

**COCONUT RHINOCEROS BEETLE (*Oryctes rhinoceros*) FARM ENTERPRISE  
FOR ENHANCED FOOD SECURITY: SMALLHOLDERS'  
KNOWLEDGE, PERCEPTIONS AND POTENTIAL CONSTRAINTS  
IN PARTICIPATION**

**DENNIS OUMA ONG'OR**

**A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate School in Partial Fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the Award of Master Degree in Food Security and Sustainable  
Agriculture of Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology**

**JARAMOGI OGINGA ODINGA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND  
TECHNOLOGY**

**© 2023**

## DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

### Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been submitted wholly or in part for any award in JOOUST or any other institution of learning.

**Signature**

**Date**

  
.....

15/10/2023  
.....

Dennis Ouma Ong'or

A451/4094/2019

### Approval

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors.

**Signature**

**Date**

  
.....

16/10/2023  
.....

Dr. Mary A. Orinda, PhD

Department of Agricultural Economics & Agribusiness Management  
School of Agricultural and Food Sciences  
Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science & Technology.

**Signature**

**Date**

  
.....

16/10/2023  
.....

Dr. Abel Otieno, PhD

Sustainable Integrated Research Development Initiatives Kenya (SIRDI).

## **COPYRIGHT**

© Dennis Ouma Ong'or

All rights reserved. No part of this thesis can be produced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or means, electronically, mechanically, photocopy, recording, or otherwise without prior written permission of the author and/or Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology on that behalf.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

First and foremost, I am incredibly thankful to the Almighty God for granting me enough strength and courage to tackle this thesis. I thank the University of Jaramogi Oginga Odinga for giving me a chance to undertake a Master's degree in the institution. I owe a lot of gratitude to my academic supervisors, Dr. Mary Orinda and Dr. Abel Otieno, for their guidance, critiques that helped me to shape this thesis. I am also indebted to the INSEFOODS for their support and for offering me a scholarship. Lastly, in a very special way, I would like to thank my family for financial, moral, and emotional support throughout this period. May God protect all of you and bless you abundantly.

## **DEDICATION**

To my mother, Eunice, and my siblings Esther, Felix, Alphine, Steve, and my late father.

## **ABSTRACT**

Food insecurity and malnutrition resulting from the loss of livelihood remain a threat both locally and globally, as nearly 70% of people face hunger and malnutrition. The world's population is estimated to rise to 9 billion by 2050. To accommodate the number, there is a need to increase the current food production by 70%. Consequently, the national and sectorial food policy programs must be complemented by initiatives aimed at improving household livelihoods and sustainable production of nutritionally sufficient foods. Edible insects have the potential of uplifting the nutritional and livelihood standards of people in Sub-Saharan Africa. They provide cheap and readily available nutrients with less environmental footprint. The study was carried out in Kilifi County. The area was targeted as it has high Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle (CRB) infestation in coconut plants, yet no attempts of the residents to utilize value from the beetle. The study assessed the potential of the beetle production as a mainstream enterprise by assessing residents' knowledge on the beetle as a farm enterprise, farmers' perception of participating in the production of the beetle as a farm enterprise, and possible constraints towards the adoption of the enterprise. The study conceptualized that the utilization of the beetle is affected by the Knowledge and perceptions and other factors, including socioeconomic and institutional factors, among other factors. The results showed that Kilifi farmers had adequate knowledge and positive perceptions that warranted their willingness to embrace the enterprise. Moreover, at 95% confidence interval, factors such as Land size ( $p=0.000$ ), Religion ( $p=0.007$ ), Income ( $p=0.050$ ), Age ( $p=0.006$ ) and Access to information ( $p=0.006$ ) were likely to determine the probability of taking part in this enterprise. Factors such as inadequate knowledge and information access, Urbanization, and modernization came out as likely constraints to the adoption of the beetle production. It is recommended that for smallholder farmers of Kilifi to adopt beetle production, there is a need to review and strengthen policies that will enhance the access to and use of agricultural resources and educate farmers on the importance of agricultural innovations as a tool for food insecurity alleviation, malnutrition, and employment creation. Farmers who are bound to religious ties can farm the beetle entirely as feeds. The study recommends future studies to focus on consumer preferences to enable effective commercialization interventions in establishing novel and efficient enterprises

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION AND APPROVAL .....	i
COPYRIGHT .....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	iii
DEDICATION .....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES .....	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xi
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1. Background Information.....	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem.....	4
1.3. Objectives of the Study .....	5
1.3.1 Overall Objective .....	5
1.3.2. Specific Objectives.....	5
1.4. Research Questions.....	6
1.5. Justification of the Study .....	6
1.6. Scope of the Study .....	7
1.7. Limitations and Delimitations.....	7
1.8. Definition of Terms.....	8
<b>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW .....</b>	<b>9</b>
2.1. Introduction.....	9
2.2. Entomophagy .....	9
2.2.1. Benefits of Insect Farming .....	11
2.3. Farming of Edible insects as a farm enterprise.....	11
2.4. Life cycle and Utilization of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle .....	13
2.4.2. Production of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle (CRB). .....	16
2.5. Farmer knowledge on edible Insect farming. ....	17
2.6. The concept of Perceptions and Acceptance. ....	19
2.7. Overview of the constraints to the adoption of agricultural technologies. ....	19

2.7.1. Overview of constraints to Edible insect production. ....	22
2.8. Theoretical Framework.....	23
2.8.1. Utility Maximization Theory .....	23
2.9. Conceptual Framework.....	24
<b>CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>27</b>
3.1. Study Area .....	27
3.2. Research Design.....	29
3.3. Target Population.....	29
3.4. Sampling Procedure and Sampling Size. ....	29
3.4.1. Sampling Procedure. ....	29
3.4.2. Sample Size.....	30
3.4.2.1. Sampling of smallholder farmers .....	30
3.4.2.2. Sampling of key informants. ....	31
3.5. Data type .....	31
3.6. Research Instruments .....	31
3.7. Data collection Procedure.....	32
3.8. Data analysis and Analytical techniques.....	33
3.8.1. Analysis of knowledge levels on the Value of CRB as a farm enterprise. ....	34
3.8.2. Perception Analysis.....	34
3.8.3. Principal component Analysis.....	35
3.8.4. Logistic regression model. ....	36
3.8.5. Constraint Analysis. ....	38
3.9. Ethical Considerations .....	39
<b>CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS .....</b>	<b>40</b>
4.1. Introduction.....	40
4.2. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.....	41
4.2.1. Gender. ....	42
4.2.2. Education and Age group.....	42
4.2.3. Training in Insect Production.....	42
4.2.4. Religion .....	42
4.2.5. Household Size, Income, Acreage, and farming experience.....	42



4.3. Knowledge Level on the value of CRB as a farm enterprise determination of the farmers. ....	42
.....	43
4.4. Farmers’ Perceptions on CRB Production as a Farm Enterprise. ....	47
4.5. Degree of Participation in the Production of Oryctes Rhinoceros.....	49
4.6. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for Knowledge and Perception variables.....	50
4.7. Logistic regression to determine the probability of participation in the enterprise. ..	52
4.8. Constraints towards Participation in CRB Production as a farm enterprise among Smallholder Farmers. ....	53
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION.....</b>	<b>55</b>
5.1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Farmers .....	55
5.2. Knowledge Levels of the Farmers .....	56
5.3. Farmers' perception of the adoption of the CRB farm enterprise .....	56
5.4. Determinants of participation in the production of the CRB .....	57
5.5. Potential constraints in the adoption of the CRB farm enterprise. ....	59
<b>CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.....</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>78</b>
APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION .....	78
APPENDIX 2: FARMER’S QUESTIONNAIRE .....	79
APPENDIX 3: CHECKLIST FOR KEY INFORMANT'S INTERVIEW.....	85
APPENDIX 4: RESEARCH PERMIT .....	86
APPENDIX 5: JOOUST ERC APROVAL LETTER .....	87
APPENDIX 6: BPGS APPROVAL.....	88

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Dominantly Consumed Insects in Kenya .....	3
Table 2: Proximate composition of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle larva.....	16
Table 3: Nutrient composition of the adult CRB .....	16
Table 4: Measurement of Variables .....	33
Table 5: Factors in the implementation of agricultural initiatives. ....	38
Table 6: Respondents' Socio-demographic profile by Ward.....	41
Table 7: ANOVA test results for Knowledge levels .....	46
Table 8: Frequency distribution of respondents on perception.....	47
Table 9: Mean rating of farmers' perceptions towards the production of CRB as a farm enterprise.....	48
Table 10: KMO and Bartlett's Test of sphericity of sampling adequacy .....	50
Table 11: Principal Component Analysis Factor Loading of KP components. ....	51
Table 12: Probability of participation in Oryctes rhinoceros Production .....	52
Table 13: Kendall's Coefficient of concordance results showing data response agreement. .....	53
Table 14: Ranking of the importance of constraints to adoption of CRB as an enterprise. .....	54

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Image of poultry bird feeding on the beetle's larva. ....	15
Figure 2: Map of study Area.....	28
Figure 3: Conceptual Framework .....	24
Figure 4: Degree of Participation of farmers .....	49

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>CRB</b>	Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle
<b>FAO</b>	Food and Agriculture Organization
<b>GHG</b>	Green House Gases
<b>GISD</b>	Global Invasive Species Database
<b>KNBS</b>	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
<b>NGO</b>	Non-Governmental organization
<b>NOCD</b>	Nuts and Oil Crops Directorate
<b>SDG</b>	Sustainable Development Goals
<b>SSA</b>	Sub Saharan Africa
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>IPIFF</b>	International Platform of Insects for Food and Feed
<b>SMIIC</b>	The Standards and Metrology Institute for Islamic Countries
<b>ASTGS</b>	Agricultural Transformation and Growth Strategy

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Background Information

The global population is on the rise, and it is estimated that it will be over 9 billion by 2050 (United Nations, 2017). With this trend, Hunter et al.'s (2017) analysis show a 25%-70% increase in food production to be able to cover this growing population. However, arable land is becoming scarce as oceans are overfished, and climate change and related water shortages continue to impact food production (Hunter et al., 2017). To meet the food and nutrition challenges today and tomorrow, what we eat and how we produce it needs to be reconsidered. Increasing per capita food production and raising smallholder incomes are arguably the most popular pathways to alleviating food insecurity in developing countries and, particularly, sub-Saharan Africa (Van Huis et al., 2013). Despite the technological developments in food production, over 70% of people still face hunger and malnutrition (UN, 2017). Incidentally, about 80% of people depend directly or indirectly on small scale farming (Meyers & Kalaitzandonakes, 2015).

Sub-Saharan African countries are experiencing a surge in the population too, resulting in high demand for food, especially animal-based protein (Baptista et al., 2022). Many poor people can hardly afford conventional sources of protein. In fact, it is projected that the Sub-Saharan population will double by 2050, an increase of nearly ten times relative to 1960, from 227 million to 2.2 billion (Suzuki, 2019). This increase will require a corresponding food supply, especially proteins, with less environmental blueprint. Nevertheless, food production in SSA, which is majorly subsistence, has not escaped the effects of climate change, water scarcity, as well as land degradation, thus constraining production (Lensvelt & Steenbekkers, 2014). For a long time, the livestock industry has been the main source of protein, but now it is unsustainable, resource-consuming, and a significant contributor to greenhouse gases (GHG) (Sejian et al., 2015). This supports the need for a healthy, sustainable, environmental, and less resource consuming alternative source of protein that the underutilized protein sources such as insects posit to offer. The popular and most utilized animal-based protein sources in Africa are milk, eggs, and meat. According to Schönfeldt and Hall (2012), by 2005, the consumption of these protein sources stood at 30.1 kg/capita/year, 1.6kg/capita/year, and 3.3kg/capita/year, respectively. However, they are relatively expensive (Schönfeldt & Hall, 2012).

Entomophagy, the collection and consumption of insects as food, is envisaged to be the most viable solution for the sub-Saharan African countries, notably Kenya (Alemu et al., 2015). Edible insects have played a pivotal role in enhancing livelihoods in many countries globally. In Asia, Latin America, and Africa, hundreds of forest insect species are used as human food with increasing demands for alternative protein supply (Banjo, Lawal & Songonuga, 2006). Insects have high nutritional benefits and are less detrimental to the environment than conventional livestock (FAO, 2013).

Traditionally, insects have been collected from the wild. However, recent initiatives of mass production are being introduced. Jongema (2014) posits that global consumption of insects cuts across nearly all insect species. Representatives of all insect groups that are consumed and their proportions include; bees and ants representing 15%, crickets, grasshoppers, and locusts representing 13%, beetles and caterpillars representing 31%, and 18%, respectively (Jongema, 2014). Termites, Dragonflies, flies, and others represent 12% of the total insect species consumed (Jongema, 2014). The global frontlines in insect consumption include Asian and European countries like China, Thailand, and Vietnam (Raheem et al., 2018). In Africa, the dominant insect-eating countries include DR Congo, Zambia, Nigeria, Cameroon, and South Africa (Niassy & Ekesi, 2017). In East Africa, consumption of insects is majorly subsistent, and collection is from the wild, especially in Kenya and Uganda, with major insects consumed, including Termites, Grasshoppers, and Crickets (Kinyuru et al., 2018). There are relatively few cases of insect businesses. However, market surveys, especially in Uganda, show that insect prices could exceed traditional animal meat products if insects are collected from the wild on a large scale (Raheem et al., 2018).

In Kenya, insect consumption is concentrated in the western part of the country (Ayieko et al., 2016). Research has shown that edible insects constitute the cheapest sources of macro and micro nutrients and provide other essential elements like minerals, proteins, carbohydrates, and polyunsaturated fatty acids (Ayieko, 2012; Kinyuru et al., 2010; Orech et al., 2007). The table 1 below exemplifies the various insects consumed in Kenya.

**Table 1: Dominantly Consumed Insects in Kenya**

<b>Insect Name</b>	<b>Region</b>	<b>Source</b>
Grasshopper/Locust	Western Kenya	Kinyuru et al., 2018; Kinyuru et al., 2010
Crickets	Most parts of Kenya	Christensen et al. 2006
Lake flies	Lake Victoria basin, Kenya	Kinyuru et al. 2010; Ayieko and Oriaro, 2008
Termites	Most parts of Kenya	Ayieko et al. 2012.
Black ants	Lake Victoria region	Ayieko et al. 2012

Many reports show that Kilifi County is one of the areas where food insecurity and malnutrition is prevalent. The preliminary report of the county government of Kilifi in 2018 showed that the county has a high prevalence of poverty. Explicitly, the region depends on coconut farms and other agricultural products for their livelihood. Due to climate change, the supply of these products has been deprived. Also, the research by Chege et al. (2016) assessed the effects of household characteristics on the food security of farmers in Kilifi County, and the results showed that 80% of all the farmers were food insecure. Another study by Wekesa et al. (2017) showed that Kilifi County is experiencing food insecurity and loss of livelihood amid climate change. Additionally, they still face crop failures with changing weather patterns and Rhinoceros beetle infestation in coconut farms. According to Wheatley (2015), the Rhinoceros beetle is one of the two important pests in the coconut plantations and causes considerable losses to the coconut industry. Many pieces of research have been done on possible eradicating measures, but efforts to reduce the prevalence of the pest have not been successful (Wheatley, 2015; Bedford, 2014). Nevertheless, the beetle, commonly called “chongwa,” (Mwachiro & Gakure, 2011), is also considered a delicacy among the residents of Kilifi County. There are undocumented cases in the coastal part of the country of heavy use of the *Oryctes rhinoceros*' larva as poultry feeds and heterogeneous consumption patterns by some Mijikenda sub-communities of the Giriama, Chonyi, and Jibana. Farmers cut down the infested palm trees to harvest the delicacy. But this is not sustainable, thus relegating consumption to subsistence or when the insect larvae are available.

Incidentally, high incidences of malnutrition and poor health in the county are still rife (Wekesa et al., 2017). Engaging in Coconut Beetle enterprises is one way the farmers can ameliorate the problems of seasonality in crop production and derive income and other essential nutrients throughout the year. However, initiatives for its mass production and commercialization are still lacking though this would be an incentive to sustainably utilize the insect contributing to food security and source of income. The destructions caused by the beetle would be substantially reduced as the small-scale farmers maximize the utilization of the insect pest.

The focus of this study was on barriers that may hinder smallholder farmers of Kilifi County from participating in the production of the beetle as a farm enterprise for improving food security. Edible insects have demonstrated to offer a wide range of benefits to farmers, including a positive effect on their livelihoods through increased food security and income (Gahukar, 2016; Muafor et al., 2015). In addition, edible insects are known for providing benefits to the environment, especially through the conservation of natural resources. Although the benefits of such enterprises are well known, and various farmers in some countries use various innovations, full adoption in some countries, notably Kenya, has not occurred. The study evaluated the knowledge and the perceptions of farmers towards the commercialization of the beetle in Kilifi County. Also, the paper determined other variables that may hinder farmers from participating in the production that are necessary for the recommendation of policy intervention strategies.

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

Edible insects, particularly Coconut rhinoceros' larva, have proven their positive contribution to economic and nutritional needs. Researches done have shown their significant contribution to food and feed security (Gahukar, 2016), creation of employment opportunities, and enhanced livelihood sources (Muafor et al., 2015). However, there is paucity of scholarly work on farmers' knowledge and perception on farming the edible insect. The existing research with the beetle that has addressed its potential as food and feed in other regions has evaluated the beetle from the wild without production attempts (Omotoso, 2018; Okaraonye & Ikewuchi, 2009). Also, research that has addressed the concept of farmers' knowledge on edible insects has only considered



their knowledge based on the inclusion of insects in feeds and food (Chia et al., 2020) and farmers' knowledge on the management of insect pests (Nampeera et al., 2019).

In Kilifi County, the level of farmers' knowledge and behavioral approach to the beetle as a farm enterprise remains underexplored despite the area having a high infestation of the beetle in coconut plants. Although there is limited documented evidence on the topic, anecdotal evidence suggests beetles' larva is widely used as poultry feeds with heterogeneous consumption patterns by the Mijikenda sub-communities in Kilifi County, notably Giriama and Chonyi. The region also continues to experience a high prevalence of hunger and malnutrition (County Government of Kilifi, 2018), and the beetle farming is postulated to have significance in uplifting the farmers' livelihoods. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate the knowledge and perceptions of respondents regarding the utilization of the beetle through production, as well as identify other external factors hindering the production of this edible insect in Kilifi County.

### **1.3. Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1 Overall Objective**

To contribute to the adoption of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle production as a farm enterprise among smallholder farmers for enhanced food security in Kilifi County, Kenya.

#### **1.3.2. Specific Objectives**

- i. To assess smallholder farmers' level of knowledge of the value of the beetle as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security.
- ii. To determine smallholder farmers' perception of the production of the beetle as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security.
- iii. To ascertain the effect of various variables on the probability of adopting the micro-farming of the beetle as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security.
- iv. To analyze the potential constraints towards participation in the beetle production as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security.

#### **1.4. Research Questions**

- i. What are the smallholder farmers' levels of knowledge about the beetle as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security?
- ii. What are the farmers' perceptions of the commercialization of the beetle as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security?
- iii. What is the effect of various variables on the probability of adopting the micro-farming of the beetle as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security?
- iv. What are the potential constraints towards adoption in the beetle production as a farm enterprise for enhanced food security?

#### **1.5. Justification of the Study**

The bite of hunger and malnutrition in some regions in Kenya, notably Kilifi County, lies in the establishment of supplementary food production. To achieve sufficient, nutritious, and sustainable food production, insects, have been identified as a cost-effective, reliable, and sustainable source of protein and other vital nutrients for achieving food security. The most prevalent edible insect in this region, the rhinoceros beetle, has the potential as a farm enterprise, and its products can be marketed as food and feed to the occupants. Increasing food production may be attained through the establishment of such initiatives to complement crop and livestock production.

