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RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Types of Traditional Methods of Saving in the Area.

Table 1 shows the methods of saving mobilization in the area. The Table shows that the assets are kept in saving methods had the highest number of participants (68.33%), followed by keeping of non-living assets (60%) and keeping of living assets (50%). Adashi and Tarbagen Dangi had 46% each, while modern cooperatives had 43.33%. Mode of operation of the various methods as discussed later. The amount collected is given

Mode of Operation of the Various Methods of Saving.
 The Adashi method is a kind of rotating contribution which normally involves individuals who contribute specified amount to money at specified periods. The amount collected is given to a member when his/her turn to collected became due. The contribution among members continues until all members have collected their contribution.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents according to methods of saving.

| Saving methods | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------|-----------|------------|
| Adashi | 28 | 46.67 |
| Ashau | 41 | 68.33 |
| Biki | 41 | 68.33 |
| Alo | 25 | 41.67 |
| Tarbagen Dangi | 28 | 46.67 |
| Non-living assets | 30 | 50.00 |
| Living assets | 26 | 43.33 |
| Modern cooperatives | 26 | 43.33 |

* Multiple response possible
 Source: Field survey, 1997.

Respective dues. The circle then begins afresh. It is possible in this type of saving for an individual to join more than one adashi group at a time or even take two or more "hands" in the same adashi group. In the latter case, such a person will collect contribution equivalent to the number of "hands" taken. It was found that groups of 5-10 members were most predominant in this type of saving. The adashi contributions were made either daily (21.43% of participants), weekly (46.43%), or monthly (32.14%). Therefore, weekly contribution was the most predominant.

The asset is a traditional saving deposit device where members contributed a fixed amount at a specified period of time. The money is kept with a treasurer who retains it for a given period of time. At the end of such a period, individual members are given back their savings less the first amount of money deposited. Group membership is mostly between 11-20 with about 2-5 officials. The officials include the President, treasurer, secretary and public relations officers. They were paid by the members when the saving terminates as the first deposit of each member is used for that purpose. Most of the groups studied were found to make their contribution monthly which terminates at the end of one calendar year. It was observed that members could withdraw their savings before the termination period in case of emergencies. The groups were found not to be given loans to members. This agrees with the findings of Messias and Dieter (1974) who noted that in the simplest case, there is no borrowing and organizations have saving function only.

Biki is a reciprocal saving device where a group of individuals form an association with the aim of making contribution to each of the member on an occasion, particularly during wedding and naming ceremonies. On such occasions, Contributions are made to the celebrant. The amount contributed by individual members may not be uniform but the celebrant keeps a mental note of the amount received from each individual so that when it is time to pay back, he/she pays not less than the amount received. In most cases, he/she pays more than what was received so that the amount contributed between any two individuals continues to increase over time. It was noticed that most of the Biki saving groups comprised of 10-20 members. The Alo saving method is similar to the adashi except that there is no specified amount and time of contribution. Contributions are made among members only in time of need (especially during ceremonies, disasters or other emergencies). A local drummer is usually invited to cheer a gathering of contributors. As members make contributions, a hieratic person takes record of the individual contributions, which can be referred to by the receiver for subsequent contribution to other members. Saving through Tarbagen Dangi (or family pool) method involves family members making contribution to a common pool. The head of the family is the custodian of the funds. This method, therefore, is a form of social insurance for family members. Saving through the keeping of non-living assets involves keeping of valuables such as jewelry, utensils and raw food stuffs. Farm products have been found to be kept at the time of harvest in order to meet future needs. Saving through keeping of non-living assets was found to be one of the sources of finance in the area. This corroborates the findings of Kangwa (1995) who reported that 84% of the respondents he worked with in Kibbi State, sold their surpluses from farm produce to finance their agricultural activities every year.

