



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE

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COURSE TITLE: RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LEADERSHIP

**MAIN
COURSE**

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**COURSE
GUIDE**

**AEM738
RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LEADERSHIP**

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INTRODUCTION

All over the world, the development of rural areas has remained problematic. It is due to several reasons including poor leadership, weak policy implementation, lack of the political will, absence of local empowerment and so on. The rural communities have continued to be devastated by malnutrition, poverty lack of basic physical, social and institutional infrastructure and poor awareness. The rural people need to be empowered in order to raise their quality of life.

This requires a thorough understanding of the general principles of development and their application. The planning, organization, implementation and evaluation of rural development projects must be based on acceptable, virile approaches.

We need to understand how best to administer development programmes in the communities. One critical aspect of rural administration is leadership. There are basic criteria for selecting local leaders. Leaders of programmes need training in order to be productive.

The likely problems that militate against effective rural development should always be analyzed for solutions.

WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE

This Course Guide explains briefly what to expect when one studies this material.

COURSE AIMS

The aim of this course on Rural Development and Leadership is to understand the major approaches to community development, the principles involved and the nature of leadership needed for effective administration of rural communities.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the entire course, the learner should be able to:

- Understand the principles of rural development;
- Describe the planning, organization, implementation and evaluation stages of rural development;
- Explain the rural development process;
- Appreciate the roles of leaders in the implementation of development programmes;
- Identify the criteria and process of selecting local leaders for development programmes;
- Discuss the common problem militating against rural leadership; and
- Conduct specific case studies.

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

The learner is required to study the units in detail. It is advisable to go through the materials in addition to attending tutorial classes with colleagues.

THE COURSE MATERIALS

Items to be made available to each learner are:

1. Course Guide
2. Study Units

- Unit 1 NEEDS and Rural Development
- Unit 2 Leadership in Programmes of Change and Rural
 Development
- Unit 3 Selection and Training of Leader
- Unit 4 Problems of Rural Leadership
- Unit 5 Local Governments in Participatory Leadership Process

Module 3

- Unit 1 Major Problems of Rural Development
- Unit 2 Rural Development and Poverty Reduction
- Unit 3 The Role of Mass Media in Sustainable Rural
 Development
- Unit 4 Youth in Rural Development
- Unit 5 Women in Rural Development
- Unit 6 Selected Case Studies

In Module 1 Unit 1, the meaning, characteristics and principle of rural development are clearly explained. Unit 2 deals with the various

approaches to rural development and associated constraints. Unit 3 is a detailed discussion of project planning and analysis processes. Unit 4, the project cycle is explained. The major components covered are organization, implementation and evaluation. Unit 5 describes the principles of administration for community development. The national policy NEEDS is presented in details in Module 2 Unit 1. This is related to the discussion to rural development.

Leadership as a factor for change and rural development is discussed in Unit 2 while the issues of the selection and training of leaders are presented in Unit 3. The training requirements are explained. There are problems often confronting leadership in rural areas. These are discussed in Unit 4.

In view of the place of local governments as grassroots development organs, participatory leadership is explained as a process in Unit 5.

The general problems of rural development are discussed in Module 3 Unit 1 to guide development practitioners. The way forward has been suggested. Unit 2 contains a discourse on poverty reduction in a rural development agenda. In Unit 3 the role of mass media in sustainable rural development is highlighted. Unit 4 dwells on the place of youth in

the rural development process while women and their contribution to rural development are explained in unit 5.

Selected case studies of various topics and concerns are described in Unit 6.

TEXT BOOKS AND REFERENCES

There are numerous books and journal that treat different aspects of rural development as well as leadership. The internet is, also a good source of study materials. Some of these have been listed in the references.

ASSESSMENT

There are two aspects of assessment in this course, namely, Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) and end of course examination.

TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) refers to the continuous assessment component of the course. It is marked by the tutor. TMA accounts for 30% of the total examination score. About 3 to 4 TMAs would be given to each learner before the end of the session examination.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

This constitutes 70% of the entire examinations.

SUMMARY

This course is very important to us all; it provides the essential approaches to achieve sustainable community development. It also, explains the leadership selection criteria and gives a detailed analysis of leadership qualities, problems, filed experiences and other issues of rural development.

MODULE 1

Unit 1	Meaning, Characteristics and Principles of Rural Development
Unit 2	Rural Development: Approaches and Constraints
Unit 3	Project Planning and Analysis
Unit 4	Rural Development Projects: Organization, Implementation and Evaluation
Unit 5	Principles of Administration for Community/Rural Development

UNIT 1 MEANING, CHARACTERISTICS AND PRINCIPLES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
	3.1 Meaning of Rural Development
	3.2 Components
	3.3 Characteristics
	3.4 Principles
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

For some years now, nations have witnessed a growing number of migrations of rural people to large urban centres. This movement has been because of:

- a) The lure of city life as people want employment, social amenities and escape from traditional social restrictions; and
- b) The absence of basic facilities such as roads, water, electricity, schools and health services in the rural areas.

The fact that millions of people have come to believe that life in the villages offers no hope whatever is the clearest indication of the failure of rural development in recent years. Yet, there are opportunities for providing needed facilities to attract and maintain people in the rural areas.

Thus, the issue of development is important to individuals, governments and groups of people.

This Unit examines the meaning, characteristics and principles of rural development.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit the learner should be able to:

- define the term ‘ rural development
- list the characteristics of rural areas
- explain the principles of rural development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Rural Development

Scholars define rural development in slightly different ways. One such definition focuses on the continuous socio-economic improvement of the people in rural areas so that they can effectively control their own destiny and resources. Rural development involves the transformation of the rural community into a socially, economically and politically orderly and materially desirable condition, with the purpose of improving the quality of life of the rural people. Rural development essentially involves the integration of the rural poor into the national economy. Many rural communities do not benefit from national development programmes. It is largely believed that the rural poor constitute the vast majority of the population of many developing countries. Yet they are not often involved in programmes and projects that could uplift their quality of living.

It can be seen from the definitions given that for rural development efforts to succeed, the people must acquire education and training to be able to translate their potentials into productive actions. The process should, therefore, lead to improved housing, health, nutrition, education and also create wealth. Improvement is desired in social and economic structures and institutions as well as in human relationships.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

In your opinion, what is meant by rural development?

Thus, rural development means the strategy and process of significantly improving and sustaining the socio-cultural, economic and political life of rural people for their benefit and that of the entire nation. Simply put,

it is a strategy designed to improve the social and economic life of the rural poor, in order to improve productivity as well as increase employment and income of the entire nation. Truly, poverty exists as long as people do not get employment that generates income or that creates wealth. Without economic empowerment, individuals and groups would not be able to build schools, hospitals, markets, industries etc.

3.2 Components

There are six major components of rural development for the rural dwellers as stated by the Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) in 1991. These are the aspects to look out for if one wishes to study or explain rural development. They constitute the elements that give meaning to the concept, at least as it applies to the rural areas. These parts are as follows:

People's Productive Capacities – The people's productive capacities must be enhanced. Closely related to this is the enhancement of the economic opportunities available to them. Available avenues to create wealth should be determined and the individuals given the necessary knowledge and skills to benefit: Training is the key to attain this.

Physical Infrastructures – There must be the physical expansion of physical infrastructures and facilities. Where these exist, efforts must be made to provide additional ones to serve more persons and communities. In the absence of the facilities, it is imperative that rural schools, markets, cottage industries, roads, health and communication structures are created. In addition to the provision or expansion of these infrastructures, there must be improvement of the people's access to such facilities. One way of ensuring access is to site the amenities closest to the people. It is, also, important to bring down the cost of obtaining them, for example, through competitiveness and privatization.

Human Resources Quality - Available manpower must be improved in quality. Quite often, human resources remain undeveloped, unskilled, uninformed and weak economically. Raising the quality of life requires interventions in education, health, agriculture, communication and so on. Intervention may be initiated by the government, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), donor agencies or the community where possible. Effective leadership is needed for coordination, monitoring and sustainability of efforts.

Quality of Life – The improvement of the quality of life is a crucial component of rural development. The masses must rise above poverty line, live in good health conditions, operate in clean environment, have

access to adequate and nutritious food, among others. This also entails improved housing, greater access to goods and services, sports and recreation, self-fulfillment, income-generating capacity and regular water supply. When the masses lack all these, their quality of life suffers. The politicians, national and State assemblies, government functionaries and donor agencies should always plan to improve the quality of life of the rural people.

Rural Organizational and Institutional Capacities – It is expected that rural organizations and institutions would handle development democratically. The capacities of the organizations and institutions to handle these need to be strengthened. Officials of these bodies should be trained to understand democracy, its principles and human management. They would have to provide all logistics needed for success.

Development Consciousness – The people must be development – conscious. They should feel the need for positive change. Sustained effort is required to promote development consciousness among the rural communities. Closely related to this is the encouragement of a sense of belonging among rural dwellers. They are a part of the nation and must feel so. The rural dwellers should be encouraged to participate in development matters that affect them positively. When they benefit from a programme, the people would want to defend it.

Having understood the meaning of rural development and its core components, it is important to find out the nature of rural areas.

3.3 Characteristics of Rural Areas

Rural areas have remained neglected by our leaders for decades. There is evidence of persistent rural inertia, compounded by a worsening general economic climate. Many active members of the rural areas, mostly those in the 15-44 age groups, move to the urban centers. They move out in search of gainful employment, higher income and better living standards for their households. The occupations usually found in rural areas are those of low productivity.

The farm sizes of rural dwellers are generally small. The farmers use poor productive resources. Income per capita is low. There is a high level of poverty. Physical infrastructures such as roads, storage structures, and irrigation facilities are poor. Similarly, social infrastructures including health facilities, educational structures, electricity supply and water supply are generally less available in rural than in urban centers.

Above all, the standard of living in the rural areas is poor.

Box 1: Characteristics of Rural Areas

Rural areas are characterized by widespread poverty, inadequate health care, poor communication facilities, poor nutrition, high illiteracy rates, and high birth and death rates.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. In your own opinion, what does rural development mean? List all you think the term covers.
2. Do you believe that your local government area is developed? State the reasons for your opinion.
3. What are the things (physical or institutional) which you see in the town but are not in the rural areas?

We would now examine the basic principles which guide rural development

3.4 Principles of Rural Development

Conditions in rural areas especially in Africa pose a serious challenge that requires urgent attention. In Nigeria, for example, many aspects of our rural life such as social, economic, infrastructural and institutional facilities are poor. The people are not getting the best from their governments and leaders. The roads are bad, there are no good sources of water supply and health facilities are grossly inadequate while poverty and hunger continue to ravage the masses. What actions or activities should be considered when attempting to develop the rural areas? What are the critical propositions that guide efforts at improving the rural communities? A set of rules to guide a successful strategy for rural development in developing nations has been categorized into two propositions by the World Bank, viz:

those describing the required activities, and
those related to organization.

A. Principles Related to Requisite Activities

1. They key to progress in rural development is to increase agricultural productivity. Agriculture is the primary source of income in the rural areas. Most residents in rural communities engage in agriculture and related activities, such as crop farming, raising of livestock, fishing, hunting, and some forms of agro-processing and marketing. Rural dwellers depend on all these for

their livelihoods including feeding of their families, paying children's school fees, building of their houses and so on. It is, therefore, important to raise agricultural productivity. If the necessary farm inputs and training are given, farmers would intensify production.

2. In order for decision-makers to identify objectives and assign priorities in rural development, an understanding of the physical, human and institutional environments in which programmes or projects operate must be developed. Decision-makers and leaders do not have to impose ideas or plans on the people. Rural dwellers have the capability to initiate their own plans. The role of decision-makers is to hold discussions with the rural people to decide the objectives to attain, the priority areas and organizational plans. To be able to do this effectively, planners and leaders must develop a thorough understanding of the physicals, human and institutional environments in which programmes or projects operate. The project location in terms of accessibility and ownership should be determined. The available human resources (quantity and quality) should be identified and trained. The institutional arrangements such as groupings by age and cooperatives need to be studied and mobilized to help secure acceptance of new programmes in the locality. Policies are usually conditioned by factors in the environment.
3. Government must be willing and able to make relevant, although difficult decisions, improve institutions, establish favorable policies and provide needed resources if agricultural progress is to be made. In most rural areas, the government still plays a major role in promoting development. In fact, development has to be initiated by Government, except in cases where the people have been fully enlightened or mobilized. Thus, the government must be willing to promote development activities in the rural areas. The political will is crucial because nothing would be achieved if policies are not geared towards improving the conditions in the rural environment. Development experts have accused governments in the past of failing to show interest in uplifting the living standard of rural dwellers. The ability of government is, also, important. The financial resources of Government should be pooled into rural development programmes.

Hard or difficult decisions must be made by governments, donors and non-governmental organizations in the sense that allocation of scarce resources requires prioritization of needs among various rural communities. Key rural institutions that need improvement include markets, schools, health centers/hospitals, cooperative

organizations and rural/community banks. Policies that favour rural communities should be established, for example, the intensification of rural road construction, provision of credit facilities, transformation of health facilities, construction of modern markets and improving rural telecommunication. All the material and non-material resources needed by rural communities should be put in place to stimulate agricultural progress.

- 4 Some individuals can only slowly be reached by improved agricultural production and distribution efforts utilizing usual approaches. The acceptance of a new idea is a complex process. Not everybody will accept a project equally or at the same time. Communication scientists have stated that while some accept ideas quickly, some do not and, still, others may never do.

People differ in the speed with which they accept innovations due to factors such as educational background, cosmopolitanism, income level, experience, socio-economic status and so on. Even a very profitable programme may be rejected if the people do not see the need for it. To be fully accepted, the new idea must have relative advantage and be less complicated than the one it tends to supersede. It must be compatible with the existing values and past experiences of the intended beneficiaries. People that are hard to convince should be reached by designing new ways. Innovative approaches should, therefore, be developed and used for the marginalized individuals and groups if they are to benefit from development.

- 5 A close relationship with non-farm employment favours acceleration of agricultural progress. Resources for on-farm investment can be increased through access to non-farm employment which increased sources of income. This proposition is very suitable in the rural areas where many people are said to be farming at the subsistence level. Income from other sources may be directed to increased agricultural production and, thus, raise income level.

Many people in the rural communities engage in hunting, fishing, basket-making, pottery, welding, building construction, carpentry, palm-wine tapping and so on, in addition to farming. Income from such other sources may be applied in farming activities to boost agricultural productivity.

B. Principles Related to Organization (Planning, Implementing and Evaluating the Earlier Activities, Numbers 1-5)

For the rural poor to benefit from change, special efforts must be made to involve them early in the process. Most developmental projects had failed in the past because the planners did not get the potential beneficiaries involved. When rural people participate in planning, implementing and evaluating a programme, they tend to take responsibility for the success of the efforts. This ensures programme sustainability. . The people see the project as theirs and would want to protect it. Development experts suggest that women and youth should be involved in the development cycle. They support programmes actively.

The knowledge of local people and their organization can be used to an advantage in deciding on the useful development activities and how to execute them to be appropriate to a given area. This implies that projects should be designed to suit the location and to be acceptable to the people. To achieve this requires a complete understanding of the people's cultural norms, value system and art. The patterns of settlement, leadership structure and groupings must be studied and used as guide to appreciating the people's problems, attitudes, skills, resources and needs. Knowledge of how the people organize themselves would be useful in deciding upon the administration of the village project. It is useful to build upon the existing organizational structure.

In planning development suitable for a rural area, required activities should be undertaken in sequence. Orderliness is important in project implementation. It is not wise to try to do everything at a time. It is, also, not proper to do everything in every location at the same time. This is because the available human and material resources may not be adequate for allocations. Indeed, development activities should be undertaken one stage at a time, one community should be attended to before another in order to learn from experience.

It is more effective for Government to work with the private market system by reinforcing and supporting it in positive ways instead of creating new institutions. Quite often, in-coming administrations jettison existing programmes for political reasons. In the process, good programmes are abandoned and the people are worst for it. It is advisable for the government to positively support existing institutions by providing necessary logistics for success. Governments may restructure the existing institutions in terms of management style or funding system as well introduces efficient monitoring system. In doing this, the private market system should be empowered to take adequate responsibilities to ensure progress.

Government intervention should be to delegate decision for planning, implementation, and evaluation to the closest level possible to the expected beneficiaries. Planning and implementation of development projects are best achieved with the potential beneficiaries fully involved. Since the projects are to serve them, the people must be encouraged to make detailed input into what is to be done and how. Their skills, ideas and needs must be understood and utilized. Government interventions can become more responsive to local needs and potentials if decision-making and management are decentralized. This would, also, reduce management demands, reduce cost and save valuable time.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. State any five principles of rural development.
2. In each case, explain how to apply the principle.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

DFRRI (1991). *National Policy on Integrated Rural Development*.
Final Report, the Presidency, Lagos, September, P. 11.

UNIT 2 RURAL DEVELOPMENT: APPROACHES AND CONSTRAINTS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Approaches to Rural Development and Related Constraints
 - 3.2 Urban Development Model
 - 3.3 Industrial Development Model
 - 3.4 Sectoral Development Model
 - 3.5 Area Development Model
 - 3.6 Integrated Rural Development Model
 - 3.7 Constraints Confronting Rural Development Process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Rural development involves the transformation of the rural community into socially, economically, politically, educationally, orderly and materially desirable condition with the purpose of improving the quality of life of the rural population. It also involves the integration of the rural poor, which constitutes the vast majority of the population of most developing countries, into the national economy.

Rural development strategy is a systematic, comprehensive and reliable tort owned at bringing about desirable rural transportation and subject-matter scopes of rural development. The objective below guide

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner should be able to:

- describe any one model suitable for developing rural Nigeria
- enumerate constraints associated with a development model.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Approaches to Rural Development

Different models have merged in the development process. The essence is to design and implement appropriate policies and strategies for eradicating rural poverty. Just like people make plans or designs for buildings, there are some plans, models or strategies that have been tried over time to attain development in the rural areas.

Various schemes, programmes and projects that have been embarked upon in Nigeria can be classified into one or more of the models, namely:

- i. urban development model
- ii. industrial development model
- iii. sectoral development model
- iv. area development model
- v. integrated development model

3.1 Urban Development Model

This is perhaps the earliest approach to development. The model favours the concentration of development projects in a few urban areas/centers. The underlying assumption is that the benefits of urban development will trickle down to the rural areas and stimulate rural growth (Rondinelli, *et al.*, 1978 in Eboh *et al.*, 1959). In Nigeria, the administrative and commercial interests of colonial masters influenced the development of urban centers. Hence, industrial and commercial nerve-centers were deliberately situated in the urban centers. However, experience across Nigeria has shown that the trickle-down hypothesis implicit in this model is not always true. On the contrary, growing industrial, commercial and service expansion in cities has had depressed effects on the rural hinterlands by attracting large numbers of young people who are unskilled and hence unemployable in an urban sense from the rural areas ;(Akinbode, 1991). This model is not capable of generating substantial economic growth let alone economic development in the rural areas of developing countries. In Nigeria, the emerging result of this model has been economic dualism characterized by rural-urban migration, rural neglect, and, consequently, urban decay caused by over population (Ayichi, 1995).

3.2 Industrial Development Model

Certain development workers have argued that rural industrialization is a pre-condition for rural development. Their view is that the location of

industries in the rural areas will generate development in rural economies – the belief is that rural industrialization will engender growth in the rural sector by creating employment opportunities, among other benefits. However, this view tends to ignore the fact that certain industries that are located in the rural centers have failed to generate any significant impact on the rural areas, for example cement companies at Gboko, Okpella and Ewekoro as well as the oil companies in Ogoni land. In most cases the industries employ technical experts from outside and only non-skilled labour is sourced within (the rural places). In many instances, the industries exploit the people, their resources and environment. The people are easily gullible in negotiations because they are generally powerless.

3.3 Sectoral Development Model

The proponents of this model are of the view that development of the agricultural sector approximates rural development, particularly in most developing nations. The sectoral model of rural development is almost synonymous with agricultural development model. Here, development of agriculture is considered basic to rural development, and, in fact, it is believed to be the panacea for rural development. The implicit assumption of the sectoral model is that agricultural development will result in the release of surplus labour and fund needed for industrial growth. Until recently, the agricultural/sectoral development model had been the most popular approach of rural development effort in Nigeria. However, traditional agriculture has been incapable of generating substantial funds required for industrial development. The sectoral model is also ineffective because the labour released through agricultural development is sometimes unskilled and not amenable to industrial production. Again, rural development is much broader in concept and practice as it embraces all facets of rural life such as health, education, commerce, social welfare, politics, industry and transport.

3.4 Area Development Model

This model argues in favour of a comprehensive development of unique areas/units like river basins, mineral-bearing zones or fertile agricultural lands. It calls for the identification of some rural areas endowed with unique potentials and modernization of all aspects of human endeavor there. This includes developing agriculture, commerce, housing, education, health, transport and industry. To achieve this, a comprehensive programme is usually formulated and implemented by a development agency or authority charged with the responsibility of coordinating the activities. Examples are the River basin Development Authorities, Farm Settlement Schemes, Export Processing Zone Programmes and Community Farm Projects. This strategy is good in

itself but it is incapable of promoting an overall national development in a country or region. It leads to the creation/emergence of “economic islands” within/surrounded by the “seas of rural poverty” (Akinbode, 1991, P.11), largely due to the absence of centrally coordinated government and community efforts.

3.5 Integrated Rural Development Model

This is perhaps the latest rural development strategy and it is widely upheld/accepted and favoured by international development agencies and donors like The World Bank, UNDP, etc. It is the most realistic approach to effective overall rural development in developing countries today.

The proponents believe that the problem of rural development is how to eradicate the “integrated rural poverty” which can only be achieved by pursuing integrated strategy. The integrated rural development (IRD) model seeks to develop all sectors of the rural economy and effectively link them up with their urban counterparts. Thus, the model seeks to promote spatial, social, economic and even psychological linkages not only among the various sectors but also among the different regions of a national system (Akinbode, 1991). It encourages mutually supportive urban and rural linkages. This development strategy aims at ensuring a more equitable distribution of wealth rather than merely increasing Gross National Product alone. This growth-with-equity strategy, thus, seeks to integrate the ‘ruralites’ into the economic and political mainstream of the nation. IRD also entails government and community cooperative participation in the provisioning of better health, education, rural infrastructures in such a coordinated and simultaneous manner to enhance the overall welfare of the rural dwellers.

IRD seeks to promote a more rapid development of the rural areas through a sustained effort to raise agricultural productivity and provide basic human needs such as health facilities, electricity, access roads, hygienic water supply and food items. The focus is aimed at simultaneously providing “improved services to farmers in the form of an integrated package which will ensure the evolution of appropriate infrastructural, institutional and administrative apparatus to facilitate development of the country’s agricultural potential. IRD is an effective means of significantly uplifting the well-being of rural people in Nigeria. The ADP is about the boldest attempt by Federal Government of Nigeria to pursue IRD on a relatively long-term basis.

The implementation of IRD is quite a difficult task, as procedures for success are still evolving. One pattern which has been suggested is based on the initial identification of needed projects based on immediate

and long-term national needs, determination of projects that could create greater positive impact on the rural people and suggesting locations, with implementation guidelines for each project.

3.6 Constraints Confronting Rural Development

Back in 1983, it was recognized that rural development programming in Nigeria had failed to make rural man the centre-piece of rural development. According to a report by Federal Department of Rural Development (FDRD, 1983) in Nigeria, with the focus on surplus extraction and material things, rural man was relegated to the background and he appeared to have only mattered to the extent that he produced the rural surpluses. In Agriculture, for example, projects were formulated in terms of physical targets such as quantities of fertilizers to be sold, output, and so on almost to the total neglect of producer income targets. The basic need matrix of Nigeria's rural majority up to 1990 was outlined by FDRD to be elementary education, adult education, rural health, rural water supply, rural roads, rural electrification, nutrition and housing. Actually, the rural majority is a neglected group, constituting 75 percent of the total population (Famoriyo, 1987).

Development projects and plans formulated with so much care and intelligence often fail drastically in the Third World Countries. Many development studies indicate a variety of constraints, among which the most pervasive one is the non-participation of the masses in the development effort (Samad, 1990). The unfortunate reasons are that the role of local knowledge and indigenous capacity in the planning and development process is ignored. The consequence is that the human potential is largely untapped.

There also exist wide inequalities in access to resources which lead to poor income, low productivity and poor standards of living (Okuneye and Idowu, 1990). This situation has been brought about largely by failure to properly identify the needs of the rural community as well as the lack of assessment of its resources and potentials. Most villages in Nigeria today may never be studied by respective experts to determine what natural resources might abundant in particular areas. Olomola (1986) opines that the inadequacy of in-depth research, particularly policy research in agriculture, health and education that is related to the whole concept of rural development, is a great set-back to any long-term programme of structural economic transformation oriented towards the improvement of the levels of living of the rural dwellers. However, one is tempted to question the logic of the conventional approach which identifies the solution to the problem of welfare with economic growth and industrialization. Truly, increases in agricultural production would not automatically solve rural welfare, economic or social problems.