Understanding the existing smallholder farmers' knowledge and their perceptions of the value of the beetle is critical in the implementation of such initiatives. Additionally, identifying potential constraints that may limit the utilization of the beetle as an enterprise is necessary for the establishment of initiatives that provide value in the use of the beetle. Moreover, the data collected provides valuable information on the potential of the commercialization of the beetle. The information is a stimulus to policy discussions about Coconut Rhinoceros utilization through mass production and commercialization, especially with regard to overcoming the hurdles toward the pest's control.

The U.N Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) number one and two is to eradicate poverty and hunger respectively; improving farmers' livelihood would be a milestone in achieving this goal. Further, the research may contribute to achieving the goals of the Agricultural Transformation and Growth Strategy (ASTGS) and Kenya's Big 4 agenda

on improving food security in the country. Finally, the study results contribute to the existing literature on the beetle's production as a point of enhancing food security.

### **1.6. Scope of the Study**

The study focused on determining the knowledge and perceptions of smallholder farmers on rhinoceros beetle production as a farm enterprise. It further generated knowledge on the potential barriers toward the commercialization of the beetle. As such, smallholder farmers of Kilifi County with a focus on Kilifi North and Kilifi South were the respondents as they grow coconut palms and experience the destructive nature of the beetle. It focused on the issues that hinder the utilization of the beetle for food security, specifically looking at issues of use as food and feed, opportunities for commercialization, and assessing residents' level of knowledge and perceptions.

### **1.7. Limitations and Delimitations**

Exclusive coverage of the study was limited by the geographical expanse of the County, constraints of resources and time, limited documented information on the subject for the area, and the willingness and literacy levels of informants to give information.

To counteract these limitations, the study focused on two sub-counties of the County. The information was sought from a sample of residents who are small-scale farmers, and representatives from the Department of Agriculture and other vital partners such as the Nuts and Oil Crops Directorate (NOCD) also formed part of the consultation team. Also, since adoption takes time yet is dependent on other factors such as the associated risks, the researcher did not cover such aspects. The researcher also assumed that, all the respondents interviewed, would provide useful information regardless of their literacy levels.

## 1.8. Definition of Terms

**Production:** Micro farming of CRB among smallholder farmers

**Knowledge:** Residents' level of awareness and know-how of the value of CRB farming.

**Perceptions:** Views and opinions of residents on the preconceived value of CRB farming.

**Constraints/Barriers:** Restrictions to the farming of CRB

**Farm-enterprise:** Practice of production of CRB beetle

**Commercialization:** The process of running a CRB enterprise principally for financial gains.

**Micro farming:** A small scale farming method of CRB.

**Chongwa:** Common name of Coconut Rhinoceros beetle (CRB) in the county

**Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle (CRB):** An important pest in coconut farms. Otherwise referred to as “**the beetle**” in the thesis.

**Smallholder farmers:** small-scale farmers who own coconut palm farms in a small acreage of less than a hectare.

**Food security:** Sufficient, economical access and nutritional food supply in Kilifi County.

**Kipepeo:** Community based enterprise that supports the livelihoods of people living around Arabuke Sokoke forest through butterfly pupae farming.

***Oryctes rhinoceros*:** The scientific name of Coconut Rhinoceros beetle, coconut pest.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1. Introduction

The chapter presents an examination of the overall concept of entomophagy, particularly with respect to the Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle, its production, and the value that makes it worthwhile an enterprise. The section further reviews literature on agricultural technologies introduction and commercialization, with particular attention to the concepts of knowledge, perceptions, and the plausible constraints in the introduction of any agricultural technologies.

### 2.2. Entomophagy

Halloran & Vantomme (2013) describes entomophagy as the consumption of edible insects by humans. This practice is rooted in human evolutionary history. It is practiced in many countries around the world but is mostly concentrated in Asia, Africa, and Latin America (Bernard & Womeni, 2017). In the East, the practice is dominant in Asian countries like Thailand, Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, where there is a great consumption of giant water bugs, crickets, silkworms, and rice grasshoppers (Tao & Li, 2018). Such countries have commercialization of edible insects more pronounced than others. For instance, in Thailand, there is the Thailand Unique<sup>TM</sup>, an online retailer which sells a range of insect products, from canned items to more processed forms (Melgar-Lalanne, 2019). Over the years, many companies and startups globally, mainly in Europe, North America, and South Asia, have been established to commercialize insect-based food products for human consumption. Some of these companies include Aldento in Belgium, Bitty foods in the USA, Nutri Bug in the UK, and **Burgs food** in the Netherlands. In the USA, amazon.com lists over 100 insect-based food products, most of which are sold in the whole form. Similarly, on eBay, over 250 edible insect food products are listed (Melgar-Lalanne, 2019). The main commercial forms in which insects' products are marketed are flavored snacks and powdered, and the most widely sold insects are crickets, grasshoppers, and mealworms (Melgar-Lalanne, 2019).

According to Melgar-Lalanne (2019), edible insects have traditionally been sold dried or ground and sometimes marketed as flours, heat-dried larva, or whole adult insects. They have formed part of the diet for about 2 billion people globally and have remained to be

part of human diets (Tao & Li, 2018). Womeni et al. (2009) confirmed this argument by pointing out a collective group of people in South Africa who value caterpillar meals than beef as the latter is relatively costly, and the sales of beef even decrease during caterpillar seasons. Palm weevils, including *R. phoenicis* larvae, have formed part of the traditional African diet for a long time. Besides Africa, in Mexico, for instance, there has been exceptional consumer acceptance for the maize flour supplemented with ground mealworm larvae (Aguilar-Miranda et al., 2002). A larger proportion of the edible insects are collected from the wild; however, contemporary initiatives have introduced the domestication of insects to scale up availability throughout the year (Durst & Hanboonsong, 2015). Insect species are ecologically dispersed across the world. Some insect orders are found in other continents and countries with the most conspicuous and majorly consumed orders are the Orthoptera, Lepidoptera, Hymenoptera, Isoptera, and Coleoptera (Van Huis et al., 2013). Africa alone is endowed with a diverse range of insect species, with over 246 species reported in 27 countries (Van Huis et al., 2013). A similar study by Ramos-Elorduy (2005) showed that Africa is one of the world's most important hot spots of edible insect biodiversity.

Regarding the pricing of edible insects, studies have shown that retail prices of edible insects in tropical countries where mass production is carried out are much higher than conventional meat (Agea et al., 2008; Ayemele et al., 2016). This is because insects are regularly preferred, indicating how much they are appreciated as a delicacy. Agea et al. (2008) noted that the prices of edible grasshoppers are often higher than those of meat products. Similarly, Ayemele et al. (2016) show that the price of palm weevil larva also costs higher relative to other protein products.

Studies have shown disproportionate participation of dealers in edible insects according to age and gender, with women and children forming a larger proportion of insect traders. Research by Mbetid-Bessane in 2005 showed that the collection of edible caterpillars in the Central African Republic is done mainly by men (85%), of which 88% are students. The selling is entirely done by women, of which 75% are students, and the rest are professional fruit and vegetable saleswomen; however, selling insects can become their main activity during the caterpillar season (Mbetid-Bessane, 2005). Some edible insect

species are collected early in the morning or evening, making the activity compatible with other activities and hence increasing the efficiency of income generation. In Laos, earnings from collecting crickets can be greater than those from raising cattle or growing rice (Meyer-Rochow, 2008).

### **2.2.1. Benefits of Insect Farming**

The consumption of insects brings about many health, social, and environmental benefits. Environmentally, the high feed conversion efficiency enables insects to use fewer feed resources relative to other conventional animals that derive much resources from the environment (FAO, 2013); thus, the production of GHG is likely to be lower than that of conventional livestock. Insects can provide high-quality protein and other nutrients relative to meat and fish. They are particularly suitable as food supplements for malnourished children as they are high in fatty acids (Halloran & Vantomme, 2013). They are also rich in fiber and other micronutrients such as copper, magnesium, iron, and zinc. Furthermore, insect rearing or gathering can offer vital livelihood diversification strategies. These activities can directly improve the diets while providing cash incomes through the selling of the surplus. Insect harvesting and farming can provide entrepreneurship and opportunities in developing countries (Halloran & Vantomme, 2013).

### **2.3. Farming of Edible insects as a farm enterprise.**

The insect species that can be farmed are yet to be fully described, but most authors indicate that majority of edible insects are harvested in the wild. Some are available throughout the year, while others are collected seasonally. Others are also domesticable, while others are not. The ability of mass production depends on several factors like the ability of an insect to stay in confinement, the availability of feed resources, and the nature of the habitat conditions (Dobermann et al., 2017). Insects such as honey bees and silkworms have been domesticated for a very long time because of their by-products, although in both cases, the insects themselves are also eaten (Van Huis, 2013). Some species of insects are also procured through environmental manipulations in a process called semi-cultivation. A notable example of this includes deliberately cutting palm trees in the tropics to trigger egg-laying by palm weevils (*Rhynchophorus* spp.) and subsequent

harvesting of larvae (Van Itterbeeck & Van Huis, 2012). Another example is the introduction of caterpillars to a designated area to promote the abundance of foliage-consuming caterpillars in sub-Saharan Africa (Van Itterbeeck & Van Huis, 2012).

In line with the foregoing, many species of insects are collected from the wild. However, if they are to become pivotal in the alleviation of food insecurity, they need to be farmed as livestock. Besides, in the wild edible insects are threatened due to overexploitation and habitat loss or pesticide use (Payne, 2015; Ramos, 2006). Globally, Thailand is one of the countries where insect rearing has taken off and plays an important role, with approximately 20 000 farms which are expanding (Hanboonsong, Jamjanya, & Durst, 2013). In the western world, insect rearing entities produce several insect species as pet food (Van Huis et al., 2013). Although countries such as the Netherlands has some companies setting up special lines for human consumption (Van Huis et al., 2013). According to Van Huis et al. (2013), when insects are reared for feeds, feedstock companies across the world would experience a continuous supply of raw materials. More recently, such activities have been initiated, focusing mainly on black soldier flies and domestic housefly. In Africa, several international projects are now in operation to promote insect rearing for food with great emphasis on crickets (Van Huis et al., 2013). Other recent examples of edible insects being commercially farmed for food and feed include the house cricket, black soldier flies, and the palm weevil (Varelas, 2019). In Kenya, the rearing of insects has not taken off widely, with only cases of insect rearing and consumption taking place in western Kenya (Ayieko et al., 2016).

However, several challenges impede such initiatives when promoting or rearing insects as food and feed. First, the procedures for large-scale rearing are cumbersome to be developed. This is a challenge for industries specialized in the mass rearing of insects (Van Huis, 2013). Also, major issues in mass rearing are quality, reliability, and cost-effectiveness. In addition, Ghazoul (2006) noted that pathogens can constitute a severe problem in commercial rearing of insects. For instance, intensively rearing crickets with minimum farm management guidelines can lead to an entire farm being wiped out due to pathogens and fungi. Another constraint is the high cost of high protein feeds that are required to nourish the insects. Finally, the most critical constraint of edible insect

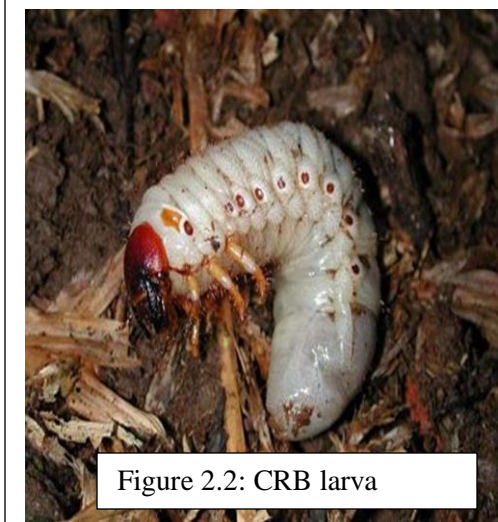
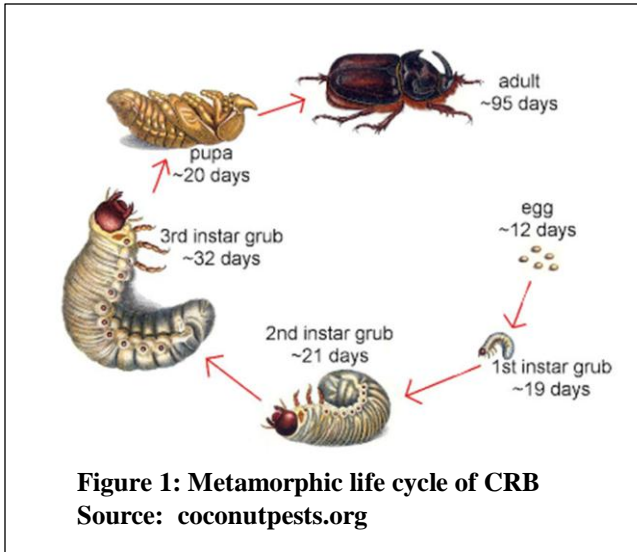


farming is that they are an informal industry; therefore, government agencies often do not recognize the insect farming sector despite their high commercial value. Consequently, there is limited monitoring or support as well as production and management profile instruction, including recommendations to minimize disease outbreaks (Van Huis et al., 2013). Rearing of insects can also take place in cottage industries as long as the conditions and precautions for the production are met, similar to industrial production. When produced as animal feed or human food, insects should compare favorably to conventional protein products. It is technically feasible to mass-produce insects for human consumption either on a large scale or small scale through farming. Industrial production may involve automation and require huge investments as compared to micro-farming. Although automation has the advantages of increased product performance and consistency, reduction in microbial contamination by personnel, and increased space utilization (Parker, 2005). According to Katayama et al. (2008), the production of certain insects is also beneficial as they lead to the recycling of waste materials and thus are considered space-based agricultural systems. For instance, insects like silkworm (*B. mori*), the termite *Macrotermes subhyalinus*, and the drugstore beetle (*Stegobium paniceum*).

#### **2.4. Life cycle and Utilization of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle**

Coconut Rhinoceros beetle (CRB) belongs to the sub family Dynatinae and the genus *Oryctes*. It is a ravaging pest to palm trees, and host plants include coconut, date, and oil palms. Its life cycle starts when an adult female lays eggs in the dead coconut palm. The eggs are 3 to 4mm long and take 8 to 12 days to hatch (GISD, 2005). The developmental period in 1<sup>st</sup> instar larvae is 10 to 21 days, 2<sup>nd</sup> instar larvae is 12 to 21 days, 3<sup>rd</sup> larvae 32 to 60 days, pre-pupae 8 to 13 days, and pupae 17 to 28 days (GISD, 2005). Mature larvae are C-shaped, with brown head capsules and legs. The imagoes remain in the cocoon for about 11 to 20 days. Mating occurs in breeding sites. The life cycle lasts from 4 to 9 months, allowing more than one generation per year. The identification of male and female is easy as the male has long elongated horns than the female beetle. Although rhinoceros beetle is found in several regions of the world, the shape, size, and color are more consistent. The adult beetle is 1.2-2.5 inches in length (3.0-6.3 cm) and is dark brown or black (Manjeri et al., 2013).

These species are eaten at an adult or larval stage of development (Resh & Cardé, 2009). Across the world and specifically in Thailand, the stir-fried rhinoceros beetle larva is a delicacy in the tourist areas of Krabi province where there are possibilities for local enterprises to sell insect products to tourists (Gahukar, 2016). In Sub Saharan Africa, another genus of Rhinoceros beetle forms part of the livelihood of people of East Cameroon, where it contributes to enhancing food security situations (Muafor, Le Gall & Levang, 2012). Similarly, Augosoma beetle, a genus of rhinoceros beetle, is a good alternative source of proteins in Cameroon (Muafor, Levang & Le Gall, 2014). Lokeshwari & Shantibala (2010) also list the beetle larva as one of the edible insect species. In Nigeria, the larva of Rhinoceros beetle is well relished as snacks or main meal in Southwest Nigeria in areas like Itoikin along Ikorodu-Ijebu-ode expressway, Epe, Owode-Ajeganle, and Ikorodu and Badagry (Oluwo et al., 2012). Previously, rhinoceros beetle larvae were fried and eaten as a bush delicacy, but now they are made commercially available in local markets where people in urban areas can purchase them (Olowu et al., 2012). It is either consumed raw, boiled, smoked, or fried. It may be eaten as part of a meal or as a complete meal (Olowu et al., 2012). A preliminary report of the Pacific Agriculture Policy Project in 2018 showed that poultry is one of the predators of the beetle. For this reason, it can be used in feeding poultry wholly or supplemented with other feeds. The Coconut Rhinoceros beetle also forms a good supplement for fish feeds (Kamarudin et al., 2007). This can provide a solution to the ever-rising human-livestock protein competition.



**Figure 1:** Image of poultry bird feeding on the beetle's larva.

#### 2.4.1. Nutritional value of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle

Research on its larval biochemistry has shown that it's rich in nutrient composition. According to Okaraonye & Ikewuchi (2009), it has a dietary component of essential elements, including, proteins and carbohydrates, in high proportions (Table 2 & 3). The other mineral elements, including calcium, potassium, sodium, copper, and magnesium,

are present in small quantities (Omotoso, 2018; Okaraonye & Ikewuchi, 2009). This composition makes the CRB form a good alternative for food and feed products of considerable nutritive value

**Table 2:** *Proximate composition of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle larva*

Parameter	Wet weight	Dry weight
Moisture (%)	16.73± 0.49	-
Crude fat (%)	0.55±0.10	0.66±0.12
Ash (%)	12.70 ± 0.81	15.25±0.97
Crude protein	42.29±0.84	50.79±1.01
Carbohydrates	27.73±0.50	33.30±0.60
Total metabolizable energy (kcal 100 gG <sup>1</sup> )	285.03	342.30

\*Values are means ± SD of triplicate determinations

**Source:** Okaraonye & Ikewuchi, 2009

**Table 3:** *Nutrient composition of the adult CRB*

Parameters (%)	Adult beetle (100g)
Moisture content	4.53 ± 0.03
Ash content	74.18 ± 0.10
Fibre content	5.29 ± 0.01
Fat content	9.55 ± 0.01
Carbohydrate	2.76 ± 0.04
Gross energy (100g) Kj	1661.33

\*Each value is a mean ± SD of triplicate

**Source:** Omotoso, 2018

#### **2.4.2. Production of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle (CRB).**

Although there is no evidence of rearing the beetle exclusively for food or feed, the experiences of some researchers on rearing the beetle for other purposes have proved

positive. Their research showed that the beetle could thrive in confinement and reproduce. An example is a study by Bedford (2009), which addressed the mass rearing of the beetle for the release of the virus to speed the spread of the pathogen *Rhabdionvirus oryctes* more effectively and economically in Fiji. Similarly, Manley, Melzer & Spafford (2018) carried out a study investigating the oviposition preferences and behavior of wild-caught and laboratory-reared beetle. All these researches show the feasibility of the mass production of the beetle.

Farming of the beetle can be possible as long as the management skills, feed resources, and production equipment are available. The farming of Rhinoceros beetle can start with the field collected larva or adult beetle from the palm field (Bedford, 2009). While adult beetles feed on the palm tree by sucking its sap, its larva is harmless and feeds on the decaying organic matter, including decaying palm logs, rubbish dumps, and manure (Okaraonye & Ikewuchi, 2009). Once female and male adult beetles are collected and placed on a coconut log, they can mate, and the female lays eggs. The larva hatch after 8-12 days and feed on the rotting wood of dead coconut trunks, although they may be laid in heaps of decomposing vegetables or manure for about two months, by which time they are fully grown and pupate (Wheatley, 2015). Pupation lasts three weeks, and the adults emerging from the pupal cases tunnel their way out of the breeding site to the open. When farming, the heaps or coconut logs can be covered with nets to prevent the beetles from escaping into the coconut fields. From where the insect can be fed directly to the poultry or taken for fish feed industries. They can also be harvested for food at the larval or adult stages.

