

 $R_{\text{ESE}}_{A_{\text{RTICLE}}^{\text{RCH}}}$ 

DOI: 10.15740/HAS/IJHSECM/3.2/59-71
Visit us: www.researchjournal.co.in

# Factors affecting women farmers' participation in agricultural extension services for improving the production in rural district of Dendi West Shoa Zone, Ethiopia

#### D. FIRAFIS HAILE

Department of Rural Development and Agricultural Extension, Institute of Co-operative and Development Studies, Ambo University, Ambo, Ethiopia

ABSTRACT: This study was designed to investigate the factors affecting women farmers agricultural extension services consisting of production related information in improving the production of farmers in Dendi district. Required data were collected from three kebele's of Dendi district from 120 randomly selected households (60 participants and 60 nonparticipants female headed), 10 in-depth interviews with key informants and eight focus group discussions. The data were entered in SPSS software and organized in tables and figures and further described and analyzed following descriptive statistics, bivariate correlation, and multiple linear regression analysis procedure chi-square test, independent sample t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). In order to test the significance of association between dependent and explanatory variables, i.e. co-efficients (unstandardized beta) t-test has been used when ever required. Tests of significances have been decided at  $P \le 0.1$  levels. The result of the regression model revealed that marital status, age of farmers access to market, access to credit and contacts with agricultural extension agent's increases women's' participation to agricultural extension service.. Age, educational level, family member less than 64 years old, use of improved seed, and knowledge and attitude on agricultural extension Service (AEAS) for income were found significantly influencing the index of all respondents' and male headed farmers' diet diversification function. On the other hand, farming experience was found significantly influencing the index of female headed farmers' participation on rural women's to agricultural extension service. Therefore, it was recommended that women's in agricultural extension service programmes be sustained and encouraged by Dendi woreda agricultural office.

KEY WORDS: Extension service, Binary logit, Constraints, Policy makers

View Point Article: Haile, D. Firafis (2016). Factors affecting women farmers' participation in agricultural extension services for improving the production in rural district of Dendi West Shoa Zone, Ethiopia. *Internat. J. Home Sci. Extn. & Comm. Manage.*, 3 (2): 59-71. DOI: 10.15740/HAS/IJHSECM/3.2/59-71

**Article History: Received:** 02.06.2016; **Revised:** 11.06.2016; **Accepted:** 25.06.2016

# Introduction

A good number of studies (e.g. World Bank, 2001

and FAO, 1999) reveal that, three out of four poor people in the developing world live in rural areas, and most of them depend directly or indirectly on agriculture for their

livelihoods. It was also voiced that in the twenty-first century, agriculture remained a fundamental tool for lifting the rural people out of poverty.

A lot of agricultural development programmes are on ground with the aim of increasing food production and improving the standards of living in Nigeria. Although women farmers are actively involved in the process of food production, processing and marketing, social and economic constraints have placed barriers around their access to scientific and technological information (Daman, 1997). The women folk do not have needed technical knowledge to enable her derive production use of farm input for more optimum yield. Many women however do not participate fully in agricultural programmes due to ignorance, low income (Adekanya, 1988 and Inter-America Development Bank, 2000), inaccessibility to credit facilities, poor communication (Nonyelu, 1996 and FAO, 2006) etc.

The role women played in agriculture extension activities and the rural society is fundamental to agricultural and rural development in Africa. Agriculture is, therefore, important to the national economy and as sources of employment in Africa. According to FAO (1995) reports, about 73 per cent of the rural population in Africa consists of small farmers. Women comprise almost 50 per cent of the agricultural labor force in Eastern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa and 20 per cent in Latin America. In sub-Saharan Africa, agriculture accounts for approximately 21 per cent of the labor used to produce food both for household consumption and for sale. According to the studies of Yahya (2002) and Mijindadi (1993), based on formal existing statistics, women contribute about 31 per cent of agriculture active workforce in developing countries informal and local statistics were used to estimate the number of working women at agriculture more than formal statistics. For instance, in Egypt based on formal statistic, the act of rural women as reported to be about 36 per cent, while local statistic indicates between 35 and 50 per cent; in Congo based on formal statistic, women's share 60 per cent the labor workforce at agriculture, whereas informal statistics reported as 80 per cent. This statistical difference exists in most developing countries.

In connection with agricultural extension services, (Fletschner and Mesbah, 2011) states, "the agricultural extension services have been largely designed, crafted and implemented with the male head of household as the intended client, and fail to recognize that women are

active, productive and engaged economic agents with their own financial needs and constraints". Even though millions of women throughout the world contribute to national agricultural output and family food security, detailed studies from Latin America, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa consistently indicate that rural women are more likely constrained in having access to agricultural extension services than men of equivalent socio-economic conditions (Fletschner, 2009 and Diagne *et al.*, 2000). Women tend to have less contact with extension services than men and generally use lower levels of technology because of problems of access, cultural restrictions on use or lesser interest in doing research on women's crops and livestock (World Bank, 2000).

