

Research Article

Effect of Domestic Violence on Women farmer's Livelihood Activities in Ogun State Nigeria.

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ABSTRACT

Effects of Domestic Violence on Women farmers` livelihood activities in Ogun State, Nigeria. Data were collected using structured interview guide. Purposively sampling technique was used to select 220 respondents in two zones of Ogun State Agricultural Development Programme . Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) and Chi-square. Findings showed that the mean age of respondents was 48.73 years, while the mean household size was 6 persons. Also, 41% of the respondents were Christians, (26.20%) of the women farmers had primary education, qualification 30.80% were into farming and 86.20% of the sampled respondents engaged in cassava production. Only 43.60% of the respondents belonged to cooperative societies. More than half of the respondents (55.38%) agreed that rape is a form of domestic violence. Similarly, 39.00% of the respondents did not have enough money to participate in income generating activities. Chi-square analysis showed that women's agricultural livelihood activities was associated with religion ($\chi^2=70.29$, $p<0.05$), education ($\chi^2=43.80$, $p<0.05$), occupation ($\chi^2=59.26$, $p<0.05$). Correlation analysis also showed significant relationship between women's livelihood activities and household size ($r=-0.22$). Significant differences existed in the effect of domestic violence experienced by women who are into vegetable production ($t=26.09$), maize production ($t=25.91$), cassava production ($t=17.38$), goat rearing ($t=24.98$) in two zones of the study at $p < 0.05$. It was concluded that domestic violence limits women's potentials and hinders their full involvement in livelihood activities. Therefore, there is need for the patriarch structures that promote power imbalance between men and women to be dismantled. Furthermore, women should be empowered through training and access to social assets such as loans and credit.

Keyword: Domestic Violence, Women Farmers, Women empowerment.

Introduction

Gender is defined by FAO as the relations between men and women. Gender is not determined biologically, as a result of sexual characteristics of either women or men, but is constructed socially. It is a central organizing principle of societies, and often governs the processes of production and reproduction, consumption and distribution (FAO, 1997). Despite this definition, gender is often misunderstood as being the promotion of women only. However, from FAO definition, gender issues focus on women and on the relationship between men and women, their roles, access to and control over resources, division of labour, interests and needs. Gender relations affect household security, family well-being, planning, production and many other aspects of life (Bravo-Baumann, 2000).

Recent decades, have witnessed substantial gains in agricultural productivity and rapid advances in agricultural technology. These advances often by-passed women farmers and reduced their productivity. Frequently the changes were linked to credit requirements that were either in accessible to women, or were not tailored to their needs and demands. Therefore, women face a variety of gender-based constraints (violence) as farmers and managers of resources.

Gender Based Violence (GBV) can be described as any harm that is perpetrated against a person, as a result of power of inequalities that are based on gender roles. According to United Nation Economic and Social Council (1992), gender based violence is all encompassing, as it is not only limited to physical, sexual and psychological violence, but include threats of violence, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty. Though gender based violence may take many forms, it cut across all cultures disproportionately affecting women and children mostly. According to Villarreal (2000) access to productive resources such as land, credit, technical know-how, knowledge, technology transfer is strongly determined along gender lines, with men frequently having more access to all these than women. But with the death of the man, the wife may no longer have the kind of access she had

gained through her husband's clan; and her livelihood can be immediately threatened. According to Himanshu and Panda (2007), it is estimated that one in every five women faces some form of violence during her lifetime and, in some cases leading to serious injury or death.

Violence against women and the girl-child at home and at work has taken alarming trend and different dimensions. It is equally a major threat to social and economic development (UN, 2000). It is also the most widespread and socially tolerated way in which women and girls are denied their basic right (DFID, 2007).

The preliminary report of the special rapporteur on violence against women (UNIFEM, 1994) argues that women's vulnerability to violence is determined by their sexuality, resulting for example in rape or female genital mutilation (FGM), from their relationships to some men and from membership of groups where violence against women is a means of humiliation directed at specific group (e.g. mass rape in conflict situations). Violence against women is reinforced by doctrines of privacy and the sanctity of the family, and by legal codes which link individual, family or community honour to women's sexuality. However, the greatest cause of violence against women is government tolerance and inaction. Its most significant consequence is fear, which inhibits women's social and political participation (UNDP, 1997 as cited by Wach and Reeves, 2000).

Violence against women and girls occur on a vast scale, with sexual violence playing a prominent role. Sexual violence often appears in literature but its definition is broad and the term is used to describe rape by acquaintance, or strangers, by authority figures (including husband), incest, child sexual abuse, pornography, sexual harassment and homicide (Gordon and Crehan 1998). Sexual violence describes the deliberate use of sex as a weapon to demonstrate power over, and to inflict pain and humiliation upon another human being. Therefore, sexual violence does not only include direct physical contact between perpetrator and victim; it may also include such act of violence like threat, humiliation and intimidation (Gordon and Crehan 1998). The loss of homes, income, families, and social support deprives women and girls the capacity to generate income as a result of which they may be forced into transactional sex in order to maintain certain level of their livelihood/ comfort (or those of their husband or children), escape to safety, or to gain access to shelter or services (including the distribution of food).