## **2.5. Farmer knowledge on edible Insect farming.**

There is a paucity of scholarly work on farmers' knowledge in farming edible insects. Information regarding farmers' knowledge on farming insects as feed or food is fundamental in strategies geared towards introducing them into the food systems. Chia et al. (2020) posit that Kenyan livestock farmers are well aware of the potential of insects and their useful nutritional values. The author notes that this high knowledge reflects on their perceptions of embracing such initiatives. Similarly, Mancuso, Baldi, and Gasco (2016) state that farmers' knowledge affects their interests in insects as food and feed.

These scholarly works provide insights into why the determination of knowledge among farmers is fundamental in imparting new technology facts, concepts, and principles. The only way to determine farmers' knowledge is by asking them through a Likert scale that ranks their awareness on particular attributes of interest (Heh, 2014).

Knowledge remains especially in people's heads and can be made tangible as information to help in various initiatives and allow people to take actions in a given context (Ntawuruhunga et al., 2020). There is increasingly a growing realization that knowledge is an important resource that can help in poverty reduction among resource-poor farmers (Mchombu & Mchombu, 2014). As a consequence, knowledge is considered a vital factor for development, and therefore increasing knowledge diffusion has become a point of focus for the policymakers in various jurisdictions. Farmers in several countries have been able to raise their production level mainly through the application of knowledge in their activities. As noted by Heh (2014), different types of knowledge are expressed in agriculture for the creation of a solution to different common problems. Indeed, it is true, as some common problems, such as loss of crops due to severe climatic change, cannot be solved by conventional solutions, but a more developed knowledge of the same. Different groups of people or institutions can establish specific types of knowledge or can be developed jointly by different actors through social learning. In this respect, Ton de Jona (1996) outlines various types of knowledge, with the main one being situational knowledge which covers situations as they typically appear in a particular domain. Conceptual knowledge entails knowledge about various concepts, facts, and principles that apply within a particular domain. On the other hand, procedural knowledge bears valid actions within a domain. They help the problem solver transit from one problem condition to the other. The last type is strategic knowledge. According to Ton de Jona (1996), such knowledge helps the learner organize their problem-solving process by directing which stages they should go through to reach a solution. Given this picture in particular to agriculture, a farmer can bear any of the aforementioned knowledge types that are adequate to adopting a particular technology. By evaluating the level of knowledge through questioning, farmers express these forms of knowledge in different ways they respond to the researcher's prompts.

## **2.6. The concept of Perceptions and Acceptance.**

Perceptions about farmers' preferences for using insects as human food and animal feed are scanty but necessary for setting up commercialization interventions. Often people would have positive perceptions towards normal activities. However, they are likely to show negative reception for new things. Given this picture, common practices such as the inclusion of insects as part of fish and poultry feeds will probably not be considered a problem, especially to consumers, as insects are already natural feed in these enterprises. Concerning insects for human consumption, they are acceptable food items in most cultures of the world, although there are taboos or social ties that influence consumption (Lawal & Banjo, 2007). Food acceptance is controlled by affection, cultural, personal, and situational factors, but motives are based mostly on sensory considerations and health. Because of neophobia, people are inclined to avoid unfamiliar foods, particularly when they are of animal origin (Martins & Pliner, 2005). With these novel foods, especially insects, people exhibit both an interest in and reluctance to eat them due to the desire to derive nutrients and fears that the insects may be harmful, respectively. According to Martins & Pliner (2005), neophobic reactions toward such novel foods as insects may be decreased by lowering individuals' perceptions of their disgusting properties. Initial disgust with respect to certain food can be turned into a preference. This shows that food preferences are not stable and can change over time. Considering that consumer acceptance of insect food and food ingredients is a significant barrier, broad public debate can explain the sustainability of food production systems and the need to find acceptable alternative protein sources. Appropriate processing strategies could be developed and implemented by transforming insects into more conventional and acceptable forms. Perceived risk, benefit, and control are powerful determinants of consumer acceptance of novel insect foods (Fischer & Frewer, 2009). According to Houghton et al. (2006), good food risk management should include a preventive strategy, identifiable control systems that respond quickly to contain risk, and enough information for consumers to exercise informed choice.

## **2.7. Overview of the constraints to the adoption of agricultural technologies.**

Literature shows that a plethora of factors influences agricultural projects' introduction. These factors range from environmental, economic, technological, sociological, and

legal. Indeed, agricultural activities are affected from all these angles (Kisengese, 2012). Environmental factors such as climate and weather changes have led to intermittent drought and floods, affecting farmer activities and resulting in huge losses. Once farmers experience such losses, any actions to introduce new projects poised to be challenged by similar weather patterns may face resistance. Economic factors equally impede the implementation of new agricultural projects. Bowman and Zilberman (2013) assert that economic factors greatly influence farmers' efforts to diversify their farming activities. The most direct contribution to agricultural growth and expansion is the generation of returns from the activity. Farmers are mostly motivated by enterprises that would generate higher incomes at lower costs. However, the fluctuation of market prices due to increased output that drives down prices or the cost of production rising as the demand for inputs increases discourages farmers if they know of such occurrences.

Land in Kenya is unequally distributed across the regions, and the size may be determined by income and gender. Particularly, this resource's inequality is more intense in the coastal parts of the country (Kisengese, 2012). The wealthier have more track of land sizes than the average income or poor people. Land serves as both social and economic assets. As an economic resource, the limited resource acts as a production tool for more farmers' gains. Conversely, access and utilization depend on the legal structures governing access and usage as a social resource. Therefore, land ownership and size are significant factors in evaluating the plausibility of instruction of agricultural projects.

Religion is one of the major social factors affecting agricultural activities. From the research by Lang (2018) in examining the relationship between religion and agriculture, the author found a continuous relationship between the two variables. According to the author, the roots of this relationship are traceable to human societies. Besides being a religious act, the potential of agriculture to result in economic development is in part explained by religion. Pieces of evidence point to the fact that agriculture is among the economic activities in which religion plays a critical role (Tanko & Ismaila, 2021; Nkamleu, 2007). As a consequence, religion and societal resources produce a type of knowledge that is of relevance to agriculture. Therefore, such spiritual forces would either support or constrain a particular enterprise.



Besides, religion, culture and social norms, and community acceptance also threaten the adoption of agricultural activities. In their study to delineate the effect of culture and religion on agricultural technology adoption, Tanko and Ismaila (2021) found that culture and social norms inhibit the adoption of agricultural technologies in Africa. This is also supported by Guerzoni & Jordan (2016), who noted that social norms and beliefs acquired during upbringing, modified and imparted from societal influence, influence people's choice of farm inputs and even agricultural practices. This is consistent with Lee's work (2011) which found that culture influences access to other agricultural services such as credit, and other factors of production, thereby playing a pivotal role in the accessibility of new technologies. In communities where belief is supreme, and innovation in agriculture is viewed as a disrespect to a supernatural being, they would be less likely to take up the new projects.

Moreover, the government often has control of every sector of the economy. In agriculture, it establishes agricultural law and policy that affects all farming activities encompassing the use of inputs, environmental issues, and patents. Government action is critical in agriculture as they set favorable policies or not. Agricultural policies comprise of government's decisions that influence the stability of the input and output prices, investments affecting agricultural production and costs, and revenues of allocating farm resources. These policies affect directly or indirectly all agricultural activities. Increased agricultural production has been regarded as one of the avenues of poverty alleviation in the country (Alila & Atieno, 2006). The objective of this sector through actions by the government has most often been seeing agriculture grow among resource-poor farmers. Diversification from low to high-value crops and other enterprises has been envisaged to increase production amid the limited availability of potential agricultural land. According to Alila and Atieno (2006), Kenya's agricultural industry is currently fairly regulated with laws governing both crop and animal farming. However, established policies and existing laws do not adequately address technology growth within the agricultural space. An enabling framework within the ecosystem would ensure that innovated solutions operate rather than just exist. Therefore, it is advocated that the ministry of agriculture should lead in the systematically channeling of knowledge, innovation, and incubations of all agricultural ideas. Policies in this sector also need to be centralized on permitting

digital innovation, such as offering incentives for technology diffusion and investment (Kariuki, 2021). This will then trickle down to the private investors to take residual risks in investing in agriculture.

### **2.7.1. Overview of constraints to Edible insect production.**

International Platform of Insects for Food and Feed (IPIFF) (2019) estimates global insect production as about 50,000 tons annually. While the potential to increase this industry is large, the use of edible insects as food and feed has been flawed by several factors across the globe (Mancuso et al., 2019). According to Gasco et al. (2020), several countries do not have an appropriate regulatory framework for handling potential risks associated with edible insect enterprises. Regulations for this edible insect vary by country, making it difficult for startups to expand their operations across the globe. Under the current EU legislation, only a few substrates for mass rearing are allowed, thereby posing a threat to the development of this emerging industry (Pinnoti et al., 2019). Further, insect production and selling also involve considerable research to ascertain the risk-free substrates likely to pose threats from chemicals, heavy metals, mycotoxins, and other residues (EFSA, 2015; Leni et al., 2019; Camenzuli et al., 2018). It is challenging for startups to adhere to such conditions, thereby restricting their business within the borders.

Lack of market knowledge regarding market prices in most countries poses a great challenge to insect farmers (Mancuso et al., 2019). Gasco et al. (2020) link this deprivation of information to the regulatory hurdles relegating the industry to be less competitive. Hence it becomes challenging to scale the productions. Benefiting from economies of scale requires the edible insect industry to maximize returns and compete with other industries, which would mean startups finding reliable, consistent ways of scaling the production. The low-scale operations, coupled with the influence of existing feedstock industries, dwarf the production of insects for feed and food by startups (Gasco et al., 2020).

Further, people have developed perceptions and low acceptance linked to risks related to insect use. One of the preliminary reports of EFRA (2015) outlays risk profile related to the consumption of insects as food and feed. According to Gasco et al. (2020), there is no

evidence of human allergy risks from directly consuming insects or taking dairy products from livestock fed on insects. On the contrary, Finke et al. (2015) and Macombe et al. (2019) opine that there are allergy risks for the insect sector workers mainly due to contact. Such negative perceptions have been exacerbated further by religion and social norms that underlie edible insects' uptake. This is supported by Lang (2018) in examining the relationship between religion and agriculture. The author found a continuous negative relationship between the two variables. Edible insects, thus, are not exceptional. Berger and Wyss (2020) also found that social norms are central to the uptake of entomophagy by western cultures. In Africa, culture and social norms generally inhibit agricultural technologies (Tanko and Ismaila (2021).

## **2.8. Theoretical Framework**

This study was premised on utility maximization theory as it relates to the decision-making of whether to participate in the production of the beetle or not.

### **2.8.1. Utility Maximization Theory**

The decision to participate in the beetle farming as a farm enterprise and not participate vis-a-vis other farming and off-farm activities can be regarded as a binary choice. This is because of the binary nature of the dependent variable, which is to participate or not. Therefore, the binary choice model is true if the following conditions hold true.

- i. The smallholder farmers are faced with two alternative choices
- ii. Any choice a smallholder farmer makes depends on intrinsic (e.g., knowledge and perception) and extrinsic factors.

The binary choice model is based on the foundation of utility maximization theory; therefore, the net expected utility that is accrued from participating or not participating in the beetle business is estimated as follows in equations (1) and (2) (Greene, 2002);

$$Eu_iA = f(X_i) + e_i \tag{1}$$

$$Eu_iN = f(W_i) + e_i \tag{2}$$

$Eu_iA$  is the expected net utility of smallholder farmer,  $i$ , from participating in the beetle business.  $A$  denotes participation in the beetle business,  $N$  denotes non-participation in

the business.  $X_i$  and  $W_i$  are independent variables that denote smallholder farmer characteristics, physical and economic, influencing the decision, and  $e_i$  is the error term. The expected net utility from each decision is then compared such that:  $Eu_iA - Eu_iN > 0$  or  $Eu_iA - Eu_iN < 0$ .  $Y_i$  is then used as an indicator of whether a smallholder farmer  $i$  participates in the beetle farming or not so that  $Y_i = 1$  if they participate in the beetle farming and  $Y_i = 0$  if they do not participate in the farming (Greene, 2002).

$$Y_i = 1 \text{ if } Eu_iA - Eu_iN > 0 \quad (3)$$

$$Y_i = 0 \text{ if } Eu_iA - Eu_iN < 0 \quad (4)$$

Equation (3) implies that the probability that the smallholder farmer  $i$  participates in the beetle farming is given by the probability that the expected net utility derived from participation is greater than the expected net utility derived from non-participation (Preference for other income-generating activities). While the probability that the smallholder farmer  $i$  does not participate in the beetle farming is given by the probability that the expected net utility derived from participation is less than the net utility derived from non-participation, as shown in equation (4).

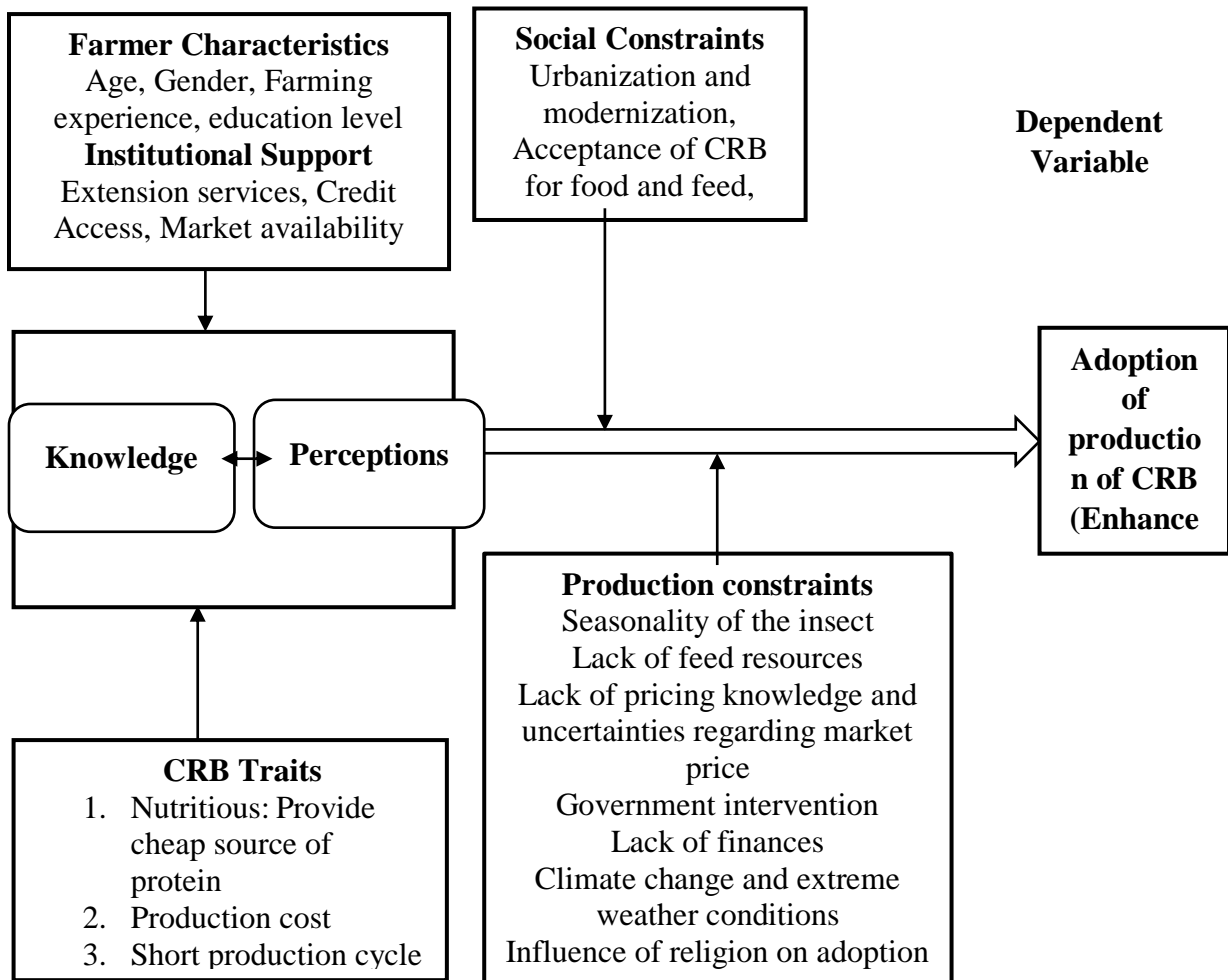
## 2.9. Conceptual Framework

Although there are pieces of evidence that farming, especially edible insects, enhances livelihoods, people always show less interest, coupled with several constraints that impede participation in such activities. Responses to constraints for farming edible insects for commercial purposes are conceptualized to be similar to the previous factors gathered by previous researchers in the study area. The study aimed to investigate the levels of knowledge and perceptions in the beetle farming as the major intrinsic factors and other potential barriers (extrinsic factors) for rearing Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle for commercialization purposes. As an agricultural initiative, the production of edible insects, either on a large scale or small scale, will be determined by several factors similar to any agricultural initiative. According to research done by Kisengese (2012) in determining factors that impede the implementation of agricultural activities, economic factors, land factors, and socioeconomic factors are some of the extrinsic factors that predominantly affect agricultural project implementation in Kilifi County. Micro-farming of Coconut Rhinoceros beetle equally is an agricultural activity. Determining factors that

hamper participation in its production is important in a bid to uplift the livelihood standards and suppress the malnutrition prevalence in general. The study adopted the factors identified by Kisengese (2012) and also incorporated other factors from the literature as detailed in the conceptual framework.

Farmers' knowledge, and perceptions (Fig.4) are determined by farmer's characteristics that include socioeconomic factors and other institutional factors, including training. When all these factors are conducive, that is, when the farmers have knowledge about the farming of the beetle, and they have a positive perception towards the practice, and the institutional factors are available, then it is likely that the farmers will participate in the farming of the beetle. However, culture, social norms, policy, and legal issues among other extraneous factors must also be favorable for the condition to hold. Some of the beetle traits that will motivate the farmers to adopt farming include nutritional value, production costs, a short production cycle, and ensuring environmental sustainability.

**Independent Variables**



**Figure 2: Conceptual Framework**  
**Source: Owner's conceptualization**

## CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

### 3.1. Study Area

The study was conducted in Kilifi North and Kilifi South sub-counties of Kilifi County between the months of January and April 2021. The two sites are located in the Coconut Cashew Nut-Cassava ecological zone, which varies in altitude from 30-310m, temperature and rainfall amount depending on the distance from the ocean. Besides rich coconut growing in the sites, the two sites were purposively selected because they experience the menace of Rhinoceros beetle, an important coconut pest, and have instances of *Oryctes rhinoceros* larval heterogeneous consumption patterns among the Giriama and the Chonyi Mijikenda sub-communities. With the combination of moderate rainfall and suitable temperatures, as major ecological conditions, Kilifi County offers a potential environment for coconut rhinoceros beetle farming. The county receives a moderate amount of annual rainfall ranging from 800 to 1,500 millimeters (31 to 59 inches). This level of rainfall provides the necessary moisture for growth and development of coconut palms, which are vital host plants for the beetles. In terms of temperature, Kilifi County's warm climate is well-suited for the thriving of coconut rhinoceros beetles' activity, reproduction, and overall population growth. The region temperatures range from 25 to 35 degrees Celsius (County Government of Kilifi, 2021). The two sites are found in a wider Kilifi County in the former coast province, about 420 km south-East of Nairobi and 60km North of Mombasa. Kilifi shares its borders with four other counties; Mombasa and Kwale to the south, Tana River to the north, and Taita Taveta to the west. The county lies between latitude 2°30' and 4°0' South and between longitude 38° 45' and 40° 15' East. It covers an area of 12,609.74 square kilometers. It is divided into seven Sub counties with several wards. The population of the Kilifi North Sub- County is 39,912 households, and Kilifi South is 53,074 households (KNBS, 2019).