Such bias in the provision of assets and services in favor of men has institutional and cultural underpinnings. Much has been written about the past failures of government extension services to reach women farmers and the cultural bias which has, in many countries, prevented women from active participation in group training, extension meetings and, most importantly, access to inputs such as fertilizer and credit. Equally important is the fact that the agency for these services has been predominantly staffed by men - according to the FAO only 15 per cent of extension workers are women (FAO, 1999). In the late 1980s only 13 per cent of agricultural field agents in the developing world were women and in Africa the figure was a mere 7 per cent. Even in rural areas where women constituted a larger share of agricultural producers, almost all extension agents were male (UNDP, 2000). These male extension workers often tend to direct their services to male farmers or heads of households, excluding women members of male-headed households (World Bank, 2000).

The role of women in agricultural development has been very well recognized in the last couple of decades by international development agencies, national governments and researchers (FAO, 2004). The same document further indicated that while the contributions of both female and male farmers are substantial and essential to agricultural development; the gender division of agricultural activities has constrained women's access to extension services and hence the achievement of agricultural development goals has been slowed down because agricultural extension services in developing countries is predominantly focusing to male farmers only.

In connection with agricultural extension services,

(Fletschner and Mesbah, 2011) states, "the agricultural extension services have been largely designed, crafted and implemented with the male head of household as the intended client, and fail to recognize that women are active, productive and engaged economic agents with their own financial needs and constraints". Even though millions of women throughout the world contribute to national agricultural output and family food security, detailed studies from Latin America, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa consistently indicate that rural women are more likely constrained in having access to agricultural extension services than men of equivalent socio-economic conditions (Fletschner, 2009 and Diagne et al., 2000). Women tend to have less contact with extension services than men and generally use lower levels of technology because of problems of access, cultural restrictions on use or lesser interest in doing research on women's crops and livestock (World Bank, 2000).

Effective agricultural extension services are important issue in Ethiopia, where agriculture supports 85 per cent of employment, 50 per cent of exports, and 50 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) (IFPRI, 2011). This is because agricultural extension services are proved to be one of the most important effective means to reach farming households in the rural areas (Adekunle, 2013). The role played by both women and men in rural agricultural development program via extension service should equally be considerable. However, in Ethiopia there is a wide gender gap in terms of access to assets (i.e. land, livestock, credit, and inputs) (World Bank, 2008). Furthermore, programmes and projects that do not pay due attention to gender in their activities, often increases existing inequalities between men and women. Particularly in Ethiopia, while one can observe that in most parts of the rural area, women are intimately involved in most aspects of agricultural production and household nutrition, it is widely viewed that "women do not farm" (EEA and EEPRI, 2006). We noted that agricultural extension programmes that ignore women's farming roles in agriculture, affect negatively agricultural production and consequently failure to achieve development objectives (FAO, 1993).

Moreover, the key role played by women in agriculture in the past did not seem to be acknowledged in government statistics and decision-making (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2001). This situation has started to change over the last two or three decades and

much has been achieved in giving recognition to the importance of women in the agricultural sector in many parts of the developing world including Ethiopia. So far, no study has been conducted in the study area on women farmers' participation in agricultural extension services for improved household income.

The afore mentioned moments are also more challenged the Ethiopian women farmers. They have constraints including lack of land for farming, limited access in communication between men and women and control of agricultural products, credit facilities, skill training, education, extension services and information, their contribution is not appreciated. In this sense, women are negatively influenced by traditional pattern and economic policies. Although in most of the regions, women are responsible for most of the food production and work on both family farms and as wage laborers, most of them do not have legal control over the land resource. Most of women's work lies in the margin of major development efforts and programs. Hitherto without the complementarities of women's attempt, such efforts and programmes would barely work even though men own such assets and inputs as land, credit, seeds, livestock, and technology and infrastructure (Tesfaye, 2015). This study was therefore aimed at determining the level of women farmers' participation in agricultural extension service, identifying their constraints and improving their participation thereby enhancing agricultural productivity in Dendi district. In order to address this objective, household survey, focus group discussion, and in-depth interview were administered.

# Objective of the study:

- To analyze women farmers' participation in agricultural extension service in the study area.
- Determine the level of participation of women farmers in agricultural extension service in the study area.
- Identify the challenges faced by the participants and non-participants in agriculture extension activities programme in the study area.

# **METHODOLOGY**

The study was conducted in Oromia Regional State, West Shoa zone Dendi Woreda which was purposively selected because, there are problems related to women participation and pilot study was conducted in the study area to check the existence of rural women's participation towards agricultural extension service.

Table A .	Distribution	of campled a	nd KAc rura	l women's
I able A:	Distribution	oi sambieu a	na NAS rura	i women s

	Kebele's association							
Respondent category	Faji Ga	lila	Gal	essa	Burka di	imtu	To	otal
	N	N	N	n	N	n	N	n
Participatory	145	24	165	25	70	11	377	60
Non-participatory	62	12	205	38	50	10	317	60

Multistage sampling had been used for this study.