Economic growth strategies have actually increased the economic welfare problem of the rural population in many Third World Countries (Famoriyo, 1992).

The basic needs approach propounded by the World Bank in 1978 which regards the pursuit of basic needs as a principal objective of development requires that emphasis should be placed on rural –based development strategy and provision of public services including those of health, education, water supply, roads and electricity. Proponents of structural economic transformation argue, however, that improvement in the production system would raise the earning capacity of the rural dwellers and this would, in turn, lead to great improvements in the general living standard (Nwosu, 1987).

Nigeria ranks among the low income countries in the world. Rural development scholars have attributed the weakness of the rural development process to a number of bottlenecks (Idachaba 1980; Ijere, 1992; Eweka *et al.*, 1979). Some of the major problems which these experts identify are listed below:

- i. Lack of adequate information on the role, impact and effects of the social attributes and characteristics on rural development process;
- ii. A growing apathy to labour-intensive primary production, sub-optimal physical energy to work arising from ageing and youthfulness of the rural labour force, as well as inadequate nutrition from ingested foods;
- iii. Traditional customs, mores and taboos as well as foreign customs tending to create a mongrel and complicated set of behaviors and attitudes;
- iv. Weak or inadequate training of people in rural development;
- v. Ignorance of the taxonomy or the mapping of the location, form of occurrence, characteristic features, magnitude and arrangements of the natural resources of the area;
- vi. Absence of attractive social, physical and institutional infrastructures in the rural areas;
- vii. non-involvement of the grassroots in the rural development planning process;
- viii. Poor funding of rural development activities or projects;

- ix. Operation of fatalism and political powerlessness among the poor; and
- x. Inadequate dissemination of information on rural development, created by poor documentation and information preservation-retrieval processes.

These problems constitute the most formidable cog in the wheel of rural development.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are relevant approaches to guide rural development efforts in different areas.

5.0 SUMMARY

Rural development implies the improvement of the social and economic life of the rural poor. Various approaches exist for developing the rural areas. There are crucial problems that must be solved in order to develop the rural areas.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Choose one rural development model you believe is best for implementation under the Nigerian rural setting, giving appropriate reasons and describing how it would work.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 PROJECT PLANNING AND ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Project
 - 3.2 Aspects of Project Preparation and Analysis
 - 3.2.1 Social Aspects
 - 3.2.2 Economic Aspects
 - 3.2.3 Financial Aspects
 - 3.2.4 Technical Aspects
 - 3.2.5 Commercial Aspects
 - 3.2.6 Institutional-Organizational/Managerial Aspects
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

A project refers to the series of activities for investing resources which will be analyzed and evaluated. Every project has to be planned properly, implemented faithfully and evaluated to ensure it meets the standards of its owners. Many rural development projects can be analyzed and evaluated to ensure that they remain useful to the communities in which they are located.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit the learner should be able to:

- define a project
- describe aspects of project preparation and analysis.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of a Project

A project is a scheme of activities for investing resources which can be reasonably analyzed and evaluated as an independent unit. They are the building blocks of investment.

A project refers to the entire complex of activities using resources to gain benefits. It is an activity on which money is spent in expectation of returns.

Agricultural projects include those of rural credit, tree crops, agricultural education and extension, communication of innovations, livestock, agricultural machinery, irrigation and various agro-related rural development projects.

In agricultural project, financial resources are invested to create capital assets which would yield benefits either quickly or over time. There can be investments in tractor, farm building or a breeding herd. A project involves planning, financing, implementation, use of resources, costs and returns.

It is advisable to have projects that are economically, technically and administratively feasible (Gittinger, 1981). A project can be planned, financed, implemented and evaluated. A project, therefore, has a definite beginning and an end. It has a specific location, a well-defined sequence of investment activities, specific intended beneficiaries (clientele group), and a specified group to benefit. There is, also, an administrative structure. It is important to analyze the financial results and economic justification of any project. For any agricultural project to succeed there should be sound planning. If one wishes to obtain financial or technical assistance, the project should be well-analyzed. Project analysis will help a Government to allocate available administrative and financial resources among many competing programmes and sectors. The basic aim of analyzing a project is to determine if an existing project or a proposal is worthwhile investing in terms of satisfying the objective of its sponsors (Tyokevere, 2007).

3.2 Aspects of Project Preparation and Analysis

Good analysis requires that all aspects of the project be thoroughly considered. There are six aspects that every project analyst should examine. These are social, economic, financial, technical, commercial, and institutional-organizational-managerial.

3.2.1 Social Aspects

Every project will surely have implications for the community and its people. The implications can be understood as presented below:

Consideration in project design should be given to the issue of creating employment opportunities in the area in order to reduce idleness, restiveness and poverty.

It is equally important that the project should be responsive to national objectives. For instance, when the national goals emphasize job creation, the preparation must provide for young men and women to be gainfully employed in order to help create wealth and reduce poverty.

In a related manner, such a proposed project should benefit the lower income groups as well as those of higher income in the community.

One other key element is the need to carefully note the likely adverse impacts of a project on the people and their livelihood patterns. Efforts must be made to reduce such negative effects in project planning. Government may put in place a policy that would help reduce expected negative impact on the people.

Quality of life is an essential component in a project design. It should consider educational opportunities, improved health facilities, good water supplies and decent housing. Accessibility of these would raise quality of life.

The environmental impact of a project should be taken into consideration, e.g. provision, should be made to avoid air and water pollution. Pollution causes health hazards to man.

3.2.2 Economic Aspects

Consideration is given to the possible contribution of a project to the development of the total economy (society). Taxes and subsidies are treated as transfer payments. The taxes generated (as benefits) by a project are transferred to the government which acts on behalf of the society. A subsidy is a cost to the society because it is an expenditure of resources which the society incurs to operate the project. Another feature is that some market prices may be changed (adjusted) so that they reflect more accurately social or economic values. These prices are often termed “shadow” or “accounting” prices. Thus, projected prices are used in panning.

Economic analysis tends to estimate the total return, including interest. Interest on capital is not separated and deducted from the gross return since it is part of the total return to the capital available to the society as a whole. Cost of resources flowing into the project and the prices of project output will not always reflect their true or scarcity values or their opportunity costs due to Government intervention in the marketing process, e.g. Government subsidy policy.

One important economic consideration in project analysis is the best source of scarce capital resources to maximize the contribution of a

project investment to the people. Projects which maximize return to capitals are selected for implementation.

3.2.3 Financial Aspects (Private Analysis)

The financial analysis considers the individual participants (the economic analysis takes the viewpoint of the society). The financial impact of a proposed project on every individual is considered. The participants include the farmers, project agencies, public corporations and the private sector firms. Financial analysis of farms is intended to judge how much participating farm families in the project would have to live on. It considers what remains to compensate the family for its labour, capital and managerial skills, after credit repayments and expenditures.

The project administration also requires financial analysis. This includes the investment funds needed and operating expenses. Every investor is interested in the return to equity capital invested in the project.

Another financial aspect to consider is the fiscal impact of the project, e.g. effect of increased output on tax revenues, subsidies needed, etc.

3.2.4 Technical Aspects

A clear technical analysis is needed to consider the inputs and outputs of real goods and services. The project planning officials should ensure that good technical staff are engaged and that adequate cooperation is given to them.

Components of technical analysis in agriculture that should examine are:

- a) physical inputs – quantity available;
- b) water availability- source, regularity
- c) soil-nature and properties
- d) livestock species- improved, types
- e) crop varieties improved, types,
- f) marketing , processing and storage facilities required

A detailed analysis of these features will help to determine the information gaps to be filled potential, project yields and gains as well as the coefficients of production (Gittinger, 1981). It is advisable to ensure that technical estimates and projections are realistic and appropriate.

3.2.5 Commercial Aspects

Commercial aspects of a project include arrangements for:

- a) marketing the output produced by the project –market channels, facilities for handling output, quality of output, financing plans, as well as input availability.
- b) Supply of materials and services needed to operate the project
- c) The procurement of equipment and supplies.

3.1.6 Institutional-Organizational-Managerial Aspects

These relate to the following issues:

- a. Friendly policies and appropriate institutional setting e.g. land tenure system; administrative set up; collaborating agencies; clear line of authority; administrative acumen of staff; managerial skills of the farmers who would participate.
- b. Existing communication systems to give farmers access to information and teach improved skills.
- c. Customs and culture of the farmers who would be involved in the project.
- d. Effective and early project implementation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Detailed planning is crucial to the success of any rural development project. If any government, agency or group is to implement a project in the rural areas the project analyst must examine various issues and components.

5.0 SUMMARY

A rural development project should be economically, socially, technically and administratively feasible. It is important to analyze a potential project before implementation. Project analysis covers many aspects which are social, economic, financial, technical, commercial, and institutional-organizational managerial.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List the aspects of project analysis
2. Describe any two aspects, giving examples.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: ORGANIZATION, IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Project Cycle
 - 3.2 Identification
 - 3.3 Preparation and Analysis
 - 3.4 Appraisal
 - 3.5 Implementation
 - 3.6 Evaluation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Rural development does not just happen, it is planned. Planning for rural development is similar to that of any project cycle. There are, however, variations according to each locality. The stages involved are usually not time-bound. Development programmes often fail where the local people are not involved right from planning to evaluation. Thus, the people do not see the projects as their own. The consequence is that they are not committed to such projects. Control of the projects is not in the hands of the people to be served. The people must be involved from the project need identification for sustainability to be achieved.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner should be able to:

- describe the project cycle of rural development
- prepare a project (planning) document
- describe how to appraise a project
- explain the technique of project implementation and management
- describe the procedure for project evaluation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Project Cycle

The natural sequence in which projects are planned and carried out, is referred to as the project cycle. The starting point of a project is its identification and the finishing stage is its operation. The entire series of activities that should be covered from project identification to the stages where the project is ready for operation is what is called the Project cycle. The major stages of the project cycle are identification, preparation and analysis, appraisal, implementation, and evaluation (Gittinger, 1981). Let us explain each one here.

3.2 Identification

The first stage is to find potential projects. It is the origination of the idea of a project. Sources of ideas about projects include local leaders, technical specialists and proposals to extend existing projects.

Projects may originate due to the presence of resources (resource based) or as a result of needs (need-based). One principle of participation in development is the inclusion of the beneficiaries in the process. Ideally, the first stage is to identify a project which is of interest to the rural community. The people themselves should be involved in identifying the development project needed following situation analysis, priority setting and an examination of available human and material resources. A survey of the overall current situation in agriculture will indicate what initiatives may be needed and the current status of agriculture, project future needs for agricultural products over the next decade or so and programmes needed, potential increases in the outlook for marketing possibilities and identify the existing gaps in existing plans.

3.3 Preparation and Analysis

This stage involves a detailed planning of the project. A feasibility study is required to specify the objectives of the project clearly, listing all alternative ways to achieve the same objectives. This will enable project planners to discard poor alternative projects. The wants and needs of the community must be determined, priorities set, and solutions decided upon. It includes determining the sources of finance, soil, types of crops or animals to raise, labour requirements, and raw materials required (sources and quantity) and capital inputs such as machinery. In this stage, all the needed actions are decided upon. Project formulation covers a number of parameters, such as technical, financial, economic and commercial parameters. These factors are considered in attempting to determine the viability or otherwise of a project. This preparation is

usually referred to as feasibility study. The purpose of feasibility study is to determine if the project is worth undertaking. In this stage all the needed actions are decided upon. Other issues to determine are technical requirements of the project and its market outlay. A consultant may be brought in if necessary. In agriculture, preparing the detailed project plan may cost from seven to ten percent of the total investment.

3.4 Appraisal

The suitability of the project is determined in this stage. A critical review or appraisal is made. Corrections are made in the areas of the plan for project management, finances, as well as technical and organization matters. The document is reviewed to ensure that mistakes are not made later. It is necessary, for instance, to ensure cultural acceptability of the project and its compatibility with the people's needs. It must, also, ensure adequate provision for people's participation. The appraisal should cover the managerial, technical, financial and commercial issues stated in the feasibility report or plan. A community will be happy to have a project that can be implemented to the benefit of the society. Implementation is the most important part of the project cycle. Project implementation must be flexible as circumstances will change, e.g. technical changes, price changes, etc.

3.5 Implementation

At this stage, the planned projects start. It is important to have a management committee which would oversee the implementation of the project. Peculiar and adequate funding is needed. The Committee monitors the disbursement and expenditure of money, supervises the activities of the project and reports to the owners and donors. It, also, resolves any problem that may be observed. The implementation phase consists of:

- i. The investment period, when the major project investments are undertaken, and may last up to five years.
- ii. The loan disbursement period.
- iii. The development period when the production builds up and gets to full-scale development.

It is at this stage that many of the real problems of the project may be discovered.

3.6 Evaluation

Evaluation assesses the overall impact of the project (e.g. what effect the project has brought about).

The final phase in the project cycle is evaluation. The elements of success and failure are examined to learn how better to plan for the future. This stage involves determining the extent to which the goals of the project have been met. This is necessary in order to make appropriate changes. Evaluation is not limited only to completed projects. Evaluation is of two types, namely, on-going and terminal.

- i. **On-going evaluations** is an action-oriented analysis of project effects and impacts of activities carried out during implementation (Cernea and Tepping, 1997). This evaluation concerns the process or events taking place or what activities that are not being done and why. It is designed to suggest solutions to problems of project execution.

One major objective of on-going evaluation is to make an in-depth assessment, before project completion, of whether the people are getting the benefits of the project as planned. It helps policy makers and management to adapt the project to changing objectives and circumstances.

- ii. **Terminal evaluation** is the one undertaken at the end of the project, that is, when the project has been completed. It is also called ex-post evaluation because it may take several years before a comprehensive review is made of the experiences and impact of the project. The aim is to help in future policy formulation and project design.

Usually, evaluation includes measuring the output (results) against the input used (set goals) in order to obtain an efficiency index, represented as:

$$\text{Efficiency Index (EI)} = \frac{\text{Cost of Input}}{\text{Revenue (Output Value)}}$$

A lower efficiency ratio is better for a rural development project.

The crucial task for development managers is monitoring, i.e. gathering information to show whether objectives within the control of management are being achieved.

Evaluation means exploring if the achievement of immediate project objectives leads to desired goals. It takes much longer, is costly and may be best performed by an external agency (Poate, 1993).

Monitoring and evaluation (M and E) are very common in development projects. Donors usually insist on progress reports and want to examine the results achieved by a project.

Shigh Monitoring Indicators

Relevant indicators for monitoring include:

- a) the resources put in place (personnel, materials)
- b) the number of people served by the project
- c) the attitude of the people towards the usefulness of the project and its staff
- d) training (role learning)
- e) physicals equipment
- f) Expenditure on project/financial monitoring.

Indicators for Evaluation

Some indicators for evaluations are:

- a. Credit use/recovery
- b. Amount of inputs used –manpower, capital etc.
- c. Total number of people benefiting
- d. Project effects-changes in living standards resulting from the project effects-increase in income, status etc.

Class Assignment

The students should group themselves into two and each group should select any of these topics:

- A. Prepare a project document inclusive of identification and planning process.
- B. Draw up a monitoring and evaluation guide for a project in the rural area.

The stages in a participatory monitoring and evaluation process are shown in Fig. 1

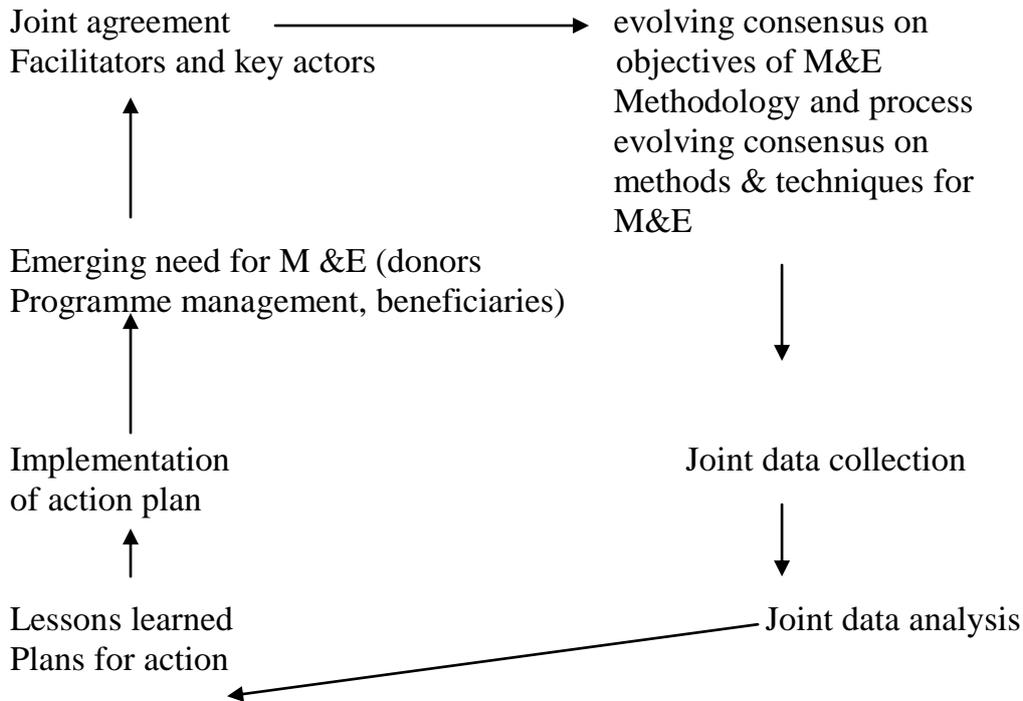


Fig 1: Stages in the Monitoring and Evaluation process

Sources: CTA (1995), P. 126.

Evaluation may be done by many different people such as the project management, outside evaluators and university staff.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is necessary to plan for the execution of rural development projects. The organization, implementation and evaluation of such projects should involve the intended beneficiaries. Similarly, project monitoring and evaluation should be an interactive learning process.

5.0 SUMMARY

The major phases in the project cycle are identification, preparation (planning) appraisal implementation and evaluation. To ensure sustainability of rural development projects, monitoring and evaluation must be made an integral part of the process.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1) Explain the activities involved in identifying a rural development project.
- 2) If you were to be involved in project monitoring, or evaluation, what indicators would you deal with? Choose only one.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATION FOR COMMUNITY/RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Community Development
 - 3.2 Basic Elements of Community Development
 - 3.3 Necessary Requirements for a Good Community Development Programme
 - 3.4 Dimensions of Community Development
 - 3.5 The Community Development Process
 - 3.6 Community-Driven Development
 - 3.6.1 Dimensions of CDD
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

To ensure effective contribution to the development of the community, the parameters of operation and responsibilities of community development must be well-defined. To avoid ambiguity and conflicting definitions “community resource development (CD)” (CRD) may be used as an alternative to community development. CRD is an effort to combine the body of knowledge in the area of CD with the brain power of the community for the purpose of speeding up and improving the solving of community problems. Community development is, thus, regarded as one in which the people determine their own goals haven understood the problems and opportunities in their community. As with CD, the decisions the development needs rests with community leaders, not project technicians.

In this unit, the meaning of community development is clarified, the basic elements of community development explained and CD process described.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, the learner should be able to:

- define community development (CD)
- explain the basic elements of CD

- describe the principles (requirements) of CD
- describe the CD process
- explain community-driven development as empowerment tool.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Community Development

We should understand what a community means in order to be able to develop it. Community refers to a group of people who organize for a common purpose. It could be small or large in a geographic area and may comprise housewives, farmers, children, civil servants, businessmen, and so on.

So, what do we mean by community development?

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (CD) is a process of planned and organized effort, aimed at assisting individuals to acquire attitudes, skills and concepts required for democratic participation in the effective solution of community problems. It involves ultimate control by the people, a substantial degree of freedom by individuals and group government decentralization, and widespread citizen participation (Anyanwu, 1983).

Self-help is a basic principle to the concept of community development. The major aim of CD is to assure for the ordinary citizen the opportunity to share in making important decisions about his living conditions. He is, also, assured that plans and demand for improvement are not imposed from above or from outside his own community. Hence, CD is a means for achieving a unified approach to community improvement by increasing local skill in the use of the democratic process. CD makes use of existing formal or informal institutions/organizations at the level of the locality where it operates. It relies heavily on locals' leadership to elicit the enthusiasm of the people.

3.2 Basic Elements of Community Development

It is important to understand the essential elements of community development if we are to be able to effectively implement planned programmes. The elements of CD are:

- i. CD is designed to achieve varied aspects of specific improvement, directed at both rural and urban communities (note that rural development is directed on rural areas). CD, therefore, deals with improvement of communities in rural as well as urban locations.

- ii. CD relies heavily on community resource to facilitate needed change. Human and materials resources existing in the community are essential and depended upon to a very large extent in formulating, implementing and evaluating development programmes. It is believed that resources (human and non-human) are adequate and relevant to implement programmes of desired change once efforts are made to utilize them.
- iii. Closely related to the above is that the participation of the community people (human resources) is essential for success. The initiative, knowledge and skills of the people should be relied upon. This would make the programme easily acceptable, defended and promoted among the people.
- iv. To enable CD attain planned goals, specialist assistance (not introduction of improved technology) is needed. Effort should be made to enlist the services of specialists in all dimensions of community development.

The **assumptions** of CD are that:

- a. the people remain the greatest resource that any community possesses.
- b. people are capable of working for their welfare whether rich or poor. Even the poor have something good to offer in development.
- c. Self-help is very necessary – desired change can be achieved through the efforts of the people themselves. Any CD programme can only succeed if certain essential requirements are met. Let us mention them now.

3.3 Necessary Requirements for a Good Committee Development Programme

- i. Awareness must be created in the people so that they feel the need to solve identified problems. It should be understood that CD relies much on creating emotions among the people.
- ii. Trained local leaders e needed to assist in working with the people should be engaged.
- iii. the service of experts should be obtained to assist CD workers.

- iv. There is need for well-trained local level workers who have sound human relations and can work effectively with community people.
- v. A management committee should be set up to identify the people's needs, decide on all development issues and monitor programme execution, evaluation and follow-up.
- vi. Efforts should be made to eliminate delays in releasing money, equipment and grants.
- vii. The CD workers and local people should communicate easily and effectively.
- viii. For all CD programmes, there is need for active village-level organizations and institutions to be involved .
- ix. The local government council should show real interest in community development efforts.
- x. CD programmes would benefit from collaboration and coordination with other agencies
- xi. An understanding of the peoples culture, norms and value system is essential for CD success. The key facts about CD are shown in the Box 2 below. .

Box: Key facts about CD

- 1) CD lays emphasis on the group – people are organized into working groups.
- 2) Problems are solved in a comprehensive manner
- 3) Service agencies are involved through coordination and collaboration.
- 4) CD actually represents an arm of government comprising many departments.

3.4 Dimensions of Community Development

To achieve sustainable community development, the economic, social/human, institutional, technological and environmental dimensions should be considered.

Economic dimension entails the provision of adequate resources such as credit to rural dwellers to increase income and productivity (Eboh et al., 1995).

Social/human dimension refers to the improvement of human resources (human capital base) through the provision of education and health facilities, improved welfare and alleviation of hunger.

Institutional dimension involves empowering indigenous community organizations and groups to participate in development planning and execution.

Technological dimension requires the recognition of the place of indigenous technologies as a foundation for the improvement of the technological base of rural dwellers. We must build on the indigenous technologies in order to ensure full acceptance of any innovation or approach designed for improvement of quality of life of rural people.

Environmental dimension includes the protection of the resources in the environment, namely, water bodies, land/soil, wildlife, forests, etc. Wise use of natural resources is called for and this may be achieved through awareness creation and environmental education.

At this stage, we must determine the essence of community development. What are the general objectives of CD? Some important ones are to:

- a) satisfy needs
- b) develop community consciousness and pride
- c) improve quality of life
- d) develop leadership
- e) encourage participation in development
- f) protect the community from unwanted influences

3.5 Community-Driven Development

The World Bank initiated an approach to help reduce poverty through empowerment. It is called community-Driven Development (CDD). It is meant to help empower local communities in Africa to shape their future by giving them more resources and the authority to use these resources to improve their standards of living. The World Bank believes that no one can make much progress alone (the World Bank Group African Region, ww.worldbank.org/cdd). The starting point is to empower communities by giving them more resources and authority to use these flexibly. Funds are expected to be provided by local governments as well as rural and urban communities.