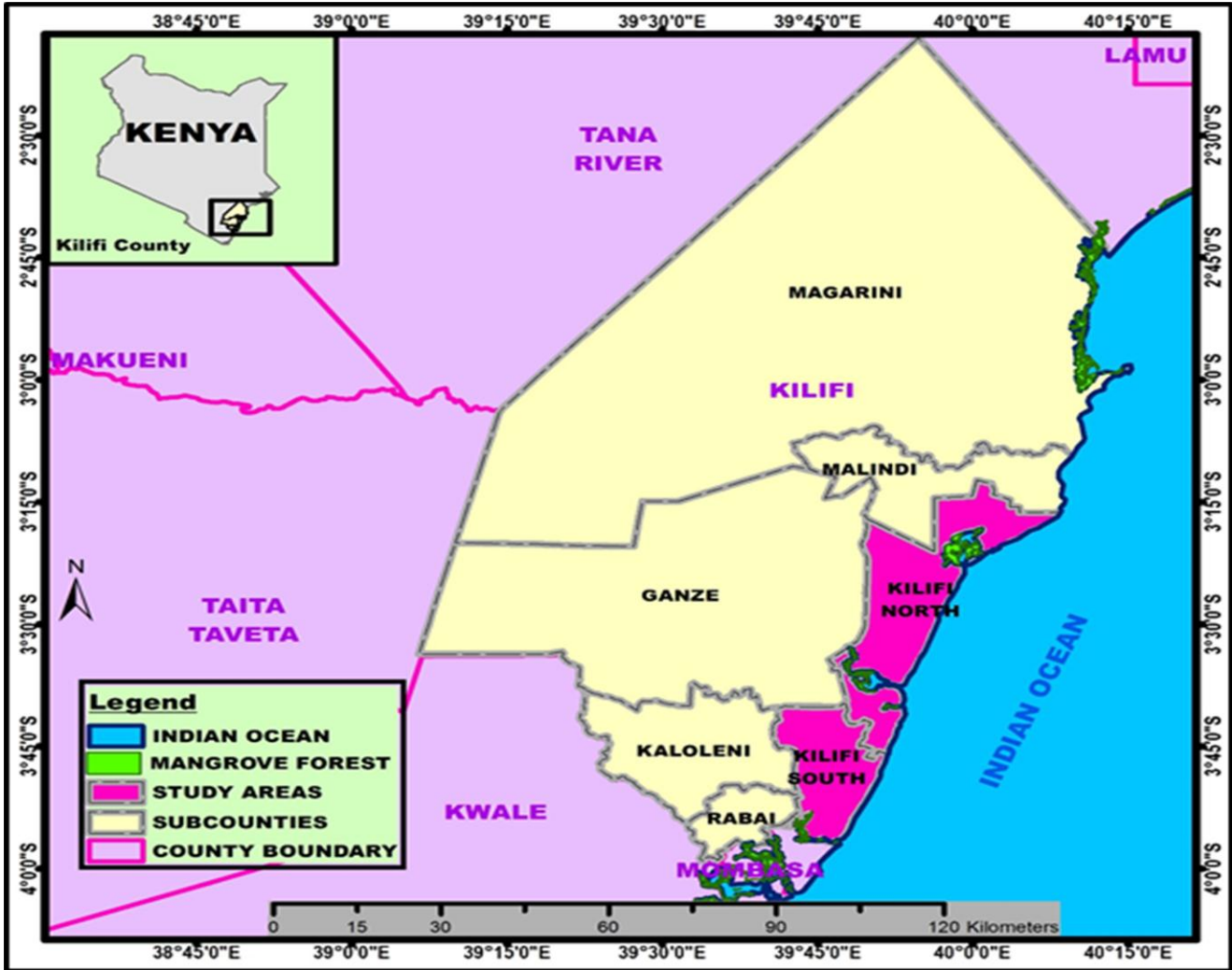


Figure 3: Map of study Area

Source: Regional Center for Resource and Mapping



### **3.2. Research Design**

A mixed method approach was employed in this study as it combines quantitative and qualitative data elements to enhance the depth of understanding and corroboration (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). A cross-sectional survey was adopted in conducting this research. The survey design was informed by the need to gain informed investigation into knowledge and perception and the possible barriers to the farming of Coconut Rhinoceros as a farm enterprise.

### **3.3. Target Population**

The target population was smallholder farmers with coconut farms in Kilifi North and Kilifi South sub-counties. The farmers were identified from the farmers' list provided by the Kipepeo Project and the sub-county department of Agriculture. The records of farmers from these lists formed the frame from which the sample of farmers was drawn and interviewed.

### **3.4. Sampling Procedure and Sampling Size.**

#### **3.4.1. Sampling Procedure.**

A multistage sampling procedure was used owing to its strength of limiting variation of the estimate in the process of collecting data (Allen et al., 2002). It was done using purposive and systematic sampling techniques. In the first stage, Kilifi County was purposively selected owing to the huge coconut palm farming activities being undertaken in the region coupled with the menace of pest (*Oryctes rhinoceros*). In the second stage, Kilifi North and Kilifi South Sub Counties were purposively chosen. The choice was based on the fact that the sub-counties are made up of communities, Giriama and Chonyi, that heavily use *Oryctes rhinoceros*' larva as poultry feeds and heterogeneous consumption patterns. In the last stage, the systematic sampling method was used to identify the target farmers. With the help of a farmers group list from Kipepeo Project and the sub-county department of agriculture, the names of the farmers/households in a non-ordered format was serially numbered and then selected at an interval of five numbers to get the target farmers. The specific household was located with the help of the group leaders leading the researcher to the homes of the identified farmers.

### 3.4.2. Sample Size

#### 3.4.2.1. Sampling of smallholder farmers

The sample size for the study was 207 smallholder farmers drawn from a population of 47 561 households of smallholder farmers growing coconut in the county (KNBS, 2019). Cochran's (1963) formula was used to calculate the sample size (Eq. 5). The formula is preferred as it is suitable for a large population (Israel, 1992).

$$n = \frac{Z^2 Pq}{e^2}$$

(5)

Where n is the sample size.

Z is the standard variant at a given confidence level.

P is the proportion of the population containing the major attribute of interest,

q is the weighting variable (1-p).

e is the level of precision.

Given  $P = 0.16$  (from 16%),  $Z = 1.96$  ( $\alpha=95\%$ ),  $q = 0.84$  and  $e = 5\%$

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.16)(0.84)}{(0.05)^2} = 207$$

(6)

The formula leads to 207 households/farmers. The sampled farmers were shared proportionately from the list of farmers groups in the two areas of study.

**Table 4:** *Distribution of sample per Sub-County*

<b>Sub County</b>	<b>Households</b>	<b>Cumulative</b>	<b>Prob (%)</b>	<b>Proportionate</b>
<b>sample</b>				
Kilifi North	6,322	6322	42.68	88
Kilifi South	8492	14814	57.32	119
<b>Total</b>	<b>14,814</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>207</b>

(KNBS, 2019)

#### **3.4.2.2. Sampling of key informants.**

Officials from the sub-county Department of Agriculture and representatives from the NOCD were individually interviewed. A total of 5 key informants were purposively selected to participate in the survey. The sample included two farmer group leaders, two officers of county department of Agriculture, and a representative from the NOCD.

#### **3.5. Data type**

Primary data comprised of quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data was collected using a questionnaire schedule administered to the sampled households. Interviews with key informants, including farmer groups leaders and the sub-county department of agriculture, a representative from NOCD, yielded qualitative data.

#### **3.6. Research Instruments**

The selection of the research instruments is based on their validity and reliability to achieve the objectives of this study. Questionnaires and interview guides were the main research instruments used to collect information for this study. Questionnaires were employed since the research was concerned with variables that could not be observed directly, such as skills, feelings, and behavior. The instruments comprised both closed and open-ended questions for the generation of data. The authors reviewed the literature on *Oryctes rhinoceros* on its essential nutrients, medicinal value, environmental and weather-related attributes, and economic potential of CRB for developing the questionnaire.

##### **3.6.1. Piloting of the instruments.**

To ensure data collection instruments were reliable, the researcher conducted a pretest by randomly selecting coconut farmers in Kilifi South sub-county who were not enrolled in any group to avoid interviewing farmers who later formed part of the sample for the study. In piloting, instruments were administered to 10 farmers. The findings were used to refine the questionnaires to enhance its reliability.

### **3.6.2. Validity of the research Instruments**

In order to ensure the required degree of validity, the instruments were assessed by the supervisors, who are research experts, to ensure the appropriateness of the questions of their relevance in generating answers to the research questions. Further, the researcher conducted pilot study to validate the instruments. Also, the choice of the instrument ensured its validity. In this study, questionnaires were used. Questionnaires help reduce bias because the researcher's own opinions do not influence the respondent to answer in a certain manner (Kothari, 2007). Conversely, interviews provide detailed information since it allows further probing.

### **3.6.3. Reliability of the research Instruments**

To ensure the research instruments' reliability, the researcher undertook a pre-test of the questionnaires in one of the sub-counties. The scores obtained from the questionnaires were correlated to establish the reliability coefficient.

### **3.7. Data collection Procedure.**

Before the start of the data collection, this study's proposal was taken through approval procedures as per the requirement of Jaramogi Oginga Odinga Board of Postgraduate Studies. The researcher obtained an Ethics and Review Committee letter from the university used to obtain a research permit from the National Council of Science and Technology. The researcher also sought permission from the Kipepeo Project, Sub-County department of Agriculture, and NOCD to get secondary data from documents. Also, the researcher sought Kipepeo's permission to get primary data from farmer groups involved in butterfly pupae farming, which doubled as coconut farmers. The researcher personally administered the questionnaires and key interviews with assistance from a field assistant who assisted in the administration of questionnaires. The research assistant was trained on the correct interpretation of the questionnaire questions and ethical considerations. The researcher reviewed all the completed questionnaires from the research assistant daily to ensure the quality of the questionnaires based on the variables of target as indicated in table below:

**Table 5: Measurement of Variables**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Type of Variable</b>	<b>Measure</b>
Farmer Characteristics	Age	Years
	Gender	Categorical variable Male/Female
	Farming experience	Years
	Education level	Categorical variable (Primary, Secondary, Tertiary)
Institutional Support	Extension services	Categorical variable (Yes/No)
	Credit Access	Categorical variable (Yes/No)
	Market availability	Categorical variable (High/Low)
Social Constraints	Urbanization and modernization	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Acceptance of CRB for food and feed	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Culture and social norms	Categorical variable (High/Low)
Production Constraints	Seasonality of the insect	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Lack of feed resources	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Lack of pricing knowledge and uncertainties regarding market price	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Government intervention:	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Lack of finances	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Climate change and extreme weather conditions	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Influence of religion on adoption rates	Categorical variable (High/Low)
CRB Traits	Lack of production equipment	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Nutritious	Categorical variable (High/Low)
	Production cost	Measured in currency (e.g., USD)
	Short production cycle	Measured in days/weeks/months
	Environmental Sustainability	Categorical variable (High/Low)

### 3.8. Data analysis and Analytical techniques

Quantitative data analysis started in the field where data was sorted and checked for correctness and consistency. This was followed by coding the open-ended data, data entry, data cleaning & transformation, and analysis and interpretation. On the other hand, qualitative data was organized according to emerging themes and patterns and assigned numbers to make them measurable. Quantitative data was analyzed through descriptive statistics and inferential statistics using STATA software version 15 (Stata Corp LP, Texas, USA) and IBM SPSS Version 26.

### 3.8.1. Analysis of knowledge levels on the Value of CRB as a farm enterprise.

Knowledge of the farmers was measured on a 3 scale Likert statement of true, false, or don't know. To permit analysis, every true answer was assigned one point while a zero for false or don't know responses (1=True, 0=False). The determination of the mean knowledge score was guided by equation 7 (Jha, 2012).

$$\text{Mean knowledge score} = \frac{n}{N}$$

(7)

Where  $n$  is the total score of the respondents for correct answers,

$N$  is the maximum obtainable score.

The means were categorized into low and high levels, with low and high levels falling below and above the mid-point (0.5).

This technique was employed as it effectively quantifies and summarizes the collective knowledge of smallholder farmers concerning the value of CRB as a farm enterprise. By using the mean knowledge score, the thesis gains valuable insights into the average level of understanding among the farmers, providing a clear measure of their overall knowledge about CRB. This method ensures simplicity and ease of interpretation, enabling straightforward communication of the findings to a wide range of readers.

### 3.8.2. Perception Analysis.

Evaluation of the farmers' perception involved the use of a 5-point Likert scale to solicit responses from the respondents with a scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree on the perceived barriers and values of the *Oryctes rhinoceros*. The study adopted the scale used by Wangda and Dorji (2021) in their study to gauge the perception of teachers and students in explaining the perception levels.

To permit analysis, all neutral responses were categorized as disagreements. This motive is informed by the research by Edwards and Smith (2014) that one of the reasons respondents go for a neutral option is the tendency to satisfice or avoid the cognitive effort to choose a satisfactory answer, especially when they are unmotivated by the

parameter tested. Mean, and Standard deviation for perception responses were then determined by equation 8. The results were then mapped on the scale. Mean values greater than mid-point were categorized as high perceptions, while those below the mid-point (3) were characterized as low.

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum X_i}{N} \quad ; \quad SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{x})^2}{N-1}} \quad (8)$$

Where  $\bar{x}$  is the mean,  $SD$  is the standard deviation,  $\sum X_i$  is the sum of the terms,  $N$  is the number of terms.

Evidence of association between the demographic variables and knowledge and perceptions (KP) of *Oryctes rhinoceros* was explored by cross-tabulation and measured using Chi-square tests guided by the equation 9 (Rana & Singhal, 2015).

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} \quad (9)$$

Where  $O$  represents the observed frequency and  $E$  represents the expected frequency.

Mean and standard deviation as analytical methods represents a highly desirable approach for this objective. By utilizing the mean, the research can ascertain the average perception level of smallholder farmers regarding the production of CRB as a farm enterprise. This measure offers a valuable summary of the central tendency of the responses, providing insights into the typical perception of CRB production among the participants. Additionally, incorporating the standard deviation allows for the examination of the dispersion or variability in farmers' perceptions around the mean. The combination of mean and standard deviation enhances the thesis's ability to uncover nuanced patterns and variations in perception, contributing to a comprehensive and well-rounded understanding of farmers' attitudes towards CRB production.

### 3.8.3. Principal component Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to reduce the components of Knowledge and perceptions to determine their effect on the probability of adopting the micro-farming of CRB as a farm enterprise. It makes it easy to capture most of the observed variance of

the explanatory variables using the smallest possible number of new variables, called principal components (PCs), which are uncorrelated and hence maximize variance. Each principal component is a linear combination of the original variables, with coefficients equal to the eigen vectors of the correlation or covariance matrices. Kaiser-Olkin (KMO) index was applied to assess the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis which should be more than 0.7 (Otieno, 2020). Bartlett's test of sphericity was also employed to ensure that the correlation matrix was not zero in the statistical population. According to Kisaka-Lwayo and Obi, (2012), the computation of the principal component is as follows;

$$PC_n = f(an_iX_i \dots + an_hX_h)$$

(9)

Where PC= component score,  $n$  is the total number of PCs,  $an_i \dots an_h$  represent the component loading and  $X_i \dots X_h$  is the perception indicator variable.

In addition to its desirability as the most reduction method, PCA was chosen as it effectively addresses the issue of multicollinearity, which can occur when the knowledge and perception variables are correlated with each other. By transforming these variables into uncorrelated principal components, PCA ensures the reliability of the results and minimizes potential biases arising from interrelatedness.

#### **3.8.4. Logistic regression model.**

Respondents were asked on a dichotomous scale to determine their willingness to participate in CRB production if they had all resources at their disposal. The imbalance proportion between those willing necessitated investigation of the probability of farmers venturing into this enterprise in the presence of needed resources and skills. Tarekegn, Haji, and Tegegne (2017) posit that the multinomial model is preferred for mutually exclusive alternatives. McFadden (1977) states both probit and logit models can be applied for binary choices. However, probit is preferred for modelling dichotomous options. Therefore, a multinomial probit model was estimated comprising socio-demographic explanatory variables and the highest correlated factor loading of two principal knowledge and perception variables components. The first step to this investigation was performing a bivariate analysis to test the association between the



dependent and independent variables under review. The significant variables were then picked, and a multivariate analysis was conducted. The probability of adoption of the technology was analyzed using the model in equation 10 (Sperandei, 2014).

$$\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1x_1 + \beta_2x_2 + \dots \beta_nx_n + e$$

(10)

Where  $p$  indicates the probability of the event, whether the farmer participates in the farming or not,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$  and,  $\beta_n$  are the regression coefficient associated with the reference group and the  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , and  $X_n$  are the explanatory variables listed in table 6, while  $e$  is the error term.

The choice of the Logistic regression model is eminently fitting. By utilizing the Logistic regression model, the research can effectively model the probability of farmers participating in CRB production, illuminating the likelihood of engagement based on various constraints or factors. The interpretability of the obtained coefficients as odds ratios facilitates a clear understanding of how these constraints influence the likelihood of participation, aiding in the explanation of their effects on farmers' decisions.

**Table 6:** *Factors in the implementation of agricultural initiatives.*

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Effect</b>
Farmers' demographics	1. Farmers' experience and education 2. Age, Gender	+/-
Information and awareness	1. Networking (extension services and farm organizations) 2. Inadequate access to information 3. Education programs	+/-
Financial incentives	1. Time and other expense 2. Capital cost	+/-
Social norms	1. Social conformity and neighbor's acceptance 2. Participation by neighbor(s) 3. Encouragement of family, friends, and neighbors	+/-
Training on insect production	-	+/-
Acceptance	1. Community preference	+/-
Knowledge and perceptions	-	+

### **3.8.5. Constraint Analysis.**

Evaluation of the importance of constraints among the farmers involved the use of The Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance ( $W$ ) to rank the constraints. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance is a measure of the extent of agreement or disagreement among the rankings (Adjebeng-Danquah et al., 2020). The value of  $W$  is positive and ranges from a value of zero (which means there is a maximum disagreement) to one (which means there is a perfect agreement). A resultant lower mean rank implies the importance of the constraint, and a higher mean indicates less importance of the constraint (Prempeh et al., 2017). Kendall's  $W$  is calculated as follows (Kendall, 1955):

$$W = \frac{12[\Sigma T^2 - (\Sigma T)^2/n]}{nm^2(n^2-1)} \quad (11)$$

Where  $T$  denotes sum of ranks for every constraint,  $m$  denotes the number of farmers sampled, and  $n$  denotes the number of constraints being ranked.

Given the subjective nature of evaluating constraints and the likelihood of varying perspectives from different respondents, Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance provides a robust approach to quantify the degree of consensus or disagreement in these rankings. Not only does it consider the order in which constraints are ranked, but it also accommodates ties or equal ranks that can frequently occur in such evaluations.

In contrast, methods like the constraints analysis matrix and problem tree may not be as well-suited for this particular research. While Constraints Analysis Matrix often relies on expert opinions and predefined criteria, it may not fully capture the nuances of smallholder farmers' perspectives. Moreover, this approach might not adequately address ties or equal ranks, potentially leading to a loss of valuable information on constraints with similar significance.

Similarly, the problem tree method, may not address the subjective nature of the ranking process even though it is valuable for visualizing causal relationships between constraints and their consequences.

### **3.9. Ethical Considerations**

The Researcher ensured that informed consent from the respondent was taken before undertaking the research in the field. Permission was sought to ensure respondents voluntarily participated in the study giving assurance to maintain utmost confidentiality about the respondent's information. This was ensured by providing respondents with consent forms to sign before administering the research instruments. Considerations were also made to avoid plagiarism by ensuring that other people's work was duly acknowledged and proper citations and bibliography provided.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS**

### **4.1. Introduction**

The central objective of this study was to contribute to the adoption of the production of CRB (*Oryctes rhinoceros*) by determining the knowledge levels and the perception of the coconut farmers towards this enterprise and assessing the possible constraints to this initiative. To investigate this overarching objective, mixed method was applied. Qualitative results were operationalized by organizing the data into themes which were then assigned numbers to make them measurable and thus consolidating the data as quantitative. This section highlights the findings of the study.

#### 4.2. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Socio-demographic characteristics were heterogeneous across the study area (Table 7).