At the first stage, from the total 10 Kebele Association of the Woreda, only three Kebele Associations with the highest number of rural headed were selected purposively to study the factors affecting rural women's to access the agricultural extension service. Accordingly Galessa, Faji Galila and Burka were selected. There were 1667 women's households present in the sampled Kebele Associations. Secondly, stratified sampling was employed to select respondents from among participant and non-participant with equal sample size of 60 households from each stratum. Finally, systematic random sampling techniques were employed to select. Ratio sampling was used to fix the number of sample respondents selected from each Kebele Associations.

# Data collection methods/techniques:

In this study, data collection methods were done through interviews, questionnaires and documentary sources. Two sets of data were employed for the empirical analyses, primary and secondary data.

The primary data were collected through field questionnaire administration and interview while the secondary data were obtained from Dendi woreda agricultural office documents.

#### **Interview:**

This technique was used to interview the Dendi woreda agricultural office, three experts and rural women's, Two administration officials, Two agriculture officers, Two women affairs officer, Two micro-finance officer, Eight extension workers (two each from each Kebele's).

# **Questionnaires:**

A set of questionnaires were administered to interview 120 women's from participant and non-participant. Information collected through questionnaire included: women's characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, level of education, household size, farming experience, loan utilization and implementation of the

project as well as information on income sources for extension service utilization.

# Sampling techniques:

The target population was rural women's', the sample sizes were 120 rural women which were drawn from 667 womens from four different Kebele Associations. One of the motives of the survey was to study variation in the patterns of agricultural to this end three kabeles. Association were selected based on the above stated variations and to make the study manageable, sample rural women's was taken from each rural district using simple stratified random sampling techniques (Table A).

# Methods of data analysis:

The primary data have been analyzed and presented by using both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. The descriptive techniques include percentage, frequency, mean, while the inferential statistical techniques used were chi-square and t-test. The chi-square and t-test were employed to see the association or homogeneity between the agro ecological zones with reference to responses regarding agricultural extension activities and coping strategies used by rural women farmers during famine (scarcity of food) and its impacts

# **OBSERVATION AND ASSESSMENT**

The results obtained from the present investigation are summarized below:

# Age of respondents:

It is evident from Table 1 that majority of the participant and non-participant women belonged to 31-40 years age category (50.00% and 41.66%, respectively). The percentage of respondents in the old age category *viz.*, 51-60 years was very low for both participant and non-participant groups (10.00% and 13.33%, respectively). This finding reveals that majority

of the respondents were middle aged *i.e.* they belonged to 31-40 years. The mean ages of the participants and non-participants were 42.00 and 38.00, respectively. Because of age an individual may lose ability and energy to get involved in agricultural extension programmes and other production increasing practices as he/she gets older and older. Statistically there was a significant mean difference (t=2.662) at less than 5 per cent probability level. This result is in agreement with the findings of Androniceanu (2011). However, it is inconsistent with the finding of Tologbonse *et al.* (2013).

#### **Marital status:**

It was found that majority of the participant and non-participant respondents were married (72.20% and 65.00%, respectively) (Table 2). The distribution of participant and non-participant respondents was also more or less same in other categories. The difference was not statistically significant. The study implies that being married or not was not related to access of rural women's' to Agricultural extension service. It is expected that single households are contributing to production least while married households are contributing the highest.

#### Level of education:

It is obvious from Table 3 that majority of the participant and non-participant respondents were illiterate (70.00% and 78.33%, respectively). The study area is therefore, dominated by illiterate women farmers with a mean educational level of 8 years. Statistically there was no a significant mean difference between participant and

non-participant groups on the level of education. It is expected that if majority of the respondents are educated then the adoption of modern communication techniques becomes easier. Level of education is a continuous variable measured in years of formal schooling. It is expected that education plays an important role in promoting farmers involvement and utilization of agricultural extension services. The differences in the distribution of educational level between female participants and non-participants is statistically significant ( $x^2$ =7.38; P<0.01).

Nonetheless, education is one of the important variables, which increases farmer's ability to acquire, process and use agricultural related practices. Low level of education and high illiteracy rate is typical in developing countries like Ethiopia (IFPRI, 2000), while a higher level of education of farmers is assumed to increase the ability to use agriculture related practices in a better way. The low level of literacy among female headed households may negatively influence their participation in and utilization of agricultural extension service that may improve agricultural production and nutrition than male headed households with relatively higher literacy rate. This is also in agreement with Adekunle (2013).

