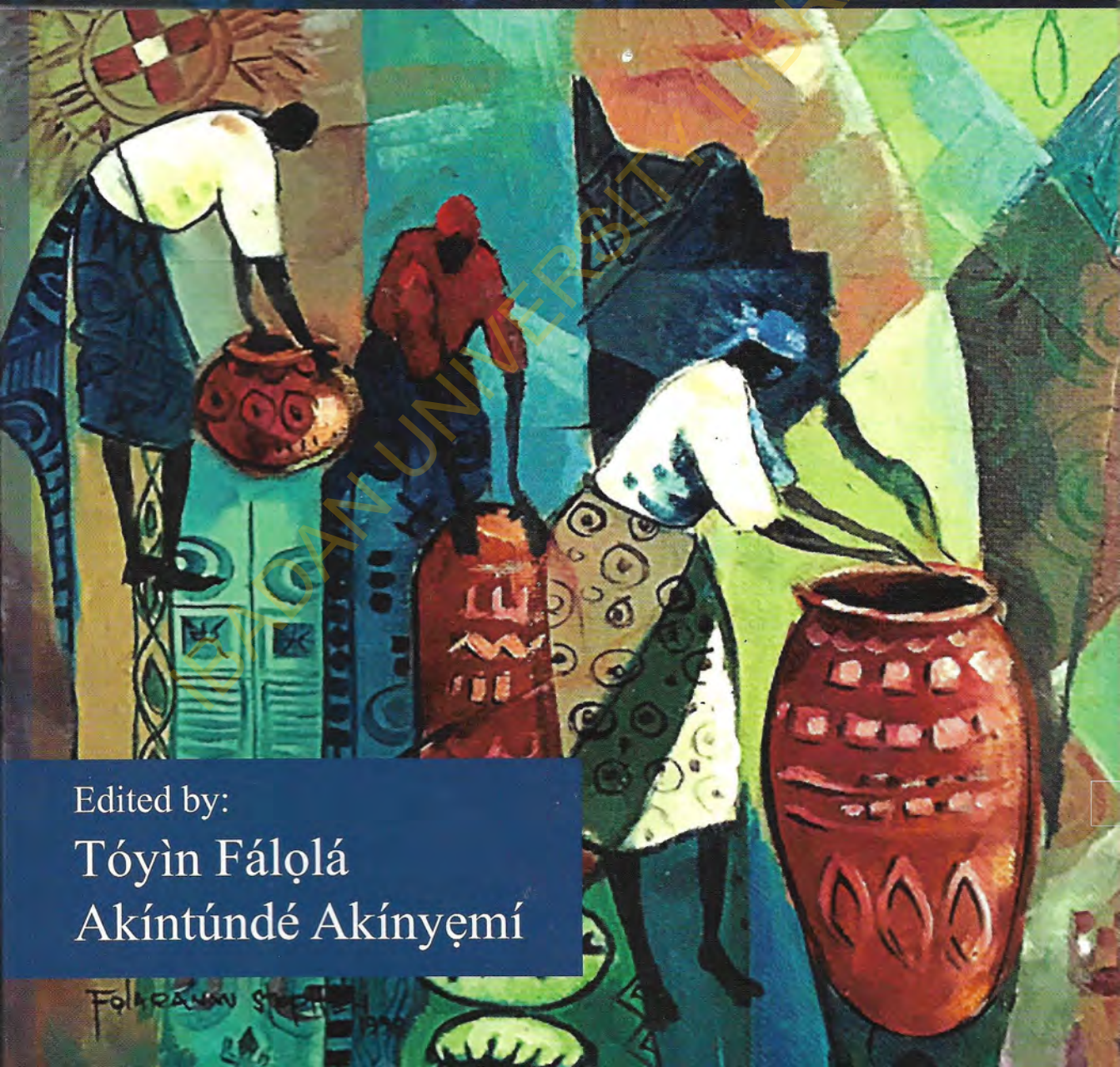


CULTURE AND CUSTOMS OF THE YORÙBÁ



Edited by:

Tóyìn Fálọlá

Akíntúndé Akínyemí

FOLKLORE SOCIETY



CULTURE AND CUSTOMS OF THE YORÙBÁ

Tóyìn Fálolá
and
Akíntúndé Akínyemí



AUSTIN, TEXAS

Copyright © 2017
Tóyin Fálolá and Akíntúndé Akínyemí
All Rights Reserved

ISBN: 978-1-943533-18-3
LCCN: 2017941788

PAN-AFRICAN UNIVERSITY PRESS

Box 618
8650 Spicewood Springs # 145
Austin, TX 78759
Telephone (512) 689 6067

Africa
P. O. Box 14458
University of Ibadán
Ibadán, Nigeria
234 (0808) 6392371
www.panafricanuniversitypress.com

Printed in the United States of America

Dedication

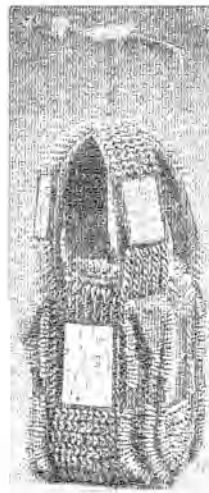
To four outstanding scholars who have contributed to
the understanding of Yoruba culture:

Wande Abimbola

Adeagbo Akinjogbin

Makanjuola Ilesanmi

Oludare Olajubu



Contents

List of Tables, Figures and Plates	xiii
Acknowledgements	xvii
Contributors	xix
Introduction	1
<i>Tóyìn Fálólá and Akintúndé Akinyemi</i>	
Part I: Language, Orature, and Language Use	
1. The Language and Its Dialects	31
<i>Akinbiyi Akinlabi and Harrison Adényi</i>	
2. Non-Verbal Communication	47
<i>Clement Adényi Akàngbé</i>	
3. Libation, Homage, and the Power of Words	59
<i>Adépéjú Johnson-Bashua</i>	
4. “ <i>E kú...</i> ”: Yorùbá Greetings – A Protocol	69
<i>Pamela J. Olúbunmi Smith</i>	
5. Naming, Names, and Praise Names	85
<i>Harrison Adényi</i>	
6. Idioms, Proverbs, and Dictums	99
<i>Kazeem Adébáyò Omófóyèwá</i>	
7. Ribald Language: Insults, Slangs, and Curses	113
<i>Léré Adéyemi</i>	