It is widely acknowledged that the impacts of HIV/AIDS on rural livelihood are not gender neutral, its deepen and widen gender inequalities. HIV/AIDS is creating a major shock in the rural areas of the most affected countries, for the most part, these changes are increasing the vulnerability of the most vulnerable (women and children) and increase the already stark gender inequality in the access to and ownership of land and other productive resources. According to FAO (2004) HIV/AIDS reinforces mechanism of marginalization and inequality. In addition, it shows that policies intended to benefit the poorest or most vulnerable may not be effective unless they address the mechanisms of exclusion (FAO, 2004).

Women's lack of property or access to financial resources, make them become dependent on men for support, and as a result they are at risk of being subjected to sexual abuse. Therefore, low social status of women in the developing world magnifies their vulnerability to HIV/AIDS infection and constrains their ability to deal with its impact (HPG, 2004). For instance, women limited economic security may increase the likelihood of engaging in high risk behaviour such as commercial sex work or transactional sex. In transit, refugees who are sexually active (through choice or necessity) are often exposed to different forms of sexual violence resulting in some having differing levels of HIV infection (Gordon and Crehan, 1998).

The division of responsibilities and labour within households and communities tend to place farming and nutrition related task under women's domain. In studies with male and female in different rural areas across Nigeria and Ghana, a common finding has been that they engage in multiple income generating activities (Hassan and Olawoye, 2002). The major activities include crop farming, livestock rearing, trading, fishing, hunting, and gathering of non timber forest products, working as hired labours, selling cooked food or snacks, and working as civil servant. In South-East, Asia, women currently provide up to 90 percent of labour in rice cultivation; while in sub-Saharan Africa, women produce up to 80 percent of basic foodstuffs for household consumption and sale (FAO, 1999).

Beyond the farm, women play key role in land and water management in all developing countries. Women are most often the collectors of water, firewood and fodder. They have access to store of local knowledge on the medicinal use of plants. They have been in the forefront of soil conservation programmes and it is women who perform most of the household labour devoted to animals. Lingam (2005) opined that women every where work longer hours but earn less income despite the fact that they are responsible for meeting 40 to 100 percent of a family basic need.

Some of the activities women are involved in are closely related to social and human reproduction goals; while men tend to become progressively involved in activities that require temporary migration such as hunting and fishing or other activities related to public, community organization and off-farm responsibilities. The right of access of women to land is determined by their marital status, by the law of inheritance and divorce, and by institutions that are themselves deeply embedded within local perceptions of the role that women should play in the society. A married woman may gain access to land, if she has her husband's authorization but she is likely to lose this in the event of a breakdown in relations, divorce or widowhood (Hilhorst, 2002).

The above background has necessitated the need to carry out a study on the effect of domestic violence on livelihood activities among rural household in Nigeria, to identify type of domestic violence encountered by women in the study area in order to gain an insight into how domestic violence affects the type of enterprise they engage in.

Statement of the Problem

The impact of gender relations on activities and on the status of women and vice versa is construed by a web of diverse economic, social, religious and cultural factors (Miller, 1998). For instance in Nigeria, effort made to draw attention to the issue of gender based violence have been resisted from organized religion, health workers, judicial, police, social welfare officers, all of whom see the home as sacrosanct.

In Nigeria, police will not intervene in domestic quarrels, and do not consider wife beating as a crime, because, existing legal instruments do not treat wife abuse as a criminal offence. For instance, Penal Code Law Cap 89 laws of Northern Nigeria (1969) as cited by Odimegwu (2001) states that domestic quarrels is not an offence if committed by a husband for the purpose of correcting his wife. This law sees husband-wife relationship as being similar to parent-child relationship (Odimegwu, 2001).

Women are an essential part of labour source in the rural economics. It is vital for women to take up additional work in the farms and field to supplement the household income. Women's ability to participate in their daily activities highly depends on their personal security as well as the security of their land and property (Ganeshpanchan, 2005). Violence threatens the security of freely engaging in daily activities and free movement; thereby restricting women's ability to participate in income generating activities, depriving them of the much needed household income and the ability to carry out their additional responsibilities of providing for the family and the security of their families, especially the young girls and the older members. Moreover, AIDS, one of the major outcomes of gender-based violence has been documented to have caused a major agricultural labour shortage (Villarreal, 2000). It is against this backdrop that this research work generated the following objectives:

Objective of the study

General Objective

The broad objective of the study was to analyze the effect of domestic violence on women farmer's livelihood activities in Ogun State Nigeria.

Specific Objectives

The specific objectives were to:

- Describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents.
- Determine the respondent's perception of domestic violence.
- Ascertain agricultural livelihood activities of women in the study area.
- Examine the effect of domestic violence on women access to productive resources in the study area.