# Household size:

It was found that majority of the participants (53.33%) had more than 7-10 family members whereas for majority of the non-participants (53.33%) had 4-6 family members (Table 4). However the-average family

Table 1: Age						
Variables	Part	Participant		rticipant	t-test	
Age/years	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage		
<30	9	15	17	28.33		
31-40	30	50	25	41.66		
41-50	15	25	10	16.67	t=2.662	
51-60	6	10	8	13.33		
Mean	4	42.00		3.0		

Variables	P	Participant		participant	Total	
variables	No	Per cent	No	Per cent	No	Per cent
Single	3	5.0	6	10.0	9	7.5
Married	43	72.2	39	65.0	82	68.33
Divorced	8	12.8	5	8.33	13	10.8
Widowed	6	10	10	16.66	16	13.3
Mean		8.5		7.8		6.77

size of women respondents is six persons. This suggests a lot pressure on the women for the upkeep of the households, and probably, leads to work more on the farm. Statistically there was no-significant mean difference between participants and non-participants on the household size. This result is inconsistent with the finding of Huria Ali (2014).

#### Farm sizes:

It is clear from Table 5 that majority of the participants (61.67%) had 1-3 ha of cultivable land whereas 80.00 per cent of the non-participants had less than 1 ha of land. The average farm size by participants was 1.4 ha of 0.9ha for non-participants. Statistically there was a significant mean difference (t=3.772) at less than 1 per cent probability level with regard to farm size between participants and non-participants. This result is in agreement with the findings of Chukwu and Chinaka (2001).

# Farming systems:

With regards to farming system, majority of the respondents, 56.7 per cent of participants and 66.67 per cent of non-participants practiced sole cropping while only 10.0 per cent of participants and 13.33 per cent of

non-participants practiced mixed cropping (Table 6). It is concluded from the results that the dominant farming system is sole cropping. Statistically there was a significant mean difference (t=4.662) at less than 10 per cent probability level. This result does agree with the findings of Androniceanu (2011). However, it is inconsistent with the finding of Auta (2013).

# Farming experience:

As far as farming experience is concerned, 26.67 per cent of the participants had 10-20 years of farming experience followed by 16.66 per cent with 21-30 years (Table 7). Only 3.30 per cent of the participants had more than 30 years of farming experience. Among the non-participants, 38.33 per cent had 10-20 years of farming experience followed by 28.33 per cent with less than 10 years of farming experience. Statistically there was a significant mean difference (t=2.672) at less than 10 per cent probability level. This result does agree with the findings of Androniceanu (2011). However, it is inconsistent with the finding of Murphy (1981).

# Methods of messages disseminated:

The participation of women farmers was more in fertilizer application (35%), followed by mixed cropping

Non -participant	Participant		Variables
Number Percentage	Percentage	Number	Level of education
47 78.33	70.0	42	Illiterate
13 21.67	30.0	18	Literate
7.5	8.0		Mean

Toble 4	Dictribution	of recoordants	according to size
i abie 4:	. 17181111011111011	or respondents	according to size

Table 4 . Distribution of respon	dents according to size			
Variables	Participant		Non -	-participant
Household sizes	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1-3	4	6.67	6	10
4-6	24	40.0	32	53.33
7-10	32	53.33	22	36.67
Mean	7.:	5		7.4

Source: Own computation, 2015

Table 5 : Farm size (Hectare)

Variables		Participant		Non -Participant		
Farm sizes/ha	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	T-test	
<1	18	30.0	48	80.0		
1-3	37	61.67	8	13.33	t=3.772	
>3	5	8.33	4	6.67	t=3.772	
Mean		1.4	0	.98		

(20.00%) and methods of pest control (18.34%). The participation is very less in mixed farming (6.65%), followed by poultry production (8.33%) and animal husbandry (11.67%) (Table 8). This is indicated that the messages were among the most important challenges women farmers in Dendi district. Statistically there was significance (t=4.34) difference between participant and non participant on the participation of agricultural extension activities. This was agreement with the findings of (Chukwu and Ebeniro, 2000).

# Effectiveness of the message:

It is evident from Table 9 that 41.66 per cent indicated the messages were effective followed by 33.34 per cent reported as very effective. Only a few percentage of participants reported the messages were ineffective and highly ineffective (3.33% and 5.00%). This shows that the messages were important for women farmers in Dendi district. Statistically there was significance (t= 7.23) difference between participants

and non-participants on the participation of agricultural extension service based on the effectiveness. This was agreement with the findings of (Chukwu and Ebeniro, 2000).

# **Extension contact:**

The results of the survey indicate that 52.2 per cent of the respondents had extension contact, while 47.8 per cent (Table 10) did not have any contact with extension agents. Group wise, 66.7 per cent of the non-participant and 31.6 per cent of the participant reported that they had extension contact. The Chi-square value, revealing differences (x²-value=10.005) between the two groups, was significant at 1 per cent probability level.