Saving through keeping of living assets has to do with keeping of livestock as a form of wealth that can be easily converted to cash. It has been reported that livestock

Information on uses to which the savings were put is presented in Table 3 which indicates that 66.67% of the male respondents used their savings for farm activities and females used part or all of their savings for ceremonies as against 30.77% of males. The proportion of respondents who spent their savings on the purchase of foodstuffs were 41.03% for males and 19.05 for females. Furthermore, 20.51% of the males and 42.86% of the females used their savings for trade expansion. Also, 17.95% of the males are against 23.81% of the females used their savings to pay children's school fees. Finally, 25.64% of males and 19.05% of females used their savings for building of houses. The results, therefore show that majority of the respondents used their savings for productive purposes contrary to the notion that dominant part of traditional purposes (Nassef, 1972).

Table 3: Uses of savings.

| Uses | Males (n = 39) | | Females (n = 21) | |
|-----------------|----------------|------------|------------------|------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Farming | 26 | 66.67 | 7 | 33.33 |
| Food | 16 | 41.03 | 4 | 19.05 |
| Trading | 8 | 20.51 | 9 | 42.86 |
| Ceremonies | 12 | 30.77 | 21 | 100.00 |
| School fees | 7 | 17.95 | 5 | 23.81 |
| Building houses | 10 | 25.64 | 4 | 19.05 |

* Multiple responses possible

Source: field survey, 1997

The distribution of the respondents according to problems associated with the traditional saving methods is presented in Table 4. The problems identified were illiteracy (93% of all respondents), embezzlement (78%), improper accounting (100%). Lack of legal backing (85%), inadequate facilities (81.66%) and inefficient leadership (91.66%).

serve as means of storing wealth (Usman, 1996). The livestock saved in the area include poultry (reported by 33.33% of all respondents), goats (50%), sheep (40%), cattle (35%) and camel (6.67%).

The use of modern cooperatives as a method of saving is a recent development in the study area. Cooperative associations identified include the Fadama Users' Association and Dundaye Development Association. Savings were mobilized to serve members' interest such as provision of modern farm inputs at subsidized rates.

Levels of saving

The levels of saving through various methods are presented in Table 2 which reveals that the highest annual level of saving with a mean of N19,940 per participant although it had the least number of participants. The low level of participation could probably be attributed to the uncertainty associated with the method since the amount to be contributed by each participant is not specified. Although there was no reported case of default among members, in this study, the fact that the time and amount contributed are not specified introduces some element of change. This is in contrast to *ajashi* where members are certain of what will accrue to them and when. The annual mean level of saving from *ajashi* and the keeping of non-living assets stood at about N15,516 and N15,820, respectively. Keeping of living assets, modern cooperatives, *ajashi* and Tabacren Dangli has annual mean savings of N14,892, N11,320, N10,976 and N10,520, respectively. *Biki* had the least amount with annual mean of N4,792. However, it is one of the methods that recorded high level of participation. This high level of participation in *biki* could probably be due to the fact that it is based on ceremonies, which are fairly frequent in the area, and the speed with which the money is realized by the participants.

Table 2: Levels of saving through the various methods.

| Saving method | Annual mean (naira) | Duncan's grouping |
|---------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| <i>Ajashi</i> | 15,516 | AB |
| <i>Assus</i> | 10,976 | B |
| Annual mean (naira) | | |
| Living assets | 11,320 | B |
| Non-living assets | 14,892 | AB |
| Modern cooperatives | 15,820 | AB |
| Tabacren Dangli | 10,520 | B |
| <i>Biki</i> | 19,940 | A |
| <i>Basu</i> | 4,792 | C |
| Annual mean (naira) | | |
| Modern cooperatives | 11,320 | B |

* Means with the same letters are not significantly different.

Source: field survey, 1997

While direct involvement with money is not advocated, a village extension worker could provide secretarial support (particularly keeping records and accounts) to the saving groups and offer useful advice where necessary. The extension worker could also train the groups to keep their own record and accounts.