Under CDD, local governments as well as rural and urban communities have new set of powers, right and obligations, namely the:

- a) right to be treated as people with capabilities, not objects of pity;
- b) power to plan, implement and maintain projects to serve their felt needs;
- c) right to hold politicians and officials accountable;
- d) power to command local bureaucrats instead of being supplicants;
- e) power to hire, pay and discipline all who provide them with frontline local services like education, health, municipal and agricultural services;
- f) right to a share of central government revenue ;
- g) power to levy user charges and local taxes;
- h) obligation to enable women, ethnic minorities, the poorest, and other long excluded groups to participate fully in economic development; and
- i) obligation to be accountable to local people, not just central governments or donors.

CDD is to complement other sectoral programmes meant for reducing poverty. It aims to build on social capital by harnessing community participation, and also to improve social capital by strengthening incentives for participatory development. Vibrant community structures constitute social capital, a much –neglected asset that can yield high economic dividends.

3.6 Dimensions of CDD

There are five main dimensions of community-driven development (CDD), namely, empowering communities, empowering local governments, re-aligning the centre; improving accountability, and building capacity

i. Empowering communities

This implies providing untied grants/funds which enable them to decided their own priorities and develop and improve their decision-making skills. It has been shown that communities can be organized quickly and productively to diagnose local problems, come up with solutions, lay down priorities, elaborate action plans, and strengthen community organizations and accountability.

ii. Empowering Local Governments

Community empowerment is most sustainable if local governments can take over from donors the task of providing matching grants to communities. The local private sector should be harnessed to implement projects.

iii. Realigning the Centre

Many responsibilities will have to shift from the federal to local governments. The federal government should focus on facilitating local government activities, setting standards, monitoring outcomes, providing training to lower levels, and providing rewards and penalties to improve local government performance.

iv. Improving Accountability

A single line of accountability is needed with all documents in the local language. Fiscal rewards and penalties for communities and local governments can induce competition between them. Losers will be answerable to their constituencies for being left behind in the race for matching grants. Such competition will improve performance and accountability. Members of the communities should be trained to conduct monitoring and evaluation. This will strengthen traditional forms of upward accountability.

v. Building

Skills of community members need to be developed quickly. Untied matching grants to communities and local governments will develop their inherent capacity for problem-solving through learning by doing. Technical assistance would be needed to help in this regard.

3.6.1 Social Capital

Social capital refers to those intangible substances that count for most of the daily lives of people for example goodwill, fellowship, sympathy, and social intercourse among people. Social capital is part of good governance because it addresses those problems which cannot be handled either by individuals acting alone or by markets and governments. Where there is a high level of social capital, violent crime is markedly low (Tyokever, 2007). Communities solve problems that might otherwise appear as classic market failures or state failures such as insufficient provision of local public goods such as neighborhood amenities, the absence of insurance and other risk-sharing opportunities even when these would be mutually beneficial, exclusion of the poor

from credit markets, and excessive and ineffective monitoring of work effort. Communities can sometimes do what government and markets fail to do because their members (but not outsiders) have crucial information about other members' behaviour, capacities and needs. Members use this information both to uphold norms and to make use of efficient insurance arrangements that are not plagued by the usual problems of moral hazards and adverse selection. Thus, social capital refers to the assessable resources embedded in the social structure or social networks that bring about benefits to their owners. This definition portrays social capital from the individual –level perspective. In contrast, social capital may be seen as a collective asset of a group, an organization, or even a whole society upon which the basis of civil society and economic development is constructed.

Social capital is about the set of forces (norms, rules and law) that rule human interactions in a way that coordinates production, distribution and consumption activities. We note that physical capital refers to physical objects, and human capital refers to the properties of individuals. Social capital refers to connections among individuals – social works and norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them. In other words, social capital is closely related to what some authorities refer to as 'civic virtue'. Affirming this view, Putnam (2000) observe that a society with many virtuous but isolated individuals is not necessarily rich in social capital. Similarly, Social capital means institutions, relationships and norms that shape the quality of society's social interaction. Social capital consists of active connections among people; trust, mutual understanding, shared values and behaviors that bind the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible. Interaction enables people to build communities, to commit themselves to each other and to social fabrics together.

Sources of Social Capital

Sources of social capital are highlighted below:

Families: As the main source of economic and social welfare for its members, the family is the first building block in the generation of social capital for the larger society.

Communities: Social interaction among neighbors, friends and groups generate capital and the ability to work together for a common good.

Firms: Building and sustaining efficient organizations like firms demands trust, and common sense of purpose which is social capital.

Civil Society: Social capital is crucial to the success of any non-governmental organization because it provides opportunities or participation and gives voice to those who may be locked out of more Formal Avenue to effect change.

Public Sector: The state and its institutions are central to the functioning and welfare of any society.

Ethnicity: Ethnic ties are clear examples of how actors who share common values and culture can blend together for mutual benefit.

Gender: Social networks of impoverished women are important for women to obtain income and other necessities they need for their personal development. Religion:” Religion as a way of life constitutes an important stock of social capital (Tyokever, 2002).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Why do people clamor for development of the rural communities?
2. Identify the elements and assumptions of; community development.
3. If we want to achieve community development goals, what are the needed requirements?
4. Discuss the essential stages of the CD process in full.
5. What are the provisions of CDD?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Community resources (human and non-human) are required to ensure effective development efforts. There are basic stages in the CD process.

5.0 SUMMARY

Community development involves greater people participation, local skill acquisition and empowerment. To facilitate change, community resources are heavily relied upon. One basic assumption is that self-help is very necessary. Trained local leaders are needed. Service agencies are involved through collaboration and coordination.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. If you were involved on a local committee to prepare a programme for your community, what are the necessary requirements?
2. Discuss the CD process, giving illustration.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 2

Unit 1	Needs and Rural Development
Unit 2	Leadership in Programmes of Change and Rural Development
Unit 3	Selection and Training of Leaders
Unit 4	Problems of Rural Leadership
Unit 5	Local Governments in Participatory Leadership Process

UNIT 1 NEEDS AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Challenges in Agriculture and Rural Development
3.2	NEEDS: Meaning and Importance
3.3	Fundamental Principles of NEEDS
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was launched when to last from 2003 to 2007. According to the National Planning Commission (NPC 2004), the NEEDS is a product of wide range consultation with all the stakeholders drawn from both the public and organized private sectors (OPS), as well as the civil society, which includes the Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC). In order to ensure that the programme takes root in the economy, the stage and local government equivalence of NEEDS were to be implemented as State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) and LOCAL Government Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS). NEEDS is a development approach. Its focus is on the extent to which each sector promotes popular participation, people-centered economic goals and activities, and tractable contribution to overall goals of poverty alleviation.

NEEDS defines a process of development anchored by a clear vision sound values, and enduring principles. The vision for Nigeria's development derives from the country's history, endowments, experience, and aspirations. Nigeria desires to be the strongest economy in Africa and a force to be reckoned with in the world. Nigeria seeks to use NEEDS as a nationally coordinated framework of action, in close

collaboration with state governments and other stakeholders to consolidate development. NEEDS has laid the foundation for employment generation and poverty reduction.

NEEDS is anchored on the imperative to restore the fundamental values of Nigeria, which have been weakened over the years. Nigeria is a multi-ethnic society, with a value system that derives from the diversity of its people, religion and cultures. The elements of this value system include respect for elders, honesty and accountability, cooperation, industry, discipline, self-confidence and moral courage.

Despite great natural wealth, Nigeria is poor and social development is limited. If the present trends continue, the country is not likely to meet the Millennium Development Goals. Three main problems hamper progress:

- i. Not all our people enjoy the same chance of prosperity.
- ii. Past governments in Nigeria, instead of focusing on delivering essential public services, assumed control of major sources of national income. In the process, corruption thrived in the public service and gained a strong foothold in the society,
- iii. Although, the environment for private enterprise is improving, there are still many challenges.

The plan for prosperity must address a startling paradox: about two-thirds of the Nigerian people are poor, despite living in a country with vast potential wealth. Although revenues from crude oil have been increasing over the past decades, our people have been falling deeper into poverty. In 1980 an estimated 27 percent of Nigerians lived in poverty. By 1999, about 70 percent of the population had income of less than \$1 a day (NPC, 2004).

Poor people are more likely to live in rural areas, be less educated, and have larger families than the rest of the population. One source of poverty is the lack of basic services, such as clean water, education, and health care. Another is lack of assets, such as land, tools, credit, and supportive networks of friends and family. A third is lack of income, including food, shelter, clothing and empowerment (political power, confidence, dignity). Any effective poverty-reduction strategy must attack poverty on all fronts at the same time.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner should be able to:

- explain the meaning and importance of NEEDS
- itemized the fundamental principles of NEEDS
- list the specific policy goals of NEEDS-2.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Challenges in Agriculture and Rural Development

Agriculture is the leading non-oil sector foreign exchange earner, the largest employer of labour and a key contributor to wealth creation in Nigeria.

Over the years, growth in agricultural productivity has stagnated and failed to keep pace with the needs of a rapidly growing Nigerian population. This has resulted in steady increases in import bills for food and industrial raw materials. The potentials of the agricultural sector as a major source of foreign exchange earnings and source of rural employment have been hampered. In effect, a large proportion of Nigerians (many of whom live in the rural areas) remains poor.

Some of the major problems confronting non-subsistence agricultural production in Nigeria and which inhibit large scale private sector participation include the following:

- i. Massive rural-urban migration;
- ii. The shift in consumption patterns from local to imported food items;
- iii. lack of adequate investment in processing and storage facilities;
- iv. inefficiencies in the supply and distribution of critical inputs;
- v. inadequate agricultural extension services and the lack of indigenous capacity or technologies that are responsive to local conditions;
- vi. Absence of a price support mechanisms coupled with heavy taxation of agricultural exports;
- vii. Inadequate incentive framework for promoting rapid expansion in agricultural production;
- viii. Inconsistencies in agriculture sector policies and frequent policy reversals.
- ix. The Dutch diseases impact of the oil sector boom; and
- x. A degraded environment that has reduced agricultural yields.

The National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was launched to last from 2003 to 2007. According to the National Planning Commission (NPC; 2004), the NEEDS is a product of wide range consultation with all the stakeholders drawn from both the public and organized private sectors (OPS), as well as the civil society which include the Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC). In order to ensure that the programmes takes root in the economy, the stage and locals government equivalents of NEEDS were to be implemented as Stage Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) and Local Government Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS). NEEDS is a development approach. Its focus is on the extent to which each sector promotes popular participation, people-centered economic goals and activities, and tractable contribution to overall goals of poverty alleviation.

3.2 NEEDS: Meaning and Importance

NEEDS refers to the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy. It took three years to develop NEEDS. It involved holding meetings and workshops to identify what the Nigerian People want, for the future, what problems they face, and what can be done to overcome them.

The NEEDS vision is based on the Constitution; the Kuru Declaration (box 1); previous initiatives, such as Vision 2010; and the widespread consultation and participation throughout Nigeria that was part of the NEEDs process.

Box 1: The Kuru Declaration

The 2001 Kuru Declaration embodies the vision we have for Nigeria: to build a truly great African democratic country, politically united, integrated and stable, economically prosperous, socially organized, with equal opportunity for all, and responsibility from all, to become the catalyst of (African) Renaissance, and making adequate all –embracing contributions, sub-regionally, regionally and globally.

Although, Nigeria is rich in natural and human resources, 7 of every 10 Nigerians live on less than \$1 a day NEEDS wishes to make poverty a thing of the past in Nigeria.

NEEDS (2003 to 2007) focused on four key strategies: reorienting values, reducing poverty, creating wealth, and generating employment. It is based on the notion that these goals can be achieved only by creating an environment in which business can thrive, government is redirected to providing basic services and people are empowered to take

advantages of the new livelihood opportunities the plan will stimulate (NPC,2004).

NEEDS emphasizes the critical importance of improving infrastructure. It NEEDS give special support to agriculture, industry, small and medium-scale enterprises, and oil and gas.

NEEDS envisages forging stronger links between educational institutions and industry to stimulate rapid industrial growth and efficient exploitation of resources.

By allowing the private sector to thrive, NEEDS creates opportunities for employment and wealth creation. The private sector will be the engine of economic growth under NEEDS.

NEEDS aims to restructure the government to make it smaller, stronger, better skilled, and more efficient at delivering essential services.

NEEDS is a development plan that integrates economic development efforts at the federal, state and local government levels.

NEEDS provides a safety net that will prevent people from becoming poor or poorer. Special programmes of NEEDS protect the rural and urban poor, people living with HIV/AIDS, women, widows and widowers, and victims of ethnic violence, crime, unemployment, or loss of income (Table 1).

Table 1: Targeted Instruments for Protecting Vulnerable Groups

Group	Instruments and Interventions.
Rural Poor	Access to credit and land; participation in decision making; agricultural extension services; improved seeds, farm inputs and implements; strengthening of traditional thrift, savings, and insurance schemes.
Urban Poor	Labour-intensive public works schemes; affordable housing, water, and sanitation; skill acquisition and entrepreneurial development; access to credit scholarships and adult education.
Women	Affirmative action (to increase women's representation to at least 30 percent) in all programmes; education, including adult education; scholarships; access to credit and land; maternal and child health.
Youth	Education, entrepreneurial development, skill acquisition, access to credit, prevention and control of HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases.
Children	Children's Parliament, juvenile justice administration, universal basic education, education for girls, care of orphans and vulnerable children (children affected by HIV/AIDS), prevention and treatment of childhood diseases.
Rural Communities	Water, rural roads, electricity, schools, health facilities, communications.

Source: NPC, (2004).

The average macro-economic targets set for NEEDS (2003 to 2007) are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Macroeconomic Targets for NEEDS

Average of Selected Macroeconomic Targets	
Indicator	Average Target %
Growth in real GD;P (per cent)	6.0
Growth in Oil sector (per cent)	0.0
Growth in non-oil sector (per cent)	8.4
Oil production including condensates (millions of barrels per day)	2.2
Gross National Savings (per cent of GDP)	21.1
Inflation Rate (per cent)	9.5
Federal Government Finance (per cent of GDP)	
Overall fiscal balance	-2.9
Primary balance	-1.1
Retained revenue	8.1
Total expenditure	23.0
External Sector	
Overall balance (per cent of GDP)	-6.4
Current account balance (per cent of GDP)	-1.5
External reserves (million dollars)	9,187
Growth in money and credit (per cent)	
Net domestic credit	23.4
Net credit to government	26.2
Credit to private sector	30.0
Narrow money (M1)	13.9
Broad money (M2)	15.5

According to the 2001 Kuru Declaration (Box 2) all public officials, elected and appointed, swear to abide by certain codes of values embodying Nigeria's development objectives and human capital needs. NEEDS recognizes that these values cannot take root and be sustained unless conscious efforts are made to mobilize the Nigerian people around them.

3.3 Fundamental Principles of NEEDS

Under the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy, the 1999 Constitution of Federal the Republic of Nigeria mandates the following:

- 1) The security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government.
- 2) The state shall, within the context of the ideals and objectives for which provisions are made in this Constitution, harness the

resources of the nation, promote national prosperity and an efficient, dynamic, and self-reliant economy and control of national economy in such a manner as to secure the maximum welfare, freedom, and happiness of every citizen on the basis of social justice and equality of status and opportunity.

- 3) The State shall direct its policy towards ensuring:
 - i. The promotion of a planned and balance economic development;
 - ii. That the material resources of the nation are harnessed and distributed as well as possible to serve the common good;
 - iii. That the economic system is not operated in such a manner as to permit the concentration of wealth or the means of production and exchange in the hands of a few individuals or a group; and
 - iv. That suitable and adequate shelter, suitable and adequate food, a reasonable national minimum living wage, old age care and pensions, unemployment, sick benefits, and welfare of the disabled are provided for all citizens.
- 4) The government shall direct its policy toward ensuring that there are equal and adequate education opportunities at all levels; and
- 5) The national ethics shall be discipline, integrity, dignity of labour, social justice, religious tolerance, self-reliance and patriotism.

Box 2: The Kuru Declaration

<p>1. We adopt the New Orientation as an agenda for dealing with immediate and future issues of governance in Nigeria; removing impediments to efficiency and effective implementation and execution of programmes initiated by the federal government; expeditious actualization of government objectives and vision of national renewal and re-construction.</p>	<p>7. We shall abide by the terms of the code of conduct which we all have signed, as expression of our commitment to the crusade against corruption, and work closely with all relevant agencies, such as the independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission, the Code of Conduct Bureau, and the Public Complaints Commission.</p>
<p>2. We re-dedicate ourselves and those who serve under us to the values of patriotism, honesty, hard work and diligence, merit and excellence, trustworthiness, personal discipline, tolerance and</p>	<p>8. We undertake to strengthen the partnership in working with the private sector, since this partnership translates to a better appreciation of the wealth-creating and job-creating capacity</p>

mutual respect, justice and fairness, love, care and compassion.	of this sector, and the need for government, through its various ministries and legislative processes, to create an enabling environment for the sector to function efficiently as the major driver of the economy.
3. We pledge to eschew corruption, slothfulness, nepotism, indiscipline, bitterness, prejudice and other manifestations of anti-social behaviours.	9. We shall strive to strengthen and inculcate the culture of working closely and in consultation with the leadership of labour and civil society organizations.
4. We shall undertake a critical review of practices and procedures in every ministry and department of government, with the aim of introducing and inculcating modern management techniques and procedures in every department of government, so as to rapidly increase their productivity and service delivery to the public	10. We shall mobilize, involve and promote the interest of all stakeholders, namely, the society in general, since, in the ultimate, all decisions and actions of government are primarily concerned with promoting the security and general well-being of the people. There is also the need for a new attitude that has that concern permanently in focus, as the only goal, and that the economic well-being of all citizens in a truly democratic environment is of cardinal importance.
5. We shall foster a culture of efficiency in the management of funds and other resources, maintaining high standards of resource management and reducing waste at all times.	11. We shall design strategies and techniques of implementation for the New Orientation so as to ensure that the values being inculcated permeate all levels of management and staff.
6. We shall effectively supervise all government department and agencies, ensuring timely reports and returns and undertaking regular spot-checks.	

NEEDS is based on these principles as enshrined in the Constitution. It aims to achieve the directive principles of state policy. Its focus is the creation of wealth, the generation of employment, the reduction of poverty, the elimination of corruption, and the general reorientation of values.

3.4 Preview of NEEDS -2

NEEDS-2 has the specific objectives of achieving food security and significant reduction in the level of poverty especially in the rural areas as the root cause of rural-urban migration. Increased investment in food and agricultural production was planned under the NEEDS -2 programmes. Major policy focus would be to:

- i. Provide the right policy environment and target incentives to encourage massive private sector investment in agriculture;
- ii. Reverse the trend in the import of food through a progressive expansion programme in agricultural output to meet domestic food needs and generate surplus for exports;
- iii. foster effective linkages with industry to achieve maximum value-addition and processing for exports; and
- iv. Modernize production to reduce dependence on small-scale subsistence farming while creating more income and employment opportunities for rural dwellers.

The Specific policy goals in agriculture under NEEDS-2, among others, are to:

- i. Continue implementation of presidential initiatives on cassava, rice, vegetable oil, sugar, livestock, cotton, etc to generate increased foreign exchange from agriculture exports;
- ii. Strengthen agricultural research, revitalize agricultural training and streamline extension delivery system;
- iii. Promote integrated rural development, involving agricultural and non-agricultural activities, through the provision of physical infrastructure, such as feeder roads, rural water supply among others; and
- v. Encourage states to develop models for rural communities and farm settlements, providing them with basic infrastructure to, among other things, check migration to urban areas.

4.0 CONCLUSION

NEEDS is Nigeria's development plan. Its targets for progress are realistic and achievable.

5.0 SUMMARY

NEEDS is a process of rural development in Nigeria. It represents the true feelings of Nigerians about where the country stands today and how it should develop and grow. Each State in Nigeria drafts its own SEEDS, which identifies priority programmes for key areas of development.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1) State the four key strategies of NEEDS
- 2) Explain any four fundamental principles upon which NEEDS are based.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

NPC (2009). *National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS)*, 2003 to 2007, National Planning Commission (NPC) Abuja, Nigeria, 118p.

UNIT 2 LEADERSHIP IN PROGRAMMES OF CHANGE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning and Nature of Leadership
 - 3.1.1 Meaning and Nature
 - 3.1.2 Origin of Leadership in Rural Communities
 - 3.2 Types and Characteristics of Leadership
 - 3.3 Characteristics of Leadership
 - 3.4 Functions of Rural Leaders in Extension Work
 - 3.5 Importance of Using Local Leaders in Extension Work
 - 3.6 Ways by Which Leaders Emerge
 - 3.7 How to Build and Use Power
 - 3.8 Areas of Training for Local Leaders
 - 3.9 Problems Associated with Use of Local Leaders
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a social phenomenon which is an important element in social change. Quite often, people are persuaded to accept or reject innovations. This event might occur in any community and in any change programme. Communities are social networks of relationships or social systems within which various patterns of leadership function. People in a given social system are usually best reached through leadership by their own people. The people's interest should be taken into consideration for success.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner should be able to:

- state the meaning and nature of leadership
- describe the types and characteristics of leaders
- state the functions/roles of rural leaders
- explain the selection criteria for local leaders and how they should be trained
- discuss the problems associated with the use of local leaders in change and development programmes.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning and Nature of Leadership

3.1.1 Meaning and Nature

According to the Advanced Leaders' Dictionary of Current English, a leader is "the person who controls, directs, influences people's judgments, have ability to settle dispute, control the material and economic resources of a place or community". A leader usually initiates interaction with other members of a group; he initiates interaction more frequently than any one else in a group; and he moves the group towards group goal." He first perceives the group's needs far ahead of others and, therefore, plans and enlists the co-operation of others in its implementation. A person is a leader in any social situation in which his ideas and actions influence the thoughts and behaviour of others. The concept of a leader, therefore, implies role-playing for sometime.

Leadership involves an exercise of influence on the feelings and actions of others in order to accomplish a task or achieve a set of objectives. It includes making decisions on behalf of a particular group, advising, giving information, showing examples, expressing opinion and lending support as well as exercising authority.

Leadership, in essence, is simply influencing the attitudes and actions of one or more persons, leading toward the achievement of some purpose or goal. It is the activity of influencing people to cooperate towards some goals which the people find desirable. The local leaders are, thus, an accepted group member who moves the group toward its goal. He is an individual whose ideas and actions influence the thoughts and behaviour s of others.

Leadership, thus, reflects a relationship between people or between a person and group members. It is something earned. It is bestowed because, without having been given permission or support by the people concerned, it does not exist. A leader is only one who has followers or influence among people, based upon their judgment about his accomplishment, nature and potentiality, and the needs of the particular leadership job at hand.

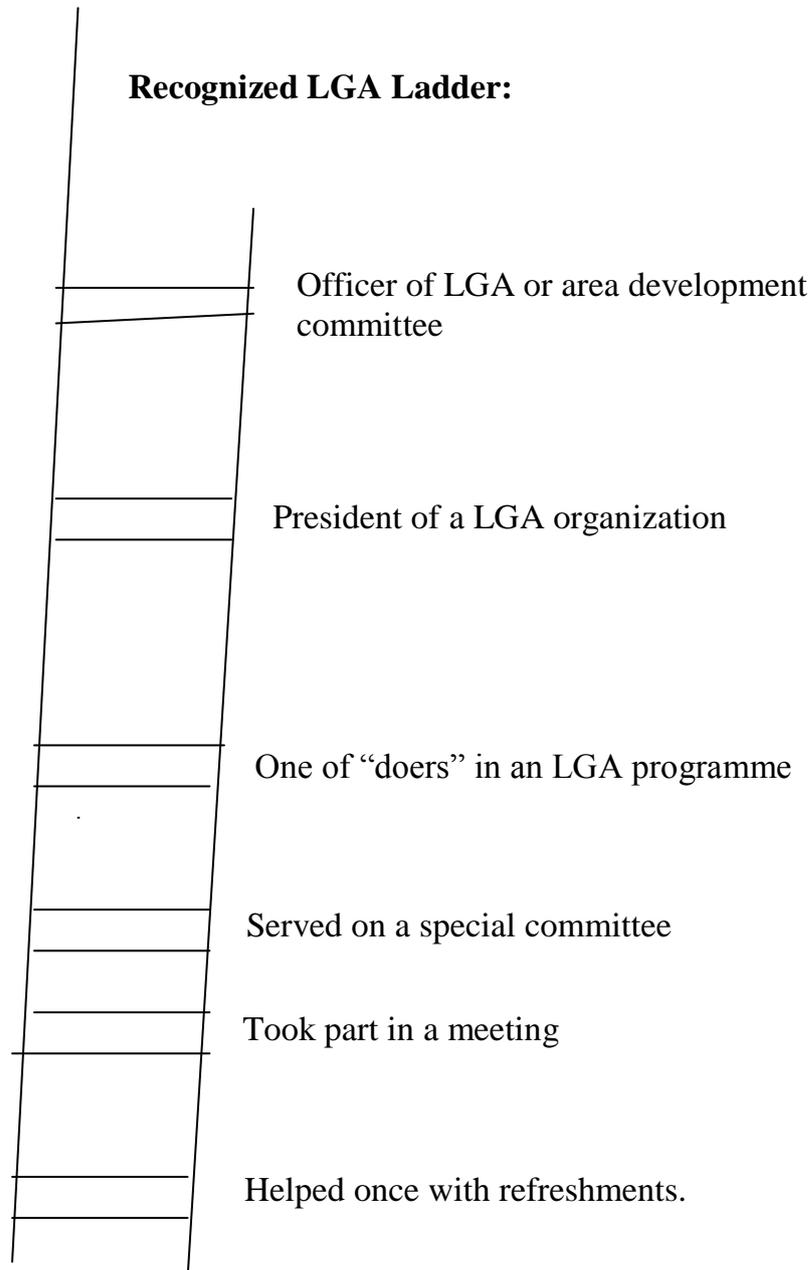
Leadership is generally accomplished through various ways, viz; imparting knowledge, giving advice or suggestion, expressing a belief or opinion, making decisions on behalf of groups, providing assistance, exercising power, lending approval or support, and, also, by example or demonstration.

