



University of Reading

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE AGRICULTURAL
EXTENSION SERVICE IN UGANDA WITH
REFERENCE TO THE YOUNG FARMERS OF
UGANDA PROGRAMME

PAUL PADDE

NADIC
PO BOX 11098
KAMPALA

INDEXED
DATE

Agricultural Extension and Rural Development Centre
Reading University

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Dissertation prepared by:

PAUL PADDE

August 1985

M.Sc. in Agricultural Extension

NADIC

PO BOX 11098
KAMPALA

Acc: No- 803

INDEXED

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THE REPUBLIC OF UGANDA

YOUNG FARMERS OF UGANDA



DEDICATION

To my Mum and Dad; and Sister, Demmetria
who untiringly toiled.

NADIC
PO BOX 11098
KAMPALA

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to my Supervisor, Dr. Chris Garforth, for his constant effort in advising me and his positive criticisms during the preparation of this document.

I am deeply indebted to my wife, Beatrice, and children, Kate and Paul, for their constant moral support and tolerance of my absence from home for all the time needed to undertake this study.

Many thanks go to my Tutor Dr. Christine Cottam-Ellis who so much cared about my academic and general welfare throughout my study at the Agricultural Extension and Rural Development Centre, Reading University.

I wish to thank Mrs. Pat Brightwell who typed the manuscript of this dissertation.

I also wish to extend my sincere appreciation to the British Council and the Uganda Government for providing me the opportunity and more importantly, the funds, that made this study a success.

Last but not the least, friends whose list is inexhaustible and whose names cannot possibly all be mentioned herein for reasons of lack of space, are all commended for their formal and informal contributions towards the success of this study.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED

AA	Agricultural Assistant
AAO	Assistant Agricultural Officer
ACA/A	Assistant Commissioner for Agricultural Administration
ACA/C	" " " " Coffee
ACA/CT	" " " " Cotton
ACA/D	" " " " Development
ACA/F	" " " " Food
ACA/I	" " " " Inputs
ACA/M	" " " " Mechanization
ACA/T	" " " " Training
ACA/SS	" " " " Support Services
AO	Agricultural Officer
CAP	Chief Agricultural Economist
CARE	Cooperative American Relief Everywhere
CS	Commonwealth Secretariat
DAO	District Agricultural Officer
DCA/A	Deputy Commissioner for Agricultural Administration
DCA/D	" " " " Development
DCA/P	" " " " Production
DFI	District Farm Institute <i>Planning</i>
DIVAC	Director of Information and Visual Aids Centre
EEC	European Economic Community
FA	Field Assistant
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
ILO	International Labour Organization
MYP	Malawi Young Pioneers
PAE	Principal Agricultural Economist
RAO	Regional Agricultural Officer
SAO/C	Senior Agricultural Officer, Coffee
SAE	Senior Agricultural Economist
SAO/Credit	Senior Agricultural Officer, Credit
SAO/CT	Senior Agricultural Officer, Cotton
SAO/H	Senior Agricultural Officer, Horticulture
SAO/HE	Senior Agricultural Officer, Home Economics
SAO/I	Senior Agricultural Officer, Inputs
SAO/Irr	Senior Agricultural Officer, Irrigation
SAO/P	Senior Agricultural Officer, Potatoes
SAO/T	Senior Agricultural Officer, Training
SAO/YFU	Senior Agricultural Officer, Young Farmers of Uganda Programme
T&V	Training and Visit
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USDA	United States Department for Agriculture
YFACS	Young Farmers' Co-operative Activities Project
NO/YFU	National Officer/Young Farmers of Uganda Programme

INTRODUCTION

The majority of the population in the least developed countries live in rural areas. In Uganda where over 90% of the populace live in rural areas, over 60% is composed of young people below 25 years of age.

The challenge that faces Nations with such an imbalance in population structure include topical issues like combating unemployment, and arresting rural-urban exodus among others, which plague this segment of the population in particular and Governments in general.

Governments in response, including the Uganda Government, are trying to overcome such problems by improving life in the rural areas socially and materially partly through Youth Programmes which offer non-formal educational opportunities to equip youngsters with functional and employable skills.

The Young Farmers of Uganda Programme places emphasis on agriculture and other related income-generating activities, thus creating self-employment opportunities for the youngsters who register as members and at the same time the youths act as examples to the adult farming community by using the modern agricultural practices which the Agricultural Extension Service advises them about.

Besides technical advice, the Government through the Department of Agriculture, is supposed to provide incentives such as loans, credit, inputs and agricultural training to these young farmers to make it more attractive for them to modernise agriculture.

Unfortunately a well intended youth programme such as the Young Farmers of Uganda, if not backed up by commitment on the part of the Government soon measures up against serious constraints.

The YFU Programme faces budgetary limitations with consequent lack of assets of production for youngsters. Inputs, loans and clear land policy in favour of youngsters are necessary requisites or else unfavourable policies on the part of Government will, rather than anything else, exacerbate the situation.

Youngsters, being the majority in the population, have a big role to play in development and it is up to policy makers to institute policies which draw this group to participate in the process of development, preferably early enough.

Thus the study aims at unveiling the important role that youngsters can play in the development process in general, and in rural development in particular.

The study attempts to suggest to policy makers the appropriate policies they should adopt in the planning, implementation and general decision-making process regarding youth work; policies and programmes which promote participative attitudes.

In this connection the UN has taken a lead by declaring 1985 International Youth Year with the major themes of participation, development and peace.

Within the limited framework of a dissertation, the study aims at identifying constraints which have tended to negate the performance of the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme in the

context of the Agricultural Extension Service in Uganda. It then goes on to suggest possible corrective measures which could assist to strengthen the programme to fully achieve its objectives.

The study draws heavily on the relevant literature on 'Youth and Development' and 'Agricultural Extension' . Statistics are drawn from past evaluation report about the Programme to illustrate some of the points. The writer's personal experience as a staff member of the Programme will also be brought into the analysis.

The first chapter serves to introduce the country, Uganda, to the reader. The next chapter reviews the concepts of "Youth" and "Development" and the youth involvement in the development process, taking a critical look at the common problems plaguing the youth today.

The third chapter goes on to discuss some theoretical concepts of extension work giving an insight into the agricultural extension practice in Uganda.

Chapter four examines the mechanics and operationalization of the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme.

The fifth chapter identifies the impediments which have inhibited the momentum of the Programme.

In conclusion the dissertation suggests some strategies and ingredients necessary for effective youth participation in development generally. Emphasis will be placed on Government dedication and commitment as opposed to mere rhetoric, if such a programme is to make the positive impact it desires.

CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON UGANDA1.1 LOCATION

Uganda is a landlocked country extending 1°S to 4°N and 29.5°West to 35°East .

1.2 SIZE [Area]

The country covers an area of 241,136 square kilometres out of which 44,079 square kilometres is open water and swamp. The outlet to sea is by road and rail to Kenya's Port of Mombasa. Alternative way is through Lake Victoria by ship, and by rail and road to Tanzania's port of Tanga (see Map 1).

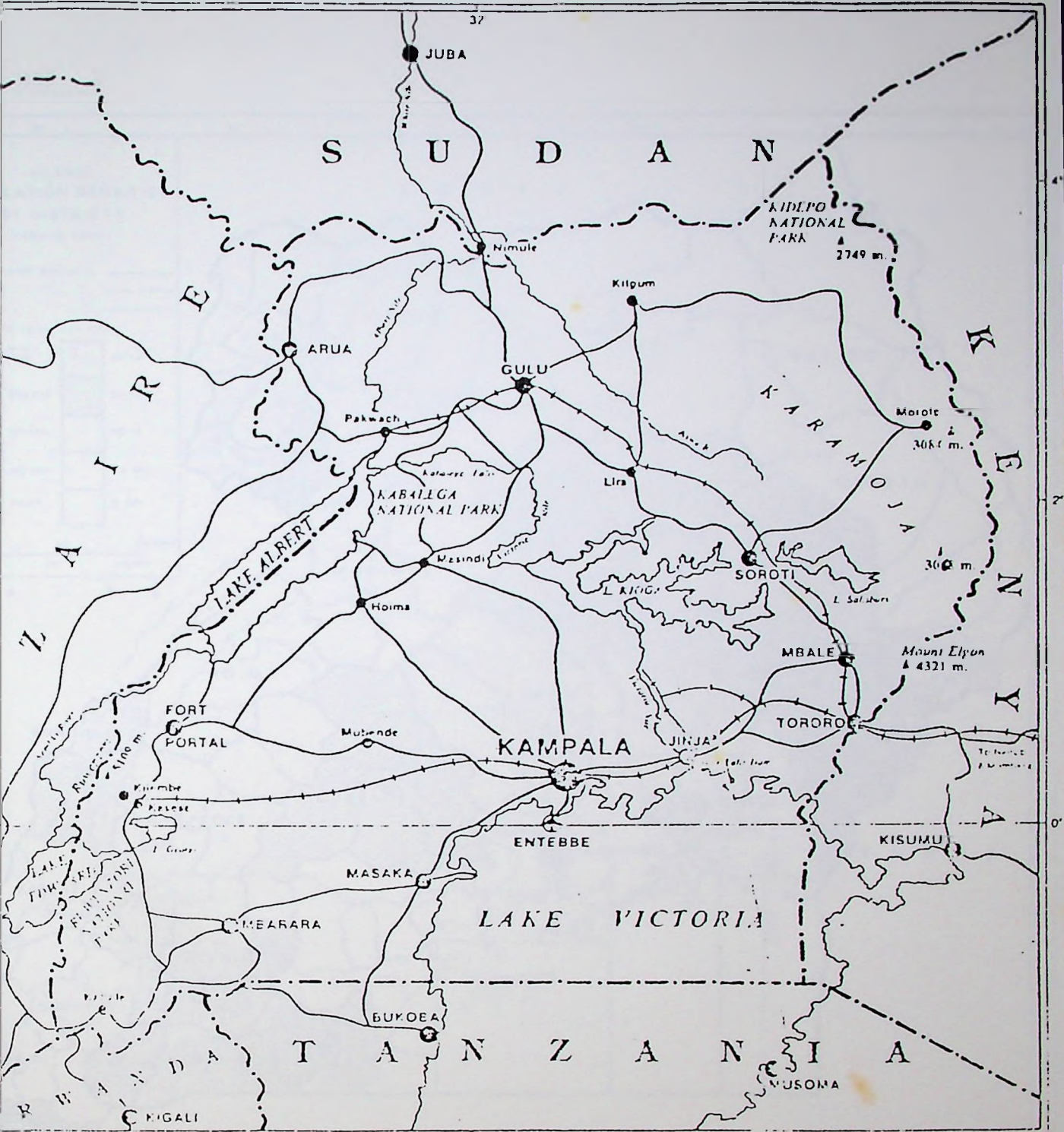
1.3 POPULATION

The population of Uganda is 13.5 million (estimated). Otherwise the last population census (1980) showed a population of 12.6 million. The population growth rate is estimated at 2.8% per annum, giving a population density of 56 persons per square kilometre (see Map 2)

1.4 ALTITUDE

Most of Uganda lies in the African plateau, constituting one of the three East African countries, the other two being Tanzania to the South and Kenya to the East. It falls from

UGANDA



International Boundaries

Roads

Railways

International airports

0 40 80 miles

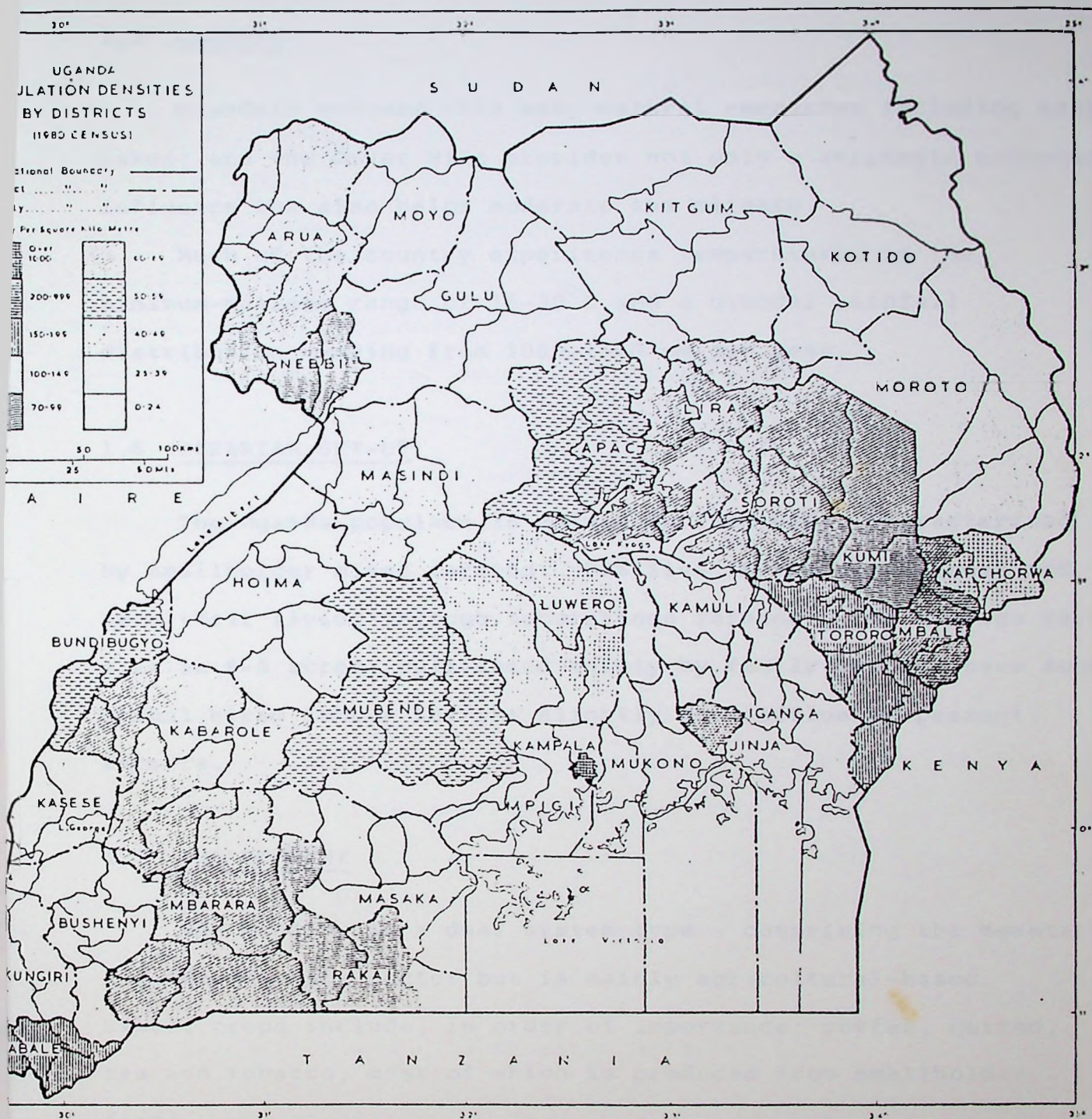
0 60 120 Kilometres



THE REPUBLIC OF UGANDA



MAP 2



By Census Office Entebbe
Planning and Economic Development

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Source: Ministry of Planning and Economic Development,
Census Office, Entebbe, Uganda.

1500 metres in the South to 1000 metres in the North.

1.5 CLIMATE

Uganda is endowed with many natural resources including many lakes; and the River Nile provides not only a strategic economic influence but also helps moderate the climate.

Much of the country experiences temperatures in the minimum-maximum range of 15-30°C and a bimodal rainfall distribution varying from 1000-1500 mm per year.

1.6 AGRARIAN SET-UP

The Uganda populace is mainly agricultural, characterised by smallholder mixed farming. 90% live in the rural areas and earn their living through subsistence farming. The average farm size is 4-5 acres, cultivated mainly by family labour, save some casual hired labour for the slightly more affluent~~er~~ peasant farmers.