Hypotheses of the study

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between the demographic characteristics of women in the study area and effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship women access to productive resource and the effect of domestic violence on women's livelihood activities.

H₀₃: There is no significance difference in the effect of domestic violence on agricultural livelihood activities among women in the two zones of the study.

Methodology

The study was carried out in Ogun State, Nigeria. Ogun State covers a land area of approximately 16,406,226 square kilometers and is bounded in the west by the Republic of Benin, on the south by Lagos State and the Atlantic ocean, and on the east by Ondo State and in the south by Oyo State.

It falls between longitudes 2° 40'E - 6° 40'E and latitudes 4° 40'N -9° 15'N (Grant, 1988). Ogun state has a total of 20 local government areas. These are Abeokuta North, Abeokuta South, Ogun Waterside, Ijebu Ode, Ijebu North, Ijebu East, Ijebu North East, Odogbolu, Ikenne, Sagamu, Obafemi Owode, Odeda, Ado/Ota, Yewa North, Yewa South, Imeko Afon, Ipokia, Ewekoro, Ifo and Remo North. Agriculture is the major occupation of the people of Ogun State. The state is further subdivided into four agricultural zones namely Abeokuta, Ikenne, Ijebu-Ode, and Ilaro by Ogun State Agricultural Development Programme (OGADEP). Each zone is further divided into blocks and cells for the provision of extension services in the state. In all, there are twenty (20) blocks and one hundred and twenty six cells in the state. Data shows that women in Ogun State are disadvantaged, for instance, percentage of women circumcised in Ogun State is 22.5%, those dispossessed of their property 2.6%, while husbands who neglected the children were 39.6% (NDHS, 2008). Few women (10.1%) had access to credit in Ogun State (NBS, 2006).

Population of the Study

The population of study was all the women in the farm families in rural areas of Ogun State, Nigeria.

Sampling Procedure and Samples Size

A multistage sampling technique was used. Ogun Agricultural Development Programme (ADP) has four operational zones: Abeokuta, Ilaro, Ijebu-Ode and Ikenne. Fifty percent (50%) of the zones were randomly selected, Ijebu-Ode and Ikenne zones. These two zones had ten extension blocks and fifty percent (50%) of the blocks were selected. The blocks are Ago-Iwoye, Ijebu Igbo, Isoyin Isara and Simawa. Furthermore, fifty percent of the cells in each of the selected blocks were also selected, making a total of 11 cells. Thereafter 50% of the villages in each cell were selected, to give a total of 44 villages. However, because the list of the farm families in the study areas was not available, 5 respondents (women) were purposively selected from each of the villages to give a total of two hundred and twenty (220) respondents. Interview schedule and focus group discussion were used to generate needed data for the study. Observation method was used to elicit facts during the survey. At least participatory tool such as brain storming session was used to complement the result obtained for the interview schedule. A total of three brain storming session was conducted.

Results and Discussion

Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 1 shows that the mean age of the respondents was 48.73 years. Also 34.40% of the respondents fell within the age range of 41-50 years, which constitute the modal age group with the highest frequency of 67. The result in table 1 shows that majority of the respondents were still within economically active age group. This agrees with the report of Oladoja *et al.* (2006) that most Nigerian farmers (women inclusive) are between 41-50 years of age and are still active.

Also 42.00% of the respondents were Christians, 33.30% were Muslim, and 24.70% were in traditional religion. This finding further buttresses the fact that there is dichotomy in the religious spread across Nigeria. The northern part of Nigeria is predominantly Muslims, while the southern part has relatively more Christians (WHO, 2001). The study further revealed that 16.40% of the respondents sampled had no-formal education, 25.60% of the respondents had adult literacy education, 26.20% of the respondents had primary education qualification, while 18.50% of the respondents had secondary education qualification, 6.20% of the respondents were OND holders, while the remaining 7.20% of the respondents had higher degree. This implies that majority of the respondents were those with first leaving school certificate (primary education). The result of the finding thus supports that of Olawoye (1994) who asserted that woman in rural areas of Nigeria often receive little or no western education.

Occupation category of the respondent revealed that 6.70% were civil-servant, while 30.80% of respondents were into farming. This results shows that agriculture remains one of the important occupation in the rural areas in Nigeria. According to Ajani *et al.* (2002) women constitute more than 30 percent of the population found in Agriculture. They are involved in all production practices from land clearing to harvesting, as well as marketing of agriculture products (UN, 1980; Longe, 1988; and Hamilton, 1992). They are also involved in livestock production, processing of farm products and gathering of forest products. These views were further supported by Philip and Michael (1999) that women engage in animal husbandry that include keeping and tendering of small ruminants like sheep, goats, and poultry to supplement family income and nutrition. Moreover, females engage in multiple income generating activities (Hassan and Olawoye 2002). The activities include crop farming, livestock rearing, trading, and

fishing, hunting and gathering non-timber forest products, working as hired labour, selling cooked food or snacks, and working as civil servant.