8. Cognomen and Eulogy <i>Moses Mábayòjé</i>	125
9. Folklore, Oral Traditions, and Oral Literature <i>Adémólá O. Dasyha</i>	139
10. Songs <i>Saudat Adébisi Oláyidé Hamzat</i>	159
Part II: Art and Aesthetics	
11. Architecture: Indigenous <i>Báyò Àmòle and Stephen Fólàrànmí</i>	171
12. Architecture: Transition from Indigenous to Modern <i>Abimbólá O. Asojo</i>	191
13. Art and Crafts <i>Adémólá Azeez</i>	203
14. Body Adornment and Cosmetics <i>Ayòlá Oládùnké Àrànsí</i>	215
15. Charms and Amulets <i>Ségun Šòètán</i>	227
16. Circumcision and Facial Marks <i>Adékémi Agnes Táiwò</i>	237
17. Performing Arts <i>Šolá Adéyemí</i>	249
18. Settlement Pattern <i>Abimbólá O. Asojo and Babátúndé Jaiyéoba</i>	259
19. Signs, Symbols, and Symbolism <i>Philip Adédòtun Ògúndèjì</i>	269
20. Textiles and Dresses <i>Babášèhíndé Adémúlèyá</i>	281
21. Fashion <i>Adéplá Agòkè</i>	295

Part III: Religion, Festivals, and Belief System	
22. Traditional Religious Belief System <i>Şégun Ôgúngbèmi</i>	309
23. Ritual and Sacrifice <i>Ìbigbòládé Adéribigbé</i>	325
24. Extra-Mundane Communication: Insights from Festivals and Carnivals <i>Abigail Odozi Ogwezzy-Ndisika and Babátúndé Adéshinà Faustino</i>	339
25. Death, Mourning, Burial, and Funeral <i>Mobóláji Oyèbisi Ajibádé</i>	355
26. Divinatory Systems <i>Qmótádé Adégbindin</i>	363
27. Dreams and Dream Interpretation <i>Steven D. Glazier</i>	379
28. Masks, Masque, and Masquerades <i>Oláwólé Fámúlẹ̀</i>	389
29. Music and Dance in Culture and Performance <i>Bòdé Qmójolà</i>	407
30. Myths and Mythologies <i>Sikírù Abiònà Yusuff</i>	421
31. Spirits and Spirit Possession <i>Martin A. Tsang</i>	433
32. Taboo <i>Olátúbòsùn Christopher Qmóléwu</i>	445
Part IV: Economy and Economic System	
33. Agriculture and Farming <i>Adébáre Atóyèbí</i>	459
34. Associations: Cultural, Cooperative, and Religious <i>Hezekiah Olúfèmi Adéòşun</i>	473

Culture and Customs of the Yorùbá

35. Cuisines and Food Preparation <i>Olúfadékémi Adágbádá</i>	481
36. Drinks: Beverages and Alcohol <i>Dúró Adélékè</i>	495
37. Economy, Commerce, and Wealth <i>Saudat Adébisí Oláyidé Hamzat</i>	511
38. Investment, Debt, and Debt Management <i>Mutiat Titílopé Oládèjò</i>	521
39. Hunting, Wildlife Destruction, and Preservation <i>Adémólá Babalólá</i>	531
40. Livestock: Domestication and Species <i>Gabriel Ayòólá</i>	537
41. Markets, Marketing, and Advertisement <i>Olúwólé Tégwógboyè Òkèwándé</i>	553
42. Pawning, Pawnship, and Slavery <i>Tòsìn Akinjòbí-Babátúndé</i>	567
Part V: History, Politics, and Governance	
43. History and Historiography <i>Búkólá Oyèniyì</i>	579
44. Politics and Government <i>Akin Àlàó</i>	595
45. Some Aspects of Royalty and Chieftaincy in a Dynamic World <i>Báyò Omólólá</i>	607
46. Societal Stratification <i>Adébùsúyì Isaac Adénìran and Tolúlopé Adétáyò Fájòbí</i>	619
47. Conflicts and Conflict Resolution <i>Àkànmú G. Adébáyò</i>	629
48. War and Diplomacy <i>Nurudeen Olátóyè Arógundádé</i>	647

Part VI: Family, Health, and Education

49. Disease, Health Management, and Healing <i>Fàtài Adéṣìnà Badru</i>	661
50. Childbirth, Childbearing, and Child Education <i>Tóyìn Oláiyá</i>	669
51. Cultural Heritage and Tourism <i>Benjamin Àḍisá Ògúnfólákàn</i>	683
52. Archeology and Museums <i>Kòlá Adèkòlá</i>	693
53. Family, Indigenous Education System, and Discipline <i>Adébòlá Bólájókó Dasylva</i>	709
54. Marriage and Marital Systems <i>Enoch Olújídé Gbádéḡeṣin</i>	721
55. Numbers and Numerals <i>Fólúkè Bólánlè Adékéyè</i>	733
56. Sports, Games, Recreation, and Leisure <i>Layò Ògúnlòlá</i>	745
57. Traditional Professions <i>Michael O. Afóláyan</i>	757
Part VII: Ethics and Social Control	
58. Age Grade and Rites of Passage <i>Àáníolúwapò Fifebo Aláfè</i>	775
59. Cults, Secret Societies, and Fraternities <i>George Olúṣòlá Ajibádé</i>	787
60. Inheritance <i>Abídèmi Olúṣòlá Bólárinwá and Martina Morónmúbò Adéribigbé</i>	797
61. Ethics, Social Control, and Management Structure <i>Fúnmilòlá Olúnladé</i>	805