1.7 THE ECONOMY

The economy is a dual system type - comprising the monetary and non-monetary sector but is mainly agricultural-based. Export crops include, in order of importance; coffee, cotton, tea and tobacco, most of which is produced from smallholder farms.

The Uganda economy had been steadily doing well till the tragedy of the military takeover, led by Dictator Idi Amin of

25th January 1971, took place.

For example between 1966 and 1971 the Gross Domestic Product was 4.3%, in 1972 it was 4.5%. By 1977 most of the foreign aid had been withdrawn by most donor Nations and international organizations as the dictatorship reached a peak.

Amin declared the so called "Economic War" which completely disrupted the commercial sector and discouraged foreign investors so much so that by the time of the liberation in 1979 Gross Domestic Product had fallen to as low as 1.5%. In actual fact real per capita income fell by 40% between 1971 and 1980.

The December 1980 general elections ushered the Uganda Peoples Congress (UPC) into power. The then Government under President A. Milton Obote, M.P., instituted several economic reforms - mainly due to advice from the International Monetary Fund (IMF). For example the "floating" of the Uganda shilling and dramatic increases in prices of agricultural produce.

All these measures are meant to channel resources to the productive sector. The minimum wage was increased by more than four times. All these measures have started to pay dividends e.g. the production of most agricultural export crops has increased remarkably and the foreign exchange generating capacity has more than doubled ever since the time of liberation.

As the then President put it on the occasion of the 1984/85 budget speech [he was also Minister of finance],

"before the beginning of these programmes, Uganda was the poorest of all the least developed countries. Between 1970 and 1981, the average growth rate for the low-income developing countries was four-and-a-half per cent per annum. Uganda's average growth rate over the same period was minus one point six

per cent per annum. The monetary sector suffered the greatest, with a decline of some twenty-five per cent between 1970-1980."

(President Obote, 1984:1)

In general it can be said that the Ugandan economy is on the way to recovery after the eight and a half years of mismanagement under the military rule. For example between 1981/84 inflation rate fell from 200% to between 30-25%. The real Gross Domestic Product increased by 7.3% over its level in 1982. This meant there was an increase in real per capita income of 4.3% given the rate of population growth of about 3 per cent.

At the time of writing, a new military Government had just come to power, 27th July 1985, and its policies in general and economic policies in particular, remain to be seen.

CHAPTER II

DEVELOPMENT AND THE PROBLEMS OF YOUTH2.1 THE CONCEPT OF YOUTH

The definition of 'youth' varies from country to country or even community to community. Some communities use the biological definition whereby age is the indicator.

Psychologists view 'youth' as a state of readiness in which the individual's total energies and potentials are unable to find full employment; therefore according to them any person who is energetic and alert can be recognised as youthful irrespective of age.

Semi-legal definitions recognise persons who are above 18 years as adults. While constitutional definitions suggest that any person above 21 years can be considered adult.

Some societies recognise marriage as the starting point of one's adulthood irrespective of age. The role one plays in a society can be recognised as differentiating him from 'youth' age.

In some societies it is the ability to bear pain (Milson, 1970) that makes one adult e.g. in the Bagisu tribe in Uganda, circumcision marks the end of one's youthful age irrespective of at what age it is actually performed.

According to Herrera

"The word 'youth' defies exact definition. It denotes a phase of life that begins at puberty and lasts ten, fifteen or twenty years, depending on who uses the phrase and

in what context."

(Herrera, 1972:131)

"For the purposes of the Secretariat's studies and seminars, 'Youth' was understood to comprise in broad terms the age range from 15-25 years. It was however recognised that the age range and other characteristics denoting 'Youth' vary from country to country and could well vary within a country over a period of time, especially in the societies undergoing rapid change."

(Commonwealth Secretariat,
1973:25-26)

Although for purposes of this dissertation we adopt the Commonwealth Secretariat's definition of 'youth' most programmes dealing with 'youth' cover a much larger group, some even up to 45 years, hence the age limit may not be of paramount importance here. As FAO observes,

"It is tempting to define 'youth' as those persons within certain arbitrarily chosen age limits. But whilst this has some value in static analysis, too rigid a narrowing of the parameters of enquiry is dangerous when viewing societies changing over time."

(FAO, 1971(b):7)

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

Different authorities have looked at development in different ways:

Development has been presented as growth in production, in other words, increased Gross Domestic Product or National income. This is the 'technocratic' approach with emphasis on technological modernization. Emphasis here is on the physical quantifiable aspects of the development process. This has been the most dominant view, which certainly held the stage for over

two decades but has now given way to more radical approaches.

Those who favour a radical approach redefine the objectives of development in the direction of rapid social change and redistribution of political power. They argue that for proper development to take place socio-political relationships at the local, national and international levels must be re-structured to reflect justice.

The 'reformist' theory of development believes that the system can still be made to work if equitable distribution is built into an essentially 'growth model'. This is the concept of "distribution with growth" with the hope of bringing about equity, including benefits for those who have not benefited from development efforts, notably youths and women, who have actually found their conditions of life worsening in the development process. The notion that benefits of development will 'trickle down' to these segments of the population has undoubtedly widened gaps between the richer and the poorer sections of society (Jiggins and Roling 1982).

The World Bank (1975) looks at development as a move towards social goals like access to health services, educational services, community development services and better nutritional standards for all. This has been referred to as "developmentalism" with emphasis on 'qualitative' as opposed to 'quantitative' features.

UNESCO (1971) defines development as growth plus change.

It is evident that growth alone is not a sufficient criterion for assessing development. As other commentators have put it, development is a liberation process. The fundamental

issue is not the material wealth but freedom for the masses who have been denied 'a voice' and live at the periphery of society. They must be given 'Space' and 'Voice' to express themselves so that they can free themselves of domination, only then can development bear meaning to these groups.

Development as a humanization process has been voiced by several authorities. 'Man' is the centre of social change and he must be central and 'subject' not 'object' of development. As President Nyerere (1970:2) put it "The purpose of development is Man". Everyone however poor, has a right to a voice in determining the path of his or her life and the character of the society to which she or he belongs and the expression of that voice strengthens the capacity of societies to change in the developmentally desirable ways. There is therefore no development unless all groups within the community are involved or if any sector of the population is excluded from the benefits of development. Development must be viewed in comprehensive terms, with the 'youth' actively involved. Man must therefore participate in the development process if he is truly developing. Purely economic criteria of development are quite inadequate and often misleading.

2.2.1 Rural Development Defined

".....is defined as improving living standards of the mass of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self-sustaining."

(Lele, 1975:20)

The World Bank (1975) looks at rural development as clearly designed to increase production and raise productivity. Rural

development recognises, however that improved food supplies and nutrition together with basic services such as health and -- education cannot only directly improve the physical well-being and quality of life of the rural poor, but can also directly enhance their productivity and their ability to contribute to the national economy.

Nyerere (1974) looks at rural development as participation of the people in a mutual learning experience involving themselves, their local resources, external change agents and outside resources. He argues that people cannot be developed, they can only develop themselves by participation in decisions and co-operative activities which affect their well-being. People are not being developed when they are herded like animals into new ventures.

Paulo Freire (1974) describes rural development as a process of 'conscientization'.

"Conscientization means an awakening of consciousness, a change of mentality involving an accurate, realistic awareness of one's locus in nature and society, the capacity to analyse critically its causes and consequences, comparing it with other situations and possibilities and actions of a logical norm aimed at transformation."

2.2.2 Reasons for Rural Development

The economies of the third world countries for a long time to come will still depend on agriculture. Rural people constitute the vast majority of the population in the developing countries, in most nations over 90% of the population are engaged in peasant mode of production.

UN projections indicate that there will be an overall increase in the rural population of the less developed regions

from 1.91 billion in 1970 to 2.62 billion by 1990. Agricultural output must therefore increase so as to solve the problems of hunger and malnutrition, let alone the problem of the urgently needed foreign exchange. Being the home of the vast majority of the populations, rural areas have great potentiality in terms of generating employment opportunities, causing the broadest effect in income increase for the rural poor, promoting welfare and increasing demand for goods produced in the indigenous modern sector so as to ameliorate prevailing trends towards growing unemployment, income disparity and unsupportable concentration of population in urban areas.

Due to increased birth rates and improved infancy care, youth populations are growing particularly faster than the overall population.

The bulk of the less developed countries indicate that more than 50% of the total population is under 20 years of age compared to only 30-40% in Western Europe and North America (see Tables 1 and 2).

TABLE 1 POPULATION UNDER TWENTY YEARS OF AGE IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Total Population	Population under 20 years	%
Kenya (1969C)	10,942,705	6,397,954	59
Colombia (1964C)	17,484,508	9,921,569	57
Jamaica (1965E)	1,808,700	1,008,500	56
Brazil (1960C)	70,119,071	37,073,924	53
Korea, Rep. of (1966C)	29,159,640	15,391,966	53
Thailand (1960C)	26,257,916	13,818,635	53
Ethiopia (1967E)	23,667,400	12,412,900	52
India (1970E)	550,376,000	284,038,000	52
Tanzania (1967C)	12,313,469	6,306,968	51
USA (1970C)	203,211,926	76,970,400	38
Japan (1970C)	103,720,060	33,730,500	33
France (1968C)	49,654,556	16,008,300	32
Sweden (1970C)	8,076,903	2,234,663	28

E = Estimate C = Census

Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistical Office of the UN. Demographic Yearbook 1970 and Demographic Yearbook 1971 (New York, 1971, 1972)

Adopted from Coombs and Ahmed, 1974.

TABLE 2 POPULATION BY AGE BETWEEN DEVELOPED AND UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Age group (years)		Underdeveloped %	Developed %
1.	0-14	39½	21
2.	15-24	20½	18
3.	25-44	23¼	28
4.	45-64	12½	21
5.	65-790	3½	10
6.	80+	¼	2

Adopted and modified from Coombs and Ahmed, 1974.

The above tables clearly illustrate that the population of the third world countries is younger than that of the developed nations. 60% of the population of the less developed nations fall between 0-24 years of age compared to 40% in the developed countries. It is estimated that by the year 2000 the young population will more than double in many African Nations. Even the limited group of young people between 15-24 years of age represent 15-20% of the total population (ILO, 1977).

FAO has had this to say

"Not only does Africa have a population which is younger than that of the world as a whole, let alone that of Europe and North America, but the situation will be accentuated in the foreseeable future..... Population is heavily skewed in favour of younger age groups."

(FAO, 1971b:1)

The two crucial implications which emerge here are:

firstly that the adult active population must bear the burden of supporting this vast majority and secondly, maybe more important, the urgent need for active participation in the development process on the part of these 'youths' possibly earlier than their counterparts in the developed world.

Land shortages are a crucial issue in most of the third world countries. Therefore increased yields per acre are a major option. This calls for effective extension systems to provide efficient technologies and support services. More important, such extension strategies must involve all segments of the population especially the youths who, as seen above, are the majority. Coupled with improved agricultural practices there is need to involve the rural population, especially youth, in the creation of farm and non-farm employment opportunities.

The aim of policy must be to enable each able-bodied member especially the 'youth' to contribute as fully as possible to the development of the community and help thereby raise standards of life for himself and his dependants.

Let us examine some of the problems facing the youth in our society today.

2.3 PROBLEMS FACING THE YOUTH TODAY

Several problems resulting from the increased 'youth' populations confront planners generally and the youth themselves directly.

Evidence of problems regarding unemployment, rural-urban migration, social-deprivation, access to education, delinquency and so on are well documented.

Let us briefly look at some of these problems.

2.3.1 Unemployment

Since the late 1960s unemployment has become a dominant theme in the analysis of development. Increased life expectancy has increased rates of population growth and therefore the labour force, while on the other hand, the economic sector and other dynamic sectors are generating fewer jobs relative to the labour force. This therefore means only a minority of the total population have access to jobs.

Youth unemployment is an even more critical issue considering the fact that planners look at them merely as a potential labour force and not a serious problem. However for the past ten years the issue has gained a high magnitude globally.

The Commonwealth Secretariat (1975) notes the following: In Kenya 72% of the unemployed are between 16-24 years of age; in Sudan 44% of its population is under 15 years of age and only 37% of the population is economically active. In Botswana it is estimated that 50% of school age children attend primary schools and of these only 15% manage to go to secondary school and post primary training. The 50% who never go to school mostly till the soil, look after cattle or go to look for jobs in the mines of South Africa. By 1976 about 6000 primary school leavers were thrown into the labour market with no hope for most of them ever finding any kind of wage employment.

In Uganda, over 60% of the total population of 13.5 million is below 25 years of age (see Appendix II). Out of these 30% attend primary school, out of which 10-15% are able to go to secondary school. This means that even before reaching the secondary school level, many youths 'drop out' and have no assured livelihoods since they have been taught only basic theoretical subjects with no skill training.

Such evidences could be cited endlessly for both developed and undeveloped Nations. It is a well documented fact that unemployment leads to psychological and social stress which often leads to delinquency.

Young people are not a problem to our society as some people would like to think. On the contrary they are the most precious asset it can possibly have. Our task is how to get them to give their maximum contribution to society.

As Pope Paul (1969) said, employment is another name for

full citizenship. Lack of an occupation can force a person into frustrations as stated above.

Youth programmes creating employment in the rural sector, play a crucial role in this, limiting delinquency and attracting youth to participate in development.

Crouch and Chamala (1980:10) state that "a plan which conveys no targets for reducing poverty, unemployment and inequality can hardly be considered a development plan".

There is urgent need to cater for both the illiterate and the school drop outs so that they both can take part in non-formal programmes during which they can still contribute to development.

For the youths in schools, appropriate curricula to fit the youths for employment within the rural areas must be sought. The curricula must be able to create aspirations and work values pertinent to development. Appropriate wages policies in favour of rural areas should be adopted.

If employment possibilities are to be expanded then it is essential to develop the rural areas. To do this it is absolutely necessary to improve social and material facilities by:

- (a) Developing small scale rural industries;
- (b) Providing land and capital in combination with vocational skills;
- (c) Introducing high-earning crops;
- (d) Developing market towns which would give rise to opportunities for self-employment and occupation based on agriculture. (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1972)

Unemployment is a social ill, it polarises communities, the rich getting richer and the poor getting poorer resulting in exodus of youth from rural areas.

2.3.2 Lack of Basic Social, Recreational Opportunities

"So long as the more exciting economic and social activities are clustered exclusively in the cities, young school leavers will continue to trek to the cities and stay away from their home areas as long as they possibly can."

(Commonwealth Secretariat,
1971:7)

As observed above, lack of recreational facilities in the rural areas especially among third world countries discourages the modern-oriented youth from staying in the rural areas.

Indeed it has been proved that it is not just employment that the youths seek when they go to town, it is the improved quality of social life, to which their aspirations have been heightened by the mass media (Singh, 1980; Herrera, 1972), that they are searching.

According to the British Department of Education and Science (1963) as the leisure time interests of the youth become more sophisticated, the youth service provision within the village increasingly fails to satisfy them.

The notion that 'youths' don't like work in the rural areas has been discredited. Heijnen, quoted by Dodd (1969/70), examining the economic and migratory relationships between urban Mwanza and rural Bukumbi in Tanzania, proved that there was no townward drift into Mwanza as a reasonable living could be earned by growing cotton in the rural Bukumbi area. He therefore concludes that there is only one remedy to cure the scourge of increasing migrations to the urban areas - namely

rural development. He asserts that school leavers are "realists" and have not developed uncompromising attitudes to farming as many commentators would like us to believe.

Wood (1970) supports the above finding from his observation of the Malawi Young Pioneers (MYP). He noted that the emigration by the youth to the Zambian copperbelt in search of employment ceased because graduates of MYP made attempts to apply what they were taught in the rural areas.

Further support of the fact that youths do not actually run away from agriculture as such comes from Fordham et al (1966) who say

".....they understandably do not want to return to a life of unreformed agriculture, but there is strong evidence that when farming proves profitable children are very eager to work at it."