The result revealed that the average household size is 6 persons .This means respondents had relatively small household size. The reasons that may be advanced for this is that a man prestige's is no longer in the number of children he has but on how successful the children are.

Considering the membership of social organization (MSO), 48.50% of the respondents belong to cooperative societies. A high number of women belong to social organization because; it is an avenue for the women to interact, share ideas on matter affecting them socially, emotionally. Their expectations could be met during the process of interaction.

The distribution of sampled women by their frequency of visit to urban area shows that 10.30% of the respondents in the study area visit urban area on daily basis, 22.10% of the respondents visit once a week, 29.70% of the respondents twice a week, 25.60% once in a month, while 5.60% of the respondents visit urban centre on other days apart from the one highlighted above. This implies that majority of the women pay visit to urban areas periodically. It could also be as a result of the proximity of these communities to urban areas.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents demographic Characteristics (n=195)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Actual Age		
21-30	34	17.40
31-40	57	29.20
41-50	67	34.40
51-60	23	11.80
61and above	14	7.20
Mean age	48.73	
Total	195	100.00
Religion		
Christianity	82	41.00
Islam	65	33.30
Traditionalist	48	24.70
Others	2	1.00
Total	195	100.00
Educational Level		
Non Formal Education	32	16.40
Adult Literacy	50	25.60
Primary Education	51	26.20
Secondary Education	36	18.50
OND	12	6.20
HND/B.Sc & Above	14	7.20
Total	195	100.00
Occupation		
Civil Servant	13	6.70
Farming	60	30.80
Trading	37	19.00
Artisan	24	12.30
Fishing	21	10.80
Food Vendor	28	14.40
Others	12	6.20
Total	195	100.00

Table 1: Continues

Household size		
1-4	88	45.10
5-8	59	30.30
9-12	32	16.40
13-16	8	4.10
17-20	8	4.10
Mean household size	6	
Total	195	100.00
Membership of Social Organization		
Traditional group	12	6.20
Club	58	29.70
Co-operative Societies	85	43.60
Self-help Organization	15	7.70
Muslim Societies	12	6.20
Christian Societies	13	6.70
Total	195	100.00
Cosmo-politeness		
Daily	20	10.30
Once a week	43	22.10
Twice a week	58	29.70
Weekly	50	25.60
Once a month	13	6.70
Others	11	5.60
Total	195	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2010.

4.2: Perception of Women in Domestic Violence.

Table 2, shows respondents' perception of domestic violence. Meanwhile, 51.79% of the respondents agreed that not taking care of old women is not acceptable. This implies that aged people should be adequately catered for, when they are old to avoid undue hardship on them. More than half (55.38%) of the respondents agreed that rape is a form of domestic violence. This implies any form of forceful sexual intercourse or interaction between a man and a woman/husband and wife is considered as domestic violence by the victims of such act. This is corroborated by Sunny (2003) that rape within the marriage, wife battering, incest, and overwork are among areas of gross violence on a woman. This is also in line with declaration of UN General Assembly in 1993, which defines violence against women as any act of gender-based violence that results in physical, sexual or psychological harm, or suffering to women, which include threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life. Also, 46.67% of the respondents agreed that ostracizing or abandoning female resulting from rape is bad. This means that rape victims should be given support, rehabilitated and counseled to overcome the stigma and trauma that set in thereafter. Moreover, 57.44% of the sampled respondents opined that beating of women during pregnancy period is bad, while 33.80% felt it was lawful for husbands to beat wives while pregnant. This could result into forced labour, and foetus inside the womb may be maimed or die. This was supported by Panda and Agarwal (2005) that violence during pregnancy is associated with miscarriages, low birth weight, infant, maternal morbidity and even foetus and maternal death. The assertion of a few of the respondents on the need for husbands to beat wives even while pregnant is related to the societal belief that there is nothing wrong with slapping, punching, and beating of women by a man. This is in line with the findings of Oyediran and Abanihe (2005) in which large percentage of women agreed that a man is justified in beating or hitting his wife. Result also showed that 43.60% of the respondents disagreed on the view that their husband could have sex with them without their consent. This implies that wives are knowledgeable that when husbands want to have sex with them it should be with their consent, otherwise it is sexual violence. It must be noted however that it could have adverse consequences for the family. This is in line with the view of UNFPA (2002) that traditional notion of masculinity allows men to engage in risky sexual behaviours for example multiple sexual partners and negotiation of sex with other women outside the matrimony, thus promoting the spread of HIV/AIDS. From the result, 47.70% of the respondents opined that battering of women or girls is not acceptable, while 48.20% of the respondents expressed the view that isolating women/girl in purdah is