Most leadership positions call for some degree of decision making, may call for knowledge and skills about particular programmes and group operations; some call for power or even authority. All leadership positions require having a real concern for others on the part of the leader, consciously or unconsciously, if one is to really function as a truly effective leader; otherwise, one would not have followers. Leadership is based upon service to and support from people.

Leadership development is increase in the involvement of people, increase in their ability to carry out responsibilities or otherwise function in given leadership roles, and increase in their own personal growth as a result of their greater participation or involvement. People grow in leadership through experience and training. .

A good technique of leadership development is to provide opportunities for people to serve at the bottom of the ladder in beginning ways or as help on special occasions; in other words, to start them up the ladder and see to it that they are given recognition and encouragement. They become a reservoir from which to draw when filling other positions later.

A typical growth model in kinds of activity or roles of the individual as one move up the leadership ladder is shown below:



3.1.2 Origin of Leadership in Rural Communities

The origin of leadership could be traced to the period immediately after the creation of man. It is recorded in the Holy Books that God commissioned man and charged him to have dominion and control over all the other creatures of the earth.

The pre-historic account has it that leadership originated soon after the early man began to live with one another in the caves and under some big trees. The early men must have noticed that to avoid fights and quarrel among people some rules were needed to guide conduct.

3.2 Types and Characteristics of Leadership

As earlier indicated, leadership involves an exercise of influence on the feelings and actions of others in order to accomplish a task or achieve a set objective. It includes making decisions on behalf of a particular group, advising, giving information, showing examples, expressing opinion and lending support as well as exercising authority.

There are many types of Leadership: **Opinion leadership**: involves persons who exercise judgment or expresses readily acceptable opinion about programmes or ideas. **Action Leadership** refers to the leadership type in which persons assist with the implementation of specific activity or project. The leader may not necessarily be in a subject teaching or organizational position. The type in which persons initiate proposals for programmes is called the **initiating leadership**. **Organizational leadership** refers to official positions in organizations in which people serve as president, secretary and so on. In **subject leadership**, individuals who possess specific knowledge or skills are allowed to impart the subject matter. The type of leadership in which certain influential persons have to give approval to particular proposals is referred to as **legitimation leadership**. **Decision leadership** is provided by individuals who make decisions about programme activities. **Advisory leadership** is an indirect leadership involving help by individuals who are not within a given organization; such persons specifically offer suggestions and advice to the establishment.

Individuals to select as leaders may be those who took part in specific decision making in the past, persons who have reputation within the locality, individuals who occupy certain positions in organizations and public office and people who are very active in community programmes.

Types of Leaders by Paths to Leadership

- (a) **Situational Leader:** The individual foresees a crisis or the felt needs for a group and may try to rectify the situation or mobilize others to take care of such a situation. For instance, someone may alert and mobilize inhabitants of a village to put out a bush fire about to engulf the community. Situational leaders last as long as the condition that brought them into the forefront remains.
- (b) **Dictatorial Leader:** This leader gets into power and feels that he has the obligation to remain at the head to watch over the interest of that group, irrespective of their wishes. He paralyses initiative among his followers and subdues any position. He does not accept suggestions from his subordinates except when such

suggestions are in his own favour. An example is the military ruler who comes in through coup d'etat.

- (c) **Charismatic Leader:** This is a person who has such personal qualities like good looks, high level of intelligence, ability to speak fearlessness and commitment to certain ideals. He has a magical appeal to people. Examples include late Hon (Dr) Nnamdi Azikiwe and Chief Obafemi Awolowo as well as Mahatma Gandhi in India.
- (d) **Traditional or Hereditary Leaders:** Here, a person is born into hereditary leadership position which tradition and custom recognizes. In this, leadership is said to be ascribed rather than achieved. Tradition gives him authority, unlimited loyalty and unquestioned obedience from the community members.
- (e) **Professional Leader:** Leadership position is earned by virtue of a person's expertise or technical competence, e.g. Agricultural Extension Officer and Community Development Worker.

3.3 Characteristics of Leadership

A good leader must possess a pleasant personality, good voice and high ambition. He must command respect of the people he leads. Above all, a good leader must be humble and sincere. A leader should be of good judgment. Confidence in oneself is a good characteristic of a leader.

A true leader, like any good administrator, must be able to instill confidence and make prompt and firm decisions.

He should learn, listen and teach. He must be democratic in policy development and must command loyalty and honour. He should be able to assume responsibility and generate team spirit as well as enthusiasm in his followers (Obinne, 1994)

A leader should best live up to the standard of behaviour which the group values. His authority lies in his ability to carry his followers with him. He not only makes decisions, he is competent in most of the activities of the group and he starts the action going.

The qualities listed by Bene, Obinne and Akpehe (1994) are as follows:

- i. **Faith** – A good leader has faith in the people and in his work.
- ii. **Planning** – He plans the programmes ahead of time so that everything runs smoothly. He guides his followers in making right decisions.

- iii. **Interest** – He has interest in the people and in his work, and this is reflected through his attitude and hard work.
- iv. **Fairness and Impartiality** – He does not take side when presiding over matters, and treats everyone equally and fairly.
- v. **Considerate** – He recognizes individual differences in the people, including the weaknesses of people.
- vi. **Appreciative** – he gives credit for jobs well done.
- vii. **Competence** – He is competent in his work and can achieve success. He teaches skills.

Leadership is, thus, characterized by the following traits: influence; personality; education above average of the group; respect; tolerance; flexibility; democracy; ability; desire; initiative; and consideration.

In extension programmes, leaders often serve as contact men/women in order to ensure active and full participation of the clientele. Leaders are closer to the people in a locality than the extension staff; therefore, their assistance must be sought in trying to implement agricultural and other change programmes especially in the rural areas.

3.4 Functions of Rural Leaders in Extensions Work

1. They help to organize local groups for the purpose of promoting action.
2. They teach their neighbors and friends thereby spreading the influence of the extension worker.
3. They are sources of information and technical knowledge to people so that extension work can continue when the extension worker is away.
4. The leaders encourage their people to carry out self-help projects that will in turn improve their economic and social wellbeing.
5. They contact and persuade local people to join the group or take part in the project.
6. They ensure that local people know when meetings or demonstrations are due to take place.
7. They encourage their friends and neighbours to adopt the practices and skills they have learnt.
8. They keep the extension workers informed of the needs of the people and their problems.

3.5 Importance of Using Local Leaders in Extension Work

The use of local leaders in change programmes helps the change agent to fully understand the needs, interests and aspirations of the community/clientele. It gives local support for development activities right from the start.

There would be little or no disruption of the programmes as local leaders get more involved with execution of planned activities.

Using local leaders meets the basic principle of clientele participation in development programmes.

One important benefit of using local leaders is that they defend change programmes against unfair criticisms. Thus, they help create positive attitude towards extension work.

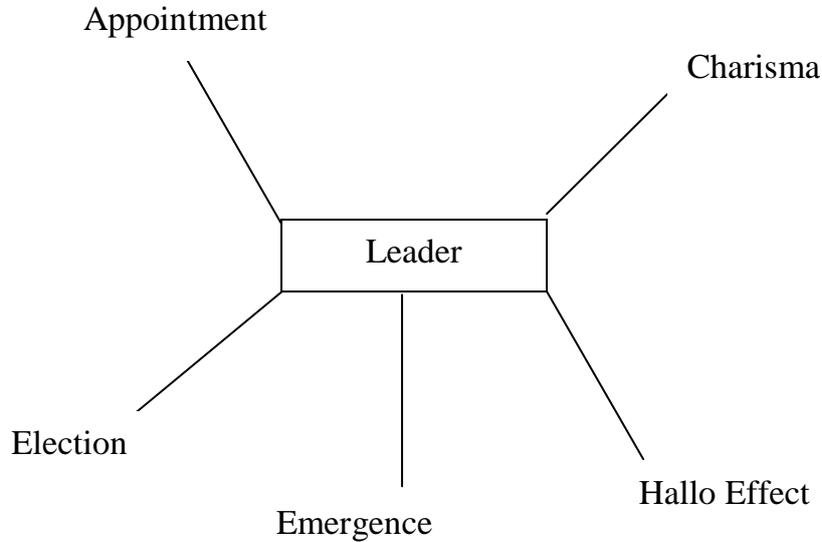
Selection of Leaders

Some concepts for identifying leaders are as follows:

- i. **Trait Approach** –Leaders are chosen based on certain unique traits.
- ii. **Great Man Theory** – Leaders are selected by virtue of their birth right; i.e. born leaders.
- iii. **Function Approach** –Leaders are selected based on the roles they are to play in the society.
- iv. **Situation Approach** – Leaders are select ed in view of a particular situation at that time. Different situations call for trial of leadership that fits into the situation (Bene, Obinne and Akpehe, 1994 p.32).

3.6 Ways by which Leaders Emerge

The following sketch illustrates the ways by which leaders emerge:



Appointment

From administrative levels or from within a group

Charisma

That is, personal magnetism or charm.

He is able to induce group members to follow with ease, and has great influence over them. He arouses a great deal of enthusiasm and loyalty from within the group. He draws group members to himself; followers work hard to be noticed.

Emergence

Group has no identifiable leader. No one is appointed or elected. One person just emerges as the leader, as he 'rises to the top' of the group, due to his/her knowledge of an activity, skills or understanding.

Election

An individual may be elected as "team captain", to guide group members, serve as a motivating force, and set the tone for the group. Election is by popular choice.

Halo Effect

This refers to how certain attributes or thoughts about persons are carried over into other situations. A person may be a leader in one situation or group and others look to him or her to be the leader in other situations or groups in which he or she is involved (Jordon, 1996, p.23).

3.7 How to Build and Use Power

Mullins (1999) summarizes some guidelines on how to build and maintain power, and to use it effectively to influence peers or superiors (Table 1).

Table 1: Guidelines for Building and Using Power

How to increase and maintain power	How to use power effectively
Legitimate Power:	
Gain more formal authority	Make polite, clear requests.
Used symbols of authority	Explain the reasons for a request.
Get people to acknowledge authority	Don't exceed your scope of authority.
Exercise authority regularly	Verify authority if necessary.
Follow proper channels in giving orders	Be sensitive to target concerns.
Back up authority with reward and Coercive power	Follow up to verify compliance. Insist on compliance if appropriate.
Reward Power:	
Discover what people need and want	Offer desirable rewards
Gain more control over rewards	Offer fair and ethical rewards
Ensure people know you control rewards	Explain criteria for giving rewards
Do not promise more than you can deliver	Provide rewards as promised.
* Avoid complex, mechanical incentives	Use rewards symbolical to reinforce
Don't use rewards for personal desirable behaviour benefit	Don't use rewards in a manipulate way.
Expert Power:	
Gain more relative knowledge	Explain the reasons for a request

Develop exclusive sources of information	or Keep informed about technical matters proposal
Use symbols to verify expertise.	Provide evidence that a proposal will be successful
Demonstrate competency by solving difficult problems.	Listen seriously to target concerns
Don't make rash, careless statements	Show respect for target (don't be arrogant)
Don't lie or misrepresent the facts	Act confident and decisive in a crisis.
Don't keep changing positions.	

Referent Power:

Show acceptance and positive regard	Use personal appeals when necessary
Act supportive and helpful	Indicate that a request is important to you
Don't manipulate and exploit people for personal advantage	Don't ask for a personal favour that is excessive given the relationship.
Defend someone's interest and back them Up when appropriate.	Provide an example of proper behaviour (role modeling)
Keep Promises	Make Self- sacrifice to show concern. Use sincere form of ingratiation.

Coercive Power:

Identify credible penalties to deter unacceptable behaviour	Inform targets of rules and penalties
Gain authority to use punishments	Give ample prior warnings.
Don't make rash threats.	Understand situation before punishing
Don't use coercion in a manipulative way	Remain calm and helpful, not hostile
Fit punishments to the infraction	Encourage improvement to avoid the need
Ask target to suggest way to improve	Use only punishments that are legitimate for punishment.
Don't use coercion for personal	Administer discipline in private benefit.

Source: Mullins (1999), pp. 258-259)

3.8 Areas of Training for Local Leaders

Local leaders must be given adequate training assistance in:

- a) planning and organizing work
- b) Teaching methods, subject matter, principles and skills.
- c) Supplementary reading materials when appropriated
- d) Looking for facts and figures usable in local demonstration of practices.
- e) Encouraging them to discuss leadership problems among themselves

Encouragement and recognition should be given to the leaders by:

- i. helping leaders to develop strength by encouraging them and providing democratic supervision for them
- ii. Emphasizing potentials of the project in the village and of satisfaction of being a leader
- iii. Providing public recognition of work done by local leaders in meetings and in local press where appropriate

3.9 Problems Associated with Use of Local Leaders

There are certain problems encountered when using local leaders, namely:

- a) Local leaders may not have enough time after training to enable them to be effective in extension programme.
- b) Local leaders may not be good teachers and may, therefore, not be effective in imparting knowledge to the people.
- c) They may not give correct interpretation to the programme, thereby reducing the credibility of the extension agent.
- d) They may introduce their opinion and value judgment to the programme.
- e) Much time is required on the part of the extension agent to locate and train local leaders

4.0 CONCLUSION

Leadership is important in community development. It is accomplished through many ways and the different types are represented in different communities.

5.0 SUMMARY

Leadership involves exercising influence on the attitudes and actions of others towards a goal desired by the people. Leadership types are classified in different ways. A good leader possesses many qualities such as sincerity, high ambition, responsibility, ability to plan well, competence, and impartiality among others. Local leaders defend development programmes. A few problems militate against the use of local leaders in change programmes.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe any five types of leadership common in your country
2. What qualities should a rural community consider in selecting leaders for various positions?

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UNIT 3 SELECTION AND TRAINING OF LEADERS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning and Importance of Training
 - 3.2 Selection of Leaders
 - 3.3 Considerations on Leadership Training
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

One important criterion in achieving sustainable rural development is the means of selecting and training group leaders. Leaders often assume great responsibilities in any group and much is desired of them. They move development forward and adopt democratic styles to remain relevant.

In this section, the selection and training processes are discussed to guide policy makers and community change agents.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define training
- explain the best method of selecting leaders
- discuss any two useful leadership training approaches
- dESCRIBE conflict and its relationship to leadership.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning and Importance of Training

Training refers to the acquisition of specific skills needed to perform a job better. It helps people to become qualified and proficient in doing some jobs. Training is, also, defined as the process of teaching, informing, or educating people in order to make them well qualified for a specific job and perform in positions requiring greater responsibility, and with a minimum of supervision. We may, also, regard training as any planned and organized effort that is designed to help individuals develop greater capabilities.

The essence is to modify the person's behaviour so that he contributes to the attainment of the goals of the organization. Training is designed to improve human performance on the job that the employee is presently doing.

In extension systems and rural development, effective training is needed to change the belief, knowledge and action components of trainees at the same time. The purpose is to impart knowledge and skills to an individual so that he/she can perform desirable tasks.

Training includes all the activities aimed at improving the ability of the leader or change agent to do his/her work, including acquisition of information, development of abilities, and fostering attitudes which result in higher professional competence.

An effective leader has influence on group members' achievement, motivation and individual competence on the job. Training of leaders is necessary in order to enhance the performance of their duties. Their regular support is important for the sustainability of projects. Leaders should, therefore, be trained to serve in community development programmes and projects

Ekong (2003) suggests that leaders selected for training must be group-oriented, considerate, of good emotional stability and have a sense of responsibility. In addition, they should be competent in the subject matter and be able to impart knowledge as well as skills required of members. They should empathize and show good example to the followers.

Leaders should be trained to understand the community or group they work with. For community development programmes to be effective, local leaders must be selected, trained and involved in all aspects.

3.1 Selection of Leaders

Selection is an important process in rural development programmes. Different types of leaders are needed to execute all aspects of an on-going development programme. According to Williams *et al.* (1984), there are four methods of leader selection, namely:

External Selection – Here, someone outside the group does the selection. The outsider may be a professional leader. He asks or appoints someone to serve as leader. This method works successfully with the military and business organizations, but may not be so successful when employed in voluntary group organizations like change agencies.

Self-aggrandizement – A person who has strong desire to lead cleverly manipulates his/her group or makes sure that he is at the right place at the right time to get elected or appointed. This type of person is usually domineering and egoistic and may not last very long in a democracy.

Selection on the Basis of Tradition – This relies on tradition and culture of the people making up the group. In a traditional society, older people or those who have been in top positions for long are most highly respected and get accepted. Unfortunately, such persons may not have good knowledge of new ideas or skills. For a development worker to succeed under this type of leadership, he must secure the approval and sanction of the traditional leader.

Selection by the Group – The group members appoint or select one person. This is the best method of getting leaders who will have the respect and confidence of the group. He readily obtains full cooperation and support from the group members.

3.2 Considerations on Leadership Training

Considerations in the effective training of leaders include:

Ensure that the leaders understand the situation or environment in which they will work, and know the demands upon them and the group.

The training must develop understanding of the group or community that is served including its aspirations and details of the needed subject matter (Williams *et al.*, 1984, p.41).

Emphasis should be laid on the potentials and usefulness of the project in the village and of the satisfaction of being a leader in the community.

Public recognition of the activities of local leaders should be made at meetings and in the local press or mass media.

Provide opportunities for leaders to practice what they have learnt and encourage them to provide opportunities for their group members to practice same.

Encourage leaders to observe and evaluate the practices used in training as a means of feed-back to the extension or development worker.

Leaders must be adequately trained in teaching methods, subject matter, principles and skills.

Finally, each leaders should know how to do each job they are asked to do and let them experience success in each leadership activity and get satisfaction from it.

3.3 Training Approach

According to Halim and Ali (1997), there are three approaches to training namely, traditional, experiential and performance-based.

1. **Traditional Approach** – In this mode, the focus is intervention by the training staff. The training staff designs the objectives, course contents, teaching techniques, lesson plans, tests/evaluation as well as motivational techniques and assignment. This approach is academic.
2. **Experiential Approach** – The trainers primarily serve as facilitators or resource persons. This approach emphasizes real or simulated situations in which the trainees would work later. The learner is active and influences the training process. Thus, the objectives, plan, techniques for training, evaluation, etc are jointly decided upon by the trainers and trainees.
3. **Performance-Based Approach** – Here, goals are measured through the attainment of a given level of proficiency instead of passing grades of the trainees. The emphasis is on the trainee's acquisition of specific observable skills needed for a task. It is skill or task-centered and can be applied in rural development work.

3.4 Techniques in Training Leaders

1. Leaders are to be given adequate training and assistance in these areas:
 - a. Planning and organizing development work
 - b. Teaching methods, principles and skills
 - c. Subject-matter
 - d. Obtaining needed training materials, inputs and logistics
 - e. Arranging development project sequentially
2. They should be encouraged to provide democratic supervision of project.
3. They should be given training on how to promote clientele participation in project implementation.
4. They should be advised to analyze the community situation, needs and aspirations.
5. Training should cover motivational techniques and, communication methods.

Leaders should be trained to understand the functions of leadership. Krech et al. (1962) list fourteen functions of leadership position, namely, the leader as:

- i. Executive – top co-coordinator of the group activities and overseer of the Executive of policies.
- ii. Planner-deciding the ways and means by which the group achieves its ends.
- iii. Policy-maker- the establishment of group goals and policies.
- iv. Expert- a source of readily available information and skills, although he would also rely on technical expertise and advice from other group members.
- v. External group representative –the official spokes-person for the group, the representative of the group and the channel for both outgoing and incoming communications.
- vi. Controller of internal relations –determines specific aspects of the group structure.

- vii. Purveyor of rewards and punishment – control over group members by the power to provide rewards and apply punishments.
- viii. Arbitrator and mediator –controls interpersonal conflict within the group.
- ix. Exemplar-a model of behaviour for members of the group, setting an example of what is expected.
- x. Symbol of the group-enhancing group unity by providing some kind of cognitive focus and establishing the group as a distinct entity.
- xi. Substitute for individual responsibility – relieves the individual member of the group from the necessity of, and responsibility for, personal decision.
- xii. Ideologist-serving as the source of beliefs, values and standards of behaviour for individual group members.
- xiii. Father figure-serving as focus for the positive emotional feelings of individual members and the object for identification and transference.
- xiv. Scapegoat-serving as a target for aggression and hostility of the group, accepting blame in the case of failure.

The most important STEPS in the training process (Singh, 1985): are:

- i. Adequate Needs Assessment – this is to ensure that the training is development –oriented. Every aspect of the community should be understood and serve to guide discussions and decision making.
- ii. Curriculum Development – the content of the development process should be fully explained. This will make the work as easy and useful as possible.
- iii. Preparation of Training Materials.
- iv. Use of Appropriate Training Methodology.
- v. Evaluation of activities and outcomes.

The exertion of influence (leadership) cannot take place without communication. It is only through communication that influence can

take place (Cooperative Extension Service, 1979). Therefore, the elements and principles of communication must be part of the training of leaders.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Determine the process of selection of a leader in your community.
2. How do leaders get their training in a traditional or village community?

3.6 Training in Conflict Management

Conflict is the process that occurs when one person perceives that another has or is about to frustrate a concern or plan. Conflict occurs as a regular feature in small group discussion and decision making. Conflict is at the heart of effective decision making, problem solving and leadership. However, too much conflict can be harmful. The leader should understand the dimensions (elements) of conflict and its effects.

3.7 Elements in Conflict Situation

There are four elements in a conflict situation. These are perception, emotion, behaviour, and interaction. Conflict involves people's perceptions (Brilhart and Galanes, 1989).

a. Perception

A conflict situation depends upon how a person describes the situation to himself. Perception is the first step to defining a situation as conflict. Perception governs behaviour. One person may feel angry and frustrated, or intrigued.

b. Emotion

Depending on how one sees a conflict situation, his feelings may range from mild distress to out-of-control rage. Emotions (feelings) are clearly linked. The fact that emotions are involved has important implications for the management of conflict. For example, the subjective realities (the feelings of the individuals) must be allowed to surface, acknowledged as legitimate, and dealt with directly. One's perceptions of a situation and one's emotions influence one's behaviour toward that other individual.

c. Behaviour

Individuals tend to act upon their perceptions and feelings. What we **think** and **feel** about a conflict situation governs what we **do** about it.

d. Interaction

One's behaviour tends to affect other people, who may react positively or negatively. This could start a conflict cycle if not well managed. There is, thus, a communicative interaction with other persons.

Perceptions govern behaviours, which in turn influence both the perceptions of the other individual and the actual behavioural interaction with that person. Altering any of the four dimensions of conflict would change the others.

3.8 Positive Effects of Conflict

Positive outcomes of conflict include high achievement, intrinsic and continuing motivation, perspective-taking ability, and positive interpersonal relations. The benefits are listed below:

1. Conflict produces better decisions because as persons first disagree and they find out why they disagree. Through discussions, they find flaws in reasoning and arguments, and then agree.
2. Conflict stimulated involvement and increases members motivation. This is attained through participating in a conflict episode, and paying close attention. The persons get motivated to learn more about an issue.
3. Conflict can product better undersign of issues and people.
4. Conflict can produce greater cohesiveness among group members.