62. Land: Tenure and Reform <i>Bọlá Dáídà</i>	817
63. Law and Justice <i>Olúyémisí Bámgbòṣé</i>	829
64. Sexuality, Sexual Behavior, and Gender Roles <i>Chinyere Ukpokolo and Adéolá Lameed</i>	847
65. Social Customs and Lifestyle <i>Juliet Otsemaye</i>	857
66. Security and Protection <i>Àrìnpé G. Adéjùmọ</i>	865
67. From the Cosmos to the Society: Worldview as/and Philosophy <i>Adéshinà Afóláyan</i>	877
Part VIII: Social and Cultural Change	
68. Cinema and Films <i>Niyi Coker</i>	893
69. Media: Exploring Old and New Forms <i>Kòléadé Odùtòlá</i>	901
70. Popular Culture <i>Fẹmi Adédèjì</i>	913
71. Religion II: Islam and Christianity <i>Samson Ìjàolá</i>	929
72. Science and Technology <i>Kazeem Kẹhìndé Sanuth</i>	941
73. The Diaspora and Globalization Effect <i>Akinloyè Òjó</i>	951
74. Time Reckoning <i>Adémólá K. Fáyemí</i>	963
75. Writing System and Literature <i>Timothy T. Àjàní</i>	973
Index	983

List of Tables, Figures, and Plates

- Table 1.1: Yorùbá Language Family Tree.
- Table 4.1: Trade-specific greeting-*cum*-prayer codes and their appropriate responses.
- Figure 12.1: Òwò Palace designed based on the Impluvium style architecture with multiple courtyards.
- Figure 12.2: Mápó Hall, Ìbádán, illustrating classical architectural influences.
- Figure 12.3: The Christ Church in Lagos and Holy Cross Cathedral, two landmarks in central Lagos built in 1869 and 1878.
- Figure 12.4: University of Ìbádán Mosque.
- Figure 12.5: University of Ìbádán, Trenchard Hall illustrating international style influences.
- Figure 12.6: Dominican Church, Ìbádán, illustrating indigenous influences in the form, artwork, symbols and furnishings.
- Figure 12.7: Exterior and interior views of Society of African Missions (SMA) Church, Ìbádán.
- Figure 12.8: Òsásonà House in Ilé-Ifẹ̀.
- Figure 14.1: *Àbàjà olówu* and *Gònhò* facial marks.
- Figure 14.2: *Kóló fínfín*.
- Figure 14.3: Types of men caps: *filà ikòrí*, *filà onidẹ*, and *filà abeti ajá*.
- Figure 14.4: Men Hairdo: *ori fifá*, *afarí apákan (ilàrí ọbà)*, *àásó olúòdẹ*, *òsù didá*.
- Figure 14.5: Old and modern women hairdo.

Culture and Customs of the Yorùbá

- Figure 18.1: Indigenous Ibadan with contemporary architecture in the background.
- Figure 18.2: Planning pattern and the architecture of the colonial era juxtaposed against traditional influences.
- Table 19.1: Some lineages and their emblematic symbols.
- Plate 20.1: *Sányán (onihò)*.
- Plate 20.2: *Ètù (folded)*.
- Plate 20.3: *Pètùjẹ*.
- Plate 20.4: *Àlàári (onilà)*.
- Plate 20.5: *Àdìrẹ (aláketẹ)*.
- Plate 20.6: *Àdìrẹ alábẹrẹ*.
- Plate 20.7: *Àdìrẹ (ẹlẹkọ)*.
- Plate 20.8: *Àdìrẹ (dyed with imported synthetic dyes)*.
- Plate 20.9: Man in *dànsíkí*.
- Plate 20.10: A woman in *iró* and *gèlè* with lace *bùbá*.
- Plate 20.11: Woman in *iró* and *gèlè* with *bùbá* lace.
- Plate 20.12: Man in embroidered *agbádá sányán*.
- Plate 20.13: Man in enbroidered *agbádá* with white linen *àwòtélẹ*.
- Figure 29.1: Drumming for Ifá.
- Figure 29.2: Hexatonic Melody: *Láyé Olúgbón*.
- Figure 40.1: Goats (*Ewùrẹ*).
- Figure 40.2: Ram and Sheep (*Ágbò* and *Ágùntàn*).
- Figure 40.3: Naked-neck Fowl (*Adiyẹ igún*).
- Figure 40.4: Frizzled-feathered Fowl (*Adiyẹ asa*).
- Figure 40.5: Stork (*Àkò*).
- Figure 40.6: Peacock (*Òkín*).
- Figure 40.7: Nocturnal Snake (*Ejò mónámóná*).
- Figure 40.8: Parrot (*Ayékòótó*).
- Figure 40.9: Crocodile (*Oṣòni*).
- Figure 41.1: A chart showing Yorùbá regular market.
- Figure 41.2: A chart showing Yorùbá market flow from producer to the consumer.
- Figure 41.3: A chart showing Yorùbá Advertisement types.
- Figure 47.1: Typical Bargaining.
- Figure 47.2: *Òyọ* Yorùbá Bargaining.

- Figure 47.3: The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode.
- Figure 52.1: Entrance to the house of Imagesin, Èsié.
- Figure 52.2: Entrance to the National Museum, Ilé-Ifè.
- Figure 52.3: Ìta Yemòó Pottery Museum, Ilé-Ifè.
- Figure 52.4: Potsherd Pavement at Ìta Yemòó, Ilé-Ifè.
- Figure 52.5: Signpost of the Badagry Heritage Museum.
- Figure 52.6: Blocks of Buildings of Badagry Heritage Museum.
- Figure 52.7: Heavy machines on the historic places of Badagry.
- Figure 52.8: Front Desk of the Teaching and Research Museum.
- Figure 52.9: The Skeletal Remains from Ìwó-Elerú.
- Table 69.1: Number of Postings to *Tiwantiwa*, a Yorùbá-language Yahoo Discussion Group.
- Table 69.2: Number of Postings to *Yorùbá World*, a Yorùbá Culture Yahoo Discussion Group.
- Plate 70.1: Lagos Youth carnival.
- Plate 70.2: Ànkòò from Ìjèbú-Òde.
- Plate 70.3: *Yahooze* Dance.
- Plate 70.4: *Azonto* Dance.
- Plate 70.5: *Galala* Dance.
- Plate 70.6: *Skeḽwú* Dance.
- Plate 70.7: National Football team, the Green Eagles dancing *Àlanta*.
- Plate 70.8: OPC of Gàní Adam's Faction.
- Plate 70.9: *Aluta* Demonstration.
- Plate 70.10: A Yoruba Girl Hairdo.
- Plate 70.11: *Okada* Motorcycle Riders.
- Plate 70.12: *Pàràgà* Stuff.