not acceptable. This means women are getting enlightened on their right. This is line with the view of Ajani *et al.* (2002) that the women kept in purdah do not enjoy full benefit from the educational system. In line with this, 45.60% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that women deserve beating because of their wrong actions. This could imply that the husbands should try to condone some of the wrong actions of their wives. This is contrary to widely held belief in most society in Nigeria, where it is widely believed that a husband may chastise, by beating their wives. Wife battering is deeply embedded in the culture, particularly among the Tiv-speaking people where it is regarded as a sign of love, which women have been socialized to accept and sometimes encourage (Oyediran and Abanihe, 2005). Meanwhile, 43.10% of the respondents strongly disagreed with the notion that sexual harassment of women or girls at work, in educational institution are acceptable. The implication of this finding is that sexual harassment is not acceptable in the work place and educational institution because women/girls who are victimized through sexual harassment exhibits low productivity which could lead to behaviours such as sabotage, aggression, truancy, lateness, theft, insubordination, and lost of concentration.

Also, 48.20% of respondents disagreed that the effect of battering on women by their husband during pregnancy on birth outcomes is good. Reasons adduced include, women might lose the pregnancy, depending on the stage of the pregnancy, the fetus might be damaged and it might result to excessive bleeding and claim the life of the woman. Violence during pregnancy is associated with miscarriages, low birth weight, infant, maternal morbidity and even foetus and maternal death. (Panda and Agarwal, 2005).

Data revealed that 42.60% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that women do not enjoy legal right to protect themselves against sexual abuse. This is contrary to what is stated in section 353 and 360 of the criminal code act (CCA) of Southern Nigeria, that make indecent assaults on female a lesser offence (misdemeanour) while similar assaults on males are felonies. Section 55 of the Northern Nigeria Penal code (PC) allows chastisement of the wife by her husband. It is well known that all sexual offences except indecent assault have women or girls as victims. (Federal Ministry of Women Affairs FMWA, 2004). However 54.99% of the women were of the opinion that throwing something at women by their husband that can hurt is bad, 46.70% indicated that twisting of women arm or hair by their husband is bad, while 44.10% of respondents disagreed that causing sprain or bruises on women by their husband during fight is okay. Nonetheless, 49.70% of respondents disagreed with the statement that pushing or shoving of women by men is acceptable, in like manner, 47.20% of respondents expressed the opinion that choking of women by man during fight is wrong because the woman might be killed in the process.

Table 2: Frequency Distribution of Respondents based on Perception of Women of Domestic Violence. (n =195)

Perception of Women	SA		A		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not taking care of women by the children when old is not acceptable	63	32.30	101	51.79	12	6.15	19	9.74
Not taking care of mentally retarded female members of the community is good	15	7.69	30	15.38	86	44.10	64	32.82
Rape is a form of domestic violence	70	35.90	108	55.38	10	5.12	7	3.59
Ostracizing/Abandoning female resulting from rape is bad	89	45.64	91	46.67	5	2.56	10	5.13
Beating of women during pregnancy is good	0	0.00	0	0.00	112	57.44	83	42.56
There is nothing wrong with beating a pregnant woman by her husband	16	8.20	39	20.00	66	33.80	74	37.90
My husband can have sex with me without my consent.	26	13.30	39	20.00	85	43.60	45	23.10
Battering of women/girls is acceptable	12	6.20	15	7.70	93	47.70	75	38.50
Forcing a woman/girl to marry a man is domestic violence	59	30.30	84	43.00	26	13.30	26	13.30
Ostracizing female when pregnant outside wedlock is good	43	22.10	39	20.00	60	30.80	53	27.20
Isolating women/girls by husband from relative in purdah is acceptable.	26	13.30	20	10.30	94	48.20	55	28.20
Kicking of women by man is not a form of domestic violence	18	9.20	41	21.00	77	39.50	59	30.30
There is nothing wrong with slapping ,punching, biting of women by man	26	13.30	42	21.50	85	43.60	42	21.50
Strangling of wives by their husband is not good	15	7.70	63	32.40	69	35.40	48	24.60

Table 2: Continues

Women deserve beating because of their wrong actions.	11	5.60	20	10.30	89	45.60	75	38.50
Sexual harassment of women /girls at work, in educational institutions is acceptable	21	10.80	34	17.50	56	28.70	84	43.10
The use of force by man to make a woman have anal or oral sex is good	20	10.30	56	28.80	63	32.10	56	28.70
Men calling women bad name is an abuse of her fundamental right	74	37.90	67	34.40	31	15.90	23	11.80
Destruction of belonging of women by their husband during fight is bad	53	27.20	90	46.10	20	10.30	32	16.40
Men storming out of the house during disagreement with their wives is acceptable	39	20.00	90	46.10	44	22.30	22	11.30
Effect of battering on women by their husband during pregnancy on birth outcomes is good	13	6.70	52	26.70	94	48.20	36	18.50
Women do not enjoy legal rights to laws that protect them against sexual abuse	23	11.80	40	20.50	83	42.60	49	25.10
Throwing something at women by their husband that can hurt is bad	56	28.70	107	54.90	8	4.10	24	12.30
Twisting of women arm or hair by their husband is bad	59	30.30	91	46.70	21	10.80	24	12.30
Causing sprain or bruises on women by their husband during fight is okay.	17	8.70	43	22.10	86	44.10	49	25.10
Lack of show of respect about woman's feeling by man is not bad.	24	12.30	31	15.90	84	43.10	56	28.70
Pushing or shoving of women by men is acceptable	14	7.20	13	6.70	97	49.70	71	36.40
Choking of women by man during fight is wrong	71	36.40	92	47.20	21	10.80	11	5.60
Women developing broken bone during fight with her husband is bad idea	69	35.40	83	42.50	26	13.30	17	8.70
Burning or scalding of husband on purpose is bad	67	34.40	71	36.50	30	15.40	27	13.80