Furthermore, attempt should be made to extend adult education to rural areas, presently adult education efforts in the state seem to concentrate mainly in the urban areas to the neglect of the rural areas, education of rural dwellers, accompanied with training in records and accounts keeping, would, in addition to other benefits, improve the management of traditional saving groups. It will also make it easier for such dwellers to make transactions with formal credit institutions.

Government should also give official recognition to the traditional saving groups by registering and channeling some rural development interventions through them.

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Table 4: Distribution of respondents according to problems associated with traditional saving methods

| Problems associated with traditional saving methods | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Embezzlement | 47 | 78 |
| Illiteracy | 56 | 93 |
| Improper accounting | 60 | 100 |
| Lack of legal backing | 51 | 85 |
| Inadequate facilities | 49 | 81.66 |
| Inefficient leadership | 55 | 91.66 |

* Multiple responses possible

Source: Field survey, 1997.

Majority (65%) of the respondents have had no form of western education. It appears that several of the problems listed above emanate from this high rate of illiteracy. For instance, the problem of embezzlement could be partly attributed to the fact that most members of the saving groups are illiterate and cannot keep records. Consequently, those who keep custody of the money may be able to manipulate the records undetected. Furthermore, illiteracy precludes the acquisition of accounting skills leading to the poor accounting problem reported by all the respondents. Proper education could have also improved the leadership skills and (thus) efficiency of remaining the associations.

The lack of legal backing reported by majority of the respondents perhaps related to the lack of official recognition of the traditional groups by government and its agencies. All the groups identified in this study, with the exception of modern cooperatives, were not registered and as such receive no attention or assistance from government.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the traditional methods of savings mobilization in the study area. Eight methods of saving were identified in which both the male and female respondents were active participants. The uses to which saving were put include farming activities, trading, purchase of raw foodstuffs, building of houses, ceremonies and payment of school fees. Problems associated with the methods are illiteracy, improper accounting, lack of legal backing, embezzlement and lack of facilities. Some have argued that funds raised through traditional methods of saving are used for unproductive purposes. The findings of this study is not in agreement with this position. In fact, results in Table 3 suggest that 55% of all the respondents invested their savings in agricultural production and another 28% in expansion of trade. These are clearly productive uses. In view of these findings, it may be necessary to encourage the formation and expansion of these traditional group saving methods and to address the problems identified in this study to make them more effective. In this respect, agricultural extension activities in the area should cover traditional methods of saving.

ABSTRACT

The main thrust of the Unified Agricultural Extension System is the T & V strategy which aims at strengthening the research-extension-farmer linkage. This paper assessed the features and limitations of the Unified Agricultural Extension System. The System appears to be a major improvement over the previous extension strategies. However, insufficiently trained manpower, high cost, inadequate transport and poor rural infrastructures constitute major constraints to the realisation of the full potentials of the Unified Extension system in Nigeria. Sustained farm-oriented research, regular in-house training workshops, adequate funding, modification of the T & V system to suit available resources, and adequate remuneration of extension workers were recommended for better performance of the system.

INTRODUCTION

It is essential that the productivity and income of small holders who produce the bulk of agricultural products be increased. It is generally believed that this objective cannot be achieved unless farmers adopt new inputs and practices. However, farmers cannot respond appropriately and quickly unless they clearly understand both the most recent technologies applicable to their farms as well as the broader agro-economic environment in which they operate (Bonor et al., 1984).

The role of generating new technologies and recommendations lies with research, while extension has the responsibility of transferring such technologies to the farmer. It has the responsibility to explain and teach farmers how to adapt and adopt improved production practices in order to increase their productivity and income. Extension also has the vital role in ensuring that the agro-economic and social environment of the farmers and day-to-day production problems they face are appreciated by research. Extension, therefore, constitutes a two way link between research, on the one hand, and farmers, on the other.