Acknowledgments

A work of this magnitude could not have been successfully completed without the assistance of many other people. We would like to thank those colleagues who aided us and those friends who guided us while the project lasted. We are grateful to Dr. Adéshínà Afóláyan who served as the link between us, the editors, and many of the contributors based in Nigeria; Professor Oláwọ̀lé Fámúlẹ̀ and Dr. Stephen Fólàrànmí who supplied many of the images in the book; Dr. Kazeem Oyetunde Èkẹ̀olú who provided illustrations in some of the chapters; and Dr. Stephen Fólàrànmí and Emmanuel Oyèwọ̀lé Oyèniyi who designed the book cover.

We would also like to thank our contributors for their patience in the course of editing the volume, and for putting up with our numerous requests regarding editorial matters. It has been two years since the first request for contributions was sent out. Between then and now the contributors have done so much difficult and taxing work, often at inconvenient times in their own schedules. The contributors, drawn from three continents – Africa, Europe, and North America – have all made this project a huge success.

The book publisher, Pan-African University Press, deserves our gratitude for the interest in the project. Specifically, we would like to thank production staff and others at the publisher's headquarters, especially Dawid Kahts our typesetter and indexer, Tim Colton, the production manager, and others who worked behind the scenes and invisible to us as editors. We are also grateful to Bryan Cooper Owens and Jessica Shenette for copy-editing the original manuscript submitted by contributors.

Last but not the least, we would like to thank our employers, the University of Texas at Austin and University of Florida in Gainesville for approving this book project as part of our research assignment.

Tóyìn Fálọ̀lá and Akíntúndé Akínyẹ̀mí



Contributors

- Olúfadékẹ̀mi Adágbadá, Qlábísí Qnábánjo University (Àgò Ìwòyè, Nigeria)
Adébare Atóyèbí, University of Ilorin (Nigeria)
Àkànmú Adébáyò, Kennesaw State University
Fẹ̀mi Adédèjì, Qbáfẹ̀mi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifẹ̀, Nigeria)
Qmótádé Adégbindin, University of Ibádàn (Nigeria)
Àrìnpé Adéjùmò, University of Ibádàn (Nigeria)
Bólánlé Adékéyè, University of Ilorin (Nigeria)
Kólá Adékólá, University of Ibádàn (Nigeria)
Dúró Adélékè, University of Ibádàn (Nigeria)
Babáşèhindé A. Adémúlèyá, Qbáfẹ̀mi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifẹ̀, Nigeria)
Adébùsúyì Isaac Adéniran, Qbáfẹ̀mi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifẹ̀, Nigeria)
Harrison Adéníyì, Lagos State University (Nigeria)
Olúfẹ̀mi Adéòşun, University of Ilorin (Nigeria)
Ìbígbóládé S. Adérìbigbé, University of Georgia, Athens
Martina Morónmúbò Adérìbigbé, Federal College of Education (Òsìlẹ̀- Abẹ̀òkúta, Nigeria)
Lére Adéyẹ̀mí, University of Ilorin (Nigeria)
Şólá Adéyẹ̀mí, University of Greenwich (London, UK)
Adéşhínà Afóláyan, University of Ibádàn (Nigeria)
Michael Qládèjò Afóláyan, Illinois Board of Higher Education, Springfield
Adéqlá Agòkè, University of Wisconsin-Madison
Timothy T. Àjàní, Fayetteville State University
George Olúşqlá Ajíbádé, Qbáfẹ̀mi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifẹ̀, Nigeria)
Mobólájì Oyèbìsì Ajíbádé, Adéyẹ̀mí College of Education (Ondó, Nigeria)
Clement Adéníyì Àkàngbé, University of Ibádàn (Nigeria)
Tòşin Akínjobí-Babátúndé, Elizade University (Ìlára-Mòkín, Nigeria)
Akínbíyì Akinlabí, Rutgers University
Akintúndé Akinyẹ̀mí, University of Florida, Gainesville
Àánúólúwapò Fifebo Aláfẹ̀, Adékúnlé Ajásin University (Àkùngbá-Àkókó, Nigeria)
Akin Àláo, Qbáfẹ̀mi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifẹ̀, Nigeria)

Culture and Customs of the Yorùbá

- Báyò Àmòlè, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Ayòplá Qládùnké Àràńsí, Kwara State University (Málété, Nigeria)
Nurudeen Qlátóyè Àmúdà-Arógundádé, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Abímbólá Aşòjò, University of Minnesota
Gabriel Ayòplá, University of Georgia, Athens
Adémólá Azeez, Federal College of Education (Lagos, Nigeria)
Adémólá Babalólá, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Fátàì Adéşínà Badru, University of Lagos (Nigeria)
Olúyémisí Bámgbòsé, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Abídèmi Bólárinwá, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Niyi Coker, Jr., University of Missouri, Saint Louis
Adébólá Bólájókó Dasyíva, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Adémólá Dasyíva, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Bólá Dáúdà, Early Years' Education Foundation (Ìbádàn, Nigeria)
Tolúlòpé Adétáyò Fájòbí, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Tóyìn Fálólá, University of Texas at Austin
Adémólá Kazeem Fáyemí, Lagos State University (Nigeria)
Babátúndé Adéshínà Faustino, University of Lagos (Nigeria)
Qláwólé Fámulè, University of Wisconsin – Superior
Stephen Fòláránmí, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Enoch Olujídé Gbádégeşin, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Stephen D. Glazier, Yale University
Saudat Adébíşí Qláyídé Hamzat, University of Ìlòrin (Nigeria)
Samson O. Ijàólá, Samuel Adégbéyèga University (Ogwa, Nigeria)
Babatúndé Jaiyéoba, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Adépéjú Johnson-Bashua, Lagos State University (Nigeria)
Adéplá Lameed, University of Lagos (Nigeria)
Moses Mábayòjé, Rutgers University
Kóléadé Odútólá, University of Florida, Gainesville
Philip Adédòtun Ògúndèjì, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Benjamin Àdisá Ògúnfólákàn, Qbáfèmi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)
Şégun Ògúngbèmi, Adékúnlé Ajásin University (Àkúngbá-Àkókó, Nigeria)
Layò Ògúnlòlá, University of Ìlòrin (Nigeria)
Abigail Odozi Ogwezzy-Ndisika, University of Lagos (Nigeria)
Akinloyè Òjò, University of Georgia, Athens
Olúwólé Tẹwógboyè Òkèwándé, University of Ìlòrin (Nigeria)
Mutiat Títílopé Qládèjò, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Olúwatóyìn M. Qláiyá, Èkiti State University (Adó-Èkiti, Nigeria)
Qmóléwu Qlátúbòsún, University of Ìlòrin (Nigeria)
Fúnmilólá Olúnládé, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Kazeem A. Qmófóyèwá, University of Ìbádàn (Nigeria)
Bòdé Qmójòlá, Mount Holyoke College/Five Colleges
Báyò Qmòlólá, Community College of Baltimore