#### **Source of information:**

Table 11 shows that Extension agent was the most important source of agricultural information for both participants (58.33.7%) and non-participants (63.3%). This was followed by radio for participants (21.67%)

8.4

Table 6 : Farming systems					
Variables	Partic	ipant	Non -par	ticipant	t-test
Farming systems	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Sole cropping	34	56.70	40	66.67	
Mixed farming	20	33.30	12	20.0	+ 4.662
Mixed Cropping	6	10.0	8	13.33	t=4.662
Mean	1.8	36	1.5	4	

Source: Own computation, 2015

Table 7 : Farming experience				
Variables	Partic	ipant	Non-participant	
Farming experience	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
<10	4	6.66	17	28.33
10-20	16	26.67	23	38.33
21-30	10	16.66	10	16.67
>30	20	3.33	10	16.67

10.4

Source: Own computation, 2015

Mean

Table 8: Distribution of respondents according to types of messages disseminated
--

Variables	Partic	Non-participant		
Mode of disseminated	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Methods of fertilizer application	21	35.0	18	30.0
Methods of pest control	11	18.33	13	21.67
Message on animal husbandry	7	11.67	11	18.33
Message on poultry production	5	8.33	8	13.33
Message on mixed cropping	12	20.00	7	11.66
Message on mixed farming	4	6.67	3	5.0
Mean	3.	3.65		1.63

and television for non-participants (16.67%). The source of Extension agent as the most popular source of agricultural information among the respondents was in agreement with the findings of Faride and Soetan (1999) that reported that 100 per cent of Oyo women possess radio and obtained their information through Extension agent. All the related information would be made available to them even without electricity-by making use of the cheap dry cell batteries as a source of power. The least popular source of agricultural information among the participants and non-participants was the internet for 3.5 per cent, and 0.6 per cent, respectively.

The correlation between socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and their participation in agricultural extension activities is shown in Table 14. The result from this table shows that age, household size, farming experience had a negative correlation of -0.01128, -0.03572, and -0.00342, respectively but it was not significant. Educational level, household income and farm size has a positive correlation of 0.10679, 0.22309

and 0.8872, respectively but was not significant. The implication of that increase in educational level household income and farming experience will had to an increase in the level of participation while an increase in age, household size and farming experience will lead to a decrease in participation. Thus the null hypothesis is accepted since there is no significant relationship between socio economic characteristics of the respondents and their participation in agricultural extension service.

#### **Econometrics Result:**

Econometric analysis was carried out in order to identify the factors influencing Women Farmers' Participation in Agricultural Extension service. Multiple regression models were employed to estimate the effects of the hypothesized explanatory variables on Women Farmers' Participation in Agricultural Extension Service. Prior to running the logistic regression analysis both the continuous and discrete explanatory variables were checked for the existence of Multicollinearity and high

Variables	Participant		Non-participant		t-test
variables	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Highly effective	20	33.34	5	8.33	
Effective	25	41.66	3	5.0	
Fairly	10	16.67	20	33.34	7.23
Ineffective	2	3.33	25	41.66	1.23
Highly ineffective	3	5.0	7	11.67	
Mean	4.7		2	2.7	

Source: Own computation, 2015

Table 10 : Extension contact					
Description	Parti	cipant	Non-p	participant	Value
Variables	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	value
Had extension contact	36	66.7	12	31.6	
No extension contact	18	33.3	26	68.4	$x^2$ -value=10.005***
Mean	6	5.4		2.4	

Variables	Participant		Non-participant		
Source	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Radio	13	21.67	10	16.67	
Bulletin	1	1.67	2	3.33	
TV	4	6.67	3	5.0	
Extension agent	35	58.33	38	63.33	
Poster	1	1.67	1	1.67	
Friends	4	6.67	3	5.0	
Exhibition	2	3.33	3	5.0	
Mean	3.6	8		3.09	

degree of association using variance inflation factor (VIF) and contingency co-efficients. The VIF values for continuous variables were found to be very small (much less than 10) indicating that absence of Multicollinearity between them. Likewise, the results of the computation of contingency co-efficients revealed that there was no serious problem of association among discrete variables. For this reason, all of the explanatory variables were included in the final analysis. More specifically, six continuous and five discrete explanatory variables were used to estimate the multiple regression models. Contingency co-efficient values ranges between 0 and 1 and as a result of chi-square variable with contingency coefficient below 0.75 shows weak association and value above 0.75 indicates strong association of variables. The contingency co-efficient for the dummy variables included in the model was less than 0.75 that did not suggest Multicollinearity to be a series concern. The result of VIF and contingency coefficient computed from the survey data are presented on Table 12 and 13, respectively.