The neglect of the rural areas by the third world governments has attracted many comments. Lele has this to say

"The inadequacy of infrastructure in the countryside, together with the unwillingness of the educated, qualified staff to take up positions outside the capital city, affects the quality of planning and implementation of Government services in rural areas."

(Lele, 1975:248)

Tittel (1976) talks at length about the importance of leisure facilities in the rural areas.

Realizing the importance of these facilities in the rural areas, the Ministry of Culture and Community Development in Uganda has sited several community development centres all over the country whereby films, sports, dances and exhibitions are held. This arrangement however suffered a major set back during the military regime. Meanwhile the Ministry of

Agriculture and Forestry through the Young Farmers Programme aims at attracting the youth into farming as a dignified occupation; the YFU also attempts to engage in exchange programmes internationally but due to limitation of resources not many 'youth' stand a chance of benefiting from the exchange programme.

2.3.3 Lack of Education

Education is the major means of creating more productive manpower. General education is aimed at inculcation of general attitudes of logical thinking, vigorous analysis and broad-mindedness, compassion, tolerance and inquisitiveness.

For analytical purposes education is normally categorised into formal, informal and non-formal types.

Formal education is the highly institutionalised, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured "education system" spanning from lower primary school to the upper reaches of the university.

Informal education is the life long process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insight, daily experience and exposure to the environment - at home, at work, at play, from family and friends, from travel, reading newspapers and books; or by listening to the radio or viewing films or TV. It is generally unorganised and often unsystematic.

Non-formal education as accepted today, is any organised, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide a selected type of learning to sub-groups in the population - adult, youth or children.

Thus defined - non-formal education includes programmes such as agricultural extension and farmer training, occupational skill training given outside the formal system; youth clubs and the life.

The above three types of education are not to be compartmentalised. They overlap and re-inforce each other. Non-formal education serves people of all age groups and background using all sorts of pedagogical methods.

While generally there has been significant growth in the level of formal education, the great mass of school age rural youth are still out of school. Large populations remain deprived of basic education opportunities. Estimates from UNESCO sources present a bleak picture. In 1968 only four out of ten primary school aged children in Africa were actually in classes. In the Arab States only half attended school. Forty five per cent of Asia's children and twenty five per cent of Latin America's children were similarly not enrolled.

While basic educational opportunities have remained unavailable to large segments of the population the costs and budgets of education have been growing in absolute and relative terms. Moreover there is a great disparity in availability of educational facilities in favour of the urban areas. The major problem is that the rural youths lack access to these schools hence the privileged urban youths automatically enjoy the facility which puts them in 'elite' positions. Education in the less developed nations is capital intensive and has only benefited the rich families who can afford it. As work by Weeks (1978) in Papua New Guinea has shown, children of the

well off families are also in favoured positions, confirming the fact that 'youth' are not a homogeneous group at all. Thus 'youths' born to 'elite' urban groups have better chances of obtaining fulfilment in life than have the rural youth, hence the increasing gap between the urban child and the rural child.

Equally important is the inadequacy or irrelevancy of the traditional formal schooling to provide a type of practical education and training best suited to the needs of rural youth. Education curricula of most developing nations, Uganda inclusive, is based on models imported from the west which have neglected the immediate needs of the rural areas.

As Dodd (1969/70) put it education must prepare young people for the work they will be called upon to do in the society they are to live in. Formal education should be of a kind that will not divorce pupils from the land but rather equip them to return to it as more able and productive farmers than their fathers were before.

Coombs (1974) similarly observes:

"the appropriateness of secondary school in developing countries is being questioned..... it is not at all clear that in their present form they are relevant or viable institutions Probably what is needed is a fresh conception of a rural secondary education, one that fits the needs, resources and life styles of rural societies and that is not simply a poor substitute for a traditional urban academic high school or misplaced imported mode."

The Minister of State for Agriculture and Forestry in Uganda had this to say,

"In fact our present education system may be more and more relevant in future but for

the time being, I agree with the school of thought that it is not serving the development stage of our social system to its fullest."

(Rubaihayo, 1982:1)

While formal education has its role in the development process and acting as a creator of critical conscience, it has become increasingly recognised that the non-formal educational processes like the apprenticeship to train the illiterate and the semi-literate youth to find a living in the rural areas as more relevant. The illiterate rural youth face even a more miserable future and should therefore constitute a sensitive group to which youth programmes must address themselves. For example Kazungu (1974) in his study found that the enrollment of the young farmers of Uganda members was heavily weighted in favour of the school-going youth.

Few nations have actually made a serious effort to look at rural non-formal education in relation to their practical development needs. However generally speaking non-formal education is rightfully assuming popularity in the third world education strategy especially during the last 10-15 years - with emphasis on basic literacy, numeracy and vocational skills like blacksmithing or masonry for instance.

Emphasis should be on relevant, functional, effective and efficient education, a derivative of the local development needs specific to the area in question. Students should be given a clear sociological understanding of existing traditional social relations, with "marketable" skills, thus not alienating them from the social and economic aspirations of their societies.

The Kenyan village polytechnics and the Malawi Rural Trade

schools, which I had opportunity to visit in 1983, have much to be commended in this respect.

As mentioned above, the Ugandan educational structure is typical of that operating in most developing countries; seven years of primary school, followed by four years of secondary school ('O' Level) followed by two years of higher school certificate ('A' Level), leading to university entrance. Those who fail to get into 'A' level are absorbed in training institutions for certificate awards. This is the level from which most frontline staff for the various ministries come, including the certificate holders in agriculture (Agricultural Assistants). Due to increased competition the 'A' level leavers tend to get priority for these opportunities such that 'O' level leavers have even less opportunity. Unfortunately the undergraduate B.Sc. course in Agriculture offered in Makerere University has tended to be too theoretical and divorced from rural life partly due to shortage of facilities at the University Farm, Kabanyolo, resulting from the military regime mismanagement of the economy. The agricultural extension component of the course has tended to be minimal.

The Ministry of Culture and Community Development which is the co-ordinating ministry for youth affairs, operates a number of training institutions. These include sheltered workshops and vocational training centres for the handicapped, youth training institutions and rural community development centres for women and other groups.

During the fiscal year 1982/83 only a few of these institutions were restored to a functional level after the

struction during the tragic nine year rule of Dictator Idi Amin.

Priority rehabilitation includes:

- three sheltered workshops
- five vocational rehabilitation centres
- five youth training institutions
- eight rural training centres
- Nsamizi training institute

The Kireka Industrial Development Centre trains handicapped people from all over Uganda in skills such as woodwork, metal work, dressmaking and handicrafts. After training, graduates either find employment or remain with the centre.

.3.4 The Rural-Urban Exodus

This is a major problem which national governments in general and youth programmes in particular must try to overcome.

Rural hardships are viewed as a 'push' force contributing to the desire for the youth to leave the countryside. Urban amenities such as movies, sports and the high urban wages undoubtedly act as the 'pull' factors to the urban areas.

One group of thinkers favours migration from rural areas to urban areas on the ground that this reduces the pressure on land and increases the per capita income of the farmers.

Another group suggests that if new economic opportunities are made available in the rural areas, then a farmer can increase his per capita income without asking his children to migrate to urban areas (Shingi, 1980:65).

The biases which have led the urban areas to get lions share in Government expenditure for infrastructure should be removed. Public works, clean water supplies, rural markets,

health clinics, schools etc. all need to be made available in the rural areas as well if the rural-urban exodus is to be arrested.

While it is true that rural areas 'push' the young people to urban areas, we find urban areas also actually 'push' these youngsters back to rural areas. The counterpushing factor is primarily the lack of sufficient economic opportunities in the non-agricultural sector, hence youths must fall back to agriculture. They therefore need skills to exploit the resources in the rural areas. This is what the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme aspires to achieve.

As the Commonwealth Secretariat (1978a) observes, there is an acute need for an enrichment of village life socially and culturally.

Mwandha (1970) in his Sociological Studies in Eastern Uganda reports that when the youth after getting into town fail to realise their aspirations they resort to petty 'disguised unemployment' like hawking, washing cars and brokers in taxi parks. He notes that such youths are likely to be 'tough deviants' and 'political rebels'. He concludes that this issue should worry whoever is for the well-being of society.

The urban-rural migration has the negative effect of lowering farm production and the rapid influx into the cities strains municipal water supplies, sanitation, transport systems, health service, housing - leading to formation of shanty towns.

Indeed National Governments must view this situation with

serious concern. Recent censuses show that between 1962-69 the population of Nairobi grew at the rate of 15.2% per year and between 1957-67 the migrant population of Dar es Salaam increased at an average rate of 8% per annum. This urban influx must be arrested by every nation and the starting point is the need to focus development on the rural areas.

As Coombs notes,

"The concentration of national governments and external agencies in past years on urban modernization, to the neglect of rural areas and people, has produced serious distortions in National development."

(Coombs, 1974:13)

In Uganda the major cities of Kampala and Jinja alone bear up to more than 20% of the total population.

Lucy Mair (1984) states that today it is widely believed that frustrations of slum dwellers may express themselves in revolution.

Lele comments

"Improving the living standards of the subsistence rural sector is important, not only as a holding operation until industrialization can advance sufficiently to absorb the rural exodus, but frequently as the only logical way of stimulating overall development."

(Lele, 1975:5)

Callaway (1970) sees movements of people, including school leavers to major towns and cities in search of better opportunities as an indication of alertness and as a sign of progress on their part.

4 YOUTH CONTRIBUTION TO DEVELOPMENT - GENERAL COMMENT

The fact that there are various youth organizations with various objectives in various parts of the world is well documented. Youth have been 'used' for political, defense, economic, cultural and social motives depending on the context.

UNESCO (1972) recognises a wide range of development fields in which youth have participated in order to bring about change in the rural areas.

These can be summarised thus:

1. Health and Nutrition
2. Education
3. Economic activity, including agricultural production and industrial development
4. Employment Creation
5. Social relationships and rights
6. Political activities
7. The spread of scientific attitudes
8. Housing and community facilities
9. General welfare services
10. Mobilization of public opinion

In whatever context the youth have contributed, there is increasing recognition of the significant role this "silent majority" can play in development.

Definitely development and realising national objectives cannot be achieved by only a few people and definitely not by the adult generation alone. It needs the conscious effort and co-operation of the entire mass of the nation. In this process

the youth (more than 60% of the world population) will have to identify themselves with the realisation of national objectives - and must thus give the lead since they are more desirous of change. The adult generation has the tendency to maintain the status quo but the youth cannot contribute in isolation.

However the 'youth' should not be used simply as instruments of production. They should be involved in and associated with the policy and management of whatever concern they are involved.

'Youth' is not to be treated as a special object for development. Youth participation is part and parcel of the development process and youth have to share the responsibility for development, indeed in some cases it is the young people who may have to take the lead.

Hossain had this to say in recognition of the contribution 'youth' can make

"Wherever there has been political upheaval, wherever there has been revolution and wherever there has been great upsurge and mobilization of creative energies of the people, there are surely indelible records of great sacrifices and spectacular achievements made by the 'youths'."

(Hossain, 1976: 2)

UNESCO has this to say about youths

"They are likely to bring to the problems of development a fresh approach of idealism and enthusiasm. It is they after all who will live through and beyond the decade and for whom the successes or failures of the Development Decade will have the greatest implications."

(UNESCO, 1971:17)

Indeed UNESCO stresses that the active and effective participation of young people in the Second Development Decade

is a must, without which its development objectives will be counterproductive.

True participation by the 'youths' in development has often been impeded by some socio-political and socio-cultural structures which are aimed at maintaining the status quo.

"We know that many Governments and others in positions of power and authority are fearful and suspicious as to what might happen if the young people really have the right and the possibility of participating in development at all levels."

(UNESCO, 1971)

But then it is becoming increasingly realised that developing local leadership and participation at grass root level is the key element in any development policy. Therefore National Governments must come to terms with these fears and suspicions if there is to be either development or participation.

Although, as noted above, youth can play various roles in several developmental fields, it is the primary objective of this dissertation to examine their contribution in the context of rural extension. The next chapter therefore examines their contribution in that context.

CHAPTER III

RURAL EXTENSION AND YOUTH3.1 THE CONCEPT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

Adams (1982) defines agricultural extension as

"assistance to farmers to help them to identify and analyse their production problems and to become aware of the opportunities for improvement."

(Adams, 1982:xi)

Maunder (1972) views extension as

"A service or system which assists farm people, through educational procedures, in improving farming methods and techniques, increasing production efficiency and income, bettering their levels of living and lifting the social and educational standards of rural life."

(Maunder, 1972:3)

He sees it as not just restricted to farmer-contact work but includes extension research, training, liaison and information work as integral parts of the agricultural extension system.

FAO (1971a) defines extension

"as an informal out-of-school educational service for training and influencing farmers (and their families) to adopt improved practices in crop and livestock production, management, conservation and marketing. Concern is not only with teaching and securing adoption of a particular improved practice, but with changing the outlook of the farmer to the point when he will be receptive to and, on his own initiative, continuously seek means of improving his farm business and income."

Savile (1965) has described extension as a system of out of school education for rural people. This explains why the

extension worker is regarded as a teacher, for he constantly endeavours to teach his people so as to improve their minds and outlook to make the best use of their facilities and skills and to develop their capacity to work.

Freire (1974) looks at extension as a relationship between human beings and the world in order for human beings to be better equipped to change the world. Thus, the concept of extension which is characterised by the transferring of techniques and knowledge is in direct contradiction to a truly humanistic outlook. It leads to actions which transform the peasant into a "thing", an object of development projects which negate him as a being capable of transforming the world. In this concept the peasant is not educated but instead is treated as a depository for propaganda from an alien cultural world, containing the things which the technician (who is modern and therefore superior) thinks the peasant ought to know in order to become modern also.

In agreement with Paulo Freire, Maunder argues that an approach which is to supply information and help farmers in such a way as to make them dependent on continuous advice is advisory work. But if the farmers are educated as to how to tackle their own problems and the philosophy is for the adviser to pull out of the limelight eventually, then the work is truly educational and is definitely extension.

Whatever the divergencies of opinion, the work of rural extension in agriculture is directed towards farmers, rural youths and women with the purpose of getting them to use their limited resources more effectively and efficiently in the

solution of everyday problems and also to cause basic changes in their socio-economic conditions.

It is an educational process, concerned with bringing about positive change in the attitudes of farmers and the self-initiative so as to bring about self-sustaining development. Physical and economic achievements are worthless unless accompanied by development of the people concerned. Extension workers must work with the people, not on or for the people; they must not impose their wills and perceptions, be it Government Policy, on the people.

According to Roling (1982) the elements of a traditional extension system consist of the objectives, the offering or message or service, to be delivered, the extension methods, the extension organization and the target group(s) to be served.

To maintain a high level of proficiency an organisation must have clearly stated objectives which must be shared by all. The creation of income-oriented and employment-generating opportunities appropriate for young farmers definitely should constitute such an objective, for an extension programme dealing with youths.

The Extension Service is to offer technical advice as well as make reasonable provision of inputs and other support services to the client if the advice provided is to be implemented. Services like credit, subsidies and farmer education are an absolute essential. If there is no continuous flow of findings from research needed to cope with farmers' needs Extension rapidly runs out of anything to extend.

The Extension methods refer to the way the organization

tries to reach its target, referring mainly to the methods of communication, use of media and interpersonal communication. The ideal is to reach as many of the target audience as possible, including the very remotest. The methods therefore should be appropriate and be able to draw all members of the target group into the Extension programmes.

The Extension organization refers to the way the establishment is set-up so as to provide the service to the client. Some extension organizations are "Single-purpose", concerned exclusively with passing technical extension information to farmers, so-called transfer of knowledge; while others, including Uganda's, are "multi-purpose" organizations, concerned with a range of issues including transfer of knowledge, provision of inputs, credit, marketing facilities and so on. Commentators (Benor and Harrison, 1977) argue that multi-purpose Extension organizations introduce ambiguity into the Extension relationship, diluting the efforts of the Extension workers. They argue that single purpose Extension organizations make it easy to work out priorities with the extension worker able to concentrate his efforts, besides it is easier to monitor the performance of extension workers and to supervise them.

