

**CHANGING FOOD HABIT AND PERCEIVED HEALTH-RELATED
QUALITY OF LIFE AMONG ADULTS IN OYO STATE, NIGERIA**

BY

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**A Thesis in the Department of Human Nutrition,
Submitted to the Faculty of Public Health,
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of**

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
of the
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN**

SEPTEMBER 2018

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out by Akinrinade, Grace Oyeladun in the Department of Human Nutrition, Faculty of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan; under my supervision.

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ABSTRACT

Studies have revealed culture, climate and economy as drivers of eating habits and patterns among people and groups, while changing food culture and habits influence nutritional status of all age groups. The burden of food-related morbidity and mortality due to unhealthy diet has become public health concern in recent times. The implications of distorted eating behaviour and changing food habit on nutritional status and Perceived Health-related Quality of Life (PHQoL) of adults in Oyo State is unclear. This study was carried out to investigate changing food habits, eating behaviour, and PHQoL of adults in Oyo State, Nigeria.

This descriptive cross-sectional study used a mixed method approach. One Local Government Area (LGA) per senatorial district and two wards (one rural, one urban) per LGA were selected using simple random sampling and 589 household heads aged 50 – 70 years were selected using systematic random sampling. Twelve Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were conducted using FGD guide to explore earlier food culture. A semi-structured, interviewer-administered questionnaire was used to collect information on socio-demographic and anthropometric characteristics, food habits, eating behaviour, 24-hour dietary recall and PHQoL. Energy and nutrients intake were determined using adapted total dietary assessment software. Adequacy of dietary intake was categorised as inadequate (<80%), adequate (80-120%) and excess (>120%). Body weight and height were measured and Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated and categorised using WHO standards. Qualitative data were analysed thematically. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics, Pearson product moment correlation and Multiple regression at $\alpha_{0.05}$.

Respondents were majorly rural dwellers (56.4%), farmers (50.2%) and mean age was 62.3 ± 14.6 years. All respondents reported changes in food habit from pap, maize porridge, *amala*, pounded yam, beans and bean cake to *indomie*, *spaghetti*, *semovita* and wheat, with less consumption of fruits. Poor land fertility (69.7%), changes in

food processing method (77.4%), time factor (72.4 %) and absence of wildy grown indigenous vegetables (73.0%) were reported as some of the causes for changing food pattern. Those with bad eating behavior constituted 58.1%. Respondents believed that changing food habits could lead to decreased life expectancy (77.0%), increased prevalence of non-communicable diseases (74.5%) and frequent illness (75.3%). There was significant difference in nutrient intake pattern of energy, protein, fat, vitamin A, calcium, zinc and iron between rural and urban respondents. Energy, protein, vitamin A, calcium, phosphorus and zinc intake were 1839.0±647.0kcal, 62.3±34.4g, 24302.8±14884.3IU, 165.0±140.7mg, 279.3±248.7mg and 11.0±5.9mg respectively. Prevalence of underweight, overweight and obesity was 13.4%, 19.2% and 10.7% respectively. Energy ($r=0.17$), protein ($r=0.12$) and zinc ($R=0.20$) intake had positive significant correlations with PHQoL.

Transition from indigenous to westernised food habits and bad eating behaviour is high among adults in Oyo State. Burden of overweight and obesity (29.9%) and dietary intake are positively correlated with perceived health-related quality of life. Promotion of healthy eating habits and life styles is needed among the respondents.

Keywords: Food habits, Food culture, Health-related quality of life.

Word count: 496

DEDICATION

Oh Lord my God, to you, firstly, is this work dedicated. For “by your great hands” you lead my journey of life and knowledge.

“By your faithfulness” I am an achiever of your purpose and destiny. To you only be all the glory, honour, adoration, power and majesty, forever, and ever, Amen.

Secondly, this project is dedicated in a special way to my husband, my better half who by God’s grace gave me the privilege to undergo this study. And to my children, grandchildren, brothers and sisters, family members on both sides, my in-laws, my colleagues in Home Economics Department, School of Vocational and Technical Education, Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

With a heart full of gratitude, I hereby appreciate the Department of Human Nutrition, University of Ibadan for the great privilege and opportunity given to me that enabled me to undergo the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and for providing both human and material resources needed for the successful completion of this study. I promise to remain a good ambassador of my Alma-mata

I appreciate my supervisor, Dr. O. T. Adepoju for his advice, support, corrections, and encouragement towards the successful completion of this study. I sincerely appreciate his constructive and helpful suggestions given during the course of this study. I cherish his sincerity, accessibility, willingness, love and interest in this study. May the Lord God bless you, grant your heart desires and make you to enjoy good health and long life.

I will ever remain grateful to late Prof. I. O. Akinyele (of blessed memory) who was the Head of Department at the commencement of this study and my M.Sc. thesis supervisor. As a result of his interest in my progress, he handed me over to Dr. Adepoju as my supervisor, May his soul rest in peace.

My profound gratitude goes to the Head of Department of Human Nutrition, Dr. O.T. Adepoju, for his support and encouragement towards the successful completion of this study. May the Lord continue to make you relevant in your academic career throughout your life.

My sincere gratitude also goes to Dr. R. A. Sanusi for his sincerity, easy disposition and constructive contribution to this work. I am highly grateful to him. My special thanks goes to Dr. Mrs. Grace Fadupin for her healthful contributions and corrections to the research work. May God continue to strengthen you and grant you good health throughout your life time.

I am also grateful to Dr. Ariyo for his humility and readiness to help, and to all other lecturers whose names are not mentioned here, and to all technocrats in the Department of Human Nutrition for their friendliness and all efforts they have made to the success of this study. God bless you all. My gratitude also goes to all

administrative staff in the Department of Human Nutrition for their support and assistance throughout the course of study. I say thank you all.

My deep and sincere appreciation also goes to Dr. Mathew Akpa of the Department of Epidemiology and Medical Statistics. A very humble, God fearing, and dedicated man who designed the method for this study and also analysed the data. Worthy of recognition also are Messers Samson Olorunju, Oludare Odewenwa, Bolaji Oladeji, and Paul Olaoye for their efforts in putting the statistical analysis and report together. And to Dr. Theo Ajobiwe, I say a big thank you for all the support accorded me for the success of this work. God bless you sir.

My special thanks goes to the Research Assistant group which include Akinkunmi, Victoria Ojo (RIP), Sunday Oladiran, Igbagboyemi Deniran, Jide Bamigbade and Ayo for their great contribution to the success of collection of data from the respondents at the rural and urban levels of all the local governments.

Worthy of appreciation also is Chief and Chief Mrs Adeseun Peluola, the Chief Jagun of Anko Eruwa, a good leader by example and a good representative of MBC Club, for hosting the researcher and her assistants in their home for two weeks. I also appreciate all MBC members for their constant admonition and encouragement throughout the course of this study. Most importantly, I recognize the contributions of Chief Jide Ogunkanmi, Chief Mrs Bisi Ogunkanmi (of blessed memory), Mr.& Mrs Sayo Oyerinde, Mr& Mrs Bayo Adeyemo, Mr&Mrs Funsho Fatokun, etc. The whole of MBC have made this success to God be the glory.

I hereby recognize the efforts of LGA group leaders as follows: Folake Oke, Idowu Toyin, Chief Ojedepo Olaniyi, and Ibrahim, all from Ibarapa LGA. Mr. Biyi Awojobi, Segun Adedokun, Mrs. Taiwo, Sulaimon Ganiyu, Adenrele Funmilayo from Iwajowa, LGA and Mr. Yemi Afolabi, Mr. Abiola and Mr. Aderibigbe Tajudeen from Atiba LGA.

I will always remain grateful to my husband and children for their support and encouragement both financially and spiritually. And finally unto God eternal, immortal, invisible, the only wise God, be honoured and glorified forever and ever Amen.

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ACRONYM

BMI - Body Mass Index
BP – Body Pain
CDE - Chronic Energy Deficiency
FGDs – Focus Group Discussion
GH – General Health
HRQL – Health Related Quality of Life
LGAs – Local Government Areas
MEH – Mental Health
MH - Mental Health
PF – Physical Function
PHCN – Power Holding Corporation of Nigeria
PHH – Physical Health
PHQL – Perceived Health Related Quality of Life
RE – Role Emotion
RH – Reported Health
RP – Role Play
SF – Social Function
SPSS – Statistics Package for Social Science
TDA – Total Dietary Assessment
VT – Vitality

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The concept of culture is broader than race or ethnicity; it encompasses language, communication styles, social values, and religious behaviours. Culture shapes how people view the world, their attitudes about health and their food preferences (Boyle, 2003). The conceptualization of culture is by no means a simple matter. One possible way to think about it is that "culture is to society what memory is to individual". It includes what worked in the experience of society so that it was worth transmitting to future generations (Henry & Eunkook, 2002). Cultural cuisines reflect the geography, climate, and history of the location where a culture developed.

Within each culture (and within different regions where the culture is dispersed) people may prefer certain foods, food preparation methods, and food complications for meals and snacks. The diversity within a culture is as important as diversity between cultures. People from the same culture or ethnic group tend to have had some similar experiences. Within each group, however, individuals may vary in terms of income, social class, religion, age, education, geographic origin, and the length of time that they have lived in a particular place (Boyle, 2003).

All people at all times have had folkways and mores and institutional forms which served to pass on their culture to adults as well as children and youth. The changing patterns of social

and economic life are in constant interplay with adult food culture and habits (Mishra, 2005). Certain relatively recent changes such as increased facilities of communication and transportation, intensified urbanization, increasing proportions of older age groups in the population, growing increment of leisure for working people in industrial countries, widened

activities for women, technological changes in industry and business, and changes in food culture and habits of many people all over the world are significantly occurring (Tull, 1996). Diet and attitude to food have changed markedly in recent years in the United Kingdom (UK) and will continue to do so. Demand for a better quality of food has risen, and people aspire to eat both more healthily and to buy food that has a reduced impact on the environment. But consumers also want affordability and food that fits their lifestyles as demonstrated by the demand for convenience and by people eating outside of the home more often (Cabinet office 2008).

The belief that food habits seldom or never change, and are difficult to change is not true because in many countries the current staple foods are not the same as those eaten even a century ago. Therefore, food habits and custom do change, and they are influenced in many different ways (Human Nutrition in Developing World, 2013). Food culture is incredibly malleable. It changes very much, very quickly and we're going through a period of immense change again. People around the world are changing their diets because of soaring food prices, and fast-changing diets are for the worst for many people. A huge number of people especially in the world's poorest countries are cutting back on the quantity or quality of the food they eat because of rising food prices.

The findings of the Survey in the United States on World changing eating habits as food prices soar by Thompson, Mick CNN (2011) showed that 39% globally put blame on rising food cost and another 33% cited health reasons for their changing eating habits, while 54% of the people were not eating the same kind of food as they did two years ago. This study also showed the effect of globalization on the world diet, with both pasta and pizza ranking among the top three favorite foods in many countries. Food preferences are made as a result of the adjustments that are generated by social and economic changes that take place throughout society. The issue here is often not what foods are eaten, but rather how much of each food is eaten and how the

consumption is distributed within the society or within the family (HNDW, 2013). Social factors and cultural practices in most countries of the world have a very great influence on what people eat, how they prepare food, their feeding practices and the food they prefer.

Cultural food practices are very rarely the major or even an important cause of malnutrition.

On the contrary, many practices are designed to promote and protect health. A good example is seen in the provision of rich energy-dense food for women during the first month following childbirth. However, it is true that some traditional food practices and taboos in some societies may contribute to nutrient deficiencies among particular groups of the population. Therefore, Nutritionists need to have a good knowledge of food habits and practices of the communities in which they work so that they can help to reinforce the positive habits as well as strive to change any negative ones (FLS, 2013).

The traditional diets of most societies in developing countries are good. Usually, only minor changes are needed to enable them to satisfy the nutrient requirements of all members of the family, although the quantity of food eaten is a more common problem than the quality (Marvyn undated). Nigerians' food pattern is based on three main meals as it obtains in many other African countries. Food intake in Oyo State as in many other parts of Nigeria is also based on three main meals daily. The meals are composed of cereals, or roots/tubers, with sauce from green leaves, oil and meat/fish depending on the economic situation of the household. In rural areas, people eat the same type of dishes based on traditional staple foods, whereas the urban population incorporates more modern foods into their diet. In urban areas in Nigeria, as in other countries in Africa, a lot of food is consumed outdoors, mostly on the streets, which is not the case in rural areas. Foods sold on the streets by vendor

s
is mostly composed of juice and fried foods. Nutritional inadequacies influence not only the adult's health but also the risk for major chronic diseases in adulthood (Leonie, Christopher, Urban and Lena, 2005).

Around the world, more traditional meals and recipes are yielding to soft drinks, sodas, burgers, and other highly processed and standardized items. Many fast foods are fried and are high in fat and salt, but low in fiber, vitamins, and some minerals. The high level of consumption of fast food is funding a global epidemic that may lead to obesity and other chronic illnesses. A study titled "Man's changing food culture" (2010), observed that the eating of fast food has become a significant part of not only the younger generation's diet but also of the adults' diet in the United States, and increasingly throughout the world. However, the nutritional value of these products is being questioned, and studies indicate that consumption of some of these foods may be related to an increased health risk, especially in adults of different categories; hence, the consumption of fast food may be equated with bad eating habits.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The end of second world war revealed significant changes in food consumption pattern, from eating fresh foods in a season which can be prepared at home to having a wide variety of foods available all the year from around the world (Albon & Mukharji, 2008). Consequently, it is often not very easy to maintain a good eating pattern in this modern fast world, where many meals are eaten away from home; neither is it easy to stick to a health and varied diet because many individuals find it easy to pick up dough-nut or meat pie at lunch time than to make a decent lunch to take to work every day. This often leads to bad eating habits, junk diet and nutritional problems (Lisa, 2002). It has been estimated that in a western diet, an average person consumes approximately 4.5 kilograms of junk chemi

chemicals include colorants, preservatives, stabilizers, emulsifiers, antioxidant, anti-caking agents, fillers, flavour, and many other items found on food labels (Srilakshmi, 2008).

Affluence has given more people the opportunity to indulge in 'fast food' and sugar-rich 'Fizzy' drinks which are now a regular part of the diet. This, together with the lack of exercise has led to a rise in the number of adults and children who are overweight and obese (Lisa, 2002). Most recent experience of both adults and children is that of being at an increased risk of obesity which is a pointer to the fact that people are not good at choosing a healthy diet and maintaining correct body weight. Culture influences food habit by dictating what is acceptable to eat, the place of birth influences the food that a person will be exposed to and helps to shape the dietary pattern that is often followed for life (Brown 2008).

The population of matured adults is increasing, and an assessment of their nutritional status has been neglected over the years. According to the UN population projection, the global population aged 60 years or over, numbered 962 million in 2017, more than twice as large as in 1980 when there were 382 million older persons worldwide. The number of older persons is expected to double again by 2050 when it is projected to reach nearly 2.1 billion. However, two thirds of the world's older persons lived in the developing regions where their numbers are growing faster than in the developed regions.

In 2050, it is expected that nearly 8 in 10 of the world's older persons will be living in the developing regions (UN, 2017). The "eat well plate model" reflects findings that a Mediterranean type of diet protects against diet-related diseases such as diabetes and coronary heart disease. Consequently, it implies that eating a healthy diet, should allow the provision of vitamins needed to maintain health without resorting to supplementing (Albon & Mukherji, 2008; and Lashern *et al.*

, 2000). The adults and elderly nutritional status emerged as a problem in the twentieth century as a result of the increasing number of adults (individuals aged ≥ 65 years) and they present a challenge to those concerned with their physical and emotional well-being (Mattithias *et al.*, 2001).

1.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

Meeting the need of a growing and wealthier population of the mid-adults and matured-adults (age 40 years and above) is a great challenge that requires a consideration of the provision of adequate nutrition which is paramount in the maintenance of their functional capacity (WHO, 1989). There is such a huge quantity of nutrition information and misinformation in the marketplace that makes it very difficult to differentiate between what is fact or fiction (Lissa, 2002). In the light of this, Byers and Marshal (1995), Jervel (1995), Popkin (1998), Darnton, Niskida and James, (2004) and Nishida and Mucavele (2005) suggested that reports on the prevalence of diet-related non-communicable diseases in developed and developing countries need to be assessed, and that there is also the need to estimate the general public knowledge about food, nutrition, nutritional status, and health.

Therefore, it is important to assess the food culture and habits of adults to know their nutrient intake and nutritional status for appropriate nutritional intervention for the promotion of an active lifestyle and healthy living. Also, the burden of food-related ill health measured in terms of mortality and morbidity is similar to that attributed to smoking, and a majority of the burden is attributed to unhealthy diet rather than to foodborne diseases (Alborn & Mulkherji, 2008).

For adults to live long and healthy, meeting the nutritional needs of this group must be ensured (Oyewumi, 2009). Eating fresh fruits, drinking clean water, avoiding heavy metals, engaging in physical exercise, and

living a healthy and quality lifestyle is essential, hence, it is important to develop an information database specifically for early-adults (18-40 years), mid-adults (40-62 years), and old adults (62-85 years) for planning and solving socio-economic and nutritional problems of adults.

An International Food Information Council Survey opined that 93% percent of Americans believe that food can have health benefits besides their nutritive value and can delay the onset of aging or reduce the risk of serious and chronic diseases (Amy, 2008). Therefore, the principle to deal with the problem of bad eating habits, junk diets, nutrition problems, and making a healthy food choice, when eating away from home on a regular basis is the focus of this project. This situation, therefore, necessitates the acquisition of more knowledge in nutrition for designing adequate plans for food, health, and economic resources to meet the challenges of the future increase in the old adult population.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the food habits of adults in Oyo State, South West Nigeria?
- What are the relationships between socio-demographic, household characteristics, and food habits of adults in Oyo State, South West Nigeria?
- What are the relationships between socio-economic, household characteristics and nutritional status of adults in Oyo State, South West Nigeria?
- What is the level of malnutrition among adults in Oyo state, South West, Nigeria?
- What is the level of health-related quality of life of adults in Oyo State, South West Nigeria?
- What are the relationships between socio-demographic, household characteristics and health-related quality of life of adults in Oyo State, South West Nigeria?

1.5 OBJECTIVES

General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess food habits, nutritional status, and health-related quality of life of adults in Oyo State, South West Nigeria.

Specific Objectives

- The specific objectives of this study are to:
- Determine socio-demographic and socio-economic household characteristics that influence food habits and perceived quality of life of adults in Oyo State.
- Assess changes in food habits that influence nutritional status and Health Related Quality of Life of adults in Oyo State.
- Examine the relationships between socio-demographic and socio-economic household characteristics that influence the nutritional status and Health Related Quality of Life of adults in Oyo State.
- Determine the effect of changing food culture and habits on health-related quality of life of adults in Oyo State.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

There are many important issues to be studied in the nutrition of adults in Nigeria; however, for the purpose of this study, the following underlisted areas will be covered:

- Demographic characteristics of respondents
- Determination of changes in food culture and habits of the respondent
- Determination of nutrients adequacy (energy, protein, and minerals).
- Anthropometric measurement (using MUAC and Heights & weight).
- Body mass index/MUAC to determine nutritional status.
- Determination of nutritional vulnerability.

- Determination of some existing relationship between socioeconomic variables and nutritional status.

For the purpose of this study 'adult' is taken as people aged 18-85 years for both male and female (Center for productive longevity, 2013).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The concept of adulthood

Most people tend to think about 'adult' in terms of age, but no single age can define an adult within a society, let alone on a comparative basis; where legal and social liability comes into the act at different ages (CPL, 2013). Sometimes we think about adult in relation to voting, age, getting married, fighting for one's country, holding property, buying a drink or cigarettes, being sued, incurring sentences, obtaining credit, driving a vehicle, engaging in paid labour or attending various forms of entertainment all of which have age-related restrictions applied to them. Hence, we cannot say an individual becomes a full adult at any specific age. As a result, a wider range of concepts is invoked when we use the term 'adult'. The word can refer to a stage in the life cycle: each individual is first a child, then a youth, then an adult. It can refer to status, an acceptance by society that the person concerned has completed their novitiate and are (or should be) incorporated more fully into the community. It can refer to a social subset: or adults as distinct from children or it can include a set of ideas and values (Alan 2004)

2.1.1 Definition of 'adults'

The problem of defining an adult— and non-adult is so great that at times those bodies with the greatest experience of making such a definition gave up. Hence, UNESCO in 1976 determined that adult is both self-recognizing and recognized by others (Alan, 2004). Adulthood refers to a grown-up, mature in age, size, strength, etc of adult persons, a man or a woman who is fully grown-up or a person who has reached the age of maturity now generally 18 years (Webster New World College Dictionary). An adult, according to the American Heritage Dictionary of English Language is a fully grown,

mature organism that has completed its final stage of metamorphosis. Adulthood is the period in the human lifespan in which full physical and intellectual maturity has been attained. Adulthood is, therefore, commonly thought of as beginning at age 20–21 years. In every culture, there is a series of expectations about those who claim and are recognized as an adult, though this will vary from individual to individual and from culture to culture. Characteristics such as far-sightedness, self-control, established and acceptable values, security, experience, and autonomy are among the most common ones advanced, though not all of us would claim that to be adults, a person needs to possess all these traits.

However, Western humanist educators, Houle, and Carl Rogers, cited by Alan (2004) have developed three main elements that seem to lie within the construct of adulthood. They are maturity, perspective, and autonomy. These three elements are described below:

2.1.1.1

Maturity: Human maturity is not just a state (though the characteristics of maturity can be recognized in a person) but also an idea that should be aimed at rather than achieved in full. Nevertheless, it still includes the idea of the full development and utilization of all the individual talent and the process of moving toward ever greater maturity is one acknowledged as being associated with adulthood.

2.1.1.2

Perspectives: Adults are expected to behave with a greater sense of perspective especially in an occasion when such adults see themselves as being more important than they are seen by others; such perspectives that lead to a sound judgment about themselves and about others. Hence, adults are expected to have accumulated experiences that if drawn upon, will help them achieve a more balanced approach to life and to society, to be more developed in their thinking in relation to others.

2.1.1.3 Autonomy: This third element of adulthood means responsibility. One of the key concepts of being an adult and not being childish is that of being

responsible for oneself, one's deeds and development. One study defines people as 'adult' because they have assumed responsibility for managing their own lives. Therefore, to say someone is an adult is to say that he is entitled, for example, for a wide-range freedom of lifestyle and to a full participation in the making of social decisions and it is also to say that he is obliged, among other things, to be mindful of his own deepest interests and to carry a full share of the burdens involved in conducting society and transmitting its benefits. His adulthood consists of his full employment of such rights and his full subjection to such responsibilities (Alan, 2004).

2.1.2 The global perception of the term adulthood

In most parts of the world, including most of the United States, parts of the United Kingdom (England, Northern Ireland, Wales), India and China, the legal adult age is 18 years (historically 21 years) for most purposes, with some notable exceptions:

- Scotland (United Kingdom) and the Netherlands (16 years)
- British Columbia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador, Northwest Territories, Nova Scotia, Nunavut, Yukon Territory in Canada; Nebraska and Alabama in The United States, and South Korea (19 years)
- Indonesia and Japan (20 years) (Adult Wikipedia free Encyclopedia).

An event relating to the coming of adulthood is coming of age, which encompasses passing a series of tests to demonstrate that a person is prepared for adulthood, or reaching a specified age. Most modern societies determine legal adulthood based on reaching a legally specified age without requiring a demonstration of physical maturity or preparation for adulthood. However, it has been discovered that it becomes necessary to cope with one's own behaviour, especially in uncomfortable situations, and also the behaviour of others.

2.2 Determination of adulthood biologically, socially, historically and legally

According to Centre for Productive Longevity (2013), determinations of adulthood are often inconsistent and contradictory; a person may be biologically an adult, and have adult

behaviour but still be treated as a child if they are below the legal age of maturity. Conversely, one may legally be an adult but possess none of the maturity and responsibility that may define an adult character. Biologically, an adult is a human being or other organism that is of reproductive age (sexual maturity). In human context, the term adult additionally has meanings associated with social and legal concepts; for example, a legal adult is a legal concept for a person who has attained the age of maturity and is therefore regarded as independent, self-sufficient, and responsible. Biological adulthood generally, therefore, begins around 10 or 11 years of age for girls and 11 or 12 years of age for boys, though this will vary from person to person, because the term 'adult' is most often used without the adjectives social or biological, and since the term is frequently used to refer to social adults, some writers have taken the meaning of the two words phrase 'biological adult' to begin at the end of physical maturation rather than the onset of puberty.

Socially: Socially, adulthood splits into two forms after the social construct of adolescence was created. Thus, there are now two primary forms of adults: biological adults (people who have attained reproductive ability, are fertile, or who have evidence of secondary sex characteristics) and social adults (people who are recognized by their culture and/or law as being adults) (CPL, 2013).

Historically: Historically and cross-culturally, adulthood has been determined primarily by the start of puberty (the appearance of secondary sex characteristics such as menstruation in women, ejaculation in men, and pubic hair in both sexes). In the past, a person usually moved from the status of a child directly to the status of an adult, often with this shift being marked by some type of coming-of-age test or ceremony (CPL, 2013).

Legally: Legally, adulthood means that one can engage in a contract. The same or a different minimum age may be applicable to, for example, parents losing parenting rights and duties regarding the person concerned, parents losing

financial responsibility, marriage, voting, having a job, serving in the military, buying/possessing firearms (if legal at all), driving, travelling abroad, involvement with alcoholic beverages (if legal at all), smoking, sex, gambling (both lottery and casino) being a prostitute or a client of a prostitute (if legal at all), being a model or actor in pornography, running for Presidency, etc. The legal definition of entering adulthood usually varies between ages 16 and 21 years, depending on the region in question. Some cultures in Africa define 'adult' at age 13 years. (CPL) (2013)

2.3 Classification of adulthood

In the past, the effective adult years were regarded as comprising two stages;

- Early adulthood which is from 18 to 40 years and
- Mature adulthood which is from 40 to 65 years; after which retirement begins and the 'elderly' or older adult is relegated to enjoying "the golden years". That picture no longer portrays demographic realities because people are living substantially longer lives in better health.

In light of this, the Center for Productive Longevity (2013) proposed a concept of adulthood that falls into three stages:

- The first stage of early adulthood from 18-40
- The second stage of mid-adulthood from 40-62
- A new stage of matured-adulthood, from 62-85

Firstly, CPL

(2013) found that productive activities (i.e. activities that have value) are an important factor for older people as for younger people in attaining a secure and balanced life. Productive activities include continued employment for pay, entrepreneurial endeavours, various kinds of voluntary efforts, child care and elder care, and anything else that adds value to the society.

Secondly, the belief that human intelligence grows, increases, and matures up to the age of around 18, further maturation then ceases, and that all intellectual development thereafter

take places simply by the learning experience. This belief has the dysfunctionaleffect of giving support to the view that no further intellectual growth occurs after the age of 60 or 65 and, indeed that we all go downhill from there.

However, 50 years of research by one of the co-authors and colleague of CPL (2013) discovered that adults in management level work have demonstrated that this belief is not true. Their study showed conclusively that a person's potential capability (i.e. skills in action) continues to increase not only through childhood and adolescence but also throughout the whole of adult life up to and even beyond the age of 85 years for people working at this level. This growth is a true maturation of innate human potential. Individuals have been found to progress within their respective capability bounds but not to crossover between bonds. Thus, older adults will continue to mature within their bond even after retirement, so long as they remain engaged in ordinary active life.

This growth occurs at its own rate and cannot speed up by special educational or occupational opportunities; neither does it need any such opportunities to advance. It simply requires the ongoing stimuli of a person's everyday life. Erickson's view as cited by Williams (1973) is that of three stages in a man's life span before he completes his development, which is in line with the belief of CPL (2013). It has three stages which are: (i) Young adulthood (ii) Adulthood (iii) Senescence

Young adulthood (18-

40): In this period of young adulthood, the individual now launched on his own must resolve the core problems of intimacy versus isolation. If he achieves his goals, he is able to build an intimate relationship. If not, he becomes increasingly isolated from others. These are the years of career beginning, of establishing one's own home, of starting young children on their way through the same life stages and early struggle to make one's way in the world.

Adulthood (age 40-60): During the period of adulthood, the core problem the individual faces is 'generatively' versus 'self-

absorption'. The children have now grown and gone to make their own lives in turn. These are the years of "empty nest" (when children leave home) the coming to terms with what life has offered and of finding expression for stored learning in passing on life's teaching.

Senescence (age 60-80): In the last stage of life (old age, senescence) the final core problem is resolved between 'integrity' and 'despair'. Depending on one's resources at this stage, there is either a predominant sense of wholeness and completeness, or a sense of distaste, of bitterness, of revulsion, and of wondering what life was all about. If the outcome of life's basic experiences and a problem has been positive, the individual arrives at old age a rich person, rich in the wisdom of the years. Building on each previous level, his psychological growth has reached its positive human resolution (William, 1973).

2.4 Physiological changes in adulthood

Body growth declines in adulthood. Physically, early and middle adulthood is marked by a slow, gradual decline in body functioning, which accelerates at old age. The muscle mass continues to increase through the mid-20s, thereafter gradually decreasing. The skeletal mass increases until age 30 or so and then begins to decrease first in the pelvis and spine and last in the (peripheral skeleton) fingers and toes. Throughout adulthood, there is a progressive deposition of cholesterol in the arteries, and the heart muscle eventually grows weaker even in the absence of detectable diseases (The New Encyclopedia Britannica).

There is also clear evidence that with increasing age, adults display a slow, very gradual tendency toward decreasing speed of response in the execution of intellectual and physical tasks. Slowing rates of electrical activity in the older adult brain have been linked to the slowing of behaviour itself. This decline in the rate of central nervous system processing does not necessarily imply a similar change in learning, memory, or other intellectual

functions. However, the learning capacity of young adults is superior to that of older adults, in their ability to organize new information in terms of its content or meaning. Older adults, on the other hand, are equal or superior to young adults in their capacity to retain general information and in their accumulated cultural knowledge (Encyclopedia Britannica).

2.5 Fundamental needs of nutrition

Food is fundamental to human survival, in more than just one way. First, food is basic for averting hunger and maintaining health for every human being. Secondly, food satisfies our palate and makes us happy and emotionally and socially content. Thirdly, food constitutes a form of cultural expression. The food we eat should be safe, palatable, affordable, and of the quality that can maintain mental, emotional, physiological and physical health. Even with globalization that has seen food movements to and from different parts of the world, for most populations in Africa, food is still very locale-specific, especially in the rural farming areas where it is produced. Many locally produced foods have both nutritional and intrinsic value (Oniang'o *et al.* 2003).

Humans need food in the right proportion and combination for survival. Foods provide calories and other substances needed for growth and optimal health (Srilakshmi, 2006).

Good health depends on adequate food supply and this, in turn, depends on sound agricultural policy and good food distribution system (Davison *et al.*, 1975). Although people eat food for many reasons, the most compelling reason is that calories, nutrients, and other substances are needed for growth and health (Size and Whitney, 2000). Therefore, better nutrition and healthy living require an understanding of factors that influence what we eat, since the health and the nutrition of adults is important as their eating behaviour and nutrition will affect their future health. (Oniang'o *et al.*, 2003).

Good nutrition is crucial to health throughout the lifecycle. Appropriate nutritional intake is important starting from the pre-conception stage and continuing through to the ageing process. Human nutritional needs change throughout the lifecycle, requiring adjustment in the types and amount of food to maintain optimal health and growth (Oniong *et al.*, 2003).

Therefore, human nutrient requirements depend on the age, sex, body composition and nature of the activity of individuals. An adult requires nutrients for maintenance, while infants and children need them for both maintenance and growth. Nutrient requirements during childhood are proportional to the children's growth rate (Albon and Mukherji, 2005). Nutrient requirements are related to body weight and height among adults. However, there are inter-individual differences in the nutrient requirement, even between individuals of the same age, sex, and body weight. Nutritional requirements for the matured adults and older adults are not fundamentally different from those of the young adult (Mitchell *et al.* 1976).

2.6 Nutritional needs in adulthood

Adults need food to maintain and repair the body and keep healthy. The amount of daily activity affects energy and nutrient requirement, and meals should be planned according to these needs. Nutrient requirements are determined to some extent by body size. On the whole, women need less food than men, but they need more iron because of menstruation and their nutrient requirements change during pregnancy and after the birth of a baby. Since the majority of adults are within their active life, meals for active life people must provide sufficient energy while keeping to dietary goals of reduced saturated fats and increased carbohydrate food. Extra water and salt should be taken in very hot weather (Tull, 1996).

As a result of changes in nutritional requirements as we move through different life stages

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which place extra demands on the body, these extra demands placed on the body must be met by your daily diet to maintain the best of health. Therefore, to be fit and healthy throughout adulthood it is important to take into account the extra demands placed on the body by these changes through a wide variety of regular nutritious foods such as:

- Water on a daily basis.
- Enough kilojoules for energy, with carbohydrates as the preferable source.
- Adequate protein for cell maintenance and repair.
- Fat-soluble and water-soluble vitamins.
- Essential minerals such as iron, calcium and zinc.
- Food containing plant-derived photochemicals, which may protect against heart diseases, diabetes, some cancers, arthritis, and osteoporosis.
- A varied diet that concentrates on fruits, vegetables, whole grain, legumes, dairy foods, and lean meats can meet these basic requirements (FLS, 2013).

2.7 The concept of healthy behaviour

Healthy behaviour as a concept has received considerable attention from researchers particularly those in the field of health promotion and health maintenance. The various definitions have been suggested and a broad and inclusive definition of health by Kasland Cobb cited by Adegoke (2010) is any activity undertaken by a person believing himself to be healthy for the purpose of preventing disease or detecting it in any asymptomatic stage. In the broader sense according to Olayinka, citing Glanz, Lewis and Rimer (1997) healthy behaviour refers to the actions of individuals, groups, and organizations to those actions, determinants, correlates, and consequences, including social change, policy development and implementation, aimed at improving coping skills and enhancing quality of life.

Healthy

behaviours include observable overt actions, the mental events and feeding states

that can be reported and measured. For instance, personal attributes such as beliefs, expectations, motives, values, perception, and other cognitive elements, personality characteristics, effective and emotional state traits, and overt behavioural patterns, actions, and habits that relate to health maintenance, health restoration, and health improvement. (Adegoke, 2010)

Quality of life is defined in Public Health and Medicine as a person's perceived physical and mental health over time. These include factors such as health risks, and conditions, functional status, social support, and socioeconomic status (PANE, 2012). An individual's demographic characteristics, socioeconomic condition, adequate and appropriate nutrition, access to basic social amenities such as food, water and electricity have been found to be highly correlated to health and nutrition status of all people.

Factors such as age, gender, township status, and ethnicity, which are fundamental to demography, can contribute in one form or the other to the quality of life and nutritional status of the adults. Some researches on nutritional assessment in Africa observed that some older people in developing countries enter old-age after a lifetime of poverty and deprivation, a diet that is inadequate in quality and quantity, a lifetime of disease and poor access to health care (Olayinka, 2006).

Therefore, healthy lifestyles, early detection of diseases, immunization, and injury prevention have been found to be effective in promoting the health and longevity of older adults. The enjoyments of food and nutritional well-being along with other environmental influences have an influence on health-related quality of life and the ageing process (PANE, 2012). Beginning early in life, eating a nutritious diet, maintaining healthy body weight, and a physically active lifestyle are key influential factors in helping individuals avoid the physical and mental deterioration associated with ageing (Kornman, 2006).

In general, quality of life (QoL or QOL) is the perceived quality of an individual's daily life, that is, an assessment of their well-being or lack thereof. This includes all emotional, social, spiritual and physical aspects of the individual's life. In health care, **health-related quality of life (HRQoL)** is an assessment of how the individual's well-being

may be affected over time by disease, disability, or disorder (in this case food habits).

As with any situation involving multiple perspectives, patients' and physicians' rating of the same objective situation has been found to differ significantly. Consequently, health-related quality of life is now usually assessed using patient questionnaires. These are often multidimensional and cover physical, social, emotional, cognitive, work-or role-related, and spiritual aspects as well as a wide variety of disease-related symptoms, therapy-induced side effects, and even the financial impact of medical conditions.

In this study, the Health-related quality of life was used to assess how the respondents well-being may be affected by their eating habit. This well-being was assessed under diverse sections, called subscales which include,

Role Physical (RP): This subscale assesses the ease of performing some things by the respondent. It also assesses if they are limited in any kind or they accomplished less.

Physical Functioning (PF): This assesses the physical functioning of the respondent and questions about the ability to climb several flights, to moderate activity, to bathe or dress self.

Bodily Pain (BP): This subscale looks at if their body has been in any way affected with bodily pain.

General Health (GH): This subscale looks at the general health of the respondents. It examines whether they get sick easily, if they are healthy as anybody, if their health worsens or if their health is excellent.

Role Emotional (RE): This subscale assesses the emotional well-being of the respondents, looking at if they worked less carefully or they accomplished less.

Reported Health transition (RH): This subscale compares the present state of the respondent's health compared to a year preceding the interview.

Physical Health (PHH): This subscale is an overall scale for the physical health of the respondents and incorporates other subscales like the Role Physical (RP), Bodily Pain (BP), General Health (GH)

Vitality (VT): This subscale looks at the overall vitality of the respondents, assessing if they've felt worn out or tired in the preceding days.

Mental Health (MEH): This subscale looks at the overall health of the respondents. It incorporates other subscales like Vitality (VT), Social Functioning (SF), Role-Emotional (RE), and Mental Health (MH)

Social Functioning (SF): This subscale assesses the overall social impact aspect of the respondent's life.

2.7.1 Importance of nutrition to quality of life and healthy behavior

For human beings, food is a critical contributor to physical well-being; it is a major source of pleasure, worry and stress, a major occupant of wake-up time and across the world, the single greatest category of expenditures (Rozin *et al.*, 1999). The health and Nutrition of adults are important as their eating behaviour and nutrition will affect their future health. Numerous studies have reported on the significant impact of dietary intake on health, independence and quality of life in the people of all ages (Young Hee Lee, updated; Wickrama *et al.*, 2012) from a baseline data from a larger intervention study of mid-life and older African-Americans incorporated a quasi-experimental design, the result of the findings showed that older African Americans with more cumulative life adversity, as reflected by high life dissatisfaction, had significant poor eating behaviours including the consumption of a high-fat diet and low intake of fruits and vegetables. Older African Americans' dietary choices were also associated with their perceived social support.

More importantly, perceived social support acted as a buffer to mitigate the influence of life dissatisfaction on older African Americans' eating behaviours. Life dissatisfaction places older African Americans at risk of unhealthy eating behaviours.

Therefore, when planning the care of matured adults, it must be understood that food habits make a significant contribution to their well-being and food habits of all adults are determined not only by lifetime preferences and physiological changes but by such factors as living arrangements, finances, transportation, and disabilities (Bengmark, 2006).

2.8 Origin of food culture and habits

The cultural background determines what is eaten as well as when and how. A people's culture has a lot of influence on the kind of food people eat in each community. In every part of society, people have diverse feeding habits that have been inherited from generation to generation (Oniong' oetal., 2003). They exert deep influence on the behaviour of the people. The cultural background determines what shall be eaten as well as when and how it shall be eaten (Whitney and Rolfes, 2008). Food habits are based upon food availability, economic symbolism, the agricultural practice of the people, economy and market practices, history and traditions, and the geography of the land (William, 1973). Culture influences food habits by dictating what is or is not acceptable to eat (Amy, 2008).

What is acceptable as food in one part of the world may be rejected in another place, therefore people learn from their culture and society which animals and plants are considered as food and those that are not (Brown, 2008).

All people have their likes and dislikes and their beliefs about food, and many people are conservative in their food habit. They tend to like what their mothers cooked for them when they were young, the food they were served on festive occasions or the eating with friends and families away from home during their childhood (Mattithias, 2001).

Food, cooking, and eating play a central role in every culture. Eating is never a purely biological activity since the consumption of food, whether it is simply or elaborately prepared, is always imbued with meaning, which is understood and communicated in various symbolic ways (Mervyn, 2012). Preparing food for consumption and eating socially, are activities that are conducted for

purposes other than nutrition, hence, the symbolic meaning of food sometimes has little to do with the food itself, and eating socially has less to do with nutrition than with communication and relationships (Anastassia *et al.*, 2011). The techniques utilized to prepare and process foods and the ways of serving and consuming them vary from culture to culture, which also has an important influence on the social and family relationship (Adebusoye *et al.*, 2012).

2.8.1 Food and culture

Culture is used technically to describe an organized group of people interacting in a structural system and carrying out the activities necessary to produce and sustain life (Encyclopedia Americana, 1989). Culture can also be referred to as a pattern of thinking and doing that runs through the activities of a population and distinguishes them from all other people (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2007). Culture determines what food is, hence what is considered to be food in one culture may be regarded with disgust or may actually cause illness in people of another culture (Williams, 1973).