3.9 Negative Effects of Conflict

- Conflict can cause bad feeling among group members
- Conflict can lower group cohesiveness
- Conflict can tear a group apart.
- Conflict can lead to death of persons

3.9.1 Types of Conflicts

- a. **Affective Conflict:** This is conflict resulting from personality clashes, likes and dislikes
- b. **Inequity-Conflict** resulting from inequity implies perceived unequal workloads or contributions of one or more members that produces conflict in a group.
- c. **Procedural Conflict** - This is conflict resulting from disagreement about **HOW** to do something.
- d. **Substantive Conflict** This is the conflict resulting from disagreement over ideas, information, reasoning, or evidence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Training is necessary in implementing development programmes and projects in order to impart appropriate knowledge and skills. There are some useful methods in the selection of leaders. Methods and techniques of training have to be decided upon depending on the subject-matter and nature of the community to be served by a project.

5.0 SUMMARY

Training refers to the process of acquisition of information and development of abilities. Training of leaders helps to enhance performance. The main methods of selection of leaders are external selection, self-aggrandizement, selection on the basis of tradition, and selection by the group. The approaches to be used in training are the traditional approach, experiential approach and performance-based approach.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss four methods of selection of leaders.
2. Describe the three leadership training approaches.

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UNIT 4 PROBLEMS OF RURAL LEADERSHIP

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Leadership and its Problems
 - 3.2 Factors which Determine Leadership Style
 - 3.3 Influence of Local Leaderships
 - 3.4 Nature of the Problems of Rural Leadership
 - 3.5 Suggested Solutions to Leadership Problems
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Rural leaders are those in the higher echelon of rural development management. They include community development officers, change agents, extension workers, and professional experts and so on. They are involved in the daily co-ordination of various activities going on in the community. They manage development projects and are responsible for other personnel and project inputs (material, technical). They also, monitor matters of finance. These create problems.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner should be able to:

- understand the influence of leadership
- understand the problems of rural leadership
- determine the sources of the problems
- explain the appropriate solutions to the problems of rural leadership.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Leadership and its Problems

Leadership refers to the directing, inflicting and controlling of others in pursuit of a group goal. Communities engage persons who will help attain organizational or community goals. Individuals in an organization or a community will accept positions in such places because they expect to achieve a large proportion of their own goals in this way. However, it

is not usually easy to achieve both sets of goals, because the goals of the individual and the organization later change.

Leadership has this problem to resolve- it will try to ensure that staff members contribute to achieving organization goals as much as possible (van den Ban and Hawkins, 1996).

3.2 Factors which Determine Leadership Style

The major factors that determine the alternative leadership style to prefer are highlighted here. Problems soon develop if the leadership style is not well managed.

a. Expertise

The extent to which leaders have the expertise needed to solve community problems is important. Leaders should make clear decisions regarding content and timing when different methods are available for use. He must ensure that all project members participate in decision-making. He must be sure that development messages do not conflict with each other as that would confuse beneficiaries.

b. Environment

Leadership style will influence the relationship between leaders and their clients. Leaders will be inclined to give directive advice if their superior officers act in an authoritarian way towards them. On the other hand, if their supervisors discuss the best way of doing their work, they will approach beneficiaries in the same non-directive way.

c. Leadership Power

In situations where the change agents can prevent their superiors from obtaining an accurate picture of how they work, the leaders' power over their staff is limited. As van den Ban and Hawkins (1996) put it, if these are civil service positions, it may be difficult to dismiss somebody who does a poor job, and rather difficult to promote those who do a good job

d. Applying Correct Leadership Style

Changes in child rearing and educational practices have helped to develop children as people who can think for themselves and find their own way. The result has been a tendency towards the development of a more democratic style of leadership. In some societies where the leadership structure is more hierarchical, the superiors decide what their

workers or staff should do. In any given situation, the correct or appropriate leadership style should be applied to achieve success.

e. **Time Available**

The time available to superiors for their leadership task can create a problem situation. The participatory style of leadership requires more time for decision-making than the authoritarian style. It is not suitable where decisions have to be taken very rapidly for example, in a locust attack. However, implementation of decisions is much faster with a participatory style because during the decision-making process most stakeholders like change agents already will have understood what they are expected to do, and will voluntarily try to do it.

On the other hand, the authoritarian leadership style has limited delegation of decision-making. Leaders become overburdened with decisions and delay making them, or make them without adequate considerations of all aspects (van den Ban and Hawkins, 1996). This causes inefficiency of bureaucracy in management.

The leader has the problem of choosing his style on the participatory-authoritarian continuum according to the situation.

3.3 Influence of Local Leadership

Influence is the ability to affect either positively or negatively the decisions, feelings, and aspirations of members of a group. Local leaders can exert influence based on personal qualities in relation to honesty, humility and simplicity. The combination of these makes a leader more acceptable and influential. Acceptability and rejection of leaders are not determined by the cordiality or antagonisms of the individual's treatment of his fellows, nor evidently is the treatment of the individual by this fellow much affected by the degree to which he is already being accepted or rejected by them. This treatment is a reaction to some or all his behaviours but it is difficult to measure what these behaviours are. Commitment, purposefulness and willingness to make personal sacrifices and to put the interests of the group above his personal interests can make a leader influential. Leaders and their bases of influence and power can be identified through informal or formal studies. The methods involved are the **positional**, **decisional**, and **reputational** techniques. In the **positional** technique, individuals in the community with positions of power are given recognition as leaders. The decisional technique recognizes individuals that have been involved in the decision of issues in the past as leaders. This technique has the weakness of leaving out initiators and concentrating on the implementor of actions. The reputation technique is a socio-metric study in which

informants are asked to identify and rank the most influential people in the community. This technique has some weaknesses which include inadequate perception of leaders by respondents.

In Nigeria today we have traditional (leadership positions based on past tradition of the people) and modern leaders.

Traditional Leaders include village heads, ward heads, extended family and family heads, diviners, local association leaders and local professional leaders. The bases for power of the traditional leaders are legitimacy and personal characteristics.

Modern Leaders include local government chairmen and secretaries, government officers, law enforcement agents, politicians and retired elites, successful businessmen, and non-traditional religious leaders. Modern leaders have legitimate power assigned to their official positions, such as influencing administrative, economic, social and welfare matters that affect the community.

3.4 Nature of the Problems of Rural Leadership

- i. **Credibility Factor** –One major factor that could reduce the success of any community development effort is lack of credibility on the part of the rural leader. Successful development work would not come about if the leader cannot command respect, attention and trust of the people. Unfortunately, many leaders fail to command credibility and are technically incompetent. This situation often arises where politics or religious considerations determine the selection of leaders. If there is no simultaneous combination of skills, knowledge, situation and communication, it is possible that leadership will be ineffective.
- ii. **Community Inertia-** Leadership problem in rural areas may arise out of the inactivity of the people. The people may not see the need for change having become apparently used to a kind of state over time. They may have become disillusioned over long neglect.
- iii. **Fear and Anxiety-** Some leaders may lack good communicative skills. There may be fear of failing to communicate. This is a primary area of worry among rural leaders. Fear of failure may be stronger than the leader's need for achievement or status (CES, 1979). This fear of failure or rejection constitutes a block (obstacle) in leadership situations. These fears cause persons to reject leadership positions or roles. In addition, some people

intrinsically fear change and are suspicious of change agents due to their anxiety about survival within the old setting (Ekong, 21003).

- iv. **Financial Limitations** – Generally, there are limited financial resources in the rural areas. Lack of ready source of revenue will make management of any organization ineffective. Money is needed for the successful implementation of rural development projects. Poor financial situation can create problem for leaders because they would not have enough money to finance the projects, resulting in abandonment of development activities.
- v. **Poverty** – Quite often, many persons have poor economic background and, when elected into office, tend to become desperate to amass wealth at all costs. They want to have good buildings, and improved economic ventures which can sustain them when out of leadership position. The tendency to divert funds meant for development is quite high. This is due to the materialistic nature of the Nigerian society. Poverty affects leadership patterns in rural areas.
- vi. **Poor Staffing-** Inadequate number of staff to handle administrative and implementation matters is a problem in leadership. The assistance of project beneficiaries will be needed in the implementation of the project.
- vii. **Competition for Member’s Time** -There is a tendency for people either to be “joiners” or “non-joiners”. People who belong to one group are likely to join several others. Multiple group membership often limits the time which any individual can devote to a particular group and its activities. The leader should note that if the members’ needs are being met to their satisfaction by the group, the problem of competing for their time will diminish. Thus, participation becomes high.
- viii. **Lack of Cooperation** - Lack of cooperation from community members, government agencies, voluntary group and policy makers would create serious set-back as the leader would not make progress at work. He cannot work alone as he would require funds, materials and advice to forge ahead. Leaders need cooperation from all stakeholders. Often, this does not come about easily.
- ix. **Generalist-Specialist Conflict** - In some cases, as is found in the American government system, specialists occupy leadership positions or a place of honor in administration. Yet, there is often

a felt need for the generalist leader. Where generalists are on top, there is a cry for involving specialists in leadership positions (Adamolekun, 1983, p.201).

Other problems of rural leadership have been identified. These include:

Failure of leaders to involve the people. This is a major source of inefficiency in which most leaders do not get their subjects to participate at all levels, from decision-making, through programme implementation, to evaluation.

- xii.** Low literacy levels among leaders have also contributed to their failure. They fail to understand the general principles of leadership misunderstand the process of modern development and are unable to gain from workshops usually organized for leaders.

Cultural and social differences between the leader and the community may result in inefficiency. Cultural diversity becomes a problem where a leader is imposed upon a people he does not have close cultural or social affinity with.

Leadership is required at all levels within organizations. However, it has been stated that successful leaders seem to be outnumbered by unsuccessful ones (Mullins, 1999, p.29867).

3.5 Suggested Solutions to Leadership Problems

Fear of failure to lead successfully can be overcome by providing learning opportunities which will overcome this fear. Fear can be avoided by matching the person's skills and abilities to positions requiring those skills and abilities.

On the issue of generalists versus specialist, the specialist is to be exposed to key aspects of the generalists' education and training from the secondary education level upwards. We can develop 'specialist' generalists. Thus, the generalist-specialists dichotomy disappears among those who occupy the leadership posts. It is necessary to expose all senior-level officials to education and training programmes that will enable them to acquire and develop their human and conceptual skills (Adamolekun, 1983).

Participatory leadership style has been advocated. The leader ensures that staff members contribute to achieving organizational goals as much as possible. Participatory leadership involves indicating clearly what each change agent or community development officer should and should not do. The leader, also, can give the change agents extensive freedom

in deciding what should be done to help the project beneficiaries. Such an approach is most effective if these decisions are discussed at meetings in which the staff try to clarify with management what the best decisions are in different situations.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Local leaders, like most leaders, contend with some crucial problems as they assist in the efforts to develop the rural areas. The problems include those of finance, credibility and fear/anxiety, among others. Solutions to these problems have to be found.

5.0 SUMMARY

As leaders get involved in the daily coordination of rural development activities, they face a number of problems. Such problems are fear and anxiety, inadequate finances, competition for members' time, lack of cooperation and the generalist-specialist conflict. One important solution is to train leaders in appropriate skills and abilities.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss any five problems that militate against leaders in their efforts to promote rural development.
2. In your opinion, what measures could be put in place to eliminate the problems of rural leadership?

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UNIT 5 LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN PARTICIPATORY LEADERSHIP PROCESS

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- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We are devoting this unit to the use of participatory methodologies by local government bodies which have the mandate of meeting the needs and interests of local people. Participatory approaches for engaging with people and facilitating development have been used in different ways and to varying effects since the 1980s by multilateral and bilateral agencies, NGOs, research institutes and central government departments (Inglis and Hesse, 2002) Local governments have the greatest role in facilitating local development, with explicit responsibilities, to consult their citizens in the delivery of appropriate services to meet their needs. Many local governments still use traditional ways of working which are extremely bureaucratic and formal in their dealings with local communities. The local government bodies are not applying enough participatory methods in the ways in which they deal with their people.

What does this participation consist of? What levels of participation are required, by whom and for what purposes? What are the different methods and tools being used?

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner should be able to:

- understand the vital functions of local governments
- list some strategic activities and steps for participatory training
- explain ways to make community-based development planning effective.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Functions of Local Government

The local government is recognized to be closer and more responsive to local needs than either state or federal government. In Nigeria, local government bodies are locally elected bodies. They often have responsibility for vital functions such as education, planning, community development, social inclusion, dealing with social problems, providing conflict resolution mechanisms, collecting local revenue and managing its expenditure. Many local governments operate outdated, conservative and non-participatory ways of working. If local government institutions operate in more participatory ways for all their functions, they could offer citizens the opportunity to have their first real taste and meaningful engagement, discourse and interaction with officials who control key processes that affect their daily lives (Ingilis and Hesse, 2002).

3.2 Issues of Social Inclusion

The question of how, in practice, local government bodies actually implement their rhetoric of participation clearly is problematic. There are challenges of reaching highly mobile groups such as pastoralists and the limitations of consultative procedures that focus just on conventional meetings or on consulting local opinion leaders.

The cost of participation is a subsidiary issue of social inclusion. It refers to the cost to the public of giving up their time to attend meetings or to fill in questionnaires without any assurance that their views and proposals will be taken into consideration, versus the cost to local government in running a highly participatory consultation process?

Good methodology design and common sense facilitation can lead to the cost-effective use of participatory approaches. The issue is less to do with trying “to meet everyone”, which is clearly unrealistic, and more to ensuring that the consultative process reaches a representative cross-section of the community. Identifying and dealing with local people’s

immediate problems and needs is also critical. Participatory planning exercises that have been carried out with external support have created a surge in demand for services and projects for social infrastructure which the local government councils cannot hope to meet from their own budgets.

3.3 New Styles of Leadership

Good governance is the critical issue if local governments are to deliver pertinent and cost-effective services to their citizens. Good local government is as much to do with relinquishing control and devolving responsibility for certain tasks. (To other bodies such as private sector, community groups, etc) as it is to ensuring visionary leadership and long-term planning that go beyond the specific political mandate they have received. Principles of accountability and subsidiarity are essential. Local government bodies can and should have multiple roles ranging from decision making to facilitating dialogue among multiple stakeholders.

There are major political as well as technical challenges to overcome in changing local government and others' attitudes. More attention is paid to building the technical capacities of local government staff in participatory planning (e.g. how to develop a plan for the construction of a community health clinic) than to broader processes of civic education and building the capacity of local people to participate in public affairs and facilitate participatory processes themselves. Yet, it is only when ordinary citizens have the confidence and the skills to hold local officials to account that one moves from a situation of 'participatory' to an 'accountable' government (Inglis and Hesse, 2002).

Accountability is of prime importance in ensuring the cost-effective delivery of appropriate services to local people. Local governments need to acquire the skills to implement participatory planning processes to ensure that the interests of all their constituents are taken into account. They, also, need to be held to account, through a system of incentives and sanctions, baseline studies and monitoring to deliver appropriate services. There are major problems with regard to the degree to which local leaders are genuinely accountable to their constituents. In some cases this is because local people are unaware of their rights.

3.4 Appropriateness of Pre-Packaged Participatory Tools

Pressure is put on local government officials to adopt off-the-shelf participatory planning processes, which are claimed by their disseminators to be suitable for all purposes. Off-the-shelf packages, despite their well-recognized weaknesses, are now being

mechanistically promoted by multilateral and bilateral agencies and national governments for local government planning within the context of decentralization. In some cases, local consultants are hired by the federal government with outside support to design and test a 'toolkit' of participatory processes to enable local councils to establish council-level environmental management plans.

Efforts must be made to convince existing users of these packages that they are not sacrosanct and that they can and should be adapted to meet local financial realities and political contexts. Local government bodies which are intended to be around for the foreseeable future must be given good, effective, grounded, tailored advice and support even if this will take longer than advocating the quick-fix use of off-the shelf packages. Training must be given to local government officials to be able to be flexible and innovative in their use of participatory approaches and methods (e.g. giving awareness of basic participatory working principles and basic process design skills).

There should be plans to transfer the skills associated with pre-packaged models of participatory planning below the level of local government to communities and their associations.

3.5 Meaningful Participatory Training

It is very important to develop attitudes and behaviour that respect local people's knowledge and experience, and to encourage the powerless and resource-poor to talk freely and thereby share their experiences. For any participatory training to be effective, it is necessary to:

- create win-win situations, so that individuals participants, the communities and the project would all benefit;
- show how personal goals can be achieved through achieving project objectives;
- make training sessions enjoyable and interesting for the participants and the trainers/facilitators;
- help participants in the analysis and decision-making processes;
- inspire participants, so that they are motivated to use creativity in developing participatory approaches and techniques instead of following blueprints; and
- build each individual participant's leadership qualities and facilitation skills, and develop positive personal as well as professional attitudes towards human resource development (Saxena and Pradhan, 2002).

3.5.1 Strategies and Process

Attitudes are not permanent but they are very stable. They are the result of both a lifelong learning process, and the norms and culture of the society in which we live. The process through which we learn new attitudes is fundamentally different from learning knowledge and skills. Since attitudes are very personal, only the individual can change them. Developing positive attitudes for achieving personal goals is the most important part of training. Training workshops should offer learning opportunities to build positive attitudes and then integrate knowledge and skills through hands-on practice.

The development of behaviour and attitude has a major bearing on the effectiveness of participatory approaches. The new process tries to enable participants to bring out a positive change in self-image, values, behaviour and attitude through various exercises.

Saxena and Pradhan (2002) have suggested some activities, namely:

Objective: To develop an understanding of how important attitudes are for attaining success:

- 1) In a general session, participants are asked to identify qualities and traits one should possess to be successful in different areas of life.
- 2) The facilitator writes on the board all the qualities/traits suggested by participants. This continues until all comments or suggestions are expressed (care is taken not to repeat any qualities/traits while writing on the board).
- 3) Participants are then asked to classify the qualities/traits into three categories; knowledge, skills and attitudes. Some qualities/traits may fall into one or two or all three categories.
- 4) Now, the facilitator counts the number of qualities/traits under each category and calculates percentages (on the average knowledge and skills together account for 15-30% and attitudes for 70%-85%).
- 5) The facilitator concludes that attitudes are more important for being successful in life, but hardly any effort is made to educate our attitudes, while throughout our life we keep on improving knowledge and skills.

- 6) The facilitator then asks participants to think about what they see as their purpose in life and their own definition of success:
- Why am I here?
 - Where am I going?
 - What needs to be changed to accomplish the life I desire?

After completing this exercise the participants are asked to share their feelings in a group, depending upon individual willingness.

This process takes about 2 days depending upon the participants. The focus then shifts towards facilitation skills, participatory approaches and methodologies, and achieving development objectives, using the following steps:

- Step 1** Building positive mental attitudes, discovering own self-image/esteem, using various individuals and group exercises, stories quotations and proverbs.
- Step 2** Knowing yourself: identifying own weaknesses and strengths, mind and habits and developing philosophy and purpose of life through exercise.
- Step 3** Learning about participatory approaches and techniques, identifying their weaknesses and strengths, and practicing with the community.
- Step 4** Identifying community activities in the context of the project, learning about project objectives and matching with personal goals.

All the above steps are done using various tools and techniques through classroom exercises and in the field with the community. At least 50% of the time is spent with the community. All the exercises are documented and presented before the large group. The day finishes with at least an hour of reflections, with a focus on the individual's personal benefits.

In the case of participatory tools and techniques, examples or demonstrations are avoided. Instead, problems are assigned to small groups, the group will then decide how best to conduct the task they have been assigned to do with the community. Local games and approaches are encouraged in analysis and in decision-making processes. The entire processes involve many individuals/group exercises.

3.6 Community-Based Development Planning

Community Based Development Planning (CBDP) refers to planning by communities for their communities, which is not isolated from links into the local and national government planning systems. CBDP is important as it attempts to make planning and resource allocation systems more responsive to local people's needs – improving the quality of services, while deepening democracy through promoting community action and involvement in planning and managing local development. It thus aims to improve both governmental and other services as well as to empower communities (Goldman and Abbot, 2004). The objectives are community mobilization, improving participation in local government planning, or emphasizing participatory forms of information gathering to inform national or sectoral policies.

CBDP can be undertaken for the following reasons:

- a) to improve the quality of integrated plans by incorporating perspectives and understanding from local communities;
- b) to improve sectoral plans and so the quality of services, once again by incorporating information generated by and with local communities;
- c) to promote community action, sometimes, as a means of releasing latent energy of communities or to reduce the demands on government by shifting responsibilities to communities;
- d) To comply with policy or legislative directives for public participation in indifferent types of plans and planning processes; and
- e) To promote community control over development, either in improving local influence over decisions, or in managing development directly.

The major issues of the community-driven development approach are as follows:

- i. empowering communities (with an emphasis on community plans, and community-managed funds);
- ii. empowering local governments (through fiscal, administrative, and political decentralization);
- iii. realigning the centre;
- iv. improving accountability, downwards and upwards; and
- v. capacity-development at all levels (training, etc).

The CBDP can be made more effective (up-scaling) by:

- a) improving linkages to the local, national, or sectoral government planning systems and developing tools for analyzing information from the community plans (deepening);
- b) a recognition that the use of community-managed funds is an essential component, either through a direct funding allocation or through local revenue raising which should be linked to knowledge of the funds available;
- c) improving the quality with which the methodology is applied;
- d) improving the use of monitoring tools, and accountability mechanisms by community structures as well as local government;
- e) strengthening local government's support for implementation and plan follow-up; and
- f) effective integration of traditional leaders, opinion leaders, civil society organizations and service providers(including the private sector) in the planning process.

3.7 Guide to Trainers

Two aspects of the community-based planning process are:

- a) ensuring the effective representation of people within the community concerned in the planning activities; and
- b) how to prepare and run a pre-planning community meeting in advance of the main planning events, in order to mobilize leaders from diverse sections of the community.

A. Ensuring Effective Representation

It is important to ensure the effective participation of people, including sub-planning unit structures, in the planning process. The groupings within the community which can be used for representation purposes include:

- i. Economic groups such as market women, bakers' associations, and palm oil producers' associations.

- ii. Social groupings such as youth associations, student unions, and boy scouts.
- iii. Religious organizations such as Catholic associations, Muslim Associations, and Pentecostals groups.
- iv. Traditional associations such as cultural groups.
- v. Environmental groupings: these include both groups of natural resource (NR) users as well as environmental interest groups.

Groups of NR users include farmers' associations (livestock and crop), gatherers of water, beekeepers, and traditional healers groups (who often gather herbs and other plant and animal products from wild areas and thus have valuable knowledge of the state of natural resources). Environmental interest groups include waste management groups (e.g. clean-up campaigns, recycling organizations, waste pickers), environmental clubs at schools, and other CBOs concerned with environmental issues. The principles of effective representation are based on the assumption that every community is made up of a diversity of groups whose interests might either coincide or be at variance, and as CBP is a democratic process, there needs to be effective representation of these different groups, and some consensus-building about priorities.

A way to improve participation, ownership, and representation is to carry out sufficient community feedback processes and mechanisms.

B. Pre-Planning Community Meeting

Pre-planning meeting is held a week or two prior to the main planning week, initially just with unit committee members. This could also include a broader session with opinion leaders (such as teachers, clinic staff, religious leaders, youth leaders, leaders of unemployed groups, trade union, women's groups etc) The aim is to mobilize the leaders of many different sections of the community. It 's also, to ensure broad ownership of the plan so that people realize that this is about their process, that one of the outputs needs to be local action and not just demands for resources from others.

Objectives of this meeting are to ensure that local leaders:

- a) understand the planning process and outputs;
- b) get committed to supporting an inclusive planning process (which prioritizes the needs of marginalized groups);

- c) are ready to mobilize their constituencies readily for the planning phase;
- d) have defined the main socio-economic and interest groups to take forward the planning process;
- e) begin collecting existing background information; and
- f) developed a timetable for the planning week and the first meetings will have been scheduled.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Inspiration through personal development planning helps participants to build creative capacity and innovation. Building positive attitudes and focusing on personal development will greatly help in creating a conducive learning environment and for learning self-discipline.

5.0 SUMMARY

The local governments need to apply the principles of participatory planning in development in the area of social inclusion, dealing with social problems, managing transport infrastructure, conflict resolution, collecting local revenue and so on. Some strategies have been suggested

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the reasons for community-based development planning?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Goldman, I. and J. Abbot (2004). “ Overview: Decentralization and Participatory Planning”, PLA Notes, April. No. 49, pp 5-14.

Inglis, A and Hesse, C. (2002). “Overview: Local Governments- Potentially the Most Important Day to Day Real-World Users of Innovative Participatory Approaches” PLA Notes, June, No. 44:4-7.