# Regression model:

Multiple Logistic regression models were used to assess the factors influencing rural Women Farmers' Participation in Agricultural Extension service. Based on the result of Multicollinearity diagnostics' tests for both continuous and dummy explanatory variables, no variable was found to be highly correlated or associated with one of the other variables. The likelihood ratio test statistic exceeds the chi-square critical value with 12 degrees of freedom. The result is significant at less than 0.01 probabilities indicating that the hypothesis that all the coefficients except the intercept are equal to zero is not tenable. Likewise, the log likelihood value was significant at 1% level of significance. Another measure of goodness of fit used in logistic regression analysis is the count R<sup>2</sup>, which indicates the number of sample observations

Table 12 : Summary of continuous variables							
Variables	Participant (60)		Non-participant (60)		Total (120)		T-Value
Variables	Mean	Sta. dev.	Mean	Sta. dev.	Mean	Sta. dev.	
Farming systems	1.7965	3.5902	5.696	5.900	1.8666	1.8800	.3581***
Farm size	2.18	2.15	5.19	5.26	3.95	4.5	1.539**
Age of respondents	34.5	45.4	39.6	40.6	32.56	40.56	2.339**
Farming experience	6.95	4.564	4.45	3.644	8.12	9.432	3.326***
Types message	3.44	2.45	3.56	3.446	7.45	6.76	2.434
T:CC+:	4.7	4.2	2.4	0.1	4.5	2.12	

Effectiveness of message Source: Own computation, 2015

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> and \*\* indicate significance of values at P=0.01 and 0.05, respectively

Table 13 : Correlation between socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and their participation in agricultural extension services					
Variable	Correlation	Decision			
Age	-0.01128	NS			
Education	0.10679	NS			
Household size	-0.03572	NS			
Household income	0.22309	NS			
Farming experience	-0.00342	NS			
Farm size	0.08872	NS			
NS=Non-significant					

	Table	14 :	Multicollinearity	test for	continuous	explanatory	variables
Ξ	,	•					

<b>-</b>	and 14 : Number in the continuous explanatory variables				
Regression	Collinearly statistics				
Variables	Tolerance	VIF			
AG	0.922	1.317			
FS	0.907	1.338			
MS	0.87	1.215			
HS	0.959	1.264			
FE	0.891	1.366			
	0.966	1.256			

correctly predicted by the model. In other words, the i<sup>th</sup> observation is grouped as a non-defaulter if the computed probability is greater than or equal to 0.5 and as a defaulter otherwise. The model results show that the logistic regression model correctly predicted 71.5 of 120, or 84.8 percent of the sample women farmers.

# Factors influencing women's participation in Agricultural Extension service:

Multiple regression analysis of the data indicated in Table 11 that five of the variables were significantly related to level of participation of women farmers in Agricultural extension service programme. The variables were level of education, extension contact, access to market, marital status and age of farmers. They were significantly affects level of women's' participation at 1 per cent, 5 per cent and 10 per cent level of significance, respectively. This is plausible because older farmers would tend to stick to farming, reflecting their age-old occupation and would work hard to improve on their output. Any new agricultural programme that would bring this improvement, the farmer wants to be associated with

it and would have greater desire to participate in it.

With regards to education level, the positive coefficient (0.054) implies that as level of education increases, level of participation in Women's in agricultural extension service programme decreases which is expected. The higher the educational level of the farmer, higher the chances of getting better paying jobs or the higher the tendency to be involved in politics and less increased participation in AES programmes. In general, this study re-affirms the position of many other studies, including that of Chukwu *et al.* (2012) that age and educational level are the factors affecting women participation in urban agriculture.

The co-efficient for marital status was positive and significant at 10 per cent level of significance suggesting that women's marital status influence their level of participation of Women's in Agricultural extension service programmes. Most of the successful women's' participants in Agricultural extension service programme opined that they have a good understanding, support and encouragement from their husbands in terms of advice and funding. This could have stimulated such farmers to

Table 15 : Multicollinearity test for discrete variables							
Variables	AGW	RPM	AW	LOC	INR	EDL	
EDL	1.000	0.054	0.07	0.121	0.284	0.183	
AG		0.043	0.060	0.141	0.186	0.176	
RPM		1.000	0.007	0.073	0.012	0.022	
AW			1.000	0.036	0.197	0.154	
LOC				1.000	0.035	0.023	
INR					1.000	1.00	

Table 16: Multiple regression estimates of socio-economic and institutional determinants of women participation in agricultural extension service programme

service programme				
Variables	Estimated co-efficients	Odds ratio	Wald statistics	Significance level
Access to market	0.231**	3.516	0.459	0.001
Access to land	0.075	.681	0.219	0.798
Household size	0.008	.295	3.217	0.513
Marital status	0.443*	0.200	0.717	0.023
Farming experience	0.023	.648	0.119	0.435
Farm sizes	0.282	.2.773	0.306	0.428
Extension contact	0.102***	1.611	3.080	0.000
Level of education	0.054***	6.546	5.703	0.000
Age of farmers	0.022*	2.844	2.906	0.032
Access to credit	0.223	.779	0.371	0.543
Membership of co-operatives	0.482	1.026	019	0.344
	$R^2 = 0.711$	Adjusted $R^2=0.655$	F-ratio=12.67	

<sup>\*, \*\*</sup> and \*\*\* indicate significance of values at P=0.10, 0.05, 0.01, respectively NS=Non-significant

increase their level of participation in AES programmes. This study is in agreement with Sabo (2006) which showed significant relationship between marital status and participation of Women's in Agricultural extension activities programme in Dendi district.

Co-efficients for household size, farming experience and farm size were however not significant with level of participation. One possible explanation with regards to household size for this relationship with level of participation might be that most of the participants now discourage the over reliance on family labour on the farm in order to enable their children have access to formal education. In the case of farming experience, it might be that most of the experienced farmers tend to invest their resources and incomes into other ventures instead of increasing their level of participation in Agricultural extension service programmes.

#### **Conclusion:**

This study was designed to investigate the effectiveness of agricultural extension services consisting of both production and nutrition related information in improving the production and nutrition of farmers and women farmers in particular in Dendi district.

The first specific objective was to analyze the impact of rural women's socio-economic characteristics and access of particularly women farmers' to agricultural extension and household's involvement in formal and informal institutions in explaining farm households' agricultural production. In this study age was found to significant in determining agricultural production for both participant and non-participant headed farmers. This finding is in agreement with the report by Rebecca (2012) that indicates the age characteristics of the household head as positively contributing variable if he/she is in middle age category because he/she could actively engage in agricultural activities; and with the report by Maser (2011) that indicate an individual may lose ability and energy to get involved in agricultural activity of yield increasing practices as he/she gets older and older.

Since in the study area illiteracy rate was very high (70.0 and 78.33 % of respondents, respectively for all respondents, participant and non-participant), educational status was found significant in determining agricultural extension service for both participant and non-participant farmers. This finding is in agreement with argument of Adekunle (2013) that states educational status of a household head positively affects the knowledge, attitude

and practices towards accessing to modern agricultural extension service and better agricultural production technology. Thus, we concluded that high illiteracy rate could be one of the limiting factors for women's access to agricultural extension service for all women's farmers in general and for female farmers in particular in Dendi district.

The expectations that as the size of cultivated land and Total land used in the household increases, the probability of farm household income increases did not hold true for female headed households in the study area, while the finding for male headed household was as hypothesized. Thus, we concluded that female headed farmers' agricultural production in the study area was limited by resource holdings. The study revealed that household income increases with the use of improved seed for both female and male headed households. Thus we conclude that there is a need for agricultural extension services to focus on increased use of improved seeds for female headed households so as to increase their agricultural production.

The study also shows that majority of the women farmers in the area participated actively in individual Services of extension except farmer field days while the women's participation in mass media activities, were relatively low except in TV advert and Radio where they participation actively. The major types of message dissemination to the women were friends, village radio and TV. The bulletin was the least source of information. The women farmers did not have the expected access to professional extension agents. There was no significant relationship between Educational level, household size, household income, farming experience, age and farm size of the respondents and their participation in agricultural Extension Activities.

The livelihoods of rural people in the study area are completely dependent on agricultural incomes. For this agricultural works women have a lion's share in the area which is performed by all able-bodied household members. Despite the fact that women have extra-load than men because they participate in all activities, these efforts do not reflect to their life quality in terms of income and social status due to cultural taboos.

The impact of household family size on agricultural extension service was not significant for all respondents, while for female headed farmers the impact was not significant. This result is not in agreement with the opinion that suggest household head with higher might be more

advantageous than household with small family size in terms of participation in agricultural extension services (Adekunle, 2013) (provided that many of the family members are in productive age group). Thus, based on the finding of this study, we conclude that in the case of all respondents and male headed farmers, as the number of persons in the household increases, the probability of farmers' orientation towards use of agricultural inputs that increases agricultural production might have been reduced, may be because of its effect on increasing household consumption needs.

Thus the finding in this study, in the case of female headed farmers, is not in agreement with the arguments of Lerman (2004) that promotes credits as an important engine to enhance farmer's skills and knowledge, linking of farmers with modern technology through the purchase of inputs and investment on agricultural technology and then boosting household's agricultural production. The impact of farmer's contact with agricultural extension agents was positive and significantly (P < 0.03) related to increased household agricultural production of male farmers and all respondents, while for female farmers the impact was positive but not significant.

#### **Recommendation:**

The following recommendations were being made in view of the afore mentioned findings of the study: -

- Government should encourage and assist women farmers by giving them special attention in terms of access to needed farm inputs and incentives. New farming implements should be made affordable and available to the women.
- Women adult literacy education programme is required to help women farmers acquire basic skills and abilities to seek and receive agricultural information through extension agents. This will make them to participate more in reading extension leaflets, bulletin, newsletter etc.
- Credit facilities should be provided by the government either through various women group and cooperate so as to enable they participate fully in agricultural activities.
- Finally considering women designated roles in agricultural production effort, agricultural information to farmers should be gender specific and sensitive.

# **REFERENCES**

Adekanye, T.O., Otitolaiye, J.O. and Opaluwa, H.I. (2009).

Food and agricultural production in Nigeria: Some Empirical considerations for Engendering Economic Policy for Africa Paper prepared for presentation at IAFFE conference on Feminist Economics Boston Massachusetts, USA (26 th– 28<sup>th</sup> June) pp.1-20

**Adekunle, O.O.** (2013). Analysis of effectiveness of agricultural extension service in among rural women: A case study of Odeda local government, Ogun State, Nigeria. *Internat. J. Sci., Technol. & Soc.*, 1(1): 36-42.

Adekanya, T.O. (1988). Women in agriculture, African note special volume in women in agriculture. Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan.

**Chude, K.A. and Chukwu, G.O. (2000).** Soil characterization in relation to aquaculture: A case study of Ikwuano Local Government Area, Abia State Nigeria. *Global J. Pure & Appl. Sci.*, **6**(4): 603-607.

**Chukwu, G.O. and Asawalam, D.O. (2001).** Land capability evaluation of Ikwuano Local Government Area of Abia State for agricultural development. Proceedings of 25th Annual Conference of soil science society of Nigeria. Benin City Edo State 21st – 29th November, 2001.: pp: 39 – 44.

**Chukwu, G.O. and Chinaka, C.C. (2001).** Agricultural land use in Ikwuano L.G.A., Abia State. Implication, for agrotechnology transfer. Proceedings of 34th Annual Conference of the Agricultural Society of Nigeria (ASN). pp: 192 – 194.

**Chukwu, G.O. and Ebeniro, L.A. (2000).** Rizipisci-cuttuse potential of Inland valleys of Ikwuano Local Government Area of Abia State. Proceedings of the 3300 Annual Conference of the Agricultural Society of Nigeria (ASN). pp: 152 – 154.

**Chukwu, G.O. and Ifenkwe, G.E. (1996).** An edaphalogical approach to biodiversity conservation in Ikwuano Local Government Area of Abia State. Implications for agro – technology transfer. Proceedings of the 5th annual conference of the Nigerian society for biological conservation. Fed. Univ. of Agric. Umudike.: pp: 91 – 94.

**Daman, P.** (1997). Cooperation and poverty reduction enhancing social and economic imperatives. ICA ROAD, New Delhi: PS.

Diagne, A., Zeller, M. and Sharma, M. (2000). Empirical measurements of household's access to credit and credit constraints in developing countries. FCND Discussion Paper No. 90, Washington, DC, International Food Policy Research Institute.

**Ekong, E.E.** (2003). *An introduction to rural sociology*. 2nd Edn., Fiya Nigeria: Dove educational publisher.

**Fletschner, D. (2009).** Rural womans' access to crediti market imperfections and interhousehold dynamics. *World Dev.*, **37** (3):618-631.

**Fletschner, D. and Mahesh, D. (2011).** Rural women's access to information: do spuses share what they know? *World Dev.*, **39** (8): 1422-1433.

FAO (1995). A synthesis report of the Africa region-woman, agriculture and rural development.

FAO. (2004). Drought impact mitigation and prevention in the Limpopo River Basin - a situation analysis. FAO Land and Water Discussion Paper No. 4. Rome.

Inter-America Development Bank (2000). Social protection for equity and growth, Sustainable development. Department's poverty and inequality advisory unit, Washington D.C.

**Mijindadi, N.B.** (1993). Agricultural extension for omcn experience for Nigeria". Paper presented at the I 3" world Bank Agro symposium on women in agriculture resource management. National population census (2006) census Report.

**Nonyelu, C. (1996).** An appraisal study of the agricultural extension system in Nigeria. The Role of Women Proceeding of the Workshop for National Agricultural Strategy Plan and Extension Services Input Delivery. Abuja, November 25th - 26th.

**Nwansat, G.S.** (2002). Problems of women in Nigeria agriculture, "in Journal of Women in Nigeria Agriculture", *J. Women Academics (JOWACAS)*, **2**(1): 68.

Protz, M. (1977). Developing sustainable agricultural

technologies with rural women in Jamaica: A participatory media approach. University of Reading: U.K.: 1-3.

**Tesfaye, T. (2015).** Rural women participation in agricultural activities and household managements in Ethiopia: A case study of Delanta Dawunt District, North Wollo Zone. *African J. Agric. Sci. & Technol. (AJAST)*, **3** (7): 327-340.

World Bank (2000). *Integrating Gender in World Bank Assistance*. Operations Evaluation Department. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

World Bank (2001). Nigeria and the World Bank: Learning from the past, Looking to the Future. The World Bank. Washington D.C.

Yahya K.M. (2002). Gender and communication variables in Agricultural Information Disseminaton in Two-Agro-Ecological Zones of Nigeria, University of Ibadan Research Monograph. Corporate Graphics Limited. Ibadan, Nigeria, p.4.

#### **■ WEBLIOGRAPHY**

FAO (2006). Gender and agricultural support systems. Sustainable development. FAO. Available from htpp/www.fao.org/sd/wpd.ret/4./15/2006.

**Onuekwusi** (2014). Women Farmers' Participation in Agricultural Extension Activities in Ikwuano L.G.A, Abia State Nigeria. http://www.asianonlinejournals.com/index.php/AJSSMS.