**Table 7: Respondents' Socio-demographic profile by Ward.**

Characteristics	Sites				
	Chasimba (n=54)	Matsangoni n=(57)	Mwarakaya (n=56)	Watamu (n=40)	Total (n=207)
<b>Gender of farmers</b>					
Male	26.24%	27.66%	28.37%	17.73%	68.12%
Female	25.76%	27.27%	24.24%	22.73%	31.88%
<b>Age group of farmers</b>					
20-30 years	38.30%	23.40%	14.89%	23.40%	22.71%
31-60 years	24.55%	28.18%	22.73%	24.55%	53.14%
Above 60 years	18.00%	30.00%	48.00%	4.00%	24.15%
<b>Education Level</b>					
No formal Education	9.26%	22.81%	12.50%	25.00%	16.91%
Primary	59.26%	43.86%	71.43%	55.00%	57.49%
Post primary	31.48%	33.33%	16.07%	20.00%	25.60%
<b>Religion</b>					
Christianity	40.74%	85.96%	85.71%	72.50%	71.50%
Islam	59.26%	14.04%	14.29%	27.50%	28.50%
<b>Training on Insect Farming</b>					
Yes	48.15%	78.95%	28.57%	57.50%	53.14%
No	51.85%	21.05%	71.43%	42.50%	46.86%
<b>Household size</b>	M= 6.83 SD=2.13	M= 6.68 SD=1.59	M= 6.84 SD=1.85	M= 6.15 SD= 1.97	M= 6.66 SD=1.89
<b>Farm Size</b>	M= 2.65 SD=0.87	M= 3.26 SD=1.00	M= 3.29 SD=1.00	M= 2.88 SD= 0.911	M= 3.03 SD= 0.99
<b>Farming Experience</b>	M=15.09 SD=4.65	M= 12.21 SD=3.58	M= 12.77 SD=3.94	M= 9.63 SD= 4.19	M= 12.613 SD= 4.462
<b>Income</b>	M=82481.48 SD=14747.869	M=75049.123 SD=14320.379	M= 77928.571 SD=14300.486	M= 50325 SD=20614.44	M= 72989.37 SD=19440.277

\*M-mean, SD-Standard Deviation, n-frequency

Source: Survey data, 2021

#### **4.2.1. Gender.**

More than half (68.12%) of the coconut farmers were male, with their female counterparts only contributing to 31.88%.

#### **4.2.2. Education and Age group**

The majority of the farmers had only primary level (57.49%), with only 25% accounting for post-primary. Only 16.91% had no formal education. More than half of the farmers (53.14%) were between ages 31 and 60, with only 24.14% of the respondents over 60 years. Chasimba had the highest proportion (38.30%) of young farmers (below 30 years), with Mwarakaya farmers comprising largely of aged farmers (above 60 years).

#### **4.2.3. Training in Insect Production.**

Regarding training in the production of insects, the majority of the farmers (53.14%) had been trained in insect farming (majorly butterflies and bees) within the region, with only 46.86% having no experience in such enterprises. Matsangoni had the highest number (78.95%) of farmers with prior insect farming exposure, while Mwarakaya had the least number of farmers with prior exposure.

#### **4.2.4. Religion**

Christianity and Islam were the two dominant religions within the study area. 71.50% of the respondent were Christians, with 28.50% being Muslims.

#### **4.2.5. Household Size, Income, Acreage, and farming experience.**

The average household size for the four wards was 6 members with an annual income of Ksh 72,989. On average, farmers had 3 acres of land for coconut production, with experience of more than 12 years in coconut farming.

### **4.3. Knowledge Level on the value of CRB as a farm enterprise determination of the farmers.**

Knowledge score was determined, and the descriptive statistics of the knowledge levels for each attribute were calculated. The mean knowledge scores were calculated for each ward, and the standard deviation was used to measure the dispersion of the data as shown in Table 8. The ANOVA analysis was also conducted to explore whether there were any

significant differences in knowledge levels among farmers from different wards regarding various aspects of the beetle. Results are displayed in table 9.

**Table 8: Knowledge score of each attribute.**

Knowledge Statements	Chasimba	Matsangoni	Mwarakaya	Watamu	Total
	(n=54) %	n= (57) %	(n=56) %	(n=40) %	(n=207) %
CRB contains essential nutrients good for the health	100	89.5	96.4	82.5	92.8
The high nutrient composition in CRB can eliminate diseases	92.6	84.2	85.7	65	83.1
CRB feed on coconut saps, and it is that feed resource that makes them healthy, nutritious and safe	94.4	94.4	96.4	90	94.2
CRB cooking can enhance its edibility and provide nutrients	61.1	68.4	69.6	57.5	64.7
CRB has high levels of health properties incomparable to other animal products	35.2	42.1	30.4	45	37.7
CRB are found throughout the year and are hardly affected by weather changes	77.8	94.7	94.6	90	89.4
CRB can be easier and cheaper to produce in comparison to other livestock	40.7	89.5	73.2	75	69.6
CRB can generate constant income for households	96.3	96.5	89.3	100	95.2
CRB are important food products in household food security	63	68.4	75	45	64.3
CRB production can provide employment for the rural people	51.9	87.7	75	80	73.4
<b>Mean Knowledge Score</b>	Mean= 0.98 SD= 0.136	Mean=1 SD=0	Mean=0.96 SD= 0.187	Mean=0.93 SD = 0.267	Mean=0.97 SD=0.168

**Source: Survey data, 2021**

At least ninety-two percent of the farmers (n=192) reiterated that CRB contains essential nutrients good for the health of both humans and animals, and 83.1% confirmed that

these nutrients could actually eliminate deficiency diseases among the vulnerable group such as children. Regarding the safety of such nutrients, 94.2% were privy to the beetle's food, making it safer for livestock and human consumption. Further, a significant proportion of 64.7% confirmed that adding value through cooking can enhance the edibility of the beetle. Concerning the health properties of the beetle, only 37.7% confirmed that the beetle has health-promoting properties. 89.4% of the respondents confirmed that the beetle is less affected by climate change. During harsh conditions, they dig deeper in the trunks of the infested trees and stay there for quite a long time. 69.6% of the farmers acknowledged that the beetle could be cheaper to produce relative to other livestock enterprises. In support of this attribute, many farmers (95.2%) confirmed that it could generate constant incomes for the household. When asked about the contribution of the beetle, 63.4% confirmed that it could be an important food product for household food security, while 73.4% acknowledged that it could employ rural people.

On average, Matsangoni farmers were more knowledgeable (mean=1) about various aspects of CRB, while farmers from Watamu ward were the least knowledgeable (mean=0.93). Chasimba and Mwarakaya farmers also had good knowledge of the value of CRB. In sum, the results showed that farmers in the four sites had good knowledge of the attributes of the *Oryctes rhinoceros*, with a mean of 0.97 ( $\pm$  0.168). Each individual ward had a mean greater than the mid-point (0.5) of the scale, which justifies the good knowledge.

In addition to the descriptive statistics, ANOVA was performed to provide more insights. In the ANOVA, the Levene's test was performed to assess the assumption of homogeneity of variances. Results showed that there was no violation of the homogeneity of variances based on the comparison of median ( $p > 0.05$ ) displaying robustness of ANOVA. The results of the ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference in knowledge levels among the four wards ( $F(3, 203) = 3.456, p = 0.019$ ). Post-hoc Tukey's HSD test revealed specific paired differences between the wards. The results showed that Matsangoni farmers had significantly higher knowledge levels (mean difference = 0.07,  $p < 0.05$ ) compared to farmers from Watamu ward. However, there were no significant



differences in knowledge levels between Chasimba and Mwarakaya, and between Chasimba and Watamu ( $p > 0.05$ ). These findings align with the mean knowledge scores reported earlier, where Matsangoni farmers were found to be the most knowledgeable (mean = 1), while Watamu farmers had the lowest knowledge scores (mean = 0.93). The results are depicted in table 9 below.

**Table 9: ANOVA test results for Knowledge levels**

<b>a. Test of Homogeneity of Variances</b>					
		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Knowledge	Based on Mean	7.133	3	203	0.000
	Based on Median	1.679	3	203	0.173
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.679	3	114.102	0.176
	Based on trimmed mean	3.090	3	203	0.028

**b. ANOVA**

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0.141	3	0.047	3.456	0.019
Within Groups	5.685	203	0.028		
Total	5.826	206			

**c. Multiple Comparisons**

Dependent Variable: Knowledge

Tukey HSD

(I) Ward	(J) Ward	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Chasimba	Matsangoni	0.019	0.032	0.937	-0.10	0.06
	Mwarakaya	0.017	0.032	0.949	-0.07	0.10
	Watamu	0.056	0.035	0.371	-0.03	0.15
Matsangoni	Chasimba	0.019	0.032	0.937	-0.06	0.10
	Mwarakaya	0.036	0.031	0.669	-0.05	0.12
	Watamu	0.075	0.035	0.034	-0.01	0.16
Mwarakaya	Chasimba	-0.017	0.032	0.949	-0.10	0.07
	Matsangoni	-0.036	0.031	0.669	-0.12	0.05
	Watamu	0.039	0.035	0.669	-0.05	0.13
Watamu	Chasimba	-0.056	0.035	0.371	-0.15	0.03
	Matsangoni	-0.075	0.035	0.034	-0.16	0.01
	Mwarakaya	-0.039	0.035	0.669	-0.13	0.05

#### 4.4. Farmers' Perceptions on CRB Production as a Farm Enterprise.

Computation of the perceptions is displayed in Table 10. The proportion of the outcome was then extrapolated to give the mean and standard deviations (Table 11).

**Table 10:** *Frequency distribution of respondents on perception*

<b>Perception Statement</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
CRB farming is a women's activities/business	8.2	31.4	20.8	9.2	30.4
CRB is only poor people's food and traditional lifestyle.	10.1	45.4	20.8	15.5	8.2
CRB consumption may cause health problems	50.7	21.7	21.3	2.4	3.9
CRB is unfashionable and not trendy as compared to other foods.	30.4	9.2	15.9	28.5	15.9
CRB farming can be time consuming and cumbersome	36.2	20.3	22.7	12.6	8.2
CRB can be a viable enterprise	9.2	4.3	13.0	39.1	34.3
CRB can be farmed and sold for food and feed.	3.9	0.5	5.8	32.4	57.5
The taste, appearance quality of CRB is not as good as that of modern food and feed products and can be hard to be taken up by people.	6.8	6.8	14.5	15.9	56.0
CRB can be cheap to produce and maintain supply compared to other enterprises.	10.1	1.0	23.2	27.1	38.6

\*SD-Strongly Disagree, D-Disagree, N-Neutral, A-Agree, SA-Strongly Agree

**Source: Survey, 2021**

More than half of the farmers (60.4%) disagreed with the negative attribute that CRB farming can only be a women's affair, 76.3% similarly disagreed that CRB can only be poor people's food, while 93.7% of the respondents further disagreed that consumption of CRB can cause health problems. 55.6% of the respondents disagreed that CRB farming is unfashionable and not trendy, while 79.2% disagreed that the farming of the beetle can be tiresome and cumbersome. Regarding positive attributes, 89.9% of the respondents agreed that CRB can be farmed for food and feed. In comparison, 65.7% affirmed that the beetle can be cheap to produce relative to other livestock enterprises. Concerning the taste, appearance, and quality of CRB food, 72% agreed that it is incomparable to modern food and may be less competitive. Lastly, there was a strong agreement in relation to the cost of production of the beetle. The majority agreed that the beetle can be cheap to produce and maintain supply compared to other enterprises.

**Table 11:** Mean rating of farmers' perceptions towards the production of CRB as a farm enterprise.

Perception statements	Mean	SD	Cronbach Alp.
<b>Perceived barriers</b>			
CRB farming can be a women's activities/business	3.22	1.383	0.521
CRB is only poor people's food and traditional lifestyle.	2.66	1.111	
CRB consumption may cause health problems	1.87	1.074	
CRB is unfashionable and not trendy as compared to other foods.	2.90	1.494	
CRB farming can be time consuming and cumbersome.	2.36	1.307	
The taste appearance quality of CRB is not as good as that of modern food and feed products and can be hard to be taken up by people.	4.08	1.259	
<b>Perceived values</b>			
CRB can be a viable enterprise	3.85	1.207	0.715
CRB can be farmed and sold for food and feed.	4.39	.922	
CRB can be cheap to produce and maintain supply compared to other enterprises.	3.83	1.245	

**Source: (Survey data, 2021)**

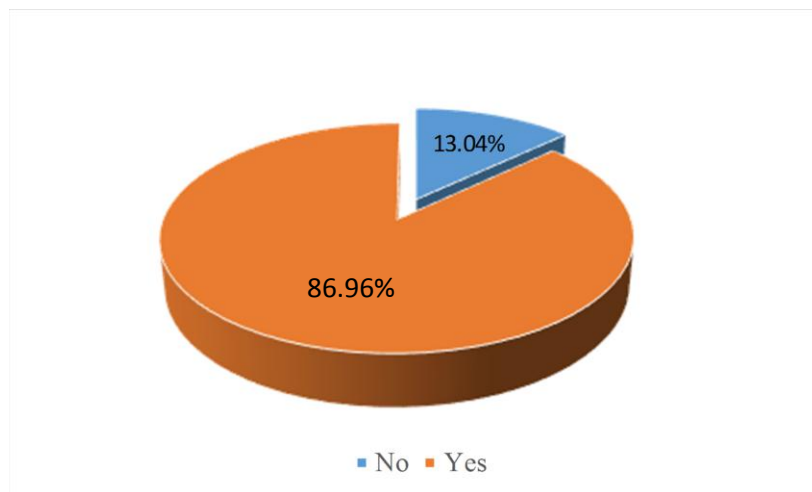
Perception statements were categorized into perceived barriers and values to extrapolate means. The Cronbach alpha for perceived barrier statements was 0.521. Yusoff (2012) and Streiner, Norman, and Cairney (2015) noted that items are considered to have an acceptable internal consistency level if alpha value falls between 0.5 and 0.7. However, values falling above 0.7 are considered a good level. Therefore, 0.521, in this case, shows that the scores for the various barrier statements are acceptable to be summed up into an overall score. The overall mean of the perceived barrier score computed was 2.8483 and significantly lower than the average point of the scale ( $t=59.004$ ,  $P<0.000$ ). This indicates that the study participants, on average, disagreed that the barriers were not significant enough to deter people from venturing into the enterprise.

The strongest perceived barriers were that of taste and appearance of coconut rhinoceros beetle larva that cannot match the modern food items (mean=4.08) and that CRB farming being regarded as a women's activity (mean=3.22). Farmers disagreed that CRB farming is unfashionable and not trendy (mean=2.90). Additionally, farmers showed their

disagreements with the idea that CRB is old people's food, farming could be time consuming, and its consumption may cause health problems, as depicted from the means of 2.66, 2.36, and 1.87, respectively. All these means were falling below the mid-point scale, showing overall disagreement of the farmers to the mentioned barriers.

In contrast, the Cronbach alpha for value statements was 0.715 showing that the scores for the various value statements can be summed up into an overall score. The overall mean value score computed was 4.023 and significant ( $t=63.903$ ,  $P<0.000$ ). The strongest perceived value was that CRB can be farmed and sold for food and feed (mean=4.39). The viability of CRB enterprise came second with a mean of 3.85. Lastly, farmers affirmed the cost benefits of producing the beetle and maintaining supply compared to other enterprises (mean=3.83). All the means in perceived values fell above the midpoint scale, illustrating strong agreement of the farmers towards the adoption of this enterprise. In comparison, a paired sample t-test ( $t=-13.953$ ;  $P<0.000$ ) revealed a significant difference between the scores.

#### 4.5. Degree of Participation in the Production of *Oryctes Rhinoceros*



**Figure 4:** Degree of Participation of farmers

**Source:** Survey data 2021

At least eighty-six percent of the respondents were willing to participate in farming compared to 13.04% who were reluctant.

#### 4.6. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for Knowledge and Perception variables.

The results showed that the statistical value of the KMO was 0.730, confirming sampling adequacy to perform the PCA. The significance of Bartlett's index was 0.00 (Table 12). This conclusion implied that the assumption of homogeneity of the correlation matrix was rejected, and thus there was a significant relationship between the entered variables. Therefore, the structure of the research data was suitable for the PCA.

**Table 12:** *KMO and Bartlett's Test of sphericity of sampling adequacy*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.729
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	791.787
	df	171
	Sig.	.000

The next step to PCA involved the generation of specific values and variances corresponding to the identified latent factors. Consequently, five factors that had eigenvalues higher than 1 were extracted. These factors, together, totally accounted for 52.77% of the variance. The factor loadings method was then employed to elicit factors that explain statistically the variances within the statements, and the principal components were generated. To extract the latent factors and determine on which factor each variable was loaded, only items with a factor loading greater than 0.5 were selected. The other items with a lower loading factor were excluded from the analysis (Kalantari & Akhyani, 2021). Varimax oblique rotation was used for rotating factors. The analysis yielded two dimensions with eigenvalues of 7.476 and 2.62, respectively. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the overall model were 0.764. The first retained component had Cronbach's alpha value of 0.704, and it accounted for 18.02% of the variance. The second retained component had Cronbach's alpha value of 0.715, and it accounted for 13.075% of the variance. The Cronbach alphas were satisfactory, which means that the test for these samples of farmers had good reliability. The reduced dataset of two principal components (Table 13) explained 31.097% of the total variability meaning the

PCA results explained the data well. In addition, each item included in the analysis showed a satisfactory loading of more than 0.5, justifying performing PCA analysis.

**Table 13:** *Principal Component Analysis Factor Loading of KP components.*

Factor and Item Description.	Factor Loadings	% Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha test
<b>FACTOR 1:</b> “Value factor of CRB”		18.024	0.704
The high nutrient composition in CRB can eliminate deficiencies and solve the problems of food insecurity.	0.824		
CRB contains essential nutrients especially proteins, in large proportions good for the health.	0.761		
CRB cooking can enhance its edibility and provide nutrients.	0.664		
<b>FACTOR 2:</b> “Ease of farming.”		13.073	0.715
CRB can be a viable enterprise	0.774		
CRB can be farmed and sold for food and feed.	0.762		
CRB can be cheap to produce and maintain supply compared to other enterprises.	0.670		

**4.7. Logistic regression to determine the probability of participation in the enterprise.**

**Table 14:** *Probability of participation in Oryctes rhinoceros Production*

Participation in Production	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	P>z
Acreage	3.333966	1.117617	0.000*
Marital Status	1.250864	.4238743	0.509
Education level	1.143394	.5726737	0.789
Household head	1.149366	.8580227	0.852
Religion	6.227355	4.202532	0.007*
Age group	.2716791	.1295358	0.006*
Income1	2.942777	1.629737	0.050*
Training	2.212899	1.611658	0.275
Access to Information	7.297688	5.306301	0.006*
Community Acceptance	1.000461	.6561777	0.999
Culture and Norms	2.035791	1.298608	0.265
FACTOR1	.6217537	.4129339	0.474
FACTOR2	.5816806	.2291456	0.169
_cons	.1332846	.384004	0.484

Note: \_cons estimate baseline Odds; LR chi2(13) = 74.20; Prob > chi2 = 0.0000; Log likelihood = -43.055246; Pseudo R2 = 0.4628; \* significance level at 5%.

Acreage proved to be significant and a determinant to the probability of participation in CRB production (p=0.000). Farmers with more acres of land were 3.33 more likely to participate in the production than farmers with less than an acre. Religion also proved to be a determinant (p=0.007) in the participation of CRB production. The odds ratio of religion shows that when holding other variables constant, the farmer is likely to participate 6 times in CRB farming if they are a Christian than a Muslim. The analysis



showed that age ( $p=0.006$ ) and income ( $p=0.050$ ) significantly affected the willingness to participate in CRB production and respectively). Farmers between 20 and 40 years were the most likely group to adopt the enterprise than the reference group that consisted of farmers aged 60 and above. Farmers that earned income above Ksh 81000 were twice more likely to embrace the technology than farmers who earned Ksh 10000 annually. Furthermore, information regarding edible insect farming was critical and significant ( $p=0.006$ ) to the adoption and success of the enterprise. On the contrary marital status, education level, household head, training, community access, and culture were insignificant factors in the adoption of the production of *Oryctes Rhinoceros*. Knowledge and perceptions levels were also not significant and hence would less likely determine the probability of adoption.