Juliet Otsemaye, University of Lagos (Nigeria)
Bùkòlá Oyèníyì, Missouri State University, Springfield
Kazeem Kéhindé Sanuth, University of Wisconsin-Madison
Pamela J. Olúbùnmi Smith, University of Nebraska at Omaha
Şégun Şòètán, University of Wisconsin-Madison
Adékémi Agnes Táíwò, Èkìtì State University (Adó-Èkìtì, Nigeria)
Martin A. Tsang, Florida International University
Chinyere Ukpokolo, University of Ìbàdàn (Nigeria)
Síkírù Abiòná Yusuff, Qbáfémi Awólówò University (Ilé-Ifè, Nigeria)

IBADAN UNIVERSITY LIBRARY



Chapter 64



Sexuality, Sexual Behavior and Gender Roles

Chinyere Ukpokolo and Adéolá Lameed

Introduction

Every society and culture has a peculiar way of defining the human body in its sociocultural context, generating diverse meanings across human cultures and societies. This falls within the domain of human sexuality. This chapter examines sexuality, sexual behavior, and gender roles among the Yorùbá people of southwest Nigeria. The discussions in the chapter cover the pre-colonial period and how colonial encounters 'missionalization,' modernization, and globalization have shaped the Yorùbá culture in the areas of sexuality and sexual behavior. The influence of Islamic religion is also highlighted.

Conception and Communication of Sexuality among the Yorùbá People

Sex, among the Yorùbá people, is primarily assumed to be something that is sacred and reserved for adults, mostly acceptable within the confines of marriage. Sex is primarily for procreation. The people believe that God created man and woman to raise offspring, referred to as *àròlé* (one who sustains the family name at the demise of the parents). The World Health Organization (WHO) describes sexuality as "a central aspect of

being human which encompasses sex, gender identities and roles, sexual orientation, eroticism, pleasure, intimacy and reproduction” (WHO, 2013). This chapter adopts this definition because it attempts to understand the interplay of sexuality, sexual behavior, and gender roles among the Yorùbá people of southwest Nigeria. Sexuality is experienced and expressed in thoughts, behaviors, fantasies, desires, beliefs, attitudes, values, practices, roles, and relationships. It is also reflected in language, greetings, behaviors, and regulations that guide human conduct.

Puberty, the onset of physiological development as indicated by the maturation of secondary sex characteristics, is designated in the Yorùbá language by the use of the term *ìbálágà*, which translates in English as “coming of age.” The sign of puberty in males is the maturity of the sex organs and the gradual increase in body size. A female is said to have reached puberty when she has had her first menstruation. By this time, there is a visible increase in the size of her breasts. With the onset of puberty, young males and females are groomed by the corresponding sex parent in preparation for the role assigned to each gender by the culture, particularly regarding eventual marriage.

Sexual relationships were considered sacred in precolonial times, although this sacredness seems to have waned following colonialism and media globalization. As a result of this sacredness, direct verbal references to human sexual organs or sexual relationships are overtly conveyed in various euphemisms and descriptive words. In discussions, for instance, the female private part is referred to as *ojú ara obìnrin*, literally translated as “the eye of a woman’s body,” while the male organ is called *nńkan omọkúnrin*, meaning “a man’s thing.”

Also, children are instructed on the culturally acceptable mode of sitting without exposing their private parts. Such statements as *È wo ìdí rẹ̀ ní ita*, meaning “look at his/her buttocks exposed” are often used to instruct children on the correct manner of sitting down. For a girl, such statements as *pa ʼtan mó, pa ʼtan mó; ọkọ rẹ̀ n bọ*, meaning “close your thighs, close your thighs; your husband is coming.” Statements like these depict the sacredness of sexuality and further reinforce decency, morality, and a sense of shame in children. By telling a little girl that her husband is coming, she is from childhood conscious of the significance of marriage to members of her society and the respect ascribed to the institution.

This sacredness associated with sex organs and sexual activities creates some difficulties for parents teaching their children sex education in modern times as sex and sex organs are not openly discussed. In traditional society, stories, gossips, folksongs, taboos, and tales were part of the ways sex education was passed on to children. The very act of sexual intercourse itself is not a subject for public discussion or one to be undertaken in the presence of minors except when they have reached puberty and are being prepared for marriage. The hallowed nature of sexual activities also necessitates that sexual intercourse be conducted at a specific time. For instance, sexual intercourse is never expected to take place during the productive hours but only at night since the day time is meant for serious work. The nocturnal timing of sexual intercourse between married couples also ensures that its sacredness is preserved in the privacy of the bedroom beyond the earshot of children and neighbors. The very act of sexual intercourse is never expressed in literal language but by the use of such euphemisms as *ìbálòpọ* or *àjọṣepọ*, which mean “doing together.”

Sexuality is also reflected in a person's dress. Women have one mode of dressing, while men have another. This is in contrast to the modern day practice where both men and women can wear the same style of clothing regarded as "unisex." Men wear *agbádá àti sòpò* while women wear *bùbá àti iró*. In this area, too, the influence of Islamic religion is noticeable. Islam allows women to wear trousers and long gowns with a veil. This has been incorporated into Yorùbá women's dressing.

The woman plays an active role in the life of her children and the family as caregiver, nurturer, keeper of the home, and sex partner to her husband. The father figure is highly revered as the provider of family income and source of authority; hence, he is highly respected by the children. Children are often threatened with the words *Máá fi ejò rẹ sun bàbá rẹ ti wọn bá dé* (I will report you to your father when they [he] returns). The use of a plural pronoun for the father is honorific and connotes the respect women are expected to give to their husbands in the culture even when they are close in age, or even in cases where the woman is older than the man. By contrast, the Yorùbá cultural practice refers to elders and superiors using a singular pronoun.