MODULE 3

Unit 1	Problems of Rural Development
Unit 2	Rural Development and Poverty Reduction
Unit 3	The Role of Mass Media in Sustainable Rural Development
Unit 4	Youth in Rural Development
Unit 5	Women in Rural Development
Unit 6	Case Studies

UNIT 1 PROBLEMS OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT**CONTENTS**

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Quite often, there are complaints that the rural areas have not significantly improved in terms of quality of life. The reasons are many. There are six groups of problems and bottlenecks which should be removed in order to attain satisfactory rates of growth in the rural communities. The group of inhibiting factors, which also have subsidiary issues, are socio-politico-economic, natural resources, manpower (human), urban attraction, development planning, and rural management problems (Eweka, Bello-Osaigie and Olayide, 1979). An understanding of these problems would enable development practitioners plan effectively for accelerated development of the rural areas.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the major problems militating against the accelerated development of rural areas
- Explain the appropriate solutions to identified problems of rural development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Rural Development Problems

In this section, the categories of rural development problems are presented in details.

3.2 Socio-Politico-Economic Problems

3.2.1 Sociological Problems

The rural communities are subject to differing and, often, conflicting social structures that are reflected in demographic characteristics, class

structures, ethnicity, power overlays and other spatial or regional variations. Other factors that are important include socialization, social ecology, changing social mores, the impact of social demography, social conflicts, and leadership patterns on rural development processes. There is lack of adequate information on the role, impact and effects of the social attributes and characteristics on rural development processes. Very little is also known about their impact in the past, at present and in the future. It is in this context that the role of rural sociologists in rural development planning, programming and management becomes very crucial (Eweka, Bello –Osagie and Olayide, 1979).

3.2.2 Political Problems

Conflicts exist in differing political behavior, political structure and settings of rural communities. These affect the type of governance and administration as well as rural political institutions such as village councils, traditional rulers' councils, village pressure groups and other traditional institutions or age-group associations and their relationships to local government administration. Little is known about the interrelations and interplay of these political variables with rural development processes. Political scientist can play meaningful role in rural development thought-processes, planning, programming, management and promotion of humane and beneficial political awareness.

3.2.3 Economic Problems

Financial Problem – These are bottlenecks associated with sources, magnitudes, duration, availability, stability and typology of rural financing.

Social Overhead Problem – These are the bottlenecks associated with adequate provision of social over-heads at minimum cost to the rural communities.

Banking-Insurance Problem- These are the problems associated with rural money supply, the savings-investment structures or patterns, the insurance-investment patterns and rural credit facilities (institutions).

Distribution Problem- This includes problems of the concentration – equalization –dispersal of products, intra-village and inter-village trade or markets, storage-processing-packaging of products, product prices and profit margins, class of distributors, the “carrier” services, and the market place. These economic problems tend to influence the total products of rural communities and the magnitude of the rural

commodity/products surpluses. The applied economist and planner in rural development planning, programming and management is crucial.

We need full researches into the structure and conduct of rural communities in order to assess the performances in the light of the promises and the potentials for accelerated rural development. The results of such rural development researches would provide solutions for detailed planning of programmes and setting of appropriate policy instruments for implementing such programmes.

3.3 Natural Resource Problems

The relevant natural resources in rural development processes include land, labour, water, crops, livestock, forest, wild-life(fauna), fishery minerals and climate (in terms of moisture, pressure, temperature, , wind and topography). Problems that affect these natural resources are:

3.3.1 Resource Availability

- (a) Usability of natural resources in terms of form, structure and quality;
- (b) Scarcity of resources in terms of the quantity available to users in relation to want;
- (c) Utilization of resources in terms of competing users and other characteristics such as complementarily and substitutability;
- (d) Distribution of resources in terms of inter-temporal and spatial or regional location, density, and feasibility for use;
- (e) Conservation of resources in terms of waste, depletion, renew-ability, preservation for sustained use, etc.; and
- (f) Mobility of resources in terms of lumpiness, fluidity, fixity, transferability, transportation, and malleability.

3.3.2 Resource “Taxonomy”

This means the detailed mapping of each natural resource in terms of location, magnitude, arrangements, form of occurrences, and characteristic features. These are difficulties and bottlenecks associated with comprehensive resources mapping in the context of requirements for personnel, funds and physical resources.

3.3.3 Acquisition

There is need to assess and resolve bottlenecks in form, retro-development method, mechanism, cost, domestication and magnitudes of resource acquisition. There is need to address the issues of optimal acquisition conducive to efficient resource allocation in rural communities.

3.3.4 Inertial Guidance

This involves the bottlenecks associated with the assessment of the rates of resource variation over time, the optimum conversion rates, economic levels of resource type domination over other resource types, efficiency-effectiveness of information systems on resource modification, and resource malleability-transferability in relation to demand over time. There is need for comprehensive mission-oriented research on problems of resource use and development in rural communities.

3.4 Manpower (Human) Problems

Manpower problems are the most intractable bottlenecks in rural development administration. They include:

3.4.1 Rural Labour Utilization

There are so many young school leavers (secondary, post-secondary/tertiary) without functional jobs. The educational systems tend to produce literate, unskilled job seekers and not job creators. This situation remains in spite of curricular reconstruction at all levels with emphasis on functional and vocational education. The solution is to incorporate technical and commercial skills in the educational systems in order to produce job creators in the rural communities.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What measures are essential in ensuring that our graduates become job creators, not job-seekers?

3.4.2 The Growing Number of Women and Child Labour

There is a large population of women and young children in Nigeria. Women and children make up about 78.00 percentage of the rural labour force. The problem is how to actively involve the children and women folk in rural development so as to ensure their optimal utilization in rural communities. Rigorous research and analysis are needed to resolve this difficult planning task.

3.4.3 Attitudinal Disposition of People Living in Rural Communities

There are problems of the growing apathy to labour-intensive primary production, sub-optimal physical energy to work arising from ageing and youthfulness of the rural labour force, inadequate nutrition from ingested foods thus reducing the level of energy for basal metabolism the changing concepts of the dignity of work types, and the demonstration effects of less arduous but profit-maximizing jobs existing in urban communities. These bottlenecks require considerable study and analysis in order to correct them.

3.4.4 Problems Associated with “Traditionalism”

Foreign customs have tended to create as mongrel and complicated set of behaviour and attitudes to the extent of having negative effects on traditional customs, laws and taboos.

3.4.5 Rural Leadership and Followership

Human beings need to be motivated in order to accept innovations as against their unwillingness to accommodate arbitrary impositions. Good leadership and effective extension system will be able to indicate the direction of proposed changes, clarify their objectives and values, and facilitate effective execution of change programmes. The extension service should be able to produce a willing followership in rural communities.

3.4.6 Problems Associated with the Training of the People in Rural Communities

The rural population continues to grow just as employment opportunities still decline in the rural communities. Training of the rural work-force has to grapple with the complex issues of job description, job organization-operation systems, manpower analysis, critical incident technique, and the assessment of training needs as well as resources. Other issues deal with areas of training needs in rural communities (techniques, skills, traditional customs and values); rural enterprise administration –management; programmes planning; achievement; entrepreneurial development; industrial development; functional literacy; cooperativization; modern farming systems, etc. Extension agents need pre-service training, induction training, in –service training, and on-the-job training in rural development systems.

Programming and management in order to perform their duties of information dissemination and education of farmers.

3.5 Urban Attraction Problems

The problems which tend to accelerate the pace of rural-urban drift are:

3.5.1 Problems created by Urban Wages

Where urban wages/incomes tend to be higher than those of rural areas for comparable jobs and skills, people easily want to desert the rural areas.

3.5.2 Urban Employment Systems

The problem areas include:

- (a) the existence of the large jobs with low skills and many others that require no skill whatsoever supplemented with other official policies that influence urbanization to the detriment of rural communities; and
- (b) urban-biased public investment in social services tend to create additional employment opportunities not available in the rural areas.

3.5.3 Problems of Attraction Created for Rural Communities by the Lavish Supply of Infrastructures in Urban Areas

- (a) Physical infrastructures e.g. transportation systems, storage-warehouse facilities, processing facilities and municipal utilities (such as electricity, water supply and communication systems);
- (b) Social infrastructures, such as health facilities, educational facilities, and law enforcement facilities;
- (c) Institutional infrastructures, such as cooperative societies, financial institutions, research institutions, trade and distributive services institutions, etc.; and
- (d) In rural communities, the dearth of infrastructures results in disincentives for enterprise development.

3.5.4 Attraction Problems Created by Urban Housing Facilities

Various governments of Nigeria have often given much attention to urban housing for workers, including the low-cost housing scheme. This has resulted in speeding up rural –urban and off-farm migration of

able-bodied, semi-skilled and unskilled workers. As rural people move into urban centers waiting for jobs, there are the problems of family dislocation, under-employment of labour, zero-negative production, social stratification, social tension and declining rural production.

3.5.5 Problems of Attraction Created by Urban-Suburban Sprawls

Urban centers double or triple those of rural communities in demographic growth rates, resulting in an urban-suburban sprawl with encroachments on rural agricultural land. Aerial expansion of dwellings quite often utilize formerly fertile arable land indiscriminately and absorb satellite farming villages which are eventually turned into sub-urban slums. Therefore, there is the problem of urban land zoning and the disappearance of semi-urban farms.

3.6 Development Planning Problems

Modern rural development planning faces some problems including:

- a) The non-involvement of the grassroots in the planning process.

When outsiders plan without involving the rural people, the programme does not become relevant.
- b) Low planning capacity at the Federal and State levels is the most difficult problem of development planning. This capacity is even non-existent at the local government level. The existing planning units are often faced with these problems:
 - i. non concretized planning structure
 - ii. erratic operational planning mechanisms
 - iii. absence of holistic system that makes use of inter-disciplinary-multidisciplinary research information
 - iv. lack of planning capability in qualified planners
 - v. absence of tested and tried planning models
 - vi. inadequate training for planners, and
 - vii. lack of emphasis on monitoring and evaluation activities.

The only effective solution to these problems is to create viable planning departments at the local government level.

3.7 Rural Management Problems

Development management is a combination of entrepreneurship and the functions of modern managerial class in industry which are planning,

actuation, effectuation, administration and control. Some problems are identified here:

1. Institutional Inadequacy in Rural Communities – Managerial training for agricultural projects is required in this country.
2. Problem of rigidity, tidiness, functional specificity and lack of cooperation created by bureaucratized rural administrative framework.
3. Bottlenecks arising from poor –inadequate dissemination of information which hampers effective decision-making processes, thereby creating allied problems of documentation and information preservation-retrieval processes.
4. Poor organization and administration-execution of rural enterprise production and distribution tend to create serious productive and distributive inefficiencies.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The failure of rural communities to develop to a significant level is attributed to a myriad of bottlenecks. These range from sociological problems, political problems, economic problems and resource availability problems to inertia, production if literate, unskilled job seekers and urban attraction problems.

5.0 SUMMARY

The major problems facing rural development efforts are lack of adequate information; social conflicts; poor financial support; scarcity of resources; production of literate, unskilled job seekers; weak rural leadership structure and unwilling followership; absence of leadership training; and institutional inadequacy in the rural communities. These problems must be resolved at all times if efforts at rural development would become successful.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the problems of rural development in Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Eweka, J.A. & Bello-Osagie, V. E. and S.O. Olayide (1979). *Village Development: Food Basket Management Strategy*. Ibadan: CARD, 315pp.

UNIT 2 RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND POVERTY REDUCTION

CONTENTS

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 - 3.2 Social Indicators of Poverty
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Like many developing countries, rural poverty is a widespread phenomenon in Nigeria. Poverty implies a condition in which individuals have little to eat, limited materials to wear and very rudimentary shelter to live in. There is also a corollary that the poor person has access to little or no means of recreation and tourism. In this Unit, the meaning of poverty and its characteristics are discussed as well as strategies to alleviate it in relation to rural development.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of poverty
- describe the indicators of poverty
- suggest measures of reducing poverty.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Poverty Profile

The poverty profile shows the extent and nature of poverty and the distinguishing characteristics of the poor. It is an analytic device for

summarizing information on the sources of income, consumption patterns, economic activities, and living conditions of the poor. It starts with a definition and measure of poverty, based on one or more poverty lines (Poverty line is the cut-off living standard level below which a person is classified as poor. It usually captures only the income or the consumption dimension of poverty). The poverty profile is a snapshot of the poor.

It has been shown that poverty is mainly rural. This implies that the urban poor are fewer and are less poor than their counter parts in rural communities. Farming is the main source of income for the poor in most developing countries. Poverty is a problem of low productivity among those who are self-employed (mostly farmers) rather than of open unemployment. Consumption patterns show that food is the major expenditure component for the poor. Indicators of education, health, nutrition, housing and lighting facilities are worst in the rural areas of highest poverty incidence.

Poverty is spread unevenly in a given geographic area. At the core of poverty are such problems as lack of education, idleness, and acute vulnerability to illness and seasonal hard times.

3.2 Social Indicators of Poverty

Socials indicators provide information about the poor. The non-poor people usually have access to social services before the poor people do. If the percentage of non-poor in the population is less than the percentage of the population with access to social services, some of the poor people are probably being reached. At this point, most of the movements in the indicator will reflect changes in the living standards of the poor (The World Bank, (1993).

Social sector expenditures (covering expenditures on services used by the poor) can be important poverty indicators.

Another indicator is net primary school enrollment (NPSE). NPSE refers to the number of children of age 6 to 11 enrolled in primary school as a percentage of the population aged 6 to 11, adjusted for each country's age structure for primary school.

Achievement indicators such as literacy or completion rates are often preferred but they reflect current educational activities only and have significant lags. Enrollment rates show the proportion of the relevant age cohort attending primary school, when corrected for repeaters and average students. However, problems of attendance, distribution, and the quality of schooling may not be picked up by this indicator.

Therefore, it is useful to supplement this by information on student-teacher ratios, drop-out rates, number of students' preschool and public expenditure levels.

3.3 Children in Development

One important indicator of poverty is children's health and nutritional status. There are three leading indicators here, namely:

- i. **Under Five Mortality Rate (U5MR)** - This is the most complete or best indicator of changes in children's health status. It means the probability of dying between birth and age five (5), per thousand births.
- ii. **Immunization** – The data on immunization report the percentage of children immunized by twelve (12) months of age.
- iii. **Malnutrition** – This means the percentage of children (usually one to four years old) of less than two standard deviations of the reference median World Health Organization (WHO) standards. Inadequate weight-for-age is evidence of wasting and is a symptom of under nutrition in the community.

3.4 Women in Development

The status of women in the society and their access to services are important indicators of family well-being. This is because of the critical role women play in the survival strategies of poor families. Priority indicators, according to the World Bank (1993), include:

- i. **Female/Male Life Expectancy at Birth** – Normally women outlive men. In high-income countries, women live an average of six years longer than men. In low-income countries, they live only two years longer.
- ii. **Total Fertility Rate** – This represents the number of children a woman would bear if she were to live to the end of her child-bearing years and bear children at each age in accordance with prevailing age-specific fertility rates. We note, however, that there is a correlation between fertility and poverty across households in a country.
- iii. **Maternal Mortality** – Among poor women, the most frequent cause of death is unattended childbirth. The maternal mortality rate is an indicator of poor women's access to basic health services.

- iv. **Female Literacy** – Adult literacy is associated with positive social, economic and personal effects. Women’s literacy is directly associated with welfare benefits, including better children nutrition, higher immunization rates for children, and higher primary school attendance rates.

3.5 Income Indicators of Poverty

- i. Unskilled Wage Rates (Urban and Rural) – Unskilled labour is often the major factor of production owned by the poor. Even where the poor own land, they hardly have enough to support their households. The very poorest people are likely to be those without any land or without enough land. Another group of the poorest people will be those without secure or regular jobs.
- ii. Real Terms of Trade – The small-holder farmers constitute the major poverty group and they derive their income mainly from the sale of agricultural produce. Price changes often affect these farmers either negatively or positively. Their income depends mainly on the prices of the crops which they produce compared with the prices of goods they consume.

3.6 Measuring Poverty

Lifting the poor people out of poverty will require a better understanding of how many poor there are, where they live, and why they are poor. Poverty is concerned with the absolute standard of living of a part of society, that is, the poor. It is different from inequality which means the relative living standards across the whole society. Poverty is the inability to attain a minimum standard of living (The International Bank, 1990).

To measure the standard of living, household incomes and expenditures per capita are used. Both measures, however, do not capture such dimensions of welfare as health, life expectancy, literacy, and access to public goods or common property resources.

The simplest way to measure poverty is to express the number of poor as a proportion of the population. A measure to use is the headcount index. A better index is the poverty gap or the income short fall which measures the transfer that would bring the income of every poor person exactly up to the poverty line, thereby eliminating poverty.

3.7 The Characteristics of the Poor

If interventions are to succeed, information on the poor should be obtained. Information on how the poor derive and spend their incomes can help policy makers assess how changes in relative prices would affect real income.

Poverty is common in areas with low average incomes. It tends to be at its worst in rural areas. The problems of lack of education, malnutrition, low life expectancy and substandard housing are, also, more severe in rural area. The urban poor are typically housed in slums or squatter settlements and they suffer from overcrowding, bad sanitation, and contaminated water.

Households with the lowest income per person are usually large with many children or other economically dependent members. Having many children appears to be a sensible response to poverty. Children mortality is high in destitute families but it is essential to ensure that some children survive to support the household when the parents become old. Children serve to free adults from domestic tasks. The aged rely on the extended family. In poor areas, family planning services are absent.

Child labour is common and exploitative as many households depend on it, at the expense of schooling.

Many poor people lack access to land and those who have many not have ownership rights.

The sources of income vary among the poor. The poor commonly work as hunters, gatherers, cultivators, petty traders, small artisans and wage labourers.

Poor people are rarely self-sufficient. They need cash to pay taxes as well as medical and school fees. They need money to buy salt, cooking oil, soap and clothes. Most of the poor people are small-scale agriculturalists or pastoralists.

Rural non-farm employment comprises cottage industries, services, and commerce, often or part-time or seasonal.

Among the urban poor, the main source of livelihood is the informal sector jobs that pay least. The urban poor people are often self-employed. They sell their services and engage in trade or work on a casual basis in manufacturing, construction, and transport (The International Bank, 1990).

For some of the poor people, transfers can be important sources of income. Transfers might be made by relatives and friends or through village support systems

The poor people spend nearly all their incomes on consumption, particularly in the form of food. They are, also, often set apart by cultural and educational barriers.

The inability to satisfy one's minimum needs, the state of not having enough income or not being able to get the essentials of life, the fear and the dread of want, miserable living without knowing why, as well as working sore and yet gaining nothing are various forms of poverty (Obinne, 1999). Some of the strong characteristics of poverty among Nigerians, as Obinne (1999) reported, are:

- 1) low wage, low annual income
- 2) Use of child labour
- 3) Borrowing from local money lenders at usurious interest rates
- 4) Unemployment and under-employment
- 5) Miscellany of unskilled occupations
- 6) Living in crowded quarters
- 7) Low level of literacy and education
- 8) Belief in male superiority
- 9) Low participation in national welfare agencies
- 10) Chronic shortage of cash
- 11) Little use of banks, hospitals, airports, museums, or art galleries
- 12) Lack of privacy.

3.8 Reaching the Poor

Countries that have substantially achieved poverty reduction are those that have:

- 1) Promoted the productive use of the Poor's most abundant asset that is labour. This involves policies that harness market incentives, social and political institutions, infrastructure, and technology for broad-based economic growth; and
- 2) Developed strategy that provides basic social services to the poor. The issues here are family planning, nutrition, and primary health care and education.

However, according to the World Bank (1993), even where the two-part strategy is adopted, many of the poor (the sick, the old and those living in the resource-poor regions) will continue to suffer severe deprivation. Many others will have temporary setback, due to seasonal variations in

income, loss of family bread-winner, famine, or adverse macroeconomic shocks. The World Bank, therefore, calls for a comprehensive approach to poverty reduction which includes well-targeted transfers and safety nets to complement the basic strategy. More poverty reduction can be achieved through economically efficient policies, programmes and investments.

Reaching the poor with targeted programmes can be difficult. Self-selecting programmes which exclude the non-poor by offering benefits that are of interest only to the poor, are very promising. Investment in education is seen as the best way of augmenting the assets of the poor

It will be useful to design intervention which meets the specific needs of the poor people. This means:

- a) developing technologies suited to the risky environment that confronts small farmers;
- b) devising credit schemes to serve small borrowers; and
- c) combining feeding programmes for especially vulnerable groups with education on health and nutrition.

3.9 Treatment of Poverty

There are two important determinants of poverty, namely (a) access to income-generating opportunities, and (b) the capacity to respond. Poverty is eliminated and minimal standards of living are ensured when households have secure opportunities to use their labour to good purpose and the household members are skilled, educated, and healthy. It is true that inability to cope with shocks or misfortunes can render relatively well-off households poor and lead to starvation and death for those already impoverished.

Policies of Governments should facilitate the expansions of the access of poor people to land, credit, infrastructure and productive inputs. There should be public support for agricultural development. It has been shown (The International Bank, 1990, P.58) that public Programmes to provide services, infrastructure, research, and technology for agriculture have a decisive influence on the level and pattern of agricultural growth and on private investment in the sector. Better infrastructure can lead to increased productivity, technical change, and strengthened market linkages. An industrialization strategy that encourages the spread of rural industry, the creation of urban employment and other measures can help reduce poverty.

With regard to farm non-farm linkages, growth in the rural non- farm economy is important in creating rural employment and in raising labour

incomes. However, agriculture is usually the key to the growth of non-farm activities. Raising farm incomes leads to greater demand for goods and services.

The minimum needs of the people should be met. Government should provide essential services such as education, health and drinking water in addition to the creation of specifically targeted programmes to help increase the purchasing power of the poor. To this end, integrated rural development programmes, the national employment scheme and similar programmes should be consolidated.

If the government emphasizes constructive policies for the development of agriculture it is possible to eliminate famine and hunger in the country. Effort should be made to remove the discrimination against agriculture and farming people.

Experts suggest that aggregate poverty in the developing nations will decline faster when gains of national growth are distributed fairly (Obinne, 1999). For example, it has been estimated that one per cent annual growth rate at all income levels will reduce the proportion of the poor by about 2-3 per cent per year.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Poverty exists in the nation and has delayed rural development. It is possible to eliminate poverty if constructive policies and appropriate strategies are put in place.

5.0 SUMMARY

Poverty exists in many forms. Some of the indicators of poverty are unskilled wage rates, maternal mortality, low life expectancy and under-five mortality. Reducing poverty will require the creation of income-earning opportunities for the poor, and increasing the current welfare of their poor and their capacity to respond to opportunities through provision of social services.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the major characteristics of poverty?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 THE ROLE OF MASS MEDIA IN SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Types of Communication Channels
 - 3.2 Role and Effects of Mass Media
 - 3.3 How Mass Media should be Utilized
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

A useful definition of a sustainable system of livelihood is one which satisfies demands for acceptable living into the indefinite future while meeting equity conditions in livelihood strategies from one generation to another. Equity concerns ethical issues while sustainability concerns the long-term impact of the livelihood system on the productivity of the natural system on which it rests. Thus a system is said to be sustainable if its productivity is maintained intact indefinitely. A successful take-off of development starts with the mobilization of human resources which usually centers on education. The people need to be motivated and persuaded to adopt new values. There is an important role for the media in attaining food self-sufficiency or food security and sustainable livelihoods. Information is an important resource in rural development.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- distinguish between mass media and interpersonal channels of communication
- identify the role and effects of mass media in rural development
- describe the communication strategy best for rural development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Communication Channels

At this point it is necessary to distinguish clearly between two categories of media-mass media and interpersonal communication. Table 1 gives a summary of the differences. Both types of communication can be used

by rural dwellers to select the most profitable development technology, create optimal conditions for their animals and crop-plants, budget expenditure and determine which enterprise combinations are the most profitable, as well as to decide where and when to sell their products.

Table 1: Differences between Mass Media and Interpersonal Communication

Character	Mass medias channels	Interpersonal channels
* Message Flow	Tends to be one-way	Tends to be two-way
* Communication context	Interposed	Face-to-Face
* Amount of feedback	Low	High
* Readily available		
* Ability to overcome Selective processes (selective exposure)	Low	High
* Speed to large Audiences	Relatively rapid	Relatively low
* Possibility to adjust Message to audience	Small	Large
* Cost per person Reached	Low	High
* Possibility for Audience to ignore	High	Low
* Same message to all Receivers	Yes	No
* Who gives information	Experts or Power Holders	Everybody
* Possible effect	Knowledge change	Attitude formation and change

Source: Adapted from Rogers, E.M. and F.F. Shoemaker (1971).

3.2 Role and Effects of Mass Media

Television, radio, newspapers and magazines are generally the least expensive media for educating large number of people. The media are supposed to provide an auspicious climate for rural and agricultural development, making knowledge and skills available where these are needed and provide a forum for discussion, leadership and decision-making (Okonkwo, 1987). It is easy to recognize the place of mass media in rural development if one explains agricultural development in full as a process of change from the subsistence into commercialized

enterprise as well as the transformation of the people who are involved in the sub-sector.

Schramm (1979) stated that mass Media alone are not every effective on changing strongly held attitudes or values; that one of their most important functions is to feed interpersonal channels; and that one of the thing they could do best is to help build a climate for development rather than achieving change directly. He, also, said that mass media could enforce social norms, focus attention, and demonstrate skills, all important parts of a development communication system.

The media are responsible for dissemination of messages. They are the conscience of a nation and have the duty to use their discretion in a more positive way by contributing to human values and human dignity aimed at the constant well-being of the people as well as the mass awakening for the social uplift and betterment of mankind (Abidi, 1991).

Mass media influence people's thoughts and actions. Perceptual principles can be used to attract attention and the media are important for making individuals and groups aware of innovations and for stimulating people's interest. The mass media are not however, quite influential when individuals make decisions. Instead, decision-makers rely on the judgment of trusted neighbors and persons with whom they discussed. As stated by van den Ban and Hawkins (1996), research has shown that the media can accelerate existing change processes, but they seldom bring about changes in behaviour by themselves This situation is due to the fact that the sender or source and receiver tend to employ several selective processes (selective acceptance, selective attention, selective perception, selective remembering arts) when using mass media, which often result in the receiver distorting the sender's messages.

Generally, media fulfill certain functions our societies and in changing these societies, including:

- i setting the agenda of important discussion topics,
- ii transferring knowledge,
- iii forming and changing opinions,
- iv changing behaviour (vanden Ban and Hawkins, 1996).

Farmers are easily stimulated to discuss points with extension agents or opinion leaders by using farm magazines and rural radio programmes. The media easily draw attention to problems faced by the population during a famine or other disasters and to measures taken by the government to solve such problems.

The change agents must endeavour to create news in order to win media attention and coverage, for example, blockades of streets/roads using agricultural machinery may draw media attention. Farmers often do not accept knowledge and opinions transferred through the media, but use them creatively to change their cognitive map and form their own opinions (van den Ban and Hawkins, 1996). Mass media have been used to inform policy makers and researchers about current problems in rural communities.

It has to be realized that not all kinds of knowledge can be transferred through the mass media. A good example is the attempt to teach skills required for pest management which can only be successful in the field, not through television, even though the basic idea of the use of pesticides to kill predators might be so taught.

Mass media readily fit different kinds of communication strategies (Table 2). The Radio Rural Forum is useful in diffusing innovations from experts to farmers accompanied usually by discussions among farmers after listening to the broadcasts. The Diffusion Model uses every channel available to diffuse relevant knowledge from experts to farmers. The Package Programme emphasizes the need to provide the physical support (seed, fertilizer, credit, etc) needed by farmer. The chief responsibility for downward communication is assigned to experts who identified areas that needed support, and field workers and their agencies who are responsible for taking the necessary support to the farmers. The package approach resembles the "Local Strategy" but the former is too a top-down strategy, guided by experts and central support. However, the Local Strategy provides for maximum participation by farmers at all levels of project life. The Local Strategy model being with local planning, local decision, local organization, and depends on local leadership. The mass media may be used to support local plans and needs, and small media come handy. The message must be tailored to meet local needs.

Table 2: Kinds of Communication Strategies

The Radio Forum Model	The Diffusion Model	The Package Programme	The Local Strategy (Participatory Model)
How Gains Occur			
By stimulating farmers to understand innovations identified as likely to improve farming.	By wider diffusion of demonstrably improved farming practice.	By identification of inputs that dramatically increase output on farms and in regions where applicable.	By encouraging farmers to decide upon and carry out development plans they believe are best for their locality.
Purposes of Communication			
To convey necessary information which are then discussed in group.	To motivate farmers to consider the possibility of change; to convey factual data needed for adoption of specific improved practices.	To insure that all needed inputs are available at proper times and appropriate locations.	To enable locals community to decide upon their own plans for development and ask for help and resources they need.
Main Directions of Message Flow			
From experts to local discussion group, then within group.	Primarily from those charged with identifying better practices to those expected to adopt them.	Inter and Intra-agency communication to coordinate availability of all elements in the package of inputs.	Primarily horizontal and locals with supporting channel to and from centres of knowledge resources and authority.
Role of Feedback			
To report results and ask questions.	To check adequacy of messages (accuracy; relevance, comprehensibility) as a guide to revision.	To monitor program as a basis for modifying its content (but not its goals).	To ask for assistance as needed to report successes that might be copied elsewhere.
Critical Communication Requirements			
Radio broadcasts to local discussion groups and discussion group.	Mass media, locals extension workers and information materials to support them.	Channels for liaison among agencies, vertical communication from the field to the levels at which agency decisions is made.	Local organization with such group meetings and channels to coordinating centres as are needed.

3.3 How Mass Media should be Utilized

To the extent that a developing country adopts a strategy based local activity, the large media (television, national radio, and national newspaper) will have to play a supporting rather than a leading role in developing communication (Schramm, 1979). As Schramm explained, a local's strategy assumes that:

- i. the centre of development strategy will be the local area;
- ii. local activity and local decision making will become central in development planning;
- iii. two-way, not one-way communication will be emphasized; and
- iv. horizontal communication will be emphasized at the expense of vertical communication.

The media are not very good at two-way communication, nor horizontal communication. They are essentially designed for vertical top-down communication.

The movement in development thinking and practiced towards participation of people and communities in decision-making about their own lives has been given impetus by rapid change in video and audio as well as internet technologies. They can be used in many different contexts by an increasingly wide range of people mainly as these technologies become smaller, cheaper, more reliable and easier to operate. The viable trend media communications a continuum of participatory approaches involving different races of people with a range of skills able to respond to changing needs and contexts.

Mass media have been used for one-way communication from researchers or extension personnel to farmers, but they can easily be adapted for use in more participatory way in many rural development schemes.

To this end, experts have suggested the strengthening of community development centres (CDC) where-in traditional means of communication can be encouraged as media facilities are reviewed.

Rural organizations can use mass media to share useful experiences among dwellers and to increase their motivations to work as a group involving their farm and non-farm problems. To this end, manpower training in the field of rural communications should be aggressively stepped up in order to adequately cope with the increasing need for rural

people education and enlightenment. It would be necessary to train professionals in the utilization of mass media and dissemination agricultural and rural information. Training should be given in audio-visuals to enable professionals produce materials suitable to given localities.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Under present circumstance in Nigeria, it is obvious that the mass media have a major role to play in persuasive communication. The rural people should be seen as targets for persuasion so that they would identify with development initiatives. Most rural people need to be convinced about the usefulness or benefits of introduced changes/innovations, and effective regular campaigns would be useful to sustain their interest.

5.0 SUMMARY

Mass media influence people's thoughts and actions. They help transfer knowledge and set agenda of important discussion issues. Both the mass media and interpersonal channels can be successfully integrated and utilized. Media personnel need to be trained or re-trained in rural development processes to be able to communicate appropriately.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

State the ways in which the mass media can affect rural development

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UNIT 4 YOUTH IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Value of Rural Youth Programmes
 - 3.2 Rural Youth Extension and Leadership Training
 - 3.3 Rural Youth Group Management
 - 3.4 Qualities of a Good Youth Leader
 - 3.5 Steps in Training Youth Leaders
 - 3.6 Mobilizing Youth for Social and Economic Development
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The youths represent the future of a nation. In 1990, there were an estimated eight hundred million youth living in rural areas and a little over four hundred million in the cities (Bie, 1996).

In many developing countries, up to seventy percent of the young people between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five live in rural areas with few primary schools and poorly qualified teachers (AEES, 1996).

The rural youth population in the whole world is projected to grow to two billion by the year 2050. By the year 2025, it is estimated that there will be over one billion youth living in the cities, with only seven hundred million remaining in rural areas (AEES, 1996).

Rural youth programmes have a very important role to play in helping youth, who may decide to stay in rural areas, to have more satisfying and productive lives.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner should be able to:

- explain the usefulness of youth and youth programmes in development
- list the qualities of a good youth leader
- describe the five domains of youth knowledge that can guide youth development programmes.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Value of Rural Youth Programmes

Many circumstances that place youth at high risk in rural areas include HIV/AIDS, drug abuse, violence, broken families and high birth rates. Youths, therefore, leave their communities for the cities.

Rural youth have often migrated to the cities in great numbers due to low standards of living, continuing lack of educational opportunities, food deficiencies, limited possibilities of gainful employment, inadequate housing and health care as well as pollution problems.

The high returns on resources invested in young people today have both immediate and long-term benefits. Rural youth programmes have been found to play an important role in:

- i. building life skills of young people.
- ii. strengthening families and communities; and
- iii. working towards sustainable agricultural and rural development.

Youth belong to the latent resources of a nation. To make proper use of the youth, they should be given a more established function and integrated into the social life.

In many parts of the world, rural youth are involved in economic activities. They become involved in production activities at an early age. Many rural youth programmes actively promote the application of technology to improve agricultural production on a sustainable basis, and the start-up of agricultural and rural-based non-agricultural income-generating activities. Enhancing the knowledge, skills and experience of young people, and increasing their access to resources through rural youth programmes will have immediate positive impact on rural economies.

Programmes targeting rural youth, also, have the potential to help them become aware of, understand and value, people of differing ethnic and cultural backgrounds. There are too many cases in the world today where lack of appreciation of cultural diversity is tearing rural society as well as entire nations apart. Most programmes stress activities that contribute to building cross-cultural understanding.

Youth gain and practice valuable leadership skills that will enable them to accept formal and information leadership roles as adults. Special efforts can be made to provide leadership skills training and practical

experience for young women to increase women's representation in rural community organizations.

Youth programmes have the potential to empower youth to become agents of change in their local communities. Youth need to be viewed as resources for development rather than as objects of development.

There is a potential to strengthen families. Although focused on young people, community-based rural youth programmes easily lend themselves, with a little bit of planning and effort, to the active involvement of all family members. Parents often serve as volunteer leaders of their children's club or group.

Especially for out-of-school young people, a rural youth programme may be the only way they can learn about critically important and in some cases life-threatening topics in areas such as HIV/AIDS, population education, nutrition and health.

Rural youth programmes can help youth feel good about themselves through positive activities and significant accomplishments of personal and group goals. Young people tend to take a special interest in conservation and the management of natural resources. They are more ready to accept and promote sound environmental practices than adults.

The responsibilities of the child which are, also, applicable to the Nigerian youth are as follows:

1. Every child shall have responsibilities towards his family and society, the Nigerian State and other legally recognized communities nationally and internationally.
2. Subject to his age and ability, such other limitations as may be contained in this and any other law, the child shall have the duty to:
 - a. work for the cohesion of his family;
 - b. respect his parents, superiors and other elders at all times and assist them in case of need;
 - c. serve Nigeria by placing his physical and intellectual abilities at its service;
 - d. contribute to the moral well-being of the society;
 - e. preserve and strengthen social and national solidarity;

- f. preserve and strengthen independence, and integrity of Nigeria;
 - i. respect the ideas of freedom, equality, humane treatment and justice for all persons;
 - j. preserve and strengthen the Nigerian, African and human cultural values in his relations with other members of the society, in the spirit of tolerance, dialogue, unity; and
 - k. contribute to the best of his abilities at all times and at all levels, to the solidarity of the African people and the human race.
3. Parents, guardians, institutions, persons and authorities having responsibility for the care, maintenance, upbringing, education, training, socialization, employment and rehabilitation of children in their care such as well equip the children to secure their assimilation, appreciation and observance of the responsibilities set out above (FMWAYD, 1995).

3.2 Rural Youth Extension and Leadership Training

If youth programmes are to contribute to long-term strategies for reducing rural poverty, then training is a key element.

Rural education should be reformed to extend information and knowledge to the communities. Rural youth are also the actors most directly involved in the transformation of production system. They already have their own knowledge system learned informally (indigenous knowledge), which youth extension agents must respect and understand thoroughly. The extension process must incorporate a strong component of training of youth leaders.

Areas of skill training greatly needed are speaking in public, directing teams and managing debate in meetings. These are relevant because young, able rural leaders now often find themselves rapidly catapulted into the world of “real” politics, as candidates for local public office. Rural youth extension programmes thus have an important challenge in redefining leadership training in this broader context, since they can make significant contribution to making administrative decentralization a real process of local democratization.

3.3 Rural Youth Group Management

Three important aspects related to the internal management of the group include:

- a. Group management should reflect the ultimate goal of the programme, i.e. promoting initiative, responsibility and self reliance.
- b. The involvement of parents and others in community is often important in maintaining membership and support for the youth programmes and activities.
- c. Benefits and incentives need to be considered and incorporated in the programme both for group members and for leaders and organizers to encourage higher involvement in the activities.

3.4 Qualities of a Good Youth Leader

Some qualities of a good youth leader have been described by Orwigho and Ifie (2004).

Group-Oriented Nature: The youth Leader should be group oriented. The leader must identify with the norms, values, beliefs and goals of the group.

Sense of Responsibility: The youth leader must accept responsibility and realize that increased privileges and power mean increased obligations.

Consideration: The youth leader must be tolerant, patient and sympathetic towards the short-comings of his fellow group members.

Emotional Stability: A youth leader must be matured, well-adjusted and emotionally stable.

Interest: The youth leader must have interest in the activities of the group and have a desire and willingness to work with people.

Competence: The leader must be competent enough to move the group towards achieving the desired goals.

Empathy: Empathy means the ability to understand another person's feelings and experience, or to put one's self into the other person's situation to identify his needs, problems and aspirations.

Democratic: The youth leader must be democratic in his leadership style, giving every one equal opportunity and allowing participative decision-making.

Integrity: The youth leader should comport himself in such a way that the group members will have confidence and trust on him. He should not be a person who will betray the group for cheap financial gains.

Decisiveness: Good leadership requires an ability to make wise decision and to act without hesitation.

Energy: A youth leader must be strong and energetic. This quality will enable him work tirelessly towards achieving the group goals.

Enthusiasm: Leaders have an inner passion for their chosen cause. A youth leader should be able to arouse enthusiasm in the followers.

Humility: True great men recognize their limitations and their failings. They do not force themselves on others even if they have the power to do it.

Humour: A leader with a good sense of humour does not make fun that hurts the followers.

Initiative: A youth leader should have initiative and plan purposefully towards group goals.

Courage: A youth leader should not be easily distracted from his policy or course of action. He should be able to face opposition and strive to succeed.

Perseverance: A successful leader is one who faces difficulties with a determination to overcome them. He continues to try to achieve in spite of difficulties.

Loyalty: A good leader not only expects loyalty from his followers but also show loyalty to them. He remains faithful to the group goal and gives full support.

3.5 Steps in Training youth Leaders

It is very important to train youth leaders because such a training programme will enhance the performance of their duties. Their constant support is essential to the long-term success of youth programmes. Leaders of rural youth organizations should received training. The

trained leaders would give training to interested young rural people in different local government areas of the country.

Youth leaders are trained to render services in agricultural production and community development. Steps that are useful to youth leadership training are suggested below.

- Encourage the leaders to understand the situation in which they will work as well as the group aspirations.
- Leaders should be encouraged to observe, practice and evaluate their learning experiences
- The professional leader should be involved in planning and organizing work.
- Leaders should be trained carefully in teaching methods, subject matter, principles and skills.
- Needed training resources should be supplied.
- Encourage leaders to discuss leadership problems among themselves.
- Leaders should be assisted to develop strength by encouraging them and providing democratic supervision.
- Leaders should be encouraged to attend special courses of instruction.

3.6 Mobilizing Youth for Social and Economic Development

Strategies to encourage the contribution of youths to social and economic development are discussed here.

Community development calls for the improvement of the community's value system and its social, economic and political structure. This is related to the provision of basic and social amenities by community groups, individuals, non-governmental organizations as well as the government. Rural living conditions are bound to improve with the supply of needed infrastructure. Rural areas become more attractive to the youth when educational and recreational facilities, basic amenities, industries and improved farm tools and equipment are made readily available.

There are five domains of youth knowledge that can be explored and applied to improve programmes in developing countries. These domains are defined as follows:

- i. Youth and Adult Development- understanding and applying knowledge of growth and development over the life-span in the creation of environments which optimize human potential.

- ii. Learning Strategies for Youth Development – understanding and applying learning theory in the design and evaluation of learning experiences for positive youth development.
- iii. Organizational Systems for Youth Development – understanding and applying knowledge of systems through which organizations manage resources at all levels in fulfillment of their missions.
- iv. Partnerships for Youth Development – understanding and applying knowledge of process and contextual factors which enhance the ability of members of a community to work together to improve the quality of life for youth and their families.
- v. Volunteerism for Youth Development – integrating knowledge of human development, learning strategies, organizational system, and partnerships as well as research in volunteerism and nonprofits to prepare and support volunteers in the achievement of individual and organizational goal for creating positive environments for youth development.

Efforts should be intensified on advocacy on behalf of rural youth. Governments and non-governmental organizations need to provide sufficient resources to strengthen and expand existing rural youth programmes as well as create and maintain new ones.

Rural youth programmes should be strengthened and expanded as a part of national agricultural extension services and rural development strategy.

Since youth see more opportunities and more excitement in the cities than the farming communities, if they are to stay in agriculture, there is a need to greatly increase its income-generating capacity. Agricultural programmes alone are often of limited success in slowing down rural-urban migration which is a major problem in development countries (AEES, 1996).

The interests of youth need to be determined before designing programmes, since they vary significantly from place to place and among different age groups.

Linkages, networking and consultations should be developed among rural youth programmes for the exchange of experiences, information and resources.

It is important to empower the youth economically by introducing a revolving fund from which they will benefit to start small-scale enterprises and, hence, be able to generate income for themselves.

The youth need to be provided training in management of small-scale enterprises (both agricultural and non-agricultural) and how to service loans.

This will provide jobs and, hence, solve unemployment and poverty problems that are rampant among the youths.

Practical skills are critically needed if job creation is to be self-sustaining.

We have to instill a sense of harmonious coexistence among the youth through working together in co-operatives.

Government ministries in charge of youth, sport, culture and vocational training should direct all work with rural youth. The aim is to empower and facilitate the youth to obtain higher living standard and to overcome the problems that they encounter. The ministries are the major partners with funding agencies for youth projects/activities.

The major goal of income-generating programme is to empower the youth by training them in the management of small-scale enterprises in addition to organizing the groups in production associations. Loans should be given to the associations from a credit scheme to be repaid at a lower interest than the commercial banks.

The process will have to involve:

- i. Training youth leaders;
- ii. Organizing youth groups in association and
- iii. Operating credit scheme for the associations which will be operated as revolving loans.

To accomplish the above goals, N100, 000,000.00 will be needed per State.

Government should design a suitable curriculum for training the youth in income-generating activities.

There is need to support social programmes for the rural youth and, thereby, divert the youth from negative social clubs such as alcoholic groups, drug abuse and prostitution.

We must urgently help the youth develop a culture of self-reliance and independence by being able to start and manage their own projects other than having to depend on others.

For successful implementation of this project, the following activities should be executed:

- i. Training of youth leaders in associations. The leaders in different youth associations will have to be trained in management of small-scale enterprises. Two hundred youth leaders should be trained in the project per State.
- ii. With the help of trained youth leaders the project would embark on organizing the youth throughout the country into strong co-operatives.
- iii. When youth co-operatives are formed and have been trained to manage projects the process on loan disbursement would be made easier.

It is important to mainstream rural youth into development institutions. In addition, rural youth should be encouraged, motivated and trained to become resources for sustainable development in their respective communities.

Only policy development, Governments should:

- i. create a national youth policy with adequate planning for resources, staff and youth development;
- ii. include rural youth and local communities in policy formulation;
- iii. promote volunteerism as a key part of rural youth policy
- iv. develop monitoring and evaluation systems

4.0 CONCLUSION

Youth groups are important in social and economic development of any nation. There is a need to support rural youth work as a profession and strengthen rural youth programmes.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have explained the social economic value of rural youth programmes to include building life skills, strengthening families and communities, and working towards sustainable agricultural and rural development. Rural youth leaders require training in many areas.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain the importance of rural youth in social and economic development of Nigeria.

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UNIT 5 WOMEN IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Involvement of Women in Rural Development
 - 3.2 Agricultural and Other Enterprises of Rural Women
 - 3.3 Key Expenditure Categories and Food Consumption Habits of Rural Women
 - 3.4 Rural Women and Agricultural Extension Delivery
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Gender issues are central to the entire process of sustainable development because they have such persuasive impact on the efficacy of policy instruments for increasing national output and improving the welfare of families. In Nigeria, the special focus on rural women derives primarily from their critical role in the interaction of growing population, agricultural performance and environmental degradation. These multiple roles of women are performed traditionally as farmers, mothers and managers of their houses. In this circumstance, the women are generally compelled to operate under constant time pressure so that a trade-off exists between the time available for food production, nurturing the family as well as fetching water and firewood. Most arguments on gender issues are rested on that one hypothesis.

The inherent diversity in women's activities has often been concealed. In the past rural women were generally ignored. This situation invariably constitutes a problem to effective implementation of the several development efforts aimed at particular geographic entities with unique presentation of women with regard to their true identity, enterprise behaviour and quality of life indicators.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list the agricultural and other enterprise of rural women
- suggest the best way(s) to raise the participation of rural women in development works.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Involvement of Women in Rural Development

The weight of women's agricultural works is significant, ranging from 40 per cent of agricultural labour in Latin America to between 60 and 80 percent in Asia and Africa. Women produce a major part of the developing world's food supply and their productivity is generally low and based on long work hours on small land holdings. They have restricted access to training, technology, credit and inputs and mostly use traditional and unimproved agricultural methods (FAO, 1985).

Female farmers are handicapped in both their subsistence and income generating activities. As enunciated by UNDP (1994), women farmers face more obstacles and barriers because of the technologies they use their cultural status and their functions in the family and society. Women have multiple role and responsibilities (as farmers, housewives, mothers, and public servants) that had often been overlooked by development programmes. There are many women cooperative societies in Nigeria which provide participatory forum most rural dwellers. Majority of them are concerned with farming, even though on a relatively small scale, utilizing poor technology. The result is low output, inadequate income and poor standard of living among members.

3.2 Agricultural and Other Enterprises of Rural Women

It is a popular idea that agriculture constitutes the largest aspect of rural enterprises, just how much of this notion is true in the case of rural women? How much of other rural enterprises than agriculture do they engage in? The quantitative estimates of the proportion of rural women engaged in agricultural and non-agricultural enterprises are useful for determining the appropriate enterprise mix to be supported by the development programmes aimed at rural women.

According to Obinne and Ayoola (1996), most Igala women (87.34%) were full-time housewives and a considerable proportion of them (41.4%) were engaged in farming. Far more women among Tiv and Idoma communities were engaged in farming than in Igala community.

Cereals and tubers were the most popular crops cultivated by women in the study area. It was also common for the women to keep livestock in mixture, sheep and goats being most predominant. The keeping of only one type of livestock animal was seldom encountered, except among the Idoma women who kept poultry solely. A sizeable proportion of Tiv and Idoma women keep no livestock, a situation never encountered among Igala women.

Women performed most of the crucial activities on crop farms such as planting, weeding and harvesting as well as many livestock operations.

The ownership of crop and livestock enterprises should be established to understand the nature of decision making involved. Most women own their farm (crop and livestock) enterprises solely while a few have them as joint ventures with their husbands. In Nigeria, rural women make up the vast majority of socially and economically disadvantaged group (Famoriyo and Ewuola, 1990).

Considerations in development circles have been given to the incorporation of women as an integral part of rural and agricultural development. It has been observed that women provide some 60-80% of the agricultural labour force and they make input into decision-making in agricultural activities. They are highly involved in sowing, weeding, harvesting, processing, storage, marketing and transportation of agricultural products.

3.3 Key Expenditure Categories and Food Consumption Habits of Rural Women

The determination of the basket of goods or services upon which rural women spend their money with emphasis on food consumption aspect is a step towards assessing their quality of life. Given the notion that rural people are very homogenous in such traits, the results obtained can be easily generalized to other regions of the country.

First, home consumption was a significant aspect of both crop and livestock output in all the tribes considered alike. As found by Obinne and Ayoola (1996), women spend the greater part of their income on household matters, including the up-keep of family and children's well-being (education and health). The proportion of the women spending their income on personal needs (10.6%) as well as generating savings (3.1%) was quite small, as also those purchasing farm inputs (10.31%). Annual cash income generated from farm and non-farm enterprises by disadvantaged women farmers is generally low (Obinne, 1998). Very few women receive training in general agriculture. The food consumption habit of the women revealed substantially high preference

for energy items such as root or tubers (94.74%) and grains (89.74%). On the other hand, fruits, vegetables and protein (meat/fish) were consumed to lesser degrees in the week preceding the survey. The observed food consumption habits were common to the three ethnic groups studied except the greater reliance on calorie in the form of grains among the Igala women than Tiv and Idoma women who relied more on root/tuber. In addition, the proportions of Igala women consuming vegetables and meat/fish were glaringly smaller than those of Tiv and Idoma women. In particular, the result concerning meat/fish was found incompatible with the widespread presence of water bodies adjoining the Igala settlements which are a major source of fish in the area. Most rural women are said to play marginal role in economic development as a result of their being relatively less formally educated than their male counterparts.

The observed high rate of producing children among the rural women represents a debilitating factor, which rests in making them spent fast in life. Since a good number of women are involved in decisions about pregnancy, the popular notion that husbands were to blame for most of the large household sizes in the rural areas cannot be substantiated. This might be due, in large measures, to the lack of family planning in the areas.

3.4 Rural Women and Agricultural Extension Delivery

Some approaches to assist rural women in agriculture were designed and implanted in Nigeria. They include:

- a) **Better Life Programme** – This was established in 1986 to supply farming inputs to rural women in addition to encourage them to farm cooperatives societies. The programme also provided home economics education and gave loans to the women.
- b) **Women in-Agriculture** – The Women-in-Agriculture (WIA) programme was initiated in 1986 as a pilot programme in the Imo State Agriculture Development Programme (Imo State ADP). Female extension agents were hired to work with both male and female farmers. The WIA Programme is geared towards increasing the productivity and income of women. The specific objectives included to:
 - i. identify the constraints faced by women farmers;
 - ii. ensure timely extension support to women farmers in production, processing and utilization;

- iii. promote the diversification of women farming activities to small-scale production enterprises such as piggery, poultry, fisheries and small ruminants;
- iv. collaborate with research institutions to develop suitable technologies to meet need; and
- v. introduce labour-saving technologies in the farming activities of women.

3.5 Gender Analysis as a Basis for Understanding the Role of Women

Gender is based on the social relationship between men and women, particularly the distribution of roles in the productive and non-remunerative processes and responsibilities in the organization of society (CTA, 2000). Gender roles refer to the distribution of roles and responsibilities between men and women, conditioned by sociological, political, cultural, historical, economic and geographical factors. In the past, development activities were targeted at men on the assumption that men and women would benefit equally from these activities.

This assumption proved to have been poorly conceived.

Throughout the 1970s, however, specific plans of action were adopted which brought women's issues to the fore, outlining the steps to be taken to promote the role of women. Women were to be integrated into development as their contributions were sought to enhance the development processes in order to make it more efficient.

The development of participatory field research techniques has led to a better understanding of the different needs, priorities, responsibilities, resources and activities of men and women. The involvement of women calls for a transition from integration to mainstreaming- women's agenda and women as individual participants in development are central in the construction of policy and programme activities (Obinne, 2002). Thus, women and men jointly re-orient the mainstream:

3.5.1 Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis

The socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) is a participatory programme with the goal of incorporating socio-economic and gender analyses into policies, programmes and projects resulting in development that is responsive to local people's needs and situations. There are three main elements of the SEAGA programmes, namely:

1. **Socio-Economic factors:** these include the economic, social, institutional political, environmental and demographic factors (and the links between them) that influence development in practice;
2. **General Analysis:** the study of the different roles of men and women aimed at understanding what they do, what resources they have and what their needs, responsibilities and priorities are;
3. **Participation:** a process of communication between local people and policy makers or development agencies, in which the local people take the leading role in analyzing the current situation and planning, implementing and evaluating development activities. These include:
 - a. **Field level** – which focuses on women, men and children as individuals, on socio-economic differences among households, and on communities as a whole;
 - b. **Intermediate level**-focuses on structures such as institutions and services that operationalize the links between the macro and field levels, including communication and transportation systems, credit institutions and extension, health and education services;
 - c. **Macro level** – focuses on policies and plans (international and national) relating to economic and social issues, including trade policies and national development plans;
 - d. **Stakeholders** – all those who stand to gain or lose, directly or indirectly, given a particular development activity, programme or policy. They may be women or men, communities, social groups or institutions of any size and from any level of society (FAO, 1996).

Methods which development experts believe would attract women should be taking advantage of while applying any participatory methodology. These are been listed below (Obinne, 2002):

- a. Women naturally like to meet and learn something new in groups;
- b. Organized women's force can be very potent-women like organizations such as women extension or home makers' clubs;
- c. Women like to perform activities manually;
- d. Women enjoy personal attention, particularly when the development workers call on them at their homes;
- e. They enjoy tours to observe other people's activities; and
- f. Women also like good demonstration of activities.

3.6 Programmatic Recommendations

Various programmes centered on women have been introduced in Nigeria including “Women in Nigeria”, “Better Life for Rural Women Programme”, and “Women Advancement Programme”.

Various aspects of the rural woman are organically inter-related including agricultural, industrial and others, so that a lop-sided attention would likely be ineffective in addressing the problems she faces. This leads to the recommendation that the design and implementation of women development programmes should assume the integrated approach. This specifically involves the simultaneity of intervention projects as well as the administrative integration of the main elements of such projects. In this setting, the National Commission for Women has the duty to organize available resources to achieve the desired integration.

Rural women generally give primary importance to the upkeep of homes and children’s welfare (health and education) above issues of personal effects and recognition. The authority should deemphasize projects that are merely newsworthy or give much media/political feasibility to rural women in favour of those which supply relevant infrastructure that are deficient in specified areas.

Since identify of rural women is not culture-neutral, programmes focusing on them should be formulated based on concrete information about the socio-demographic characteristics of specified locations. As such women improvement programmes will be freed from the popular accusation that their benefits miss the targeted clientele in rural areas but accrue in larger measure to urban and other metropolitan groups of women.

Many women anticipate the flow of credit to their farm and non-farm enterprises through their cooperatives. Therefore, the use of social groups to mobilize rural women will be viable, but the existing cooperatives should be revamped in order to maximize the benefit there from as delivery agents for the development programmes.

It has been suggested (Akpoko and Arokoyo, 1977) that since women’s tasks are varied, time and energy-demanding, the greatest input that can save time and remove drudgery are farm tools which must be adaptable for use by women. Any tool developed for women should be within their capacity to use and within their natural linkages.

Women strongly desire credit because of the inadequate flow of income in rural areas. Cooperatives, as a tradition, form an important part of

rural life, so that they remain effective as a vehicle for mobilizing rural women. The effectiveness, however, needs to be further facilitated through the correction of the several problems. If this can be achieved, the scope is larger for rural cooperative societies to promote enterprise efficiency, particularly the proper implementation of credit programmes. They could also be employed to uplift the quality of rural life, such as improvement in nutritional status necessitated by the inadequate food consumption habit among women.

Women education should be improved through vigorous adult education. This would not only raise the quality of women labour, it will also sensitize them to the need for their economic enhancement.

Donor agencies and governments need to broaden their definition of human rights and good governance and take more account of the rights of women. They should pay greater attention to mainstreaming gender policies in their own project and programme activities, especially where these affect the status of women and their economic role in the society.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Women have a critical place in national development. They participate in every sphere of life, ranging from marketing, gardening, communication and medicine to politics and social welfare. Their mainstreaming is very important for sustainable development

5.0 SUMMARY

Women are involved in farm and non-farm activities. They serve as good farmers, good, full-time housewives, and are involved in child upbringing. They act as leaders and advisers. One effective way of involving women for sustainable development is to implement the socio-economic and Gender Analysis programme meant to make development responsive to local people's needs.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe a strategy that can help fully involve women in development.

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UNIT 6 CASE STUDIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Examples in Case Studies
 - 3.2 A Check List of Possible Explanations of Resistance to Change in an Organization
 - 3.3 Steps to the Participatory Planning Process
 - 3.4 Methods of Identifying Community Power Actors
 - 3.5 The Managerial/Leadership Grid
 - 3.6 Acceptability of Approaches to Rural Development
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Rural development styles vary from place to place and from time to time. Approaches to leadership also differ under diverse situations, locations and periods. It is in this light that we have to look into different activities seen at different times or places, at least for comparative purposes and in order to gain relevant experiences with rural development and leadership.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- understand diverse approaches adopted to achieve rural development and the leadership styles involved
- conduct similar case studies in different communities and the leadership patterns existing
- develop problem-solving and decision-making abilities.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Examples in Case Studies

3.2 A Check List of Possible Explanations of Resistance to Change in an Organization

First, let us examine the reasons for resistance of people to change. Ten of them are listed here:

- 1) People have a natural resistance to every change.
- 2) Older people are more likely to resist change.
- 3) Users of new technology resist the introduction of equipment and systems that are poorly designed.
- 4) Users of new technology resist the introduction of equipment and systems that have poor economic features, such as seating, and the positioning of controls and lighting.
- 5) Users of new technology resist the introduction of equipment and systems that are complicated and difficult to learn and use.
- 6) People resist changes that interfere with their established ways of working with others in the organization.
- 7) People resist changes that disturb the distribution of tasks and responsibilities across the organization.
- 8) People resist changes that interfere with their autonomy and decision-making.
- 9) People resist changes that interfere with their access to information and discretion over how it is being used.
- 10) People resist changes that reduce their ability to influence and control other people and events in the organization (Source: Huczynski and Buchanan, 1994, P. 219).

3.3 Steps to the Participatory Planning Process

Bangaly (2002) described six distinct steps to the participatory planning process. These are presented here for detailed study, analysis and discussion. Each learner is to try this out under a specific rural community setting for comparative purposes and synthesis:

a) Awareness-raising

The councilors, after having being trained, start the planning process with an information campaign within their jurisdictions, to explain to their constituents what a local development plan is, why it is important, how it is going to be done and why it is critical that everyone in the Rural Council participates in the process. The information is disseminated by whatever means possible including local radio, Friday

prayers, weekly market days and personal visits by the councilors to the villages. A roster for visiting each village in turn in order to start the planning process proper is also established at this time.

b) Village-level meetings to identify local problems

A meeting is held in each and every village of the Rural Council to identify the problems facing the communities, and the sorts of resources they have in the village (e.g. a well, a communal market garden, a small dam, etc) These meetings last no more than three hours, but they include everyone who lives in the village, Councilors are expected to ensure that everyone participates.

c) Inter-village meeting

After each village has had a visit from the councilors to identify their problems, an inter-village meeting is held at the Rural Council level at which each village sends four representatives. These are usually the village chief (or his representatives) one, woman representing the interests of the women, one youth representing the interests of the youth and the village secretary responsible for taking notes. The inter-village meeting lasts between three and four days, during which time every village takes turns to describe its problems and how they might be resolved. All this information is written down on flip chart paper or blackboards. Once every village has had the chance to describe its situation, the meeting classifies the problems according to whether they are the responsibility of the village, the Rural Council, the District, the Region or the State.

The problems are written down on a separate sheet of paper or blackboard, and are systematically discussed, one by one, to establish the origins of the problems and how they might be solved. Finally, the meeting prioritizes these problems according to their degree of urgency.

d) Planning workshop

Following the inter-village meeting, a planning workshop is held between the councilors and the government technical services (e.g. the local forestry department, the veterinary office, etc) Together they look at each problem to see whether or not it is correctly stated, and reformulate it if necessary. The problems are then classified by sector (e.g. health, agriculture, education, etc) mirroring the composition of the government technical departments. Each problem is then analyzed to establish its cause, and a technical solution and its cost are proposed. On the basis of this analysis, the councilors decide which problems they can afford to address within the context of their overall budget. At this

stage in the process there is often a lot of debate as the councilors are conscious of the need to respond to as many of the populations' problems as they can and to ensure a degree of equity between villages within the Rural Council. Political as well as economic considerations are at play.

However, once a final choice is made, the implementation of the activities is planned over a three-year period and a conventional programme document is prepared: overall objectives, specific outcomes, a plan of activities, a budget, and criteria for monitoring progress are established, etc. This is the local development plan of the Rural Council.

e) Endorsement of the local development plan

A two to three day workshop is subsequently held at the Rural Council to endorse the local development plan. The four representatives from each village that attended the inter-village meeting return to attend this meeting. The councilors present the plan and their arguments for retaining certain problems and rejecting others, and for deciding to start in certain villages or with certain activities but not others. These meetings are tumultuous affairs. However, once a broad consensus has been reached the plan is amended as necessary and submitted to the government representative (Pre-fet) who is responsible for ensuring that the proposed activities are in conformity with the laws of the land.

f) Implementation of the local development plans

Once the pre-fet has approved the plan, the councilors return to all the villages in the Rural Council to discuss in detail how the plan is going to be implemented over the coming three years, and in what way the villages in question are going to contribute. In those villages where the first year's activities are to take place a detailed work plan is established.

After these village meetings the councillors hold a meeting formally to adopt the plan.

3.4 Methods of Identifying Community Power Actors

Change agents are often faced with the problem of which method to use to identify community power actors.

It is advisable for the learner to carefully study the four methods mentioned here.

The responsibility of the learner would be to carry out comparative studies of the four methods to determine if they identify the same power actor pool, that is, find out if the four methods would identify the same persons as being in the top leadership category (CES, 1979).

If each method would identify a similar pool of community power actors, the change agent could select that method that uses the least resources in terms of time and cost. If, on the other hand, each of the four methods identifies a different pool of community power actors, then the selection of a method becomes more complex.

Table 1: Four Methods of Identifying Power Actors

METHOD	ASSUMPTIONS	TYPE OF LEADER IDENTIFIED	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS
POSITIONAL	Power rests in important positions of formal organizations. Position holders make decisions and control resources.	Higher civil servants, cooperation executives, elected and appointed formal office holders, voluntary association officers.	Leaders are visible, thus easily identified. Less costly. Insight into potential role. Good cross-section of leaders	Positional leaders may not exercise their potential. Fails to identify informal leaders. Difficult to determine which positions do or do not have power.
REPUTATIONAL	Power is reflected in reputation. Knowledgeable know power actors by reputation. Some power actors are concealed.	General leaders that are concealed as well as those visible to the public	Identifies visible and concealed leaders. Determines leaders in several issue areas. Relative ease in carrying out technique.	Determining who is or is not knowledgeable. Reputed power may not be exercised power. Fails to identify specialized power holders.
DECISION MAKING	Power is acquired through participation in decision-making processes	Instrumental leaders in the resolution of community issues.	Determines actual behavior rather than reputation. Reveals overlap of power in issues areas. Identifies specialized power holders. Identifies roles of power actors.	Time-consuming and costly. Fails to identify leaders who are "behind the scenes" or in "non-decisions."
SOCIAL PARTICIPATION	Power is acquired through participation in activities and office in voluntary associations	Visible participants in activities of voluntary associations	Identifies active community leaders and those likely to be active in action programs	Time-consuming and costly. Fails to identify concealed leaders or specific area of participation.

Source: CES (1979, p.17)

3.5 The Managerial/Leadership Grid

Management styles are compared in terms of two principal dimensions:

- i. **Concern for production** – that is, the amount of emphasis which the manager places on accomplishing the task in hand, achieving high level of production and getting results or profits; and

- ii. **Concern for people** – that is, the amount of emphasis which the manager gives to subordinates and colleagues as individuals and to their needs and expectations (Mullins, 1999).

The manager usually has varying degrees of concern for either production or people. Table 2 shows a summary of the seven basic combinations of leadership grid style definitions.

Table 2: A Summary of the Seven Basic Combinations of Leadership Grid Style Definitions

1. Authority-compliance management	Managers in this position have great concern for production and little concern for people. People are seen as ‘tools’ for production. They demand tight, unilateral control in order to complete tasks efficiently. They consider creativity and human relations to be unnecessary.
2. Country club management	Managers in this position have great concern for people and little concern for production. They try to avoid conflicts and concentrate on being liked, even at the expenses of production. To them the task is less important than good interpersonal relations. Their goal is to keep people happy (this is a soft Theory X and not a sound human relations approach).
3. Impoverished management	This style is often referred to as laissez-faire. Leaders in this position have little concern for people or productivity. They avoid taking sides and stay out of conflicts. They do just enough to maintain group membership.
4. Middle-of-the-road management	Leaders in this position have medium concern for both people and production. They rely on tried and true techniques and avoid taking untested risks. They attempt to balance their concern for both people and production, but are not committed strongly to either. Conflict is dealt with by avoiding extreme and seeking compromise rather than sound resolution.

5. Paternalistic ‘father knows best’ management	This leader takes the high level of concern (from centralized system) 9, 1 to create a combined style of controlling paternalism. The paternalist strives for high results and uses reward and punishment to gain compliance s. The paternalist uses a high level of concern for people to reward for compliance or punish for rejection.
6. Opportunistic ‘what’s in it for me’ management	The opportunist uses whatever Grid styles are needed to obtain selfish interest and self promotion. They adapt to situations to gain the maximum advantage. They may use high concern for production and low concern for people to push their own goals with one person, and low concern for production and higher concern for people to gain trust and confidence with another. Performance occurs according to a system of exchanges. Effort is given only for an equivalent measure of the same.
7. Team management	These managers demonstrate high concern for both people and production. They work to motivate employees to reach their highest levels of accomplishment. They explore alternatives openly and aggressively. They are flexible and responsive to change. This style is considered ideal.

Source: Mullins (1999, p.215).

3.6 Acceptability of Approaches to Rural Development

Different approaches are applied in solving rural development problems. The levels of acceptability differ from place to place, location and with people. A summary of examples of direct approaches to dimensions of rural deprivation and their degrees of acceptability by elites is shown in Table 3.

The learner should discuss these in groups and decide the best under different socio-cultural and economic backgrounds.

Case Summary

A development agency with a successful, sustainable, inexpensive community garden programme asked to fund a garden using commercial methods with expensive irrigation.

A – Facilitator’s Notes

Time Required: About two hours

Materials Required:

A copy of the case handout for each participant.

Discussion questions for each participant (Use the questions below or develop your own. Then write or type these out on a separate sheet of paper and copy them for each participant. This will save a lot of time during the workshop)

Newsprint, pens and masking tape.

Discussion questions: understanding the case

What is happening in this case?

What are the underlying causes of the dilemma faced by the Valley Trust?

What should the valley Trust’s response to this request be?

Discussion questions: applying this to your situation

Which parts of the discussion remind you of your own experience?

What do you plan to do differently as a result of what you have learnt?

The Rest of the Story:

This situation was unresolved at the time of writing.

More about the Valley Trust:

The Valley Trust is a large development project working in the Valley of a Thousand Hills, KwaZulu Natal province, South Africa. It assists in promoting community development in the fields of health, education, training, nutrition, gardening and sewing. It strives to facilitate community-driven development and helps to supply financial, planning

and engineering services for environmentally friendly development projects.

B. Community gardens and a difficult request

Case Study Handout

One of the major projects of the Valley Trust is to assist communities to establish low cost communal gardens using organic gardening methods. The Trust operates a rotating credit pool from which communities wishing to establish gardens can borrow money. This strategy has been very cost-effective and successful; in satisfying the needs of communities. Over 60 gardens established through the scheme are currently in operation.

Another development agency in the area assisted three communities to establish community gardens. This agency uses commercial gardening methods that need costly irrigation schemes. A letter requesting funding was received by the Valley Trust from the community leader to fund projects started by this agency. The Valley Trust is reluctant to finance this scheme because, although the community falls inside the area in which it operates, the expensive commercial gardening methods are at odds with the way in which the Trust's garden strategy operates (Marais, Taylor and Heyns, 1998).

3.8 Facilitating Cased Study Discussions

One has to read the case handout and facilitator notes carefully, bearing in mind what you know about the group. A workshop plan useful for case study discussions has been suggested by Marais, Taylor and Heyns (1998): Approx. duration

- 1) The facilitator gives a short introduction and gives everyone a copy of the case study and questions for group discussion. - 5min.
- 2) Participants read the case study. Give everyone enough time to do this. - 15min.
- 3) Participants divide up for a small group discussion. Use the questions provided or formulate new ones to focus the discussion. Make copies of the questions for each person. This saves people spending time writing all the questions down. Ask participants to read the questions and think through the answers on their own before beginning the group discussion. - 45min.

- 4) The small groups report back and the issues are explored in the large group. - 45min.
- 5) Participants divide into small groups again to identify the applicability of lessons to their own situations. - 30min.
- 6) Report back, drawing final lessons and summarizing what had been learnt. - 30min.

3.9 Steps in Developing Your Own Case Studies

Marais, Taylor and Heyns (1998) have suggested how researching and writing a case study about internal issues can trigger an invaluable learning process. Obviously, the steps in writing a case study for publication will be very different from writing a case study for your own internal purposes. The steps are outlined below:

Step 1: Choose an issue or problem for the case

This may be a problem the organization is currently facing, a past situation that the organization wants to reflect on, or an experience that the organization would like to share with others.

Step 2: Obtain the support of the organization and its leaders

Developing a good case will require time and input from the leader and others in an organization, and it is helpful to ensure that the organization supports the project. The requirements and future benefits of the case writing exercise should be explained in advance. It is easier to get consent for writing a historically-based case because the outcome is easier to predict or control. Cases written about current situations may highlight issues that are too sensitive to expose in a document that will be used by others. Cases written about current situations, however, can bring unexpected breakthroughs and answers.

Step 3: Appoint a team to work on the case

This team should include a number of people with different perspectives on the issues. For example:

- i. People for whom the issue was central to their work.
- ii. Leaders who can put the issue into a larger perspective.

Step 4: Collect information

Interview people familiar with the details of the case, and check organizational records such as minutes and letters.

Step 5: Outline the case

The outline should:

- i. Provide essential background information about the organization
- ii. Describe the events in the story
- iii. Give insight into the dilemma of the decision-makers and other
- iv. characters in the case
- v. Include a 'decision point' when the central problem is posed to the reader.

Step 6: Writing up the case

Decision cases consist of two parts: (a) the case study handout and (b) facilitator's notes.

The case study handout provides background information that the reader will need to analyze the situation and draw sensible conclusions about appropriate decisions or actions. The best way to make this decision is to identify the major learning objectives and include material that will focus the discussion on these issues.

The following checklist may be useful when writing the handout:

- a) Don't present too many issues. Allow the main problem to stand out clearly.
- b) Avoid generalization and focus on the detail that underpins the learning objective.
- c) Try to raise issues that are widely relevant.
- d) Don't leave room for assumptions. Participants should be able to draw as much information as they need from the case handout.
- e) The characters and the situation should be as realistic as possible. Direct speech can be helpful here.
- f) The decision point of the case should be a climax; it should try to recreate the tension in the situation.
- g) Present as much data as possible with as little interpretations as possible. The idea is to make participants grapple with all the possible meanings of the situation and develop their own interpretations.
- h) Use creative ways of presenting information. It may help to introduce pictures, drawings, illustrations or maps.

- i) Keep the language simple and easy to understand and avoid jargons at all costs.
- j) As with any writing, keep the target audience in mind.

Items to include in the Facilitator's notes are:

- i. A summary of the case
- ii. A list of the learning objectives
- iii. Two sets of questions for group discussion, i.e. questions about the case and questions which will help groups relate the case to their own experiences.
- iv. A list of materials required
- v. Any general tips and hints, e.g. how to adapt the case for role plays
- vi. Information on 'the rest of the story' i.e. what the organization in the case actually did.
- vii. Relevant information on the case writing organization.

Step 7: Report back to your organization

The case writing process will probably, also, create a deeper understanding of the issue within the writing team. Make a time to share these insights with the organization or parts of the organization.

Step 8: Ask staff to review the case

Expect to write and rewrite the case, learning more about the issue with each new draft. When you have a final draft, ask people involved to review the case for accuracy, clarity and potential harm to anyone.

Step 9: Get written permission to use the case

Make sure the organization and all the relevant individuals agree to make the case available to the outside world. Pseudonyms may be used for organizations and individuals, but their written permission must still be obtained.

Step 10: Test the case outside the organization

Use the case with a group of people outside the organization who will give honest feedback for incorporation into later versions of the case.

Step 11: Publish your case

3.10 Field Studies

Visit a named rural community of your choice and meet the leaders (Chief, Imam, etc) for discussions. Determine the leadership patterns there, its origin structure and processes involved. Discuss the unique benefits and common problems often associated with the pattern. Discuss the areas that would need modification present the report in a seminar paper.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learnt several examples in case study: The knowledge derive from this unit would be of immense help to you in the society, especially in problem-solving and decision-making abilities.

5.0 SUMMARY

At the end of this unit, you have learnt the:

- Reason why people are resistance to change.
- How similar case studies in different communities could be conducted and the existing leadership patterns.
- How problem-solving and decision making ability could be accomplished.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1a) Identify five steps to participatory planning process.
- b) Discuss four of the above steps.
- 2) Discuss 4 steps in developing your own case studies.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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