	Mean
Poor communication network problem	115(95.8)	4(3.3)	1(0.8)	3.06
Poor quality of agro inputs	115(95.8)	5(4.1)	1(0.8)	3.03
Problem of middle men	27(22.5)	23(19.8)	70(58.3)	1.64
Incomplete farmers data base	115(95.8)	5(4.1)	0 (0.0)	3.02
Inadequate awareness and publicity	113(94.2)	5(4.1)	2(1.7)	2.99
Insufficient fund for the agro dealers	114(95.0)	6(4.7)	0 (0.0)	3.01
Farmer low level of education	3(2.5)	6(4.7)	111(92.5)	1.06
Inadequate agro inputs for farmers	112(93.3)	1(0.8)	7(5.8)	2.77
Inadequate involvement of extension personnel	100(83.3)	14(11.5)	6(5.0)	2.84

Constraints	Severe constraint	Mild constraints	Not a constraint	Mean
Government policies	115(95.8)	1(0.8)	4(3.3)	3.02
The process of farmers registration is tedious	112(93.3)	6(5.6)	2(1.7)	2.97
Lack of funding of the agro dealers	96(80.0)	24(20.0)	0 (0.0)	3.04

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

Test of Association between Farmers characteristics and GES scheme

The significance of the association (chi-square) and relationship (PPMC) were determined at 0.05% and 0.01% respectively. Findings indicate that there were no significant association between sex (χ^2 = 1.86, p > 0.05), marital status (χ^2 = 0.374, p > 0.05), educational status (χ^2 = 5.584 p > 0.05), farm acquisition (χ^2 = 1.031, p > 0.05) and rice farmer perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conducts.

However, result in Table 6b indicate significant relationships between age (r = 0.284**, p < 0.01), farm size (r = 0.315**, p < 0.01), farming experience (r = 0.264**, p < 0.01), and income (r =1.031, p < 0.01) and rice farmer perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conducts. The findings therefore implies that rice farmer's age, farm size farming experience and income had a positive influence on their perception of GES scheme to curb unethical practices along rice production chain.

Table 6a: Test of association between socioeconomic characteristics and Perception of GES Scheme

Variables	χ^2 values	df	p-value	Remark
Sex	1.861	1	0.172	Not significant
Marital Status	0.374	2	0.830	Not significant
Educational Status	5.584	5	0.349	Not significant
Farm Acquisition	1.031	2	0.597	Not significant

Source: Field survey, 2015
p-value is significant at 0.05 levels

Degree of freedom (df): df = n-1

Table 6b: Test of relationship between socioeconomic characteristics and Perception of GES scheme

Variables	Correlation (r) values	p-values	Remark
Age	0.284**	0.002	Significant
Household size	0.171	0.069	Not significant
Farm size	0.315**	0.000	Significant
Farming experience	0.264**	0.004	Significant
Income	0.316**	0.000	Significant

Source: Field survey, 2015
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Test of difference of GES scheme across the 3 study locations

Findings in Table 7a reveal that there was a significant difference in the respondents perception of GES scheme to curb unethical conducts across the study locations (F = 3.155, p < 0.05). This finding therefore suggests that the rice farmers perception of GES scheme to curb unethical practices varies across the locations i.e. Abeokuta, Ilaro and Ijebu-ode zones.

Furthermore, a post-hoc multiple comparison was carried out to indicate the significant differences among the study locations with respect to rice farmer's perception of GES scheme to curb unethical practices (using the Least Significant Difference (LSD) method). Table 7b shows that there is significant differences (p = 0.015) in rice farmers perception of GES scheme to curb unethical practices in Abeokuta when compare with Ilaro.

Table 7a: ANOVA of Perception of GES Scheme across three study locations

Sources of Variation	Sum of square	df	Mean Square	F-Valve	p-value	Decision
Between Group	44.351	2	22.175	3.155	0.04	Significant
Within Group	822.241	117	7.028			
Total	866.	119				

Source: Computed from field survey, 2015

Table 7b: Post-Hoc (LSD) multiple comparison of variables

Variable	Location (I)	Location (J)	Mean Difference (1-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
GES Scheme	Ilaro zone	Abeokuta zone	-1.594*	0.649	0.015
		Ijebu Zone	-0.710	0.557	0.205
GES Scheme	Abeokuta zone	Ilaro zone	1.594*	0.649	0.015
		Ijebu Zone	0.884	0.708	0.214

Variable	Location (I)	Location (J)	Mean Difference (1-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
GES Scheme	Ijebu Zone	Ilaro zone	0.710	0.557	0.205
		Abeokuta zone	-0.884	0.708	0.214

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

It was concluded that though rice farmers differed in their perception of the GES scheme. Most farmers supported the scheme by saying it is more effective in delivery of subsidized inputs to farmers generally than the previous programmes of similar nature. It is recommended that updated data base of rice farmers should be developed by relevant stakeholders in order to capture more farmers.

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