Agricultural extension can take different organizational structures and utilize different extension methodologies which have been developed over the years. The appropriate structure and methodologies would depend, among other things, on the resources available to the government, the socio-cultural attributes of the farmers and the prevailing agro-economic environment. But since agricultural extension deals with human beings (both agricultural extension workers and farmers) whose behaviour and response cannot be accurately predicted, suitable extension system to a locality would most likely be arrived at in a trial and error procedure. The errors or inadequacies of

modern stage for performing artists in Nigeria have created a high demand for popular music. Juju musicians in Contemporary Nigeria have been influenced by recording and broadcasting media which have secured increasing control over channels of communication between performers and audiences.

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services that has taken place in the ADPs. These other components are as vital to the reforms as the unification of structure and deserve some attention in an article such as this. The various components of the reform are, therefore, discussed as follows:

Unified structure.

Extension services under the ADPs now operate a unified organisational structure. This is apparently aimed at establishing a highly responsive single line of command from the top management of the ADPs to the field staff. Apart from making the system more responsive and adaptive to the changing agro-economic environment of the farmers, a single line of command is expected to eliminate the duplication, resource waste and confusion that characterized previous extension systems in Nigeria. Two aspects of the unified structure can be distinguished. The first is mandating only one organization in a state to undertake extension. This organization, in all states, is the ADP which has the sole mandate of providing extension services. The organizational structure of the unified agricultural extension of the ADPs is clearly depicted the single line of command from the Program Manager at the headquarter all the way to the Village Extension Worker (V.E.W.) in the field.

The second aspect of the unification pertains to the discharge of all agricultural extension functions, to a specific number of farmers, by a single extension agent. In the previous systems, a specialist was needed to address a particular problem of the farmer. Under the unified system a V.E.W. is expected to be able to address all agricultural problems of his farmers. A single extension agent is supposed to have broad-based knowledge of agriculture to be able to solve all problems of the farmer whether they are related to crops, soils, livestock, forestry, or fisheries. In other words, the V.E.W. is like the "jack of all trades". Again, this is expected to avoid duplication and confusion of farmers which was the hallmark of previous extension systems (Edache, 1995).

Systematic training and visits. Another reform component which is adopted under the unified extension system is the introduction of the training and visit (T&V) strategy. The T&V system adopted by the ADPs provides a detail mode of operation that ensures that extension agent visits farmers regularly and transmit message relevant to production needs. Problems of the farmers are also transmitted back to research, while extension staff receive regular training, to up-date, their knowledge. The training and visit are done according to a time-bound regular schedule. The extension worker visits each of his contact farmers at least once in a fortnight. They, along with Block Extension Supervisors (B.E.S.) are, in

occasional system would inform recognizing this, several extension systems have been experimented in Nigeria over the years. The latest of such experiments is the Unified Extension System which is being implemented by the world Bank-assisted Agricultural Developments (ADPs).

AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION IN NIGERIA BEFORE THE UNIFIED SYSTEM

Before the Unified Extension System was introduced by the ADPs in 1990s, agricultural extension services in Nigerian were characterized by:

1. The co-existence of several organizations all discharging extension functions. The result of this was duplication which, according to Williams (1995), was a waste of human and material resources. This situation could be likened to the case of the proverbial "too many cooks".
2. The employment of specialist field extension workers separately for various areas of agriculture such as crop production, livestock husbandry, forestry and fisheries. This also resulted in duplication and confused the farmers (Williams, 1995).
3. The swaddling of extension worker with other responsibilities such as distribution of inputs and enforcement of government regulations (Akinbode, 1982). This did not only divert the attention of extension worker from his extension responsibilities but also created an atmosphere of distrust between him and the farmers.
4. Insufficient emphasis on in-service training. The extension system relied more pre-service training and "paper" qualifications of workers. Since most staff without in-service training cannot be said to be qualified professionals.

It is, perhaps, these characteristics and the other shortcomings of the previous extension systems (as enumerated by Aho, 1975; Onota, 1977; Williams, 1980, Akinbode 1982; Yazidu 1982 and Williams 1988), which prepared the ground for the reorganization of the extension services into a unified structure.