#### **4.8. Constraints towards Participation in CRB Production as a farm enterprise among Smallholder Farmers.**

The coefficient of concordance ( $W$ ) was estimated as 0.51 and statistically significant at 1%, showing agreement among the farmers. Hence, we failed to reject the null hypothesis showing sufficient evidence that the evaluated factors will compromise adoption.

**Table 15:** *Kendall's Coefficient of concordance results showing data response agreement.*

N	207
Kendall's W <sup>a</sup>	.505
Chi-Square	1253.962
df	12
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance

The study identified 13 potential constraints towards adopting the *Oryctes rhinoceros*, ranging from social, legislative and religious, and technical factors.

**Table 16:** *Ranking of the importance of constraints to adoption of CRB as an enterprise.*

<b>Constraint</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>	<b>Rank Position</b>
Lack of knowledge and skills in CRB production and nutrition information	2.35	1
Lack of information and awareness (Inadequate access to information)	2.92	2
Urbanization and modernization	3.87	3
Lack of acceptance of CRB for food and feed.	6.56	7
Culture and social norms will make it difficult	8.04	8
Seasonality of the insect	9.36	10
Lack of feed resources	6.35	5
Lack of pricing knowledge and uncertainties regarding market price.	6.35	5
Government intervention (legal issues)	9.64	11
Lack of finances (capital cost)	10.31	12
Climate change and extreme weather conditions	10.61	13
Influence of religion	8.90	9
Lack of production equipment	5.74	4

**Source: Survey data, 2021**

Inadequate knowledge was ranked the most important constraining factor within the assessed factors in the adoption of the enterprise, with a mean of 2.35. The second factor ranked was the inadequate information access and awareness to the edible insect enterprises with a mean of 2.92. Urbanization and modernization in the region were ranked third constraining factors with a mean of 3.87. Lack of production equipment came fourth with a mean rank of 5.74. Seasonality, Legal issues, Climate change, Lack of finances, and climate change and weather changes were some of the least impediments as given by the farmers taking 10<sup>th</sup>, 11<sup>th</sup>, 12<sup>th</sup>, and 13<sup>th</sup> ranks with respective means of 9.36, 9.64, 10.31, and 10.61.

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

### 5.1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Farmers

The demographic analysis of the respondents revealed heterogeneous results. While the respondents (coconut farmers) were randomly selected, the results show an imbalance in gender composition in which there were more male farmers than females, contrary to the historic cultural trends in Kenya. Drawing from Nyairo's (2020) research, the composition of agricultural labor in Kenya is made largely by females who often work on farms while their male counterparts mainly engage in off-farm activities whose earnings are channeled to support the on-farm activities. This high number of males can be attributed to the attractiveness of coconut farming as a well-paying cash crop (Mwangi, 2014) with limited labor compared to laborious food crops. The majority of the farmers were between the ages of 31 to 60. Similarly, Kisengese (2012) showed that most coconut farmers in Kilifi County were over 31 years old. While Kenya's constitution defines youth as people of ages between 18 and 35, the government's efforts are concentrated on this age group to uplift agricultural activities as they are believed to be versatile; these findings are contrasting. Every versatile person within the study area seemed to view the agricultural enterprises as well paying, which explains the more significant proportion of those falling in the age category of 31 to 60. The high number of trained farmers in insect production can be attributed to the presence of institutions that support farmers in insect farming. Particularly, Kipepeo Project has enhanced the exposure of farmers in the region to new enterprises of butterfly farming. The fewer people who have not received training may be because of the distance to such institutions as they are in far-flung areas.

Compared to other parts of the country, an annual income of Ksh. 72,989 is a relatively higher annual income mainly because of the huge participation of growing coconut, which is paying relatively higher as compared to other cash crops (Mwangi, 2014). However, based on the average household size (6 members), this level of income (Ksh 72,989) is not sufficient to guarantee food security as it signifies an individual living below the poverty index. This value is even higher than the national average household

size of 4 members (KNBS, 2019). Consequently, the household conditions are aggravated by the larger household sizes, which drain the available resources.

## **5.2. Knowledge Levels of the Farmers**

The coconut farmers have good knowledge of the attributes of the *Oryctes rhinoceros*. The number of farmers enrolled in insect farming in Kipepeo Project from Matsangoni is more than the rest of the county, explaining their high knowledge levels in insect production. The overall high levels of knowledge in the study area can be attributed to the history of consumption of the beetle in the region. Farmers often have retained knowledge of their traditions that take time to disappear (Kuehne et al., 2017). In every community, the tradition of the types of the foods and other knowledge aspects of the culture is passed from one generation to the other, informing the new generation of the foods that were regarded as highly delicious by the forefathers. While some of the ideas will disappear due to civilization, tradition is rooted in the traditional knowledge of indigenous people. Contribution such as education only adds value to what exists. Nearly half of the Farmers (46.86%) in the study sites stated they have no prior exposure to training in insect farming. This shows that, while there may be knowledge among the farmers concerning insect consumption, continued education through extension services is pivotal to promoting such innovative production systems. According to Omoro (2015), extension services are vital for imparting rural people with prerequisite knowledge and other information required to increase the productivity and sustainability of farming systems. Ntawuruhunga et al. (2020) posit that knowledge is vital in determining not only the type of an enterprise but also contributes to the success of such enterprises.

## **5.3. Farmers' perception of the adoption of the CRB farm enterprise**

It was also found that farmers have a significantly higher perception of the *Oryctes rhinoceros* production as a farm enterprise. Value perceptions were generally stronger and more outspoken than perceived barriers. Thus, farmers have a high degree of acceptance of this novel enterprise. These findings are in line with Verbeke et al. (2015), who found that the perceived benefits of utilizing insects' value outweigh perceived risks or barriers to insect acceptance. Similarly, drawing evidence from Oppong's work (2017), the perceived value of Black Soldier Fly Larva as fish feed among the Ghanaian

farmers outweighed the perceived risks. In sum, the positive perception is likely to translate to the adoption of the enterprise by other farmers through personal communication, as drawn from research by Hagerstrand (1967). According to Hagerstrand (1967), the approach works when farmers can determine the usefulness of a particular activity in their own situation and gets to provide some form of vicarious trial for some more averse farmers.

#### **5.4. Determinants of participation in the production of the CRB**

Despite the high willingness to participate in CRB farming, a smaller proportion was still unwilling to rear the insect, which could be attributed to intrinsic and extrinsic factors, such as religious influences, and disgusting features of insects besides knowledge and perception levels. A study by Chan (2014) evaluating disgust and the human ecology of insects also showed that the prominence of disgust as a mediating factor in insects' acceptability as foods flawed the interventions to encourage insect consumption. Research by Manditsera et al. (2018) also coincides with these findings as the researchers found out that urbanization and religion influenced the interventions of introducing insect foods in Zimbabwe.

Land size, religion, age, income, and access to information significantly influenced the probability of adoption of the beetle enterprise. Specifically, land size outcome resonated with those of Kisengese (2012), who found out that it is a key determinant in implementing agricultural activities. Farmers with large acreage were most likely to participate in new projects than those with smaller farms. Research by Abrha (2015) also concurs with these results as the author cited that places with small land sizes have more people in off-farm sources of income since the farm income is not sufficient to support household needs. On the contrary, Kinyangi's (2014) findings conflict with these findings. The researcher noted that farmers with large acres of land often would be reluctant to adopt new agricultural technologies citing the possibility of occurrence of substantial losses due to new technologies in the larger fields.

Christianity and Islam were the two dominant religions in the study sites. Religions globally follow some standardized code of ethics that guide their behavior. In particular, Muslims have halal operations observed under numerous Halal standards across the globe

(Rahim, 2018). According to Rahim (2018), several Islamic countries have established their own guidelines for the type of food permissible for consumption on top of The Standards and Metrology Institute for Islamic Countries (SMIIC). Respondents who cited that religion would deter them from CRB production were few Christians. The study by Lang (2018) in determining the role of religion in agriculture confirms these findings. The author found out that religion is a determinant in the development of agriculture, with some being deterred by religious forces.

The age of the farmers proved a determinant of their willingness to adopt the technology. Evidence from other research also supports these findings. Kinyangi (2014) revealed that age is one of the demographic characteristics that positively and significantly influenced farming technology adoption. Further, Ngeywo, Basweti & Shitandi (2015) also asserted that younger people tend to adjust faster and well to new technologies than the elderly, who are conservative. However, the findings of White (2012) conflict with these findings. White noted that evidence suggests that young men and women in rural areas are opposed to farming technologies, and they are less likely to adopt the new technologies in farming. This finding can be attributable to the fact that youths view farming as a "not so cool activity" and therefore do not take it with utmost seriousness as the old.

Income is integral to the introduction of this technology. Income forms the part of the capital that is needed for the adoption of the new enterprise. Kinyangi (2014) confirms these assertions based on his findings that capital influences agricultural technology adoption among smallholder farmers. While income may have proven to be statistically significant to the beetle enterprise, it is not capital demanding, and farmers can easily use rudimentary farming methods. A preliminary report by Wangui (2019) shows that edible insect farming is not labor-intensive, and the capital required is negligible.

Training and community acceptance proved significant to CRB production from the bivariate analysis. However, results from the multivariate showed that the factors are not significant. This, therefore, implies that, when training is taken with no contravening effect from other factors, the farmer is most likely to participate when he has been trained. But when other factors intervene, the factor ceases to be significant. These

findings are attributed to the fact that edible insect farming is basic and requires rudimentary methods. Farmers can easily allow the beetle to hatch from the tree trunks with little or no interference that does not necessarily require pre-exposure in the enterprise. Farming and management of edible farming is simple and do not require in-depth training (Wilson, 2012; Mlček et al., 2014; Govorushko, 2019). Conversely, the outcome of the community acceptance is attributable to the fact that acceptance or rejection of technology is dependent on other factors such as information access. Assuming such factors are not intervening, and there is no reliable source of the community, then it is poised to be a significant determinant. According to Ntshangase, Muroyiwa & Sibanda (2018), acceptance of new farming technologies in the community significantly impacts the promotion and existence in the community.

Besides training, access to information regarding edible insect farming is critical and significant to the adoption and success of the enterprise. Information Access for the general consumption of both the public and the farmers is integral to the success of the beetle for food and feed. Odongo (2014) noted that one of the reasons behind non acceptance of new farming innovations is inadequate information about such technologies. In this light, availing information through adequate training to the community would ensure the smooth commercialization of the edible insect. Such information on the nutritional components, pricing information, and valuable forms of the insect, among others, would enlighten farmers, thereby witting them further.

Knowledge and perception factors were not significant and less likely to influence the participation of the farmers in the enterprise. This can be attributed to the fact that farmers have retained knowledge from their culture, and since they are also open to trying new agricultural initiatives amid losses in farm produce from mainstream agricultural activities, they are positive about trying this novel enterprise. 86.96% of the farmers against 13% of the participants cited trying the venture depicting insignificance of the factors.

##### **5.5. Potential constraints in the adoption of the CRB farm enterprise.**

While inadequate knowledge and inadequate information came first and second in ranks, the results are contrary to the previous research, which has shown that the two factors

have little or no effect on the production of edible insects (Wilson, 2012; Mlček et al., 2014; Govorushko, 2019). These findings are attributed to the fact that edible insect farming is basic and requires rudimentary methods. Farmers can easily allow the beetle to hatch from the tree trunks with little or no interference that does not necessarily require pre-exposure in the enterprise. Therefore, success in the enterprise does not require in-depth training. However, in the study area, in particular, the production of coconut rhinoceros beetle, these may be significant impediments as there are no previous experiences among farmers in the production of the beetle. Therefore, offering adequate training and imparting knowledge on this novel enterprise would help achieve the rationale.

Many people are being modernized and migrating to urban centers leaving rural life. Coconut rhinoceros' larvae utilization is majorly concentrated within rural areas, and because of this reason, it will impede the success of the enterprise. Also, some rural croplands have been reduced due to the increased urbanization level hence, a severe impediment to the farming of the beetle. Similar to Wang et al.'s (2021) findings, urbanization has threatened food security, reducing croplands' availability. According to Wang et al. (2021) in the scenario analysis of China's urbanization, an increase in China's urbanization level up from 56% is likely to release over 5.8 million hectares of rural land for agricultural production, thereby compromising factors in food security.

Religion is one of the least factors that may impede the production of the beetle. Farmers understood the fact that beetle could both be used as a source of food and feed. Therefore, Muslims who are barred by their religious code of ethics of consumption of insects can as well specialize in the production of the beetle for poultry feeds. This is similar to the previous findings by Lang (2018), suggesting that religion is a determinant in the development of agriculture, with some being deterred by religious forces.

Seasonality and climate change have the least effect on this enterprise's adoption. CRB is not affected by whether condition. In fact, 89.4% of the respondents confirmed that the beetle is less affected by climate change. During harsh conditions, they dig deeper into the trunks of the infested trees and stay there for quite a long time until the rains start.



Therefore, the beetle can still be sourced even in extreme conditions, therefore a less limiting factor.

Legal issues had little effect on the adoption of the enterprise. The government of Kenya has made remarkable steps to achieve a potentially large and valuable edible insect market, with a significant milestone being the passing of regulations on edible insects as new proteins. Therefore, farmers are encouraged to adopt such novel enterprises, as policy deterrents have been lessened. Lastly, lack of finances was the least factor determining beetle farming as the edible insect business requires negligible resources, which have insignificant effects on decision making (Wangui, 2019).

## CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This study sought to assess the farmers' level of knowledge and perceptions, probability, and the potential barriers to the participation of the novel *Oryctes rhinoceros* enterprise. Based on these objectives, it was guided by three research questions. A mixed method approach combining both quantitative and qualitative methods was utilized, presenting meaningful results on the plausibility of introducing the enterprise in Kilifi County, Coastal Kenya. The selected area of the study comprised small to medium sizes that dominate the cultivation of coconut palm trees, yet a region vulnerable to food insecurity. The survey results showed that Kilifi farmers had adequate knowledge and willingness to embrace the enterprise. However, other extrinsic factors such as land size, Age, Religion, Income, and Access to information have proven possible determinants. Also, inadequate knowledge and information access for a section that do not have prerequisite skills, Urbanization, and modernization are some of the most likely impediments to adopting CRB production. Qualitative information revealed inadequate access to training or extension services relating to insect farming, which could explain the knowledge gaps between individual farmers in the various study sites. Further, despite the excellent knowledge and perceptions, no incidences of the farming of the beetle within the region.

It is recommended that for smallholder farmers of Kilifi to adopt beetle production, several intervention issues need to be addressed. There is a need to review and strengthen interventions that will enhance the access to and use of agricultural resources and educate farmers on the importance of agricultural innovations as a tool for food insecurity alleviation, malnutrition, and employment creation. The government extension systems need to incorporate the concepts of edible insects, and farmers need to be sensitized to such novel ideas so that it becomes part of the normal agricultural activities. Sensitization needs to send a message that farmers who are particularly bound to religious ties can farm the beetle entirely as feeds. Agricultural officers should also address the factors that affect the decision to use accept and use agricultural ideas continuously. While edible insect farming requires rudimental knowledge, there is still a need for an effective and efficient extension system capable of rendering the innovation sustainable and useful for economically disadvantaged people, thereby contributing to the common goal of achieving a food secure populace.

Drawing from this research findings, the study recommends future studies to focus on consumer preferences to enable effective commercialization interventions in establishing novel and efficient enterprises. The inclusion of livestock feed traders and even food and feed processors would be an important way to have a balanced view of technology uptake. In the current study, the researcher focused on the farmer level without seeking the views of market dealers regarding their take on the inclusion of *Oryctes rhinoceros* larva in feeds and food resources.

## REFERENCES

- Abrha, B. K. (2015). *Factors affecting agricultural production in Tigray region, northern Ethiopia* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).
- Adjebeng-Danquah, J., Martey, E., Manu-Aduening, J., Gracen, V., Asante, I. K., & Offei, S. K. (2020). Farmers' perception on drought constraints and mitigation strategies in cassava cultivation in northern Ghana: Implications for cassava breeding. *Sustainable Futures*, 2, 100041.
- Agea JG, Biryomumaisho D, Buyinza M, Nabanoga GN (2008) Commercialization of *Ruspolia nitidula* (Nsenene grasshoppers) in Central Uganda. *Afr J Food Agric Dev* 8:319–332. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ajfand.v8i3.19195>
- Aguilar-Miranda, E. D., López, M. G., Escamilla-Santana, C., & Barba de la Rosa, A. P. (2002). Characteristics of maize flour tortilla supplemented with ground *Tenebrio molitor* larvae. *Journal of agricultural and food chemistry*, 50(1), 192-195.
- Alemu, M.H., Olsen, S.B., Vedel, S.E., Pambo, K.O. and Owino, V.O. (2015). Consumer Acceptance and Willingness to Pay for Edible Insects as Food in Kenya: The Case of White Winged Termites. IFRO Working Paper 2015/10, Department of Food and Resource Economics (IFRO) University of Copenhagen, Denmark. <https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/204390/1/ifro-wp-2015-10.pdf>
- Alila, P. O., & Atieno, R. (2006). Agricultural policy in Kenya: issues and processes. A paper for the future agricultures Consortium Workshop, Institute of Development Studies, 20–22 March 2006. *Future Agricultures*. [https://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/fsn/docs/Ag\\_policy\\_Kenya.pdf](https://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/fsn/docs/Ag_policy_Kenya.pdf)
- Allen, M., Kilpatrik, D., Armstrong, M., Briggs, R., and Perez, N. (2002). Multistage cluster sampling design and optimal sample sizes for estimation of fish discards from commercial trawlers. *Fisheries Research*, 55: 11–24.
- ASPS-ABD/KCDA. (2010). Coconut Value Chain Analysis Report.
- Ayemele AG, Muafor FJ, Levang P (2016) Indigenous management of palm weevil grubs (*Rhynchophorus phoenicis*) for rural livelihoods in Cameroon. *J Insects Food Feed* 3:43–50. <https://doi.org/10.3920/JIFF2016.0002>

- Ayieko, M. A., Ogola, H. J., & Ayieko, I. A. (2016). Introducing rearing crickets (gryllids) at household levels: adoption, processing and nutritional values. *Journal of insects as Food and Feed*, 2(3), 203-211.
- Ayieko, M.A., J.N Kinyuru, M.F Ndong'a G.M Kenji. (2012). Nutritional value and consumption of Black insects (*Carebare vidua* Smith) from the Lake Victoria Region in Kenya. *Advance Food Science and Technology*, 4(1): 39-45
- Ayieko, M. A., & Oriaro, V. (2008). Consumption, indigenous knowledge and cultural values of the lakefly species within the Lake Victoria region. *African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 2(10), 282-286.
- Banjo, A. D., Lawal, O. A., & Songonuga, E. A. (2006). The nutritional value of fourteen species of edible insects in southwestern Nigeria. *African journal of Biotechnology*, 5(3), 298-301.  
<https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/1807/6678/1/jb06047.pdf>
- Baptista, D. M. S., Farid, M. M., Fayad, D., Kemoe, L., Lanci, L. S., Mitra, M. P., ... & Unsal, M. F. D. (2022). *Climate change and chronic food insecurity in sub-saharan Africa*. International Monetary Fund.
- Bedford, G. O. (2009). Mass rearing of the coconut palm rhinoceros beetle for release of virus. *PANS*, 22(1), 5-10.  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/287464327\\_Advances\\_in\\_the\\_control\\_of\\_rhinoceros\\_beetle\\_Oryctes\\_rhinoceros\\_in\\_oil\\_palm](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/287464327_Advances_in_the_control_of_rhinoceros_beetle_Oryctes_rhinoceros_in_oil_palm)
- Bedford, G. O. (2014). Advances in the control of rhinoceros beetle, *Oryctes rhinoceros* in oil palm. *Journal of Oil Palm Research*, 26(3), 183-194.  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/287464327\\_Advances\\_in\\_the\\_control\\_of\\_rhinoceros\\_beetle\\_Oryctes\\_rhinoceros\\_in\\_oil\\_palm](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/287464327_Advances_in_the_control_of_rhinoceros_beetle_Oryctes_rhinoceros_in_oil_palm)
- Berger, S., & Wyss, A. M. (2020). Consumers' Willingness to Consume Insect-Based Protein Depends on Descriptive Social Norms. *Frontiers in sustainable food systems*, 144. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2020.00144>
- Bernard, T., & Womeni, H. M. (2017). Entomophagy: insects as food. *Insect physiology and ecology*, 233.
- Bowman, M. S., & Zilberman, D. (2013). Economic factors affecting diversified farming systems. *Ecology and society*, 18(1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.5751/ES-05574-180133>