As the marriage system is polygynous, a man is entitled to more than one wife. He derives sexual pleasure and procreates with his wives. If he finds a lady he loves and has the capacity to care for an additional wife, he marries her, which adds to the number of wives in his household. In precolonial times, this cultural practice limited the occurrence of extramarital affairs in the society; adultery was strongly frowned upon though it still occurred on occasion. Thus, the term *àlẹ* exists to describe an extramarital affair. However, a child born to a man outside wedlock belongs to the man. Hence, the adage that *Obinrin tó bí'mọ́ fún 'ni ti kúrò ní àlẹ ẹni* (A woman that has a child for someone is no longer a concubine).

Islamic religion entitles a man to have more than one wife, and this is highly agreeable in different African cultures, including the Yorùbá. Through formal education and media globalization, the influence of Western culture in Africa is also reflected in the attitude of young people to sex and sexual behavior in contemporary society. Young people openly express their love for one another, holding hands, cuddling, and, at times, kissing in public places contrary to Yorùbá traditional cultural expectations. Television, music, and films expose them to sex and sexual activities they never saw in their own households.

Sexuality and the Yorùbá Marriage Institution

In the precolonial period, on reaching puberty, young boys and girls went through puberty initiation rites. The period of circumcision was also the time to teach young boys about sexual intercourse and the responsibility of fatherhood. For the young girls, the belief is that without the removal of the clitoris, the girl would be very promiscuous. Hence, the tip of the clitoris needed to be trimmed. An uncircumcised woman lost her honor in the community and among the members of her age group. Despite the pain and health hazard associated with the practice, it was sustained in precolonial times and is still practiced secretly by some parents in traditional societies today. What is today regarded as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) was actually a thing of honor in traditional society.

Once she reaches puberty, the young girl is taught the sex-related roles she is

expected to play in her society. For instance, she learns about motherhood, housekeeping, womanhood, and what is expected of a wife. She also learns how to attract the attention of her husband and about the intrigues that occur among co-wives in order to gain the attention of their husband. The clamor for the end to FGM by gender activists would have been an aberration in traditional Yorùbá society prior to colonial contact. It is important to note that human sexuality in traditional Yorùbá society was the ideal to be expressed solely within the context of heterosexual marriage of two adults, a male and one or more females. Incest was a taboo; sexual attraction must be expressed outside one's group and so marriage is exogamous.

The concept of homosexuality was unheard of in Yorùbá traditional society. With the high premium placed on marriage and children, it would have been an aberration and contradiction to sanction any cultural practice that could legalize marriage without children. As marriage in the traditional Yorùbá worldview is considered a sacred institution, there are societal and cultural expectations of the intending couple. An intending bridegroom, for instance, is expected to possess characteristics such as industriousness, bravery, good health, agility, honesty, and good family heritage. A qualified bride is expected to be a good cook, well-behaved, industrious, and diligent.

In precolonial society, she was also expected to possess a round physique most typified by a narrow waistline and the storage of adipose fat in the arm and buttock region of her body. The round figure of an intending bride was perceived as an indication of the ability to bear children in marriage. Precolonial Yorùbá society also expected that an intending bride must preserve her virginity, known as *ibálé* (intact), until her marriage. For that reason, a single lady is referred to as *omidan* (unpolluted water stream). A lady's virginity was confirmed by her husband on her marriage day. When this happens, the bride becomes a source of pride to her husband and to her immediate and extended families. The reverse is the case if she had lost her virginity to another man. In that case, her family members must apologize for her shameful conduct and upbringing. The white sheet stained with blood from her first sexual experience is sent in a calabash bowl to her parents together with a huge sum of money and a hen to be used for sacrificial prayers for the new bride (Fádípè, 1970, 81–84).

In the course of history, the quest for premarital chastity has waned so much so that not much is said about the preservation of virginity until marriage in contemporary Yorùbá society. Rather, many parents pretend not to know that their children are involved in premarital sex. Rather, they hope that these children are able to prevent unwanted pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. Interestingly, some mothers express happiness if their son's wife-to-be conceives prior to marriage, secretly using family *oriki* (family praise poem) to appreciate their son for choosing a fertile wife and being able to impregnate a woman.

Young people who are engaged in premarital sex use different types of contraceptives and at times local herbs and self-medications to prevent conception and unwanted pregnancy. When these fail, some may consult quack medics for abortion, resulting in diverse complications and occasionally death. In precolonial times where premarital chastity was the norm, there was a kind of silence among young men who had already had active, sexual intercourse prior to marriage. The assumption was that

women played key roles in the preservation of societal values; the preservation of virginity symbolized this role.

As already indicated, traditional Yorùbá society accommodates polygyny, which allows a man to have as many wives as his means allows. A woman, on the other hand, can only have one living husband. Polygyny was believed to be the prerogative the Creator conferred on men. The practice of polygyny is well institutionalized. It is expected of titled men, monarchs, and the wealthy to have more than one wife as another means of depicting their public status and wealth. The wife is not expected to call any male member of her husband's family by name. Rather, she calls them by certain coinages and pet names, which reflect respect for them as individuals and the larger household of her husband. Thus, such names as *ọkọ mi* (my husband), *olówó ori mi* (he that pays my dowry), *idí ilẹ̀kẹ̀* (beaded waist), *eyin afẹ́* (golden teeth or wealthy teeth), among others are used to address male members of her husband's household.

Sexuality is also reflected through cultural practices. A male prostrates himself to an elder while a female kneels to greet. Although a woman is expected to give much respect to members of her husband's family no matter their age, seniority is also given premium rather than sex identity. For this reason, an elderly woman (wife) may earn more reverence than a younger man as he defers to her based on her age.