THE UNIFIED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AS PRACTISED BY THE ADPs.

Unified Agricultural Extension System has been defined as agricultural extension under one organization and with one extension agent delivering extension messages to the farmers in all areas of agriculture, namely, crops, livestock, forestry, fisheries and land management (Ibbow, 1995). The unification of extension was to avoid wasteful duplication of efforts as well as to reduce cost and inefficiencies in extension service delivery (Zaria, et al, 1995). Perhaps, the phrase "Unified Extension" is misleading since it tends to eclipse the other components of the radical reform of extension

farmers remain largely unimproved. A possible reason for this could be that research and extension are not properly integrated, with the result that improvements generated at the research institutes and universities seldom get to the farmers. Under the Unified Extension System, efforts are made to circumvent this problem by zoning the country and assigning particular research institutes to each zone. For example, the Institute for Agricultural Research (IAR) at Zaria is the mandate research institute for ADPs in the North Western Zone. IAR, therefore, provides resource persons for training extension staff during the M.T.R.M. and also invites resource persons from other universities when there is no expert in a particular field or topic from the institute. At the M.T.R.M., the resource persons train Z.E.O and S.M.S.s on the other hand, present the pressing agro-economic problems of the farmer to be investigated by the resource persons. With this research-extension-farmer linkage, it is anticipated that the gap between what the farmers could obtain from their farms and what they actually obtain will be gradually bridged.

A bit at a time

One of the most crucial factors leading to failure of extension services in Nigeria, is the over-ambitious desire to transform the farmer overnight. Most extension recommendations come as a package deal which involves radical departure from the current practices of the farmers. But the farmer is constrained by technical, social, economic and cultural factors, which prevent the adoption of such packages leading to ultimate rejection of the technologies. According to Benor et al. (1984), farmers accept new ideas which are similar to what they already know. In the new extension reform therefore, initial emphasis is on those practices which are most comparable with the status of the farmer and which could be adopted without a radical change in his ways of doing things. As the sophistication of the farmer increases, more complex practices are then introduced. In addition, the messages carried to farmers are presented a bit at a time to ensure that farmers understand the message very properly before putting the contents of the message to practice.

A CRITIQUE OF THE UNIFIED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SYSTEM

From the preceding section, it is quite clear that the Unified Extension System is a major improvement over the previous extension systems operated in the Country. It has addressed, to a reasonable extent, most of the caveats in the old system. As operated in the context of Nigeria, however, the Unified System is not without its drawbacks. Some of these shortcomings include:

1. Heavy demand on adequately trained personnel

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turn, trained once a fortnight by subject matter specialists (S.M.S). The S.M.S and zonal external officer Z.E.Os are in turn trained at the Monthly Technology Review Meeting (M.T.R.M.) in this way, the extension staff is given through and adaptive in-service training. This contrasts with the overemphasis on pre-service training which contributed to the failure of past extension system.

Contact farmers.

The contact farmer approach is used by the ADPs under the Unified Extension System. According to Benor et al (1984), it is impossible to maintain regular personal contact with all farmers. They noted further, however, that this is neither necessary nor desirable. In apparent agreement with this, ADPs concentrate on selected contact farmers who are expected to pass information to other farmers. It is expected that each contact farmer will include only those who are willing to cooperate, all extension activities including demonstrations are conducted on their farms which other farmers are encouraged to visit frequently.

4. Restriction of responsibilities to extension work.

As opposed to previous practice, the extension staff, including the V.E.M. discharges only extension duties. This is to permit concentration of efforts only on extension and avoid distraction. This, it is argued, would make the extension staff more dedicated, professional, effective and efficient.

5. Demonstration and Small Plot Adoption Trials (SPAT)

Like in other extension systems, demonstration is still a useful teaching methodology under the reformed extension system. But under the new system, trials are done in the form of SPAT. The SPAT is done in the farmer's field and under farmer's circumstances. The farmer is involved in the SPAT from the beginning to the end and emphasis is on using farmer's own resources. Other farmers who observe this trial are expected to consider the results more credible, than if a demonstration plot were used and inputs brought in by the extension workers. Farmers usually do not consider results of such demonstration plots credible, contending that the results of such demonstrations could only be obtained on government plots with non-comparable resources.

6. Link with research.

With the multitude of research institutes and universities available in the country, it has always been surprising that the technologies of Nigeria

From irregularity in disbursement of funds, they noted, contributions from states and federal governments invariably always fall grossly short of budget. For the Niger State ADP, they found that the federal and state government contributions were below the budget, by about 50%. In 1992, by about 50%. The same scenario was found at the Borno State ADP. Given this picture, it is difficult to imagine how the Unified System could be financially sustained after the withdrawal of the World Bank funding from the ADPs.

The unified extension system is being implemented through a rather lengthy hierarchy (Damian, 1995), notwithstanding the fear is that there could be a dilution of extension message as it passes from one agent to another, in the hierarchy of command and infrastructure.

Heavy demand on transport has been cited as a major constraint to the smooth operation of the T&V under the Unified Extension System (Abdullahi, 1987; Jibowo, 1995). Jibowo (1995) has, however, drawn attention to the inadequate supply of transport facilities, noting that the transportation demand on the field is scarcely met while supervisors and officers satisfy their own transportation needs first. The situation is further worsened by the poorly developed rural road network. Under these circumstances, the V.E.Ws cannot maintain the expected regular visits to farmers and to report timely at the fortnightly training meetings.

Status of the V.E.Ws. V.E.Ws perform the most tedious and perhaps most important job, since they are the personnel in direct contact with the farmers, they are also the least paid. This has resulted in a high turn-over of extension staff. Noting the high incidence of resignation of extension staff due to lack of job security and unattractive remuneration, Damian (1995) has warned that the high staff turn-over could hamper the sustainability of the unified extension in the ADPs. This is because the ADPs are not only losing experienced extension workers, but they have to spend more money on recruitment and training as the extension staff exit from the organizations.

Contact farmer. The Unified System requires at the tail end of the transmission chain, the service of contact farmers who are not on the pay-roll of the ADPs. Some information or demanding financial rewards from other farmers who seek to benefit from the new knowledge.

According to Ukoje (1987), nearly all the ADPs are affected by the problem of quality and effectiveness of extension staff. The manpower shortage problem becomes even more acute in view of the T & V System adopted under the Unified System. The T & V system presupposes the availability of adequately trained personnel to conduct position requires agricultural personnel trained at degree or higher diploma level. In addition, the system requires V.E.Ws, who have broad-based training in agriculture and are able to advise farmers in all areas of agriculture. But a recent survey by the authors in Sokoto and Kebbi States revealed that virtually all the V.E.Ws are fresh secondary school leavers without prior training in agriculture. It is doubtful if such individuals are able to cope with the required work of a V.E.W. effectively.

2. "Lack of all trade"

The Unified System requires that only one V.E.W. serves a specific number of farmers, covering all areas of agriculture. There are at least two problems with this approach. First most V.E.Ws have no prior training in agriculture, whether specialised or broad-based it is, therefore difficult to see how they could undertake the job of transmitting agricultural information effectively to farmers of course, the V.E.Ws and others receive fortnightly training in agriculture by their S.M.S, but this training could not be said to be sufficient to give the required general knowledge in agriculture, especially given the complete lack of training facilities at this level. Secondly, emphasizing that V.E.Ws should have broad based knowledge to be able to solve all crop, livestock, forestry and fisheries problems of the farmer is a matter of great concern. What indeed is being advocated is a V.E.W. who is a "jack of all trades", it is difficult for an individual, especially a poorly trained V.E.W. to be able to master all fields of agriculture underscoring this fact, Jibowo (1995) pointed out that it is an impossible task for one extension agent to have the time, skill and energy to cover all areas of agriculture effectively, even when backed by S.M.S and when posted in an area where the extension impasses is supposed to be his areas of specialisation. In any case, this approach is tantamount to throwing overboard the well-known advantages of specialisation and division of labour.

3. High costs.

The Unified System is a very costly process requiring constant movement of all extension staff to attend either fortnightly training's, M.T.R.M. or visiting each contact farmer fortnightly. Also, resource persons have to be brought in from distant research institutes for the M.T.R.M. This cost very deep into the budget of extension services. The high cost of the T & V system has been underscored by Damian (1995) who noted that the system is enormously expensive both to the extension worker and the ADPs. He then concluded that it is questionable whether the frequency of visit required by the system and as practiced now is sustainable. The situation becomes even more critical considering there reported poor funding of the ADPs. Zaria et al (1995) have noted that over the years, the ADPs have not had the best of deals in terms of funding. Apart

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CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

To over come some of the shortcomings listed above, the United Extension System requires a number of strategies. In view of the acute manpower shortage, the ADPs may need to organize frequent workshops for training their staff who could also be sent on short courses. It must be emphasized that although the fortnightly Training are quite useful, they are not sufficient to impart thorough knowledge of agriculture to extension staff some of who have not previously taken formal lessons in agriculture. In addition, adequate remuneration of the V.E.W. and other extension staff is very vital in order to stem the reported high staff turn-over rates. This would probably keep the workers in their jobs and save the ADPs the costs of recruitment and training of new staff.

It is also recommended that rather than over-load V.E.W.s with the job of teaching the farmers in all areas of agriculture, specialist V.E.W.s should be employed to handle at least some of the relatively new areas of agriculture such as forestry and fisheries.

To sustain the United System, adequate funding is required. The huge cost of the system should be appreciated and if there are no sufficient financial resources at the disposal of the ADPs, then they should modify the T&V System to suit that financial resources. For instance, some critics have indicated that the M.T.R.M. and the fortnightly Trainings are too frequent and monotonous (Ijobwo, 1995). ADPs facing inadequate funding may consider reducing the frequency of these trainings and the visit of farmers by the V.E.W.

Furthermore, it appears that the cost of the Unified System could be reduced by introducing some group or mass extension methods. Presently, the system relies rather heavily on interpersonal contact which is necessarily costly, the use of contact farmers groups and/or the use of mass media. The challenge then is to modify the T&V System such that it gives more role to group and mass extension methods than it currently does, and thereby reduce the need for one-to-one contact.

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ABSTRACT

The paper focuses attention on politics of democracy as a factor affecting educational policies in Nigeria. The concept of democracy as a political ideology is aptly explained. The state of Science education in a political dispensation as well as the policy and curricular determinants of science education are also assessed. Recommendations are made to help improve the status of Science Education in Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION.

Science educators have the obligation to contribute to and learn from the work of policy makers. An emphasis on science education for all proclaims that all people regardless of race, religion, culture, tradition or socio-economic status are entitled to be opportuned to the development of their individual powers of mind and reflective ability to the utmost. There is the public concern about

- (1) Leadership and political consensus in countries
- (ii) Professional Leadership and public understanding of science and technology.

(iii) process of choosing council members in politics, political realities attempt in all fields to define real problems like cost effectiveness, ethical acceptability, legitimacy and shaping context. Countries all over the world have lobbied to change the way in which farmers are educated in science and technology so as to be better prepared for the world of democracy and technological development (Heppner and Gaskell, 1998).

In the present day Nigeria the government constitute a monopolistic buyer of science educators' services especially in the school systems that are primary employers of science teachers. Teachers certification standard has been and is still a long term problem especially in science education with its attendant practical needs. In a political democratisation dispensation like in Nigeria science educators need to be prepared for social and political change using multicultural education as a theory of social justice.

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