Source: Field Survey, 2010.

Note: F= frequency %= Percent

SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree;

D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree

Agricultural Livelihood Activities of Women.

The result on table 3 revealed that 75.40% of the respondents engaged in vegetable production, 71.30% in maize production, and 86.20% of the sampled respondents engaged in cassava production. This means most of the women sampled in the study areas engaged in more than one agricultural livelihood activities to meet their daily needs. This is in line with the studies by Hassan and Olawoye (2002) on male and female in different rural areas across Nigeria and Ghana, that the common findings have been that they engage in multiple income generating activities. These activities range from vegetable production to cash crop production. This corroborates with the view of Adisa and Okunade (2005) that the food crops of women include rice in the North, palm oil in the East, and maize, cassava and rice in the West and East. Sheep rearing, marketing, fruit gathering and cash crop production were also engaged in by the respondents (55.90%, 63.10%, 84.10%, and 55.50% respectively). With this result, it is evidenced that the respondents were not deprived or prevented from engaging in agricultural livelihood activities, even though domestic violence some times occurs. The result also revealed that majority of the respondents were not involved in goat rearing, cattle rearing, poultry, fishing, and hunting (11.80%, 6.70%, 4.70%, 29.20%, 25.10% respectively). The major occupation or agricultural livelihood activities engaged in by the respondents was cassava production. This result conformed to the findings of Food and Agriculture Organization, FAO (1999), in South East Asia that women were currently providing up to 90 percent of labour in rice cultivation, while in Sub-Saharan Africa, women produce up to 80 percent of basic foodstuff for household consumption and sale. This is also in line with the view of Ajayi (2001) that farmers in Ijebu zone of Ogun State are known for cassava production.

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Respondents on Agricultural livelihood Activities pertaining to Women in Community

Agricultural livelihood Activities	Engaged in		Not Engaged in	
	F	%	F	%
Vegetable Production	147	75.40	48	24.60
Maize Production	139	71.30	56	28.70
Goat rearing	23	11.80	172	88.20
Cassava Production	168	86.20	27	13.80
Sheep rearing	109	55.90	86	44.10
Cattle rearing	13	6.70	182	93.30
Poultry	8	4.70	187	95.90
Fishing	57	29.20	138	70.80
Marketing	123	63.10	72	36.90
Hunting	49	25.10	146	74.90
Fruit gathering	164	84.10	31	15.90
Cash crop production	108	55.40	87	44.60

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Note: F = Frequency % = Percent.

Access of women to productive resources.

From table 4, the result shows that 48.20% of the respondents have access to the household farmland. This is contrary to widely held views by scholars that women do not have access to land in Africa land tenure system but they can only have such right through their husbands. Most women in patrilineal customary system have access to farmland only through their husbands or fathers as they are only granted usufructuary rights as land title pass through the male line. (Mutangadura, 2005). Yet less than 20 percent of women own their own farm lands, fewer than 10 percent have access to agricultural inputs and less than 5 percent to agricultural credits to enhance their productivity and incomes (Chainman, 1998, UNDP, 1998). However, these findings corroborate the study in Guatemala by Hamilton and Fischer (2003) cited by Deere (2005) who found that women have acquired a higher level of decision-making power in the household over land use and over income allocation. In addition, this finding may be a result of a much higher percentage of women owning land in this study, particularly as independent owners.

Table 4 showed that 48.21% of respondents strongly agreed that they have free access to assets within the household, the explanation for this findings is that may be both the women and their husbands jointly acquired the assets, as a result, it will be difficult to withdraw or deny access to those assets in the event of domestic violence. (ii) A house or land, also visibly signal the strength of a woman` fall back position and her tangible exit option (Agarwa, 1997). Only, 42.60 % of the respondents disagreed that they have access to information on improved technologies; it implies that the information on improved technologies that would enhance their agricultural practices and therefore, boost their agricultural livelihood activities was denied them by their husband after domestic violence in the household. According to Mutangadura (2010) women experience major hurdles, in terms of difficulties in accessing credit, market information, technology, and infrastructure. Only 54.90% of the respondents had free access to market infrastructure facilities within the community. This may be due of the fact that women secure access to communal market infrastructure facilities without the assistance of their husbands. Also, 51.80% of the respondents have free access to household income after the domestic violence. This may be because the agricultural livelihood activities of the women were independent of their husbands. This might also explain the reason why only 39.00% of the respondents agreed that they did not have enough money to participate in income generating activities or agricultural livelihood activities. The assertion further supports that of Okunmadewa (1997), Olowononi (1997) and Evbuomwan (1997) that the poor (women inclusive) is plagued with exposure to risk, limited opportunities to income generation, misery, crime, untimely death, fear, despondency, depression and suicide.