By far the biggest fault with many Extension organizations, including Uganda's, is that of treating rural communities as homogeneous groups with similar interests and needs. There is urgent need for a re-think over this issue. Rural Communities are so diverse and heterogeneous that a given technology or innovation cannot possibly be suitable to all.

For purposes of proper deliveries of advice the Extension

system must differentiate the communities into:

Progressive farmers

The small farmers

The rural poor

The women's groups

The Youths

After such categorisation appropriate messages or packages of innovations can then be channelled to the specific target group. The traditional practice of issuing recommendations as a 'mean' often referred to as "blanket recommendations", has little impact.

Youngsters have to be treated as a distinct target group and the Extension offering should be directly aimed at them within that organizational framework: it is not enough to try to reach them via the adult farmers because their needs and development levels are different from those of the adult farmers. Only then can the Extension Service effectively draw the youths into effective production. The young farmers in Uganda have been under-reached by Extension and as such have lacked access to factors of production. The young farmers in Uganda have been literally neglected in that respect.

Marchant (1972) suggests that youth as a target group should be further differentiated according to their interests, socio-economic levels and age. He states that:

"Not all young people have the same needs at the same time, or with the same urgency and intensity."

(Marchant, 1972:11)

UNICEF (1978) made a similar comment about the young farmers.

recommending that young farmers as a target group, should be organaised into the Green Young Farmers (aged 9-15), the Browns (aged 16-25) and the Stars, and appropriate innovations be focussed on these categories specifically to serve their needs.

All in all Roling (1982) suggests that any Extension organization should be able to identify relevant homogeneous target groups such as youths and cater for their interests separately; it should be able accurately to assess their potential and requirements and be prepared to involve them in the process of identification, planning and implementation of programmes, doing things with and not for them. In other words, they should be treated as subjects and not objects of the process. More important, the Extension organizers should be able to monitor development and to "learn from below".

Information regarding the target groups should be collected in the field and not merely assembled in the headquarters.

Most important according to Roling, an Extension Service should be able to reach various hard to reach target groups, especially the marginalised rural women and youths. The local political 'elites' and the 'progressive farmers' should not insulate the small farmers and young farmers from the service. The Extension organization should help the target groups develop into strong grass root organisations and take decisions quickly under unified or at least coordinated command.

Despite the large numbers of staff on the Extension Service in Uganda (see Appendix II) farmers are still not well-reached. To date there are about 400 Agricultural Officers, over 1000

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PO BOX 11098
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Assistant Agricultural Officers (including the Assistant Agricultural Officer, Mechanization); and about 1100 Agricultural Assistants. Despite this the contact with the farmers is still very poor.

It is important to realise the interconnectedness of all elements of extension, with each element influencing the other, if the system is to function as a 'whole'.

Although as we have seen in the previous section, youth can play various roles in several developmental fields, it is the primary objective of this dissertation to examine their contribution in the context of rural development and in turn how rural development will help alleviate some of the problems faced by this segment of the population as we discussed previous

3.2 YOUTH EXTENSION PROGRAMMES

We have already identified the fact that the rural areas constitute the home of the majority of the population and the majority of this population (over 60%) is 'youth'. The rural areas do not have much to offer in terms of improved life style hence the youth resentment.

If youth extension programmes could 'capture' and 'liberate' the energies of these young people, and utilize them for the improvement of their own societies in the rural areas, then we will have used the youths themselves to provide solutions to what they otherwise view as a problem. This will create employment as we have seen, also raise levels of income and generally transform the rural areas thus easing problems of

rural-urban migration and unemployment.

Youth are the best change agents and clients and also the youth are more open minded and less traditional in outlook according to the Commonwealth Secretariat (1975).

According to the Indian Ministry of Education and Social Welfare (1976) neither institutional changes nor physical and technological inputs alone can transform the agricultural rural sector. Attitudinal changes covering a wide spectrum of people at all levels are an essential pre-requisite for every development effort or for any break-through in traditional ways of working and living. To bring about such changes it is necessary to mobilise the support of those elements in the population who are more likely to accept the need for such changes. These are the youths. They are less bound to conform to the set practices, to the outmoded traditions and institutions and are less susceptible to prejudices and vested interests. They are more open minded and responsive to bold ideas and suggestions such as those advocated by the extension services. They are more critical and forthright in their approach.

Indeed the youth through their urge for modernity constitute a powerful development force with "within". Moreover "Younger generations are more educated than their parents" (FAO, 1971c:8).

According to Kavish

"Youth find it easier to free themselves of the bonds of tradition and often become pre-occupied with an urge for modernity and a desire to raise the standard of living beyond the possibility of the national economy."

(Kavish, 1962:41)

According to Mosher (1966) young people are attracted to new ideas and new ways of doing things - because they recognise new ways as opportunities at a time when they are still growing up and are free to experiment without risking their reputations as adults would.

"In some cultures, sons frequently urge their fathers to adopt improved methods, even threatening to leave the farm for the city unless more modern methods are adopted."

(Mosher, 1966:128)

This clearly illustrates how, if youth are fully integrated in development efforts, they could assist to bring about change quickly.

Further appreciation of positive 'youth' attitudes comes from Patel (1973) as cited by Itoe (1981:4) who has shown that young farmers can be convinced easily to adopt agricultural innovations in their farms since they have a more favourable attitude towards farming.

Bennis (1969) as cited by Itoe further stresses that the youths are critical about their environment and therefore provide a useful source of data for understanding what improvements need to be made wherever they are involved. More evidence comes from Dubrin (1972) cited by Itoe (1981) who argues that younger members of an organization tend to be receptive to feedback about themselves and thereby enjoy objective opinion about themselves.

3.2.1 Various ways in which youth extension complements adult extension

Maunder (1972) observes that rural youth extension work is a way of introducing new ideas into rural life and training

leaders for the future. He further states that rural youth extension helps to close the gap between what is known about agriculture and what farmers do. Rural-youth-extension club members therefore serve as messengers of the Government.

Through club membership more youths are reached by the youth extension officer - enabling therefore a wider coverage. Maunder further contends that a successful rural youth programme is a valuable institution to the youth who participate, the families involved, the community and the country at large. The club members contribute to rural improvement and better living. Each project activity demonstrates improved practices to parents and neighbours. The introduction of improved seed, fertilizer, insect control and food production and preservation through these projects and their adoption by parents and neighbours has helped to speed up rural development.

Schmidt (1971) outlines how youth extension work strengthens extension work with adults: Besides such youth extension programme meeting the needs of the youth, they act as training and participation avenues for the mobilization of human resources for agricultural production and rural development. Moreover:

- (a) Youth work provides entry to new homes. By this is meant that parents are able to get involved in adult extension programmes as a result of contacts made through youth programmes.
- (b) Youth contribute increasingly to family decision-making on formal or informal family discussions.

Mosher (1966) makes a similar observation when he says that wives and neighbours have the same influence on the farmers

decision making process but sons, especially, have considerable influence on their fathers.

- (c) Schmidt further argues that extension youth programmes help to generate support for the general extension service. The youth programmes avail opportunity to generate popular and political support to an extension programme both at the National and International level. In agreement with this and as we shall see in Chapter V, the Uganda Extension Service and indeed the Uganda Government benefited quite a lot from the aid provided to YFU by donor agencies such as UNICEF, CARE, OXFAM, USAID and so on. In most cases some of the vehicles donated to YFU could be used for the adult-farmers' extension programme. Moreover USAID sent out many extension personnel for training overseas, through the YFU Programme.
- (d) Youth work strengthens continuity of extension work. All adult education agencies are faced with the continuity task of recruiting clientele similar to the challenge of what might be termed "salesmanship". It generates trust and confidence among the parents, paving the way for easier acceptance of innovations.
- (e) Youth extension programmes help develop useful attitudes. Interesting, challenging and economically successful activity can give a vision of the potential of modern agriculture and improved rural life and encourage them to stay and work for this objective. This has got the parents involved in adult extension programmes more than ever before. This clearly constitutes long term interest

of extension work.

- (f) Youth work helps upgrade extension programmes. A successful youth programme will eventually up-grade the technical level of the adult programme by providing preliminary training on which a higher level of technical training, knowledge, leadership abilities, development organisation, planning skills, problem-solving and teaching skills and attitudes towards agriculture as a profession is based. This will encourage initiative, self-help and a desire for learning and the application of research in agricultural development.
- (g) Youth work helps to train future extension workers, thus providing a chance for training of future extension workers by generating an interest in extension as a profession. Besides they help to train adult extension group leaders. By serving as voluntary youth leaders many adults are taught skills of leadership which will have direct effect on leadership needs of an adult extension programme and the entire Nation. Many of the volunteer leaders in the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme have acquired some principles of group dynamics which have enabled some of them to be elected leaders of their communities. By giving the youth a chance to appreciate scientific agriculture they will not only be better farmers themselves but learn more from extension and other education programmes as adults.
- (h) Through the "learn by doing" projects youth can impart knowledge on adults as project work acts as a demonstration

for parents and neighbours. Achievement days, exhibits, project tours etc. plus the useful educational materials prepared for youth work often attract the attention and study of the adults.

More support for the role of youth extension work reinforcing work with adults comes from Mohammed (1972) who contends that the youth do form a strong support for agricultural development. He argues that in many ways the 'youth' become the 'unemployed' extension workers and unconsciously become the motivating force behind any project.

FAO (1970) acknowledges the contribution of youth work in strengthening the adult extension programme. According to FAO youth activities provide a useful channel for teaching adults; under the family approach one member of the family reinforces learning by others; effective youth work appeals to leaders and policy makers at all levels and helps to generate further support for the whole extension programme. FAO (1970) in agreement with Schmidt further argues that youth work helps develop extension clientele and thus contributes to the continuity of extension works, attracting the attention of parents and neighbours.

According to the Commonwealth Secretariat (1971) youth extension programmes enable a nation to substitute labour for capital. According to Tittel (1976) this denotes that through organised youth extension programmes youth can contribute to labour productivity.

It therefore remains not only for Africa but any Nation to utilize this 'powerful' force - the youth. Africa in

particular has been accused of underutilizing her human resources as Gardiner (1971) in the Economic Commission for Africa Report, of the United Nations, in "Convergence" Vol. 4, No. 1, put it

"Africa is undeveloped because it has not cultivated its known resources.....with its vast human resources, it has not made use of those who could most significantly contribute to national life, namely the youth."

(Gardiner, 1971)

And as long as the human capital is not fully exploited, social factors will continue to mitigate against the proper use of people.

3.2.2 Brief Case Studies

Rural youth extension programmes have proliferated all over the world. By far the most successful one is the 4-H of the USA which is the founder organizations for most, if not all other youth extension organizations all over the world.

The 4-K of Kenya has been quite successful in organizing and implementing rural youth programmes in extension (Mbongo, 1982).

The 3B clubs of Lesotho have the objectives of involving youth, both boys and girls, in activities which contribute to National Development both in agriculture and home economics (Mochochoko, 1969).

The 'Youth against famine' groups in India have participated in communal asset-creating activities such as digging of wells, construction of banks to stop the flooding of farm lands and the construction of irrigation channels, among other objectives.

The Junior Free Farmers in Philippines promote agricultural and business matters among rural youth.

In Sri Lanka 2030 young farmers clubs were registered in 1968 though less than 400 actually functioned (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1971).

In Pakistan, the rural youth clubs known as Ghand Tara clubs have been established. The 4-H in Taiwan likewise deals with improved rice growing, poultry and rabbit raising and vegetable production. In Uganda, as we shall see later on, the YFU is engaged in involving youth in farming and general character building.

In Botswana the 4B clubs have been used as a strategy to introduce new farming ideas in the rural areas (Garforth, 1979).

The Malawi Young Pioneers, though partly political, have been used to modernise the rural areas directly through agriculture and also through simple construction work by the youths (Wood, 1970).

In Malaysia and Papua New Guinea youth are actively participating in extension programmes.

In Britain, the Young Farmer's Clubs, which have been amalgamated into the National Federation of Young Farmer's Clubs, have a restricted membership for the age range of 10-25 years for youth interested not only in farming but also in social and recreational activities, vocational training and general education.

The institutionalized youth groups of the above nature indicate approaches that could be applied not only in developing countries but all other countries so as to 'conscientize' the youth into developmental responsibilities.

The case studies of these programmes are endless but the

philosophy, principles and procedures discussed above apply equally well for rural youth programmes under Ministries of Agriculture, in a traditional Government bureaucracy as they could apply to a non-government sponsored programme as well.

As the largest and often the only nation-wide informal education agency in rural areas, certainly the case in Uganda, extension has the potential and the obligation both to help rural youth meet their non-formal training needs and to foster their more useful involvement in self-help activities contributing to rural development.

Increased attention must be given to extension's role in helping to create constructive attitudes and outlook among 'youth'.

One definite advantage of a young farmers programme is that the recurrent costs are very low, since much of the supervisory work is done by the existing field staff. This therefore renders a young farmers programme a cost-effective way of introducing change.

3.3 SOME CRITICISMS OF YOUTH EXTENSION PROGRAMMES

When discussing the role of extension rural youth programmes in agriculture and rural development one is more often than not disappointed by comments coming from people outside the extension framework. While many appreciate the usefulness of these programmes, others feel that they are totally irrelevant, or not relevant because they are only token

efforts in the face of major needs.

According to FAO (1970) there are those who claim that those who are reached by such programmes are the advantaged youth and that those with greatest needs (remote, the very poor, young women and girls) are largely ignored.

FAO (1970) further observes that critics claim that youth programmes with the entire extension institution are merely tools of the present power structure meant to preserve the status quo.

Wood (1970), following from his study of the Malawi Young Pioneers, has confirmed such criticisms. He observes that such programmes have been accused collectively on the grounds that they are too heavily capitalised, over administered, often closely bound up with politics, involved only with a small proportion of the total number of young people who might benefit from such programmes.

While some of these criticisms may be unfounded, many of them may well be true. Extension must do a better job of getting such people to understand the importance of the role youngsters, and indeed the role the entire extension service, play in organising rural young men and women and adults. Extension must be seen to serve the actual felt needs of these communities based on their perception, not ours, if the programmes are to be called relevant. Indeed a youth programme may be a token effort in the face of major needs; but Mother Theresa of Calcutta, who was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1979 for her work among the poor of India, put the idea of "Service" into perspective;

"We feel ourselves that what we are doing is just a drop in the ocean, I think the ocean would be less because of that missing drop."

Youth extension programmes are normally run on the normal extension programme budgets, at least in the case of the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme, in which case the problem of it being over capitalised or over administered may not arise. It is important on the part of the extension workers not to by-pass other youths and deal only with the better off privileged groups as has happened with adult extension programmes, evidence of which is well documented. Extension programmes, both for adults and youths, should steer clear of politics and be a service to all and not identified with men in the power structure.

Maybe more damaging is the failure of such programmes to provide a definite framework for the youths who graduate from such programmes. In the YFU, graduates leave at the age of 25 but there is no institutionalised provision to absorb them, even if they wanted to continue farming, there are no assured back-up facilities. Some criticisms have come from decision and policy makers whose sympathy such programmes badly need for their effective implementation.

Youth programmes should eliminate the traditional idea that the purpose of such youth extension programmes is merely educational and only prepares youth as a future adult, but rather the programme should organise the youth to live fully in the present, creating values, developing abilities and forming a total functional personality, physically contributing to productivity.

Before taking a look at the details regarding the Young Farmers of Uganda programme we shall look at the functioning of the extension service in Uganda, of which the YFU is part and parcel.

EXTENSION SERVICE

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE EXTENSION SERVICE IN UGANDA

When we look at the history of the extension service in Uganda, we find that it is a relatively young service, which has developed rapidly since the independence of the country in 1962.

Before 1962, the extension service in Uganda was very limited, and was confined to a few agricultural extension officers who were employed by the colonial government.

After independence, the extension service in Uganda was reorganised, and a number of new extension officers were recruited.

The extension service in Uganda has since then developed rapidly, and has become an important part of the government's efforts to improve the living standards of the rural population.

The extension service in Uganda is now a well-established service, which is responsible for the dissemination of agricultural knowledge and technology to the rural population.

The extension service in Uganda is also responsible for the organisation and management of agricultural extension projects, and for the provision of technical assistance to farmers.

The extension service in Uganda is also responsible for the collection and dissemination of information on agricultural production and marketing, and for the provision of advice on the use of agricultural inputs.

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CHAPTER IV

THE AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION ORGANIZATION IN UGANDA AND THE YOUNG FARMERS OF UGANDA PROGRAMME

1.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE EXTENSION SERVICE IN UGANDA

Long before the British came to Uganda at the end of the 19th Century there already existed a well established traditional farming system, without a systematically organised extension system.

The Agriculture Department owes its origins to the botanic gardens in Entebbe which had been established in 1898 for the development of the agricultural resources of the then British protectorate. In 1977 the control of the botanic gardens was passed to the Agricultural Department and the Forestry department became autonomous. The important crop introductions were made around 1900, cotton becoming the most important cash crop. The greatest economic development however, was made in between the two world wars.

It was on the highly organised existing traditional system of administration that the British built the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture.

The alien agricultural officers taught farmers new methods in agriculture and also instructed subordinate staff to assist in the general duties of the Department.

The training of Ugandans for higher posts in the Department began at Makerere College which later became University College of East Africa in 1949. The Faculty of Agriculture was

ned in 1958, offering a B.Sc. degree in Agriculture and quite
ently they started offering higher degrees. The top
cials of the Department of Agriculture are graduates of this
ulty.

Meanwhile training for field level staff continued to
w along with the general extension work so much so that by
5 Uganda had one of the best extension services in Africa.
its to farms, vernacular press, mobile cinemas, radio
adcasting and other publicity media were used. Demonstration
competitions were held in most small administrative units.

In 1955 two main Farm Institutions were established,
Bukalasa in Buganda and Arapai in Teso. In 1959 they
ame Colleges of Agriculture, running a three year training
gramme to produce diplomates. To date the two colleges
both certificate and diploma courses.

With the help of USAID a number of training centres (DFIs)
e set up designed to give short courses for farmers and
ir leaders and young farmers and their staff. As of now
re are fifteen DFIs running courses, supposedly, for
mers and refresher courses for the Agriculture Department
ff. But lack of funds and demonstration material has
iously hampered such courses.

The Research Division is responsible for providing
utions to the day to day problems of the farmers regarding
duction and husbandry management, crop pests and diseases,
l use and conservation and to render practical advice
ordingly. Again shortage of funds and working facilities has
iously hampered the performance of the Research Division
cope with the farmers problems. Currently EEC is assisting

to rehabilitate the Coffee Sector including Coffee Research and USAID is assisting with the rehabilitation of Serere Research Station and the Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry including the University Farm, Kabanyolo.

4.2 THE STRUCTURE AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE EXTENSION SERVICE IN UGANDA

The Department of Agriculture is one of the two Departments, the other being the Forestry Department, constituting the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

The Department is headed by the Commissioner for Agriculture who is the Chief Executive of the Department. He is directly assisted by a team of Deputy Commissioners who in turn are assisted by Assistant Commissioners in the various disciplines. The Commissioner is himself directly responsible to and adviser to the Permanent Secretary.

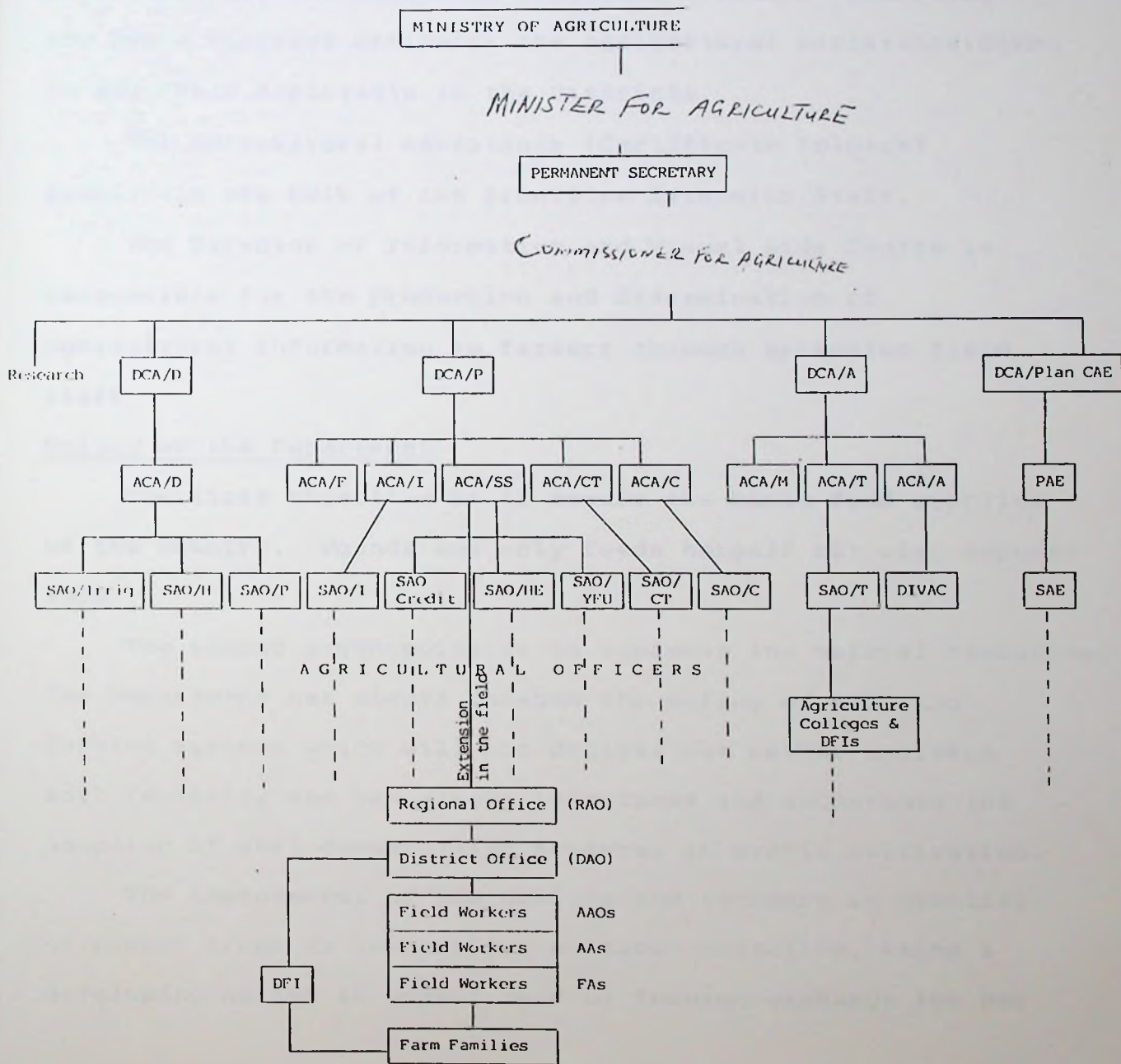
The Senior Agricultural Officers are answerable to the respective Assistant Commissioners depending on the discipline.

The National Officer/Young Farmers of Uganda Programme is of the rank of Senior Agricultural Officer and reports directly to the Assistant Commissioner, in charge of Extension (Support) Services.

The entry point for an agriculture graduate is that of an Agricultural Officer and they are normally answerable to the Senior Agricultural Officers in the relevant section. The Assistant Agricultural Officers are diploma holders.

In each of the eleven (11) Regions and thirty three (33) Districts, the Department is represented by a Regional Agricultural Officer (RAO) and a District Agricultural Officer (D

ORGANOGRAMME



respectively. On average each RAO supervises about three to four District Agricultural Officers. He usually reports direct to the Ministry Headquarters.

The RAOs are the very experienced and long service Agricultural Officers while the DAOs may be Agricultural Officers or experienced Senior Assistant Agricultural Officers. The DAOs in turn supervise the principals of DFIs in their districts; all the different Programme Officers, including the YFU - District Officers; the Agricultural Assistants down to the Field Assistants in the Districts.

The Agricultural Assistants (Certificate holders) constitute the bulk of the frontline Extension Staff.

The Director of Information and Visual Aids Centre is responsible for the production and dissemination of agricultural information to farmers through extension field staff.

Policy of the Department

The first objective is to ensure the basic food supplies of the country. Uganda not only feeds herself but also exports food.

The second urgent point is to conserve the natural resources. The Department has always pursued the policy of adopting farming systems which will not deplete but rather increase soil fertility and has always introduced and encouraged the adoption of soil conservation measures in arable cultivation.

The improvement of the quality and increase in quantity of export crops is obviously a critical objective, being a developing nation in urgent need of foreign exchange for her

imports. The quality of Uganda's coffee is of international repute, so is the quality of her cotton. Uganda also exports a wide range of other crops including tea and tobacco.

The Department has also pursued the policy of blending the whole into a sound system of agriculture which is within the means of the farmers to obtain.

4.3 THE YOUNG FARMERS OF UGANDA PROGRAMME

In an effort to involve youth in development and to get them to participate in the seeking of solutions to the problems cited earlier, which problems confront most nations with an abundance of youths, the Uganda Government designed among others, the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme (YFU). Besides, the youths enrolled, act as examples of the Department to the rural peasant adult farmers.

4.3.1 What YFU is

The Young Farmers of Uganda Programme is a voluntary educational programme for farm young people, both boys and girls, between the ages of 10 and 25 years inclusive. It is for both in-school and out-of-school youths; and is the equivalent of the 4-H in USA, 4-K in Kenya, 4B in Botswana and several other similar programmes in other countries as we saw earlier.

The Programme was launched in 1964 through the USAID mission in Uganda and is part and parcel of the extension service of the Department of Agriculture.

To participate in the programme, the young people, with the permission of their parents, agree to assume the

responsibility for one or more projects such as care and management of pigs, poultry or rabbits and possibly a vegetable project, plot of coffee, cotton or other commercial crop or livestock.

In each or any of these activities the young farmer is supposed to study and follow the advice and directions given by the Agricultural Extension Service - containing the very latest and most improved methods and practices in agriculture. The members learn these practices by actually doing them in practical terms, hence the YFU motto "We learn by doing". The crux of the matter is that they will demonstrate and introduce these new methods and practices to their parents and neighbours thus accelerating the rate of change in the community. The projects selected by the youngsters must be economically viable, opening gateways for the youth to what is good, ensuring that what the youths receive through the programme is for real and lasting value.

4.3.2 Organizational Structure

At the head of the programme is the National Officer/YFU. He is a Senior Agricultural Officer, directly responsible to the Assistant Commissioner for Agriculture, in charge of extension field (support) services. At the head office of the programme, he is assisted by a team of four Agricultural Officers.

Under the direct supervision of the District Agricultural Officers, the district Youth Extension Officers (Field Officers/YFU), assisted by other representatives of the Agricultural Extension Service, organise these young people into Young

Farmers of Uganda Societies. Each Society may have up to 30-40 members, but each one member may have a different kind of project.

These societies are assisted by volunteer leaders. Ideally there are supposed to be three volunteer leaders per society, namely the key volunteer leader, the project volunteer leader and the recreational volunteer leader. These are local leaders, either chiefs or teachers or even graduates of the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme itself.

"A volunteer leader is one who influences the attitudes and actions of others and receives no financial pay for doing so."

(USDA, 1971;3)

Without the use of such volunteer leaders, extension would be unable to involve many families in its educational programme. Volunteers are examples for their peers, they make it possible for extension to increase its services despite the limited budgets; acting as a communication medium for staff-to-client and client-to-staff relationships and can increase understanding between different groups besides generally increasing citizen participation in extension programmes. The Agricultural Assistants, the volunteer leaders, chiefs, Field Assistants and parents therefore combine at the grass root to effect the programme. This is the unique feature in extension work in Uganda, the least trained man is the one who actually deals directly with the client.

The Field Officer/YFU reports to the DAO on matters relating to the programme and copies his reports to the Commissioner for Agriculture for the attention of the National Officer/YFU.

The youths elect their own officials, serve on committees and take part in programmes. They hold meetings, discuss their project activities and plan special activities. They learn to select exhibits of their work, to judge them for quality, workmanship and to give demonstration to show new methods and practices.

To maintain the interest and to aid in their development, programmes are organised which include recreation, tours, contests and recognition awards for achievements. The youths learn to assume responsibility, to be dependable and trustworthy. They learn the value and dignity of labour with their own hands. They develop team work, the spirit of cooperation and the importance of organized group effort. They develop leadership, personality and good citizenship, besides contributing to total production.

4.3.3 Objectives of the YFU Programme

The success of any programme is largely a function of the clarity of its objectives. Well defined and understood objectives do provide the best guide for action.

The YFU, as from the time of its inception, has maintained the following objectives:

1. To teach young people better farm and home practices which will contribute towards better nutrition, health and higher standard of living.
2. To teach up to date practices in agriculture so as to increase agricultural production of food, feed and fibre for home use and market.
3. To teach young people the dignity of labour and respect

for land and agriculture as an occupation.

4. To help prepare young people to be better citizens of the future by helping them develop farm skills, leadership ability, co-operative spirit and good character.

An examination of the above objectives tends to spark off mixed feelings. Indeed to teach young people the dignity of agriculture and respect for land is very commendable as an encouragement to accept rural life as the Uganda Minister of State for Agriculture and Forestry recently put it:

"Land.....is one of the properties - valuable properties that children in Uganda have and will continue to inherit from their fathers for some time to come. It is our responsibility to make them love the land so that they do not merely toil on it as our forefathers did but make it worthy of earning a living."

(Rubaihayo, 1983:2)

But some of these objectives are too vague, stereotyped and idealistic for purposes of working out concrete and implementable programmes. The objectives lack specificity and their impacts are not easily measurable at the local level.

There is need to get these objectives to gear the youths towards making them actual producers and organizers and to emphasise self help rather than Government dependence. More important the objectives need to be related to current developmental needs.

4.3.4 Eligibility for Membership in the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme

The programme is open to all youths, and it is non-political. Membership is free, as long as the youngster satisfies the following conditions:

- (1) To be between 10-25 years of age, boy or girl.
- (2) To accept responsibility for carrying out a definite project on the farm according to the advice of the Agricultural Extension Service.
- (3) To do the work on the project himself or herself.
- (4) To keep record of work done on the project.
- (5) To attend and take part in meetings of members.
- (6) To make an exhibit of something produced, made or managed in connection with his project.
- (7) To learn to judge these products for quality.
- (8) To demonstrate to others some definite new methods or practices learned during the calendar year.

As mentioned above, the youths select their own officials; these include President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer and the committee members. The President prevails over all affairs and the Treasurer looks after the finances of the group.

4.3.5 Appraisal of the YFU Programme

Since its inception in 1964, the programme had made some remarkable progress. It had penetrated all areas of the country. A good many progressive farmers became what they are through the YFU Programme. Many youths in all Districts learnt and adopted better practices of farming. Among some outstanding practices which have been adopted in the country through the YFU Programme mainly, are control of pests and diseases by spraying e.g. dithane on tomatoes. The use of improved seeds especially vegetable seeds for example, during the early years adults were very reluctant about the introduction of improved varieties of tomatoes such as moneymaker;

cabbage e.g. Drumhead and so on, but the youths introduced them and through them the adults realised the superior qualities of these varieties. Also in the field of livestock the youths have done alot to demonstrate the superiority of better breeds e.g. of poultry and pigs.

In fact many young farmers grew into very successful 'progressive farmers' which is the basic wish of the Department for it can certainly produce a better farmer by starting to teach a person while young [as you would train "a vine" so too can you influence the direction of growing young people].

By farming and working together in Young Farmers of Uganda Societies many youths have grown into adults who have acquired co-operative spirit, who know how to sit together and discuss and plan things in a group, who can run a Society, who have acquired some democratic practices and who can conduct a good deal of their project work on a co-operative basis.

In this way the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme had become a training ground for Co-operative Society movement.

The Programme has played a leading role in helping some Ugandan youths to attain some basic psychological requirements like belonging to a group. Some youngsters through income from their project work have been able to pay their own school fees and to fulfil such social obligations as paying dowry for their marriages.

The possession of a stable internationally recognised Young Farmers of Uganda Programme had for the past years enabled Uganda to acquire international help which it could otherwise not have got e.g. help from international

organizations like USAID, UNICEF, CARE and other well known international bodies. Much help has been received from such organizations.

The cumulative enrolment figures (see Appendix III) show general progress of the Programme until about 1977 when membership started declining. Even for those who stayed on the Programme, the enrolment statistics may not tell the whole story. Therefore the Programme which had started off with a lot of esteem and which had started off with much enthusiasm generally began to slide.

In the words of the Assistant Commissioner for Agriculture, in charge of extension, during the YFU agents seminar in July 1984:

"The YFU Programme reached a period of great popularity and support and it was, at one time, the envy of everyone - staff and farmers alike. But in recent years it has declined or receded into some sort of oblivion."

(Mubiru, 1984:3)

It could generally be asserted that the initial external support helped keep the programme fully functional. But observation will reveal that the programme has suffered due to the malfunctions in the Extension Service administration itself. The programme has been relegated a minor role in the overall priorities of the Department of Agriculture with various inadequacies inherent in the programme as a consequence; and in the National context the programme is accorded little support as a National Programme; except for the "lip-service" paid to its goals.

There is urgent need to draw long-range plans to re-develop

YFU and need for a definite programme to guide the professional extension workers and the volunteer leaders in the field.

The YFU needs to restructure its strategies so as to win the respect of communities and the entire Nation by actually bringing real benefits to satisfy the needs of rural young people as the 4-H in USA for example has done (Blackburn, 1984).

We shall now identify and discuss in detail some of the factors which have contributed to the malfunctioning of the programme in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

CONSTRAINTS ON THE YFU

While the YFU may have managed to realise some of its objectives, it is evident as we have seen earlier, that its performance could be made better if some other elements of the 'development mix' were made available to the youngsters.

In the present chapter we try to identify some of the issues which have scaled down the Programme's advancement.

As we shall see, some of these are operational problems inherent within the extension structural network as cited earlier on but also some are simply to do with lack of resources or misdisbursement of resources. Some of these areas need restructuring and consequently strengthening if the YFU is not to turn into a "misplaced investment".

5.1 INADEQUATE SUPPLIES OF INPUTS

In a survey carried out by UNICEF (1978) the following were specified as militating on the YFU.

Inadequate supplies of inputs and change of schools were causes number one of dropping out, followed by lack of incentives (see Table 3). In fact lack of incentives is very closely associated with lack of inputs.

The constraint of inputs reached a peak during the military era. As President Obote has put it in the "Revised Recovery Programme"

TABLE 3 CAUSES OF DROPPING OUT AS PERCEIVED BY YFU AGENTS

Cause	Frequency	Rank
Persistent crop failure	14	5
Lack of incentives	22	3
Lack of effective guidance from Volunteer Leaders	9	7
Inadequate supplies of inputs	23	1
Lack of parental support	8	9
Lack of recreational activities	6	11
Conflict with club officials	5	12
Marketing difficulties	19	4
They felt that they were getting much less from the programme than they expected	9	7
Lack of effective guidance from extension field staff	7	10
Change of Schools	23	1
To escape loan repayments	12	6

"At the field level the effectiveness of agricultural extension and veterinary staff was crippled by shortages of transport and inputs."

(President Obote, 1983)

Indeed to date the issue of inputs still ranks heavily against not only the young farmers but also the adult farmers. Inputs are one of the five essentials for agricultural development (Mosher, 1966).

"Agricultural development requires that these be available at many local points in sufficient quantity to meet the needs of every farmer who may want to use them."

(Mosher, 1966:89)

Very often inputs never arrive or arrive too late so that the youth are not able to benefit or to utilize the full potential of timely planting.

TABLE 4 COMMON FACTORS LIMITING YIELDS OF YFU CROP
PROJECTS AS PERCEIVED BY YFU AGENTS

Factor	Weight	Rank
Untimely planting	27	3
Poor land preparation	16	7
Soil fertility	17	6
Bad husbandry	18	5
Weather	36	1
Poor seeds	27	3
Pests and diseases	30	2
Poor extension personnel	9	8

As Table 4 indicates weather was identified as a major factor limiting yields as a result of untimely arrival and planting of seed. Moreover on arrival of inputs priority is normally given to the adult farmers. When the youngsters fail to receive inputs through the Department they have to pay for them very exorbitantly from the private dealers and this discourages them from participating in YFU, for they see no point if their interests in inputs cannot be met. The lack of a definite policy regarding provision of inputs for the youths has undermined the very objectives for which the programme was designed. This disregard of youngsters has tended to discourage them as a segment of the population for whom the Department of Agriculture has nothing to offer. Marketing difficulties featured among the major causes of members dropping out. Markets constitute one of the five essentials of agricultural development (Mosher, 1966). The UNICEF survey team found out that marketing had been difficult especially for vegetables in rural areas. Where the youths had

engaged in co-operative activities with the adults, they were not offered remunerative prices for their produce.

Lack of incentives constituted another major bottleneck to the programme. As a philosophy of the programme, Achievement Days are supposed to be held regularly so that recognition is accorded not only to the best young farmers but also generally, their volunteer leaders. As Mosher (1966) puts it

"Another incentive to farmers to increase the production of their farms comes from public recognition for being successful."

(Mosher, 1966:110)

But due to inavailability of these incentives or prizes many youths and volunteer leaders alike, are losing interest in the programme.

To reduce some of the above problems there is need to involve more out-of-school youth in the programme. Regular supplies of inputs. Certain Governments subsidize the cost of certain inputs to farmers so as to stimulate their use, which in turn stimulates agricultural development. Youngsters should have their input requirements separately catered for. Incentive awards need to be reinstated so as to re-attract both the youngsters and volunteer leaders to the scheme. Incentives and recognition to mark achievements inspire improved performance (Hutchcroft, 1971)

5.2 LACK OF CAPITAL/CREDIT/SUBSIDY

The youth often do not have the essential means of production for making use of their new skills and knowledge and as can be seen from Table 5, it is obvious that capital

is perceived as problem number one. This collaborates with the finding mentioned in Table 3 of lack of inputs, for without capital the youths cannot afford either the needed input or land or any other factor for that matter.

TABLE 5 PROBLEMS FACING YOUNG FARMERS OF UGANDA PROGRAMME
AS PERCEIVED BY THE YFU AGENTS

Problem	Weight	Rank
Land	34	6
Capital	64	1
Labour	38	5
Markets	45	4
Storage facilities	47	3
Seed preservation	48	2
Shortage of volunteer leaders	24	8
Lack of members	21	9
Poor husbandry	26	7

The Department of Agriculture in the past had a credit scheme for adult farmers (Okai, 1968) while the YFU had a Revolving Fund started with the assistance of UNICEF. This has since been non-operational, as has the adult farmer credit scheme.

There is urgent need to re-stimulate this service not only to the youths but the entire farming clientele for

"Production credit at reasonable rates of interest can be helpful, but it is not substitute for new technology capable of raising production substantially."

(Mosher, 1966)

Should this become operational the conventional practice whereby loaning institutions favour only the large-scale

farmers in the granting of loans should be stopped and policies geared towards small-scale, including young farmers, should be promoted. But the issue of security for such loans may again work against the youths since they have no collateral (Manu, 1978).

The repayment of credit should not be difficult for if well supervised, and increased production is realised, it often guarantees its own repayment through the increased income it generates.

The Malawi Young Pioneers, the Association of the Young Farmer Clubs of Kenya, among others, do offer loans either in kind or cash to the youngsters. In the case of young farmers of Uganda, there is urgent need for at least a youth-project loan fund to act as "Self-Starter" for these groups. FAO (1982) recommends initial credit with no interest, then after this initial period, these "nursery" groups 'weaned' onto loans on which interest is payable. There may be need for a membership fee to be charged, this may help raise some minimum fund to re-kindle some of the activities (YFU Agents Conference, July 1984).

The YFU extension agents have to play an additional role by promoting saving habits among youngsters thereby making internal capital accumulation and investment possible through the mobilization of the domestic resources so as to cope with the high 'risk factor' associated with self-employment, especially in small businesses such as youth projects. An increased resource-base will encourage youngsters to undertake more risky but paying projects.

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5.3 LAND

Acquisition of land is perceived as one of the biggest problems facing youngsters. Most youngsters have to rely on their parents to offer them a piece of land on which to carry out their projects. First of all there is acute shortage of land in most parts of the country, considering that the average family plot is 4-5 acres, parents see that as a critical requirement for the survival of the family and moreover it is unusual for parents to relinquish control of the land before they die, therefore the parents' needs as it were conflict with the youngster's need for independence and modernity.

As we have seen above it is unlikely that the youngster would have the resources with which to buy their own land and without land titles of their own, they have great difficulty getting credit. This is a vicious cycle.

The absence therefore of a definite land policy in favour of young farmers, makes it difficult for youth to engage in production. Government therefore needs to define in clear terms the context and content of assistance and support it is to offer for the progress of the youth in this respect. The Ministry of Culture and Community Development runs some youth settlement schemes but their objectives are not exact replicates of those of YFU.

UNICEF (1972) as reviewed in the 1978 Evaluation Report, recommended that the Department should consider young farmers resettlement schemes, although this has the negative effect of alienating the youths from their societal complex and would be logistically difficult for the in-school youths.

The issue of land for youth work is so crucial that it has not escaped notice of the Commonwealth Secretariat who has this to say:

"In parts of Asia, but particularly in Latin America, reforms in land tenure are a pre-requisite to the emergence of greater numbers of modern young farmers."

(Commonwealth Secretariat
1971:21)

Seed preservation and lack of storage facilities for produce constitute another bottleneck for the youngsters. But if there were a regular supply of inputs and efficient marketing mechanisms these probably would not be of much problem.

5.4 RESEARCH PRIORITIES

We took a look at the research position in Uganda in Chapter IV. However, emphasis here needs to be put on farming systems research before scientific knowledge can be applied, optimising the use of the locally available resources. As we saw research recommendations are too general and not easily translated into extension messages which are relevant at farm level.

As Mosher (1966) notes:

"In addition to central experimentation it is important to carry on local adaptive research at a number of widely scattered points, preferably in close coordination with the extension programme. This local adaptive research can in some cases be carried out on fields of individual farmer."

(Mosher, 1966:191)

From the point of view of young farmer projects, research has tended to contribute to the development of the major

export cash crops like coffee, cotton, tea and tobacco to the neglect of the 'small' local market oriented crops like vegetables grown by the young farmers (see Table 6).

TABLE 6 POPULAR CROPS GROWN BY YFU MEMBERS

Crop	No. of Officers (Agents) reporting
Soya beans	26
Beans	23
Groundnuts	23
Maize	19
Cabbages	19
Tomatoes	14
Onions	11
Peas	8
Simsim	7
Millet	5
Cassava	5
Bananas	4
Cotton	4
Sweet potatoes	4
Pineapples	4
Sugar cane	4
Cow peas	2
Sorghum	1

The outcome of this is that youths have suffered major losses as a result of major disease and pest attacks since research is not prepared to cope with their requirements. These losses have tended to dishearten the youngsters to the point of withdrawing from the programme. There is therefore need for research to pay attention to these 'small' local-market food crops as well so as to 'protect' these youngsters.

The danger of concentrating on major export crops to the neglect of food crops has been observed by several observers. Coombs has this to say:

"If agricultural development officers, eager to meet assigned production targets in the

quickest and easiest way, concentrate their attention.....on major export crops, the smaller farmers will again be left behind and the already serious socio-economic disparities will be compounded."

(Coombs, 1980:114)

5.5 TRAINING NEEDS

The level of formal education and professional training of the staff are critical for any type of programme.

TABLE 7 FORMAL EDUCATION STATUS OF SOME YFU OFFICERS

Level of Education	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1 - 7 years	2	4.9
8 - 11 years	30	73.2
12 - 13 years	9	21.9
Total	41	100

From the data above it is possible to ascertain that the majority of the staff have sufficient formal education to benefit from further professional training.

TABLE 8 PROFESSIONAL TRAINING STATUS OF SOME YFU STAFF

Level	No. of Respondents	Percentage
University Degree	7	17.1
College Diploma	15	36.6
College Certificate	9	22.0
Farm School	4	9.7
On-Job Training only	2	4.9
None	4	9.7
Total	41	100

While the majority of the respondents have received some fair amount of professional training it should be noted that these are employed only in the supervisory capacity. The operational officers are from the farm school level downwards. Generally it can be concluded that the least trained personnel are the ones in constant touch with the young farmers.

However of all the above categories of staff none have actually been trained specifically to work with youth.

Although YFU agents at times have in-service training, these are too general and irregular. Training must be viewed as a long term resource-saving device in that you pay fewer, well trained, efficient men to do the same work that might have had to be done by maybe twice the number of inefficient men, with insufficient professional training.

Training is also to be looked at as a motivating strategy. As Watts put it:

"Training, particularly national service training, may do something to improve motivation."

(Watts, 1973:121)

For more efficient performance YFU agents need to be trained in youth handling if they are going to give meaningful instruction to youngsters. Unfortunately "production-minded senior officer.....undervalue the critical importance of training and too often give it a low priority, relative to other components" (Coombs, 1980:10). The YFU should have an adequate training budget if its field officers are to perform to their capacity.

Chiefs, volunteer leaders and parents need to be informed

about the YFU and its objectives, even if it is only a one-day exercise.

5.6 STAFF MOTIVATION AND MORALE

The intrinsic theories of motivation suggest that an individual will work harder if he considers the job to be worthwhile his efforts. For the job to be satisfying to an individual and for him to perform to capacity it must fulfil the needs of an individual.

The importance of motivation among extension workers is therefore immense and because of the nature of the job a motivation policy which is efficient ensures that the individual will put most of his energies and efforts into his duties. This is a very sensitive area for management to ensure as it is often neglected as seems to have happened in the Extension Service in Uganda.

Motivation is understandable in terms of Maslow's hierarchy (1943, 1954) as cited by Riley (1978:4) of human motivation. Human motivation is centred around the fulfillment of five basic needs:

- (i) Physiological needs: The extension worker will be motivated in his work if it assures him a supply of food, water and shelter.
- (ii) Security needs: If an extension worker is not threatened by physical or psychological insecurity he is bound to perform his job wholeheartedly. For example need for assured pay, no threat of redundancy, assured pension - all these will motivate the extension worker.

(iii) Sense of belonging: Everybody needs love and affection as well as self-identity or recognition by others for what he is and what he does. Therefore there is need for management to strengthen the social bonds within the organisation.

(iv) Self-esteem: Every individual would like to portray a positive image of himself, he seeks responsibility and thrives for achievements and recognitions that go with the achievements. Therefore providing satisfaction of these psychological needs is an important part of any motivational policy.

(v) Self-realization: By this is meant the desire to fulfil one's potential for development in terms of one's abilities. Management should provide an environment in which each employee is able to reach his full potential.

Delayed or lack of promotions, insufficient salaries and other remunerations, lack of recognition generally, have been shown to be great demotivators. Promotion, especially is seen as recognition of one's work. Unfortunately all these ills have plagued the Ugandan extension system. For over ten years there have never been promotions. Some staff have had to transfer their services to other institutions where they can get fulfillment. This has greatly undermined output.

Often promotion is by seniority and not achievement (Watts, 1969). With a heavy conservative layer of staff in the 40-55 age group, the younger civil servant is often frustrated.

Besides, such lack of promotions, restrictions in exercising

power conferred to an officer by virtue of his office gives the extension officer no career incentive, especially lower in the administrative hierarchy.

As Mosher observes:

"If officials do not welcome innovations by their subordinates and do not welcome suggestions as to how the whole programme might be improved, the more able persons in subordinate positions in the agency will see little point in increasing their competence either through study or through experimentation."

(Mosher, 1966)

To go along with motivation is the need for incentives.

"Staff incentives are.....a crucial factor in the success of extension programmes."

(Lele, 1975:71)

Transport is a very important incentive if staff have to perform their duties. Most YFU agents have no assured means of transport.

As Coombs notes:

"Another factor that keeps extension workers from their priority duties is the lack of available transport..... An extension worker in an area of widely dispersed farms can spend half or more of his time just getting from one farm to the next, by foot or bicycle; he may never get to the more distant ones."

(Coombs, 1974:129)

This has constrained programme activities so much so that the YFU field agents only report about 'invisible' youths with the consequence that their interests in the programme are lost since they can spend a year without seeing the agent.

UNICEF (1978) in their study of the YFU had this to say:

"There was evidence to show that the district young farmers field officers had tried to supervise the distribution of inputs. However

on a number of occasions they were handicapped by lack of transport."

(UNICEF, 1978:31)

Even staff at the headquarters have no transport to assist in the supervision of the programme activities. They have to rely on 'doctored' information contained in the monthly reports which is often inadequate and could be misleading. There is therefore need for headquarters staff to go out in the field, as Benor (1977) puts it

"Provision should be made for adequate vehicles so headquarters staff can visit the field with ease."

(Benor, 1977:39)

5.7 UNCOORDINATED EFFORTS

There are several other youth programmes in the country. These include the National Union of Youth Organisation (NUYO), the National Union of Students of Uganda (NUSU), the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA), the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), among others. They may as a matter of detail, have different specific objectives but they have the overall objective of bringing about development. Unfortunately each of these programmes, including the YFU have not fully articulated their efforts, in fact they have continued to operate as rival organisations; adopting 'piece meal' approach in dealing with the same client - the youths.

Even within the extension framework, sister projects to the YFU have not tangibly designed programmes which promote concerted efforts. DAOs for example are often, and

correctly so, accused of denying youngsters inputs in favour of adult farmers. Since it is the DAO who administers all agricultural programmes in the District, he allocates resources to the various sections of the Department in the District. Therefore his ranking of YFU among other sections in the Department, will determine how much resources he can allocate to YFU viz-a-viz other sections.

Generally there seems to be appreciation of the fact that there is need for co-ordination but at the level of implementation the picture is not reflected. The consequence is gross duplication of services and inefficient utilization of resources.

There is undoubtedly urgent need for the YFU to combine efforts with the programmes be they Governmental or non-governmental. There is no alternative to this integrated approach.

5.8 INADEQUACY AND SHORTAGE OF STAFF ON THE PROGRAMME

The number of YFU staff in general, no doubt shows that this staff position is insufficient both in numbers and quality. Even their distribution among the districts is very uneven. The staff structure is male dominated. Kazungu (1976) as cited by UNICEF (1978) noted that male staff tend to concentrate on production-oriented activities at the expense of nutrition and health promoting activities.

Given the fact that girls account for about fifty per cent of YFU membership it is obvious that the male staff do

not cater for some of the girls' needs which would best be catered for by female staff. This problem is accentuated by the fact that even volunteer leaders are largely male.

There is a tendency for the administrators to keep transferring experienced YFU staff indiscriminately without consultation with the National Officer/YFU. The programme has lost several such staff and this has worked against YFU staff development. This coupled with extra assignments laid on staff have tended to lower the performance of the programme staff.

5.9 THE CASE FOR EVALUATION

For purposes of this dissertation evaluation simply means "a comparison of what was planned with what is being achieved".

For any organization to ascertain its performance there is a definite need for constant monitoring and evaluation of its activities.

Most extension programmes in Uganda are never monitored or evaluated. The YFU programme only managed to carry out an evaluation exercise in 1978 with the help of UNICEF. There is no routine in-built monitoring or evaluation by the Department itself.

Monitoring and evaluation activities should be built in all extension programmes for the following reasons:

- (i) To keep track of progress of development activities during implementation and to alert the policy and decision-makers in case of shortfalls or deviations, for timely

corrective action;

- (ii) To determine as systematically and objectively as possible the relevance, efficiency and effectiveness of development activities and of their impact on the intended beneficiaries;
- (iii) To learn lessons for future development planning for better formulation and implementation of projects/ programmes in the future.

Rural development projects such as home economics, young farmers, appropriate village level technology and so on are multi-disciplinary. Monitoring and evaluation can play a crucial role in ensuring effective co-ordination in their implementation and lessons drawn from the exercise can help in the design of well integrated rural development programmes. It may be difficult to evaluate the entire extension block but the individual programmes or projects which constitute the Extension Department can be evaluated in "pieces". This has tended to lack in the Uganda extension service with consequent lack of accountability on the part of staff.

Without the evidence of thorough and regular evaluation it is not likely that policy makers and planners will be easily convinced of the contribution a programme like YFU has made to national development hence the subsequent release of resources needed for expansion of its activities seem to have been impaired.

The role of monitoring and evaluation as a tool of effective management of development activities in the short and medium term and also as a tool for strengthening development

management capabilities in the long run deserves greater recognition in the context of agricultural extension service in Uganda.

The United States Department for Agriculture (1959) lists six "key" elements to evaluation of extension work:

- (i) Clear statement of objectives of action to be taken.
- (ii) Sources of evidence: only those people whom the programme is trying to serve can provide proof of success or failure.
- (iii) A representative sample from the target group (ii) since you may not reach all; to provide concrete information.
- (iv) Appropriate methods chosen to determine whether changes have occurred. Chamber's Rapid Rural Appraisal informal methodologies provide cheap, quick, relevant and target-specific information.
- (v) Reliable questions: carefully worded questions so as to obtain reliable, unbiased data.
- (vi) Decision regarding how to analyse and use evaluation results. The findings must be put into use.

The YFU objectives, procedures and methodologies have remained static while the socio-economic, socio-political and the entire scenario that it is intended to serve has continued to change.

As Kazungu (1973) put it, if the YFU is to perform creditably, continuous evaluation of its objectives, organization structure and procedures must be made. This is supported by Mosher (1966):

"Since priorities keep changing, national

planning must be continuous, providing for changes in national policies and programmes to keep them pertinent to the changing needs of agriculture."

(Mosher, 1966:169)

Policies which were formulated under different circumstances in the past, are left to prevail for far too long.

"No policy should be regarded as permanent. nor should a country refrain from establishing a particular policy when it is needed just because it will have to be changed later."

(Ibid: 180)

Unfortunately even when some evaluations are done and recommendations made, rarely are they implemented, thus discouraging future such initiatives. For example UNICEF (1978) recommended that the post of National Officer be upgraded to Assistant Commissioner level so as to give him the necessary power to implement the programme. This has never been done, if anything the NO/YFU at the time of this study has even less power for he no longer controls the budget of the programme. This plus other administrative bottlenecks have made the day to day running of the programme difficult since NO/YFU has to refer to a Commissioner for almost every aspect of the programme implementation. Thus the elaborate administrative procedures of the adult-farmer-extension priorities have tended to obliterate those to do with the young farmers.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has been an attempt to appreciate the tremendous role youngsters can play in bringing about change and development generally; and rural development specifically through their vigour and positivity of attitude.

Decision makers and organizers of Youth Programmes should acknowledge the above fact and formulate policies and adopt attitudes which encourage genuine participation by 'youths' in the development process. The planning, implementation and evaluation of youth programmes should be done with the youngsters and not merely for them. The contribution by this majority group can only manifest itself if proper policies and conditions are granted.

It is very important to realise that the problems faced by the youngsters today such as unemployment can be eradicated by efficient occupational programmes such as the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme. While at the same time the 'youth' are contributing to total production and changes in traditional attitudes and values which is a pre-requisite to the acceptance of innovations as advocated by change agencies such as Agricultural Extension. This is possible as a result of the well documented concept of "youth proneness to change".

If an Agricultural Extension Service is to perform the role of organising, planning and implementing a rural youth programme such as the Young Farmers of Uganda Programme, favourable budgetary measures and not mere rhetoric, on the

Part of the Government in general and the Department of Agriculture specifically is very crucial. Too much anticipation of foreign assistance is disastrous to any such programme. Planning for such a programme should be within the National budgetary framework with emphasis on the use of locally available resources.

Looking at the YFU particularly, the youngsters have been plagued with lack of access to factors of production like land, credit, inputs and basic farm information and the programme has lacked publicity. The programme has no doubt made its contributions to development but in the absence of elaborate evaluation exercises, which characterise many other extension programmes as well, it is difficult to quantify this contribution.

Moreover the over centralised nature of Extension administration has tended to inhibit free flow of information and has motivated Extension Agents more towards the administrators than to the client, for their own job security.

Critical realism plus feedback within the extension organization and the organization in its dealings with client is very important. The adult farmers, especially the 'progressive' ones have tended to completely overshadow the young farmers, leading to even denial of inputs to the youngsters as we saw above.

Staff need to be motivated through promotions and recognition plus further training to boost their performance. Officer dealing with youths do not have specialised training on youth work. This they badly need. Transport is badly needed to enhance the operation of the Extension Agents to promote

their coverage of the client. Most important is Government dedication and recognition and support to the programme.

The YFU Programme needs more staff. According to UNICEF (1978) the headquarter staff should at the least be expanded to include two Senior Agricultural Officers, one in charge of administration and the other in charge of training. Also there should be a Programme Co-ordinator at the Regional level and Field Officers at the District level should preferably be graduates.

A most fundamental weakness of agricultural administration and extension in Uganda, according to Joy (1969) is the lack of the desirable element of discretion which should be given to the office concerned. Often an officer is given office but with very limited discretion. This is the result of the over-centralisation we mentioned above. For effective implementation of the YFU for example, the National Officer should have control over the programme's budget among other decisions for timely execution of programmes.

There is urgent need to rehabilitate the Research Division as research is the 'feeder' of the agricultural infrastructure. Farm-level research should replace research which does not relate to the farmers' needs. Emphasis should be both on export crops and food crops so that both small farmers including young farmers, and the progressive adult farmers' problems, are taken care of. There is need for Liaison Officers for Extension and Research. Currently the post exists but is not filled.

The programme currently needs re-publication. The

Information and visual aids centre, if re-activated should circulate more print media about the YFU. YFU should be given 'air time' with Radio Uganda. More use of volunteer leaders, more Achievement Days and the associated incentive schemes should be taken seriously. The National Agricultural Show which used to exist till 1978 needs to be re-instated as an opportunity for publicity not only for young farmers but all other farmers.

The dissertation has stressed that more co-ordination among all sister programmes in the Department of Agriculture and the YFU with other youth programmes world wide is important; programmes striving to achieve objectives individually have limited chance of success. But extension staff should as much as possible try to concentrate on their extension role and avoid extra duties as this will dilute their efforts in extension. Quasi-governmental organisations, non-governmental organisations and voluntary organisations, alike can boost the performance of the YFU; in fact YFU needs a multiple-sponsorship approach if it is to succeed.

Finally the dissertation has emphasised the need for the YFU and other extension programmes in the Department of Agriculture to constantly evaluate and modify their objectives and strategies according to the changing demands.

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APPENDIX I

POPULATION SET-UP

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION IN MAJOR CITIES/MUNIC/TOWNS

URBAN CENTRE	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Accra City	232,215	226,288	458,503
Accra M.C.	24,196	20,864	45,060
Asaba Town	14,144	14,979	29,133
Bale M.C.	13,271	14,768	28,039
Bonai Town	12,786	14,020	26,806
Barara Town	11,391	11,864	23,255
Bebebe Town	10,744	10,545	21,289
Bale Town	10,366	11,03	21,469
Bororo Town	8,177	8,530	16,707
Broti Town	7,237	7,811	15,048
Bulu Town	7,092	7,866	14,958
Bwanga Town	4,534	5,365	9,899
Besese Town	5,096	4,821	9,917
Bua Town	4,759	715	5,474
Bira Town	4,505	4,617	9,122
Boroto Town	3,877	4,252	8,129
Boma Town	3,196	3,722	6,923
Bubende Town	4,008	2,621	6,629
Bukono Town	2,721	3,062	5,783
Bitung Town	2,459	2,502	4,961
Basindi Town	3,401	1,557	4,958
Bisai Town	2,227	2,350	4,577
Bomero Town	1,878	2,312	4,190
Batuli Town	1,765	2,138	3,903
Bebbi Town	1,593	1,983	3,576
Boyo Town	1,524	1,712	3,236
Botido Town	1,430	1,720	3,200
Bardiburyo Town	1,059	1,272	2,331
Bachenyi Town	1,043	1,073	2,116
Buni Town	780	853	1,633
Bapchorwa Town	767	746	1,513
Bakumiri Town	808	842	1,650

B: TOTAL POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY DISTRICTS

DISTRICT	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Apao	154,666	158,667	313,333
Arua	226,809	245,474	472,283
Bundibugyo	56,576	55,640	112,216
Bushenyi	250,430	274,239	524,669
Gulu	131,349	138,736	270,085
Hoima	148,577	145,724	294,301
Iganga	315,950	327,931	643,881
Jinja	118,009	110,511	228,520
Kabale	212,239	243,182	455,421
Kabarole	259,083	260,738	519,821
Kampala	242,959	286,833	479,792
Kamuli	173,224	176,325	349,549
Kapchorwa	37,851	36,116	73,967
Kasese	142,177	135,520	277,697
Kitgum	150,301	158,410	308,711
Kotido	17,718	83,727	161,445
Kumi	114,295	125,244	239,539
Lira	183,067	187,185	370,252
Luwero	209,562	202,912	412,474
Masaka	318,115	313,041	631,156
Masindi	115,050	108,180	223,230
Mbale	277,875	279,066	556,941
Mbarara	337,643	350,510	688,153
Moroto	89,178	99,463	188,641
Moyo	52,541	53,951	106,492
Mpigi	325,202	314,717	639,918
Mubende	267,421	242,839	510,260
Mukono	324,406	309,869	634,275
Nebbi	111,557	121,443	233,000
Rakai	136,236	138,322	274,558
Rukunriri	142,976	153,583	296,559
Soroti	231,302	245,327	476,629
Tororo	325,493	342,917	668,410
GRAND TOTAL	6,259,837	6,376,342	12,636,179

C. TOTAL POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY AGE

AGE	1969		
	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
00 - 09	1,644,621	1,663,188	3,307,809
10 - 19	939,693	938,002	1,927,695
20 - 24	334,304	378,162	712,466
25 - 34	650,158	673,806	1,323,964
35 - 49	629,010	581,511	1,210,521
50 - 64	347,004	317,820	664,824
65 and over	205,907	159,558	365,465
TOTAL	4,800,697	4,712,047	9,512,774

NOTES: These figures exclude a total of 5863 males and 6672 females whose ages weren't stated.

Source: Ministry of Planning and Economic Development, Statistics Division, Entebbe, Uganda.

Based on 1969 census. Breakdown for the 1980 census figures was not ready.

APPENDIX II

ZONE/DISTRICT	OFFICER RANK AND SALARY SCALE														AA (U7)
	SAO (U2)	AO (U3)	AO (U3-3)	PAO (U3)	SAO (U4)	AO (U5)	SAO (U6)	AO (U5)	SAO (U6)	SAO (U6)	SAO (U6)	SAO (U6)	SAO (U6)	SAO (U6)	AA (U7)
1. Jinja Zonal Office (i) Jinja District (ii) Iganga District (iii) Kamuli District (iv) Tororo District	-	1	7	-	-	3	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	2	1	-	8	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
	-	-	7	-	-	10	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20
	-	-	2	1	3	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
	-	-	12	-	7	29	19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49
2. Mule Zonal Office (i) Mule District (ii) Kapchoronia District	-	-	2	1	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	3	-	2	29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
	-	-	2	1	2	4	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15
3. Soroti Zonal Office (i) Soroti District (ii) Rumi District	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	4	-	10	52	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	63
	-	-	6	1	3	8	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26
4. Moroto Zonal Office (i) Moroto District (ii) Torito District	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	3	-	1	8	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
	-	-	2	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
	-	-	4	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
5. Gulu Zonal Office (i) Gulu District (ii) Lira District (iii) Matany District (iv) Gulu District	-	1	4	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
	-	-	9	-	-	15	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17
	-	-	3	-	5	39	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27
	-	-	4	-	1	10	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28
	-	-	3	-	1	14	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23
6. Arua Zonal Office (i) Arua District (ii) Moyo District (iii) Nebbi District	-	1	2	-	3	6	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	47
	-	-	3	-	4	18	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	43
	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
	-	-	3	-	1	6	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20

[illegible]

STAFF DEPLOYMENT - RESEARCH

RESEARCH STATION	PRINCIPAL RES. OFFICERS	SENIOR RES. OFFICER	INTERMEDIATE OFFICER	AGRIC. OFFICER	HIGH RICH	SAC	LAO	AM	PA	SA	AA	CHIEF LAB.	LAB. TECH	LAB. ASST.	Computer ASST.
Kamanda	3	1	44	3	1	1	9	3	4	5	19	1	4	6	1
Kamulonge	2	1	23	-	-	-	7	2	-	1	15	-	2	19	1
Serere	1	1	20	2	-	3	14	-	2	3	37	-	3	13	1
Total	6	3	87	10	0	4	30	5	6	9	71	1	9	38	3

STAFF DEPLOYMENT - OTHER INSTITUTIONS

INSTITUTIONS/ OFFICER	ACA	SAO	SAE	AE	ME	EE	AO	PAO	SALO	UFO	FO	ENR	AM	LJO	PAA	SAA	AA
Agricultural Mechanisation	1	-	1	5	4	-	-	-	-	1	1	3	25	30	-	-	-
Farm Planning Services	-	1	-	-	-	-	12	-	3	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	12
Bekalana Agric. College	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	1	7	-	-	-
Buchitara Agric. College	-	1	-	2	3	2	5	-	-	-	-	-	7	1	-	-	-
Arupai Agric. College	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	4
Farms and Schemes	-	3	-	-	-	-	38	-	7	-	-	-	17	49	1	1	49
Headquarters	13	4	-	-	-	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-
Total	14	9	1	7	6	2	79	2	10	1	1	3	52	73	1	1	65

ACA = Assistant Commissioner for Agriculture
 SAO = Senior Agricultural Officer
 SAE = Senior Agricultural Engineer
 AE = Agricultural Engineer
 ME = Mechanical Engineer
 EE = Executive Engineer
 AO = Agricultural Officer

PAAO = Principal Assistant Agricultural Officer
 SAAO = Senior Assistant Agricultural Officer
 SFO = Senior Foreman
 FO = Foreman
 SAM = Senior Agricultural Mechanic
 AAM = Assistant Agricultural Mechanic
 AAO = Assistant Agricultural Officer
 PAA = Principal Agricultural Assistant
 SAA = Senior Agricultural Assistant
 AA = Agricultural Assistant

STAFF DEPLOYMENT - DISTRICT FARM INSTITUTES

District Farm Institutes	No. of Agric. Officers (AO)	No. of S/ Assist. Agric. Officers	No. of A/ Agric. Officers	No. of Agric. Assistants
1. Abi	-	-	4	1
2. Amucu	-	1	3	-
3. Bulogani	-	1	2	-
4. Bulindi	1	1	1	2
5. Bushenyi	1	-	3	2
6. Ikulwe	1	-	3	1
7. Kachwekano	1	-	1	3
8. Kamenyamigo	1	-	3	1
9. Kitgum	-	-	2	1
10. Kyembogo	-	1	3	1
11. Mityama	1	-	4	-
12. Mukono	-	-	5	3
13. Ngotta	-	1	1	2
14. Teco	-	1	2	3
15. Tororo	1	-	3	1
TOTAL	7	6	40	21

Source: Department of Agriculture, 1982, Entebbe, Uganda.

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Year	Enrolment	Membership	Total
1950	100	100	200
1951	150	150	300
1952	200	200	400
1953	250	250	500
1954	300	300	600
1955	350	350	700
1956	400	400	800
1957	450	450	900
1958	500	500	1000
1959	550	550	1100
1960	600	600	1200
1961	650	650	1300
1962	700	700	1400
1963	750	750	1500
1964	800	800	1600
1965	850	850	1700
1966	900	900	1800
1967	950	950	1900
1968	1000	1000	2000
1969	1050	1050	2100
1970	1100	1100	2200
1971	1150	1150	2300
1972	1200	1200	2400
1973	1250	1250	2500
1974	1300	1300	2600
1975	1350	1350	2700
1976	1400	1400	2800
1977	1450	1450	2900
1978	1500	1500	3000
1979	1550	1550	3100
1980	1600	1600	3200
1981	1650	1650	3300
1982	1700	1700	3400
1983	1750	1750	3500
1984	1800	1800	3600
1985	1850	1850	3700
1986	1900	1900	3800
1987	1950	1950	3900
1988	2000	2000	4000
1989	2050	2050	4100
1990	2100	2100	4200
1991	2150	2150	4300
1992	2200	2200	4400
1993	2250	2250	4500
1994	2300	2300	4600
1995	2350	2350	4700
1996	2400	2400	4800
1997	2450	2450	4900
1998	2500	2500	5000
1999	2550	2550	5100
2000	2600	2600	5200
2001	2650	2650	5300
2002	2700	2700	5400
2003	2750	2750	5500
2004	2800	2800	5600
2005	2850	2850	5700
2006	2900	2900	5800
2007	2950	2950	5900
2008	3000	3000	6000
2009	3050	3050	6100
2010	3100	3100	6200
2011	3150	3150	6300
2012	3200	3200	6400
2013	3250	3250	6500
2014	3300	3300	6600
2015	3350	3350	6700
2016	3400	3400	6800
2017	3450	3450	6900
2018	3500	3500	7000
2019	3550	3550	7100
2020	3600	3600	7200
2021	3650	3650	7300
2022	3700	3700	7400
2023	3750	3750	7500
2024	3800	3800	7600
2025	3850	3850	7700
2026	3900	3900	7800
2027	3950	3950	7900
2028	4000	4000	8000
2029	4050	4050	8100
2030	4100	4100	8200
2031	4150	4150	8300
2032	4200	4200	8400
2033	4250	4250	8500
2034	4300	4300	8600
2035	4350	4350	8700
2036	4400	4400	8800
2037	4450	4450	8900
2038	4500	4500	9000
2039	4550	4550	9100
2040	4600	4600	9200
2041	4650	4650	9300
2042	4700	4700	9400
2043	4750	4750	9500
2044	4800	4800	9600
2045	4850	4850	9700
2046	4900	4900	9800
2047	4950	4950	9900
2048	5000	5000	10000
2049	5050	5050	10100
2050	5100	5100	10200

APPENDIX III

YFU MEMBERSHIP CUMULATIVE ENROLMENT

Period	Society	Membership	V. Leaders
1964	14	333	-
1965	160	4,710	-
1966	270	7,575	105
1967	528	17,886	1080
1968	765	23,864	1660
1969	994	33,718	2448
1970	1203	42,577	2916
1971	1639	59,312	3887
1972	1946	71,794	4689
1973	2173	83,144	5374
1974	2361	91,910	5779
1975	2584	101,525	6435
1976	2688	104,313	6410
1977	2727	103,775	6539
1978	2992	109,689	6922
1979	2986	105,484	6868
1980	2535	96,568	6198
1981	2538	97,701	6578
1982	2140	96,510	6200
1983	2008	95,160	5911
1984	-	-	-

APPENDIX IV

QUESTIONNAIRE

APPLIED NUTRITION AND YOUNG FARMERS' COOPERATIVE ACTIVITIES PROJECT

STAFF QUESTIONNAIRE 1978

As you may already be aware, the Department of Agriculture and UNICEF, are trying to assess the progress of YFACS this year. This assessment can only be meaningful and useful if the staff involved in the running of the programme are involved. This questionnaire is intended to help you to participate in this assessment exercise. Your responses are going to be treated with the utmost seriousness of purpose and great confidentiality. Don't write your name on this questionnaire. Please follow the instructions carefully.

- 1.1 How old are you?
- 1.2 What is your sex? Male Female
- 1.3 In which District were you born?
- 1.4. What is your native language?
- 1.5 What is the district you work in?
- 1.6 What is your title?
- 1.7 What is your area of work? (Please tick)
 - a. Full District
 - b. More than one county
 - c. One county
 - d. More than one sub-county
 - e. One sub-county
 - f. Less than a sub-county
- 1.8 How long have you been working in the Department of Agriculture?
.....
- 1.9 How long have you been working in the Young Farmers of Uganda Section?
.....
- 1.10 How long have you worked with the Applied Nutrition and Young Farmers Cooperative Activities Project?
- 1.11 What formal school education did you attain (i.e. PVI, Senior II etc)?
.....
- 1.12 Which of the following professional training have you received?
 - a. University Degree in Agric. or Home Economics
 - b. Agricultural College up to Diploma level
 - c. Agricultural college up to Certificate Level
 - d. Farm School (Certificate in Tropical Agriculture)
 - e. On job training only
 - f. None of the above

2.3 have you attended any Special training course in Applied Nutrition and YFACSS activities?

Yes No

(If Yes, then answer questions 2.4, 2.5, 2.6, 2.7, 2.8; If No, then go straight to question 2.9)

2.4. How many times? and when was the last time you attended such a course?

2.5 Would you say that training was

- a. Adequate
- b. Less than adequate
- c. More than adequate

2.6 What were the strong points of the training?
.....
.....

2.7 What were the weak points?
.....
.....

2.8 To what extent did the training help to increase your efficiency?
a. A great deal
b. A little bit
c. Nothing
(Now go to question 3.3)

2.9 (For those who have not received any special training in Applied Nutrition and YFACS)
Why have you not received this training?
.....
.....

3.0 Where do you get the knowledge and skills which help you to carry out your duties in the Applied Nutrition and YFACS projects?
a. Common Knowledge
b. General Education from schools and colleges
c. Copying from other extension staff

3.1 Do you feel that it is necessary for you to get this special training?
Yes No

3.2 Do you think that those extension staff who have received special training for the Applied Nutrition and YFACS projects are any better than you in carrying out their job?
Yes No

3.3 Tick against any of the following groups of people that you have conducted training courses for in Applied Nutrition and YFACS activities:

- a. Extension Staff
- b. Volunteer Leaders
- c. Chiefs
- d. YFACS members
- e. Adult Farmers
- f. Other Government Officers
- g. None of the above
(If your answer is g. then go to question 3.5)

3.4 At what places did you organise these courses?

- a. At DFI
- b. Community Centre
- c. Agricultural Office
- d. County office
- e. Sub-county office
- f. Local chief's home
- g. Local Primary School
- h. Others (Specify)

3.5 Did you conduct the course/s alone or with other staff people?

- a. Alone
- b. With other staff people

3.6 (If with other staff people) what departments of Governments did they come from and what speciality?

<u>Department</u>	<u>Speciality</u>
.....	
.....	
.....	

3.7 What other sections of the Department of Agriculture have you worked in?

.....

3.8 In the plan of operation it is stated that YFACS clubs that fail to do well should be dropped. Have you any clubs in your area of work that have been dropped due to failure within the period 1975-77?

Yes No

If yes, How many clubs have been dropped?

What led to their failure?

.....

3.9 Have any YFACS clubs experienced any drop outs of their members?

Yes No

If Yes, which of the following reasons contributed to this drop out?

- a. Persistent crop failure for many seasons
- b. Lack of incentives
- c. Lack of effective guidance from Volunteer Leaders
- d. Inadequate supplies of inputs
- e. Lack of parental support
- f. Change of schools
- g. To escape loan repayment
- h. Lack of recreational activities
- i. Conflict with club officers
- j. Marketing difficulties
- k. They felt that they were getting much less from the programme than they expected
- l. Lack of effective guidance from extension field staff

4.0 List the quantities of seeds, chemicals, hoes and pumps received from the Department of Agriculture for YFACS in your area of work during 1975-76.

Seeds:

.....

Chemicals:

.....

Hoes:

Pumps:

How timely were these inputs delivered to your area of work?

	Long before needed	At the right time	Very late
Seeds			
Chemicals			
Hoes			
Pumps			

4.1 To what extent have your YFACS members in your area of work experienced difficulties with the quality of seeds they received?

- a. A great deal
- b. A little bit

c. Not at all

4.2 (For Field Officers only) What difficulties have you experienced in buying inputs locally?

4.3. (For those who received motor-cycles) Where do you usually get the motor-cycle repaired and serviced?

At the Department of Agriculture Workshop

Private Mechanic

Ministry of Works Workshop

By Yourself

Where do you purchase the spare parts?

.....

What suggestions would you make to improve on the repair and servicing of the motor-cycle?

.....

.....

4.4 (For Field Officers only) How often do you requisition for transport from Entebbe?

Once a month

Once in every three months

Once in 6 months

Once in a Year

Never

When you requisition for transport how often do you get it?

Always

Sometimes

Very rarely

Never

If you get the transport does it arrive on time?

Always on time

Sometimes on time

Never on time

When you requisition for transport and get it from Entebbe, how long do you keep it?

a. As long as the time requested for

b. Sometimes less than the time requested for

c. Always less than the time requested for

If you are not able to use the vehicle for the whole period of time requested for; why?

- a. It is recalled before the job is finished
- b. It breaks down
- c. It is grabbed by my bosses in the field

4.5 In your area of work list the five most popular crops grown by YFACS members?

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

4.6 For each of the above crops estimate the percentage quantities consumed at home and percentage quantities sold?

<u>Crop</u>	<u>% Consumed at Home</u>	<u>% Sold</u>
a.		
b.		
c.		
d.		
e.		

4.7 What other things do YFACS members do?

.....
.....

4.8 How much of a problem are the following for the YFACS members in your area of work?

	<u>A big Problem</u>	<u>Slight Problem</u>	<u>No Problem</u>
Land			
Capital			
Labour			
Markets			
Storage facilities			
Seed preservation for planting			
Shortage of Volunteer Leaders			
Lack of members			
Poor Husbandry			

4.9 Are there any group projects for YFACS members in your area of work?

Yes No

If Yes, describe these projects as fully as possible. ..

.....

.....

.....

.....

5.0 What problems face such group projects?

.....

.....

.....

5.1 What percentage of your YFACS members participate in at least one group project?%

5.2 Where your YFACS members have received seeds, and chemicals on time, have they always planted their crops on time?

a. Always on time

b. Sometimes on time

c. Never on time

5.3 Where they have not planted on time, what are the reasons?

a. Bad weather

b. Land not opened on time

c. Lack of time

d. Other Social problems

5.4 In your area of work, which of the following are common factors limiting the yields of YFAES crop projects?

a. Untimely planting

b. Poor Land preparation

c. Soil fertility

d. Bad husbandry

e. Weather

f. Poor seeds

g. Pests and diseases

h. Poor extension personnel

Which three of these are most serious in your area of work?

.....

.....

5.5 In the last two years, how important have the following factors affected the marketing of YFACS products:

	<u>Very Serious</u>	<u>Somewhat</u> <u>Important</u>	<u>Not a Problem</u>
a. Lack of demand			
b. Transport			
c. Competition from			
Adult producers			
d. Domestic Food Requirements			
e. Ineffecient coop. societies			
f. Lack of knowledge about markets			
g. Unpredictable prices			
h. Poor quality of produce			
i. *Magendo exploiters			

*Magendo is a local word for "illicit trade".

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