As indicated earlier, the concept of *àlẹ̀*, meaning lover, also exists in Yorùbá culture to connote extra-marital relationships, which involve both sexes, although it is strictly frowned upon when a woman is involved. An individual may be insulted with the statement *ọmọ àlẹ̀* (child of extra-marital relationship or concubine). On the other hand, an individual could jokingly among his friends proudly refer to someone as *àlẹ̀ mi ni* (he/she is my lover). Certain Yorùbá proverbs depict the culture's recognition that, though extra-marital relationships exist, they must be discouraged. Such proverbs include:

Ìjà níi kẹ̀hìn àlẹ̀ (Extra-marital relationships always end in conflict)

Ti ilẹ̀ bá ń tòrò, ọmọ àlẹ̀ ibẹ̀ kò tì d'àgbà ni (When there is peace in a family, the bastard [that is, the child of extra-marital relationship] there has not grown). In other words, the secret of extra-marital affairs cannot be hidden forever, as the offspring of such relationship is always of questionable character and will reveal himself/herself in time.

Obìnrin kan mọ àlẹ̀ mẹ́fà. Àlẹ̀ mẹ́fà kò mọ ra wọn (A woman knows her six lovers. Her six lovers do not know themselves). This suggests the "hide and seek" and deceitful nature of extra-marital relationships.

Ọmọ àlẹ̀ níi fì ọwọ̀ ọ̀sì jùwe ilẹ̀ bàbá rẹ̀ (The child of a concubine uses the left hand to point to the father's house)

Proverbs, such as those above, point to the negative impact of extra-marital relationships on the individual, the family, and the society generally, and are intended to discourage such acts. However, rather than the practice abating, over time, it is actually exacerbated in the contemporary Yorùbá society.

As the traditional Yorùbá society is an agrarian society, polygyny allows men to raise numerous children who can assist with the cultivation and maintenance of large farmlands and thereby increase the material fortune of the family. Besides, the

cultural practice of multiple wives also helped to satisfy the sexual needs of men in a way sanctioned by the customs and traditions of traditional Yorùbá society, reducing the incidents of extra-marital affairs in precolonial society. Interestingly, women who suffer repressed or unsatisfied sexual desire often find fulfilment through other men, including those who may be lower in status than their husbands.

Conflicts among wives are common as each tries to gain the attention of their husband and possibly deny other wives from having access to him. Interestingly, the Ifá corpus catalogues some of the woes associated with polygyny as presented below:

When they [wives] increase to two, they become envious;
When they increase to three, they scatter the household;
When they increase to four, they laugh derisively at one another;
When they increase to five, they accuse one another of destroying their husband's fortunes;
When they increase to six, they become wicked;
When they increase to seven, they become witches;
When they increase to eight, they blame one of their group for bringing bad luck to their husband;
When they increase to nine, they accuse the eldest wife of using their husband's wrapper-cloth;
When they increase to ten, they accuse one another of forcing herself upon their husband
(Abimbólá, 1968 as cited in Alábá, 2004).

To consolidate one's position in the home, a woman must bear children. A Yorùbá proverb states *ólómọ ló l'ọkọ* (the one that bears children is the owner of the husband). Thus, a barren woman does everything humanly or even spiritually possible to beget a child. Thus, children may become targets of attack from a barren woman and contribute to rivalries among co-wives.

Colonial influence and Christian religion in Yorùbá land have had the effect of institutionalizing monogamy as the new marriage "ideal" for the postcolonial Yorùbá man. Neither the Church nor civil marriage registry allows polygyny. The effect of the new norm on an average Yorùbá man in postcolonial era is that he seeks to satisfy his sexual needs by keeping concubines outside his home while the legally married wife may never be aware of such extramarital affairs. The children who result from such relationships usually present family problems, especially when children from such illicit affairs are brought to the man's home by his mistress(es) during his lifetime or after his demise.

The construction of sexuality within traditional Yorùbá society as an attribute of life to be expressed in the context of marriage has far-reaching effects on the flourishing and sustenance of the Yorùbá society. Apart from the companionship and erotic pleasures that couples are expected to give to each other, marriage in pre-colonial times was as a matter of necessity for the unmitigated reproduction of children, as children come from God and must not be rejected. There is also the societal conviction that they (children) are indispensable in the quest for sustainable life. This is in contrast to contemporary Western practice where married couples decide the number of children to have. The expression of sexuality is sanctioned in traditional Yorùbá society through

the confines of marriage in which male fertility was virtually taken for granted; hence, there was greater focus on the female spouse regarding procreation. This is evidenced by the marriage rites that invoke special blessings upon the Yorùbá bride for fertility with the use of *ataare* (alligator pepper, which is a type of pepper distinguished by its many seeds) as a symbol of fertility.

A pregnant woman in pre-colonial and contemporary Yorùbá society receives traditional prenatal care from the *iyá àbíyè* (traditional midwives). With the advent of Western medicine, she can also access Western medicine in an orthodox hospital. In order to ensure the mother's well-being and that of the unborn child, there were laws and taboos in place. Precolonial Yorùbá society forbade a pregnant woman from any outing when the sun was high in the sky or in the dead of the night. It was also a taboo for a man to have sexual intercourse with a woman when she was at an advanced stage of pregnancy. Men who indulged in it were, according to tradition, doomed to become wretched.

In contemporary society, Yorùbá people have adjusted to having the number of children they can care for, which is a consequence of the shift from an agrarian economy to the cash economy of contemporary times. Today, Yorùbá women employ contraception to space childbirth and reduce the number of children they have. The husband of a breastfeeding mother would usually abstain from sexual intercourse with the wife around this time, creating space for them to seek sexual satisfaction outside the marriage.

Divorce was uncommon in indigenous Yorùbá society. Various reasons accounted for this. First, prior to marriage, critical investigations were expected to have been carried out by members of the families of the intended couple to ascertain the type of family one was getting married into. To further ensure the security of one's child, the Ifá oracle was also consulted to seek information from the supernatural powers about what the future held for the couple if they got married. This is important because marriage in those days was between one family and another and not between two individuals.

Certain reasons for divorce included if the man died, became a thief, was a chronic debtor, or suffered from leprosy. According to Fádípè (1970), "Women in traditional Yorùbá society often felt compelled and in fact did cherish a life time marriage to one man.... [M]en were not used to divorce in the olden days even when the bride was found unchaste on the bridal night" (81). Impotence was no reason for divorce as a wife could transfer her marital responsibility to an appropriate person within the husband's family. Even with the death of the husband or impotency, she was expected to still remain with her husband's family, and, in strict privacy, raise children for her husband through a friend or a family member. Thus, in most cases, an impotent man "bore" children of his own without people being aware of his health condition.

Interestingly barrenness was always associated with the woman rather than the man. According to Obijole (2011), in the king palaces, male eunuchs served as waiters while virgins devoted to the service of deities and shrines served as priestesses. The author argued that the forcefully and deliberately castrated eunuchs served as spies on the wives and concubines of traditional rulers to prevent their illicit sexual activities

and ensure their faithfulness. Not all the waiters, however, were eunuchs. As Christian religion abhors polygamy and extramarital sexual relationships, barren women in contemporary times are under a heavy burden as husbands have no other culturally acceptable way of bearing children. Some men in such circumstances secretly raise children without the knowledge of their legally married wife or even marry another wife, leaving the wife with the option of facing the new reality or move out of the marriage.

Sexuality, Sexual Behavior, and Gendered Expectations

Any discourse on human sexuality in Yorùbáland cannot be complete without a discussion of gender arrangements in the Yorùbá world, as both concepts are intricately linked. Gender is the sociocultural and psychological patterning of the differences between male and female, and sexuality is a crucial component of that patterning. Much as the Yorùbá person in precolonial, colonial, and postcolonial eras lives in conformity with the roles assigned to him or her by nature, there is always the socially constructed view of gender wherein the society has certain expectations from persons based on their biological identity as male or female. Hence, there are norms and laws prescribing and proscribing persons from taking particular course of action base on one's gender identity. Such prescriptions and proscriptions among the Yorùbá can be gleaned from Yorùbá perspectives on puberty, the expression of human sexuality, marriage, reproductive health, economy, and other social aspects of life. From all indications, the Yorùbá world demands much from females with regard to sexuality. While polygyny was allowed for the precolonial men, polyandry was never practiced in the precolonial, colonial, or post-colonial periods. In cases of an extramarital sexual relationship, societal condemnation falls more on the woman. While FGM was aimed at curbing the female's sexual urge, a wife's promiscuity is curtailed with the placement of *mágùn*, literally translated as "don't climb," an effective magical charm. A suspicious husband used it on a cheating wife so that she and any other man she had sexual intercourse with faced dangerous consequences, such as sudden death or some other bizarre consequence for which the only remedy was public disgrace and the performance of certain prescribed rituals (Àlábá, 2004: 11). Interestingly, while a suspicious husband can use *mágùn* on his wife, the reverse is not heard of in Yorùbáland.

Gendered expectation is also expressed in the overt differentiation of male and female bodies, especially in relation to the practice of religion. A menstruating woman in precolonial times, for instance, was prohibited from participating in sacrificial worship of Obátálá, the Yorùbá divinity of fertility, considered the epitome of purity. Here, the biological status of the menstruating woman is seen in opposition to the purity that this deity represents. She is also not expected to enter into sacred places because her presence in such hallowed places is believed to render spiritual elements ineffective. Given the prominence of female deities, priestesses, and prophetesses in the pre-colonial Yorùbá pantheon, some of these taboos represent the dark side of women's position in the traditional Yorùbá culture.

Against the fluid, postmodern construction of human sexuality that permits either implicit or explicit forms of sexual expression like premarital sex and homosexuality, traditional Yorùbá culture abhors such alternative expressions of sexuality. This abhorrence is expressed in the form of taboos and severe punishment. Given the traditional Yorùbá attitude toward sexuality, homosexuality in contemporary African society is, according to scholars like Essien and Adérintó (2009), the antisocial effect of Western cultural infiltration into the African sociocultural space. Thus, in some communities, persons found guilty of incestuous relationships could be made to slaughter a goat, strip themselves naked, and then flog each other around the town or village with the raw legs of the slaughtered animal. This punitive measure was not just intended for ritual cleansing of the land, which was considered desecrated by such unholy expression of sexuality, it was also meant as a means of deterring other citizens from such antisocial expressions of sexuality. Such abhorrence have been carried over even to contemporary Yorùbá society; hence homosexual persons (gays and lesbians), have remained in the “closet” and unable to live out their sexuality within the socially constructed framework of life in the Yorùbá community.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the issue of sexuality, sexual behavior, and gender roles among the Yorùbá people. It is obvious that the society has its own conception of sexuality and how men and women ought to conduct themselves in social interactions. Islamization and colonialism have affected these conceptions in various ways. While Islamic religion does not frown at polygyny, which is also rooted in African culture, the Christian religion maintains that monogamy is the only form of marriage acceptable in human society. This has created a hypocritical life style among many modern-day African men who maintain both one wife and concubines at the same time. Despite the influence of Western culture through media globalization and culture flows that break national and cultural boundaries. Gay marriage and transgenderism remain strange cultural practices to the Yorùbáland people, though the Western world regards this as homophobic.

References

- Alaba, O. “Understanding Sexuality in the Yorùbá Culture.” In *Understanding Human Sexuality Seminar Series*. R. Tiemoko and A. Oku-Egbas. Eds. Vol. 1. 40–55. Africa Regional Sexuality Resource Centre, 2004.
- Anonymous. 2013. “Sexuality.” *World Health Organization*. Retrieved April 28, 2014 from http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/topics/sexual_health/sh_definitions/en/
- Essien, K and Aderinto, S. “Cutting the Head of the Roaring Monster: Homosexuality and Repression in Africa.” *African Study Monographs* 30(3) (2009): 121–135.
- Fadipe, N.A. *The Sociology of the Yorùbá*. Ìbàdàn: Ìbàdàn University Press, 1970.

Familusi, O. O. "African Culture and the Status of Women: The Yorùbá Example." *The Journal of Pan African Studies* 5 (1) (2012): 229–313.

Obijole, Olutayo O. "St. Paul's Conception of Marriage in Yorùbá Comparative Context." *Orita: Ìbádàn Journal of Religious Studies* 43 (2) (2011): 105–128.



A Yorùbá traditional hair stylist (*onidiri*). Hair plaiting/braiding/weaving is customarily women's role-profession in Yorùbá culture. Photo credit: "Nigerian Hairstyle – Onidiri," By the Madam – Editor, 27/8/2016. <https://themadameditor.com/2016/08/28/i-am-my-hair/nigerian-hairstyle-onidiri/>