- Camenzuli, L., Van Dam, R., De Rijk, T., Andriessen, R., Van Schelt, J., & der Fels-Klerx, V. (2018). Tolerance and excretion of the mycotoxins aflatoxin B<sub>1</sub>, zearalenone, deoxynivalenol, and ochratoxin A by *Alphitobius diaperinus* and *Hermetia illucens* from contaminated substrates. *Toxins*, *10*(2), 91. <https://doi.org/10.3390/toxins10020091>
- Césard, N. (2004). Harvesting and commercialization of kroto (*Oecophylla smaragdina*) in the Malingping area, West Java, Indonesia. *For césard est products, livelihoods and conservation: case-studies of non-timber forest product systems*, *1*, 61-77.
- Chan, C. J. L. (2014). Disgust and the Human Ecology of Insect Consumption: Examining the Barriers to Anthro-po-Entomophagy.
- Chege, J., Lemba, J., Semenye, P., & Muindi, E. (2016). Influence of Household Characteristics on Food Security Status of Smallholder Farmers in Kilifi Sub-County, Kenya. *Asian Journal of Agricultural Extension, Economics & Sociology*, *12*(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.9734/ajaees/2016/26845>.
- Chia, S. Y., Macharia, J., Diro, G. M., Kassie, M., Ekesi, S., van Loon, J. J., ... & Tanga, C. M. (2020). Smallholder farmers' knowledge and willingness to pay for insect-based feeds in Kenya. *PloS one*, *15*(3), e0230552.
- Christensen, D. L., Orech, F. O., Mungai, M. N., Larsen, T., Friis, H., & Aagaard-Hansen, J. (2006). Entomophagy among the Luo of Kenya: a potential mineral source?. *International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition*, *57*(3-4), 198-203.
- Cochran, W. G. (1963). *Sampling Techniques*, 2nd Ed., New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. <https://hwbdocuments.env.nm.gov/Los%20Alamos%20National%20Labs/General/14447.pdf>
- County Government of Kilifi, (2018). County Integrated Development Plan 2018 - 2022. <https://kilifi.go.ke/content.php?com=2&item=35>.
- David, W., Widianingsih, N. N., Kasim, A., & Ploeger, A. (2012). Role of indigenous knowledge in traditional farming system on natural resources management. In *Proceeding of 2nd International Conference on Biodiversity, Lombok, Indonesia*.

- Dobermann, D., Swift, J. A., & Field, L. M. (2017). Opportunities and hurdles of edible insects for food and feed. *Nutrition Bulletin*, 42(4), 293-308.
- Durst, P. B., & Hanboonsong, Y. (2015). Small-scale production of edible insects for enhanced food security and rural livelihoods: experience from Thailand and Lao People's Democratic Republic. *Journal of Insects as Food and Feed*, 1(1), 25-31.
- Edwards, M. L., & Smith, B. C. (2014). The effects of the neutral response option on the extremeness of participant responses. *Journal of Undergraduate Scholarship*, 6, 30.
- EFSA Scientific Committee. (2015). Risk profile related to production and consumption of insects as food and feed. *EFSA journal*, 13(10), 4257. <https://doi.org/10.2903/j.efsa.2015.4257>
- Hunter, M. C., Smith, R. G., Schipanski, M. E., Atwood, L. W., & Mortensen, D. A. (2017). Agriculture in 2050: recalibrating targets for sustainable intensification. *Bioscience*, 67(4), 386-391.
- FAO (2013). Edible Insects: Future Prospects for Food and Feed Security. FAO Forestry Paper 171, Rome, Italy. <https://www.fao.org/3/i3253e/i3253e.pdf>
- Finke, M. D., Rojo, S., Roos, N., van Huis, A., & Yen, A. L. (2015). The European Food Safety Authority scientific opinion on a risk profile related to production and consumption of insects as food and feed. *Journal of Insects as Food and Feed*, 1(4), 245-247. <https://www.wageningenacademic.com/doi/pdf/10.3920/JIFF2015.x006>
- Fischer, A. R., & Frewer, L. J. (2009). Consumer familiarity with foods and the perception of risks and benefits. *Food Quality and Preference*, 20(8), 576-585.
- Gahukar, R. T. (2016). Edible Insects Farming: Efficiency and Impact on Family Livelihood, Food Security, and Environment Compared With Livestock and Crops. In *Insects as Sustainable Food Ingredients*. Elsevier Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-802856-8.00004-1>
- Gasco, L., Acuti, G., Bani, P., Dalle Zotte, A., Danieli, P. P., De Angelis, A., ... & Roncarati, A. (2020). Insect and fish by-products as sustainable alternatives to conventional animal proteins in animal nutrition. *Italian Journal of Animal Science*, 19(1), 360-372. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1828051X.2020.1743209>

- Ghazoul, J. (2006). Mopane Woodlands and the Mopane Worm: Enhancing rural livelihoods and resource sustainability. Final Technical Report.
- Global Invasive Species Database (2005) Species profile: *Oryctes rhinoceros*. Retrieved from <http://www.iucngisd.org/gisd/species.php?sc=173> on 21-04-2020.
- Govorushko, S. (2019). Global status of insects as food and feed source: A review. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, *91*, 436-445.
- Greene, W. H. (2002). *Econometric analysis*, 5th edition. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey, United States, pp.663–728.
- Guerzoni, M., & Jordan, A. (2016). “Cursed is the ground because of you”: Religion, Ethnicity, and the Adoption of Fertilizers in Rural Ethiopia (No. 201603). University of Turin. <https://ideas.repec.org/p/uto/labeco/201603.html>
- Hägerstrand, T. (1967). Innovation Diffusion as a Spatial Process. Translation and with a Postscript by A. Pred (originally Published in 1953). University of Chicago Press.
- Halloran, A., & Vantomme, P. (2013). The contribution of insects to food security, livelihoods and the environment. *FAO, Rome*.
- Hanboonsong, Y., Jamjanya, T., & Durst, P. B. (2013). Six-legged livestock: edible insect farming, collection and marketing in Thailand. *RAP publication*, *3*.
- Heh, Peter (2014). *Knowledge levels of farmers and use of integrated pest management practices in Hohoe municipality* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Ghana).
- Houghton, J. R., Van Kleef, E., Rowe, G., & Frewer, L. J. (2006). Consumer perceptions of the effectiveness of food risk management practices: A cross-cultural study. *Health, Risk & Society*, *8*(2), 165-183.
- IPIFF. (2019). The European Insect Sector today: challenges, opportunities and regulatory landscape. IPIFF vision paper on the future of the insect sector towards 2030. <https://ipiff.org/ipiff-vision-paper/>
- Israel, G. D. (1992). *Sampling the evidence of extension program impact*. Gainesville, FL: University of Florida Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of Food and Agriculture Sciences, EDIS.
- Jha, K. K. (2012). Factors influencing knowledge level of farmers about social forestry. *Journal of Human Ecology*, *38*(3), 175-180.
- Jongema Y. (2014). List of edible insect species of the world. Wageningen: Laboratory of



Entomology, Wageningen University, The Netherlands;  
[https://www.wur.nl/upload\\_mm/7/4/1/ca8baa25-b035-4bd2-9fdc-a7df1405519a\\_WORLD%20LIST%20EDIBLE%20INSECTS%202015.pdf](https://www.wur.nl/upload_mm/7/4/1/ca8baa25-b035-4bd2-9fdc-a7df1405519a_WORLD%20LIST%20EDIBLE%20INSECTS%202015.pdf)

- Kalantari, F., & Akhyani, N. (2021). Community acceptance studies in the field of vertical farming—A critical and systematic analysis to advance the conceptualisation of community acceptance in Kuala Lumpur. *International Journal of Urban Sustainable Development*, 1-16.
- Kamarudin, N., Moslim, R., Arshad, O., Wahid, M. B., & Chong, A. (2007). Potential of Utilizing Rhinoceros Beetles (*Oryctes rhinoceros*) as an Ornamental Fish Feed Supplement. *Journal of*
- Kariuki, C. (2021). *Legal Issues Around Disruptive Agricultural Technology (Ag-tech) In Kenya*. tripleoklaw.com. Retrieved February 3, 2022, from <https://tripleoklaw.com/legal-issues-around-disruptive-agricultural-technology/>.  
<https://tripleoklaw.com/legal-issues-around-disruptive-agricultural-technology/>
- Katayama, N., Ishikawa, Y., Takaoki, M., Yamashita, M., Nakayama, S., Kiguchi, K., ... & Force, S. A. T. (2008). Entomophagy: A key to space agriculture. *Advances in Space Research*, 41(5), 701-705.
- Kendall, M.G., (1955). Rank Correlation Methods. New York: Hafner Publishing Co.
- Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. (2019). 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census. <https://africacheck.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/2019-KPHC-Volume-II.pdf>.
- Kinyangi, A. A. (2014). *Factors influencing the adoption of agricultural technology among smallholder farmers in Kakamega North sub-county, Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).
- Kinyuru, J.N., Kenji, G.M., Muhoho, S.N. & Ayieko, M. (2010). Nutritional potential of longhorn grasshopper (*Ruspolia differens*) consumed in Siaya District, Kenya. *Journal of Agriculture, Science and Technology*, 12: 32-46.
- Kinyuru, J. N., Nyangena, D., Kamau, E., Ndiritu, A., Muniu, J., Kipkoech, C., ... & Mmari, M. (2018). The role of edible insects in diets and nutrition in East Africa. *Edible insects in sustainable food systems*, 93-108.

- Kisaka-Lwayo, M., & Obi, A. (2012). Risk perceptions and management strategies by smallholder farmers in KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa. *International Journal of Agricultural Management*, 1(1029-2016-82245), 28-39
- Kisengese, R. N. (2012). *Factors influencing implementation of agricultural projects in Kilifi county, Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi, Kenya).  
<http://erepository.uonbi.ac.ke/handle/11295/6608>
- Kothari, C. R. (2007). Research methodology methods and techniques. (pp. 1–56). New Delhi: New Age International (P). Ltd
- Kuehne, G., Llewellyn, R., Pannell, D. J., Wilkinson, R., Dolling, P., Ouzman, J., & Ewing, M. (2017). Predicting farmer uptake of new agricultural practices: A tool for research, extension and policy. *Agricultural systems*, 156, 115-125.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agsy.2017.06.007>
- Lang, M. K. (2018). The role of religion in agriculture: reflections from the Bamenda Grassfields of Cameroon since pre-colonial times. *Mgbakoigba: Journal of African Studies*, 7(2), 54-73.  
<https://www.ajol.info/index.php/mjas/article/view/173176>
- Lang, M. K. (2018). The role of religion in agriculture: reflections from the Bamenda Grassfields of Cameroon since pre-colonial times. *Mgbakoigba: Journal of African Studies*, 7(2), 54-73.  
<https://www.ajol.info/index.php/mjas/article/view/173176>
- Lawal, O. A., & Banjo, A. D. (2007). Survey for the usage of arthropods in traditional medicine in southwestern Nigeria. *J Entomol*, 4(2), 104-12.
- Lee, K. (2011). The role of culture in agricultural technology diffusion in Ghana. *Unpublished MMSS Senior thesis, Department of Economics*.  
<https://mmss.wcas.northwestern.edu/thesis/articles/get/765/Lee2011.pdf>
- Leni, G., Cirlini, M., Jacobs, J., Depraetere, S., Gianotten, N., Sforza, S., & Dall'Asta, C. (2019). Impact of naturally contaminated substrates on *Alphitobius diaperinus* and *Hermetia illucens*: uptake and excretion of mycotoxins. *Toxins*, 11(8), 476.  
<https://doi.org/10.3390/toxins11080476>

- Lensvelt, E., and Steenbekkers, L. (2014). Exploring Consumer Acceptance of Entomophagy: A Survey and Experiment in Australia and The Netherlands. *Ecology of Food and Nutrition*, 53: 543-561
- Lokeshwari, R. K., & Shantibala, T. (2010). A review on the fascinating world of insect resources: reason for thoughts. *Psyche: A Journal of Entomology*, 2010.
- Macombe, C., Le Feon, S., Aubin, J., & Maillard, F. (2019). Marketing and social effects of industrial scale insect value chains in Europe: case of mealworm for feed in France. *Journal of Insects as Food and Feed*, 5(3), 215-224.  
<https://doi.org/10.3920/JIFF2018.0047>
- Mancuso T, Poppinato L, Gasco L. (2019). The European insects sector and its role in the provision of green proteins in feed supply. *Calitatea*. 20(S2):374–381.  
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332504133>
- Manditsera, F. A., Lakemond, C. M., Fogliano, V., Zvidzai, C. J., & Luning, P. A. (2018). Consumption patterns of edible insects in rural and urban areas of Zimbabwe: taste, nutritional value, and availability are key elements for keeping the insect-eating habit. *Food Security*, 10(3), 561-570.
- Manjeri, G., Muhamad, R., Faridah, Q. Z., & Tan, S. G. (2013). Morphometric analysis of *Oryctes rhinoceros* (L.) (Coleoptera: Scarabaeidae) from oil palm plantations. *The Coleopterists Bulletin*, 67(2), 194-200.
- Manley, M., Melzer, M. J., & Spafford, H. (2018). Oviposition Preferences and Behavior of Wild-Caught and Laboratory-Reared Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle, *Oryctes rhinoceros* (Coleoptera: Scarabaeidae), in Relation to Substrate Particle Size. *Insects*, 9(4), 141.
- Mancuso, T., Baldi, L., & Gasco, L. (2016). An empirical study on consumer acceptance of farmed fish fed on insect meals: The Italian case. *Aquaculture international*, 24(5), 1489-1507.
- Martins, Y., & Pliner, P. (2005). Human food choices: An examination of the factors underlying acceptance/rejection of novel and familiar animal and nonanimal foods. *Appetite*, 45(3), 214-224.
- Mbetid-Bessane, E. (2005). Commercialization of edible caterpillars in Central African Republic. *Tropicultura*, 23(1), 3.

- Mchombu, K. J., & Mchombu, C. M. (2014). The Role of Information and Knowledge in Poverty Eradication in Africa: a case study of Namibia.
- Meyer-Rochow, V. B. (2008). More feared than revered: insects and their impact on human societies (with some specific data on the importance of entomophagy in a Laotian setting). *Ent. heute*, 20, 3-25.
- Meyers, W. H., & Kalaitzandonakes, N. (2015). World population, food growth, and food security challenges. *Food Security in an Uncertain World (Frontiers of Economics and Globalization, Vol. 15)*, Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, 161-177.
- Melgar- Lalanne, G., Hernández- Álvarez, A. J., & Salinas- Castro, A. (2019). Edible insects processing: Traditional and innovative technologies. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, 18(4), 1166-1191.
- Mlček, J., Rop, O., Borkovcova, M., & Bednářová, M. (2014). A comprehensive look at the possibilities of edible insects as food in Europe-A Review. *Polish Journal of Food and Nutrition Sciences*. <https://doi.org/10.2478/v10222-012-0099-8>
- Muafor, F. J., Gnetegha, A. A., Le Gall, P., & Levang, P. (2015). *Exploitation, trade and farming of palm weevil grubs in Cameroon* (Vol. 178). CIFOR.
- Muafor, F. J., Le Gall, P., & Levang, P. (2012). Contribution of Augosoma Centaurus beetle to rural livelihoods in the East region of Cameroon: study report. [https://horizon.documentation.ird.fr/exl-doc/pleins\\_textes/divers16-02/010062140.pdf](https://horizon.documentation.ird.fr/exl-doc/pleins_textes/divers16-02/010062140.pdf)
- Muafor, F. J., Levang, P., & Le Gall, P. (2014). A crispy delicacy: Augosoma beetle as an alternative source of protein in East Cameroon. *International Journal of Biodiversity, 2014. Oil Palm Research*, 19, 313.
- Mugenda, O. N and Mugenda, A.G. (1999). Research Methods: A Quantitative and Qualitative Approach. Nairobi: ACTS press.
- Mwachiro, E. C., & Gakure, R. W. (2011). Factors affecting the coconut industry from benefitting the indigenous communities of Kilifi District, Kenya. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 1(4), 1-17. <http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol. 1 No. 4; April 2011/28.pdf>

- Mwangi, M. C. (2014). *Contract Farming of Coconut in Kwale and Kilifi Counties: Participation And Productivity Analysis* (Doctoral dissertation, Kenyatta University).
- Nampeera, E. L., Nonnecke, G. R., Blodgett, S. L., Tusiime, S. M., Masinde, D. M., Wesonga, J. M., ... & Abukutsa-Onyango, M. O. (2019). Farmers' knowledge and practices in the management of insect pests of leafy amaranth in Kenya. *Journal of Integrated Pest Management*, 10(1), 31.
- Ngeywo, J., Basweti, E., & Shitandi, A. (2015). Influence of gender, age, marital status and farm size on coffee production: a case of Kisii County, Kenya. *Asian Journal of Agricultural Extension, Economics & Sociology*, 117-125.
- Niassy, S., & Ekesi, S. (2017). *Eating insects has long made sense in Africa. The world must catch up*. The Conversation. Retrieved 7 May 2020, from <https://theconversation.com/eating-insects-has-long-made-sense-in-africa-the-world-must-catch-up-70419>.
- Nkamleu, G. B. (2007). Religious faith and agricultural growth: exploring some correlations in Africa. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/23543157>
- Ntawuruhunga, D., Affognon, H. D., Fiaboe, K. K., Abukutsa-Onyango, M. O., Turoop, L., & Muriithi, B. W. (2020). Farmers' knowledge, attitudes and practices (KAP) on production of African indigenous vegetables in Kenya. *International Journal of Tropical Insect Science*, 40(2), 337-349.
- Ntshangase, N. L., Muroyiwa, B., & Sibanda, M. (2018). Farmers' perceptions and factors influencing the adoption of no-till conservation agriculture by small-scale farmers in Zashuke, KwaZulu-Natal Province. *Sustainability*, 10(2), 555.
- Nyairo, N. M. (2020). *Attitudes and Perceptions of Smallholder Farmers towards agricultural technologies in Western Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, Purdue University).
- Odongo, D. (2014). Agricultural information access among smallholder farmers: Comparative assessment of peri-urban and rural settings in Kenya. *Agricultural Information Worldwide*, 6, 133-137. <https://doi.org/10.2478/v10222-012-0099-8>
- Okaraonye, C. C., & Ikewuchi, J. C. (2009). Nutritional Potential of *Oryctes rhinoceros*' larva. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition*, 8(1), 35-38.