The Americans value milk as basic food, while in many other cultures it is rejected with revulsion as an animal mucous discharge. The *Ifuga* tribesmen of Northern Luzon in Philippine are known for their enjoyment of dragonflies and locust which they boil, dry and grind into a powder, while crickets, flying red ants, beetles, and water bug are fried in Lard (Williams, 1973). A cultural group provides guidelines regarding acceptable foods, food combinations, eating patterns, and eating behaviour. Acceptance of these guidelines creates a sense of identity and belonging for the individual (Haviland *et al.*, 1990).

Within particular peer, work, or community, groups impact food behaviours. For instance, a young person at a basketball game may eat certain foods when accompanied by friends, and another kind of food when accompanied by his or her teacher. Etiquette and eating habits

also vary depending on whether the meal is formal, informal or special (Such as a meal on a birthday or religious holiday) (The New Encyclopedia Britannica, 2007 (a) Vol. 3).

2.8.2 Food habits

Food habits are among the oldest and most entrenched aspects of many cultures that exert a deep influence on the behaviour of people (Onion *et al* 2003). Habits refer to any regularly repeated behaviour that requires little or no thought which is not innate but learned.

A habit can be part of any activity or behaviour ranging from eating and sleeping to thinking and reacting, which is developed through reinforcement and repetition (The New Encyclopedia Britannica 2007 (a)). Our emotion and motivation are products of habits. Our appeals and fear, taste in food, dressing, prejudices, and appetite are all learned (The Encyclopedia Americana 1989). People sometimes select foods out of habits such as eating cereals every morning for breakfast. Eating familiar food and not having to make any decision can be comforting (Whitney & Rolfes, 2008). Food habits, like other forms of human behaviour, are the product of personal, cultural, social and psychological influence (Williams, 1973). The term 'eating habits' or 'food habits' refers to why and how people eat, which food they eat, with whom they eat, as well

as the ways people obtain, store, use, and discard food. A cross-sectional study conducted among 132 medical students of the preclinical phase in a Malaysian University observed that more than half of respondents had meals regularly and 40.2% had meals of at least three times per day. Smoking and alcohol consumption were significantly associated with eating habit in this study. The majority (73.5%) consumed fruits less than three times per week, 51.5% had fried food twice or more a week and 59.8% drank water less than 2 liters daily. Eating habit score was significantly low among younger students (18–22 years), smokers, alcohol drinkers and those who did not exercise ($p < 0.05$). Four

psychological factors out of six were significantly associated with eating habits ($p < 0.05$). Most of the students in this study had healthy eating habits. Social and psychological factors were important determinants of eating habits among medical students (Kurubaran *et al.*, 2012).

Kimura *et al.*, (2012) in his study in Tosstown in Japan among the elderly in Tosstown Japan observed that the proportion of the elderly who usually eat alone was 33.2% in the study population of 856. Even among 697 elderly subjects who live with others, 136 persons (19.5%) ate alone. The participants who ate alone were significantly depressed according to the assessment using the GDS-15 score. Body Mass Index (BMI) was lower in the elderly subjects who ate alone than those with others. A significant close association was found between eating alone and lower food diversity. By the multivariate analysis, depression was independently associated with eating alone in the logistic regression model adjusted for age, sex, Body Mass Index (BMI) and food diversity as confounding factors. Food diversity was also significantly associated, even after the adjustment of these confounding factors. Individual, social, cultural, religious, economic, environmental and political factors all influence people's eating habits.

2.8.3 Food choices

The food choice people make is not driven by a need for nutrients or guided by food selection genes. Humans are born with mechanisms that help them decide when and how much to eat. An inborn attraction to sweet tasting foods, a dislike for bitter foods, and the response of thirst when water is needed all influence food and fluid intake to an extent (Brown, 2008). However, inborn traits that affect food choices are not very fine-tuned; as people may over consume sugar and salt, for example, and underdo (for instance, drink too little water) in response to thirst) their response to internal cues (Brown, 2008). The strong symbolic,

emotional, and cultural meanings of food come to life in the form of food preferences. We choose foods based on our cultural background and other learned experiences that give us pleasure (WHO 2003).

Culture is another factor influencing food choice. Culture influences food habits by dictating what is or is not acceptable to eat (Amy, 2008). What is acceptable as food in one part of the world may be rejected in another place. Therefore, people learn from their culture and society which animals and plants are considered food and which are not (Brown, 2008). Cultural traditions regarding food are flexible, and they keep evolving as people move about, learn about new foods, and teach others (Sizer and Whitney, 2000).

Food gives us pleasure when they relieve our hunger pangs, delight our taste buds, or provide comfort and a sense of security. We find food pleasurable when they outwardly demonstrate our superior intelligence, our commitment to total fitness, or our pride in our ethnic heritage, and so we reject foods that bring us discomfort, guilt, and unpleasant memories and those that run contrary to our values and beliefs (Brown, 2008).

Although most people realize that food habits affect their health, they often choose food for other reasons apart from nutrition. These reasons include variety, pleasure, traditions, association, and nourishment, as well as the ability to combine favorite foods with a nutritionally balanced diet (Whitney and Rolfe, 2008). Every day, several times a day, people make choices that influence their body's health for better or worse, and that each day's choices may benefit or harm the body a little. But when these choices are repeated over the years and decades, the consequences become major. Therefore, paying close attention to good eating habits now can bring health benefits later. By and large, carelessness about food choice can contribute to much chronic disease prevalence in later life including heart disease and cancer (Amy 2008). There are many factors that determine what foods a person eats. In addition, to personal preferences, there are cultural, social, religious, economic, environmental and even political factors. A study on Dietary diversity and food expenditure

as indicators of food security in older Taiwanese found that it cost more to achieve a greater Dietary Diversity Score (DDS). The food expenditure of subjects with a dietary diversity score of 6 was 2.20 times greater than the dietary diversity score < 3 groups after controlling for covariates. Elders of lower socioeconomic status tended to choose foods which would have cost less. The sub-group of elders who achieve the highest DDS with limited money offer approaches to food-money management. Nutrition policy directed to food insecure group, like the aged, could employ health promotion strategies which reduce financial barriers to healthy eating.

Every individual has unique likes and dislikes concerning foods, which is developed over time and are influenced by personal experiences such as encouragement to eat, exposure to a food, family customs and rituals, advertising, and personal values (Stark, 1975). People decide what to eat, when to eat, and even whether to eat in a highly personal way, often based on behavioral or social motives rather than on awareness of nutrition importance to health. Many different food choices can support good health; an understanding of nutrition help to make the sensible selection more often. Some reasons identified for many people's choices of food include taste, and other widely shared preferences include sweetness of sugar, or the savouriness of salt, and liking high fat foods (Whitney and Rolfes, 2008). In Europe, Simpson *et al.*, (2011) in her study on the predictors of taste acuity in healthy older Europeans reported that the main predictors of taste acuity were age, sex, social class and country, which had differential effects for each taste quality. The study suggests that socio-demographic and cultural factors should be taken into account when considering taste acuity in older people.

Today, many people eat food that is accessible, quick and easy to prepare, and within their financial means. Consumers value convenience and are willing to spend more

than half of their food budget on meals that require little or no further preparation. They frequently go out, bring home ready-to-eat meals, or have food delivered. Even when they venture into the kitchen, they want to prepare a meal in 15-20 minutes, using nothing less than half a dozen ingredients which are also semiprepared (Sizer and Whitney, 2000).

2.8.3.1 Determinant of food choices and eating behavior

Generally, people's decisions of what to eat and where to eat are often based on behavioral or social motives; and in most cases, the awareness of nutrition importance to health is not considered (Albon and Mukherji, 2008). Culture is another factor influencing food choice. Culture may be defined as the way of life of a group of people usually of one nationality or from a particular locality (Michelet al., 1976). Culture is an integrated pattern of human knowledge, beliefs, customs, taboos, codes, institutions, tools, techniques and works of art, rituals, ceremonies, and other related components. It also includes all capabilities and habits required by man as a member of society (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2007(a)).

There is no doubt that a diet compatible with human biological needs is essential to the survival of the species. Therefore, an understanding of the factors that influence food habits will help a great deal in its modification (Stilakshmi, 2008). The food that is consumed actually depends upon available food supplies and acceptability of the foods by the consumers. There are two major influences on food consumption namely: food supply and consumer demand (Caliendo, 1981).

Many other researchers have tried to explain the determinants of food habits and nutrition behaviour. However, many non-biological influences on food choices and behaviour have also been identified by sociologists and anthropologists. For example, when Maslow's hierarchy is applied to food habit, eating for survival evolves into eating to satisfy the need

for security, then for belongingness, then for self-esteem, and finally for self-actualization (Ikeda/d).

Different frameworks of food choice behaviour have been developed by social scientists. In food choice research that investigates how people choose the type of food they eat, the theoretical models of behaviour include both individual and environmental factors affecting the modification of behaviours. However, social cognitive theory examines the relationship and interaction between environmental, personal and behavioral factors, and found that food choice comprises psychological and sociological aspects which include food politics and other factors (such as religion, vegetarianism, and dietary law), economic issues (such as how food price and marketing campaigns influence choice), and sensory aspect (such as the study of organoleptic qualities of food). The findings showed that taste preference and sensory attribute mostly guide people's food choice (Wikipedia Foundation Inc., 2012). Other factors include cost availability, convenience, cognitive restraints, and cultural familiarity.

In Sweden, a study by Zada Paialicet *al.*, (2012) on the experience of elderly people living at home related to receiving meals distributed by a municipal in the country reported that the experience related by the participants in the study indicated that they were generally satisfied, with the food distribution system from their municipality. The study also indicated that the meal box was experienced by the elderly persons participating in the study as a symbol of dependency and loss of identity as it became evident to them that they could no longer go to the market to buy and prepare food by themselves. This study indicates that greater attention needs to be paid towards meeting the practical and psychological needs of elderly people; food distribution should not be seen as a fragmentary social support but as a point towards breaking the elderly social isolation, to actively

involve them in decision making, and preventing them from having feelings of dependency and loneliness.

Moreover, environmental cues and increased portion sizes play a great role in the choice and quantity of food eaten by individuals. Dietary intake and nutrition are results of "lifestyle" which is termed as the complex interaction of a large series of social, cultural and situational inputs. Lifestyle variables include household structural factors (number of people in the household, age, sex, spacing between children, division of duty in household tasks, decision making power within household, education, occupation and employment of household members, attitudes towards healthy families, child rearing, religion, social and cultural traditions, migration history; geographical, social and economic resources, place of residence (urban/rural) and health status (Srilakshmi, 2006).

Good nutritional status is dependent upon each person having an appropriate intake of macro- and micronutrients, combined with adequate healthcare and access to safe drinking-water.

Nutritional status also depends on the availability of sufficient knowledge about appropriate diet, taking into account local food habits to prevent problems of undernutrition, and of diet-related non-communicable diseases. Conditions for achieving satisfactory nutritional status and ensuring continued access to sufficient supplies of a variety of safe foods at affordable prices and of safe drinking-water is important so that all people, especially the poor and vulnerable groups, can have nutritionally adequate and safe diet (FAO, 1992).

2.8.3.2 Factors that influence the way people choose food

Different types of decisions are involved when an individual makes a food choice. They involve a combination of life-influencing factors such as Geography, Lifestyle, Physiology, Psychology, Culture, Socialization, New food, Modern food, etc.

2.8.3.2.1 Physical and environmental factor

Either create or inhibit access to food stuff, season, locality (soil or climate) transportation and marketing, distribution costs and permissibility are environmental factors that contribute to food availability.

2.8.3.2.2 Physiological factors

These include the physiological need for food, basic hunger and satiety (the feeling of having had enough) factors, linked with both appetite and aversion to foods, the sensory appeal of food, personal preferences of food choice, and many physiologically therapeutic diet to which the individual may be adhering (Amy and Brown, 2008).

The findings in a study in Sweden on Home-Living Elderly people's views on foods and Meals by Edfors *et al.*, (2012) indicated that factors such as buying and transportation of food, quality of food, cooking, widowhood, illness, and home care service influence their dietary pattern. Also, eating was in most cases, related to their oral health and dental status.

Some respondents thought the meat from food distribution was leathery and difficult to chew. In the study habits founded in past life, and negative life events affected the food and meals in the present life

2.8.3.3 Factors responsible for poor food choices

It is a tragic fact that today, in an age of advanced technology and scientific knowledge, there are still many people in the world whose health and quality of life suffer through lack of food as a result of war, disaster, pollution, political factors, poverty and poor food choices (Tull, 1996). Where the choice of food is severely inadequate, illness, malnutrition, and death on a large scale are the usual results (Amy, 2008). Therefore, the following are some of the factors that could be responsible for poor food choices as identified by Williams (1973):

2.8.3.3.1 Foodfads

Foodfads are scientifically unsubstantiated beliefs about certain foods, which may persist for a time in a given community or society. Some may be perfectly harmless, while others have more serious implications concerning the health and welfare of their followers.

A food fad d d i s t i s o n e w h o f o l l o w s s u c h f o o d c u s t o m s f o r a t i m e . H e m a y b e a n i n d i v i d u a l f a d d i s t w h o s e p r a c t i c e m a y h a v e i t s b a s i s o n a n a c u t e o r c h r o n i c p s y c h o l o g i c a l p r o b l e m o r h e m a y b e l o n g t o a g r o u p w h i c h t h e n , a c c e p t s s o m e r i g i d s t e r e o t y p e d d i e t a r y p r a c t i c e i n t h e b e l i e f t h a t i t w i l l i m p r o v e h e a l t h o r c u r e d i s e a s e .

2.8.3.3.2 Foodmyths: A myth is a traditional legend without a determinable basis of fact; it is an invented story, idea, or concept. Food myths are improved stories or beliefs about food which one accepted uncritically, or, are used to justify one's own desires, interests, and practices.

2.8.3.3.3 Quack

In medicine, nutrition, and allied fields, a quack is a fraudulent pretender who claims to have ve skill, knowledge or qualifications which he does not possess. His motive is usually money. By a cruel hoax, he feeds upon the physical and emotional needs of people. The food quack exists because food fad d i s t s e x i s t .

2.8.3.3.4 Food Misinformation

To misinform is to give false or misleading information. Food misinformation is a statement about food which is not based upon or is not in agreement with scientific evidence. False information may have arisen out of a traditional fallacy, or it may represent a belief in magic or folklore. It may be built upon outright lies, subtler half-truths, innuendos, and inferences that are the stock-in-trade of the indigenous quack.

2.8.3.3.5 Scientific nutritional concepts

Opposed to food misinformation is the body of nutritional concepts that have been built on scientific evidence. Scientifically sound concepts are the result of persistent research and testing over many decades. They represent an organized, tested knowledge. Myths and fads is an intriguing test on one's belief to notice how some sample myths appear in the light of facts that have been amassed by scientific observers.

2.8.3.3.6 Fallacious Claims by Food Faddist

Types of claims: Food faddists make exaggerated claims for certain types of food, they assert that:

- Certain foods will cure specific conditions.
- Certain foods are harmful and should be omitted from the diet. Certain food combinations are very effective as reducing diets and have special therapeutic effects.
- Only "natural food" can meet body needs and prevent diseases.

Dangers of food fads to health: Self-diagnosis and self-treatment are always dangerous. When they are based on questionable sources, the dangers are multiplied (Williams, 1973).

2.8.3.4 Other factors that can influence eating behaviour

2.8.3.4.1 Physiological Factors Influencing Eating Behaviour

Nutritional status is affected by a wider range of factors that may lead to an inadequate or excessive nutrient intake or may impair their optimal utilization. The factors most directly influencing nutrition are analyzed under the categories of food, health and care, and each of these influence each other and are all essential components of good nutrition (FAO and WHO, 1992). The result of the study by Anastassia *et al.*, (2011) on eating

habits in older people in Greece: The role of age, dental status, and chewing difficulties revealed that increasing age was associated with increased frequency of consumption of fish, grains, and vegetables.

Impaired dental status and chewing difficulties did not affect the frequency of eating meat and other difficulties to chew food, but it was related to more frequent consumption of softer food (chicken, fish, grains, and dairy products). The older Greeks did not exclude any food type from their diet, because of dental impairment. To overcome chewing problems, they used various preparation methods to consume their favourite foods. The dietary patterns of the older participants adhered to the traditional Mediterranean diet greater than those of the younger ones, revealing the various cultural and social parameters which influence food selection.

The eating behaviour of every individual both young and old are influenced by a complex set of interacting factors. These include the physiological processes and psychological inner springs of hunger, and how early childhood experiences may have an effect on subsequent eating behaviour, and the causes of eating difficulties. To consider food and eating from an individual perspective, and the underlying physiological processes that influence individual behavior, (Albon and Mukharji, 2008) suggested the following key areas for exploration.

2.8.3.4.2 Physiological Processes of Eating Behaviour
Homeostatic: The most active physiological drive in man relating to the concept of homeostasis are hunger and thirst. According to Cardwell *et al.*, (1998) as cited by Albon and Mukharji, (2008) the term “homeostatic” describes the mechanism by which our bodies try to keep internal processes in balance. The body works best when there is a correct balance of chemicals, nutrients, oxygen, and water available at the correct temperature. If food has not been eaten for some time, the body becomes short of energy and physiologic

al processes will (set in motion that) initiate within us a drive to eat (hunger). The hunger will be suppressed once the food is eaten. There are other mechanisms in place that tell us when we are full. The food eaten has to be digested before the nutrients are made available to be used by the body. Hence, there is a need to eat regular meals in order to prevent intense hunger. Several mechanisms are put in place to regulate our food intake. These are reported by Cardwell *et al.*, (1998) as cited by Albon and Mukherji (2008) as:

- **The presence of Food in the Stomach:** There is a mechanism by which signals are sent from the stomach to the brain for feeling full (satisfaction) when the normal-sized meal is eaten. These signals are sensitive to the quality of food as well as quantity as evidence shows that people feel full quicker with high-energy foods. Those who have their stomach reduced either because of disease or to help them lose weight do report feeling full after eating very little. However, some individuals compensate by taking small, frequent high-calorie foods, and in one study reported by Sjostrom, (2004), 25 percent of patients regained all the weight that they had originally lost; indicating that stomach size was not the only factor in controlling food intake.
- **Cholecystinin (CCK):** This hormone is released from the small duodenum when it registers the presence of food. Injections of CCK reduce the size of meals consumed by human and rats (Albon and Mukherji, 2008). The use of CCK as an appetite suppressant is being investigated, but according to Horowitz *et al.*, (2005) it is unlikely that it will prove to be helpful in treating obesity.
- **Others:** Another physiological process that has an effect on appetite is the level of blood glucose in the system. Enough glucose is needed in the blood stream to give energy. When the blood glucose level is low, the body may experience faint and weakness and there is the need to look for food. People who are diabetic and take insulin have to be particularly careful to balance insulin with sufficient food, as they are at risk of suddenly having a dangerously low level of blood glucose and feel unconscious. The

blood glucose level is measured by glucose receptors in the blood vessels, liver and the brain, particularly the hypothalamus. However, the blood glucose level in an individual does not vary much as the body will convert fat stored into glucose.

- **The Role of Hypothalamus:**

This is a small structure at the base of the brain (about the size of a thumb) that has an important part to play in the regulation of eating behaviour. Together with the pituitary gland, it helps to control many bodily processes by regulating the formation and release of hormones (Chemical Messenger). Two main centres in the hypothalamus that affect eating behaviour are the Ventral Medial Nucleus (VMN) and the Lateral Nuclear (LN).

- Research in the late 1940s showed that lesions to the VMN in rats resulted in the rats overeating to such an extent that they became massively overweight.
- In the early 1950s, it was shown that lesions in the LN inhibited eating behaviour in rats so that they lost weight.
- Reviewing the evidence, he concluded that the research supports the idea that the hypothalamus has an important role in eating behaviour, and involving other areas in the brain concerned with emotional responses, such as the frontal cortex and the amygdala.

Impulsivity on Eating

Behaviour: Studies have shown that people that are obese tend to consume more food, most especially energy dense fatty foods than non-obese people. One of the reasons may be that eating behaviour is triggered by the taste and smell of food and that these triggers have a more powerful effect on obese individuals. This has been suggested may be due to a deficit in impulse control. In the study of obese children, it was found that obese children have less inhibitory control than the control group of children with normal weight, and obese children who had episodes of bingeing were more impulsive than those who did not binge.

Stress and Depression: It has been established that there is a strong relationship between stress and eating because most people when stressed up at one time or the other have turned to a favorable food such as chocolate or other high fat, and carbohydrate food. Also, a connection between eating and depression as well as an association between depression and obesity has been established. Depression has been shown to affect people's eating habits in two different ways:

- It is associated with high levels of anxiety and sleeplessness, lack of appetite, and weight loss in some people.
- In others, it is characterized by increased appetite, excessive sleep, and weight gain.

Eating as a response to stress is related to the physiological mechanisms in the body that help to deal with situations of perceived threat (Marano, 2006). In a situation of acute threat, for example, when one feels she is in danger of being attacked, there is an immediate physiological response by the body. This conscious control response prepares an individual for 'flight' or 'fight'. The hormone cortisol produced activates other physiological processes to increase the amount of oxygen to the brain and prepare the body for immediate action. In a time of such acute stress, there may be rapid breathing to increase oxygen levels and the heart beat fast to get oxygen into the brain as quickly as possible. At the same time, energy, in the form of glucose is mobilized from stores in the body ready to be used as fuel for muscles. When the danger has passed, the level of cortisol is reduced.

However, in a chronic stress situation, the production of cortisol is not reduced. As the body perceives itself to be under constant threat, there is a constant demand for fuel. In such situations, it appears that the brain sends out signals that motivate eating high-density energy-rich foods, such as chocolate. The energy from this food is stored as abdominal fat, close to the liver where many of the energy

metabolism processes occur (Marano, 2006).

The deposition of abdominal fats sends a message to the brain to cut off the stress response, and

reserves have been built up. There is, therefore, a direct connection between eating 'Comfort foods' and the reduction of stress. The connection between stress reduction and eating energy-rich food is a powerful reinforcement and comfort eating is likely to be continued as a learned behaviour even in the absence of physiological cues from the body.

It has been concluded that not only do physiological stress mechanisms result in an increase in consumption of energy-rich foods, but also, even without increasing calorie intake, chronically stressed individuals may actually put on more weight than expected from the calories they consume. Therefore, the conclusion is that:

- Stress influences the consumption of high fat, high-sugar food;
- Eating these energy-rich foods under stress leads to putting on more weight than expected.

2.8.4 World's cultural food pattern

Allover the world, cultural food patterns differ from one country to another. Among ethnic groups and different tribes in regions and states within a given country, there exist a lot of variations in cultural food patterns (Williams, 1973). In some countries, people enjoy insects but consider corn and soybeans fit only for animal feed, while there are steamer clams and raw oysters' food passions for some, but absolute disquieting to others (Brown, 2008). Therefore, in every part of the society people have diverse feeding habits that have been inherited from generation to generation (Oniang'o *et al*, 2003).

People learn from their culture and society which plants and animals are considered as food and which are not. Horse meat is a favourite food in a large area of North-central Asia. While pork is widely consumed in North and South America, Europe, and other areas, but it is avoided by many people in Islamic countries. Bone-

marrow soup and sautéed snails are delicacies in France, while kidney pie is traditional in England. The dog is a popular food in Borno, New Guinea, the Philippines, and other countries, whereas, the snake is a delicacy in China.

All cultures have their “super foods” or staple food, for example in Russia and Ireland, it is potatoes. In Central America, corn and yucca are superfoods, in Somalia, it is rice. In many parts of Africa and in Nigeria specifically, grains and tuber form the base of ‘super foods’. These foods refer to cultural significance and not nutritional value (Brown, 2008). In America community life, for example, a number of different cultural food patterns are represented. Many countries have contributed different types of dishes or mode of cooking to American eating habits, and in turn, many of the food habits of these subcultures have been Americanized. Nevertheless, all traditional food patterns have strong meanings and serve to bind families and cultural communities in close fellowship. It should, however, be noted that each food pattern has its uniqueness, and among persons of all cultures, individual tastes vary, geographic patterns within a country vary, and economic factors make for a wide difference (Williams, 1973).

A few samples of cultural food pattern of the world are as follows:

2.8.4.1 Japanese Food Culture: In Japan, the discussion about food can be serious, passionate and analytical. As a result the Japanese take great pride in the quality and purity of their food, therefore their food is dedicatedly and carefully presented. The average daily caloric intake in Japan is 2,754 calories, and 85th in the world compared to 3,825 in the United States (no. 1) and 1,500 in the Congo (173rd) (Hays, 2013).

The Japanese cuisine is soft sea food based and does not have any thick spicy sources associated with Chinese food. Although sweeter yaki-style sources are common, the artistic arrangements of the food items served are important, when compared with

American standard, the portions are small, but a lot of efforts go into getting the right ingredients, preparation, and presentation especially at fancy restaurants. The Japanese use chopsticks to eat all Japanese style meals. The methods commonly used in food preparation are grilling, steaming, stir-frying, deep-frying and combination of broiling and grilling (Hays, 2013).

2.8.4.2 Japanese Food Habit: In Japan, the traditional meal is served with rice, vegetables with fermented soybean paste *miso* soup and fruits are often eaten as a desert. Many dishes are accompanied with soy source or wasabi (very hot mustard like green horseradish).

- A typical breakfast is made up of rice, *miso* soup, spinach, and egg and it is generally eaten between 7.00 a.m. and 7.30 a.m. It also includes juice, coffee, eggs and toast of rice commonly referred to as *asasa – gohan*.
- Lunch known as *lura–gohan* is eaten between 12.00 noon and 2.00 p.m. It is generally made up of quick meals or snack such as a bowl of noodles, rice, sandwiches, rice balls or Chinese food.
- Dinner (*Ban–gohan*) is eaten between 6.00 p.m. and 8.00 p.m.

Generally, dinner is an informal meal with meat or fish, rice and *miso* soup. It is usually made at home and it includes: curry rice, pork cutlets, meat loaf-like hamburgers, fried fish, stir fried chicken or pork dishes. Drinks such as beer, wine, hot tea, cold tea, water or other drinks are served with the meals. One served found that 60% of Japanese value eating together as a family.

2.8.4.2.1 Changing Food Habits in Japan:

In recent time, many Japanese have adopted the American way of eating a big breakfast, light lunch, and a big dinner. This fattier diet has been attributed to an increase in heart diseases among Japanese and an increase in obesity. Although fish, vegetables, and rice remain the staple food in Japan, the Japanese are increasingly eating sweeter, fatty and calorie-rich foods as reflected by the popularity of *Haagen Dazice* cream, crispy kama, doughnuts, and four-patty *Maganac* burgers.

Consumption of rice and fresh fruit has reduced by half since 1970 while meat consumption has risen by 40% and coffee drinking has tripled in the same period of time. Fish consumption decreased by 15% in the 1990s and the percentage of prepared foods increased by 65% in the same period (Hay, 2013).

Busy children attending afterschool classes are reportedly eating more and more starch food, frozen microwave snacks, convenience store sandwiches, a cup of noodles and rice balls. Many salarymen eat almost exclusively at convenience stores, shops that sell crisps and Belgium waffles are a common sight at shopping areas.

2.8.4.2.2 More Japanese showing Traditional Diet:

A study of Tokyo Gas Company's Urban Life Research Institute, reveals that the Japanese are gradually moving away from traditional food and table manners. The study was conducted on surveys on food habit on about 3,300 respondents in their 20s to '80s in the Tokyo metropolitan area from 1990 – 2011. The result showed that in 2011, 65% of respondents wanted to eat *miso* soup at least once a day, down to 77% in 1990. In the 2011 survey, less than 50% of respondents in their 20s said so. Asked whether they mainly ate rice or bread for breakfast, 34% said rice in the 2011 survey, compared to 44% in 1990. The percentage of respondent who ate bread for breakfast rose to 40% in 2011, compared to 35% in 1990 (Yomiuri Shimbun, 2012).

2.8.4.3

Food Culture in Ireland: There are many references to food and drink in early Irish literature, but honey seems to be widely eaten and used in the preparation of meals. Potato appeared to have been introduced into Ireland in the second half of the 16th century, initially as a garden crop but eventually became the main food field crop of all the tenant and labouring classes. As a food source, the potato is a good source of energy and also a good

source of many vitamins and minerals, especially vitamin C (when fresh). Therefore, between the 18th – 19th centuries, an Irish diet of potatoes and buttermilk was very popular.

2.8.4.3.1 Food in Ireland today: Prevalence of changing the culture in the 20th century and the usual modern selection of foods common to Western cultures have been adopted in Ireland. Both the United States of America fast food culture and continental European dishes have influenced the country, along with other world dishes introduced in a similar fashion to the rest of the Western world. Common meals include pizza, curry, Chinese food, and lately, some West African dishes have been making an appearance, supermarket shelves now contain ingredients for among others, traditional, European, American (Mexican, Tex-Mex), Indian, Polish and Chinese dishes. Therefore, the proliferation of fast food has led to increasing public health problems including obesity, and one of the highest rates of heart diseases in the world (Culture of Ireland, 2009).

In the North, the Ulster fry has been particularly cited as being a major source for a higher incidence of cardiac problems, quoted as being a “heart attack on a plate”. All the ingredients are fried, although more recently the trend is to grill as many of the ingredients as possible. However, in recent development in the last quarter of the century ushered in a new Irish cuisine based on traditional ingredients handled in new ways. This cuisine is based on fresh vegetables, fish, especially salmon and trout, oysters and other shellfish, traditional soda bread, handmade cheeses, and potato. Traditional dishes, such as Irish stew, Dublin coddle, the Irish breakfast, and potato bread have been re-awakened.

2.8.4.4 Mexican Food Culture

A blending of the food habits of the Spanish settlers and native Indian tribes formed the basis for the present food patterns of the people of Mexican heritage who live in the United States.

es (chiefly in the South West). Three main foods are fundamental to their pattern—dried beans, chili peppers, and corns. Variation and addition may be found in different localities. Among those of the different income level, food groups include little milk for babies, little meat (because of cost), occasional eggs, vegetables, fruits, bread, and cereals are also eaten. A large amount of coffee is used, *Chili* pepper, onion and garlic are used most frequently and other herbs occasionally (Williams, 1973).

2.8.4.5 Cultural Food Habits in Madagascar

Food Habits: Rice is the staple of the Malagasy diet. It is usually accompanied by some form of *kabaka* (a protein dish such as fish, meat, chicken or beans) in some part of the island dish *romazava* made of green leafy vegetables in broth is common. Generally, side dishes serve to add flavour to the rice rather than provide nutrients. Most Malagasy entrees are prepared in one of four ways, fried, grilled, boiled in water, or cooked with coconut juice. A spicy condiment known as *Lasary* in Malagasy and made of *chili* peppers, green mangos, or lemons can be added to enhance flavour. Meals are served in the house, on the veranda, or on mats placed on the ground outside the house. Lunch and dinner leftovers are warmed for breakfast the following morning. Breakfast consists of rice and tea made of local herbs or leaves and sweetened with sugar. Some other breakfast foods include boiled manioc, maize, porridge, or fried cakes made of rice flour. Water is the usual beverage served with meals. *Rano empago* (water boiled in the rice cooking pot) is sometimes served.

Vegetables such as carrots, cauliflower, cabbage, peppers, tomatoes, and zucchini are available year round. Fruits such as pineapples, coconut, oranges, mangoes, bananas, and apples are subject to seasonal availability. Although a wide variety of foods are available, a significant portion of the population remains undernourished because they are generally unaffordable on a regular basis (Madagascar, 2013).

2.8.4.6 African Food Habit

Social factors and cultural practice in most countries of the world have a very great influence on what people eat, how they prepare food, on their feeding practices and the food they prefer. Therefore, what African communities eat can be viewed in the context of diverse socio-cultural and economic environments. The food consumed is not the same throughout the whole continent, but there are similarities. However, Africans generally eat more grain foods but most of them consume less than one serving of fruits per day (Oniango, 2003).

The main staples in African food include roots and tubers, bananas and cereals, grains and legumes. The main legumes are Bambara nuts, cowpeas, Chester beans, hyacinth beans, mung beans, Lima beans, groundnuts, pigeon peas, and soy beans. Grain forms the bulk of food consumed in Africa, and they are important in the diet because they provide complex carbohydrates, starch, vitamin, minerals, dietary fibre, and photochemical compounds. These are often complemented with legumes or food from an animal source that is rich in protein and fat and oil. Other ingredients that are used to prepare African soups and accomplishment are gotten from vegetables like beans, lentils or groundnut with green leafy vegetables (Karen *et al.*, 2001).

Snacks commonly eaten in Africa include boiled or roasted roots and tubers (yam, potatoes, cassava, etc.) plantains, boiled or roasted green maize, roasted groundnut or oil seeds, fried fish, insect such as locust or termites and fruits such as bananas, oranges, mangoes, sugarcane, etc. (Kravchenko, 2008).

2.8.4.7 Nigerian Food Habits

The main factors that have affected the eating habits and patterns of people in Nigeria have been identified by Ene-Obong (2001) as culture, climate, and economic factors. Food

consumption of the people is closely related to the type of foods grown or produced in different parts of the country. In traditional Nigeria society, farm families cultivate starch roots, tuber, cereals, legumes, fruits, and vegetables. The foods made up of family food basket were occasionally supplemented by wild and domesticated animals, while legumes, cereals, wild herbs, fruits, and vegetables make significant contributions to nutrient intakes of the population (Ikeda, undated).

According to Josphine (2012), culture, climate, and economy are the main factors that have affected the eating and patterns of people in Nigeria. Basically, Nigeria can be divided into two main regions. The two regions are the North and Southern Nigeria. The Southern part of Nigeria stretches inland from the coast into a wide belt of the tropical rain forest and covers approximately one quarter of the total land mass of Nigeria and inhabits about a third of the total population.

2.8.4.7.1 Dietary Pattern in the South: The basic carbohydrate food is tapioca, supplemented with yams or maize, and flour, red palm oil, and peppers are added to almost every meal, green leaves, and fish are also used. Available fruits include oranges, grapefruit, pawpaw, and mangoes, but many people will not eat them because they are associated with feminin and intestinal worms. Source of protein are goat meat, cow meat, fish, prawn, chicken, and bush meat. Others are peas, nuts, and beans.

Fadupin (2012) in a study on Social support, environmental condition and nutritional status of the elderly in Ibadan (South) reported that the main sources of their energy and protein intake were from roots and tubers, cereals and legumes respectively. Animal protein, fruits, and vegetable were not taken regularly by 66.0%, 77.0% and 64.0% of the respondents respectively.

2.8.4.7.2 Dietary Pattern of the Middle Class: The middle class group is composed of clerks, school teachers, and some big traders in the Southern part of Nigeria. Even though

European foods have not totally replaced the Nigerian traditional foods completely, so some of them are used as supplements among educated Nigerians.

2.8.4.7.3 The Savannah Grassland of the North: The Northern part occupies about two thirds of Nigeria and the people are mostly Muslims and Hausa by the tribe. Common staple foods eaten in this area include meat, milk, wheat product, rice, and millet. The Hausas who are the bulk of the population eat millet in various forms. Groundnut oil and palm oil are used in cooking. The eating pattern is such that the head of the household eats first, followed by his sons, and followed by his wives and daughters. The amount of meat and milk eaten by other members of the family is usually less than that eaten by the head of the household.

2.8.4.7.4 Meal Patterns of Urban Dwellers in Southern Nigeria: In most households, two meals a day were normally eaten, and each consisted of a large serving of carbohydrate food garnished with little stew made with small peppers, green leaves, palm oil, onion, and other vegetables and a small amount of meat. Garri is the common carbohydrate food, with brown rice, yam and corn meal.

2.9 Nutritional advantages of traditional foods

The traditional diet of most societies in developing countries are good, but only require minor changes to enable them to satisfy the nutrients requirement of all members of the family. The quantity of food eaten, however, is a more common problem than quality. For example, to eat certain protein-rich food such as insects, snails, baboons, dogs, cats, and some sea foods such as fish and lobster are beneficial (Brown, 2008). Another habit that is nutritionally good is the consumption of animal blood. Some African tribes puncture the vein of a cow, draw out some quantity of blood, stop the bleeding, and consume the blood after mixing it with milk.

Blood is rich in food and mixing it with milk is highly nutritious. Drinking of soured or curdled milk is another practice found among other people. It is safer to drink milk sour than fresh, especially in communities where milking cannot be hygienically produced (Oniang'o *et al.*, 2003).

In some countries such as Nigeria, Indonesia and other parts of Africa, some foods are partly fermented before consumption. Nutritionally, the qualities of fermented foods are improved and contaminating bacterial areas also reduced (PAND, 2012).

The traditional use of certain dark green leaves should also be encouraged, because green leaves are rich in iron, calcium, ascorbic acid, and carotene, and contain a certain quantity of protein. Some dark green leaves such as amaranthus, pumpkin, sweet potatoes and cassava leaves are rich in vitamins than cabbage and lettuce which are vegetables of European origin. In addition, many fruits are very rich in vitamin C and the traditional grain preparation method produce a more nutritious product than those with the elaborate machine milling (PAND, 2012).

Many indigenous crops, including wild plants and animal species available in most African countries, offer health benefits in addition to providing essential nutrients. Several other investigations have associated traditional African items with health benefits, including various green leafy vegetables, grain legumes, palm fruits, and millets. These food items were identified as healthy by some of the interviewees at the International Conference on Nutrition (ICN) (Raschke *et al.*, 2007).

2.10 Changing food habits

Over the past decades, emerging scientific evidence about the health and nutrition has resulted in changing food consumption pattern in the United States of America and around the world. Past surveys revealed that at least half of all consumers reportedly made a major change in their diets, with nutrition being second only to taste in importance to shoppers (Brown,

2008). The changing food habits are related to increased awareness that diet can be associated with some of the leading causes of death—heart disease, cancer, and diabetes, as well as to other common health conditions such as osteoporosis, diverticulitis, and obesity. The social world affects the process of physical and mental ageing indirectly through its effect on health and directly through physical stress on the organism. Many people assume that ill health is brought on by ageing, although it is true that old age increases one's vulnerability to the ageing process (Stark, 1995). Ageing does finally take its toll, but it does not take its toll at the same chronological age for all people. Some people seem old at age fifty, whereas others do not begin to look or act old until they are in their late seventies. Adults with adequate incomes can afford an adequate diet, good health services, befitting housing as well as recreation and transportation (Stark, 1995).

Oniang'o *et al.*, (2003) observed that many African countries have in the past three generations experienced extensive changes in food supply and in the household diet. In many parts of the world, staple foods are changing and will continue to change. Maize, cassava, and potatoes are now grown in large amounts in Africa, which originated outside the continent since more of these foods were not eaten in Africa many hundred years ago; it is evident that the food habit of millions of people has changed. The implication, therefore, is that many Africans have abandoned yams and millet for maize and cassava, just as many Europeans abandoned barley, oats, and rye for wheat and potatoes (Oniang'o *et al.*, 2003). Today, exotic (untraditional) foods now dominate many urban areas in Africa. Even in the rural areas, the range of traditional domestic food stuff has been considerably reduced, partly due to the increased cost of production and processing, and laborious domestic preparation methods. This has greatly reduced the contribution of traditional diets to the family diet.

In Nigeria, food consumption pattern has been dynamic over the years. Some of the factors contributory

to the change include cultural and agricultural practices, education, improved standard of living and population movement and urbanization (Ene-Obong, 2001). Today, the old traditional food cultural practices are no longer maintained. Ene-Obong (2001) observed that during the colonial days, the cultivation of cash crops affected agricultural and eating habits. In the early seventies, matters were made worse with “oil boom” and consequently urbanization. With the foreign exchange, revenue, accruing and devaluation of the naira, importation of food and other products artificially became cheaper in relation to domestic production, keeping food habits changing. The problem now lies in guiding and fostering desirable change and to slow down undesirable ones.

2.11 Effect of changing from traditional food to westernized food

One of the difficulties facing the Africans of today is the nutritional shift from traditional food habits to processed and packaged food products of Western-owned Corporations. The consumption of these new food products has resulted into the increased intake of trans-fatty acids, preservatives, and saturated fat; and reduced intake of dietary fibre, vital nutrients and phytochemical when compared to the basic dietary guideline (Raschke *et al.*, 2007).

Urbanization has greatly influenced African feeding habits. In urban areas, food habits consist of high consumption of processed food and snacks that may be prepared and marketed under unhygienic conditions leading to food contamination. Many ‘urbanites’ have taken up non-traditional food as part of their daily diet (Oniang’o *et al.*, 2003).

Majority of these foods are snacks, which are consumed as meals during lunch or supper. Changes in lifestyles and eating habits have led to a demand for more ‘snack’ foods; consequently, snacking has become a regular feeding habit. Snack foods have been found to have a high proportion of fat, starch, and high sugar content. The shift from traditional indigenous food to Westernized food culture has been termed “nutrition transition” and has been directly implicated in the rise of type 2 diabetes, Cardiovascular

Diseases (CVDs), hypertension, obesity, cancer and related Non-Communicable Diseases (NCDs) throughout Africa (Reschke *et al.*, 2007).

In essence, it could be said that non-communicable chronic diseases have simply come not only to replace infections and malnutrition-related diseases in Africa but also to inflict on the vulnerable populations a polarized and protracted double burden of diseases, where the effect of the nutrition transition are additive to the existing infection burden (Leonie, 2005). Some of the major factors contributing to double epidemics as noted by the cohort (respondents) in the study on “The Need for an online collection of Traditional African Food Habits”, include: urbanization, associated economic pressure and maldistribution of wealth 33%, adoption of western cultural beliefs 17%, adoption of an unhealthy monotonous diet including excessive energy consumption in urban areas and under-nutrition in rural areas 16% several interviewees identified lack of available infrastructure 14%, including lack of basic health care, loss of arable land, loss of biodiversity and reduced access to quality foods as the major causes of the double burden. Existing disease burden 7% and lack of knowledge of what is considered as ‘healthy diet’ 7% were also identified as influential factors (Raschke *et al.*, 2007).

In North Asia, a study on the nutrition knowledge, beliefs, and dietary habits among elderly people in Nizwa, Oman, revealed that the elderly in the study lacked knowledge about the benefits of nutritious foods and majority of men and women believed that there was no need to change the quantity and quality of nutrition with increasing age. Poor consumption of vegetables was revealed. There is ample availability of food stuff from different parts of the world in Oman. A majority of the elderly in this study lived with their family. Findings also showed that nearly 45% of elderly people in Nizwa were overweight or obese, and had poor knowledge of nutrition, along with nutritional

imbalances and low levels of physical activity. Significant sex differences existed in elderly people's nutritional knowledge consumption of fluids, milk and sweets, use of dietary requirement and experience of appetite change (Al Riyami, 2010).

Lessons from studies in middle-aged and older adults living in Mediterranean Islands, Athens and Greece on the role of dietary habits and nutrition services revealed that high adherence to a Mediterranean type of diet or a "healthy dietary" pattern was associated with reduced risk of cardiovascular disease in middle-aged and even in the older people of the Mediterranean islands. Mediterranean islands are changing the traditional Mediterranean diet towards a more western dietary pattern. However, the elderly people living in these islands are seen to better hold the traditional healthy dietary habits than the younger ones. The beneficial effects on blood pressure and lipids levels, body fat, and other surrogate markers of CVD risk add biological plausibility to the epidemiologic evidence that supports a protective effect of the Mediterranean diet (Stefano *et al.*, 2010).

2.12 Food culture and development

Cultural traditions regarding food are flexible and keep evolving as people move and learn about new foods and cultures (Sizer and Whitney, 2000). Food habits are slow and difficult to change because food has an important psychological association with the family and the community. Familiar food is satisfying and reassuring particularly the traditional foods of childhood which evoke a deep seated emotional response (Oniang'o, 2003). Though many people are aware that their food habits affect their health, they may choose food for other reasons, among which is poverty (Srilaskmi, 2006). Many people in the world today live in abject poverty (World Bank, 2001). There are huge differences in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per person between countries, from \$68,800 in Luxembourg to \$600 in Malawi (CIA, 2007), and inequalities within countries between the very rich and the very poor (Albon and Mukherji, 2008). One of the consequences of poverty is poor health as measured by

life expectancy, childhood mortality, hunger and malnutrition (Albon and Mukherji, 2008).

In a highly urban industrialized society such as America, in which value is placed on the action, speed and productivity, lunch for the businessmen may be a quick snack which he eats while standing at a lunch counter (Srilakshmi, 2006). The form of the food is geared towards quick eating, fruit in juice form, and meat in a sandwich, while to a Spanish or Latin American merchant, such a lunch is unthinkable. His less tensely paced culture allows him to close his shop for two hours in the middle of the day while he enjoys a leisurely meal and siesta at home with his family. Food in the family relationship is eaten together and helps the family group to build closeness and family solidarity. Cultural belief and religion play a larger role in the eating patterns and diet of millions of people around the world (Lisa, 2002).

2.13 Types and problems of malnutrition

Malnutrition is a major problem in both developed and developing countries among all ages (FAO and WHO 1992). Deficiencies in some nutrients have been reported to cause diseases which could lead to impaired cognitive development (Simeon and McGregor, 1989).

Malnutrition can be regarded as an abnormal intake of nutrients leading to altered nutritional status as manifested in over-nutrition; overnutrition leads to chronic diseases such as obesity and heart diseases, while under-nutrition, leads to diseases such as marasmus, beriberi, and scurvy (Lisa, 2002). It is a deviation from the required amount of one or more nutrients needed for good health.

Malnutrition can also be defined as a pathological state resulting from relative or absolute deficiency or excess of one or more essential nutrients (Srilakshmi, 2006). This comprises four forms viz:

- Undernutrition: a condition which results when insufficient food is eaten over an extended period of time.
- Overnutrition: a pathological state resulting from the consumption of excessive quantity of food over an extended period of time.
- Imbalance: a pathological state resulting from disproportion among essential nutrients without the absolute deficiency of any nutrient.
- Specific deficiency: a pathological state resulting from a relative or absolute lack of an individual nutrient (Srilakshmi, 2006).

2.14 Malnutrition among adults

Numerous factors may contribute to developing malnutrition in an adult. The reduced basal energy requirement caused by losses in functioning protoplasm and reduced physical activity combine to create less demand for calories in advancing age (Williams, 1973). As an adult grows older from age of 30 years, his metabolic rate decreases by 2% a year, but very few adults reduce their food intake to balance it with their reduced energy output (Lissa, 2002). This leads to an energy imbalance and a state of overweight or obesity.

Deficiency

diseases take their main form in malnutrition, the more severe forms of which pertaining to matured-adults include hypertension, diabetes, heart disease, obesity, etc (Albon and Mukherji, 2008). Poor dietary habits in young adulthood, as well as another personal habit, tend to be set and accentuated in old age. Although surveys show adequate total calorie intake on the average, there is frequent evidence of inadequate distribution of their calories in food choices. For example, there may be fewer animal proteins, meat, egg, milk; more use of grains and other starch in bread and cereals, fewer vegetables and fruits, and more sweets and desserts (Williams, 1973).

Adebusoye *et al.*, (2012) conducted a study in Ibadan, on the Nutritional Status of Older Persons Present in a Primary Care Clinic in Nigeria, the result finding revealed that the prevalence of nutritional problems was 61.9% (undernutrition was 7.8% and overweight was 54.1%). Being unmarried ($P < 0.001$), engagement in a job after the age of 60 years ($P < 0.001$), constipation ($P < 0.009$) rectal bleeding ($P <$

0.008), and oral problems (mouth, teeth, and tongue) were significantly ($P < 0.001$) associated with undernutrition. Younger age ($P < 0.050$) and female gender ($P < 0.011$) were significantly associated with being overweight, logistic regression analysis showed being unmarried OR=1,355 (95% CI 1,075–1,708) to be the most important factor for the development of undernutrition. The high prevalence of nutritional problems in this study underscores the need for intervention in this population. Correlation analysis (Pearson's) showed a passive association between Body Mass Index (BMI) and MNA scores ($r = 0.152$ $P = 0.001$)

2.15 Role of nutrition in health and disease

Nutrition is defined as the art and science of how an organism is nourished from the day of conception to the day of termination by death. Nutrition deals with the intake, digestion, assimilation and ultimate utilization of the various nutrients in foods. Food is a biological material capable of nurturing the body (Olowookere, 2003). Human beings eat to survive.

They also eat to express appreciations, sense of belonging as part of family customs, and for self-realization. People eat according to learned behaviours regarding etiquette, meal and snack patterns, acceptable foods, food combinations, and portion sizes (Albon and Mukherji, 2008). Food habits that are mostly closely associated with family sentiments are the most tenacious throughout life. Long into childhood, certain foods are valued for reasons totally apart from any nutritional value. Good nutrition implies the presence of a diet that contains all the nutrients that are necessary for the proper functioning of the body. The nutrient requirement is the minimum amount of the absorbed nutrient that is necessary for maintaining the normal physiological functions of the body (Srilakshmi, 2006).

Nutrition has played a significant role in the life of every individual and it will continue to affect the individual in major ways, depending on their food selection and choices (Whitney and Rolfes, 2008). Many years ago, meat, milk, grains, nuts, vegetables, and fruits were the only food available for consumption. Today food companies offer thousands of prepared and packaged foods, many of which are a mixture of those basic foods with the

inclusion of artificial ingredients thereby making many varieties of food to be available. The availability of these processed varieties makes food choices difficult rather than being easy to make a reasonable choice or plan a nutritious diet (Amy 2008). Everyday's choice of food influences the body's health for better or worse, as the choice may benefit or harm the body's health. When choices are repeated over the years and decades, the consequences become major (Albon and Mukherji, 2008).

Where a wide variety of foods are available, people's food choices are influenced by many factors, and the most influencing of these factors is food preference. Food preference varies a great deal among people and leads to a wider range of specific food choices which are primarily learned rather than inborn (Srilakshmi, 2008). However, carelessness about food choices can contribute to a lot of chronic diseases that are common in later life (Sizer and Whitney, 2000).

2.16 Changes in nutrient needs with age

Health, physiologic, and functional changes that occur with ageing affect nutrient needs. Knowledge of the nutrient requirements of mid-adults and matured adults is growing, yet in some instances, the situations are not adequately investigated to establish a standard. Therefore, it is worthy to know that people of all ages need more than 40 nutrients to stay healthy. With age, it becomes more important that diet contains enough calcium, fibre, iron, protein and the vitamins A, C, D, folacin, reduced calories, select nutrient dense foods, and enjoys smaller portion of foods not high in fats, sugar and sodium, because no one food or pill provides all of the nutrients. Hence, varieties of food should be eaten in order to derive all the nutrients required by the body.

2.17 Nutritional role in healthy adulthood

Although health status has multiple contributory factors, nutrition is one of the major determinants of successful adulthood. Food is not only critical to one's physiological well

being but also contribute to the social, cultural, and psychological quality of life (Position of Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (PAND), 2012). Primarily, nutrition helps promote health and functionality. As a secondary and tertiary strategy, Medical Nutrition Therapy (MNT) is an effective disease management approach that lessens chronic disease risk, slows disease progression, and reduces disease symptoms. Thus, the years at the end of the life cycle can be healthful, enjoyable, and productive if chronic diseases and conditions can be prevented or effectively managed (PAND, 2012).

Healthy lifestyles, early detection of diseases, immunizations, and injury prevention have proven to be effective in promoting the health and longevity of older adults. One in every eight people in America is an older adult, defined by the Older Americans Act (OAA) as an individual who is aged 60 years and older (Maija Katarina *et al.*, 2008). The enjoyment of food and nutritional well-being along with other environmental influences have an impact on health-related quality of life and the ageing process. Quality of life is defined in Public Health and Medicine as a person's perceived physical and mental health over time, including factors such as health risks and conditions, functional status, social support, and socioeconomic status (Mattithias, 2001).

Approximately one third of older adults are ageing successfully based on objective criteria; however, a great number of older adults perceive themselves as ageing successfully despite the presence of illness and disability of the most common causes of death of adults aged 65 years and older in the United States, five of eight have a known nutritional influence. Almost 80% of older adults have one chronic condition, and half of all older adults have two or more. More than 39% of all non-institutionalized persons aged 65 years and older are in excellent health and only 6.4% of these adults need help with their personal daily care (Bengmark, 2006). Preventing

chronic diseases and reducing associated complications is an essential strategy for keeping all-adults healthy and independent in a community dwelling.

2.18 Nutritional requirement for healthy ageing

Nutrition is an important factor contributing to the health and functional ability, and the impact of the nutritional state on physical and psychological well-being is high in mid-adults and matured adults and especially higher in the elderly. Moreover, matured-adults and the elderly are more likely than younger adults to be in the impaired nutritional state and to be at high risk, or high nutritional deficiency in time of health care problems (Mattithias *et al.*, 2001). As a result, nutrition is regarded as a promising approach to modulating the risk of ageing-related diseases by the effect of certain nutrients on gene expression. One of the most practical applications of nutritional modulation of chronic diseases associated with ageing as identified by Kornman (2006) is the nutrients that regulate the expression of inflammatory genes. The anti-inflammatory molecules such as polyphenols may be effective in delaying ageing related diseases (Bengmark, 2006).

Recent studies have shown a positive effect of dietary sources that stimulate Bone Morphonic Protein (BMP) promoter, which stimulates bone formation and thus improves bone mass in the elderly with osteoporosis. Flavonoids and Statins occur naturally in food products and can promote bone formation (Kravchenko, 2008). The nutritional requirements in macro- and micro-nutrients in the matured-adults differ from young adults and mid-adults because of ageing-associated effects of nutrients ingestion, absorption, and metabolism. Ageing related diseases, the effects of ageing on nutrients, drug-nutrient interactions, and social problems should be taken into account when analysing the nutritional status of older persons (Mattithias *et al.*, 2001), aged 60 and above (WHO, 2003).

Assessment of dietary patterns from the participants in the health, ageing and body composition study found that in old-adults, a diet consistent with current guidelines, including relatively high amount of vegetables, fruits, whole grains, poultry, fish, and low-fat dairy products may be associated with superior nutritional status, quality of life, and survival (Lisa, 2006).

In this 'nutrition transition' age, there should be adequate nutrition for healthy ageing and proper functional ability to preserve a minimum quality of life. It becomes obligatory to plan to meet the challenges of the future increase of matured-adults and the elderly.

2.19 Changing food culture and nutritional status

Culture is transmitted from one generation to another by institutions such as family, school, and church (Encyclopedia Americana International, 1989). Over a period of time, various degrees of change occur within any given culture. Change takes place within and among the cultures by means of ecological and environmental changes by diffusion of advantageous cultural traits among societies at approximately equivalent stage of cultural development, by accumulation or acquisition of a foreign culture, by relatively subject pollution or by the evolution of culture element over a period of time (The New Encyclopedia Britannica, 2007).

Among the many effects of rapid socio-cultural change with uprooting and displacing of persons and families are changing in the food habits of millions of people. The abject poverty of some workers and the increased affluence of others have resulted from industrialization and changing urban-suburban living pattern (Williams, 1973). These newly emerging patterns have contributed to changes in family patterns and values, hence, the reinforcement of the group unity and stability that was formerly felt from eating together is lost. Therefore, children who are left to fend for themselves develop erratic eating habits

and tend to fill their stomachs with a diet that is nutritionally inadequate which leads to poor food choices and poor eating habits.

2.20 The growing ageing population

The demographics of the ageing U.S. population is changing and growing dramatically as baby boomers reach an older age. Since 1900, the percentage of Americans aged 65 years and matured adults has more than tripled; from 4.1% to 13.1% of the population in 2010. The number of older Americans reached 40.4 million persons in 2010. By 2030, there will be about 72.1 million older persons representing 19.3% of the population in almost twice the number there was in 2007. The 85 years and older population are expected to increase to 6.6 million in 2020 (PAND, 2012).

Nigeria, like other countries in Africa with a similar socio-economic condition, is not an exception to the poor health of the matured and elderly people. Despite this poor situation, the statistical projection in Nigeria between 1990 and the year 2025 showed an increase in the number of elderly people. By 2025 there will be an increase of over 80% with more women at a ratio of 1 to 1.2. Furthermore, it was clear from the progression that the elderly population in Nigeria would be doubled by 2015 (Mattithias, 2001). The observation of nutritional assessments in Africa revealed that some older people in developing countries enter old age after a lifetime of poverty and deprivation, a diet that is inadequate in quality and quantity and a lifetime of disease and poor access to healthcare (Raschke *et al.*, 2007).

Therefore, people's demographic characteristics, such as socio-economic condition, adequate and appropriate nutrition, access to basic social amenities such as food, water, electricity have been found to be highly correlated to health and nutrition status. Other factors such as age, gender, township status, and ethnicity, which are fundamental to demography, can contribute in one form or the other to the quality of life and nutritional status of the matured adults and the elderly (Steyn *et al.*, 2006). Along with general trends for U.S. population, the Hispanic, American, Indian and Alaskan native,

African, American, Asia and Hawaiian and Pacific Island populations are now living longer.

2.21 Factors responsible for ageing

Many factors are responsible for the variations in the rate at which an individual's age. Some of the factors found to have an influence on the ageing process of all peoples include nutritional, medical, cultural, social, biochemical, economic, psychological, and educational factors.

2.21.1 Nutrition: Poor nutrition is a great problem among old adults. Low income, poor health, and inadequate transportation to the markets make it difficult to eat well (Stark, 1975). Nutrition and health influence longevity. It is not only the quality of food consumed but also the quantity that can nourish the body in good health slows down the rate of diseases in the body and consequently slows the rate of ageing that is important (Davison, 1975).

2.21.2

Culture: Ageing is a biological process that can be influenced by social factors including culture and social organizations. Culture, belief, and religion play a larger role in the eating pattern and diet of millions of people around the world (Charles, 1992).

2.21.3 Medical: Easy access to medical facilities and care could help to elongate the lifespan of individuals. Availability of medical care can slow down the ageing process. But when people find it difficult to pay for medical services and care when needed, other deteriorating factors will come in, ageing inclusive (Diane, Aldwin, and Carolyn, 2003).

2.21.4 Social: Many social reasons may be responsible for growing old rapidly. For instance, participation in some forms of social activities can accelerate the ageing process. The massive wastage of body energy through reckless social activities such as excessive

smoking, drinking of alcohol, drug abuse, and uncontrolled sexual activity may lead to premature ageing. In another vein, among rural communities in Nigeria, social and economic problems may accelerate a child's maturity as a result of the compelling need to assume adult responsibilities. In such cases, children may be forced to generate income by starting to work much earlier than they are due. A child who starts working early in order to serve as a financial power of a poor family is thus rushed into maturity and may start wearing the appearance of a full adult too soon (Denga, 2005).

2.21.5 Economical: Poverty

oreconomic downturn is capable of accelerating ageing as people are over-stressing themselves unimaginably to make ends meet, -if a person has to operate two or more businesses after closing from the primary/official work each day, the amount of body battering or flogging is such that stress with distress might result. Therefore, arepeated or protracted incidence of body abuse could lead to premature ageing in appearance (Harper, 2006). One of the consequences of poverty is poor health as measured by life expectancy, childhood mortality, hunger and malnutrition (Charles, 1992). In the majority world, many families struggle to find the resources to feed children and adults adequately, and most prevalent form of malnutrition is due to insufficient food being available (Brown, 2008). Hence, many of the world's problems today are attributed to the interaction between malnutrition and diseases (Liam *et al.*, 1995). It has also been observed that feelings of anger, hate, irritation, aggression, rejection, melancholia and dejection bring about an emotional overload which is capable of accelerating ageing (Denger and Udoli, 2005).

2.22 Antidote of ageing

2.22.1 Psychological method: One psychological effective way of fighting the chronological ageing is to resolve to be young at heart. For example,

a sixty(60) years old person may deliberately and consciously decide to take things easy, to challenge their fate and to refuse to lie down in the face of serious trials, temptations, and tribulations. Such people shun sadism. They perceive life as full of prospects, possibilities, and promises. They exhibit an enormous sense of humour. They always look neat, cheerful and happy (Strawbridge *et al*, 2002).

Another psychological behaviour that could be used to slow down the rate of ageing is to act young, even if you are already 60 years old. A determination to combat ageing is largely psychological. For example, when a 65-year-old man decides his hair to remove gray hair, wears a light pair of jeans, and a tight T-shirt to really look like a 35-year-old youth in regressing. He knows that it is desirable to look young; hence, the psychology of feeling young and behaving young can go a long way in slowing down the rate of ageing.

2.22.2 Physiological method: One of the important anti-ageing remedies is regular moderate exercises because sedentary life is an invitation to premature ageing. The more the body is exercised, the healthier it becomes. Physical exercises give people youthful look far out of proportion to their chronological age. It improves appetites for food and sex, promotes the efficient circulation of blood, reduces snoring when sleeping and reduces body weight. Exercise need not be rigorous or vigorous, but it needs to be regular. Therefore, exercises such as walking, jogging, table tennis, squash, cycling, golf, swimming, etc. should be considered for the regular practice of 15–20 minutes a day two- to three times per week (Olowookere, 2003).

2.23 Global assessment of nutrition and development

A global assessment of nutrition and development by FAO/WHO 1992, affirms that changes in diet and lifestyle associated with urbanization, high income and longevity have led to the emergence of diet-related non-communicable diseases (obesity, hypertension and stroke, cardiovascular diseases and diabetes mellitus) as major problem from excessive or

unbalanced diets, often coupled with unhealthy lifestyles such as inadequate physical exercise, stress and abuse of alcohol and tobacco.

Although most people realize that food habits affect their health, they often choose food for other reasons apart from nutrition. These reasons include variety, pleasure, traditions, association, and nourishment, as well as the ability to combine favourite foods with a nutritionally balanced diet (Whitney and Rolfe, 2008). Also, many African countries have in the past three generations experienced extensive changes in food supplies and household clients. Exotic (untraditional) food now dominates many urban areas in Africa. Even in the rural areas the range of traditional domestic food stuff has been considerably reduced partly due to the increased cost of production and processing, and long and laborious domestic preparation methods (Oniang'o, 2003).

2.24.1 Dietary guideline for adulthood

According to WHO, consuming a healthy diet throughout the life-course helps prevent malnutrition in all its forms as well as a range of non-communicable diseases and conditions. But the increased production of processed food, rapid urbanization, and changing lifestyles has led to a shift in dietary patterns. People are now consuming more food high in energy, fats, free sugars or salt/sodium, and many do not eat enough fruit, vegetables and dietary fibres such as whole grains. The exact make-up of a diversified, balanced and healthy diet will vary depending on individual needs (e.g. age, gender, lifestyle, degree of physical activity), cultural context, locally available foods, and dietary customs. But basic principles of what constitutes a healthy diet remain the same.

- For Adults, a healthy diet contains:
- Fruits, vegetables, legumes (e.g. lentils, beans), nuts and whole grains (e.g. unprocessed maize, millet, oats, wheat, brown rice).
- At least 400g (5 portions) of fruits and vegetables a day (2) Potatoes, sweet potatoes, cassava, and other starchy roots are not classified as fruits or vegetables.

Less than 10% of total energy intake from free sugars (2,5) which is equivalent to 50g (or around 12 level teaspoons) for a person of healthy body weight consuming approximately 2000 calories per day, but ideally less than 5% of total energy intake for additional health benefits (5). Most free sugars are added to foods or drinks by the manufacturer, cook or consumer, and can also be found in sugars naturally present in honey, syrups, fruit juices and fruit juice concentrates.

- Less than 30% of total energy intake from fats (1,2,3). Unsaturated fats (found in fish, avocado, nuts, sunflower, canola, and olive oils) are preferable to saturated fats (found in fatty meat, butter, palm and coconut oil, cream, cheese, ghee, and lard) and *trans*-fats of all kinds, including both industrially produced *trans*-fats (found in processed food, fast food, snack food, fried food, frozen pizza, pies, cookies, biscuits, wafers, margarines and spreads) and ruminant *trans*-fats (found in meat and dairy foods from ruminant animals, such as cows, sheep, goats, camels and others). It is suggested to reduce the intake of saturated fat to less than 10% of total energy intake and *trans*-fat to less than 1% of total energy intake. In particular, industrially produced *trans*-fats are not part of a healthy diet and should be avoided.

Less than 5g of salt (equivalent to approximately 1 teaspoon) per day (6) and use iodized salt.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Study design

This study was descriptive cross-sectional in design, involving adults aged 40 to 80 years and set out to assess the relationship between household socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics as well as the food habit of adults in Oyo State, and their perceived health-related quality of life. It involved three Local Government Areas, one from each of the three Senatorial Districts in Oyo state.

3.2 Study area

Oyo state was purposively chosen for the study because of its diversity and population. The state is located in the South West geopolitical zone of Nigeria; Oyo State was one of the three States carved out of the former Western State of Nigeria. The thirty-three (33) Local Government Areas of the state is distributed across three (3) senatorial districts. The State covers approximately an area of 28,454 square kilometers and is ranked 14th by size in Nigeria, it is bounded in the south by Ogun State, in the north by Kwara State, in the west it is partly bounded by Ogun State and partly by the Republic of Benin, while in the East by Osun State.

The landscape consists of old hard rocks and dome-shaped hills, which rise gently from about 500 metres in the southern part and reaching a height of about 1,219 metres above sea level in the northern part. Some principal rivers such as Ogun River, Oba, Oyan, Otin, Ofiki, Sasa, Oni, Erinle and Osun River take their sources from this highland.

Oyo State popularly referred to as the "Pace Setter State" is one of the 36 States of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. It came into existence with the break-up of the old Western State of Nigeria during the State creation exercise in 1976 and it originally included Osun

State, which was split off in 1991. Oyo State is homogenous, mainly inhabited by the Yoruba ethnic group, found in the southwestern Nigeria who are primarily agrarian but have a predilection for living in high-density urban centers. The Yoruba culture was originally an oral tradition, and the majority of Yoruba people are native speakers of Yoruba language. The Yoruba are among the most urbanized people in Africa. For centuries before the arrival of the British colonial administration, most Yoruba already lived in well-structured urban centres organized around powerful city-states centered around the residence of the *Oba* (king).



Figure3.1:MapofNigeria showing Oyo State



Figure 3.2: Map of Oyo State showing the three senatorial districts

3.2.1 Brief history of Atiba local government

Atiba Local Government Area came into practical existence on 4th December 1996. It was

carved out of the defunct Oyo Local Government. It has a population of 169,702 based on the 2006 census figure and covers a land mass of about 2,197.53 km².

It is bounded in the North

by the forest reserve and Orelope Local Government, in the South by Oyo East and Oyo West Local Government, in the East by Oriire Local Government and in the West by the Saki East Local Government. It has ten wards namely: Oke Afin 1, Oke Afin 2, Aremo, Basorun,

Agunpopo 1, Agunpopo 2, Agunpopo 3, Asipa 1, Asipa 2, and Asipa 3. The major towns and villages in the area are Agunpopo, Oke-ebo, Isale Oyo, Sabo, Oke Olola, Basorun, Aafin, Asipa, Koso, Sakutu, Agbaluasa, Aremo Oke, Otefon, Ijawaya, Igbonla, Gboburo, Baale, Agba, Arinkinkin, Onire-Bara, Ajiroba, Ara Oyo, Idi-Ogun and a host of others.

The major occupations of the people of Atiba Local Government are farming, trading, transportation, traditional frameworks, and

general merchandise. The quality of shelter in the

Local Government may be classified into three types, which vary

directly with population density. The highly dense core areas generally have poor quality houses, while in the moderately dense areas, which are newly developed, well planned residential estates, which are generally of good quality.

The Local Government is blessed with two banks, block industries, schools, private secondary schools, hotels and petrol stations. The Local Government has a poultry farm with about 500 birds. There are five boreholes in the whole of the Atiba Local Government area. It has eight (8) maternity homes. They include those at Aafin, Koso, Idaogun, Ilowagbade, Otefon, Igbonla, Agunpopo, and Isale-Oyo. It controls seven dispensaries which are: Aafin dispensary, Isale-Oyo dispensary, Ajiroba dispensary, Onire-bara dispensary, Igbonla dispensary, Otefon dispensary, and Idaogun dispensary. It also has health posts at Isale-Oyo and Onire-Bara.

They belong to the Yoruba ethnic group and the predominant crops in the Local Government Area are maize, yam, and cassava. The common foodstuffs they consume include; *amalaw* with *gbegiri* and *wedu*, *koko*, *ekotutu* (moulded pap) with *moin moin* or *akara*, *garri*, *egbo*, *beans* etc.

3.2.2 Brief history of Iwajowa local government

Iwajowa is a Local Government Area in Oyo State, Nigeria. Its headquarters are in the town of Iwore-Ile. Iwore-Ile was a former powerful walled town in the old Oyo empire, dreadful for many Oyo indigenes, as well as the Alaafin to attack. Iwore-Ile became the headquarters of Iwajowa LG in December 1996 upon the creation of the new local government under the Gen Sanni Abacha's regime. Other villages and settlements include Iganna, Idiko-Ile, Idi-Agemo, Ijeomeso, Ayetoro-Ile, Ijio, Itasa, Ilaja-Ile, Elekokan, Ofeegun, Tudi, Jokolo, and Ayegun Wasinmin. It has an area of 2,529 km² and a population of 102,980 at the 2006 census. Iwajowa Local Government constitutes the following wards: Agbaakin 1, Agbaakin 2, Iwore-Ile 1, Iwore-Ile 2, Iwore-Ile 3, Iwore-Ile 4, Sabi Gana 1, Sabi Gana 2, Sabi Gana 3 and Sabi Gana 4.

The most predominant occupations of people of Iwajowa Local Government are farming, trading, and transportation. They often consume foodstuffs such as *amala* (made up of either yam flour or cassava flour) with soups such as *orunla* (dried okra), *ilasa* (okra leaf), vegetables (*efo tete*, *ebolo*, *yanrin*), *oregusi* (melon); Pounded yam with soup; bush meat and beans.

3.2.3 Brief history of Ibarapa local government

The Ibarapa is a Yoruba people group located in the southwestern corner of Oyo State. The name of the group is derived from a local cultivar of the melon plant, known locally as Egusi Ibara, which was historically acknowledged by neighboring peoples such as the Egbas, Ibadans, and Oyo to be extensively

cultivated in the area. The Ibarapa people are said to have migrated into the area, either as dissidents of the Old Oyo Empire, during the period of constant internecine warfare between the different Yoruba states, as well as refugees escaping the transatlantic and trans-Saharan slave raiding business of the day.

The Tapa segment of the population is said to have been formed by the Jihad ridden Nupe refugees from the northern Niger, who had lost their traditional state to Fula jihadists. The predominant occupation of the people is farming. Ibarapa land is traditionally made up of 7 principal towns known as the Ibarapa Meje (Ibarapa Seven), and their surrounding villages and farmsteads. These towns include Igangan, Eruwa, Aiyete, Tapa, Idere, Igbo-Ora, and Lanlate. Tapa and Aiyete are in Ibarapa North local government area, Idere and Igbo-Ora are in Ibarapa Central, while Lanlate and Eruwa are located in Ibarapa East local government. The three local governments were created by the Federal Government of Nigeria authorities in 1996 when Ibarapa East was carved out from the old Ibarapa Local Government while Ibarapa Central and North were carved out of the former Ifelaju Local Government area. The seven principal towns can be subdivided further, based on the villages that are organized around each of them. In totality, about 30 different villages litter the landscape.

The Ibarapa area falls within latitudes 70.15' N and 70.55' N and longitudes 30E and 30.30' E. It is located approximately 100 Km north of the coast of Lagos, and about 95 Km west of the Oyo state capital and the neighboring city of Ibadan. They border Yoruba of Onko extraction to the North (Iwajowa, Kajola and Iseyin (LGAs) and Yoruba of Oyo extraction to the East (Ibadan). The Yewa or Egbado to the West, and the Egbado to the South, The area is approximately 2,496 km² in geographical size and consists mostly of rolling savanna with forests situated along the southern border and in isolated patches along

with river courses such as the Ogun. The natural vegetation was originally rain forest but that has been mostly transformed into derived type savanna as a result of several centuries of slash and burn agricultural practices. Most of the land lies at elevations ranging between 120 and 200 meters above sea level, but rocky inselbergs and outcrops can be seen rising to 340 meters (approximately 1,115 ft). They predominantly engage in farming and trading.

Ibarapa Local Government constitutes the following wards: Oke-Oba, Anko, Isaba, Aborerin, New Eruwa, Sango, Oke-Imale, Isale Togun, Oke Otun, Itabo.

The common foods they consume include; *amala* (made up of either yam flour or cassava flour) with soup such as *morogbo*, *ilasa* (okra leaf), vegetables (*efote tete abalaye*), *oregusi* (melon); Pounded yam with soup; bush meat and beans. Other vegetables consumed in the locality in the past and present include *ewuro*, *efo igbo*, *eku*, *efo tete*, *shoko*, *ebolo*.

3.3 Sampling technique

A multi-stage sampling technique was employed in selecting households and respondents as follows:

Stage 1: Oyo State was purposively selected among the six states in Southwest Nigeria because of its size and diversity of people. It has three senatorial districts namely: Oyo North, Oyo Central, and Oyo South senatorial districts.

Stage 2: A Local Government Area (LGA) was randomly selected from the sampling frame of the Local Government Areas in each senatorial zone using a table of random numbers.

Stage 3: At the Local Government level, the sampling frame of the enumeration areas and wards was stratified into rural and urban enumeration areas/wards. Two wards (one rural and one urban) were selected from the stratification process using

simpler random sampling technique, and the households were identified through the household listing.

Stage 4: A systematic random sampling technique was used to select the household for the study.

Stage 5: At the household level, a household head/other members of the household were recruited for the study based on the inclusion criteria after obtaining the respondent's informed consent.

3.4 Study population

The respondents for this study were apparently healthy adults, men, and women aged 40 years and above.

3.4.1 Inclusion criteria

The study included male and female adult volunteers who were apparently healthy and were 40 years and above and are residents for at least 10 years in the Yoruba culture and habits.

3.4.2 Exclusion criteria

The study excluded children, adolescents, pregnant and lactating women; men and women who were below the age of 40 years, the respondent who show apparent signs of sickness and ailment, and respondents who have not resided up to 10 years in the Yoruba setting.

3.5 Sample size determination

The sample size was calculated using Stewart, 2002 formula based on the prevalence of chronic energy

deficiency(CED)amongadultsinNigeria.Using a samplesize formulaforthe single proportion:

$$n = \frac{z^2 (p)(1-p)}{E^2}$$

E^2

(Stewart, 2002) Z= Critical value at 95% confidenceinterval = 1.96.

p = assumedprevalenceofchronicenergydeficiency(CED)amongadultsinNigeriais 50%

E = Level of precision at 5% precision =0.05

$$n = \frac{1.96^2*(0.5)(0.5)}{0.05^2}$$

$$= 384.16$$

Introducing 20% attritionrate:

$$20\%(384.16) = 76.832$$

$$n = 384.16 + 76.832$$

$$= 460.992$$

n = is approximated to **500** respondents

Table 3.1:Sample sizeallocation by wards

LGA					
ATIBA EAST		IWAJOWA		IBARAPA	
Agunpopo	39460	Shabina	18086	Okolo	16922
OkeAfin	12800	Ilaji-Ile	11536	Anko	16969
Total	52260		29622		33891
Overalltotal	115773				
	= <u>52260 x500</u>		= <u>29622x500</u>		= <u>33891 x500</u>
	115773		115773		115773
	=226		=128		=146
Total Sample			=500		

A total number of five hundred (500) households, two hundred and twenty-six (226) households from Atiba LGA, one hundred and twenty-eight households from Iwajowa LGA, and one hundred and forty-six households from Ibarapa LGA were selected. A total of 20% of the required sample size was added to take care of non-respondents, thereby increasing the sample size to 600 respondents. However, the total number of household/respondents that completed the study was 589 - Atiba LGA - 200 households, Iwajowa LGA - 187 households, and Ibarapa LGA - 202 households completed the study.

3.6 Data collection technique

A validated semi-structured, interviewer-administered questionnaire was used to obtain information from respondents by trained research assistants who administered the questionnaire and other instruments. Focus group discussions were carried out in each of the wards chosen for the survey. A total of twelve focus group discussions were carried out, six for men, and six for women.

3.7 Instrument for data collection

Instruments for data collection were tape recorder for focus group discussion, validated and pre-tested as semi-structured questionnaire which was used for discussion and data collection, stadiometer and calibrated weighing scale for measuring the height and weight of respondents. The questionnaire contained different sections such as:

3.7.1 Respondents' socio-demographic and socio-economic data

Twenty-three item semi-structured interviewer-administered questionnaires were used to collect data on the socio-demographics as well as on the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. The respondents were among many

other items categorised based on their Location (rural or urban), Age, sex, ethnicity, marital status, type of marriage, religion, level of Education level of income, occupation, type of house, type of toilet facility, source of drinking water, type of cooking fuel, source/method of lighting and method of refuse disposal

3.7.2 Focus group discussion

A total of twelve focus group discussions (FGDs) (which comprised of one male group and one female group per ward with each group consisting 10 people) were conducted in the three chosen Local Government Areas (LGAs) (Atiba, Ibarapa, and Iwajowa) representing two per ward (one male and the other female).

Most of the respondents were adult male and female who were between the ages of 50 years and above. They were predominantly of Yoruba ethnic group who reside in urban and rural communities of the selected Local Government Areas and were people who were knowledgeable about their immediate environment and custodians of culture and tradition peculiar to each community. The interviewer team consisted of a moderator, a recorder/ secretary, and a timekeeper. Well-structured open-ended questions that were relevant to the study were prepared and discussed in an interactive manner with each participant giving equal opportunities to contribute. The interactive session which focused on their perceptions, opinions, beliefs, attitudes, and experiences about their food culture, preferences and habits lasted for about one hour in each of the groups. Their responses were well documented in writing, on tape and video (following their permission to record) and were later translated for data analysis.



Figure3.3: Addressingsomeofthe respondents during the focus group discussion



Figure3.4: A cross-sectionofthemale respondents during focus groupdiscussion



Figure 3.5: Across-section of the female respondents during focus group discussion



Figure 3.6: A sample of the food model used during the interview



Figure 3.7: Interviewing the respondents

.7.3 Food culture and habits

The food culture and habit of the respondents were assessed using well-structured interviewer-administered food frequency questionnaires. Information was obtained on the choice of food and preferences. The questionnaire contained items from the six classes of food and variables such as the number of consumption per day, per week, occasionally, rarely and never was used as indicators. Also, the meal pattern of the respondents was assessed using a 24 items questionnaire that centered on the meal pattern and the attitude of the respondents towards a healthy eating lifestyle like how many times do they eat daily? Meals skipping attitudes, snacking, portion sizes, food preparation, and combinations, etc were assessed.

3.7.4 24-hour dietary recall

Detailed information about all foods and beverages and the dietary supplements consumed by the respondent in the past 24 hours from midnight to midnight the previous day was collected. Two visits were made to each respondent and during each of the visits, the

respondents were made to remember all that they consumed within the last 24 hours and such were noted. Food models and pictures were used to demonstrate the corresponding quantities to help respondents remember and judge portion sizes of food they consumed and the weight were appropriately recorded in grams in the respondents' questionnaires. For the ones they bought from food vendors, the amount was noted and the corresponding amount was bought from food vendors in the same environment and the weight in grams or servings spoons noted and recorded in the respondents' questionnaires. The data was analysed for the nutrient compositions using the total dietary analysis software (TDA) and were categorised as inadequate (less than 80%), adequate (80-120%) and excess (above 120%).

3.7.5 Health Related Quality of Life (QoL) of respondents

Health-related quality of life was assessed using a patient multidimensional questionnaire that covered the respondents' physical, social, emotional, cognitive, work- or role-related, and spiritual aspects as well as a wide variety of disease-related symptoms and therapy-induced side effects.

The Health-related quality of life was used to assess how the respondent's well-being may be affected by their eating habit. This was assessed under several subscales which include:

Role Physical (RP): This subscale assesses the ease of performing some things by the respondent. It also assesses if they are limited in any kind or they accomplished less.

Physical Functioning (PF): This assesses the physical functioning of the respondent and questions about the ability to climb several flights, to moderate activity, to bathe or dress self.

Bodily Pain (BP): This subscale looks as if their body has been in any way affected by bodily pain.

General Health (GH): This subscale looks at the general health of the respondents. It looks as if they get sick easily, if they are as healthy as anybody, if their health worsens or if their health is excellent.

Role Emotional (RE): This subscale assesses the emotional well-being of the respondents, looking at if they work less carefully or they accomplish less.

Reported Health transition (RH):

Physical Health (PHH): This subscale is an overall scale for the physical health of the respondents and incorporates other subscales like the Role Physical (RP), Bodily Pain (BP), General Health (GH)

Vitality (VT): This subscale looks at the overall vitality of the respondents, assessing if they've felt worn out or tired in the preceding days.

Mental Health (MEH): This subscale looks at the overall health of the respondents. It incorporates other subscales like Vitality (VT), Social Functioning (SF), Role-Emotional (RE), and Mental Health (MH)

Social Functioning (SF): This subscale assesses the overall social impact aspect of the respondent's life.

Items were reverse-scored such that higher scores would represent better HRQoL. To combine the items on each factor into single-scale scores, raw responses to the items were converted to standard (z) scores. The mean z-scores for the items in each scale were calculated. Simple means were used rather than weighing the items by their factor loadings. The resulting means were then converted to T-scores to create a distribution of scores scaled to 100. The closer to 100 a respondent scores on any of the subscales, the better is their health performance on that subscale.

3.7.6 Body mass index determination

A stadiometer was used to measure the respondents' height. The respondents were asked to stand erect with their legs fully straightened on the base plate. Their shoes were pulled off

and their head bars were made to rest lightly on their head. The bare feet were placed slightly apart while the back of the head, shoulder blades, buttock and heel touched the vertical board. The height readings were then taken to the nearest 1 cm.



Figure 3.8: A respondent taking his weight measurement

The body weights of the respondents were done on a smooth level surface using a weighing scale. The respondents were made to stand erect on the scale barefooted with nothing on them except their light clothing. The weight measurement was displayed and allowed to stabilize after which it was recorded in the respondents' questionnaires in kilogrammes. The resulting weight in kilogram divided by the square of the height in a centimeter of the respondent was used to calculate the individual respondent's body mass index (BMI).

3.8 Translation of protocol:

The instrument for data collection was translated into Yoruba language and back-translated to English to ensure content validity. This translation was to enhance respondents who do not understand English Language but understand Yoruba to participate actively in the study.

3.9 Questionnaire validity

Review of relevant literature, reviewed by experts, statisticians and researchers were carried out to ensure face and content validity. A pre-test was conducted in Ido Local Government Area to test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. To confirm the validity of the instrument, analysis of the pre-test data was done using Cronbach's Alpha correlation coefficient at $(p < 0.05)$ using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Software (version 20).

3.10 Data analysis

Qualitative data were analysed thematically while quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics. Data entry, checking, cleaning, and analysis were done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Software (version 20). The 24-hour dietary recall was converted into the weight of food in grams and analysed for nutrient intake using the Total Dietary Assessment (TDA) software. Descriptive statistics, Chi-square test, student t-test, correlation, and multiple regression analyses were carried out at 5% level of significance to elucidate the relationship between the socio-demographic variables, the nutritional status and food habits of respondents.

3.11 Ethical consideration

Ethical approval was obtained from the UI/UCH Institutional Ethical review board. Written informed consent was obtained from the study participants. The principle of confidentiality, beneficence, non-magnificence, voluntary participation and withdrawal from the study at any point in time without repercussion was ensured.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Specific Objective 1

To determine socio-demographic and socio-economic household characteristics that influence food habits of adults in Oyo State.

4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table 4.1. Generally, a larger proportion of both rural and urban dwellers were female (51.4% and 62.3% respectively). More females (79.7%) lived in urban areas compared with rural areas in Ibarapa LGA. Iwajowa LGA had more females living in both rural (63.2%) and urban (59%) areas. Atiba LGA, however, had more of its male population dominating both the rural (52.1%) and urban (55.8%) areas.

Generally, the respondents were aged between fifty (50) and (70) years (urban-46.0%, rural-49.8%). This is also the same trend seen in Iwajowa (urban-54.0%, rural-49.0%) and Ibarapa LGA (urban-55.5%, rural-56.8%). Only Atiba LGA had more of its Urban residents less than 50 years of age (55.8%) and many of its rural dwellers between 50 and 70 years of age (44.8%). Atiba LGA had only 1% of its urban dwellers to be of Hausa Ethnicity, and 1% of the rural dwellers to be of Igbo Descent. However, most of both the Urban (99.0%) and rural (97.9%) residents were of Yoruba ethnicity. Iwajowa LGA had all of its residents, both Urban (100%) and Rural (100%) from the Yoruba ethnic group. Urban residents in Ibarapa (59.7%) and Iwajowa (71.4%) LGAs practice more of Polyandry system of marriage. However, a higher proportion of the respondents reported one husband or wife in all the LGAs except for urban

residents in Iwajowa LGA, which reported a higher proportion (37.3%) having two (2) wives/ husbands. Atiba LGA had the same proportion of people with no education and tertiary education among its urban residents (29.8%). In Ibarapa (Urban-64.0%, Rural-66.2%), Iwajowa (Urban-87.9%, Rural-64.7%) and Generally (Urban-60.4%, Rural-66.9%), more people reported having no education, regardless of the locality of their residence (i.e. rural or Urban).

Most Urban residents in the three LGAs, Atiba, Ibarapa and Iwajowa were traders (61.5%, 58.7%, and 50.5%, respectively). In a similar way, most rural residents were farmers except for Iwajowa LGA which had most of its residents as traders (50.6%). The main religion practised in Atiba LGA is Islam (Urban-76.9%, Rural-51.6%) while that of Ibarapa is Christianity (Urban-77.7%, Rural-65.8%). In Iwajowa LGA, however, a larger proportion of urban residents practise Islam (82.7) while the majority of the rural residents are Christians (64.7).

Table 4.1: Socio demographic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Atiba		Ibarapa		Iwajowa		Combined sample	
	Urban n(%)	Rural n(%)	Urban n(%)	Rural n(%)	Urban n(%)	Rural n(%)	Urban n(%)	Rural n(%)
Sex								
Male	58(55.8)	50(52.1)	26(20.3)	43(58.1)	41(41.0)	32(36.8)	125(37.7)	125(48.6)
Female	46(44.2)	46(47.9)	102(79.7)	31(41.9)	59(59.0)	55(63.2)	207(62.3)	132(51.4)
Age group								
<50 years	58(55.8)	36(39.6)	20(15.6)	9(12.2)	1(1.0)	5(5.7)	79(23.8)	52(20.2)
50 –70 years	30(28.8)	43(44.8)	71(55.5)	42(56.8)	54(54.0)	43(49.4)	155(46.7)	128(49.8)
>70 years	16(15.4)	15(15.6)	37(28.9)	23(31.1)	45(45.0)	39(44.9)	98(29.5)	77(30.0)
Ethnicity								
Yoruba	103(99.0)	94(97.9)	127(100.0)	72(97.3)	100(100.0)	87(100.0)	330(99.7)	253(98.4)
Igbo	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.4)
Hausa	1(1.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.3)	0(0.0)
Others	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	0(0.0)	2(2.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(1.2)
Marital status								
Married	94(91.3)	83(87.4)	84(65.6)	60(81.1)	62(62.0)	56(64.4)	240(72.5)	199(77.7)
Divorce/Seperation rate	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(7.8)	3(4.1)	8(8.0)	5(5.7)	18(5.4)	8(3.1)
Widow	9(8.7)	12(12.6)	34(26.6)	11(14.9)	30(30.0)	26(29.9)	73(22.1)	49(19.1)
Type of marriage								
Monogamy	59(57.3)	66(69.5)	50(40.3)	38(51.4)	28(28.6)	53(62.4)	137(42.2)	157(61.8)
Polygamy/Polyandry	44(42.7)	29(30.5)	74(59.7)	36(48.6)	70(71.4)	32(37.6)	188(57.8)	97(38.2)
No of wives or husband								
1	48(68.6)	64(74.4)	48(58.5)	41(59.4)	17(28.8)	50(72.5)	113(53.6)	155(69.2)
2	17(24.3)	16(18.6)	19(23.2)	19(27.5)	22(37.3)	15(21.7)	58(27.5)	50(22.3)
>2	3(4.3)	2(2.3)	7(8.5)	8(11.6)	9(15.3)	4(5.8)	40(19.0)	19(8.5)
Education category								
None	31(29.8)	66(69.5)	80(64.0)	47(66.2)	87(87.9)	55(64.7)	198(60.4)	168(66.9)
Primary	22(21.2)	19(20.0)	26(20.8)	16(22.5)	10(10.1)	24(28.2)	58(17.7)	59(23.5)
Secondary	20(19.2)	8(8.4)	15(12.0)	7(9.9)	1(1.0)	3(3.5)	36(11.0)	18(7.2)
Tertiary	31(29.8)	2(2.1)	4(3.2)	1(1.4)	1(1.0)	3(3.5)	36(11.0)	6(2.4)
Occupation category								
None	1(1.0)	1(1.1)	15(11.9)	1(1.4)	11(11.1)	14(16.1)	27(8.2)	16(6.3)
Trade/businesses	64(61.5)	35(36.8)	74(58.7)	23(31.1)	50(50.5)	44(50.6)	188(57.3)	102(39.8)
Farmers	9(8.7)	45(47.4)	17(13.5)	43(58.1)	27(27.3)	20(23.0)	53(16.2)	108(42.2)
Civil servants	15(14.6)	1(1.1)	3(2.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(2.3)	18(5.5)	3(1.2)
Artisans	14(13.6)	13(13.7)	17(13.5)	7(9.5)	11(11.1)	7(8.0)	42(12.8)	27(10.5)
Religion category								
Christianity	19(18.3)	45(47.4)	95(77.2)	48(65.8)	15(15.3)	55(64.7)	129(39.7)	148(58.5)
Islam	80(76.9)	49(51.6)	28(22.8)	25(34.2)	81(82.7)	30(35.3)	189(58.2)	104(41.1)
Others	5(4.8)	1(1.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(2.0)	0(0.0)	7(2.2)	1(0.4)

4.2 Socio-economic characteristics of respondents

The socio-economic characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table 4.2. Self-employment is the major employment type among the respondents. Most of the respondents reported that they are self-employed, regardless of the locality of their residence. In Ibarapa LGA for instance, 94.3% of its rural residents are self-employed. Respondents in Ibarapa and Iwajowa are majorly low-income earners. Among urban dwellers in Ibarapa LGA, 66.4% earn less than ₦10,000 a month. This is similar to 55.6% among rural dwellers in the same LGA. Iwajowa LGA has 74.0% of its urban dwellers, and 80.5% of its rural dwellers earning less than ₦10,000. Atiba LGA, however, has more (48.9%) rural dwellers earning less than ₦10,000, and more (51.9%) urban dwellers earning between ₦10,000 and ₦49,000. In all the LGAs, less money is spent on food. Most of the respondents across all strata in all the LGAs reported spending less than ₦10,000 on food.

Table 4.2: Socio-economic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Atiba		Ibarapa		Iwajowa		Combined sample	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)
Employment status								
<i>Unemployed</i>	2(1.9)	1(1.1)	6(5.1)	2(2.9)	7(7.2)	7(7.2)		
<i>Self-employed</i>	74(71.2)	80(84.2)	91(77.8)	66(94.3)	88(90.7)	59(75.6)		
<i>Wage-earner</i>	9(8.7)	3(3.2)	12(10.3)	1(1.4)	2(2.1)	4(5.1)		
<i>Retired</i>	4(3.8)	10(10.5)	8(6.8)	1(1.4)	0(0.0)	4(5.1)		
<i>Others</i>	15(14.4)	1(1.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
Income level								
<i><10,000</i>	29(27.9)	46(48.9)	83(66.4)	40(55.6)	74(74.0)	70(80.5)	186(56.5)	156(61.7)
<i>10,000 – 49,000</i>	54(51.9)	44(46.8)	39(31.2)	20(40.3)	24(24.0)	16(18.4)	117(35.6)	89(35.2)
<i>=/>50,000</i>	21(20.2)	4(4.3)	3(2.4)	3(4.2)	2(2.0)	1(1.1)	26(7.9)	8(3.2)
Amount on food								
<i><10,000</i>	62(60.2)	76(80.9)	111(90.2)	62(86.1)	91(91.0)	84(96.6)		
<i>10,000-19,000</i>	11(10.7)	8(8.5)	8(6.5)	5(6.9)	4(4.0)	3(3.4)		
<i>20,000-29,000</i>	19(18.4)	7(7.4)	1(0.8)	3(4.2)	1(1.0)	0(0.0)		
<i>30,000-39,000</i>	10(9.7)	1(1.1)	0(0.0)	1(1.4)	2(2.0)	0(0.0)		
<i>40,000-49,000</i>	1(1.0)	0(0.0)	3(2.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		

Specific Objective 2

To identify changes in food habits of adults in Oyo State

4.3 Changes in food habits of adults in Oyo State: Focus group discussions

Most of the respondents (77.8%) were adult male and female who were between the ages of 50 years and above. They were predominantly of Yoruba ethnic group who lived in urban and rural communities of the selected Local Government Areas and were people who were knowledgeable about their immediate environment and custodians of culture and tradition peculiar to each community. Many of the participants (40.5%) were of low socio-economic status based on responses to some of the questions. More than one-third (37.9%) of the participants can read and write judging from the responses to issues raised and spoken words. About half (50.2%) of the participants engaged in subsistent farming and a small proportion of their farm produce served the purpose of generating income for the family. Many of the women reportedly joined their husband to work on the farm. It could also be inferred that participants mainly sourced their foods from subsistence farming, although some other food items were bought in the market. Narrating their experiences and ordeal in their job, one of the participants in a rural community stated that:

“Our major problem here is the Fulani rearing their cattle to graze our crops and farmland. This practice is hindering our commitment to farming because they are disrupting and eating up our farm a lot. Please, discuss our plight with people in authority so that they can come to our rescue”.

Another male participant revealed that they were predominantly agrarians as he reported that, “If we can go back to our former way of cultivation when we can leave our crops for a long

time before harvesting and not necessarily use chemicals and fertilizer. This step will be of help to resuscitate our food habits”.

One of the participants pointed out that, “Our diet in the past made us healthy with strong bones but now food we eat don’t give us much energy. Most of the food we eat don’t go well in the body system so it leads to stroke and other diseases. Magi and sugar are what we eat in the food now and we have no choice. This is due to civilization, and impatience of everyone even in the kitchen.” Participants also pointed out that, improvement in technology in farming is affecting the quality of farm products in the present time. In their opinion, the addition of fertilizer and chemical to plants was observed to be detrimental to people’s health. Moreover, improvements in species of farm seedlings were also noted to be harmful to people’s health.

They argued that seedlings used on farms in the past were much better than what they use now in terms of farm yield, nutrition, and taste. According to some participants, “You see in the past our parents do not plant yams and maize with chemicals. When we consumed such foods there is no fear of harm to the body. But presently, applications of chemicals applied to yam, cassava, maize, etc, are causing harm to the body and we don’t know what to do”. Another participant added that,

“In the past when you roast maize during maize seasons you will perceive the aroma (scent) from a far distance. But now you can’t perceive such aroma as a result of the chemical application during planting. Though chemicals applied to the farm have advantages, it also has disadvantages. For example, applying herbicides on the farm instead of clearing the bush for farming would reduce the stress of clearing but it is also destroying wild vegetables causing them to go into extinction”.

Food culture and eating habits of adults’ food in the right quality and quantity is essential to life; it is also important to eat it at the right time. Breakfast which is the first meal of the day is eaten every day in all the index of urban and rural communities except during the fasting period. However, the type/kind of

food taken as breakfast varies from one area to another largely on availability and affordability. The breakfast is made up largely of carbohydrate and protein; for instance, some community members prefer eating light meal (liquid hot pap or 'koko' with akara or moinmoin, pap moulded in leaves, beans, white maize porridge or 'egbo' and rice) or heavy meal ('amala' and 'gbegiri', pounded yam and vegetables) as breakfast. According to some women participants in an urban community,

“We take koko (hot pap) and eat eko tutu (pap mould in leaves)”

“We take hot pap and eat eko tutu and if there is rice we cook it. . .” “Amala and 'gbegiri' (beans soup), some prefer 'moinmoin' and hot pap

'Moinmoin' and 'eko tutu' (pap mould in leaves, (Some of the female participants from urban community stated)

Adult men in an urban community, however, pointed out that there are differences in food

consumption patterns in yesteryears compared with today in that in the past food are prepared at home and eaten at leisure but the case is not so today. According to one of the male participants,

“Yes, there is difference, in the time past when 'Onini' (old days coin in Nigeria) was being spent whenever we wake up, our parents will give us 'Onini' to buy hot pap and akara or our parents would prepare it for us at home but now you have more of 'koko' hawked in the morning. We are free to eat whatever we like in the past but now we can't. We eat what we see. Even hot pap that we usually take with the spoon in the time past is not available again instead we take 'koko' now and buy 'amala' from a restaurant”.

Participants also pointed out that there are marked differences between the manners in which lunch is eaten. In their opinion, food composition and preparation in the old days is quite different from the way it is combined and prepared today. They pointed out that most of the ingredients used in the preparation of meals nowadays are too artificial. One of the participants pointed out that,

“The soup is quite different. In the past we don't eat ‘Maggi’, canned tomatoes and Hausa's onions, the kind of onions we consumed then was leafy onions, locust beans, and our mothers used a stone to grind pepper not a milling machine. We go to the farm to hunt animals for soup. We cook bush meat and okro together which is usually sweet to taste. But it's not available in present days”.

In terms of effects of foods consumed in the present day, almost all participants in all the communities were unanimous in responding that some of the food eaten these days are not healthy to the body, and are detrimental to people's well-being. According to them most of the foods people are eating today are loaded with condiments and seasonings which they perceive to be unhealthy. As one of the participants pointed out,

“In the past, we consumed ‘obeosiki’ (egusi soup), okro, ‘ilasa’, ‘morogbo’, ‘obeajara’. But, now some of our women don't know how to cook ‘ilasa’ or ‘morogbo’. ‘Obeajara’ is very good for the body. In the past when you cook soup with ‘enmiarugbo’ leaves, the soup works well in the body. Presently, the soup we consume contains curry, Maggi, etc, which cause harm to the body like cancer, ulcer, etc. In the past, our parents used locust bean and ‘ogiri’. This civilization is really causing harm to us in this present day”.

It was also added that food preparation, processing and the materials used have significant effects on health. For instance, another participant pointed out that cooking pots used in the preparation of food help in the preservation of such food most especially soup and also have an effect on health. In their opinions on the westernization of lifestyle, the perceived health outcomes of all these are a reduction in life expectancy and a reduction in body functioning. According to one of the male participants, “In addition, in the past, they use earthen pots to cook soup, but now it is a aluminum pot which has some deposit of chemicals inside. Some of the diseases we suffer are a result of the

chemicals we consume through the interaction between food and modern day pot. Also, an earthen pot keeps soup warm for a long time than the aluminum pot”.

A female participant added further that, “In the past, we used ‘ewedu’ but it is different now. The reason is that; the way we plant ‘ewedu’ at present affects its quality because we are encouraged to add some chemicals to the soil before planting or even after planting. By the time we cook such ‘ewedu’ it will not drawl and the texture is harsh. By now you will notice the difference between the ‘ewedu’ planted with or without chemicals because the latter will be very greenish than the other. Even vegetables and other crops such as yam, cassava are planted with chemicals. In the time past, there were no such things” (a middle aged female participant, Iganna).

Another participant added that “The effect is that it reduces the longevity of life and causes body weakness. No physical activities like before”. “Our bodies were quite strong than the present day because now we consume M aggialotin soups which affect our body and makes us weak”.

Regarding the time breakfast is eaten, a majority of the participants pointed out that breakfast is eaten between 7 am and 8 am. However, a participant noted there could be an exception in which breakfast could be eaten latest by 9 am. In addition, a female participant in one of the urban areas pointed out that breakfast is compulsory for everyone in order to avoid ill health. According to her,

“We must eat breakfast early to prevent unforeseen health issue. So, we eat as early as 7 am even if it is a small meal (hot pap) and later we will eat another food”.

When asked about the peculiar therapeutic foods in their community, a participant pointed out that there are therapeutic foods in the community (hot pap, ‘ekotutu’, ‘moinmoin’, ‘akara’, ‘amala’, pounded yam and porridge); such foods were believed to help the sick to recover on time. In her words, the therapeutic foods are “Ogi, (hot-

pap), and ekotutu, (pap moulded inside leaves), moin moin and akara. It is believed that when a hot pap is given to anyone that is sick, he/she will get well”.

Other common indigenous therapeutic vegetables mentioned are ‘ugwu’, bitter leaf, ‘gbure’ and ‘gbagba’.

Foodstaples for lunch in all the communities sampled are made up of carbohydrate, protein, and vitamins largely. For instance, amala (made of either yam or cassava flour) with soup (‘morogbo’, ‘ilasa’ [okra leaves], vegetables [‘efo tete abalaye’] or ‘egusi’ [melon] with vegetables); pounded yam with soup; meat and beans. It was also noted that the common vegetables in the past and the present are ‘efo tete abalaye’, ‘ewuro’, ‘igbo’, ‘pekun’ ‘efo tete’, ‘shoko’ and ‘ebolo’. As one of the female participants pointed out,

“Some people if chance can pound yam, some beans but majorly, we eat ‘amala’ (yam flour) and ‘ilasa’ soup which contain locust beans. Up to date, we don’t use Maggi® for drawso up (elastic/vegetable soup) we use locust beans. When prepared for someone that just gave birth to take, it nourishes her body. But now we use Maggi for stew although in the olden days our mothers used leafy onions and locust beans for stew”.

Dinner is eaten in all the communities although the content of dinner varies from one community to another. ‘Ekotutu with moin moin/Akara pounded yam, rice and spaghetti are common food items eaten as dinner although this is largely dependent on each family’s economic power and ability. It was further stressed that pounded yam is one of the major meals for dinner in the time past, however, it’s not a common food for dinner again because some youth of today who are saddled with the responsibility of preparing the meal cannot pound yam.

According to some female discussants in the urban areas, some of the modern foods common in the community and consumed mostly by the children are canned foods, noodles, rice, Spaghetti, Semovita, and wheat. It was also mentioned that children are made to eat fruit and vegetables in addition to these modern foods.

While making a comparison on health benefits of foods prepared and eaten in the yesteryears and the present, it was pointed out by some female participants that the olden day foods prepared and eaten were healthier than the present ones. This was so because foods in those periods were cultivated with little or no chemicals added to the planting process unlike what obtains in the present day.

According to one of the female discussants in an urban community, "In the olden days' foods, the processing method especially planting is quite different. Present day foods are planted with chemicals and fertilizer thereby resulting in early maturing and harvesting of food crops".

A female participant in one urban community also explained that "Also, vegetables without fertilizer taste good and palatable than fertilized ones". Various types of fruits were mentioned to be common in most of the index urban communities and they were eaten regularly. Such fruits include but not limited to mangoes, cashew, orange, pineapple, pawpaw, banana and plantain. However, one of the female participants in another urban community was of contrary view on the availability of these fruits. According to her, fruits are costly and not many people can afford to buy in these days.

In her words, "But we don't have access to fruits like before due to availability and cost. We have to buy them from a few people that are planting them on their farms. Even if our husbands go to the farm and bring fruits instead of giving it out freely we sell to make money. Unlike before that, we have fruits on an individual's farm, it is scarce today and we consume fewer fruits."

Specific Objective 3

To identify relationships between socio-demographic and socio-economic household characteristics that influence the nutritional status of adults in Oyo State

4.4: Household characteristics of respondents

Table 4.4 shows the household characteristics of the respondents. Generally, in each of the three LGAs of Atiba, Ibarapa, and Iwajowa, most of the respondents had a household size that consists of less than or exactly six (6) members. Only Urban dwellers in Atiba LGA had a high proportion (49.5%) having a household size of more than six people.

Atiba LGA has less of its urban dwellers (41.3%) owning houses. This is not the same as its rural dwellers with 72.3% owning houses. In Ibarapa and Iwajowa LGAs, most of the respondents owned their personal houses. Iwajowa LGA, however, reported higher proportions in both the rural and urban localities than Ibarapa and Atiba LGAs (93.8%, 85.7% respectively).

Except for urban dwellers in Atiba LGA, which reported a higher proportion of its residents living in Flats with bedrooms (49.5%), most of the respondents reported living in other types of accommodation. In the rural Area of Iwajowa, however, the proportion who lived in flats with bedroom and other types of accommodation was the same (31.4%).

Mud was the main material used in most of the respondents' houses, with only urban residents in Atiba LGA being the only exceptional case. In the Urban area of Atiba LGA, most (74.0%) of the houses in which the respondents lived were built with concrete blocks.

The major flooring material used in all the LGAs, regardless of the strata, was concrete. Only

Rural residences in Atiba LGA were different, where 62.1% used no form of flooring material whatsoever.

In all the LGAs, the main roofing material used was corrugated iron roofing sheets, with respondents reporting from 64.4% in Atiba-Urban to 100% in Ibarapa-Rural and Iwajowa-Rural. All the respondents in Ibarapa rural and Iwajowa rural used corrugated iron sheets as the main roofing material.

The main source of drinking water was generally borehole. However, most of the rural residents in Atiba LGA (47.4%) used Surface water as the main source of drinking water. Also, urban residents in Iwajowa LGA used well water mostly (42.0%) as their main source of drinking water.

Most of the respondents in the urban areas used Kerosene as the main source of cooking fuel. Atiba LGA, for instance, had 58.7% of its urban population using Kerosene, which is similar to that of Ibarapa LGA, with 55.2%. However, a large proportion of urban residents in Iwajowa LGA (42.9%) used Charcoal as the main source of fuel for cooking.

The public power supply was the main source of lighting in most urban areas of the LGAs.

However, Iwajowa LGA had most of its urban residents (47.5%) using candle light as a source of lighting as against those of Ibarapa (54.7%) and Atiba LGA (69.2%) which reported public power as a source of lighting. Most rural areas had a low proportion of its dwellers using public power, except for Iwajowa LGA where 47.7% of rural dwellers use the public power supply.

Regardless of the locality, all the LGAs reported a higher proportion of dwellers had no toilet facility in the household. These values range from 48.1% in urban Atiba LGA to 97.9% in rural Atiba LGA. Rural residents in Atiba LGA had no pit latrine (0%) and only very few (2.1%) had a water closet in the household.

A high proportion of the respondents responded to not having any form of refuse management. This trend is the same in all the LGAs, regardless of the locality. Rural residents of Atiba LGA, for instance, had 99% of them with no refuse management scheme, which is similar to that of Iwajowa (92.0%) and Ibarapa (98.6), all in the same localities (Rural).

Table 4.4: Household characteristics of respondents

Variable	Atiba		Ibarapa		Iwajowa		Combined sample	
	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)
Total household category								
≤ 6	52(50.5)	60(63.2)	113(88.3)	58(78.4)	79(80.6)	77(80.6)	244(74.2)	195(76.2)
>6	51(49.5)	35(36.8)	15(11.7)	16(21.6)	19(19.4)	10(11.5)	85(25.8)	61(23.8)
House ownership								
No	61(58.7)	23(27.7)	35(30.4)	22(34.9)	14(14.3)	5(6.2)	110(34.7)	50(22.0)
Yes	43(41.3)	60(72.3)	80(69.6)	41(65.1)	84(85.7)	76(93.8)	207(65.3)	177(78.0)
Type of house								
A room	15(15.8)	22(23.7)	33(25.8)	18(25.0)	11(11.0)	2(2.3)	59(18.3)	42(16.7)
Self-contained	33(34.7)	22(23.7)	28(21.9)	17(23.6)	21(21.0)	6(7.0)	82(25.4)	45(17.9)
Flat with bedrooms	47(49.5)	16(17.2)	16(12.5)	9(12.5)	11(11.0)	27(31.4)	74(22.9)	52(20.7)
Others (e.g. Me	0(0.0)	33(35.5)	51(39.8)	28(38.9)	11(11.0)	27(31.4)	108(33.4)	112(44.6)
Building materials								
Wood	2(1.9)	4(4.3)	0(0.0)	2(2.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
Mud	22(21.2)	82(87.2)	66(51.6)	64(86.5)	66(66.0)	67(77.0)		
Concrete block	77(74.0)	8(8.5)	41(32.0)	8(10.8)	22(22.0)	20(23.0)		
Others	3(2.9)	0(0.0)	21(16.4)	0(0.0)	12(12.0)	0(0.0)		
Flooring materials								
None	3(2.9)	59(62.1)	5(4.1)	34(46.6)	7(7.0)	2(2.3)		
Wood	7(6.7)	1(1.1)	0(0.0)	1(1.4)	2(2.0)	5(5.8)		
Concrete	80(76.9)	34(35.8)	117(95.1)	38(52.1)	91(91.0)	79(91.9)		
Tiles	12(11.5)	0(0.0)	1(0.8)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
Terrazzo	2(1.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
Others	0(0.0)	1(1.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
Roofing materials								
Thatched roof	2(1.9)	4(4.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
Ironsheets	67(64.4)	84(91.3)	126(98.4)	74(100.0)	99(99.0)	87(100.0)		
Aluminium/corrugated sheets	31(29.8)	4(4.3)	2(1.6)	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	0(0.0)		
Concrete	2(1.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
Others	2(1.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		

Table 4.4: Household characteristics of respondents (continued)

Variable	Atiba		Ibarapa		Iwajowa		Combined sample	
	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)	Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)
Main source of drinking water								
<i>Surface water</i>	4(3.8)	45(47.4)	5(3.9)	13(17.6)	9(9.0)	4(4.6)	82(24.7)	68(26.6)
<i>Well</i>	37(35.6)	16(16.8)	22(17.2)	1(1.4)	42(42.0)	15(17.2)	101(30.4)	32(12.5)
<i>Borehole</i>	45(43.3)	34(35.8)	37(28.9)	60(81.1)	10(10.0)	54(62.1)	92(27.7)	148(57.8)
<i>Others</i>	18(17.3)	0(0.0)	19(14.8)	0(0.0)	20(20.0)	8(9.2)	57(17.2)	8(3.1)
Main source of cooking fuel								
<i>Wood</i>	19(18.3)	88(91.7)	26(20.8)	66(89.2)	40(40.8)	56(65.1)	85(26.0)	210(82.0)
<i>Charcoal</i>	18(17.3)	4(4.2)	29(23.2)	2(2.7)	42(42.9)	14(16.3)	89(27.2)	20(7.8)
<i>Kerosene</i>	61(58.7)	2(2.1)	69(55.2)	6(8.1)	16(16.3)	16(18.6)	146(44.6)	24(9.4)
<i>Others</i>	0(0.0)	2(2.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(2.1)	2(0.8)
Main source of lighting								
<i>None</i>	0(0.0)	16(16.7)	1(0.8)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.2)	1(0.3)	17(6.6)
<i>Candle/Lantern</i>	28(26.9)	55(57.3)	36(28.1)	35(47.3)	47(47.5)	40(46.5)	111(33.5)	130(50.8)
<i>Public power (e.g. PHCN)</i>	72(69.2)	0(0.0)	70(54.7)	4(5.4)	40(40.4)	41(47.7)	182(55.0)	45(17.6)
<i>Alternative sources (generators, solar inverters etc)</i>	4(3.8)	25(26.0)	21(16.4)	35(47.3)	12(12.1)	4(4.7)	37(11.2)	64(25.0)
Toilet facility in household								
<i>None (e.g. open bush, surface water)</i>	50(48.1)	94(97.9)	99(77.3)	72(97.3)	78(78.0)	80(92.0)	227(68.4)	246(95.7)
<i>Pit latrine</i>	20(19.2)	0(0.0)	20(15.6)	2(2.7)	21(21.0)	6(6.9)	61(18.4)	8(3.1)
<i>Water closet</i>	34(32.7)	2(2.1)	9(7.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	1(1.1)	44(13.3)	3(1.2)
Refuse management								
	75(72.1)	95(99.0)	124(96.9)	73(98.6)	99(99.0)	80(92.0)	298(89.8)	248(96.5)
<i>Burning</i>	11(10.6)	0(0.0)	1(0.8)	1(1.4)	0(0.0)	1(1.1)	14(4.2)	5(1.9)
<i>City services</i>	16(15.4)	0(0.0)	3(2.3)	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	4(4.6)	20(6.0)	4(1.6)

4.5: Association between socio-demographic characteristics and LGA of respondents

Table 4.5 shows the association between LGAs and Socio-demographic factors. Sex, age, marital status, type of marriage, occupation, number of wives and religion are some variables that were significantly associated with the local government of the residence of the respondents. The association between ethnicity and the LGA of the respondents was, however, not significant.

The proportion of females was more in all the LGAs, except for Atiba which had more male (54.0%) than female (46%). Most respondents were aged 50-70 years, only Atiba LGA reported a higher proportion in those less than 50 years old. The major ethnic group is Yoruba. Married respondents were more than other marital groups across all the LGAs.

Monogamy is the main marriage type practised in Atiba LGA (89.4%), while Ibarapa (55.6%) and Iwajowa (55.7%) practise polygamy/polyandry. In all the LGAs, the proportion that had no education were higher than those with primary, Secondary or higher level of education. More people were into trade/business as an occupation in all the LGAs. There were more Muslims than other religious groups in Atiba (64.8%) and Iwajowa (60.7%). Ibarapa LGA had more Christians (73.0%) than other religious groups.

Table 4.5: Association between socio-demographic characteristics and LGA of respondents

Variable	Ibarapa		Iwajowa		Chi-square	P
Atiba	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)		
Sex						
<i>Male</i>	108(54.0)	69(34.2)	73(39.0)		17.50	<0.001
<i>Female</i>	92(46.0)	133(65.8)	114(61.0)			
Age group						
<i><50 years</i>	96(48.0)	29(14.4)	6(3.2)		132.66	<0.001
<i>50–70</i>	73(36.5)	113(55.9)	97(51.9)			
<i>>70 years</i>	31(15.5)	60(29.7)	84(44.9)			
Ethnicity						
<i>Yoruba</i>	197(98.5)	199(99.0)	187(100.0)		5.78	0.45
<i>Igbo</i>	1(0.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)			
<i>Hausa</i>	1(0.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)			
<i>Others</i>	1(0.5)	2(1.0)	0(0.0)			
Marital status						
<i>Married</i>	177(89.4)	144(71.3)	118(63.1)		40.33	<0.001
<i>Divorced/separated</i>	0(0.0)	13(6.4)	13(7.0)			
<i>Widow</i>	21(10.6)	45(22.3)	56(29.9)			
Type of marriage						
<i>Monogamy</i>	125(63.1)	88(44.4)	81(44.3)		18.38	<0.001
<i>Polygamy/polyandry</i>	73(36.9)	110(55.6)	102(55.7)			
Wives group						
<i>1</i>	112(71.8)	89(58.9)	67(52.3)		14.32	0.01
<i>2</i>	33(21.2)	38(25.2)	37(28.9)			
<i>>2</i>	11(7.1)	24(15.9)	24(18.8)			
Education category						
<i>None</i>	97(48.7)	127(64.8)	142(77.2)		64.82	<0.001
<i>Primary</i>	41(20.6)	42(21.4)	34(18.5)			
<i>Secondary</i>	28(14.1)	22(11.2)	4(2.2)			
<i>Tertiary</i>	33(16.6)	5(2.6)	4(2.2)			
Occupation category						
<i>None</i>	2(1.0)	16(8.0)	25(13.4)		39.26	<0.001
<i>Trade/business</i>	99(50.0)	97(48.5)	94(50.5)			
<i>Farmers</i>	54(27.3)	60(30.0)	47(25.3)			
<i>Civil servants</i>	16(8.1)	3(1.5)	2(1.1)			
<i>Artisans</i>	27(13.6)	24(12.0)	18(9.7)			
Religion category						
<i>Christian</i>	64(32.2)	143(73.0)	70(38.3)		79.23	<0.001
<i>Islam</i>	129(64.8)	53(27.0)	111(60.7)			
<i>Others</i>	6(3.0)	0(0.0)	2(1.1)			

4.6 Association between socio-economic characteristics and LGA of respondents

The association between socioeconomic variables and the LGA of the respondents is shown in Table 4.6. The association between all the socio-economic variables and the LGA of respondents was significant. More of the respondents in Iwajowa LGA (77.0%) earned less than ₦10,000 than respondents from Atiba LGA (37.9%) and Ibarapa LGA (62.4%), this association is significant ($p < 0.001$). Those that earned between ₦10,000 and ₦49,000 were more in Atiba LGA (49.5%) than Ibarapa (34.5%) and Iwajowa (21.4%). The association between House ownership and LGA of Residents was significant ($p < 0.001$). Iwajowa LGA had the highest proportion of its residents with personal houses (89.4%) than Ibarapa (68.0%) and Atiba LGA (55.1%). A higher proportion of respondents used wood as the main source of cooking fuel in Atiba (53.5%) than Ibarapa (46.2%).

Table 4.6 Association between socio-economic characteristics and LGA of respondents

Variable	Atiba	Ibarapa	Iwajowa	Chi-	P
n (%) n (%) n (%)					
Income category					
<i><10,000</i>	75(37.9)	123(62.4)	144(77.0)	71.25	<0.001
<i>10,000– 49,000</i>	98(49.5)	68(34.5)	40(21.4)		
<i>>=50,000</i>	25(12.6)	6(3.0)	3(1.6)		
Total household category					
<i></=6</i>	112(56.6)	171(84.7)	156(84.3)	54.57	<0.001
<i>>6</i>	86(43.4)	31(15.3)	29(15.7)		
House ownership					
<i>No</i>	84(44.9)	57(32.0)	19(10.6)	52.71	<0.001
<i>Yes</i>	103(55.1)	121(68.0)	160(89.4)		
Type of house category					
<i>A room</i>	37(19.7)	51(25.5)	13(7.0)	88.58	<0.001
<i>Self-contained</i>	55(29.3)	45(22.5)	27(14.5)		
<i>Flat with bedrooms</i>	63(33.5)	25(12.5)	38(20.4)		
<i>Others (e.g. face me face you)</i>	33(17.6)	79(36.5)	108(58.1)		
Main source drinking water category					
<i>Surface/rain water</i>	49(24.6)	63(31.2)	38(20.3)	30.83	<0.001
<i>Well</i>	53(26.6)	23(11.4)	57(30.5)		
<i>Borehole</i>	79(39.7)	97(48.0)	64(34.2)		
<i>Others</i>	18(9.0)	19(9.4)	28(15.0)		
The main source of cooking fuel category					
<i>Wood</i>	107(53.5)	92(46.2)	96(52.2)	48.24	<0.001
<i>Charcoal</i>	22(11.0)	31(15.6)	56(30.4)		
<i>Kerosene</i>	63(31.5)	75(37.7)	32(17.4)		
<i>Others</i>	8(4.0)	1(0.5)	0(0.0)		
The main source of lighting category					
<i>None</i>	16(8.0)	1(0.5)	1(0.5)	50.96	<0.001
<i>Candle/lantern</i>	83(41.5)	71(35.1)	87(47.0)		
<i>Public power supply (e.g. PHCH)</i>	72(36.0)	74(36.6)	81(43.8)		
<i>Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator)</i>	29(14.5)	56(27.7)	16(8.6)		
Toilet facility in household					
<i>None (e.g. open bush, surface water)</i>	144(72.0)	171(84.7)	158(84.5)	43.91	<0.001
<i>Pit latrine</i>	20(10.0)	22(10.9)	27(14.4)		
<i>Water closet</i>	36(18.0)	9(4.5)	2(1.1)		
Refuse management in the household					
<i>None</i>	170(85.0)	197(97.5)	179(95.7)	27.24	<0.001
<i>Burning</i>	14(7.0)	2(1.0)	3(1.6)		
<i>City service</i>	16(8.0)	3(1.5)	5(2.7)		

4.7 Association between socio-demographic variables and locality of respondents

Table 4.7 shows the association between the locality of the respondents and some socio-demographic variables. While those of sex ($p < 0.05$), Type of marriage ($p < 0.05$), number of wives ($p < 0.05$), educational level ($p < 0.05$), occupation ($p < 0.05$), and Religion ($p < 0.05$) were significant, those of age and ethnicity were not significantly associated. Urban respondents practised Polyandry (57.8%) as a form of marriage more than rural respondents (38.2%). In a similar way, the proportion of males residing in rural areas (48.6%) was more than those residing in urban areas (37.7%). The proportion with no education living in rural areas (66.9%) was more than those residing in urban areas (60.4%).

Table 4.7 Association between socio-demographic variables and locality of respondents

Variable	Urban	Rural	Chi	P
n(%)	n(%)	square		
Sex				
<i>Male</i>	125(37.7)	125(48.6)	7.16	0.01
<i>Female</i>	207(63.3)	132(51.4)		
Age group				
<i><50 years</i>	79(23.8)	52(20.2)	1.13	0.57
<i>50 -70 years</i>	155(46.7)	128(49.8)		
<i>>70 years</i>	98(29.5)	77(30.0)		
Ethnicity				
<i>Yoruba</i>	330(99.7)	253(98.4)	5.95	0.11
<i>Igbo</i>	0(0.0)	1(0.4)		
<i>Hausa</i>	1(0.3)	0(0.0)		
<i>Others</i>	0(0.0)	3(1.2)		
Type of marriage				
<i>Monogamy</i>	137(42.2)	157(61.8)	22.04	<0.001
<i>Polygamy/polyandry</i>	188(57.8)	97(38.2)		
Wives group				
<i>1</i>	113(53.6)	155(69.2)	14.27	<0.001
<i>2</i>	58(27.5)	50(22.3)		
<i>>2</i>	40(19.0)	19(8.5)		
Education category				
<i>None</i>	198(60.4)	168(66.9)	20.01	<0.001
<i>Primary</i>	58(17.7)	59(23.5)		
<i>Secondary</i>	36(11.0)	18(7.2)		
<i>Tertiary</i>	36(11.0)	6(2.4)		
Occupation category				
<i>None</i>	27(8.2)	16(6.3)	53.01	<0.001
<i>Trade/business</i>	188(57.3)	102(39.8)		
<i>Farmers</i>	53(16.2)	108(42.2)		
<i>Civil servants</i>	18(5.5)	3(1.2)		
<i>Artisans</i>	42(12.8)	27(10.5)		
Religion category				
<i>Christian</i>	129(39.7)	148(58.5)	21.83	<0.001
<i>Islam</i>	189(58.2)	104(41.1)		
<i>Others</i>	7(2.2)	1(0.4)		

4.8 Association between socio-economic variables and locality of respondents

The association between the locality of the respondents and some socioeconomic variables are shown in Table 4.8. House ownership ($p < 0.001$), type of house ($p < 0.05$), main source of drinking water ($p < 0.001$), main source of cooking fuel ($p < 0.001$), main source of lighting ($p < 0.001$), toilet facility ($p < 0.001$), income ($p < 0.05$), and refuse management in household ($p < 0.05$), were all significantly related to their local government of residence. The total household size was, however, not related to the locality of the respondents. The proportion with the household size of at least 6 members that dwelled in rural areas (76.2%) was more than those that dwell in urban areas (74.2%).

Table 4.8: Association between socio-economic variables and locality of respondents

Variable			Chi	P
	Urban	Rural		
n(%)	n(%)	square		
Income category				
<10,000	186(56.5)	156(61.7)	6.15	0.05
10,000 – 49,000	117(35.6)	89(35.2)		
>=50,000	26(7.9)	8(3.2)		
Total household category				
<=6	244(74.2)	195(76.2)	0.31	0.58
>6	85(25.8)	61(23.8)		
House ownership				
No	110(34.7)	50(22.0)	10.23	<0.001
Yes	207(65.3)	177(78.0)		
Type of house category				
a room	59(18.3)	42(16.7)	8.66	0.03
Self-contained	82(25.4)	45(17.9)		
Flat with bedrooms	74(22.9)	52(20.7)		
Others (e.g. face me I face you)	108(33.4)	112(44.6)		
The main source of drinking water category				
Surface/rain water	82(24.7)	68(26.6)	78.60	<0.001
Well	101(30.4)	32(12.5)		
Borehole	92(27.7)	148(57.8)		
Others	57(17.2)	8(3.1)		
The main source of cooking fuel				
Wood	85(26.0)	210(82.0)	181.01	<0.001
Charcoal	89(27.2)	20(7.8)		
Kerosene	146(44.6)	24(9.4)		
Others	7(2.1)	2(0.8)		
The main source of lighting category				
Candle/lantern	1(0.3)	17(6.6)	97.63	<0.001
Public power supply	111(33.5)	130(50.8)		
Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator, inverters)	182(55.0)	45(17.6)		
	37(11.2)	64(25.0)		
Toilet facility in household				
None (e.g. open bush, surface water, Pit latrine)	227(68.4)	246(95.7)	68.81	<0.001
Pit latrine	61(18.4)	8(3.1)		
Water closet	44(13.3)	3(1.2)		
Refuse management in the household				
None	298(89.8)	248(96.5)	10.12	0.01
Burning	14(4.2)	5(1.9)		
City service	20(6.0)	4(1.6)		

Specific Objective 4

To determine the effect of changing food culture and habit on Health related quality of life of adults in Oyo State

4.9 Frequency of consumption of roots, tubers, and products

The frequency of consumption of different roots, tubers, and their products is given in Table 4.9. Majority of the respondents did not consume *megari* (39.6%), *lafun* (32.1%) and *fufu* (49.1%) at all. More people (20.7%) responded to eating roasted yam twice weekly than any other time. While 38.7% of respondents consumed yam flour once daily, 18.5% consumed pounded yam once daily. For yam porridge and fried yam, 30.2% and 31.4% rarely consume them respectively. A similar food consumption pattern was observed in Cocoyam, Cocoyam fried, Sweet potatoes cooked and sweet potatoes fried, where more proportion of the respondents reported not consuming it at all.

Table 4.9: Frequency of consumption of roots, tuber, and products

Food description	No n (%)	Rarely n (%)	D1ce n (%)	D3ce n (%)	W1ce n (%)	W2ce n (%)	W3ce n (%)	M2ce n (%)	M3ce n (%)
Gari	233(39.6)	172(29.2)	18(3.1)	9(1.3)	81(13.8)	36(6.1)	13(2.2)	21(3.6)	7(1.2)
Lafun	189(32.1)	64(10.8)	172(29.2)	39(6.6)	38(6.5)	35(5.9)	42(7.1)	7(1.2)	3(0.5)
Fufu	289(49.1)	169(28.7)	21(3.6)	3(0.5)	61(10.4)	19(3.2)	10(1.7)	14(2.4)	3(0.5)
Yam roasted	31(5.3)	99(16.8)	108(18.3)	17(2.9)	107(18.2)	122(20.7)	86(14.6)	14(2.4)	5(0.8)
Yam flour	45(7.6)	88(15.0)	228(38.7)	36(6.1)	47(8.0)	62(10.5)	71(12.1)	6(1.0)	6(1.0)
Pounded yam	62(10.5)	101(22.3)	109(18.5)	15(2.6)	97(16.5)	86(14.6)	52(8.8)	28(4.8)	9(1.5)
Yam porridge	189(32.1)	220(37.3)	22(3.7)	6(1.0)	75(12.7)	36(6.1)	17(2.9)	18(3.1)	6(1.0)
Yam fried	221(37.5)	219(37.2)	23(3.9)	3(0.5)	60(10.2)	25(4.2)	15(2.5)	19(3.2)	4(0.7)
Cocoyam	372(63.2)	156(26.5)	9(1.5)	3(0.5)	25(4.2)	10(1.7)	4(0.7)	8(1.4)	2(0.3)
Cocoyam fried	427(72.5)	125(21.2)	7(1.2)	2(0.3)	17(2.9)	3(0.5)	1(0.2)	5(0.8)	2(0.3)
Sweet potatoes cooked	369(62.6)	160(27.2)	7(1.2)	1(0.2)	26(4.4)	10(1.7)	4(0.7)	9(1.5)	3(0.5)
Sweet potato fried	430(73.0)	118(20.0)	8(1.4)	0(0.0)	18(3.1)	5(0.8)	4(0.7)	6(1.0)	0(0.0)

D1ce-once daily, **D3ce**-thrice daily, **W1ce**-once weekly, **W2ce**-twice weekly, **W3ce**-thrice weekly, **M1ce**-once monthly, and **M3ce**-thrice monthly

4.10 Frequency of consumption of cereals, legumes, and products

The frequency of consumption of different maize food items is given in Table 4.10. Majority of the respondents (69.6%) tookogi/pap/koko once daily, while only 2.7% did not take it at all. Similarly, for Eko agidi, 6.1% did not consume it at all, 51.6% ate it once daily. Tuwo masara, Kokoro, Sapala Abari and Irowas not taken at all by most of the respondents. The proportion that reported not taking these food items at all was, 47.4%, 68.1%, 64.3%, and 94.2%, respectively. Cooked Maize was rarely consumed by 36.2% of the respondents. Guguru (Popcorn) was consumed once weekly by 8.1% of the respondents, while 44.0% did not consume it at all.

The frequency of consumption of various Rice food items is also shown. Among those who consumed white rice, 19.9% did so once daily, as against 4.8% who ate Jollof rice with the same frequency. Fried Rice and Tuwo-Shinkafa were not eaten at all by a large proportion of the respondents. The proportion reported is 78.6% and 85.1% respectively. While White Rice was consumed thrice daily by 1.4% of the respondents, none of the other food items (Jollof rice, Fried rice, and Tuwo-shinkafa) was eaten at all with that frequency.

Different beans/cowpeas food items and the frequency of their consumption are also shown in Table 4.9. More people ate cooked bean thrice weekly (23.8%), while only 1.9% did not take it at all. Similarly, for Moinmoin, 24.1% ate it once daily. Akaraikoko, Ekuru, Gbegiri were not taken at all by most of the respondents. While 23.8% took cooked bean thrice weekly, only 20.2% took moinmoin with the same frequency.

Table 4.9 also shows the frequency of consumption of various wheat food items such as whole wheat bread, white bread, biscuit, wheat flour boiled, and confectionaries. A large proportion of respondents did not take wheat products. The food items are Whole wheat

bread, Biscuit,
Wheat flour boiled, and Confectionaries, with the reported proportions being
91.5%, 31.9%,
85.6%, and 23.4% respectively. Also, Biscuits and Confectionaries were taken rarely by
35.5% and 30.1% respectively. However, a sizeable number of White
bread eaters either once, twice
or thrice weekly, with 18.0%, 17.7%, 13.8% being the proportions reported respectively.

Table 4.10 Frequency of consumption of cereals, legumes, and products

Food descript i	No	Rarely	D1ce	D3ce	W1ce	W2ce	W3ce	M1ce	M3ce
Ogi pap koko	16(2.7)	33(5.6)	410(69.6)	26(4.4)	25(4.2)	33(5.6)	39(6.6)	3(0.5)	4(0.6)
Eko agidi	36(6.1)	60(10.2)	304(51.6)	25(4.2)	42(7.1)	41(7.0)	59(10.0)	11(1.9)	11(1.9)
Tuwo masara	279(47.4)	147(25.0)	23(3.9)	6(1.0)	38(6.5)	22(3.7)	18(3.1)	35(5.9)	21(3.6)
Maize cooked	106(18.0)	213(36.2)	52(8.8)	7(1.1)	70(11.9)	48(8.1)	40(6.8)	23(3.9)	30(5.1)
Kokoro	401(68.1)	112(19.0)	14(2.4)	2(0.3)	28(4.8)	7(1.2)	4(0.7)	12(2.0)	9(1.5)
Sapala / abari	379(64.3)	138(23.4)	8(1.4)	1(0.2)	20(3.4)	6(1.0)	2(0.3)	26(4.4)	9(1.5)
Iro	555(94.2)	23(3.9)	2(0.3)	0(0.0)	3(0.5)	0(0.0)	3(0.5)	1(0.2)	2(0.4)
Guguru	259(44.0)	171(29.0)	20(3.4)	0(0.0)	48(8.1)	23(3.9)	13(2.2)	41(7.0)	14(2.4)
Whit e rice	35(5.9)	77(13.1)	117(19.9)	19(3.3)	88(14.9)	100(17.0)	105(17.8)	18(3.1)	30(5.1)
Jollof rice	229(38.9)	171(29.0)	28(4.8)	1(0.2)	58(9.8)	29(4.9)	20(3.4)	30(5.1)	23(3.9)
Fried rice	463(78.6)	89(15.1)	8(1.4)	0(0.0)	8(1.4)	1(0.2)	2(0.3)	13(2.2)	5(0.9)
Tuwo shinkafa	501(85.1)	55(9.3)	4(0.7)	0(0.0)	6(1.0)	7(1.2)	3(0.5)	6(1.0)	7(1.2)
Beans cooked	11(1.9)	61(10.4)	103(17.5)	25(4.2)	90(15.3)	118(20.0)	140(23.8)	17(2.9)	24(4.1)
Moinmoi n	20(3.4)	78(13.2)	142(24.1)	11(1.9)	77(13.1)	108(18.3)	119(20.2)	16(2.7)	18(3.1)
Akara	23(3.9)	78(13.2)	187(31.7)	16(2.7)	74(12.6)	93(15.8)	97(16.5)	11(1.9)	10(1.7)
Akar a	473(80.3)	78(13.2)	13(2.2)	2(0.4)	12(2.0)	1(0.2)	2(0.3)	6(1.0)	2(0.3)
ikoko Eli...	204(34.6)	138(23.4)	33(5.6)	12(2.0)	62(10.5)	51(8.7)	41(7.0)	24(4.1)	24(4.1)
Gbegiri	173(29.4)	137(23.3)	34(5.8)	12(2.0)	60(10.2)	45(7.6)	46(7.8)	46(7.8)	36(6.1)
Whol e wheat bread bread	539(91.5)	35(5.9)	4(0.7)	1(0.2)	0(0.0)	5(0.8)	1(0.2)	3(0.5)	1(0.2)
Biscuit	53(9.0)	109(18.5)	53(9.0)	8(1.3)	106(18.0)	104(17.7)	81(13.8)	36(6.1)	39(6.6)
Wheat flour boiled	188(31.9)	209(35.5)	32(5.4)	5(0.9)	54(9.2)	25(4.2)	43(7.3)	13(2.2)	20(3.3)
Confect onaries	504(85.6)	47(8.0)	7(1.2)	1(0.2)	7(1.2)	9(1.5)	6(1.0)	4(0.7)	4(0.7)
	138(23.4)	177(30.1)	44(7.5)	5(0.9)	72(12.2)	59(10.0)	51(8.7)	17(2.9)	26(4.4)

D1ce-once daily, **D2ce**-twice daily, **D3ce**-thrice daily, **W1ce**-once weekly, **W2ce**-twice weekly,

W3ce-thrice weekly, **M1ce**-once monthly, **M2ce**-twice monthly, and **M3ce**-thrice monthly

4.11 Frequency of consumption of meat and allied products

The frequency of consumption of meat and allied products food items is given in Table 4.11.

Beef and fish were taken once daily, by most of those who consumed them (19.7% and 39.2% respectively). However, chicken, egg, and tinned milk were consumed rarely by more people.

The proportion of respondents who took these products rarely was, 28.5%, 20.2%, and 19.5% respectively.

Table 4.11 Frequency of consumption of meat and allied products

Food description	No	Rarely	D1ce	D3ce	W1ce	W2ce	W3ce	M1ce	M3ce
Beef	70(11.9)	93(15.8)	116(19.7)	42(7.1)	63(10.7)	66(11.2)	70(11.9)	42(7.1)	27(4.6)
Chicken	137(23.3)	168(28.5)	57(9.7)	6(1.0)	50(8.5)	30(5.1)	35(5.9)	78(13.2)	28(4.7)
Fish	15(2.5)	43(7.3)	231(39.2)	56(9.6)	50(8.5)	62(10.5)	118(20.0)	5(0.8)	9(1.5)
Egg	72(12.2)	119(20.2)	80(13.6)	13(2.2)	94(16.0)	87(14.8)	77(13.1)	19(3.2)	28(4.7)
Fresh milk	437(74.2)	101(17.1)	8(1.4)	3(0.5)	11(1.9)	7(1.2)	4(0.7)	13(2.2)	5(0.8)
Tinned milk	75(12.7)	115(19.5)	37(6.3)	5(0.8)	95(16.1)	99(16.8)	69(11.7)	50(8.5)	44(7.4)
Cheese	131(22.2)	121(20.5)	32(5.4)	5(0.8)	92(15.6)	70(11.9)	53(9.0)	44(7.5)	41(7.0)
Yoghurt	478(81.2)	68(11.5)	9(1.5)	2(0.3)	5(0.8)	6(1.0)	3(0.5)	12(2.0)	6(1.0)
Others	27(4.6)	2(0.3)	3(0.5)	1(0.2)	0(0.0)	2(0.3)	2(0.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)

D1ce-once daily, **D3ce**-thrice daily, **W1ce**-once weekly, **W2ce**-twice weekly, **W3ce**-thrice weekly, **M1ce**-once monthly, and **M3ce**-thrice monthly

4.12 Frequency of consumption of beverages and other drinks

The frequency

of consumption of tea, beverages and other drinks is presented in Table 4.12.

Coffee was not consumed at all by most respondents (91.0%), while 21.2% and 24.4% rarely took beverages or Lipton tea respectively. However, 18.7% consumed beverage twice weekly while only 15.3% consumed it once weekly. More people took beverages (18.7%) than Lipton tea (10.5%) twice weekly.

Table 4.11 also shows the frequency of consumption of some drinks. The majority (82.0%) of the respondents did not take alcoholic drinks, while only 2.7% took it once daily. Carbonated drinks were rarely taken by 35.7% while 20.5% did not take them at all. Similarly, 37.7% consumed malted drinks rarely and 25.8% did not consume it at all. Juices were not consumed at all by 56.7% of the respondents and only 32.6% consumed it rarely.

Table 4.12 Frequency of consumption of beverages and other drinks

Food description	No	Rarely	D1ce	D3ce	W1ce	W2ce	W3ce	M1ce	M3ce
Tea lipton	129(21.9)	144(24.4)	36(6.1)	3(0.5)	90(15.3)	62(10.5)	44(7.5)		
49(8.3)	32(5.4)								
Beverages	52(8.8)	125(21.2)	55(9.3)	7(1.2)	85(14.4)	110(18.7)	70(11.9)		
39(6.6)	46(7.8)								
Coffee	536(91.0)	38(6.5)	3(0.5)	2(0.3)	6(1.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(0.3)	0(0.0)
Carbonated drinks	121(20.5)	210(35.7)	15(2.5)	5(0.8)	80(13.6)	41(7.0)	21(3.6)	63(10.7)	33(5.6)
Malted drinks	152(25.8)	222(37.7)	11(1.9)	3(0.5)	72(12.2)	21(3.6)	14(2.4)	61(10.4)	33(5.6)
Alcohol icdrinks	483(82.0)	32(5.4)	16(2.7)	3(0.5)	16(2.7)	10(1.7)	12(2.0)	11(1.9)	6(1.0)
Juices	334(56.7)	192(32.6)	9(1.5)	2(0.3)	13(2.2)	6(1.0)	3(0.5)	24(4.1)	6(1.0)

D1ce-oncedaily,**D3ce**-thricedaily,**W1ce**-onceweekly,**W2ce**-twiceweekly,**W3ce**-thriceweekly,

M1ce-oncemonthly, and**M3ce**-thricemonthly

4.13 Frequency of consumption of fruits and vegetables

Table 4.13 shows the frequency of consumption of some fruits. More people take a banana (21.6%) than Plantain (18.3%) or pawpaw (16.3%) once weekly. 21.1% consumed citrus fruits once daily. Most of the respondents rarely consumed mango (45.8%), Pawpaw (33.1%), Pineapple (37.2%), Cashew (42.4%), and plantain (22.4%). Other fruits like Guava, Watermelon, Apple, Pear, and Carrot were not consumed at all by most of the respondents.

The frequency of consumption of vegetables is also presented in Table 4.12. Vegetables were classified into leafy and non-leafy vegetables. Leafy vegetables were consumed once daily by most of the respondents (31.2%), while more people (28.4%) did not consume non-leafy vegetables at all. However, 20.2% of the respondents and 14.8% consumed leafy vegetables and non-leafy vegetables thrice weekly respectively.

Table 4.13 Frequency of consumption of fruits and vegetables

Food description	No	Rarely	D1ce	D3ce	W1ce	W2ce	W3ce	M1ce	M3ce
Citrus fruits	30(5.1)	107(18.2)	124(21.1)	26(4.5)	70(11.9)	88(14.9)	96(16.3)	13(2.2)	35(6.0)
Mango	222(37.7)	270(45.8)	25(4.2)	3(0.5)	27(4.6)	15(2.5)	10(1.7)	10(1.7)	7(1.1)
Pawpaw	56(9.5)	195(33.1)	42(7.1)	6(1.0)	96(16.3)	94(16.0)	54(9.2)	21(3.6)	25(4.2)
Guava	311(52.8)	179(30.4)	15(2.5)	1(0.2)	32(5.4)	16(2.7)	5(0.8)	18(3.1)	12(2.1)
Pineapple	158(26.8)	219(37.2)	15(2.5)	4(0.7)	70(11.9)	27(4.6)	12(2.0)	48(8.1)	36(6.1)
Watermelon	194(32.9)	184(31.2)	23(3.9)	5(0.8)	58(9.8)	34(5.8)	27(4.6)	31(5.3)	33(5.6)
Cashew	172(29.2)	250(42.4)	29(4.9)	5(0.8)	42(7.1)	21(3.6)	23(3.9)	28(4.8)	19(3.3)
Apple	299(50.8)	167(28.4)	20(3.4)	3(0.5)	39(6.6)	19(3.2)	4(0.7)	23(3.9)	15(2.5)
Pear	485(82.3)	75(2.7)	6(1.0)	1(0.2)	10(1.7)	3(0.5)	2(0.3)	6(1.0)	1(0.2)
Carrot	237(40.2)	213(36.2)	11(1.9)	1(0.2)	34(5.8)	15(2.5)	10(1.7)	39(6.6)	29(5.0)
Banana	32(5.4)	124(21.1)	30(5.1)	8(1.3)	127(21.6)	115(19.5)	79(13.4)	32(5.4)	42(7.1)
Plantain	66(11.2)	132(22.4)	29(4.9)	4(0.6)	108(18.3)	95(16.1)	72(12.2)	41(7.0)	42(7.1)
Leafy vegetables	15(2.5)	52(8.8)	184(31.2)	60(10.2)	53(9.0)	91(15.4)	119(20.2)	4(0.7)	11(1.9)
Non leafy vegetables	167(28.4)	89(15.1)	52(8.8)	15(2.5)	75(12.7)	75(12.7)	87(14.8)	12(2.0)	17(2.9)

D1ce-once daily, **D3ce**-thrice daily, **W1ce**-once weekly, **W2ce**-twice weekly, **W3ce**-thrice weekly, **M1ce**-once monthly, and **M3ce**-thrice monthly

4.14 Frequency of consumption of oil and seed nuts

Different oil and seed nuts and the frequency of their consumption is shown in Table 4.14. Majority of the respondents did not take cashew nut and oil palm nut. The proportion of people that did not take it at all are respectively 66.9% and 76.9%. Peanuts (26.7%) and coconuts (34.6%) were taken rarely by most of the respondents. Coconut and Peanuts were taken once weekly by 11.9% and 16.1% of the respondents respectively.

Table 4.14 Frequency of consumption of oil and seed nuts

Food description	No	Rarely	D1ce	D3ce	W1ce	W2ce	W3ce	M1ce	M3ce
Peanuts	96(16.3)	157(26.7)	55(9.3)	7(1.2)	95(16.1)	70(11.9)	65(11.0)	22(3.7)	8(3.7)
Cashew nut	394(66.9)	135(22.9)	12(2.0)	3(0.5)	10(1.7)	9(1.5)	8(1.4)	11(1.9)	7(1.2)
Oil palm nut	453(76.9)	92(15.6)	9(1.5)	3(0.5)	10(1.7)	7(1.2)	3(0.5)	10(1.7)	2(0.3)
Coconut	121(20.5)	204(34.6)	13(2.2)	3(0.5)	70(11.9)	35(5.9)	20(3.4)	79(13.4)	44(7.5)
Refined oil	27(4.6)	2(0.3)	1(0.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)

D1ce-once daily, **D3ce**-thrice daily, **W1ce**-once weekly, **W2ce**-twice weekly, **W3ce**-thrice weekly, **M1ce**-once monthly, and **M3ce**-thrice monthly.

4.15 Changing food culture of respondents

The changing food culture of respondents is shown in Table 4.15. As against the practice in the past 20-30 years ago, a majority of respondents (63.2%) eat three square meals. However, the regularity was better in the past than present (50.3 vs 40.9). Most respondents prepared their own meals in the past (94.5%) than the present (84.0%), just as a higher proportion used grinding stones in the past (84.4%) than the present (54.8%).

The proportion of respondents who took breakfast in the past and present are similar and more people take it between 9 am and 10 am in the present (22.8%) than in the past (19.1%). Also, people take brunch more in the past (47.4%) than presently (39.0%). Presently, most people take brunch between 11 am and 12 noon (48.7%) than in the past (39.6%). The regularity of taking dinner often has improved (50.4%) from what was obtained in the past (48.2%). Similarly, more people take after lunch between 4 and 5 presently (54.7%) than in the past (50.8%).

Table 4.15a: Changing food culture of respondents

Culture	Past (in the last 20-30 years)	Present
n (%)	n (%)	
How many square meals do you take per day?		
<i>One</i>	3(0.5)	4(0.7)
<i>Two</i>	26(4.4)	69(11.4)
<i>Three</i>	335(57.0)	383(63.2)
<i>four or more</i>	224(38.1)	150(24.8)
How often do you take these meals?		
<i>Rarely</i>	8 (1.4)	13 (2.3)
<i>Occasionally</i>	18 (3.1)	69 (12.0)
<i>Often</i>	263(45.2)	258(44.9)
<i>very often</i>	293(50.3)	235 (40.9)
Do you normally take breakfast?		
<i>No</i>	13(2.2)	15(2.5)
<i>Yes</i>	576(97.8)	574(97.5)
What time did you normally take breakfast?		
<i>before 7am</i>	104(18.2)	87(15.2)
<i>7 -9am</i>	358(62.7)	354(62.0)
<i>9 -10am</i>	109(19.1)	130(22.8)
How often do you normally take breakfast?		
<i>Rarely</i>	17(3.0)	15(2.6)
<i>Occasionally</i>	11(1.9)	38(6.7)
<i>Often</i>	280(49.1)	274(48.2)
<i>very often</i>	262(46.0)	242(42.5)
Do you take brunch?		
<i>No</i>	310(52.6)	359(61.0)
<i>Yes</i>	279(47.4)	230(39.0)
What time do you normally take brunch in the morning?		
<i>between 10-11am</i>	168(60.4)	115(51.3)
<i>11 -12pm</i>	110(39.6)	109(48.7)
How often do you normally take brunch?		
<i>Rarely</i>	16(5.9)	25(10.9)
<i>Occasionally</i>	33(12.3)	56(24.5)
<i>Often</i>	153(56.9)	102(44.5)
<i>very often</i>	67(24.9)	46(20.1)
Do you take lunch?		
<i>No</i>	15(2.5)	23(3.9)
<i>Yes</i>	574(97.5)	566(96.1)
What time do you normally take lunch?		
<i>12pm</i>	28(4.9)	28(5.0)
<i>between 12-1pm</i>	91(16.0)	67(11.9)
<i>between 1 -2pm</i>	234(41.3)	225(39.8)
<i>between 2 -3pm</i>	208(36.7)	236(41.8)
<i>after 3pm</i>	6(1.1)	9(1.6)
How often do you normally take lunch?		
<i>Rarely</i>	14(2.5)	21(3.8)
<i>Occasionally</i>	14(2.5)	40(7.2)
<i>Often</i>	258(46.6)	259(46.9)
<i>very often</i>	268(48.4)	232(42.0)

Table 4.15b: Changing food culture of respondents (Continued)

Culture n (%)	n (%)	Past (in the last 20-30 years)	Present
Do you take snacks after lunch?			
<i>No</i>		389(66.0)	400(67.9)
<i>Yes</i>		200(34.0)	189(16.0)
How often do you normally take snacks after lunch?			
<i>Rarely</i>		20(10.2)	22(11.8)
<i>Occasionally</i>		29(14.7)	54(29.0)
<i>Often</i>		96(48.7)	80(43.0)
<i>very often</i>		52(26.4)	30(16.1)
What time do you normally take snacks after lunch?			
<i>4pm</i>		52(26.9)	41(22.7)
<i>between 4-5pm</i>		98(50.8)	99(54.7)
<i>between 5-6pm</i>		43(22.3)	41(22.7)
Do you normally take dinner?			
<i>No</i>		5(0.8)	9(1.5)
<i>Yes</i>		584(99.2)	580(98.5)
How often do you normally take dinner?			
<i>Rarely</i>		14(2.4)	13(2.3)
<i>Occasionally</i>		10(1.7)	28(4.9)
<i>Often</i>		276(48.2)	286(50.4)
<i>very often</i>		273(47.6)	240(42.3)
What time do you normally take dinner?			
<i>6pm</i>		17(2.9)	15(2.6)
<i>between 6-8pm</i>		227(39.2)	189(32.9)
<i>between 8-10pm</i>		304(52.5)	351(61.0)
<i>after 10pm</i>		31(5.4)	20(3.5)
How often do you prepare your meals?			
<i>every meal</i>		551(94.5)	475(82.0)
<i>once in a day</i>		28(4.8)	94(16.2)
<i>once a week</i>		4(0.7)	9(1.6)
<i>Once a month</i>		0(0.0)	1(0.2)
What type of cooking utensils do you use in preparing your meals?			
Local Clay pots			
<i>No</i>		37(6.3)	
435(73.9)			
<i>Yes</i>		552(93.7)	
154(26.1)			
Local grinding Stones			
<i>No</i>		92(15.6)	
266(45.2)			
<i>Yes</i>		497(84.4)	
323(54.8)			
Aluminium pots			
<i>No</i>		546(92.7)	
33(5.6)			
<i>Yes</i>		43(7.3)	
556(94.4)			

Aluminiumplates and spoons		
<i>No</i>	509(86.4)	
97(16.5)		
<i>Yes</i>	80(13.6)	
492(83.5)		
GrindingMachines		
<i>No</i>	569(96.6)	205
(34.8)		
<i>Yes</i>	20(3.4)	384
(65.2)		
Others		
<i>Yes</i>	6(100)	
14(100)		

4.16. Changes in common food of respondents

The changing pattern in the common food of respondents shown in Table 4.16 shows a steady decline in the consumption of legumes. For instance, beans are less taken now (95.8%) than in the past (96.6%). Also, osasais is not eaten presently (26.7%) like it was in the past (45.7%), just as papondo is less taken now (45.0%) than it was in the past (92.5%). This pattern of steady decline is also seen in the consumption of vegetables. Ewedu is less consumed now (95.8%) than before (98.3%), and this is similar to the consumption of ewero, which is less consumed now (67.4%) than in the past (82.0%).

Cereals have become common food for most of the respondents. As against what obtained in the past (75.6%), people consume rice more now (95.4%). Also, noodles are eaten more presently than 20-30 years back (75.6%). However, ekotutui is less eaten now (93.9%) than previously (97.8%).

Consumption of meat and fish shows an interesting pattern, as food like bushmeat and deja odoshowed a decline, other foods like sawa and titus fish are more consumed now than in the past. For instance, 93% of the respondents took titus fish now than in the past (50.4%). Also, more (97.6%) took bushmeat in the past than now (76.2%). There's a sharp increase in the pattern of consuming condiments now than previously. Maggi, for instance, was consumed by fewer people (21.4%) in the past than presently (88.6%). This is similar to the consumption of curry (75.0% vs 9.7%).

Table 4.16a: Changes in common food of respondents

Common food (In the last 20-30 years)	Past		Presently (Now)	
	No	Yes	No	Yes
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Cereals				
<i>eko_tutu</i>	13(2.2)	576 (97.8)	36(6.1)	553(93.9)
<i>ogi_koko</i>	11(1.9)	578(98.1)	19(3.2)	570(96.8)
<i>Egbo</i>	28(4.8)	561(95.2)	91(15.4)	498(84.6)
<i>Noddles</i>	573(97.3)	16(2.7)	144(24.4)	445(75.6)
<i>Rice</i>	144(24.4)	445(75.6)	27(4.6)	562(95.4)
<i>Spaghetti</i>	27(4.6)	562(95.4)	139(23.6)	450(76.4)
<i>Macaroni</i>	562(95.6)	26(4.4)	136(23.1)	453(76.9)
Legumes				
<i>cooked_beans</i>	20(3.4)	569(96.6)	25(4.2)	564(95.8)
<i>Akara</i>	9(1.5)	580(98.5)	25(4.2)	564(95.8)
<i>Moinmoin</i>	9(1.5)	580(98.5)	27(4.6)	562(95.4)
<i>Iru</i>	14(2.4)	575 (97.6)	29 (4.9)	560(95.1)
<i>Otili</i>	35(5.9)	554(94.1)	226(38.4)	363(61.6)
<i>Popondo</i>	44(7.5)	545(92.5)	324(55.0)	265(45.0)
<i>gbomode_gungi</i>	49(8.3)	540(91.7)	323(54.8)	266(45.2)
<i>Osasa</i>	320(54.3)	269(45.7)	432(73.3)	157(26.7)
Roots and Tubers				
<i>roasted_yam</i>	30(5.1)	559(94.9)	89(15.1)	500(84.9)
<i>boiled_yam</i>	9(1.5)	580(98.5)	17(2.9)	572(97.1)
<i>pounded_yam</i>	13(2.2)	576 (97.8)	22(3.7)	567(96.3)
<i>amala_lafun</i>	37(6.3)	552(93.7)	48(8.1)	541(91.9)
<i>amala_dudu</i>	13(2.2)	576 (97.8)	26(4.4)	563(95.6)
<i>Semovita</i>	535 (90.8)	54 (9.2)	87(14.8)	502(85.2)
<i>Wheat</i>	549(93.2)	40(6.8)	281(47.7)	308 (52.3)
<i>amala_pupa</i>	249(42.3)	340 (57.7)	355 (60.3)	234 (39.7)

Table 4.16b: Changes in common food of respondents (Continued)

Common food	Past (In the last 20-30 years)		Presently (Now)	
	No n (%)	Yes n (%)	No n (%)	Yes n (%)
Vegetables				
<i>Ewedu</i>	10(1.7)	579(98.3)	25(4.2)	564(95.8)
<i>Ilasa</i>	12(2.0)	577(98.0)	49(8.3)	540(91.7)
<i>Morogbo</i>	128(21.7)	461(78.3)	151 (25.6)	438 (74.4)
<i>Gbure</i>	27(4.6)	562(95.4)	54(9.2)	535(90.8)
<i>egusi_osiki</i>	7(1.2)	582(98.8)	24(4.1)	565(95.9)
<i>efo_soko</i>	7(1.2)	582(98.8)	24(4.1)	565(95.9)
<i>efo_tete</i>	9(1.5)	580(98.5)	50 (8.5)	539(91.5)
<i>Ewuro</i>	11(1.9)	578(98.1)	35(5.9)	554(94.1)
<i>obe_ajara</i>	150 (25.5)	439 (74.5)	202 (34.3)	387 (65.7)
<i>Pekun</i>	250(42.4)	339 (57.6)	277(47.0)	312(53.0)
<i>Ogbo</i>	224 (38.0)	365 (62.0)	235(39.9)	354 (60.1)
<i>Ebolo</i>	22(3.7)	567(96.3)	75(12.7)	514(87.3)
<i>amunu_tutu</i>	29 (4.9)	560 (95.1)	81(13.8)	508(86.2)
<i>woro_wo</i>	118(20.0)	471(80.0)	175 (29.7)	414 (70.3)
<i>ata_ijosin</i>	21(3.6)	568 (96.4)	122 (20.7)	467 (79.3)
<i>ewe_iroko</i>	106(18.0)	483 (82.0)	192 (32.6)	397 (67.4)
<i>Ugwu</i>	199 (33.8)	390 (66.2)	107 (18.2)	482 (81.8)
Meat and Fish Products				
<i>bush meat</i>	14(2.4)	575 (97.6)	140(23.8)	449 (76.2)
<i>red_meat</i>	20 (3.4)	569 (96.6)	48 (8.1)	541 (91.9)
<i>eja_gbigbe</i>	18 (3.1)	571 (96.9)	29 (4.9)	560 (95.1)
<i>eja_odo</i>	16 (2.7)	573 (97.3)	34(5.8)	555 (94.2)
<i>Kote</i>	326 (55.3)	263 (44.7)	41(7.0)	548 (93.0)
<i>Sawa</i>	299 (50.8)	290 (49.2)	39 (6.6)	550 (93.4)
<i>Titus</i>	292 (49.6)	297 (50.4)	41(7.0)	548 (93.0)
Condiments				
<i>Ogiri</i>	278 (47.2)	311 (52.8)	373 (63.3)	216 (36.7)
<i>Curry</i>	532 (90.3)	57 (9.7)	147(25.0)	442 (75.0)
<i>Magi</i>	463 (78.6)	126 (21.4)	67 (11.4)	522 (88.6)
<i>Cashew</i>	58 (9.8)	531 (90.2)	30 (5.1)	559 (94.9)
<i>Oranges</i>	17 (2.9)	572 (97.1)	22(3.7)	567 (96.3)
<i>Pawpaw</i>	16 (2.7)	573 (97.3)	24(4.1)	565 (95.9)
<i>Apples</i>	422 (71.6)	167 (28.4)	120(20.4)	469 (79.6)

4.17. Perceived causes of changing food pattern and societal health impact

Generally, most of the respondents believed that there's a change in the chemical/organoleptic properties of food (81.7%). They also believe that these changes are in the form of Low nutritional value (83.3%), poor shelf life (79.8%) and a poor method of preparation (78.2%), among other things. The respondents also postulated that some of these changes could be a result of using chemically modified seeds for planting (78.1%), use of herbicides (77.9%), use of organic fertilizers (71.6%) and absence/extinction of wild, grown indigenous vegetables (73.0%), among others.

Some of the impacts of these changes identified by the respondents included decreased life expectancy (77.0%), increased prevalence of NCDs (74.5%), decreased work capacity (75.2%), frequent illness (75.3%), and reduced physical activities (72.5%).

Table 4.17: Perceived causes of changing food pattern and societal health impact

Yes n(%)	No n(%)	
		Do you think there is/are chemical/organoleptic properties of food
		Likely Chemical /organoleptic change
		<i>Poor taste</i>
		<i>Low nutritional Value</i>
		<i>Poor shelf life</i>
		<i>Poor method of preparation</i>
		<i>Others</i>
		Likely causes of the Chemical /organoleptic change
		<i>Use of Herbicides</i>
		<i>Use of inorganic fertilizers</i>
		<i>Poor land fertility</i>
		<i>Use of processed inorganic feeds for animals</i>
		<i>Changes in the processing method</i>
		<i>Time factor (decreased planting season)</i>
		<i>Use of chemically modified seed for planting</i>
		<i>Absence/extinction of wildy grown indigenous vegetables</i>
		<i>Others</i>
		Likely impact of the changes in food cultures on societal Health
		<i>Decreased life expectancy</i>
		<i>Increased prevalence of NCDs</i>
		<i>Decreased work capacity</i>
		<i>Frequent illness</i>
		<i>Reduced physical activities</i>
		<i>Others specify</i>

4.18. Lifestylebehaviour(pattern) ofrespondents

TheLifestylepatternof the respondents(Table 4.18) showedthatlackofphysicalexercise wasthemostprevalentlifestylepatternamongtherespondentswith64.8%havingnophysical exercisecatall.Otheridentifiedlifestylepatternsare Smoking (3.6%),Alcoholuse(16.3%), Heartailment(18.1%)andDiabetes(1.2%).However,about28%oftherespondentsreported havingno health problem.

Table 4.18: Lifestyle behaviour(pattern) of respondents

Lifestyle n(%)	Yes n(%)	No
Smoking	21(3.6)	568(96.4)
Alcohol use	96(16.3)	493(83.7)
Physical exercise	205(35.2)	378(64.8)
Heart ailment	106 (18.1)	481(81.9)
Diabetes	7(1.2)	579(98.3)
Anyhealth problem	163(27.7)	424(72.0)

4.19: Respondents eating behaviour pattern

The eating behavior pattern of the respondents shows that majority of them usually skip breakfast (86.7%), eat at a food restaurant at least three times a week (65.9%), eat snacks a lot (62.8%), snack more at night (72.4%) and sometime snack even when they are not hungry (49.6%). Half (50.0%) of the respondents reported they have a sweet tooth. About half (47.9%) of the respondents reported that their emotions affect what they eat and how much they eat. However, only a few of the respondents chose healthy foods (3.2%) and watch the portion sizes of their food (4.1%).

Table 4.19: Respondents eating behaviour pattern

Variables	Poor n (%)	Average n (%)	Good n (%)	Non response n (%)
I stop for fast food breakfast on my way to Work	14(2.4)	65(11.0)	459(77.9)	46(7.8)
My emotions affect what and how much I eat	60(10.2)	282(47.9)	207(35.1)	34(5.8)
I use low fat food product	361(61.3)	159(27.0)	18(3.1)	44(7.5)
I carefully watch the portion sizes of my food	275(46.7)	235(39.9)	24(4.1)	48(8.1)
I choose Healthy foods to prevent heart disease	290(49.3)	189(32.1)	19(3.2)	85(14.4)
I eat meatless meals from time to time because I think that is healthier for me	17(2.9)	118(20.0)	367(62.3)	83(14.1)
I am a snacker	47(8.0)	122(20.7)	370(62.8)	43(7.3)
I snack more at night	18(3.1)	98(16.6)	426(72.4)	40(6.8)
I rarely eat breakfast	8(1.4)	33(5.6)	511(86.7)	30(5.1)
I try to limit intake of red meat (beef)	19(3.2)	169(28.7)	336(57.1)	57(9.7)
I have a sweet tooth	21(3.6)	224(38.0)	294(50.0)	42(7.1)
I sometimes snack even when I am not hungry	30(5.1)	185(31.4)	292(49.6)	76(12.9)
I eat out because it is more convenient than eating at home	10(1.7)	65(11.0)	455(77.3)	52(8.8)
Preparing meals at home	14(2.4)	63(10.7)	566(79.1)	40(6.8)
I will rather buy take out food and bring it home than cook	14(2.4)	68(11.5)	444(75.4)	54(9.2)
I have at least three to four servings of vegetables per day	275(46.7)	208(35.3)	20(3.4)	77(13.1)
My eating habits are very routine	90(15.3)	340(57.7)	90(15.2)	62(10.5)
If I don't feel hungry, I will skip a meal even if it is time to eat	81(13.8)	180(30.6)	256(43.4)	64(10.9)
When choosing fast food, I pick a place that offer healthy foods	240(40.8)	177(30.1)	37(6.3)	127(21.6)
I eat at a fast food restaurant at least three times a week	47(8.0)	65(11.0)	388(65.9)	83(14.1)

4.20 Perceived health related quality of life of respondents

The overall health-related quality of life (Table 4.20) showed that the respondents performed best in the role of Emotional (Mean=69.58±30.20) and least on the reported health Transition (Mean=42.02±27.35) domains, while the overall reported quality of life for all the respondents was 65.93±15.69.

The respondents living in the urban areas reported better-perceived quality of life in all the domains of the HRQL except in the General health (62.47±18.37 vs 63.19±16.39), mental health (63.16±14.83 vs 63.77±14.15) and social health (60.99±36.25 vs 64.45±31.27) domains. Urban residents in Ibarapa LGA had a higher perceived health-related quality of life in all the domains than urban residents in other LGAs except for the social functioning and Reported health transition domains. The pattern was however not the same among respondents living in rural areas.

Table 4.20 Perceived health related quality of life of respondents

Mean±SD	Mean±SD	ATIBA Mean±SD	IBARAPA DMean±SD	IWAJOWA Mean±SD	COMBINE	MEAN
Physical functioning	Urban	66.13±38.55	71.88±31.68	59.56±30.75	66.37±34.00	65.99±32.24
	Rural	68.87±28.90	63.51±31.25	63.47±29.77	65.50±29.88	
Role physical	Urban	63.28±32.72	72.27±28.85	63.06±29.60	66.68±30.56	65.92±29.95
	Rural	65.56±28.39	62.67±31.24	66.16±28.43	64.93±29.17	
Bodily pain	Urban	56.63±21.07	63.91±24.50	55.50±28.08	59.10±24.88	58.74±23.75
	Rural	55.83±20.86	55.00±22.53	63.79±22.68	58.29±22.24	
General Health	Urban	67.69±17.95	61.95±18.35	57.70±17.59	62.47±18.37	62.78±17.52
	Rural	66.09±15.36	63.04±16.49	60.11±17.02	63.19±16.39	
Vitality	Urban	61.60±15.71	70.65±17.83	66.06±19.10	66.43±17.95	65.90±17.54
	Rural	65.17±17.32	64.44±19.19	65.92±14.69	65.21±17.01	
Mental health	Urban	57.74±14.79	65.74±15.06	65.50±13.09	63.16±14.83	63.43±14.53
	Rural	62.34±11.90	63.24±17.51	65.81±13.13	63.77±14.15	
Social functioning	Urban	38.34±33.20	70.70±32.05	72.13±33.80	60.99±36.25	62.50±34.18
	Rural	60.16±30.04	52.70±31.87	79.17±26.32	64.45±31.27	
Role Emotional	Urban	65.22±31.30	75.91±29.17	68.50±30.99	70.33±30.66	69.58±30.20
	Rural	67.71±28.62	63.06±33.02	74.33±26.90	68.61±29.64	
Reported Health Transition	Urban	57.45±31.33	38.48±23.67	37.00±26.47	43.98±28.52	42.02±27.35
	Rural	45.83±29.39	38.85±25.89	33.05±18.48	39.49±25.61	
Physical Health	Urban	64.42±23.29	67.63±20.40	59.22±20.99	64.09±21.73	63.83±20.25
	Rural	65.14±18.79	61.83±18.64	63.08±17.19	63.49±18.20	
Mental Health	Urban	57.68±15.46	70.03±14.99	67.25±16.72	65.32±16.50	65.22±15.89
	Rural	63.99±14.35	62.04±16.69	68.90±13.77	65.09±15.09	
Health related quality of life	Urban	63.43±17.35	69.80±15.56	64.37±16.71	66.17±16.69	65.93±15.69
	Rural	66.17±14.73	63.46±15.14	66.88±13.03	65.63±14.32	

4.21: Correlation between domains of health related quality of life

Table 4.21 shows the correlation between the domains (subscales) of the Health-related Quality of Life. The role of physical subscale had a significant positive correlation with the other subscales of HRQL ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, Bodily pain (BP), General (GH), and Vitality (VT) subscales of HRQL had significant positive correlations with other subscales ($p < 0.01$). Those that do well on the Bodily pain, General Health and Vitality subscales of the HRQL will also do well on the other subscales. The correlation between BMI and HRQL (and its subscales), with values ranging from -0.06 to 0.04, are not significant. However, having a good quality of life (as measured by the Reported Health Transition (RH) subscale), also mean having a good quality of life on the Physical health (PHH) subscale ($r = 0.30, p < 0.01$), Mental Health (MEH) subscale ($r = 0.14, p < 0.01$) and the overall health-related Quality of Life (HQRL) scale ($r = 0.31, p < 0.01$).

Table 4.21: Correlation between domains of health related quality of life

Variables	PF	RP	BP	GH	VT	MH	SF	RE	RH	PHH	MEH	HRQL
1. PF	1.00											
2. RP	0.61**	1.00										
3. BP	0.33**	0.46**	1.00									
4. GH	0.35**	0.49**	0.52**	1.00								
5. VT	0.32**	0.49**	0.53**	0.53**	1.00							
6. MH	0.08	0.25**	0.33**	0.37**	0.56**	1.00						
7. SF	0.13*	0.27**	0.38**	0.17**	0.34**	0.36**	1.00					
8. RE	0.49**	0.86**	0.43**	0.46**	0.49**	0.27**	0.26**	1.00				
9. RH	0.27**	0.21**	0.16**	0.25**	0.17**	0.05	0.03	0.15	1.00			
10. PHH	0.83**	0.86**	0.64**	0.71**	0.56**	0.29**	0.28**	0.74**	0.30**	1.00		
11. MEH	0.36**	0.66**	0.56**	0.53**	0.81**	0.73**	0.63**	0.73**	0.14**	0.65**	1.00	
12. HRQL	0.70**	0.85**	0.67**	0.70**	0.72**	0.51**	0.46**	0.80**	0.31**	0.94**	0.86**	1.00

PF-Physical function, RP-Role physical, BP-Bodily pain, GH-General, VT-Vitality, MH-

Mental health, SF-Social functioning, RE-Role emotional, RH-Reported health Transition,

PHH-Physical health, MEH-Mental health, HRQL-Health related quality of life

******-Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

*****-Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

4.22. Nutrient intake of respondents by LGA and locality

The nutrient intake of the respondents according to their LGAs and locality is reported in Table 4.22. The mean nutrient intake of the respondents for calorie, protein, CHO, fat, vitamin A, folate, calcium, iron and zinc was 1839.47 ± 647.59 , 62.26 ± 34.42 , 39.31 ± 121.25 , 37.63 ± 20.55 , 24302.82 ± 14884.25 , 75.0 ± 132.6 , 164.9 ± 140 , 15.78 ± 6.35 , and 10.95 ± 5.85 respectively. Calorie, protein, carbohydrate and fat intake significantly differ from one Local Government to the other and across localities ($p < 0.05$). In a similar vein, the mean monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fat, vitamin, calcium, iron, and zinc intake differed significantly from each other across the localities ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.22a: Nutrient intake of respondents by LGA and locality

	ATIBA		IBARAPA		IWAJOWA	Total		
	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	F	Sig.			
calorie intake	Urban	1963.89±588.40	1591.66±508.23	1747.53±768.69	1839.47±647.59	16.495	<0.001*	
	Rural	2297.98±504.07	1611.87±727.28	1778.54±561.42				
protein intake	Urban	70.50±29.95	51.75±17.12	56.45±28.48	62.26±34.42	6.172	0.002	
	Rural	70.04±19.86	52.43±26.19	68.54±57.02				
CHO intake	Urban	323.92±91.92	271.74±96.77	302.89±146.55	309.31±121.25	17.028	<0.001	
	Rural	410.07±105.84	274.52±145.36	272.25±86.31				
dietary fibre intake	Urban	3.34±4.75	2.18±3.14	3.15±5.10	3.59±5.65	1.148	0.319	
	Rural	5.31±7.42	4.72±5.73	3.01±6.28				
fat intake	Urban	41.00±17.26	32.70±13.04	34.84±19.80	37.63±20.55	3.447	0.033	
	Rural	40.92±14.24	33.12±24.54	41.28±28.08				
saturated fat intake	Urban	3.98±3.04	2.17±1.58	3.85±7.16	3.74±5.63	.125	0.882	
	Rural	3.80±4.39	5.01±10.66	3.81±3.70				
mono_fat intake	Urban	5.18±3.52	3.44±2.63	8.30±8.18	5.58±5.82	3.129	0.046	
	Rural	5.57±5.50	5.87±7.90	5.84±5.59				
poly_fat intake	Urban	4.19±4.60	1.91±2.35	4.05±2.93	3.74±3.73	3.174	0.044	
	Rural	2.73±2.28	4.65±4.28	4.89±4.22				
cholesterol intake	Urban	90.18±107.96	54.39±65.62	43.46±27.11	78.61±117.49	2.845	0.060	
	Rural	114.69±198.32	70.56±103.98	86.90±105.25				
water	Urban	1817.33±783.21	1859.14±896.66	1909.32±558.23	2068.68±2070.2	2.078	0.127	
	Rural	3003.87±4557.18	1660.61±1094.9	2064.76±712.19				
vit_a intake	Urban	28355.87±15224.44	22866.13±12364.43	29028.54±19612.75	24302.82±14884.25	13.647	<0.001	
	Rural	26413.83±14674.76	11243.23±6750.831	26876.90±12463.71				
vit_c intake	Urban	10.45±13.46	18.57±25.81	24.03±28.60	18.28±28.93	1.073	0.344	
	Rural	19.69±46.28	18.04±22.22	20.06±26.40				
thiamin intake	Urban	0.58±0.59	0.32±0.	0.45±1.03	0.52±0.75	.659	0.518	
	Rural	0.59±0.49	0.74±1.1145	0.45±0.70				

Table 4.22b: Nutrient intake of respondents by LGA and locality (Continued)

ATIBA Mean±SD	Mean±SD	IBARAPA		IWAJOWA	Total	F	Sig.
		Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD			
Riboflavin intake	Urban	0.51±0.54	0.26±0.33	0.33±0.70	0.43±0.55	1.248	0.289
	Rural	0.44±0.40	0.68±0.78	0.36±0.47			
niacin intake	Urban	5.71±5.44	3.23±3.82	4.20±7.48	5.12±6.13	.874	0.418
	Rural	5.49±4.39	7.79±8.85	4.53±5.66			
vit_b6 intake	Urban	0.30±0.32	0.24±0.28	0.27±0.20	0.36±0.45	2.944	0.055
	Rural	0.32±0.35	0.71±0.78	0.33±0.42			
folate intake	Urban	94.12±117.44	45.80±87.92	61.04±190.71	75.0±132.6	1.526	0.220
	Rural	91.79±103.97	106.37±190.25	54.94±93.79			
vit_B12 intake	Urban	1.95±1.82	1.28±0.90	1.47±0.72	1.94±1.94	1.343	0.263
	Rural	2.25±1.21	2.07±1.58	2.41±3.36			
calcium intake	Urban	213.18±194.40	140.85±111.97	119.81±83.29	164.9±140.70	4.202	0.016
	Rural	179.31±125.99	188.50±122.57	143.39±150.55			
phosphorus intake	Urban	312.75±264.80	186.41±133.70	231.29±205.70	279.32±248.70	1.209	0.300
	Rural	311.78±174.55	335.65±233.33	291.63±360.48			
sodium intake	Urban	727.06±682.54	469.25±566.82	504.77±450.40	585.20±587.3	2.157	0.118
	Rural	651.01±605.67	641.06±507.32	516.48±622.53			
potassium intake	Urban	560.51±490.15	401.58±360.94	500.65±359.12	526.22±463.0	.084	0.920
	Rural	506.95±384.40	633.26±437.87	557.65±623.73			
zinc intake	Urban	11.97±7.40	9.05±3.93	10.09±4.80	10.95±5.85	8.020	<0.001
	Rural	13.65±5.03	9.65±5.11	10.92±6.67			
iron intake	Urban	17.21±6.12	13.45±4.93	14.91±7.49	15.78±6.35	15.332	<0.001
	Rural	20.04±5.20	14.12±7.50	14.67±4.88			
magnesium intake	Urban	143.31±54.40	113.80±51.91	136.6±74.71	191.61±836.82	1.049	0.352
	Rural	168.39±58.18	126.95±71.71	403.03±1859.10			

4.23. Nutritional status of the respondents

The nutritional status of the respondents is shown in table 4.23, the results showed that about 18.4% of the respondents were underweight, 60.2% were of normal weight, and 2.5% were overweight, while 8.9% were obese in Atiba LGA. In Ibarapa LGA, a larger percentage (52.6%) of the respondents fall within the normal BMI range, 16.0% of the respondents fell under the underweight category, 21.4% were overweight, while 10.2% were obese. In Iwajowa LGA, the percentage of the underweight respondents is 16.3%, 57.2% were normal, 13.3% were overweight, while 13.3% were obese.

Table 4.23: Nutritional status of the respondents

		Place of Residence		
		Urban	Rural	Total
ATIBALGA		n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
	Underweight	5(5.0)	11(12.20)	16(8.4)
	Normal	55(54.5)	60(66.7)	115(60.2)
	Overweight	26(25.7)	17(18.9)	43(22.5)
	Obese	15(14.9)	2(2.2)	17(8.9)
IBARAPA	Underweight	17(13.9)	14(19.4)	31(16.0)
	Normal	53 (43.4)	49(68.1)	102(52.6)
	Overweight	36(29.5)	5(6.9)	41(21.1)
	Obese	16(13.1)	4(5.6)	20(10.3)
IWAJOWA	Underweight	9(10.3)	18(22.8)	27(16.3)
	Normal	51(58.6)	44(55.7)	95(57.2)
	Overweight	12(13.8)	10(12.7)	22(13.3)
	Obese	15(17.2)	7(8.9)	22(13.3)

4.24 Relationship between respondent's Body Mass index and locality

The locality of respondents in Afijio LGA was significantly associated with their Body Mass Index (BMI) ($p < 0.05$). Similarly, there's a statistically significant relationship between the BMI of respondents in Ibarapa LGA and their locality ($P < 0.05$).

In Atiba LGA, for instance, the proportion obese was higher in the urban areas (14.9%) than the rural areas (2.2%), while those that were underweight were higher in the rural areas (12.0%) than the urban areas (5.0%). The proportion of respondents that were overweight in Oyo Ibarapa was higher in the urban locality (29.5%) than rural localities (6.9%). This relationship is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.24: Relationship between respondent's Body Mass index and locality

Place of Residence				Total n (%)	Chi Square	P-value
		Urban n (%)	Rural n (%)			
ATIBALGA	Underweight	5(5.0)	11(12.20)	16(8.4)	13.704	0.003
	Normal	55(54.5)	60(66.7)	115(60.2)		
	Overweight	26(25.7)	17(18.9)	43(22.5)		
	Obese	15(14.9)	2(2.2)	17(8.9)		
IBARAPA	Underweight	17(13.9)	14(19.4)	31(16.0)	19.495	<0.001
	Normal	53 (43.4)	49(68.1)	102(52.6)		
	Overweight	36(29.5)	5(6.9)	41(21.1)		
	Obese	16(13.1)	4(5.6)	20(10.3)		
IWAJOWA	Underweight	9(10.3)	18(22.8)	27(16.3)	6.236	0.101
	Normal	51(58.6)	44(55.7)	95(57.2)		
	Overweight	12(13.8)	10(12.7)	22(13.3)		

4.25 Association between socio-demographic variables and adequacy of Iron

Table 4.25 shows the association between socio-demographic variables and the level of adequacy of iron. Religion ($P < 0.001$) and Marital Status ($P < 0.05$) were significantly associated with Level of adequacy Iron. Most of the respondents reported having an adequate to an excess level of Iron, with reported proportions as high as 85.7%. In a similar manner, a fewer proportion of the respondents reported having an inadequate level of iron. More male (75.30%) than Female (66.90%) had an excess level of zinc. Also, the proportion that had an excess Iron intake was higher among respondents from Monogamous marriages (75.6%) than those from polygamous marriages (63.6%).

Table 4.25: Association between socio-demographic variables and adequacy of iron

Variable	Level of Adequacy	Iron		Chi-square	P
		Inadequate	Adequate		
Age group					
<50 years	1(2.20)	7(15.80)	37(82.20)	5.55	0.24
50 – 70	8(6.60)	30(24.60)	84(68.90)		
>70 years	12(4.80)	25(30.90)	53(65.40)		
Sex					
Male	4(4.10)	20(20.60)	73(75.30)	1.98	0.37
Female	8(5.30)	42(27.80)	101(66.90)		
Marital status					
Married	10(5.70)	40(22.70)	126(71.60)	11.73	0.02
Divorced/separated	0(0)	6(75.00)	2(25.00)		
Widow	2(3.20)	16(25.40)	45(71.40)		
Type of marriage					
Monogamy	5(3.7)	28(20.7)	102(75.6)	4.19	0.12
Polygamy/polyandry	7(6.4)	33(30)	70(63.6)		
Wives group					
1	4(3.10)	27(21.30)	96(75.60)	2.71	0.61
2	3(6.70)	13(28.90)	29(64.40)		
>2	1(4.80)	6(28.60)	14(66.70)		
Education category					
None	7(4.20)	45(27.30)	113(68.50)	6.09	0.41
Primary	5(10.20)	9(18.40)	35(71.40)		
Secondary	0(0)	4(26.70)	11(73.30)		
Tertiary	0(0)	3(20.00)	12(80.00)		
Occupation category					
None	0(0)	10(40.00)	15(60.00)	10.83	0.21
Trade/business	10(8.40)	30(25.20)	79(66.40)		
Farmers	2(2.70)	17(22.70)	56(74.70)		
Civil servants	0(0)	1(14.30)	6(85.70)		
Artisans	0(0)	4(19.00)	17(81.00)		
Religion category					
Christian	9(7.80)	26(22.40)	81(69.80)	24.78	<0.001
Islam	2(1.60)	35(27.60)	90(70.90)		
Others	1(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		

4.26: Association between socio-economic variables and the level of adequacy of Iron

The association between socio-economic variables and the level of adequacy of iron is shown in Table 4.26. None of the socioeconomic variables were significantly associated with the level of the adequacy of iron. The proportion with the excess level of iron intake was higher among respondents with a household size greater than 6 (74.60%) than those with a household size less than 6 (68.4%). Among those having an inadequate level of iron intake, those living in a room had more proportion (8.70%) than those living in a flat with bedrooms (3.30%) and another type of accommodation (4.40%).

Table 4.26: Association between socio-economic variables and adequacy of iron

Variable	Level of Adequacy Iron		Chi-square	P	
Inadequate	Adequate	Excess			
Income category					
<10,000	7(4.40)	40(25.30)	111(70.30)	0.74	0.95
10,000–49,000	4(5.20)	20(26.00)	53(68.80)		
>=50,000	1(9.10)	2(18.20)	8(72.70)		
Total household category					
<=6	10(5.30)	49(26.20)	128(68.40)	0.90	0.64
>6	2(3.40)	13(22.00)	44(74.60)		
House ownership					
No	4(6.20)	16(24.60)	45(69.20)	0.33	0.85
Yes	7(4.30)	40(24.80)	114(70.80)		
Type of house category					
A room	4(8.70)	10(21.70)	32(69.60)	6.20	0.40
Self-contained	0(0)	9(20.50)	35(79.50)		
Flat with bedrooms	2(3.30)	18(29.50)	41(67.20)		
Others (e.g. face me I face you)	4(4.40)	25(27.80)	61(67.80)		
Main source of drinking water category					
Surface/rainwater	2(3.30)	11(18.00)	48(78.70)	5.87	0.44
Well	2(3.80)	17(32.70)	33(63.50)		
Borehole	7(6.70)	24(23.10)	73(70.20)		
Others	1(3.30)	10(33.30)	19(63.30)		
Main source of cooking fuel category					
Wood	5(3.70)	30(22.10)	101(74.30)	8.96	0.18
Charcoal	1(2.60)	14(35.90)	24(61.50)		
Kerosene	6(8.80)	16(23.50)	46(67.60)		
Others	0(0)	2(66.70)	1(33.30)		
Main source of lighting category					
None	0(0)	2(33.30)	4(66.70)	3.36	0.76
Candle/lantern	4(3.70)	25(22.90)	80(73.40)		
Public power supply (e.g. PHCH)	5(5.50)	27(29.70)	59(64.80)		
Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator)	3(7.50)	8(20.00)	29(72.50)		
Toilet facility in household					
None (e.g. open bush, surface water)	9(4.30)	53(25.10)	149(70.60)	8.78	0.07
Pit latrine	0(0)	6(27.30)	16(72.70)		
Water closet	3(20.00)	3(20.00)	9(60.00)		
Refuse management in household					
None	11(4.80)	58(25.10)	162(70.10)	3.52	0.48
Burning	0(0)	1(11.10)	8(88.90)		
City service	1(12.50)	3(37.50)	4(50.00)		
Quintile 3 levels					
Average	5(4.70)	26(24.30)	76(71.00)	0.64	0.96
Rich	2(4.10)	11(22.40)	36(73.50)		
	5(5.40)	25(27.20)	62(67.40)		

4.27 Association between socio-economic variables and adequacy of dietary fibre

Table 4.27 shows the association between socioeconomic variables and the level of adequacy of dietary fibre intake. None of the socioeconomic variables is significantly related to the level of adequacy of dietary fibre. Most of the respondents had inadequate dietary fibre intake, with reported proportions ranging from 95% to 100%. In a similar way, fewer people had adequate to excess level of dietary fibre intake. The proportion with an inadequate level of dietary fibre intake was the same for those using Charcoal, Kerosene, and others as the main source of cooking fuel (100%), which was higher than that of those using wood (97.80%).

Table 4.27: Association between socio-economic variables and adequacy of dietary fibre intake

Variables		Level of Adequacy Dietary Fibre			Chi-square	P
Variable	Category	Inadequate	Adequate	Excess		
Income category	<i><10,000</i>	156(98.70)	2(1.30)	0(0)	3.31	0.51
	<i>10,000–49,000</i>	76(98.70)	0(0)	1(1.30)		
	<i>>=50,000</i>	11(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Total household	<i></=6</i>	185(98.90)	1(0.50)	1(0.50)		
	<i>>6</i>	58(98.30)	1(1.70)	0(0)		
House ownership	<i>No</i>	65(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)	1.23	0.54
	<i>Yes</i>	158(98.10)	2(1.20)	1(0.60)		
Type of house	<i>A room</i>	45(97.80)	0(0)	1(2.20)	6.34	0.39
	<i>Self-contained</i>	43(97.70)	1(2.30)	0(0)		
	<i>Flat with bedrooms</i>	61(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
	<i>Others (e.g. face me face you)</i>	89(98.90)	1(1.10)	0(0)		
The main source of drinking water	water category					
	<i>Surface/rainwater</i>	59(96.70)	1(1.60)	1(1.60)		
	<i>Well</i>	52(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
	<i>Borehole</i>	103(99.00)	1(1.00)	0(0)		
Main source of cooking fuel	<i>Others</i>	30(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)	2.46	0.87
	<i>Wood</i>	133(97.80)	2(1.50)	1(0.70)		
	<i>Charcoal</i>	39(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
	<i>Kerosene</i>	68(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Main source of lighting	<i>Others</i>	3(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)	7.43	0.28
	<i>None</i>	6(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
	<i>Candle/lantern</i>	108(99.10)	1(0.90)	0(0)		
	<i>Public power supply (e.g. PHCH)</i>					
	<i>Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator)</i>	38(95.00)	1(2.50)	1(2.50)		
Toilet facility in household	<i>None (e.g. open bush, surface water)</i>	208(98.60)	2(0.90)	1(0.50)	0.53	0.97
	<i>Pit latrine</i>	22(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
	<i>Water closet</i>	15(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Refuse management household	<i>None</i>	228(98.70)	2(0.90)	1(0.40)	0.22	0.99
	<i>Burning</i>	9(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
	<i>City service</i>	8(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Quintile 3 levels	<i>Poor</i>	104(97.20)	2(1.90)	1(0.90)	4.00	0.41
	<i>Average</i>	49(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
	<i>Rich</i>	92(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		

4.28: Socio-demographic variables and adequacy of Vitamin A intake

The association between the level of adequacy of Vitamin A and Socio-demographic variables is shown in Table 4.28. All the respondents (100%) had an excess level of Vitamin A intake. Consequently, the corresponding Chi-square and P-values couldn't be reported.

Table 4.28: Socio-demographic variables and adequacy of Vitamin A intake

Variable	Level of Adequacy Vitamin A			Chi-square	P
	Inadequate	Adequate	Excess		
Age group					
<50 years	0(0)	0(0)	45(100)		
50 – 70	0(0)	0(0)	122(100)		
>70 years	0(0)	0(0)	81(100)		
Sex					
Male			97(100)		
Female			151(100)		
Marital status					
Married	0(0)	0(0)	176(100.00)		
Divorced/separated	0(0)	0(0)	8(100.00)		
Widow	0(0)	0(0)	63(100.00)		
Type of marriage					
Monogamy					
Polygamy/polyandry					
Wives group					
1	0(0)	0(0)	127(100.00)		
2	0(0)	0(0)	45(100.00)		
>2	0(0)	0(0)	21(100.00)		
Education category					
None	0(0)	0(0)	165(100.00)		
Primary	0(0)	0(0)	49(100.00)		
Secondary	0(0)	0(0)	15(100.00)		
Tertiary	0(0)	0(0)	15(100.00)		
Occupation category					
None	0(0)	0(0)	25(100.00)		
Trade/business	0(0)	0(0)	119(100.00)		
Farmers	0(0)	0(0)	75(100.00)		
Civil servants	0(0)	0(0)	7(100.00)		
Artisans	0(0)	0(0)	21(100.00)		
Religion category					
Christian	0(0)	0(0)	116(100.00)		
Islam	0(0)	0(0)	127(100.00)		
Others	0(0)	0(0)	1(100.00)		

4.29 Socio-economic variables and the level of adequacy of vitamin A

Table 4.29 shows the association between the level of adequacy of vitamin A and Sociodemographic variables. Interestingly, all the respondents (100%) had an excess level of adequacy of vitamin A intake while none of the respondents fell within the adequate and the inadequate categories of vitamin A intake. Consequently, the corresponding Chi-square and P values couldn't be reported as there was nothing to compare with.

Table 4.29: Socio-economic variables and the level of adequacy of vitamin A

Variable	Level of Adequacy Vitamin A		Chi-square ^P
	Inadequate	Adequate Excess	
Income category			
<10,000	0(0)	0(0)	158(100.00)
10,000 – 49,000	0(0)	0(0)	77(100.00)
>=50,000	0(0)	0(0)	11(100.00)
Total household category			
<=6	0(0)	0(0)	187(100.00)
>6	0(0)	0(0)	59(100.00)
House ownership			
No	0(0)	0(0)	65(100.00)
Yes	0(0)	0(0)	161(100.00)
Type of house category			
A room	0(0)	0(0)	46(100.00)
Self-contained	0(0)	0(0)	44(100.00)
Flat with bedrooms	0(0)	0(0)	61(100.00)
Others (e.g. face me/face you)			
Main source drinking water category			
Surface/rain water	0(0)	0(0)	61(100.00)
Well	0(0)	0(0)	52(100.00)
Borehole	0(0)	0(0)	104(100.00)
Others	0(0)	0(0)	30(100.00)
Main source of cooking fuel category			
Wood	0(0)	0(0)	136(100.00)
Charcoal	0(0)	0(0)	39(100.00)
Kerosene	0(0)	0(0)	68(100.00)
Others	0(0)	0(0)	3(100.00)
Main source of lighting category			
None	0(0)	0(0)	6(100.00)
Candle/lantern	0(0)	0(0)	109(100.00)
Public power supply (e.g. PHCH)	0(0)	0(0)	91(100.00)
Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator)	0(0)	0(0)	40(100.00)
Toilet facility in household			
None (e.g. open bush, surface water)	0(0)	0(0)	211(100.00)
Pit latrine	0(0)	0(0)	22(100.00)
Water closet	0(0)	0(0)	15(100.00)
Refuse management in household			
None	0(0)	0(0)	231(100.00)
Burning	0(0)	0(0)	9(100.00)
City service	0(0)	0(0)	8(100.00)
Quintile 3 levels			
Poor	0(0)	0(0)	107(100.00)
Average	0(0)	0(0)	49(100.00)
Rich	0(0)	0(0)	92(100.00)

4.30 Socio-demographic variables and the level of adequacy of Vitamin C

The level of adequacy of Vitamin C and its association with sociodemographic variables is shown in Table 4.30. With proportions ranging from 85.70% to 100%, most of the respondents had an inadequate level of Vitamin C intake. No sociodemographic variable had a significant association with the level of adequacy of Vitamin C. The proportion that reported having excess level of Vitamin C was higher in people less than 50 years (2.2%) than those between 50 and 70 years (0.80%), and those older than 70 years (1.20%). Similarly, the proportion with an excess level of Vitamin C was higher among Civil Servants (14.30%) than farmers (1.30%) and Traders (0.80%). The proportion of the respondents having an inadequate level of Vitamin C was higher among divorced or separated and widowed respondents (100%) than Married respondents (97.20%). Those with two wives (wives group) had more respondents with an adequate level of Vitamin C (4.80%) than those with more than two wives (wives group) (0%) or one wife (Wives group) (0%).

Table 4.30 Socio-demographic variables and the level of Adequacy of Vitamin C

Variable	Level of Adequacy Vitamin C		Chi-square	P	
	Inadequate	Adequate Excess			
Age group					
<50 years	43(95.60)	1(2.20)	1(2.20)	2.34	0.67
50 – 70	120(98.40)	1(0.80)	1(0.80)		
>70 years	80(98.80)	0(0)	1(1.20)		
Sex					
Male	95(97.90)	1(1.00)	1(1.00)	1.14	0.93
Female	148(98.0)	1(0.70)	2(1.30)		
Marital status					
Married	171(97.20)	2(1.10)	3(1.70)	2.06	0.73
Divorced/separated	8(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Widow	63(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Type of marriage					
Monogamy	133(98.5)	0(0)	2(1.5)	2.626	0.27
Polygamy/polyandry	107(97.3)	2(1.8)	1(0.9)		
Wives group					
1	125(98.40)	0(0)	2(1.60)	9.26	0.06
2	45(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
>2	20(95.20)	1(4.80)	0(0)		
Education category					
None	164(99.40)	0(0)	1(0.60)	13.32	0.04
Primary	47(95.90)	1(2.00)	1(2.00)		
Secondary	14(93.30)	1(6.70)	0(0)		
Tertiary	14(93.30)	0(0)	1(6.70)		
Occupation category					
None	25(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)	11.37	0.18
Trade/business	117(98.30)	1(0.80)	1(0.80)		
Farmers	73(97.30)	1(1.30)	1(1.30)		
Civil servants	6(85.70)	0(0)	1(14.30)		
Artisans	21(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Religion category					
Christian	114(98.30)	0(0)	2(1.70)	2.29	0.68
Islam	124(97.60)	2(1.60)	1(0.80)		
Others	1(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		

4.31 Socio-economic variables and the level of adequacy of Vitamin C

Table 4.31 shows the association between the level of Adequacy of Vitamin C and socioeconomic variables. The main source of lighting had a significant association with the level of adequacy of Vitamin C ($P < 0.05$). The proportion that reported having an excess level of Vitamin C adequacy was higher among those with no source of lighting in their homes (16.7%) than those using public power (2.20%) or Candle/lantern (0%). Generally, very high proportions of the respondents had inadequate levels of Vitamin C adequacy (87.5% to 100%), while a small proportion had adequate to excess levels of adequacy of Vitamin C. Among those with excess level of Vitamin C adequacy, those using City service as a means of Refuse management in the household had a higher proportion (12.50%) than those with no means of Refuse management in household (0.90%).

Table 4.31 Socio-economic variables and the level of adequacy of Vitamin C

Variable	Level of Adequacy Vitamin C		Chi-square	P	
Inadequate Adequate Excess					
Income category					
<10,000	155(98.10)	1(0.60)	2(1.30)	0.52	0.97
10,000 – 49,000	75(97.40)	1(1.30)	1(1.30)		
>=50,000	11(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Total household category					
≤6	182(97.30)	2(1.10)	3(1.60)	1.61	0.45
>6	59(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
House ownership					
No	63(96.90)	0(0)	2(3.10)	2.92	0.23
Yes	158(98.10)	2(0.90)	1(0.60)		
Type of house category					
A room	46(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)	3.75	0.71
Self-contained	43(97.70)	0(0)	1(2.30)		
Flat with bedrooms	60(98.40)	1(1.60)	0(0)		
Others (e.g. face me face you)	87(96.70)	1(1.10)	2(2.20)		
Main source of drinking water category					
Surface/rain water	61(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)	7.02	0.32
Well	52(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Borehole	99(95.20)	2(1.90)	3(2.90)		
Others	30(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Main source of cooking fuel category					
Wood	132(97.10)	2(1.50)	2(1.50)	2.27	0.89
Charcoal	39(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Kerosene	67(98.50)	0(0)	1(1.50)		
Others	3(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Main source of lighting category					
None	5(83.30)	0(0)	1(16.70)	14.93	0.02
Candle/lantern	108(99.10)	1(0.90)	0(0)		
Public power supply (e.g. PHCH)	88(96.70)	1(1.10)	2(2.20)		
Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator)	40(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Toilet facility in household					
None (e.g. open bush, surface water)	206(97.60)	2(0.90)	3(1.40)	0.90	0.93
Pit latrine	22(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Water closet	15(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Refuse management in household					
None	227(98.30)	2(0.90)	2(0.90)	9.01	0.06
Burning	9(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
City service	7(87.50)	0(0)	1(12.50)		
Quintile 3 levels					
Poor	106(99.10)	0(0)	1(0.90)	4.84	0.30
Average	49(100.00)	0(0)	0(0)		
Rich	88(95.70)	2(2.20)	2(2.20)		

Specific Objective3

To identify relationships between socio-demographic and socio-economic household characteristics that influence food habits of adults in Oyo state.

4.32: Correlation between age, BMI and eating behavior

In Table 4.32, the correlation between age and BMI was -0.27 ($p < 0.001$) indicating that older people tend to have lower BMI in this study. Older participants also tend to have low scores on meals skipping ($r = -0.01$, $p < 0.001$) and culture/lifestyle scales of eating behaviour questionnaire ($r = -0.12$, $p < 0.001$). The correlation between BMI and snacking/convenience was -0.12 ($p < 0.001$), indicating that those who ate snacks and convenience foods tend more to have lower BMI. All eating behaviours were significantly positively correlated with each other.

Table 4.32: Correlation between age, BMI and Eating behaviours

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	1.00							
2. BMI	-0.27**	1.00						
3. Low-fat Eating2	-0.02	0.08	1.00					
4. Snacking and convenience2	-0.07	-0.12**	0.34**	1.00				
5. Emotional eating2	-0.05	0.03	0.25**	0.55**	1.00			
6. Planning ahead2	-0.05	-0.05	0.44**	0.64**	0.53**	1.00		
7. Meals skipping2	-0.01**	0.07	0.35**	0.56**	0.52**	0.45**	1.00	
8. Cultural/Lifestyle Behaviour2	-0.12**	-0.02	0.30**	0.56**	0.59**	0.55**	0.44**	1.00

Note: **Correlation is significant at the $\alpha=0.01$

4.33: Correlation between age, BMI and health-related quality of life and nutrient adequacy

The correlation between nutrient intake and health-related quality of life (and its subscales) is shown in Table 4.34. Calorie ($r=0.1, p<0.01$), protein ($r=0.12, p<0.05$), carbohydrate ($r=0.15, p<0.01$), Zinc ($r=0.20, p<0.01$) and iron intake ($r=0.17, p<0.01$) had positive significant correlation with physical function. While none of the nutrients intake correlated significantly with any of GH (General), VT (Vitality), and MH (Mental Health) subscales of HRQL, vitamin C ($r=-0.12, p<0.05$) and sodium intake ($r=-0.14, p<0.01$) correlated negatively with RP (Role Physical) subscale of the HRQL. Similarly, BP (Bodily pain) correlated negatively with carbohydrate ($r=-0.1, p<0.05$), Sodium ($r=-0.12, p<0.05$), and Iron intake ($r=-0.12, p<0.05$). Iron ($r=-0.13, p<0.05$), Calcium ($r=-0.12, p<0.05$) and carbohydrate intake ($r=-0.13, p<0.05$) had significant negative correlation with Social Functioning subscale of the HRQL. While only Sodium intake negatively correlated significantly with RE ($r=-0.15, p<0.01$); calories ($r=0.15, p<0.01$), chlorine ($r=0.17, p<0.01$), potassium ($r=0.12, p<0.05$), zinc ($r=0.21, p<0.01$) and iron intake ($r=0.17, p<0.01$) correlated positively and significantly with RH (Reported Health transition). Only zinc intake ($r=0.12, p<0.05$) correlated significantly with PHH (Physical Health).

Table 4.33: Correlation between nutrient intake and health-related quality of life

Variables	PF	RP	BP	GH	VT	MH	SF	RE	RH	PHH	MEH	HRQL
Calories Intake	0.17**	0.05	-0.02	0.02	0.08	-0.02	-0.04	0.00	0.15**	0.10	0.00	0.07
Protein Intake	0.12*	-0.03	-0.02	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02	-0.09	0.07	0.04	-0.05	0.01
CHO Intake	0.15**	0.01	-0.13*	0.00	-0.04	-0.05	-0.13*	-0.05	0.17**	0.05	-0.09	0.00
Df Intake	0.09	0.04	-0.06	0.06	-0.04	0.02	-0.09	-0.05	0.01	0.06	-0.05	0.02
Fat Intake	0.07	-0.03	0.00	0.01	0.07	-0.04	0.00	-0.08	0.09	0.02	-0.02	0.01
Saturated Fat Intake	0.04	0.08	0.00	-0.01	0.04	-0.06	0.07	0.07	0.09	0.05	0.04	0.05
Mono Fat Intake	0.05	0.07	0.00	-0.01	0.04	-0.06	0.07	0.07	0.09	0.05	0.04	0.05
Poly Fat Intake	0.05	0.08	0.01	-0.01	0.04	-0.06	0.05	0.08	0.09	0.05	0.04	0.06
Cholesterol Intake	0.08	-0.05	0.01	0.05	0.03	0.07	-0.02	-0.03	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.03
VitA Intake	-0.05	-0.08	0.05	-0.02	0.03	-0.03	0.08	-0.05	0.03	-0.05	0.01	-0.03
VitC Intake	-0.01	-0.12*	0.02	-0.05	0.02	0.05	-0.04	-0.07	0.00	-0.06	-0.02	-0.04
Thiamin Intake	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.04	-0.02	0.01	-0.09	-0.02	-0.02	0.03	-0.04	0.00
Riboflavin Intake	0.02	-0.05	-0.03	0.00	0.00	0.08	-0.06	-0.08	-0.01	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03
Niacin Intake	0.05	0.02	-0.02	0.05	-0.02	0.03	-0.08	-0.03	0.02	0.04	-0.03	0.01
VitB6 Intake	0.04	0.00	-0.03	0.03	-0.03	0.01	-0.06	-0.01	0.09	0.02	-0.03	0.01
Folate Intake	0.04	0.00	-0.01	0.05	-0.03	0.01	-0.11	-0.04	-0.02	0.03	-0.06	-0.01
VitB12 Intake	0.06	0.04	0.09	0.02	0.10	0.02	-0.04	0.02	-0.02	0.07	0.03	0.06
Calcium Intake	0.06	-0.11	-0.08	0.04	0.03	0.09	-0.12*	-0.10	0.11	-0.02	-0.04	-0.02
Phosphorus Intake	0.10	0.02	0.00	0.08	0.05	0.08	-0.03	0.01	0.08	0.08	0.04	0.07
Sodium Intake	0.01	-0.14**	-0.12*	-0.04	-0.03	0.08	-0.11	-0.15**	0.05	-0.08	-0.08	-0.09
Potassium Intake	0.11	-0.05	-0.01	0.04	0.05	0.08	-0.10	-0.03	0.12*	0.04	0.00	0.03
Zinc Intake	0.20**	0.05	-0.07	0.08	0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.03	0.21**	0.12*	-0.01	0.08
Iron Intake	0.17**	0.01	-0.12*	0.03	-0.03	-0.02	-0.13*	-0.07	0.17**	0.07	-0.09	0.01
Magnesium Intake	0.06	-0.03	0.02	-0.01	0.04	-0.03	0.05	-0.04	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.01

PF-Physical function, RP-Role physical, BP-Bodily pain, GH-General, VT-Vitality, MH-Mental health, SF-Social functioning, RE-Role emotional, RH-Reported health Transition, PHH-Physical health, MEH-Mental health, HRQL-Health related quality of life

***-Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level*

**-Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level*

Specific Objective 4

To determine the effect of changing food culture and habits on health related quality of life of adults in Oyo State.

4.34: Pearson correlation of nutrients adequacy

Table 4.34 shows the correlation between nutrients adequacy. Most of the nutrients were significantly and positively correlated with Calorie, except saturated, monounsaturated, and poly unsaturated fats, cholesterol and Vitamin B6. Those who had adequate Polyfats also had adequate Vit. B6 ($r=0.13, p<0.05$) and Sodium ($r=0.13, p<0.05$). In a similar manner, respondents who had adequate vitamin C ($r=0.13, p<0.05$), riboflavin ($r=0.31, p<0.01$), niacin ($r=0.1, p<0.05$), vitamin B6 ($r=0.18, p<0.05$), folate ($r=0.15, p<0.05$), vitamin B12 ($r=0.33, p<0.01$), calcium ($r=0.32, p<0.01$), phosphorous ($r=0.40, p<0.01$), sodium ($r=0.29, p<0.01$), potassium ($r=0.28, p<0.01$), zinc ($r=0.35, p<0.01$) and magnesium ($r=0.20, p<0.01$). However, those that had adequate vitamin A had inadequate amounts of thiamin ($r=-0.14, p<0.05$), riboflavin ($r=-0.17, p<0.01$), niacin ($r=-0.18, p<0.01$), vitamin B6 ($r=-0.27, p<0.01$), folate ($r=-0.14, p<0.05$), calcium ($r=-0.14, p<0.05$), phosphorous ($r=-0.16, p<0.05$), sodium ($r=-0.25, p<0.01$), and potassium ($r=-0.21, p<0.01$). This trend of positive correlations implies an individual that had a particular nutrient in adequate amount will have the other nutrient in adequate amount. For instance, respondents that had calcium in adequate amount, also had phosphorus ($r=0.65, p<0.01$), sodium ($r=0.82, p<0.001$), potassium ($r=0.61, p<0.001$), zinc ($r=0.17, p<0.001$) and iron ($r=0.18, p<0.001$) in adequate amount. Similarly, respondents with adequate level of potassium also had zinc ($r=0.18, p<0.01$), iron ($r=0.16, p<0.05$) and magnesium ($r=0.62, p<0.001$) in adequate amounts.

Table 4.34a: Pearson correlation of nutrients adequacy

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Adequacy_calorie	1													
2. Adequacy_protein	0.80*	1												
3. Adequacy_cholesterol	0.94*	0.65	1											
4. Adequacy_dffat	0.29*	0.26	0.33**	1										
5. Adequacy_fat	0.72*	0.67	0.50**	-0.01	1									
6. Adequacy_saturatedfat	-0.03	0.12	-0.05	-0.02	0.01	1								
7. Adequacy_monofat	-0.03	0.01	-0.04	-0.02	0.01	1.00**	1							
8. Adequacy_polyfat	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.02	0.93**	0.94**	1						
9. Adequacy_cholesterol	0.11	0.18	0.04	0.03	0.13*	0.00	0.02	0.06	1					
10. Adequacy_vitA	0.44*	0.49	0.32**	-0.16*	0.56*	-0.02	-0.02	-0.01	-0.03	1				
11. Adequacy_VitC	0.02	0.06	0.02	0.31**	-0.05	-0.05	-0.04	0.01	0.13*	-0.12	1			
12. Adequacy_Thiamin	0.30*	0.36	0.33**	0.80**	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.08	0.09	-0.14*	0.25**	1		
13. Adequacy_Riboflavin	0.29*	0.37	0.30**	0.78**	0.04	0.01	0.02	0.11	0.31**	-0.17**	0.25**	0.94**	1	
14. Adequacy_Niacin	0.29*	0.38	0.30**	0.81**	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.11	0.15*	-0.18**	0.25**	0.96**	0.96**	1
15. Adequacy_VitB6	0.08	0.21	0.05	0.52**	0.01	-0.02	-0.01	0.13*	0.18**	-0.27**	0.36**	0.55**	0.63**	0.70**
16. Adequacy_folate	0.30*	0.32	0.34**	0.81**	-0.01	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.15*	-0.14*	0.21*	0.96**	0.94**	0.93**
17. Adequacy_VitB12	0.14*	0.32	0.04	0.13*	0.18*	-0.01	-0.01	0.09	0.33**	0.03	0.15*	0.20**	0.26**	0.32**
18. Adequacy_Calcium	0.27*	0.18	0.32**	0.52**	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.32**	-0.14*	0.28**	0.51**	0.59**	0.55**
19. Adequacy_Phosphorus	0.30*	0.41	0.27**	0.68**	0.12	-0.01	0.00	0.11	0.40**	-0.16*	0.34**	0.81**	0.85**	0.87**
20. Adequacy_Sodium	0.17*	0.16	0.21**	0.59**	-0.03	0.02	0.03	0.13*	0.29**	-0.25**	0.37**	0.53**	0.61**	0.62**
21. Adequacy_potassium	0.22*	0.28	0.23**	0.54**	0.05	-0.03	-0.03	0.07	0.28**	-0.21**	0.60**	0.62**	0.66**	0.67**
22. Adequacy_zinc	0.30*	0.36	0.27**	0.10	0.14*	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.35**	0.22**	0.00	0.09	0.21**	0.18**
23. Adequacy_iron	0.46*	0.37	0.48**	0.17**	0.22*	-0.01	-0.01	0.03	0.08	0.10	-0.02	0.23**	0.23**	0.24**
24. Adequacy_magnesium	0.68*	0.54	0.72**	0.57**	0.029	-0.02	-0.01	0.06	0.20**	0.18**	0.27**	0.62**	0.61**	0.61**

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.34b: Pearson correlation of nutrients adequacy continued

Variables	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
25.Adequacy_VitB6	1									
26.Adequacy_folate	0.45**	1								
27.Adequacy_VitB12	0.49**	0.13*	1							
28.Adequacy_Calcium	0.38**	0.55**	0.21**	1						
29.Adequacy_Phosphorus	0.74**	0.74**	0.56**	0.65**	1					
30.Adequacy_Sodium	0.53**	0.53**	0.26**	0.82**	0.67**	1				
31.Adequacy_potassium	0.70**	0.56**	0.42**	0.61**	0.82**	0.62**	1			
32.Adequacy_zinc	0.18**	0.11	0.35**	0.17**	0.29**	0.12	0.18**	1		
33.Adequacy_iron	0.11	0.24**	0.15**	0.18**	0.24**	0.14*	0.16*	0.25**	1	
34.Adequacy_magnesium	0.33**	0.59**	0.25**	0.48**	0.63**	0.38**	0.62**	0.39**	0.36**	1

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.35: Correlation between age, BMI, eating styles and subscales of HRQL

Table 4.35 shows the correlation between age, BMI, eating styles and subscales of Health-Related Quality of Life. Meal skipping and Cultural/lifestyle correlated negatively with age ($r=-0.011, p<0.01$; and $r=-0.12, p<0.01$ respectively), thus older respondents skip meals less, and eat less in a cultural style. Similarly, BMI correlated negatively with Snacking and Convenience eating style ($r=-0.12, p<0.01$). Emotional Eating correlated significantly with Role physical (RP) ($r=0.10, p<0.05$) and bodily pain (BP) ($r=0.10, p<0.05$) subscales of the Health-related Quality of Life. The General Health subscale correlated significantly with Low fat eating ($r=0.14, p<0.01$), Emotional eating ($r=0.18, p<0.01$), planning ahead ($r=0.08, p<0.05$), and cultural/lifestyle behaviour ($r=0.17, p<0.01$). These positive correlations indicate that those that practise any of emotional eating style, planning ahead style, and cultural/lifestyle behaviour eating style will do well on the general health subscale. This is similar to the RH (reported Health transitions subscale) that had a positive (and significant) correlation with all the subscales of HRQL. Role Emotional (RE) subscale had a negative correlation with Meal skipping eating style ($r=-0.09, p<0.05$).

Table 4.35: Correlation between Age, BMI, eating styles and subscales of HRQL

Variables	Age	BMI	PF	RP	BP	GH	VT	MH	SF	RE	RH	PHH	MEH	HRQL
Age	1.00													
BMI	-0.27**	1.00												
Lowfat eating 2 and Snacking convenience2	-0.02	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.12**	0.14**	0.09*	0.04	0.02	0.06	0.11**	0.10*	0.08	0.11**
Emotional eating 2	-0.07	-.12**	.14**	0.05	-0.01	0.03	-0.01	-0.04	0.07	0.02	0.17**	0.09*	0.01	0.07
Planning ahead 2	-0.05	0.03	-0.04	0.10*	0.10*	0.18**	0.16**	0.23**	0.28**	0.10*	0.14**	0.09*	0.26**	0.18**
Meal skipping 2	-0.05	-0.05	0.01	0.06	0.06	0.08*	0.07	0.07	0.16**	0.04	0.13**	0.06	0.11**	0.09*
Cultural / Life style Behaviour 2	-0.11**	0.07	-0.04	-0.07	-0.04	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.10*	-0.09*	0.11**	-0.05	0.01	-0.02
	-0.12**	-0.02	0.00	0.01	0.08	0.17**	0.09*	0.12**	0.14**	0.01	0.12**	0.07	0.12**	0.10*

PF-Physical function, RP-Role physical, BP-Bodily pain, GH-General, VT-Vitality, MH-Mental health, SF-Social functioning, RE-Role emotional, RH-Reported Health Transition, PHH-Physical health, MEH-Mental health, HRQL-Health related quality of life

**** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level**

*** - Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level**

4.36. Correlation between eating styles

Table 4.36 below shows the correlation between different styles of eating. All the eating styles had a significant correlation with each other ($p < 0.01$). The correlations were positive and in most cases high ($r > 0.5$). Except for the correlation between Low fat eating style and other eating styles, the correlation coefficients were well above 0.4. Respondents who ate low fat also tend to snack more ($r = 0.34, p < 0.01$), eat more emotionally ($r = 0.25, p < 0.01$), Plan ahead eating ($r = 0.44, p < 0.01$), Skip a Meal ($r = 0.35, p < 0.01$) and Cultural/Lifestyle eating ($r = 0.30, p < 0.01$). Those that skip meals also tend to eat in a cultural/lifestyle manner ($r = 0.44, p < 0.01$).

Table 4.36: Pearson correlation between eating styles

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Lowfateating2	1.00					
2.Snackingand convenience2	0.34**	1.00				
3.Emotionaleating2	0.25**	0.55**	1.00			
4.Planningahead2	0.44**	0.64**	0.53**	1.00		
5.Mealskipping2	0.35**	0.56**	0.52**	0.45**	1.00	
6.Cultural/LifestyleBehaviour2	0.30**	0.56**	0.59**	0.55**	0.44**	1.00

Note:** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.37. Association between health-related quality of life and socio-economic variables

Table 4.37 shows the association between Health-Related Quality of Life and Socio-economic variables. The association between the Type of house the respondents lived and their health-related quality of life was significant ($p < 0.05$). However, respondents who lived in others category of houses (e.g. face me I face you) have a higher proportion (89.50%) of them with good quality of life than Flat with bedrooms (79.40%), Self-contained (81.50%), or A room (89.0%). In a similar manner, the Main source of cooking fuel category ($p < 0.05$), Income category ($p < 0.001$), Total household category ($p < 0.001$) were significantly related with health-related quality of life. Respondents who used Alternative sources of electricity (e.g. solar, generator) reported a higher proportion (89.0%) having a good health-related quality of life than those using Public power supply (e.g. PHCN) (79.9%), Candle/lantern (87.4%) or No source of electricity (77.8%).

Table 4.37: Association between health related quality of life and socio-economic variables

Health Related quality of Life				
Variable	Good	Poor	Chi-square	P
Income category				
<10,000	302(89.1)	37(10.9)	14.404	0.001
10,000 – 49,000	163(79.9)	41(20.1)		
≥50,000	23(69.7)	10(30.3)		
Total household category				
≤6	383(88.20)	51(11.8)	17.46	<0.001
>6	107(73.80)	38(26.2)		
House ownership				
No	126(79.70)	32(20.3)	3.34	0.068
Yes	327(86.1)	53(13.9)		
Type of house category				
A room	89(89.0)	11(11.0)	9.23	0.026
Self-contained	101(81.50)	23(18.50)		
Flat with bedrooms	100(79.40)	26(20.6)		
Others (e.g. face me I face you)	196(89.50)	23(10.5)		
Main source of drinking water category				
Surface/rain water	130(87.80)	18(12.20)	3.199	0.362
Well	106(80.90)	25(19.10)		
Borehole	204(85.4)	35(14.60)		
Others	52(81.20)	12(18.80)		
Main source of cooking fuel category				
Wood	255(86.7)	39(13.3)	10.526	0.015
Charcoal	97(89.8)	11(10.2)		
Kerosene	130(78.3)	36(21.70)		
Others	6(66.70)	3(33.3)		
Main source of lighting category				
None	14(77.8)	4(22.2)	7.358	0.061
Candle/lantern	209(87.4)	30(12.6)		
Public power supply (e.g. PHCH)	179(79.9)	45(20.1)		
Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator)	89(89.0)	11(11.0)		
Toilet facility in household				
None (e.g. open bush, surface water)	405(86.2)	65(13.8)	5.734	0.057
Pit latrine	54(80.6)	13(19.40)		
Water closet	34(73.90)	12(26.1)		
Refuse management in household				
None	460(85.0)	81(15.0)	2.09	0.352
Burning	16(84.2)	3(15.8)		
City service	17(73.9)	6(26.1)		
Quintile 3 levels				
Poor	203(86.8)	31(13.2)	0.52	0.97
Average	105(89.0)	13(11.0)		
Rich	185(80.10)	46(19.9)		

4.38: Association between health-related quality of life and socio-demographic variables

The association between Health-Related Quality of Life and Socio-demographic variables is shown in Table 4.38. More male respondents (85.40%) reported having good health-related Quality of Life than the female respondents (83.9%). Interestingly, respondents with a Tertiary level of education (33.3%) reported having a poor health-related quality of life much more than respondents with secondary (20.8%), primary (14.0%) or no education (12.9%). This is similar to a marital status where the proportion of Divorced/separated respondents (96%) that had a good health-related quality of life was more than that of widowed (92.6%) or Married (81.8%) respondents. This association between marital status and health-related quality of life is significant ($p < 0.05$), as well as that of Age ($p < 0.05$), Education ($p < 0.05$) and Religion ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.38: Association between Health Related Quality of Life and Socio-demographic variables

Health Related quality of Life				
Variable	Good	Poor	Chi-square	P
Age group				
<50 years	96(73.8)	34(26.2)	19.90	<0.001
50 – 70	236(84.60)	43(15.4)		
>70 years	161(92.5)	13(7.5)		
Sex				
Male	211(85.40)	36(14.60)	0.244	0.621
Female	282(83.9)	7(16.1)		
Marital status				
Married	356(81.8)	79(18.2)	10.97	0.004
Divorced/separated	24(96)	1(4)		
Widow	112(92.6)	9(7.4)		
Type of marriage				
Monogamy	241(82.8)	50(17.2)	0.268	0.3
Polygamy/polyandry	243(86.2)	39(13.8)		
Education category				
None	317(87.1)	47(12.9)	13.456	0.004
Primary	98(86.0)	16(14.0)		
Secondary	42(79.2)	11(20.8)		
Tertiary	28(66.7)	14(33.3)		
Occupation category				
None	40(95.2)	2(4.8)	8.47	0.076
Trade/business	236(82.2)	51(17.8)		
Farmers	142(88.8)	18(11.2)		
Civil servants	16(76.2)	5(23.8)		
Artisans	56(82.4)	12(17.6)		
Religion category				
Christian	245(89.7)	28(10.3)	12.47	0.002
Islam	234(80.4)	57(19.6)		
Others	5(62.5)	3(37.5)		

4.39: Binary logistic regression of health related quality of life and significant socio-economic and socio-demographic variables

Table 4.39 shows the result of the binary logistic regression of health-related quality of life on selected socio-demographic and socioeconomic variables. These selected variables were the ones that were significantly associated with Health-related Quality of life in Tables 4.32 and 4.33 above. Although not significant, those with tertiary education were about 2 times more likely to have a poor quality of life than those with no education (OR=1.739, P=0.199).

However, Age had a significant association with Health-related quality of life (OR=0.962, P<0.01), showing that as one advances in age, such is likely to have a poor quality of life.

Table 4.39: Binary Logistic Regression of health related quality of life and significant socio-economic and socio-demographic variables

95% C.I. for OR				
OR	P	Lower	Upper	
Religion				
Others(ref)				
Christian	.248	.090	.050	1.243
Islam	.527	.432	.107	2.602
Marital Status				
Married(ref)				
Divorced/Seperated	.242	.172	.032	1.856
Widow	.571	.179	.252	1.292
Education				
None(ref)				
Primary	.635	.199	.318	1.270
Secondary	.745	.490	.323	1.719
Tertiary	1.739	.199	.748	4.045
Age	.962	.001	.941	.984
Constant	5.471	.115		

4.40. Association between eating behaviour and socioeconomic variables

Houseownership ($p < 0.001$), Main source of lighting category ($p < 0.05$) and Quintile (wealth Index) ($p < 0.05$) had a significant association with eating behaviour as shown in Table 4.40.

Respondents who earned more than ₦50,000/month had the highest proportion of people with good eating behaviour (91.2%). Water closet users had a higher proportion (89.4%) of respondents having good eating behaviour than those with no toilet facility. However, those with no source of electricity had a higher proportion (100%) having good eating behavior than those that use candle/lantern (82.4%), public power supply (e.g. PHCN) (89.4%), or alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator) (84.2%). Average families reported higher proportions (19.3%) having bad eating behaviour than Poor (17.0%) or Rich families (8.2%). The table also showed that the proportion of nutritionally healthy tenants (95.60%) were significantly higher than the percentage of nutritionally healthy houseowners (81.9%).

Table 4.40. Association between eating behaviour and socio-economic variables

Eating Behaviour Variable	Good	Poor	Chi-square	P
Income category				
<10,000	289(85.3)	50(14.7)	0.944	0.624
10,000 – 49,000	178(86.4)	28(13.6)		
≥50,000	31(91.2)	3(8.8)		
Total household category				
≤6	378(86.50)	59(13.5)	0.088	0.766
>6	124(85.50)	21(14.5)		
House ownership				
No	153(95.60)	7(4.4)	17.61	<0.001
Yes	312(81.9)	69(18.1)		
Type of house category				
A room	87(86.1)	11(11.0)	0.126	0.989
Self-contained	108(85.0)	19(15.0)		
Flat with bedrooms	108(86.4)	17(13.6)		
Others (e.g. face me I face you)	188(86.20)	30(13.8)		
The main source of drinking water category				
Surface/rain water	123(82.60)	26(17.40)	2.403	0.493
Well	115(87.10)	17(12.9)		
Borehole	210(87.9)	29(12.10)		
Others	55(84.60)	10(15.40)		
The main source of cooking fuel category				
Wood	252(85.7)	42(14.3)	3.736	0.291
Charcoal	89(82.4)	19(17.6)		
Kerosene	150(88.8)	19(11.2)		
Others	9(100.0)	0(0)		
The main source of lighting category				
None	18(100)	0(0)	7.874	0.049
Candle/lantern	197(82.4)	42(17.6)		
Public power supply (e.g. PHCH)	202(89.4)	24(10.6)		
Alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator)	85(84.2)	16(15.8)		
Toilet facility in household				
None (e.g. open bush, surface water)	402(85.5)	68(14.5)	0.579	0.749
Pit latrine	60(87.0)	9(13.0)		
Water closet	42(89.4)	5(10.6)		
Refuse management in the household				
None	467(85.8)	77(14.2)	0.219	0.896
Burning	17(89.5)	2(10.5)		
City service	20(87.0)	3(13.0)		
Quintile 3 levels				
Poor	195(83.0)	40(17.0)	11.097	0.004
Average	96(80.7)	23(19.3)		
Rich	213(91.8)	19(8.2)		

4.41. Association between eating behaviour and socio-demographic variables.

In Table 4.41 the association of socio-demographic variables with eating Behaviour is shown. Education ($p < 0.05$) and Occupation ($p < 0.05$) had a significant association with eating behaviour. The association of other socio-demographic variables with eating behaviour was not significant; the respondents generally showed that they had good eating behaviour. The proportion of males (88.0%) that had good eating behaviour was more than that of females (84.5%). However, more female (15.5%) than Male (12%) among married people (86.7%) reported having good eating habit and divorced (84.6%) or widowed respondents (84.3%). More respondents (17.9%) with no education reported having bad eating behaviour than those with primary (8.5%), secondary (7.4%) or tertiary (4.8%) education. On the contrary, respondents with no education had the lowest proportion (82.1%) among those with good eating behaviour, while respondents with tertiary education had the highest proportion (95.2%) among those with good eating habits.

Table 4.41: Association between eating behaviour and socio-demographic variables

Eating Behaviour				
Variable	Good	Bad	Chi-square	P
Age group				
<50 years	120(91.6)	11(8.4)	4.75	0.093
50 – 70	241(85.20)	42(14.8)		
>70 years	143(83.1)	29(16.9)		
Sex				
Male	220(88.0)	30(12.0)	1.439	0.230
Female	284(84.5)	52(15.5)		
Marital status				
Married	379(86.7)	58(13.3)	0.521	0.771
Divorced/separated	22(84.6)	4 (15.4)		
Widow	102(84.3)	19(15.7)		
Type of marriage				
Monogamy	255(87.0)	38(13.0)	0.073	0.788
Polygamy/polyandry	245(86.3)	39(13.7)		
Education category				
None	298(82.1)	65(17.9)	12.369	0.006
Primary	107(91.5)	10(8.5)		
Secondary	50(92.6)	4(7.4)		
Tertiary	40(95.2)	2(4.8)		
Occupation category				
None	32(76.2)	10(23.8)	9.998	0.04
Trade/business	242(84.0)	46(16.0)		
Farmers	141(87.6)	20(12.4)		
Civil servants	20(95.2)	1(4.8)		
Artisans	65 (94.2)	4(5.8)		
Religion category				
Christian	236(85.8)	39(14.2)	0.913	0.633
Islam	253(86.6)	39(13.4)		
Others	6(75.0)	2(25.0)		

4.42: Binary logistic regression of eating behaviour on significant socio-economic and socio-demographic variables

The results of the binary logistic regression of eating behaviour on selected socio-demographic and socio-economic variables are shown in Table 4.42. Variables that were significantly associated with eating behaviour in Tables 4.35 and 4.36 above were selected and included in the logistic regression model. Only house ownership was statistically significant in the logistic regression model. Those who own houses were about 4 times more likely to have poor eating behaviour than those with no houses (95% CI: 1.813, 9.419).

Table 4.42: Binary logistic regression of eating behaviour on significant socio-economic and socio-demographic variables (95% CI)

	OR	P	Lower	Upper
Occupation				
None(Ref)				
Trade/Business	1.018	0.967	.441	2.352
Farmers	.633	0.326	.254	1.577
Civil Servants	.541	0.611	.051	5.787
Artisans	.397	0.163	.108	1.454
Education				
None(Ref)				
Primary	.707	0.373	.330	1.516
Secondary	.784	0.678	.248	2.475
Tertiary	.511	0.431	.096	2.710
House ownership				
No(Ref)				
Yes	4.132	0.001	1.813	9.419
QUINTILE_grp				
Poor (Ref)				
Average	1.092	0.778	.592	2.015
Rich	.562	0.096	.286	1.107
Constant	.087	0.000		

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 DISCUSSION

5.1.1 Changes in food habits of adults in Oyo State

One of the major objectives of this study is to identify the changes in the food habits of the adult population in Oyo state. The findings clearly showed that the eating habit of the people is no longer as healthy as they used to be. The focus group discussion with the adult population

studied revealed that the effect of urbanization, modernization, and western diet on the adults studied food habit cannot be overemphasized. Some of the discussants lamented the gradual erosion of the traditional/ indigenous diets due to the preference for the ready-to-eat foods in the market. It was gathered from the study that caregivers no longer know how the traditional foods were prepared and it was pointed out by some female participants that olden days foods prepared and eaten were healthier than the present day ones because most of the farm produce had lost their palatability, aroma as well as their nutritional values.

These were attributed to the use of fertilizers instead of bush fallowing, herbicides instead of weeding that enrich the soil, Maggi in lieu of locust beans and grinding machine instead of the usual grinding stone. According to one of the women discussants in an urban community, "The olden days' crop processing methods especially planting was quite different. Most Present day crops are planted with chemicals and fertilizer thereby resulting in early maturing and harvesting of food crops". This was corroborated by other respondents who explained that "Vegetables without fertilizer taste good and palatable than the ones grown with fertilizer".

Also “In the past, we used ‘ewedu’ but it is different now; the reason is that, the way we plant ‘ewedu’ these days affect its quality because we are encouraged to add some chemical to the soil before planting or even after planting. By the time we cook such ‘ewedu’, it would have lost its sliminess. Hence a great difference exists between the ‘ewedu’ planted with or without chemicals because the latter will be very greenish than the former. Even most vegetables and other crops such as yam, cassava are planted with chemicals. In the time past, there is no such thing” (A middle-aged female participant, Iganna).

In all the communities sampled, respondents had a good breakfast attitude. Also, skipping lunch was not a common attitude and nutritionally rich food containing a combination of carbohydrate, protein and vitamin sources were commonly chosen for lunch. Such food for lunch includes; ‘amala’ (made of either yam flour or cassava) with soup (‘morogbo’, ‘ilasa’ [okro leaves], vegetables [‘efo tete abalaye’] or ‘egusi’ [melon] with vegetables); pounded yam with soup; meat and beans. It was also noted that the common vegetables in the past and the present are ‘efo tete abalaye’, ‘ewuro’, ‘igbo’, ‘eku’, ‘efotete’, ‘shoko’ and ‘ebolo’. As one of the female participants pointed out,

“Some people if chanced can pound yam, some cook beans but majorly we eat ‘amala’ (yam flour) and ‘ilasa’ soup which contains locust beans and up till date we don’t use Maggi for draw soup instead we use locust beans. When ‘ilasa’ is eaten by someone that had just given birth, it nourished her body. But now we use Maggi for stew although in the olden days our mothers used leafy onions and locust beans for stew”.

Dinner is eaten in all the communities although its content varies from one community to another. ‘Ekotutu with moin moin/akarapounded yam, rice and spaghetti were common food items are eaten as dinner although this is largely dependent on each family’s economic power and ability. It was further stressed that pounded yam was one of the major meal for dinner in the time past, however, it’s no longer a common food for dinner because

the youth of today who are saddled with the responsibility of preparing the meal cannot poundyam.

According to some female discussants in the urban areas, some of the modern foods common in the community and consumed mostly by children are canned foods, noodles, rice, Spaghetti, Semovita, and wheat. It was also mentioned that children were made to eat fruits and vegetables in addition to these modern foods. Various types of fruits such as; mango, cashew, orange, pineapple, pawpaw, banana, and plantain were mentioned to be common in most of the index urban communities.

However, findings did indicate poor taste and aroma, non-availability and unaffordability as key reasons for the decline in fresh fruit consumption, hence the increasing incidence of Non-communicable diseases, unlike in the olden days when such diseases were not things of concern. This was emphasized by one of the female participants in an urban community who did confess to the unaffordability of the fruits these days "But we don't have access to fruits like before due to non-availability and cost. We have to buy it from a few people that are planting it on their farms. Even if our husband goes to the farm and brings fruits instead of giving it out freely we sell to make money. Unlike before that, we had fruits on individuals' farm, it is scarce today and so, we consume fewer fruits."

Locally raised chicken and fish were reported to be regularly consumed by the focus group discussants. In time past, bush meat and freshwater fishes were reportedly common and consumed, but beef and frozen fish such as Mackerels, Tuna and Sardine are the most common species available nowadays. Changes in the meat consumption pattern between the olden days and the present time are largely due to the high prevalence of western diets and reduction in the population of game skilled as bush meat; resulting in the high cost of bush meat. In addition, concern was raised on the quality of fish being produced in the present day, pointing out that most of the species of fish raised are genetically modified with a consequent reduction in their quality and taste.

Eating of 'ewedu' was considered a taboo in one of the communities as it was believed or perceived to cause fibroid. In another urban community, eating of 'eba' was not common although their children do soak 'gaari' in water to eat. Some female participants in the urban communities suggested ways of improving eating culture through nutrition education which could be organised for women of different groups and in different communities. According to one of these participants, "You can organise nutrition education and create awareness among women from different groups and community. This information will be disseminated among those who do not attend because it will help us to change our eating habit and cooking pattern for better"

5.1.2 The Influence of socio-demographic and household characteristic on respondents' food habit

Generally, a larger proportion of both rural and urban dwellers were female. More females live in rural areas while larger percentages of the urban dwellers (Ibarapa LGA) were male. This may be due to the fact that women are more involved in farming and agro-processing and trading activities which are predominant occupations in rural areas of Nigeria. Ogunlela (2009) had similar findings when he opined that rural women, more than their male counterparts, took the lead in agricultural activities, making up to 60-80 percent of the labour force. It is ironical that their contributions to agriculture and rural development are seldom noticed.

Generally, the respondents were aged between fifty (50) and (70) years. The reason for the age distribution in the rural area is not far-fetched - it could be due to the fact that more youth migrants in urban centres than the elderly. Ofuoku and Chukwuji (2012) revealed that the rate of migration from rural to urban centres was common among ages 11-20 and 21-30. Therefore, about 60% of the productive youths in rural areas migrate to urban centres. Thus, the youths who are the most productive group of people in rural areas migrate to the urban centre leaving behind the elderly (above 50 years) and the children who are about 40% of the total population in the rural areas.

Findings also revealed that higher percentages of the people in both rural and urban areas are either poorly educated or had no formal education. This may be traceable to poor academic facilities

, poor enlightenment as well as poor access to formal education in the areas. More than half of urban residents in the three LGAs, Atiba, Ibarapa, and Iwajowa were traders. In a similar way, most rural residents were farmers except for Iwajowa LGA which had half of its residents as traders. This finding is similar to that of Ogunlela (2009).

The main religion practised in Atiba LGA is Islam while Ibarapa recorded more Christians than other religions. In Iwajowa LGA, however, a larger proportion of urban residents practice Islam while a majority of the rural residents were Christians. This finding is in line with that of Olowookere *et al.*, (2012) who reported a similar trend in religion distribution among rural communities of Nigeria. The implication is that traditional religion is gradually fading away from where it was formally being practised.

Education and occupation were significantly associated with eating behaviour (Table 4.79). The association of other socio-demographic variables with eating behaviour was not significant; the respondents generally showed that they had good eating behaviour. There was no significant difference in the proportion of males and female respondents that had a healthy eating habit even though more males seem to eat healthier than females. The findings also revealed that a good eating habit can be influenced by marital status. The study showed that a larger percentage of the married respondents reported a good eating habit than the divorced or the widowed. This can be traced to the support that the married couples get from each other in the form of finance, encouragement, and motivation which the divorced and the widowed may not be able to access. The role of education in enhancing a good eating habit cannot be overlooked. The study revealed a statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) poor eating behaviour among the respondents with no formal education as against those with primary, secondary or tertiary education.

The results of the binary logistic regression of eating behaviour lifestyle on selected socio-demographic and socioeconomic variables are shown in Table 4.79

5.1.3 Influence of socio-economic characteristics on respondents' food habits

Most of the respondents reported that they were self-employed, regardless of the locality of their residence. In Ibarapa LGA for instance, 94.3% of its rural residents were self-employed. Okoli *et al.*, (2014) had a similar result where it was reported that a majority of people in the rural community of Nigeria were self-employed. This may be a result of the localization of infrastructure facilities in the cities which has, in turn, restricted the employer of labour to the urban areas. By implication, industries, and white-collar jobs providers cannot find the enabling environment in the rural areas of Nigeria leaving the rural dwellers with no other options than to engage in farming, trading, and a few artisans' works.

Respondents in Ibarapa and Iwajowa were majorly low-income earners. Among urban dwellers in Ibarapa LGA, about 66.4% of the respondents earn less than ₦10,000 (US\$62.50) per month which is not different from the trend (55.6%) observed among the rural dwellers in the same LGA. The present study confirms the result of Onu *et al.*, (2010) where it was reported that 57.8% of the respondents earned less than ₦10,000.00 (US\$62.50) a month which made it difficult for them to afford decent houses.

In all the LGAs, less money is spent on food. Most of the respondents across all strata in all the LGAs reported spending less than ₦10,000 a month on food. This is so because they earn less than ₦10,000 and they can't spend more than their income and also because they get most of their food from the farm. The present findings support that of Imo *et al.*, (2013) who affirms that 66.3% of the respondents earn less than ₦10,000 in a month.

5.1.4 Household characteristics

Most of the respondents in the three LGAs of Atiba, Ibarapa, and Iwajowa had a household size that consisted of less than or exactly six (6) members. The implication is that more of the respondents operate a nuclear family type which is a trend that is peculiar to the urban centers. Akewushola and Akinlabi (2013) had similar results where respondents with 4-6 household size had 30.0% which was the highest.

Mud was the main material used in most of the respondents' houses, a majority of the respondents lived in mud/mudroof type of houses. A similar result was reported in a survey carried out in Jigawa state Nigeria. In the Urban area of Atiba LGA,

a majority of the houses in which the respondents lived were built with concrete blocks. Many of the rural residents in Atiba LGA used surface water as their main source of drinking water. Also, urban residents in Iwajowa LGA used well water mostly as their main source of drinking water. The result of Tasi *et al.*, (2016) is similar to the present study where it was reported that open well is the common source of water in the rural villages of Kano. Fatioye and John-Adewole (2013) also reported that the major source of potable water in the community is hand-dug well; some of which was not having a good depth to avoid seepage of contaminants into it.

Most rural areas had a low proportion of its dwellers using public power; revealing the fact that most rural areas do not have access to public power. Lack of this basic amenity has been a factor impeding the growth and development of rural areas. Regardless of the locality, all the LGAs reported a higher proportion of its dwellers with no toilet facilities. This is the situation with many rural households in developing countries. A high proportion of the respondents reported not having any form of refuse management, meaning that there was no proper way of disposing of waste in the study areas. Fatioye and John-Adewole (2013) recorded similar findings when they reported that the little knowledge that the community occupants had about environmental and waste management and control was inadequate; hence, the poor environmental management.

5.1.5 Food consumption pattern of respondents

More than one-third of the respondents did not consume garri at all, while only a few consumed it once in a week, which is the highest proportion of those who ate garri at all. Onyemauwa (2010) reported similar findings where he affirmed that an average household of 8 persons consumed 25 kilograms (kg) of garri at a cost of N2,500 representing 5% of monthly household income. Majority of respondents reported not consuming cooked or fried cocoyam and sweet potatoes. This finding is at variance with the findings of Agbele-moge (2013) who reported that almost all respondents consumed cocoyam in South-western Nigeria as part of the family menu.

Tuwomasara, Kokoro, Sapala Abari and Iro were not taken at all by a larger percentage of the respondents. This is believed to be due to the fact that these traditional foods are no longer

relished by the indigenous people, and the women may not know how to cook the products. Tuwo masarais popularly consumed in the northern part of the country and is not too common in the South-west, except where the Hausas are living.

Fried Rice and Tuwo Shinkafa were not eaten at all by a large proportion of the respondents. This is believed that these foods are not traditional to them, unlike white rice which was consumed regularly by the respondents. Akarakoko, Ekuru, and Gbegiri which are traditional foods of the South-west region of Nigeria were not consumed at all by a large percentage of respondents. A possible explanation for this observation may be due to the fact that the respondents may not have been consuming these food items or the food items might be time-consuming in preparation. About one-third of the respondents rarely consume biscuits and confectionaries. The reason for this may be because Biscuits and Confectionaries were known to be food items consumed by children and not adults. Coffee was not consumed at all by most respondents, while others rarely took beverages and tea.

The present findings show that respondents had little or no information on the benefit of coffee to human health. Fruits like guava, watermelon, apple, pear, and carrot were not eaten at all by many of the respondents. This may be due to respondents' lack of access to these fruits, most of which are seasonal and not readily available. Leafy vegetables were consumed once daily by one-third of the respondents, while 28.4% did not consume vegetables at all. The present findings agree with Elodie and Yves (2010) who reported that the diet of urban populations were grossly deficient in micronutrients such as vitamin A.

More than half of the respondents did not consume juice at all while others consumed it rarely. This may be due to the fact that the juices were more expensive and the respondents could not afford it compared to other carbonated drinks. A majority of the respondents did eat meat regularly with their meals, while 61.3% did not

have a plan for meals ahead of time. About 47.0% of the respondents don't eat until they have finished the whole package when they buy snack foods, while 66.5% don't replace supper with a snack, instead of planning meals. Out of the respondents, 79.1% didn't agree to hate cooking. The implication of these findings is that respondents were aware of the consequences of eating meatless meals. It could also be inferred from the present findings that respondents do not see the reason why they had to plan their meal for the coming week.

5.1.6 Relationship between socio-demographic and socio-economic variables, nutrient adequacy and nutritional status of adults

One of the major objectives of this study was to assess the relationship between respondents' nutritional status and their socio-demographic and socio-economic status. It was observed from the study that nutrient inadequacy was a common challenge to the majority of the respondents in both rural and urban areas. Vitamin B6 inadequacy was higher among individuals in monogamous marriages (97.0%) than those in polygamous marriages (94.5%).

The proportion of farmers and civil servants with B6 inadequacy was the same (6.70%) while they equally shared the same proportion of excess amounts of vitamin B6 (2.70%). These inadequacies may be due to the complaints that fruits and vegetables are no longer palatable as they used to be and more, that the few available fruits these days are too expensive for both rural and urban dwellers to afford as pointed out during the focus group discussion. However, the similar trend in the proportion with excess vitamin B6 among farmers and civil servants could be attributable to the farmers' better access to more vegetables and the civil servants' better understanding of their importance as well as the available sources of the vitamins.

There was no significant difference in the level of adequacy of folate among the genders. However, a much larger percentage of the respondents showed folate inadequacy. This inadequate level of folate reported among respondents by the present findings may be due to lack of access to food sources like legumes, leafy green vegetables, and some fruits, so lower intakes can be expected where the staple diet consists of unfortified wheat, maize, or rice, and when the intake of legumes and folate-rich vegetables and fruits is low. The result of Steluti *et al.*, (2011) is similar to present findings where people also reported low intake of

folate, vitamin B6 and vitamin B12. This could possibly be a result of lack of access to vitamin-rich dietary sources.

Calcium and phosphorus are important minerals essential for the body functions and metabolism which were both revealed to be inadequate among all the categories of the respondents. However, the civil servant category showed a better trend for phosphorus with about half of the respondents who were civil servants having phosphorus adequacy. This could be traceable to the vital role that education plays in understanding nutrition knowledge. The proportion of the respondents with inadequate level of intake of calorie and sodium was not too different from each other. A higher percentage of the respondents had very poor intake which could be attributed to the fact that such elderly respondents may deliberately avoid food that are rich in sodium and high in calorie. The implication is that respondents were elderly, there is a high tendency that they lack sodium and calorie. This is a disease common among elders.

Level of education and type of occupation were the two socio-demographic characteristics which had a significant association with the level of adequacy of Potassium. This implies that people with a low level of education might be prone to potassium deficiency than people who are well educated. Also, respondents whose occupations are in line with health education may face less risk of lack of potassium whereas respondents whose occupation has nothing to do with health may be prone to the risk attached to potassium deficiency.

Table 4.24 shows the association between socio-demographic variables and the level of adequacy of iron of both the rural and urban respondents. About 11.10% and 88.9% of the respondents had adequate as well as excess Iron level respectively. None of the socio-economic variables was significantly associated with the level of adequacy of iron. However, the respondents' housing type was significantly associated with the adequacy of iron. Among the iron inadequacy group, those with a room had more proportion than those living in a flat with bedrooms and other types of accommodation.

5.1.7 Dietary fibre

It was shown in the study that of all the Socio-demographic variables assessed, it was only age of the respondents that showed a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) positive association with the respondents' dietary fibre. A larger percentage of the respondents had inadequate dietary fiber intake which was almost the same for both monogamous and polygamous marital groups, respectively. It could be inferred from the findings that the higher the age the higher the adequacy of dietary fiber while the lower the age the less adequate is the dietary fiber. Notwithstanding, none of the socio-economic variables showed any statistically significant relationship with the adequacy of dietary fibre.

Vitamin A is an indispensable nutrient with enormous importance in the body ranging from its anti-oxidative role to its role in vision and nourishing the skin. In this study, the diet of both the urban and rural dwellers alike was inadequate in relation to Vitamin A content. No significant relationship was seen between Vitamin A adequacy and the respondents' socio-demographic and socio-economic status. This may be due to the inability of the respondents to afford some vitamin-rich food items or maybe as a result of their poor educational level which might have prevented them from understanding the role of eating varieties of fruits and vegetables in meeting vitamin A requirement. Nidhi *et al.*, (2008) had similar findings where it was reported that sixty percent of their respondents had vitamin A deficiency as assessed by xerophthalmia, rough and scaly skin.

The level of adequacy of Vitamin C and its association with socio-demographic variables reveal that the proportion of the respondents having an inadequate level of Vitamin C was higher among Divorced/separated and widowed respondents, than married respondents. Lack of vitamin C reported for respondents in these categories is a pointer to the respondents' poor nutrition education on food preparation and how water-soluble vitamins like Vitamin C and the B-Vitamins can be conserved. A similar result was reported by Nidhi *et al.*, (2008) where it was discovered that forty-five percent of the slum women had a deficiency of vitamin C, which was observed by sponginess and swelling of gums.

There was a strong negative correlation ($p < 0.001$) between age and body mass index indicating that the older one becomes the lower the body mass index (BMI). Older participants also tend to have low scores on Meals skipping and Culture/Lifestyle scales of Eating behaviours questionnaires. There was also a strong negative correlation between BMI and Snacking/convenience ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that those who eat snacks and convenience foods more tend to have lower BMI. This finding might be because older respondents do not eat junk that can increase the level of fat in their body while younger respondents tend to eat more junk which explained the reason why correlation existed for age and BMI. Also, younger respondents tend to skip more meal than older respondents. The reason for this is because younger respondents who were still in active service or who were engaged in one form of work or the other may skip breakfast and take lunch and dinner.

There was a negative correlation between age, and intakes of all food nutrients (though not statistically significant) except for Vitamin C intake which showed a positive correlation. Vitamin C intake had a non-significant positive correlation with Age ($r = 0.01$) indicating that older participants take more Vitamin C. The correlation between nutrients intake and BMI was mostly positive, this shows that the more nutrient-rich food one takes, the higher the BMI. The measure of the relationship between nutrients adequacy and age shows the correlation between BMI and Nutrients adequacy. Age correlated positively with some of the nutrients adequacies. Although these correlations were not statistically significant, it indicated that as one grows older, Nutrients like Calorie, Protein, Fat, and Vitamin C, becomes more adequate. This may be so because one is getting out of his or her productive age when more energy is needed to do work.

Most of the nutrients were significantly and positively correlated with Calorie intake. The correlation coefficients between nutrients adequacy as presented in Table 4.34 also showed that all the nutrients had a positive correlation with each other, and most of these correlations were significant. However, the correlation between Iron and Vitamin B6 adequacies, Zinc and Folate adequacies, & zinc and Potassium adequacies were positive but not significant. This trend of positive correlations implies an individual that has a particular nutrient

inadequate amount will have the other nutrient in inadequate amount. For instance, respondents that had Calcium in adequate amount also had adequate Phosphorus, Sodium, Potassium, Zinc, Iron and magnesium. Similarly, respondents with an adequate level of Potassium also had Zinc, Iron and Magnesium in adequate amounts.

All the eating styles had a significant correlation with each other as shown in Table 4.36. The correlations were positive and in most cases high. Except for the correlation between low-fat eating style and other eating styles, the correlation coefficients were well above 0.4. Respondents who ate low fat also tend to snack more, are more emotionally, planning ahead eating, skipping a meal and cultural/lifestyle eating. Those that skip meals also tend to eat in a cultural/lifestyle manner.

5.1.8 Nutrients adequacy and health-related quality of life of adults

Age correlated significantly, though negatively, with Physical function (PF), Role-physical (RP), Bodily pain (BP), General (GH), Vitality (VT), role emotional (RE) and others. Thus, older respondents have a poorer quality of life in their respective subscales. The role of physical Subscale had a significant positive correlation with the other subscales of HRQL ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, Bodily pain (BP), General (GH), and Vitality (VT) Subscales of the HRQL had significant positive correlations with other subscales ($p < 0.01$). The correlation between BMI and HRQL (and its subscales) are not significant. However, having a good quality of life (as measured by the Reported Health Transition (RH) subscale) also meant having a good quality of life on the Physical health (PHH) subscale, Mental Health (MEH) subscale, and the overall health-related Quality of Life (HQRL) scale.

The General Health Subscale correlated significantly with Low-fat eating, Emotional eating, planning ahead and cultural/lifestyle Behaviour. These positive correlations indicate that those that practice any of emotional eating style, planning ahead style, and cultural/lifestyle behaviour eating style will do well on the general health subscale. This is similar to the RH (reported Health transitions subscale) that had a positive (and significant)

correlation with all the subscales of HRQL. Role Emotional (RE) subscale had a negative correlation with meal skipping eating style.

The association between the Type of house the respondents lived in and their health-related quality of life was significant ($p < 0.05$). However, respondents who lived in other categories of houses (e.g. face me I face you) have a higher proportion of them with good quality of life than Flat with bedrooms, Self-contained, or a room. In a similar manner, the Main source of cooking fuel category ($p < 0.05$), Income category ($p < 0.001$), Total household category ($p < 0.001$) were significantly related with health-related quality of life. Respondents who use alternative sources of electricity (e.g. solar, generator) reported a higher proportion having a good health-related quality of life than those using a public power supply, Candle/lantern or No source of electricity. The association between health-related quality of life and socio-demographic variables is shown in Table 4.39. Male respondents reported good health-related quality of life than female respondents.

Interestingly, respondents with a tertiary level of education reported poor health-related quality of life much more than respondents with secondary, primary or no education.

This is similar to marital status where the proportion of divorced/separated respondents that had the good health-related quality of life was more than that of widowed or married respondents. This association between marital status and health-related quality of life is significant ($p < 0.05$), as that of Age ($p < 0.05$), Education ($p < 0.05$) and Religion ($p < 0.05$). Table 4.39 shows the result of the binary logistic regression of health-related quality of life on selected socio-demographic and socioeconomic variables.

These selected variables were the ones that were significantly associated with health-related quality of life in Tables 4.75 and 4.76 above. Although not significant, those with tertiary education were about twice (2 times) more likely to have a poor quality of life than those with no education (OR=1.739, $p = 0.199$). However, age had a significant association with health-related quality of life (OR=0.962, $P < 0.01$), showing that as one advances in age, such is likely to have a poor quality of life. House ownership ($p < 0.001$), Main source of lighting category ($p < 0.05$) and Quintile

(wealth Index)($p < 0.05$) had a significant association with eating behaviour as shown in table 4.78. Respondents who earned more than ₦50,000 had the highest proportion of people with good eating behaviour. Water closet users had a higher proportion of respondents having good eating behaviour than those with no toilet facility e.g. open bush, surface water, and Pit latrine. However, those with no source of electricity have a higher proportion having good eating behaviour than those that use Candle/lantern, Public power supply, or alternative sources (e.g. solar, generator). Average families reported higher proportions having good eating behaviour than poor or rich families. The table also shows that the proportion with no houses and good eating behaviour was more than those with houses and good eating behaviour.

A high proportion of the respondents reported a high perceived health-related quality of life, just as most had a normal Body Mass Index. However, a sizeable proportion was either obese, underweight or overweight respectively. The relationship between HRQoL and BMI was significant ($P < 0.05$). All through, the proportion with high HRQoL was higher than those with low HRQoL. However, among those with low HRQoL, the highest proportion was those who were overweight, while that of those with high HRQoL was highest among those with normal BMI. The relationship between the respondents' Locality and their BMI was also statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) one. Most of the underweight respondents were in the rural area. In contrast, those who were obese were majorly resident in urban areas.

5.2 CONCLUSION

Respondents of this study revealed that there were changes in their dietary habits and food culture through the gradual erosion of traditional indigenous food system. Urbanisation and food transition was reported to divert consumers' attention from locally available food to modernized processed foods. Erosion of food culture was attributed to the use of fertilisers and herbicides which were perceived to be responsible for the reduction in organoleptic properties and nutritional quality of the present day foods. Use of herbicides was also

attributed to a reduction in the availability of wildy-grown vegetables, thereby reducing dietary diversification.

Majority of respondents were self-employed and belonged to a low socio-economic class with low income, resulting in poor access to nutritious foods, and hence the poor nutritional status of many of the respondents. Education and occupation were significantly associated with eating behavior, the more educated being more involved in frequent snacking and eating away from home. There was an inadequate intake of micronutrients among both urban and rural dwellers. The rural dwellers showed much better food choices and habits than the urban dwellers, as snacking and meals skipping was higher among the urban dwellers than their rural counterparts.

Majority of respondents reported a high perceived health-related quality of life, and more than half had normal Body Mass Index. Most of the respondents with a low perceived health-related quality of life were overweight. Most of the underweight respondents were in the rural area while those who were obese were majorly residents in the urban areas. Older respondents (≥ 50 years) reportedly had a poorer health-related quality of life in terms of body pain, general health, and vitality. Male respondents reported good health-related quality of life than female respondents, while respondents with a tertiary level of education reported poor health-related quality of life than respondents with secondary, primary or no education. The proportion of divorced/separated respondents that had a good health-related quality of life was more than that of widowed or married respondents. Respondents with no education had poor eating behavior, and low fruit consumption and perceived the health-related quality of life were both common in rural and urban areas.

5.3 RECOMMENDATION

There has been a change from indigenous food culture to westernised food habits with frequent snacking and consumption of ready-to-eat foods based on convenience and lack of meal planning among the respondents, especially those living in urban areas. Also, the

consumption of fresh fruits and vegetables was very low among urban residents due to the cost of purchase.

It is therefore recommended that cooking and daily meal planning should be encouraged among both urban and rural dwellers to reduce or eliminate unhealthy snacking.

Consumption of healthy snacks such as fresh fruits and vegetables as well as local traditional snacks should be promoted in the study area to prevent consumption of high energy, low nutrient-dense unhealthy snacks.

Use of indigenous condiments, additives, and spices coupled with the dedication of time to and encouraging cooking at home by caregivers will promote healthy eating at the household level and improve the level of health-related quality of life in the study area.

Promotion of four traditional indigenous foods and healthy lifestyles among the respondents will improve their health-related quality of life.

Further studies on reduction in organoleptic properties and palatability of food items from the studied locality will be needed to affirm or dispute the claim of respondents.

5.4 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

The study reveals and establishes that:

There is a gradual erosion of four traditional indigenous food systems and changes in dietary habits and food culture of both rural and urban dwellers through urbanisation and food transition. The people in the urban areas snack more than the rural dwellers

Fertilizer, herbicides and other chemicals use in crop production are a threat to wild-grown vegetables, dietary diversification and health-related quality of life.

The eating behavior of the people is influenced by their occupation, location, and level of education. The rural dwellers had much better food choices and habits than the urban dwellers. The shift from traditional indigenous food to western diet has reduced the health-related quality of life of both the rural and urban dwellers.

Poor eating habits and culture pre-disposes both urban and rural dwellers to micronutrient deficiencies.

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DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN NUTRITION
FACULTY OF PUBLIC HEALTH
COLLEGE OF MEDICINE
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, NIGERIA

Ref:

Date

21st August, 2013



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QuestionnaireID	
State	
SenatorialDistrict	
LGA	
Ward	
HouseholdNo	
PhoneNo.	

APPENDICES

**EFFECT OF CHANGES IN FOOD CULTURE AND HABITS ON
THE NUTRITIONAL STATUS**

**ANDHEALTHRELATEDQUALITYOFLIFE OFADULTS
INOYOSTATE**

Informed Consent Form

Greetings,

My Name is AKINRINADE Grace a postgraduate student of the Department of Human Nutrition, Faculty of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Nigeria. I am presently carrying out a study on the **“EFFECT OF CHANGES IN FOOD CULTURE AND HABITS ON THE NUTRITIONAL STATUS AND HEALTH RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE OF ADULTS IN OYO STATE”**

Confidentiality and Consent:

I will ask you some questions, some of which may be personal. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. The information provided will be kept confidential and will not be disclosed to a third party. No name is required in filling the questionnaire. This questionnaire will require about 20 minutes of your time. Please try and give honest responses to the questions as much as possible. You are free to ask questions where it is not clear. Thank you

Do I have your agreement to proceed? Yes [] No []

Respondent's Signature _____ Date _____

Signature of respondent indicates informed consent was provided.
AKINRINADE Grace

**Questionnaire
Demographic Characteristics**

S/N	Demographic Characteristics					
1.	Age at last birthday (in years)					
	Sex	Male(1)	Female(2)			
2.	Ethnicity	Yoruba(1)	Igbo(2)	Hausa(3)	Others(4) Specify.....	
3.	Marital Status	Single(1)	Married(2)	Divorced/Separated(3)	Widow(4)	
4.	Type of Marriage	Monogamy(1)	Polygamy(2)			
5.	No of wives					
6.	Highest Education	None(1)	Primary(2)	Secondary(3)	Tertiary(4)	
7.	Occupation	Trader(1)	Artisan(2)	Civil Servant(3)	Others(4) Please specify	
8.	Religion	Christianity(1)	Islam(2)	Traditional(3)	Others(4) Please specify	
9.	Employment status	Not applicable (suspension litigation etc)(1)	Unemployed (2)	Self employed (3)	Wage-Earner (4)	Retired (5)
		Private Company(7)	Other(8) Please specify			
10.	Income level in a month	Less than ₦10,000(1)	₦20,000 – ₦29,000(3)		₦40,000 – ₦49,000(5)	
		₦10,000 – ₦19,000(2)	₦30,000 – ₦39,000(4)		₦50,000 & above(6)	
11.	Amount spent on food in a month	Less than ₦10,000(1)	₦20,000 – ₦29,000(3)		₦40,000 – ₦49,000(5)	
		₦10,000 – ₦19,000(2)	₦30,000 – ₦39,000(4)		₦50,000 & above(6)	
Household Characteristics						
12.	Total number of people in the household:					
	Number of persons per room:					
13.	House ownership	No(0)		Yes(1)		
14.	Type of house	A room(1)		A Room and Parlor(2)	Self contained(3)	
		2-3 bedroom Apartment(4)		Bungalow(5)	A Duplex(6)	
15.	Building material	Wood(1)	Mud(2)	Concrete Brick(3)	Other(4)	
16.	Flooring material	None(1)	Wood(2)	Concrete(3)		
		Tiles(4)	Terrazzo(5)	Other(8) Please specify		
17.	Roofing material	Thatched roof (1)	Aluminium sheet(2)	Corrugated sheets(3)	Concrete(4) Others(5)	
18.	Main source of drinking water	Surface water (stream, river, pond) (1)		Surface Well (2)	Deep Well(3)	
		Public water tap (4)	Municipal water supply (5)		Water supply (tankers and vendors)(6)	
		Borehole in residence(7)		Packaged water (sachet and bottled water)(8)		
		Other(9) Please specify				
19.	Main source of Cooking fuel	Wood(1)		Charcoal(2)	Kerosene(3)	
		Gas(4)		Electricity(5)		
		Other(6) Please specify				

20.	Main source of Lighting	None(1)	Candle(2)	Lantern(3)
		Publicpowersupply(4) (PHCN)	Alternativesources(5)	
		Other(6)Pleasespecify_____		
21.	Toiletfacility	Openbush(1)	Surface water (stream, river, pond etc)(2)	Pitlatrine(3)
		Watercloset(4)	Other(5)Pleasespecify_____	
22.	Refuse disposal Method	Openbush(1)	Surfacewater(streams,riversetc)(2)	Burning(3)
		Refusedump(4)	Incinerator(5)	Cityservice(6)
		Other(7)Pleasespecify_____		

Household properties(Wealthindex)

Gadgets			Furniture			Properties		
Radio	No(0)	Yes(1)	Table	No(0)	Yes(1)	Land	No(0)	Yes(1)
Television	No(0)	Yes(1)	Chair	No(0)	Yes(1)	Clock	No(0)	Yes(1)
Camera/Camcorder	No(0)	Yes(1)	Sofa	No(0)	Yes(1)	Waterpump	No(0)	Yes(1)
Cassetteplayer	No(0)	Yes(1)	Bed	No(0)	Yes(1)	Grinder/Blender	No(0)	Yes(1)
DVD/VCDPlayer	No(0)	Yes(1)	Armoire	No(0)	Yes(1)	Waterheater	No(0)	Yes(1)
Mobilephone	No(0)	Yes(1)	Cabinet	No(0)	Yes(1)	Washingmachine	No(0)	Yes(1)
Computer	No(0)	Yes(1)	Window			Micro-wave	No(0)	Yes(1)
Digitaldecoder (DSTV,Startimesetc)	No(0)	Yes(1)	WithShutters	No(0)	Yes(1)	Air-conditioner	No(0)	Yes(1)
Watch	No(0)	Yes(1)	Withglass	No(0)	Yes(1)	Refrigerator	No(0)	Yes(1)
Vehicle			Withscreen	No(0)	Yes(1)	Generator	No(0)	Yes(1)
Bicycle	No(0)	Yes(1)	Withcurtains	No(0)	Yes(1)	Animals	No(0)	Yes(1)
Motorcycle	No(0)	Yes(1)				Bankaccount	No(0)	Yes(1)
Tricycle	No(0)	Yes(1)				Domesticservant	No(0)	Yes(1)
Car	No(0)	Yes(1)						
Truck	No(0)	Yes(1)						

Thankyouforcompletingquestions!

Foodfrequency Questionnaire												
No.	FoodDescription	No	Rarely	Daily			Weekly			Monthly		
				Once	2ce	3ce	Once	2ce	3ce	Once	2ce	3ce
1.	CASSAVA : 1. Gari											
	2. Lafun											
	3. Fufu											
	4. Others (Pleasespecify)											
2.	YAMAND POTATOES											
	1. Yam(roasted/boiled)											
	2. Yam flour											
	3. Poundedyam											
	4. Yamporridge											
	5. Yam(fried)											
	6. Cocoyam(cooked)											
	7. Cocoyam(fried)											
	8. Sweet potatoes (cooked)											
	9. Sweet potatoes (fried)											
10. Others (pleasespecify)												
3.	MAIZE: 11. Ogi/Pan/Koko											
	12. Eko/Agidi											
	13. Tuwo Masara											
	14. Maize grain(cooked/roasted)											
	15. Kokoro											
	16. Sapala/Abari											
	17. Iro											
	18. Guguru											
	19. Others (Pleasespecify)											
4.	RICE: 20. White Rice(cooked)											
	21. Jollofrice											
	22. Friedrice											
	23. Tuwoshinkafa											
24. Others (Pleasespecify)												
5.	BEANS/COWPEAS											
	25. Beans (cooked/boiled)											
	26. Moin –moin											
	27. Akara											
	28. Akara Ikoko											
	29. Ekuru											
30. Gbegiri												
31. Others (Pleasespecify)												
6.	WHEAT: 32. Whole wheat bread											
	33. White bread											
	34. Biscuit											
	35. Wheatflour(boiled)											
	36. Confectionaries e.g. chinchin, puff-											
	37. Others (Pleasespecify)											
7.	MEAT AND ALLIED PRODUCTS: 38. Beef											
	39. Poultry											
	40. Fish											
	41. Egg											
	42. Freshmilk											
	43. Tinnedmilk											
	44. Cheese											
	45. Yoghurts											
46. Others (Pleasespecify)												

8.	TEA, BEVERAGES AND OTHER DRINKS																							
	47. Tea (Lipton, toptea etc)																							
	48. Beverages (Milo, Bourn vita, Richoco)																							
	49. Coffee																							
	50. Others (Please specify)																							
9.	FRUITS																							
	51. Citrus fruits (oranges, grape, lemon, tangerines, lime)																							
	52. Mango																							
	53. Pawpaw																							
	54. Guava																							
	55. Pineapple																							
	56. Watermelon																							
	57. Cashew																							
	58. Apple																							
	59. Pear																							
	60. Carrot																							
	61. Banana																							
	62. Plantain																							
	63. Others (Please specify)																							
10.	OIL AND SEED NUTS																							
	64. Peanut/Groundnut(boiled/roasted)																							
	65. Cashewnut																							
	66. Oil palmnut																							
	67. Coconut																							
	68. Others (Please specify)																							
11.	VEGETABLES																							
	69. Leafy vegetables																							
	70. Nonleafy vegetable (e.g. Okro)																							
	71. Others (Please specify)																							
12.	Drinks																							
	72. Carbonated drinks (Coke, Fanta etc)																							
	73. Malted drinks (maltina, guinness etc)																							
	74. Alcoholic drinks (Gulder, Star etc)																							
	75. Juice (Funman, Five Alive etc)																							

24hr Dietary Recall.

Pleasetellmeeverythingyouateordrankafteryouwokeupyesterdaymorning.Includeallyouate and drankathome and away, even snacks, tea, coffee. Be specific as possible.

Item No.	Food/Drink	Description (type, volume,	Place Taken	Time	Quantity	Weight equiv. (g)
FOOD INTAKE. Was food intake usual? YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> If NO, How was it unusual? <input type="checkbox"/>			FOOD HABITS? Probe for Supplement (Iron, Vitamins, antimalarial drugs, other supplement) YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> If YES Specify.....			
Was it a Feast day? YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>			Do you take Fermented beverages? (e.g. Alcohol) If YES Specify.....			
Probe for Sickness YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> If YES did the sickness affect your appetite YES <input type="checkbox"/> If YES, how? Increase OR Decrease <input type="checkbox"/>			Do you Smoke? YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>			

Anthropometric Measurements

Age (in years)		Weight (kg)		% Bodyfat	
Sex		Height (cm)		% Visceral fat	

Thank you for completing questions!

Eating behaviour pattern Questionnaire

(adapted from Schuldt DG, PhD. Vanderbilt University School of Medicine ODA Questionnaire) Read each item and think if you agree or disagree that the item describes you and your eating habits. Mark the box that best describes your level of agreement with each statement. If a statement does not apply to you (for example a question asks about what you do at work you do not have a job), then mark 3 (neutral or N/A) box.

1 – Strongly disagree; 2 –Disagree;3 – Neutral or N/A; 4 – Agree; 5–Stronglyagree

		SA	D	N	A	SD
1	I stop for fast food breakfast on my way to work	1	2	3	4	5
2	My emotions affect what and how much I eat	1	2	3	4	5
3	I use low fat food product	1	2	3	4	5
4	I carefully watch the portion sizes of my food	1	2	3	4	5
5	I buy snacks from vending machine	1	2	3	4	5
6	I choose healthy food to prevent heart disease	1	2	3	4	5
7	I eat meatless meals from time to time because I think that is healthier for me	1	2	3	4	5
8	I take time to plan meals for coming week	1	2	3	4	5
9	When I buy snack foods, I eat until I have finished the whole package	1	2	3	4	5
10	I eat for comfort	1	2	3	4	5
11	I am a snacker	1	2	3	4	5
12	I count fat grams	1	2	3	4	5
13	I eat cookies, candy bars, or ice cream in place of dinner	1	2	3	4	5
14	When I don't plan meals, I eat fast food	1	2	3	4	5
15	I eat when I am upset	1	2	3	4	5
16	I buy meat every time I go to the grocery store	1	2	3	4	5
17	I snack more at night	1	2	3	4	5
18	I rarely eat breakfast	1	2	3	4	5
19	I try to limit intake of red meat (beef)	1	2	3	4	5
20	When I am in a bad mood, I eat whatever I feel like eating	1	2	3	4	5
21	I never know what I am going to eat for supper when I get up in the morning	1	2	3	4	5
22	I snack two to three times a day	1	2	3	4	5
23	Fish and poultry are the only meats I eat	1	2	3	4	5
24	When I am upset, I tend to stop eating	1	2	3	4	5
25	I like to eat vegetables seasoned with fatty meat	1	2	3	4	5
26	If I eat a larger than usual lunch, I will skip supper	1	2	3	4	5
27	I take a shopping list to the grocery store	1	2	3	4	5
28	If I am bored, I will snack more	1	2	3	4	5
29	I eat at church socials.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I am very conscious of how much fat is in the food I eat	1	2	3	4	5
31	I usually keep cookies in the house	1	2	3	4	5
32	I have a serving of meat at every meal	1	2	3	4	5
33	I associate success with food	1	2	3	4	5
34	A complete meal includes a meat, a starch, a vegetable, and bread	1	2	3	4	5
35	On Sunday, I eat a large meal with my family	1	2	3	4	5
36	Instead of planning meals, I will replace supper with a snack	1	2	3	4	5
37	If I eat a larger than usual lunch, I will replace supper with a snack	1	2	3	4	5
38	If I am busy, I will eat a snack instead of lunch	1	2	3	4	5
39	Sometimes I eat dessert more than once a day	1	2	3	4	5
40	I reduce fat in recipes by substituting ingredients and cutting portions	1	2	3	4	5
41	I have a sweet tooth	1	2	3	4	5
42	I sometimes snack even when I am not hungry	1	2	3	4	5
43	I eat out because it is more convenient than eating at home	1	2	3	4	5
44	I hate to cook	1	2	3	4	5
45	I would rather buy takeout food and bring it home than cook	1	2	3	4	5
46	I have at least three to four servings of vegetables per day	1	2	3	4	5
47	To me, cookies are an ideal snack food	1	2	3	4	5
48	My eating habits are very routine	1	2	3	4	5
49	If I do not feel hungry, I will skip a meal even if it is time to eat	1	2	3	4	5

50	When choosing fast food, I pick a place that offers healthy foods	1	2	3	4	5
51	I eat at a fast food restaurant at least three times a week	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for completing questions!

Health related Quality of life

Your health and wellbeing

This survey asks for your views about your health. This information will help keep track of how you feel and how well you are able to do your usual activities. Thank you for completing this survey! For each of the following questions please mark the one that best describes your answer.

		Excellent (1)	Very good (2)	Good (3)	Fair (4)	Poor (5)
1.	In general, would you say your health is					
		Much better now than one year ago (1)	Somewhat better now than one year ago (2)	About the same as one year ago (3)	Somewhat worse now than one year ago (4)	Much worse now than one year ago (5)
2.	Compared to one year ago, how would you rate your health in general now?					

3.	The following questions are about activities you might do during a typical day. Does your health now limit you in these activities? If so, how much?	Yes, limited a lot (1)	Yes, limited a little (2)	No, not limited at all (3)
a.	Vigorous activities such as running, lifting, heavy objects, participating in strenuous sport			
b.	Moderate activities, such as moving tables, pushing a vacuum cleaner, bowling, or playing golf			
c.	Lifting or carrying groceries			
d.	Climbing several flights of stairs			
e.	Climbing one flight of stairs			
f.	Bending, kneeling or stooping			
g.	Walking more than a mile			
h.	Walking several hundred yards			
i.	Bathing or dressing yourself			

4.	During the past 4 weeks, how much of the time have you had any of the following problems with your work or other regular daily activities as a result of your physical health?	All of the time (1)	Most of the time (2)	Some of the time (3)	A little of the time (4)	None of the time
a.	Cut down on the amount of time you spent					
b.	Accomplished less than you would like					
c.	Were limited in the kind of work or other activities					
d.	Had difficulty performing the work or other activities (for example, it took extra effort)					
5.	During the past 4 weeks, how much of the time have you had any of the following problem with your work or other regular daily activities as a result of any emotional problems					
a.	Cut down on the amount of time you spent on work or other Activities					
b.	Accomplished less than you would like					
c.	Did work or other activities less carefully than usual					

		Not at all (1)	Slightly (2)	Moderately (3)	Quite a bit (4)	Extremely (5)
6.	During the past 4 weeks to what extent has your physical health or emotional problems interfered with your normal social activities with family, friends, neighbors or groups?					

		None (1)	Very mild (2)	Mild (3)	Moderate (4)	Severe (5)	Very severe (6)
7.	How much bodily pain have you had during the past 4 weeks?						

		Not at all (1)	A little bit (2)	Moderately (3)	Quite a bit (4)	Extremely (5)
8.	During the past 4 weeks, how much did pain interfere with your normal work (including both work outside the home and housework)?					

9.	These questions are about how you feel and how things have been with you during the past 4 weeks. For each question, please give the one answer that comes closest to the way you have been feeling. How much of the time spent during the past 4 weeks	All of the time (1)	Most of the time (2)	Some of the time (3)	A little of the time (4)	None of the time (5)
a.	Did you feel full of life?					
b.	Have you been very nervous?					
c.	Have you felt so down in a dump that nothing could cheer you up?					
d.	Have you felt calm and peaceful?					
e.	Did you have a lot of energy?					
f.	Have you felt down-hearted and depressed?					
g.	Did you feel worn out?					
h.	Have you been happy?					
i.	Did you feel tired?					
10.	During the past 4 weeks, how much of the time has your physical health or emotional problems interfered with your social activities (like visiting friends, relatives, etc)					
11.	How true or false is each of the following statements for you?	Definitely true (1)	Mostly true (2)	Don't know (3)	Mostly false (4)	Definitely false (5)
a.	I seem to get sick a little easier than other people					
b.	I am as healthy as anybody I know					
c.	I expect my health to get worse					
d.	My health is excellent					

Thank you for completing questions!



INSTITUTE FOR ADVANCED MEDICAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING (IAMRAT)
College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.



Director: **Prof. Catherine O. Falade**, MBBS (Ib), M.Sc. FMCP FWACP
Tel: 0803 326 4593, 0802 360 9151
e-mail: cfalade@comui.edu.ng lillyfunke@yahoo.com

UI/UCH EC Registration Number: **NHREC/05/01/2008a**

NOTICE OF FULL APPROVAL AFTER FULL COMMITTEE REVIEW

Re: Changing Food Habits and Perceived Health Related Quality of Life of Adults in Oyo State

UI/UCH Ethics Committee assigned number: **UI/EC/14/0137**

Name of Principal Investigator: **Grace O. Akinrinade**

Address of Principal Investigator: Department of Human Nutrition
College of Medicine,
University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Date of receipt of valid application: 16/04/2014

Date of meeting when final determination on ethical approval was made: **07/05/2015**

This is to inform you that the research described in the submitted protocol, the consent forms, and other participant information materials have been reviewed and *given full approval by the UI/UCH Ethics Committee.*

This approval dates from **07/05/2015 to 06/05/2016**. If there is delay in starting the research, please inform the UI/UCH Ethics Committee so that the dates of approval can be adjusted accordingly. Note that no participant accrual or activity related to this research may be conducted outside of these dates. *All informed consent forms used in this study must carry the UI/UCH EC assigned number and duration of UI/UCH EC approval of the study.* It is expected that you submit your annual report as well as an annual request for the project renewal to the UI/UCH EC early in order to obtain renewal of your approval to avoid disruption of your research.

The National Code for Health Research Ethics requires you to comply with all institutional guidelines, rules and regulations and with the tenets of the Code including ensuring that all adverse events are reported promptly to the UI/UCH EC. No changes are permitted in the research without prior approval by the UI/UCH EC except in circumstances outlined in the Code. The UI/UCH EC reserves the right to conduct compliance visit to your research site without previous notification.



Professor Catherine O. Falade
Director, IAMRAT
Chairman, UI/UCH Ethics Committee
E-mail: uiuchire@yahoo.com

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN NUTRITION
FACULTY OF PUBLIC HEALTH
COLLEGE OF MEDICINE
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, NIGERIA

Tel: 02-7517822
Telegrams: University Ibadan
Telex: Campus 31128 NG
Fax: (College of Medicine) 02-2411768
Email: nutrition-dept@mail.ui.edu.ng



27th September, 2013

The Head,
Atiba Local Government
Administration,
Offa Meta, Oyo.
Oyo State


Dear Sir,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
AKINRINADE, Grace Oyeladun: Matric No. 72089

This is to introduce AKINRINADE, Grace Oyeladun (Matric No. 72089), is a M.Phil/Ph.D student in the Department of Human Nutrition, Faculty of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan. She is currently undertaking a project titled: "Effect of Changing Food culture and habit on the Nutritional Status and Health Related Quality of Life among Adults in Oyo State"

I will appreciate your support, for her to collect the data for this project.

Thank you.


27-09-13
Grace T. Fadupin, PhD, NRD
Ag. Head of Department
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN NUTRITION
FACULTY OF PUBLIC HEALTH

COLLEGE OF MEDICINE

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, NIGERIA

Tel: 02-7517822
Telegrams: University Ibadan
Telex: Campus 31128 NG
Fax: (College of Medicine) 02-2411768
Email: nutrition-dept@mail.ui.edu.ng



27th September, 2013

The Head,
Ibarapa
East Local Government,
Eruwa,
Oyo State.

Dear Sir,


LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

AKINRINADE, Grace Oyeladun: Matric No. 72089

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Thank you.


27-09-13
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27th September, 2013

The Head,
Iwajowa Local Government
Administration, Iwara
-Ile,
Oyo State

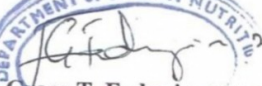
Dear Sir,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
AKINRINADE, Grace Oyeladun: Matric No. 72089

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I will appreciate your support, for her to collect the data for this project.

Thank you.


27-09-13
Grace T. Fadupin, PhD, NRD
Ag. Head of Department
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN



ATIBALOCALGOVERNMENT

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P.M.B. 1043, Ofa-Meta Oyo, Oyo State.

Tel: 0815 887 0358

11/3/2014

Alu/Q17/2
OUrRef

Akinrinade Grace Oyeladun,
College of Medicine,
University of Ibadan,
Ibadan

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Sequel to the letter from the Department of Human nutrition, faculty of public health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, dated 27th September 2013 on the above subject, I am directed to convey approval for you to proceed on your research work titled "Effect of Changing Food culture and habit on the Nutritional Status and Health Related Quality of Life among Adults in Oyo State" in the Local Government.

Thank you

Akinrinade E.O. (Mrs.) For: Chairman,
Atiba Local Government
Ofa-Meta, Oyo



IBARAPA EAST LOCAL GOVERNMENT

P. M. B. 1011, Eruwa, Oyo State, Nigeria.

Secretariat Eruwa:

All communications should be addressed to the chairman quoting



Our Ref _____

Your Ref _____

Date _____


18th March, 2014.

**RE:LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
AKINRINADE GRACE OYELADUN: MATRIC NO 72089**

In accordance with the letter from Department of Human Nutrition, Faculty of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Nigeria of 27th September 2013. I am directed to convey approval for you to carry on your research work titled "Effect of changing Food Culture and Habits on the Nutritional Status and Health Related Quality of Life Among Adult in Oyo State" within this Local Government.

We wish you success in your undertakings.

Thank you and God bless you.


Executive Secretary
Ibarapa East Local Govt
Eruwa

Rev. J.A Ogunremi
Secretary
Ibarapa East Local Government
Eruwa.

IWAJOWA LOCAL GOVERNMENT



All Communication should be addressed to the
Chairman Iwajowa Local Government
Iwere-Ile, Oyo State quoting



IWAJOWA LOCAL GOVERNMENT
OFFICE:- LOCAL GOVT. SECRETARIAT,
IWERE-ILE, OYO STATE.

Our Ref: IWLG/715/25

Date: 7th April, 2014.

GRACE T. FADUPIN, PHD, NRD,
AG. HEAD OF DEPARTMENT,
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN NUTRITION,
FACULTY OF PUBLIC HEALTH,
COLLEGE OF MEDICINE,
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN.
IBADAN.

RE-LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

I am directed to refer to your letter dated 27th September, 2013 on the above subject introducing AKINRINADE, Grace Oyeladun (Matric No. 72089); an M. Phil/Ph. D Student of the Department of Human Nutrition to the Local Government.

2. I am to inform you that, the Student has been granted an approval by the Management of the Local Government to collect data in the Local Government Area for her project entitled: "Effect of Changing Food Culture on the Nutritional Status and Health Related Quality of Life Among Adults in Oyo State".

3. I am to further add that, the Management of the Local Government wishes her success in her studies.

4. Thank you.

MOJORO J.A.,
SENIOR. ADMIN. OFFICER,
FOR: CHAIRMAN,
IWAJOWA LOCAL GOVERNMENT
IWERE-ILE.

Pls file
Mrs Akinnmade G. O PF

Respondents Eating Behaviour Pattern

Variables	SD	D	N	A	SA
n(%) n(%) n(%) n(%) n(%)					
1 I stop for fast food breakfast on my way to Work	304(51.6)	155(26.3)	46(7.8)	65(11.0)	14(2.4)
2 My emotions affect what and how much I Eat	78(13.2)	129(21.9)	34(5.8)	282(47.9)	60(10.2)
3 I use low fat food product	151(25.6)	210(35.7)	44(7.5)	159(27.0)	18(3.1)
4 I carefully watch the portion sizes of my Food	106(18.0)	169(28.7)	48(8.1)	235(39.9)	24(4.1)
5 I buy snacks from vending machine	211(35.8)	140(23.8)	64(10.9)	149(25.3)	21(3.6)
6 I choose healthy food to prevent heart disease	90(15.3)	200(34.0)	85(14.4)	189(32.1)	19(3.2)
7 I eat meatless meals from time to time because I think that is healthier for me	130(22.1)	237(40.2)	83(14.1)	118(20.0)	17(2.9)
8 I take time to plan meals for coming week	169(28.7)	192(32.6)	57(9.7)	134(22.8)	30(5.1)
9 When I buy snack foods, I eat until I have finished the whole package.	135(22.9)	136(23.1)	94(16.0)	178(30.2)	41(7.0)
10 I eat for comfort	36(6.1)	75(12.7)	53(9.0)	305(51.8)	115(19.5)
11 I am a snacker	152(25.8)	218(37.0)	43(7.3)	122(20.7)	47(8.0)
12 I count fat grams	203(34.5)	224(38.0)	52(8.8)	94(16.0)	12(2.0)
13 I eat cookies, candy bars, or ice cream in place of dinner	299(50.8)	145(24.6)	60(10.2)	49(8.3)	33(5.6)
14 When I don't plan meals, I eat fast food	185(31.4)	156(26.5)	52(8.8)	151(25.6)	39(6.6)
15 I eat when I am upset	124(21.1)	161(27.3)	94(16.0)	158(26.8)	44(7.5)
16 I buy meat every time I go to the grocery Store	103(17.5)	219(37.2)	91(15.4)	148(25.1)	20(3.4)
17 I snack more at night	210(35.7)	216(36.7)	40(6.8)	98(16.6)	18(3.1)
18 I rarely eat breakfast	337(57.2)	174(29.5)	30(5.1)	33(5.6)	8(1.4)
19 I try to limit intake of red meat (beef)	100(17.0)	236(40.1)	57(9.7)	169(28.7)	19(3.2)
20 When I am in a bad mood, I eat whenever I feel like eating	84(14.3)	218(37.0)	113(19.2)	153(26.0)	11(1.9)
21 I never know what I am going to eat for supper when I wake up in the morning.	142(24.1)	194(32.9)	54(9.2)	118(20.0)	71(12.1)
22 I snack two to three times a day	160(27.2)	214(36.3)	62(10.5)	127(21.6)	18(3.1)
23 Fish and Poultry are the only meats I eat	137(23.3)	224(38.0)	73(12.4)	132(22.4)	16(2.7)
24 When I am upset, I tend to stop eating.	141(23.9)	152(25.8)	97(16.5)	149(25.3)	43(7.3)
25 I like to eat vegetables seasoned with fatty Meat	108(18.3)	199(33.8)	72(12.2)	169(28.7)	35(5.9)
26 If I eat larger than usual lunch, I will skip Lunch	113(19.2)	164(27.8)	56(9.5)	174(29.5)	77(13.1)
27 I take a shopping list to the grocery store	285(48.4)	154(26.1)	90(15.3)	47(8.0)	5(0.8)

SD= Strongly Disagree (1); Disagree=(2); N= Neutral or N/A(3); A= Agree(4); SA= Strongly Agree (5)

Table 4.19b: Respondents Eating Behaviour Pattern (Continued)

Variables	SD	D	N	A	SA
n(%) n(%) n(%) n(%) n(%)					
28 If I am bored, I will snack more	175(29.7)	187(31.7)	107(18.2)	102(17.3)	11(1.9)
29 I eat at religious (church, mosque, etc) socials	19(3.2)	65(11.0)	48(8.1)	273(46.3)	175(29.7)
30 I am very conscious of how much fat is in the food I eat	136(23.1)	197(33.4)	73(12.4)	151(25.6)	21(3.6)
31 I usually keep cookies in the house	245(41.6)	160(27.2)	65(11.0)	81(13.8)	29(4.9)
32 I have a serving of meat at every Meal	65(11.0)	216(36.7)	59(10.0)	202(34.3)	43(7.3)
33 I associate success with food	26(4.4)	79(13.4)	116(19.7)	242(41.1)	121(20.5)
34 A complete meal includes a meat, a starch, a vegetable, and bread	29(4.9)	113(19.2)	157(26.7)	224(38.0)	56(9.5)
35 On Sunday, I eat a large meal with my family	111(18.8)	199(33.8)	103(17.5)	107(18.2)	59(10.0)
36 Instead of planning meals, I will replace supper with a snack	188(31.9)	204(34.6)	81(13.8)	66(11.2)	44(7.5)
37 If I eat a larger than usual lunch, I will replace supper with a snack	125(21.2)	124(21.1)	87(14.8)	162(27.5)	81(13.8)
38 If I am busy, I will eat a snack instead of lunch	139(23.6)	181(30.7)	81(13.8)	150(25.5)	30(5.1)
39 Sometimes I eat dessert more than once a day	196(33.3)	230(39.0)	81(13.8)	72(12.2)	4(0.7)
40 I reduce fat in recipes by substituting ingredients and cutting portions.	155(26.3)	202(34.3)	95(16.1)	117(19.9)	15(2.5)
41 I have a sweet tooth	157(26.7)	137(23.3)	42(7.1)	224(38.0)	21(3.6)
42 I sometimes snack even when I am not hungry	152(25.8)	140(23.8)	76(12.9)	185(31.4)	30(5.1)
43 I eat out because it is more convenient than eating at home	296(50.3)	159(27.0)	52(8.8)	65(11.0)	10(1.7)
44 I hate to cook	318(54.0)	148(25.1)	40(6.8)	63(10.7)	14(2.4)
45 I will rather buy takeout food and bring it home than cook	272(46.2)	172(29.2)	54(9.2)	68(11.5)	14(2.4)
46 I have at least three to four servings of vegetables per day	43(7.3)	232(39.4)	77(13.1)	208(35.3)	20(3.4)
47 To me, cookies are an ideal snack Food	113(19.2)	136(23.1)	141(23.9)	174(29.5)	18(3.1)
48 My eating habits are very routine	12(2.0)	78(13.2)	62(10.5)	340(57.7)	90(15.3)
49 If I do not feel hungry, I will skip a meal even if it is time to eat	95(16.1)	161(27.3)	64(10.9)	180(30.6)	81(13.8)
50 When choosing fast food, I pick a place that offers healthy foods	146(24.8)	94(16.0)	127(21.6)	177(30.1)	37(6.3)
51 I eat at a fast food restaurant at least three times a week	262(44.5)	126(21.4)	83(14.1)	65(11.0)	47(8.0)

SD= Strongly Disagree (1); Disagree=(2); N= Neutral or N/A(3); A= Agree(4); SA= Strongly Agree (5)