Finally the following facts emerged from the findings on how domestic violence affect women`s access to productive resources (i) women do not have access to information on improved technologies. (ii) they do not have enough money to participate in income generating activities or agricultural livelihood activities after domestic violence.

Table 4: Frequency Distribution of Respondents on Access to Productive Resources. (n =195).

Access to Productive Resources	SA		A		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
I have free access to household farmland.	31	15.90	94	48.20	48	24.62	22	11.28
I have free access to assets within the household.	94	48.21	72	36.92	12	6.15	17	8.72
My free access to assets within the household was withdrawn after domestic violence.	29	14.87	58	29.75	61	31.28	47	24.10
I have access to information on improved technologies	12	6.15	34	17.43	89	42.60	65	33.80
I have access to fertilizer to boost my output	58	29.70	85	43.50	29	14.90	23	11.80
I have free access to market infrastructural facilities within the community	59	30.30	107	54.90	13	6.70	16	8.20
I have access to effective extension services	63	32.30	64	32.80	30	15.40	38	19.50
I have free access to productive input such as crop varieties	45	23.10	94	48.20	24	12.30	32	16.40
I have free access to household income after the domestic violence that happen between my spouse and me	46	23.60	101	51.80	38	19.50	10	5.10
I do not have enough money to participate in income generating activities or agricultural livelihood after domestic violence at home	41	21.00	76	39.00	41	21.00	37	19.00
Household chores affect my access to productive resources for farm work/agricultural livelihood activities	40	20.50	75	38.27	40	20.50	40	20.50

Source: Field Survey 2010.

F =Frequency, % = Percent.

SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree;

D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree

Hypotheses Testing

Testing Hypothesis One.

The relationship between the demographic characteristics of women and the effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities

The demographic variables considered were age, religion, educational level, occupation, household size, membership of social organization, and cosmos-politeness. Each of these variables was tested against each of the scores for the dependent variable in line with the set hypothesis. The significance of the relationships was determined at 0.05 levels of significance.

To test for the relationship between the variables in hypothesis one, Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) and Chi-square (χ^2) were used. PPMC was used where the variables were measured at interval level, while Chi-square was used where variables were measured at nominal level. Chi-square analysis showed that women's agricultural livelihood activities was associated with religion ($\chi^2=70.29$, $p<0.05$), education ($\chi^2=43.80$, $p<0.05$), occupation ($\chi^2=59.26$, $p<0.05$). Correlation analysis also showed significant relationship between women's livelihood activities and household size ($r=-0.22$) at $p<0.05$. This means that we reject the null hypothesis, while accepting the alternate. However, the relationship is very weak and a negative one. Which means household size determines the effect of domestic violence. Therefore, a family with large household size experiences more of the negative effects of gender based violence. This was supported by Martins *et al.* (1999) that when there are more children in a household, there may be less income per capita. Therefore, insufficient resources may lead to exacerbated level of stress for the head of the household, which may lead to violence in some instances hence, the more the household size, the greater the likelihood of violence experienced.

Table 5: Chi-square analysis of respondents selected demographic characteristics and effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities

Variable	χ^2	df	p-value	Decision
Religion	70.29	3	0.00	S
Educational level	43.80	5	0.00	S
Occupation	59.26	6	0.00	S
Member of Social Organization	151.80	5	0.00	S

Source: Field Survey, 2010.

df = degree of freedom

S: significant at 0.05 levels

p = probability value

Table 6: Correlation Analysis of the Respondents demographic characteristics and the effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities.

Variable	r	p-value	Decision
Age	0.11	0.11	NS
Household size	-0.22*	0.02	S
Cosmo-politeness	-0.05	0.47	NS

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

r = correlation coefficient

S = significant at 0.05 level

p-value = probability value.

Testing Hypothesis Two.

Relationship between the women's access to productive resources and the effect of domestic violence on women's Agricultural livelihood activities.

The result in table 7 indicates that there was a significant relationship between respondents access to household farm land ($r=0.54^*$), free access to asset ($r=0.42^*$), free access to assets within household withdrawn after violence ($r=0.23^*$), access to money for income generating activities after domestic violence ($r=0.50^*$), household chores affecting access to productive resources ($r=0.56^*$), and the effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities at $p<0.05$. This means for instance that free access to asset within household determines the effect of domestic violence experienced. This is line with the findings of Ogato *et al.* (2008) that women have limited access to key productive resources such as land, irrigation water, extension services, credit and rural institutions. This also corroborates the assertion by Fasoranti (2008) that women have always been seen at the vanguard of development. In a typical African setting, women are responsible for over 70% of food production and processing. Nevertheless, they have little or no access to productive assets. Most often times, she is denied access to loan facilities for lack of collateral securities.

Table 7: Correlation Analysis of respondents' access to productive resources and the effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities

Variables	R	p-value	Decision.
I have access to the household farmland	0.54*	0.000	S
I have free access to assets within the household	0.42*	0.000	S
My free access to assets within the household was withdrawn after domestic violence	0.30*	0.000	S
I have access to information on improved technologies	0.49*	0.000	S
I have access to farm credit	0.76*	0.000	S
I have access to fertilizer to boost my output	0.42*	0.000	S
I have free access to market infrastructural facilities within the community	0.40*	0.000	S
I have access to effective extension services	0.45*	0.000	S
I have free access to productive input such as crop varieties	0.47*	0.000	S
I have free access to household income after the domestic violence that happens between my spouse and me.	0.45*	0.000	S
I do not have enough money to participate in income generating activities or livelihood activities after domestic violence at home.	0.50*	0.000	S
Household chores affect my access to productive resources for farm work/agricultural livelihood activities	0.56*	0.000	S.

Source: Field Survey, 2010

r = correlation coefficient

p-value = probability level.

S = significant at 0.05 level.

Testing Hypothesis Three.

Difference in the effect of domestic violence on agricultural Livelihood activities among rural households in the two zones of the study.

Table 8 indicates that there is Significant differences existed in the effect of domestic violence experienced by women who are into vegetable production ($t = 26.09$), maize production ($t = 25.91$), cassava production ($t = 17.38$), goat rearing ($t = 24.98$) in two zones of the study at $p < 0.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, while the alternate is accepted. This indicates that the effect of domestic violence differ within the two zones.

Table 8: t-test Analysis of the respondents on the effect of domestic violence on agricultural livelihood activities in the two zones.

Agricultural livelihood Activities	Mean	SD	df	t-cal	t-crit	p-level	r	Decision
Vegetable production	2.13	1.14	194	26.09	1.96	0.000	0.66*	S
Maize production	2.09	1.12	194	25.91	1.96	0.000	0.67*	S
Cassava production	1.49	1.20	194	17.38	1.96	0.000	0.63*	S
Goat rearing	2.24	1.25	194	24.98	1.96	0.000	0.48*	S
Sheep rearing	1.93	1.06	194	25.58	1.96	0.000	0.75*	S
Cattle rearing	1.44	1.28	194	15.71	1.96	0.000	0.46*	S
Poultry	1.41	1.32	194	14.99	1.96	0.000	0.36*	S
Fishing	1.67	1.72	194	13.56	1.96	0.000	-0.67*	S
Marketing	2.00	1.09	194	25.66	1.96	0.000	0.71*	S
Hunting	1.63	1.05	194	21.53	1.96	0.000	0.81*	S
Fruiting gathering	2.21	1.23	194	25.17	1.96	0.000	0.52*	S
Cash crop production	1.93	1.05	194	25.58	1.96	0.000	0.76*	S

Source: Field Survey, 2010.

r = Correlation Coefficient.

S = Significant at 0.05 level

df = degree of freedom

p = probability level.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that from the results of this study that

1. Household size is an important factor that plays a significant factor in the effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities
2. The respondents generally have high perception of what constitute domestic violence.
3. The women studied engaged in more than one agricultural livelihood activities to meet their daily needs, but the paramount one is farming.
4. The respondents indicated that the effects of domestic violence on women's access to productive resources are women do not have access to information on improved technologies; they do not have enough money to participate in income generating activities or agricultural livelihood activities after domestic violence.

Recommendation

1. Empowering women through training, in order to see themselves as important stakeholders in contributing to household income, expenses in order to enhance their status and self worth in marriage and family life.
2. Media should be used to sensitize public about domestic violence so as to develop a positive attitude towards women in general and women who fall victims of domestic violence should be well addressed
3. Women should be enlightened on how to get in touch with women's commission offices in the event of domestic violence. Moreover, these offices should be opened at the state and community levels.
4. Women volunteers should be encouraged to register their names with the commission; they can then be organized as a group in order to take up development programme.
5. Women should be empowered to have more access to social assets such as loans, and credit, to enhance their agricultural livelihood activities.
6. Agricultural extension services should be more effective and channeled towards women, so that the women can have access to improved technologies from recent breakthrough in agricultural researches to enhance their agricultural livelihood activities.
7. There should be a greater cooperation between the extension agencies, especially the Agricultural Development Project (ADP) and research institutes in the dissemination and provision of information on improved production practices and technologies with great consideration for women's agricultural livelihood activities.

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