<https://doi.org/0.3923/pjn.2009.35.38>

- Olowu, R. A., Moronkola, B. A., Tovide, O. O., Denloye, A. A., Awokoya, K. N., Sunday, C. E., & Olujimi, O. O. (2012). Assessment of the proximate and mineral status of Rhinoceros beetle larva, *Oryctes rhinoceros* Linnaeus (1758) (Coleoptera: Scarabaeidae) from Itokin, Lagos State, Nigeria. *Research Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 6(3), 118-124. <https://doi.org/10.3923/rjes.2012.118.124>
- Omoru, P. A. (2015). Assessing the extension staff farm visits frequency effect on greenhouse technology performance in small scale farms in Gusii Highlands, Kenya. *Open Access Library Journal*, 2(02), 1. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/oalib.1101135>
- Omotoso, O. T. (2018). The nutrient profile of the developmental stages of palm beetle, *Oryctes rhinoceros* L. *British Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 6 (1), 1, 11.
- Orech, F.O., Christensen, D.L., Larsen, T., Friis, H., Aagard-Hansen, J, Estanbale, B.A. (2007). Mineral content of traditional leafy vegetables from western Kenya. *International Journal of Food Science and Nutrition*, 58: 595-602.
- Otieno, G. O. (2020). *Smallholder Dairy Farmers' Typologies, Collective Action, and Commercialisation in Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, JKUAT-AGRICULTURE).
- Parker AG. (2005). Mass-rearing for sterile insect release. In *Sterile Insect Technique. Principles and Practice in Area-Wide Integrated Pest Management*, ed. VA Dyck, J Heindrichs, AS Robinson, pp. 209–32. Dordrecht, The Neth.: Springer
- Payne, C. L. R. (2015). Wild harvesting declines as pesticides and imports rise: the collection and consumption of insects in contemporary rural Japan. *Journal of Insects as Food and Feed*, 1(1), 57-65.
- Pinotti, L., Giromini, C., Ottoboni, M., Tretola, M., & Marchis, D. (2019). Insects and former foodstuffs for upgrading food waste biomasses/streams to feed ingredients for farm animals. *Animal*, 13(7), 1365-1375. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1751731118003622>
- Prempeh, R., Manu-Aduening, J. A., Asante, B. O., Asante, I. K., Offei, S. K., & Danquah, E. Y. (2017). Farmers' knowledge and perception of postharvest physiological deterioration in cassava storage roots in Ghana. *Agriculture & Food Security*, 6(1), 1-7.

- Raheem, D., Carrascosa, C., Oluwole, O. B., Nieuwland, M., Saraiva, A., Millán, R., & Raposo, A. (2018). *Traditional consumption of and rearing edible insects in Africa, Asia and Europe. Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 1–20. doi:10.1080/10408398.2018.1440191
- Rahim, S. F. (2018). Islamic jurisprudence and the status of arthropods: as alternative source of protein and with regard to E120. *MOJ Food Process Technol*, 6(4), 330-340. <https://doi.org/10.15406/mojfpt.2018.06.00184>
- Rana, R., & Singhal, R. (2015). Chi-square test and its application in hypothesis testing. *Journal of the practice of cardiovascular sciences*, 1(1), 69.
- Ramos-Elorduy J. (2005). Insects a hopeful food. In: Paoletti M, editor. *Ecological Implications of Minilivestock for Sustainable Development*. USA: Science Publishers Inc.
- Ramos-Elorduy, J. (2006). Threatened edible insects in Hidalgo, Mexico and some measures to preserve them. *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine*, 2(1), 51.
- Resh, V.H. & Carde, R.T. (2009). *Encyclopedia of Insects*, Second Edition. ScienceDirect. <http://ibimm.org.br/wp-content/uploads/2017/05/enciclopedia-de-insetos-ingles.pdf>
- Schönfeldt, H. C., & Hall, N. G. (2012). Dietary protein quality and malnutrition in Africa. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 108(S2), S69-S76.
- Schoonenboom, J., & Johnson, R. B. (2017). How to construct a mixed methods research design? *KZfSS Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie*, 69(2), 107-131.
- Sejian, V., Hyder, I., Ezeji, T., Lakritz, J., Bhatta, R., Ravindra, J. P. ... & Lal, R. (2015). Global warming: role of livestock. In *Climate Change Impact on Livestock: Adaptation and Mitigation* (pp. 141-169). Springer, New Delhi.
- Suzuki, E. (2019). World's population will continue to grow and will reach nearly 10 billion by 2050 [Blog]. Retrieved 20 April 2020, from <https://blogs.worldbank.org/opendata/worlds-population-will-continue-grow-and-will-reach-nearly-10-billion-2050>.

- Tanko, M., & Ismaila, S. (2021). How culture and religion influence the agriculture technology gap in Northern Ghana. *World Development Perspectives*, 22, 100301. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wdp.2021.100301>
- Tanko, M., & Ismaila, S. (2021). How culture and religion influence the agriculture technology gap in Northern Ghana. *World Development Perspectives*, 22, 100301. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wdp.2021.100301>
- Tao, J., & Li, Y. O. (2018). Edible insects as a means to address global malnutrition and food insecurity issues. *Food Quality and Safety*, 2(1), 17-26.
- Tarekegn, K., Haji, J., & Tegegne, B. (2017). Determinants of honey producer market outlet choice in Chena District, southern Ethiopia: a multivariate probit regression analysis. *Agricultural and Food Economics*, 5(1), 1-14.
- Anon. (2021). *Know Kilifi - This is Kilifi*. This is Kilifi. Retrieved 20 May 2021, from <https://thisiskilifi.com/know-kilifi/#:~:text=The%20most%20popular%20religions%20in,practices%20of%20their%20traditional%20culture.>
- Ton de Jona (1996). *Types and Qualities of Knowledge*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., AE Enschede, The Netherlands
- United Nations. (2017). World population projected to reach 9.8 billion in 2050, and 11.2 billion in 2100 – says UN. [https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/events/pdf/other/21/21June\\_FINAL%20PRESS%20RELEASE\\_WPP17.pdf](https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/events/pdf/other/21/21June_FINAL%20PRESS%20RELEASE_WPP17.pdf)
- Van Huis A et al. (2013). *Edible Insects: Future Prospects for Food and Feed Security*. Roma: FAO: 1–201
- Van Huis, A. (2013). Potential of insects as food and feed in assuring food security. *Annual review of entomology*, 58, 563-583.
- Van Huis, A. (2015). Edible insects contributing to food security? *Agriculture and Food Security*, 4(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40066-015-0041-5>
- Van Itterbeeck, J., & van Huis, A. (2012). Environmental manipulation for edible insect procurement: a historical perspective. *Journal of ethnobiology and ethnomedicine*, 8(1), 3.



- Varelas, V. (2019). Food Wastes as a Potential New Source for Edible Insect Mass Production for Food and Feed: A review. *Fermentation*, 5(3), 81.
- Wang, S., Bai, X., Zhang, X., Reis, S., Chen, D., Xu, J., & Gu, B. (2021). Urbanization can benefit agricultural production with large-scale farming in China. *Nature Food*, 2(3), 183-191. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00228-6>
- Wangda, K., & Dorji, K. (2021). Teachers and Students Perception on the Impact of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures at Higher Secondary School.
- Wangui, E. (2019). *Feature: Kenyan farmers venture into rearing of edible insects - Xinhua* / *English.news.cn*. Xinhuanet.com. [http://www.xinhuanet.com/english/2019-06/13/c\\_138140890.html](http://www.xinhuanet.com/english/2019-06/13/c_138140890.html)
- Wekesa, C., Ongugo, P., Ndalilo, L., Amur, A., Mwalewa, S., & Swiderska, K. (2017). Smallholder farming systems in coastal Kenya Key trends and innovations for resilience (Issue September).
- Wheatley, P. E. (2015). The Insect Pests of Agriculture in the Coast Province of Kenya: IV—Coconut. *East African Agricultural and Forestry Journal*, 27(2), 105-107. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00128325.1961.11661761>
- White, B. (2012). Agriculture and the generation problem: rural youth, employment and the future of farming. *IDS Bulletin*, 43(6), 9-19.
- Wilson, R. T. (2012). Small animals for small farms. *FAO Diversification Booklet*, (14). <https://www.fao.org/3/i2469e/i2469e.pdf>
- Womeni, H. M., Linder, M., Tiencheu, B., Mbiapo, F. T., Villeneuve, P., Fanni, J., & Parmentier, M. (2009). Oils of insects and larvae consumed in Africa: potential sources of polyunsaturated fatty acids. *Oléagineux, Corps gras, Lipides*, 16(4-5-6), 230-235.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a post-graduate student at Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology. In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the conferment of the Master of Science degree in Food Security and Sustainable Agriculture degree, I am conducting a research on **Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle as a farm enterprise for food security**. The purpose of this study is purely academic and, more so, to contribute to the participation of the production of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle as a farm enterprise to enhance food security and increase incomes among smallholder farmers in Kilifi county. Respondents are requested to VOLUNTARILY participate in answering this questionnaire and are assured that any information shared will be strictly CONFIDENTIAL.

I wish to request you to kindly assist in providing the required information, by filling the questionnaire provided, as your views are considered important to this study. The questionnaire has been designed as a series of statements where your views can be shown by putting a tick, a number, or a comment in the appropriate box.

Thank you.



Dennis Ouma Ong'or

(Research Student)

**APPENDIX 2: FARMER’S QUESTIONNAIRE**

Code: # \_\_\_\_\_

**SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION**

- 1. Date of interview.....
- 2. Interviewer ID.....
- 3. Name of the farmer ..... Contact.....

**Location of the farmer**

- 3. Sub-County.....
- 4. Ward.....

**SECTION 2: FARMERS CHARACTERISTICS**

**A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

**(Instruction: Mark RESPONSE with a code provided by the respondent)**

QUESTIONS	CODES	RESPONSE
1. Gender of the farmer	1=Male; 0=Female	
2. Are you the household head	1=Yes; 0=No	
3. Age in years of the respondent	1= (15-20) ; 2= (20-30); 3= (31-40); 4= (41-50); 5=(51-60); 6= (61 and above)	
4. Marital status	1=Married; 2=single; 3=Divorced; 4=Widowed 5=others (specify)	
5. Highest level of education	1= None; 2=Primary level ;3=Secondary level; 4= Tertiary college level; 5=University level; 6=others(specify)	
6. How many people were living with your for the past 1 year a	Females  Males	

**B: SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS****(Instruction: Mark RESPONSE with a code provided by the respondent)**

7. Total acreage of your farm.	1= Less than 1 acre; 2=Between 1-2 acres; 3= Between 2-5 acres; 4=More than 5 acres	
8. What is your religion	1=Christianity 2=Islamic	
9. What are your household's main sources of income	1= Entirely farming 2= farming and other off farm activities.	
10. How many years have you been farming coconut	Number of years	
11. Do you experience the menace of CRB in your farm.	1= Yes 2= No	
12. Approximately how much do you earn per year.	Amount (Ksh.)	
13. What do you use the beetle for?	1=Food only 2= Feed only 3= Both food and feed	

### C: INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

(Instruction: Mark RESPONSE with a code provided by the respondent)

QUESTION	CODE	RESPONSE
1. Give a reason for joining the farmers group you belong to group.	1=Collective production 2= Group marketing 3= Purchase of input 4 =Farmer training 5= Group lending	
2. Have you ever acquired any credit in the last one year?	1=Yes 2= No	
3. What was your reason for borrowing?	1= Buy farm equipment 2= Buy production inputs 3= Medical bills 4= School fees 5=Others	
4. What was the source of the credit advanced?	1= Commercial banks; 2=SACCO; 3=Microfinance institutions; 4= Informal lender; 5=Farmer groups	
5. If No in no. 2, give reason	1= Collateral 2=Defaulted on previous loan 3=High interest rate 4=Not aware of credit facilities 5=Others	
6. Have you ever attended any training or seminar on insect farming	1=Yes 2=No	
7. Where do you get technical advice on farming and marketing	1=Department of Agriculture 2=Extension officers 3=NOCD 4= Other NGOs (Name) 5=Other sources	
8. How many times are you visited per month by extension officer?	1= More often 2= Regularly 3=Rarely 4=Not at all	

**SECTION 3: FARMERS KNOWLEDGE OF THE VALUE, HEALTH BENEFITS, AND POTENTIAL OF COCONUT RHINOCEROS BEETLE.**

**3.1. Nutritional value of CRB**

**Please rate the following pertaining your understanding about the nutritive and health value of CRB.**

Question	Response		
	True (1)	False (0)	Don't know
1. CRB contains essential nutrients especially proteins, in large proportions good for the health.			
2. The high nutrient composition in CRB can eliminate deficiencies and solve the problems of food insecurity.			
3. CRB feed on coconut saps and it is that feed resource that makes them healthy, nutritious and safe			
4. CRB cooking can enhance its edibility and provide nutrients.			
5. CRB has health properties			

**3.2. Knowledge on production advantages of CRB**

**Please rate the following questions in regard to your understanding about the production advantages of CRB.**

Question	Response		
	True (1)	False (0)	Don't know
1. CRB are found throughout the year and are hardly affected by weather changes			
2. CRB can be easier and cheaper to produce in comparison to other livestock.			
3. CRB can generate constant income for households			

### 3.3. Knowledge on Income and employment potential of CRB

Please rate the following questions in regard to your understanding about potential income generation and employment opportunities from CRB.

Question	Response		
	True	False	Don't Know
1. CRB are important food products in household food security			
2. CRB production can provide employment for the rural people.			

### Section 4: Perceptions of Farmers On Commercialization of Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle.

4.1. Please rate your degree of agreement/disagreement as per the statements.

Question	Strongly agree (5)	Agree (4)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)
CRB farming is a women's activities/business					
CRB is only poor people's food and traditional lifestyle.					
CRB consumption may cause health problems.					
CRB is unfashionable and not trendy as compared to other foods.					
CRB can be time consuming and cumbersome.					
CRB can be a viable enterprise					
CRB can be farmed and sold for food and feed.					

4.2. Please rate your degree of preference of CRB versus other food products or enterprises.

Statement	Strongly agree (5)	Agree (4)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)
The taste, appearance quality of CRB are not as good as that of modern food and feed products and can be hard to be taken up by people.					
CRB can be cheap to produce and maintain supply compared to other enterprises.					

**4.3. Please rate the frequency of consumption of CRB in your household.**

Question	Always (5)	Often (4)	Sometimes (3)	Seldom (2)	Never (1)
How often do you eat CRB in your household?					

**4.4. Please rate your production and utilizing (food & Feed) intent in regard to CRB if you have the capacity.**

	I would produce and use it every day. (5)	I would Produce and eat it very often (4)	I would sometimes eat it. (3)	I would seldom eat it. (2)	I would never produce and eat (1)
CRB production and utilization rating scale					

**Section 5: Potential Barriers Towards Participation in CRB Production As A Farm Enterprise.**

Please rate the barriers to the commercialization of CRB.

Statement	Most serious (3)	Fairly serious (2)	Least serious (1)
1. Lack of knowledge and skills in CRB production and nutrition information			
2. Farmers age or gender			
3. Lack of information and awareness (Inadequate access to information)			
4. Urbanization and modernization			
5. Lack of acceptance of CRB for food and feed.			
6. Culture and social norms will make it difficult			
7. Seasonality of the insect			
8. Lack of feed resources			
9. Lack of pricing knowledge and uncertainties regarding market price.			
10. Government intervention (legal issues)			
11. Lack of finances (capital cost)			
12. Climate change and extreme weather conditions			
13. Lack of production equipment			
14. Others..... .....			





### **APPENDIX 3: CHECKLIST FOR KEY INFORMANT'S INTERVIEW.**

The purpose of this interview is to obtain preliminary insights from key informants in the Agriculture sector and agribusiness initiative programs.

1. What is your thought on the farming of coconut Rhinoceros Beetle for food and feed?
2. Do you think insects have the potential of alleviating food insecurity situation in the region?
3. What kind of techniques would a farmer need to farm coconut Rhinoceros Beetle?
4. Do you think there is enough information on insect farming as an emerging enterprise?
5. Do you think Rhinoceros Beetle may compete favorably with other food products in the market?
6. What do you think are the potential barriers that may hinder the introduction of Rhinoceros Beetle as a farm enterprise?
7. Do you think acceptance of the beetle in the market may be a problem?
8. Do you think the provision of incentives to farmers would make them embrace the idea of farming of the beetle for income?
9. What is your thought on the health, environmental, and economic benefits of insect farming?
10. Do you think insect farming can be a stand-alone enterprise or needs to be supported with other income-generating activities?


APPENDIX 4: RESEARCH PERMIT


  
 REPUBLIC OF KENYA


  
**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION**


Ref No: **887701**
Date of Issue: **02/December/2020**

**RESEARCH LICENSE**




**This is to Certify that Mr., Dennis Ouma Ong'or of Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology, has been licensed to conduct research in Kilifi on the topic: COCONUT RHINOCEROS BEETLE (*Oryctes rhinoceros*) PRODUCTION AS A FARM ENTERPRISE FOR FOOD SECURITY, for the period ending : 02/December/2021.**

License No: **NACOSTI/P/20/7979**


  
 Director General

**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION**

Verification QR Code



**NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.**

## APPENDIX 5: JOOUST ERC APPROVAL LETTER



**JARAMOGI OGINGA ODINGA  
UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY  
DIVISION OF RESEARCH, INNOVATION AND OUTREACH  
JOOUST-ETHICS REVIEW OFFICE**

Tel: 057-2501804

Email: [erc@jooust.ac.ke](mailto:erc@jooust.ac.ke)

Website: [www.jooust.ac.ke](http://www.jooust.ac.ke)

P.O. BOX 210 - 40601

BONDO

OUR REF: JOOUST/DVC-RIO/ERC/E2

28<sup>th</sup> October, 2020

Dennis Ouma Ong'or  
SAFS

**JOOUST**

Dear Mr. Ong'or,

**RE: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH TITLED "COCONUT RHINOCEROSUS BEETLE (ORYCTES RHINOCEROS) PRODUCTION AS A FARM ENTERPRISE FOR FOOD SECURITY"**

This is to inform you that JOOUST ERC has reviewed and approved your above research proposal. Your application approval number is ERC/28/10/20-13. The approval period is from 28<sup>th</sup> October, 2020 – 27<sup>th</sup> October, 2021.

This approval is subject to compliance with the following requirements:

- i. Only approved documents including (informed consents, study instruments, MTA) will be used.
- ii. All changes including (amendments, deviations and violations) are submitted for review and approval by JOOUST IERC.
- iii. Death and life threatening problems and serious adverse events or unexpected adverse events whether related or unrelated to the study must be reported to NACOSTI IERC within 72 hours of notification.
- iv. Any changes, anticipated or otherwise that may increase the risks of affected safety or welfare of study participants and others or affect the integrity of the research must be reported to NACOSTI IERC within 72 hours.
- v. Clearance for export of biological specimens must be obtained from relevant institutions.
- vi. Submission of a request for renewal of approval at least 60 days prior to expiry of the approval period. Attach a comprehensive progress report to support the renewal.
- vii. Submission of an executive summary report within 90 days upon completion of the study to JOOUST IERC.

Prior to commencing your study, you will be expected to obtain a research permit from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) <https://oris.nacosti.go.ke> and also obtain other clearances needed.

Yours sincerely,

Prof. Francis Anga'wa  
Chairman, JOOUST ERC

Copy to: Deputy Vice-Chancellor, RIO    Director, BPS    Dean, SAFS

## APPENDIX 6: BPGS APPROVAL



**JARAMOGI OGINGA ODINGA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY**  
**BOARD OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES**  
*Office of the Director*

Tel. 057-2501804

Email: [bps@jooust.ac.ke](mailto:bps@jooust.ac.ke)

P.O. BOX 210 - 40601

**BONDO**

Our Ref: A451/4094/2019

**Date:** 7<sup>th</sup> October 2020

### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

### RE: DENNIS OUMA ONG'OR - A451/4094/2019

The above person is a bonafide postgraduate student of Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology in the School of Agricultural and Food Sciences pursuing Master of Science in Food Security and Sustainable Agriculture. He has been authorized by the University to undertake research on the topic: **"Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle (*Oryctes rhinoceros*) Production as a Farm Enterprise for Food Security"**.

Any assistance accorded him shall be appreciated.

Thank you.

The stamp is rectangular with a blue border and contains the following text: "JARAMOGI OGINGA ODINGA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY", "DIRECTOR BOARD OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES", "DATE .....", "P.O. BOX 210 - 40601, BONDO", and "UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY".

Prof. Dennis Ochuodho

**DIRECTOR, BOARD OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES**