INTRODUCTION TO AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

COURSE GUIDE

ARD301
INTRODUCTION TO AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY

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Introduction

AEM 301 "Introduction to Agricultural Extension and Rural Sociology'' is a one semester, two (2) credit unit, three hundred (300) level course. Students of Agricultural Extension Management are expected to take this course.

The course will consist of fifteen (15) units. The material has been developed to suit Nigerian students in open and distance learning.

What You Will Learn in this Course

This course guide tells you briefly what the course is about, what course materials you will be using and how you are to use them.

Course aims

The general aim of ARD301 '' Introduction to Agricultural Extension and Rural Sociology'' is to:

1. Stimulate your interest in agricultural extension and rural sociology.
2. Outline the contributions made by agricultural extension and rural sociology to promote agricultural development and increase food production.
3. Recognise the growing significance of rural development. As without sound rural improvement there can be no balanced economic development.

Course Objectives

In addition to the aims above, this course sets to achieve some objectives. After going through this course, you should be able to:

1. Define extension and agricultural extension, as well as explain the history of agricultural extension in the world and Nigeria.
2. Recognise the need for agricultural extension.
3. Discuss the basic philosophy and principles of agricultural extension.
4. Identify the important elements that comprise the communication process.
5. Analyse the various extension teaching methods.
6. Define and discuss some of the basic concepts and development in rural sociology.
7. Explain the functions and dysfunctions of social stratification.
8. Discuss vividly the six social processes of interaction in rural society.
9. Identify the types of barriers to rural social change.

10. Describe the various theories of social change.
11. Outline and evaluate the concept and strategies of rural development.
12. Identify the characteristics of rural area and rural life.
13. Explain the concept of leader and leadership, as well as the types of leaders.
14. Analyse the functions of leaders and their bases of power and influence.
15. Recognise the functions of community leaders and appreciate their contributions to agricultural extension and rural development.

Working through this Course

This course involves that you would be required to spend lot of time to read. The content of this material is very dense and require you spending great time to study it. This accounts for the great effort put into its development in the attempt to make it readable and comprehensible. Nevertheless, the effort required of you is still tremendous. I would advice that you avail yourself the opportunity of attending the tutorial sessions where you would have the opportunity of comparing knowledge with your peers.

Course Materials

Major components of the course are:

1. Course guide
2. Three (3) modules of content of five (5) units each
3. Recommended textbooks.

Study Units

There are fifteen (15) study units in this course. This is arranged as follows:

Module 1

Unit 1	History of Agricultural Extension in the World and in Nigeria
Unit 2	The Need for Agricultural Extension
Unit 3	Basic Philosophy and Principles of Agricultural Extension
Unit 4	Communication in Extension
Unit 5	Agricultural Extension Methods

Module 2

Unit 1	Basic Concepts and the Development of Rural Sociology
Unit 2	Social Stratification
Unit 3	Social Processes in Rural Society

Unit 4   Rural Social Change
Unit 5   Theories of Social Change

Module 3

Unit 1   The Concept and Strategies of Rural Development
Unit 2   Characteristics and Major Institutions in Rural Society
Unit 3   Leadership in Rural Communities - 1 (The Concept of
              Leader and Leadership, Characteristics and Types of
              Leaders)
Unit 4   Leadership in Rural Communities - 2 (Functions of
              Leaders and Their Bases of Power and Influence)
Unit 5   Leadership in Rural Communities - 3 (Development and
              Functions of Rural Community Leaders)

Each unit includes a table of contents, introduction, specific objectives, recommended textbooks and summaries of key issues and ideas. At intervals in each unit, you will be provided with a number of exercises or self-assessment exercises. These are to help you test yourself on the material you have just covered or to apply it in some way. The value of these self-tests is to help you gauge your progress and to reinforce your understanding of the material. At least one tutor-marked assignment will be provided at the end of each unit. The exercises and the tutor-marked assignments will help you in achieving the stated learning objectives of the individual units and of the course.

Textbooks and References

More recent editions of these books are recommended for further reading.

Jibowo, G. (1992). *Essentials of Rural Sociology.* Gbemi Sodipo Press
        Ltd., Abeokuta, Nigeria.

Obibuaku, L.O. (1983). *Agricultural Extension as a strategy for
        Agricultural transformation.* University of Nigeria press, Nsukka,
        Nigeria.

Williams, S.K.T. (1978). *Rural Development in Nigeria.* University of
        Ife Press, Ile-Ife, Nigeria.

Assessment

The Course will be assessed in two aspects. These are:

1. Tutor-marked assignments (TMA's)

2. End of course examination.

Tutor-Marked Assignment

The tutor-marked assignment (TMA) is the continuous assessment component of your course. It accounts for 30% of the total score. You will be given four (4) TMAs to answer. Three (3) of these must be answered before you are allowed to sit for the end of course examination. For you to do the assignments very well, it is expected of you to apply information, knowledge and techniques obtained from the course. The TMAs would be given to you by your facilitator and returned after you have done the assignment.

Final Examination and Grading

This examination concludes the assessment for the course. To prepare for this examination, revise all the areas covered in the course. Revision of all the exercises and the tutor-marked assignments before the examination will also be of help to you. The revision should start after you have finished studying the last unit. This examination constitutes 70% of the whole course. You will be informed of the time for the examination. It may or not coincide with the university semester examination.

Summary

ARD301 intends to introduce you to Agricultural Extension and Rural Sociology. By the time you complete studying this course, you will be able to answer the following questions:

1. What is extension and agricultural extension?
2. Describe the history of extension in the world and in Nigeria.
3. What are the basic philosophies and principles of agricultural extension?
4. What is rural sociology?
5. What are the functions and dysfunctions of social stratification?
6. How do theories of social change affect development?
7. What is rural development?
8. What are the characteristics and major institutions of rural society?
9. Describe the functions of leaders.

The questions are inexhaustible. There are many more you can answer. We wish you luck and success with the course and hope you will find it both helpful and interesting.

Best wishes!

MAIN COURSE

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              Nigeria
Unit 2   The Need For Agricultural Extension
Unit 3   Basic Philosophy and Principles of Agricultural Extension
Unit 4   Communication in Extension
Unit 5   Agricultural Extension Methods

UNIT 1   HISTORY OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION
            IN THE WORLD AND IN NIGERIA

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

I believe you read the course guide? If so, it means you now have a
general understanding of what this unit is about and how it fits into the
course as a whole. This unit will consider the historical background of
agricultural extension in the world and in Nigeria. Understanding the
history of any profession is important, as it provides a record of events
which took place in the past, it enables current and future professionals
to appreciate the status, strengths and weaknesses of the events which
took place in the past and it serves as a guide-post to subsequent
professionals in pursuing their disciplines in such a way that previous
mistakes are avoided and rectified, while novel professional initiatives
are bolstered. It is expected of you that at the end of the unit, you will
have achieved the objectives listed below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

· understand the meaning of extension
· identify the concepts and terminology in agricultural extension
· explain vividly the history of agricultural extension in the world and
   Nigeria.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Agricultural Extension in the World

The term extension was derived from the practice of British universities of having one educational programme within the premises of the university and another away from the university buildings. The programme conducted outside the university was described as ''extension education''. The expression connoted an extension of knowledge from the university to places and people far beyond.

The term ''Extension Education'' was first introduced in 1873 by Cambridge University in England to describe a particular system dedicated to the dissemination of knowledge to rural people where they lived and worked. Within a short time, the idea had spread to other parts of Britain, Europe and North America.

Extension work is an out of school system of education in which adults and young people learn by doing. It is a partnership between the government, the land-grant institutions, and the people, which provides services and education designed to meet the needs of the people (Kelsey and Hearne, 1966).

The term ''Agricultural Extension'' was only adopted in 1914 when the United States Federal Smith-Lever Act of 1914 formalized a nation wide cooperative federal-state-county programme and gave operational responsibility for this to the land grant colleges and Universities.

In the beginning, agricultural extension was concerned primarily with the improvement of agriculture, using conventional teaching methods. As time went on, home economics, youth programmes and rural community resource development were included. Agricultural extension spread to tropical Africa, the Caribbean, Asia and Latin America following the involvement of the United States of America (USA) in bilateral AID programmes after the Second World War.

Agricultural extension now has three main facets:

1. As a discipline it deals with the behaviour of people. It is educational in content and purposive in approach. Whether the content consists of agriculture, medicine (preventive and social medicine), public health, education, engineering, etc, extension is always dependent on a firm knowledge and expertise in sociology, anthropology, psychology, administration, economics, communication arts, political science and so on.

2. As a process, agricultural extension seeks to influence the behaviour of rural people through education and information exchange. The aim is to assist them in gaining a livelihood, improving the physical and psychological level of living of rural families, and fostering rural community welfare. The success of the extension process requires an atmosphere of mutual trust, helpfulness and respect on the part of both extension worker and rural people.

3. As a service, agricultural extension makes the government ministry, the university or voluntary agency as useful as possible to the people who support it through taxes and donations.

The concept that the broader function of extension work is to help people to solve their own problems through the application of scientific knowledge is now generally accepted.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE   1

1. What is extension education?
2. List the main facets of agricultural extension.

3.2   Agricultural Extension in Nigeria

The history of agricultural extension in Nigeria is interwoven with that of agricultural development in general. This is because Agricultural extension is concerned with all areas of agriculture.

3.2.1 The Pre-Colonial and Colonial Periods

During the pre-colonial era by the British, conscious efforts were made in selection, introduction and teaching of the practices involved in producing good varieties of crops and breeds of animals. Farmers selected the best seeds for multiplication, from which the seedlings are been transplanted to their farms. Similarly farmers introduced to their farms improved seeds and animals from their neighbouring communities and from trans-Saharan traders from neighbouring countries. The

farmers themselves experimented upon and projected their production methodologies without the assistance of formally designated extension agents.

Extension teaching was largely through apprenticeship. Families have taught succeeding generation crop production, animal husbandry and soil management through observation and participation by learners. Neighbours and friends shared new knowledge of improved farm practices.

During the colonial era by the British, some agricultural development initiatives were undertaken with the purpose of increasing production. The first step was to establish the Department of Botanical Research in 1893 with its headquarters at Olokomeji in the former western Nigeria (Williams, 1978). Its responsibilities included conducting research in both agriculture and forestry. In 1905, the British Cotton Growers Association acquired 10.35 square kilometres of land at the site now called Moor Plantation, Ibadan for growing cotton to feed the British textile mills. In 1910, Moor Plantation, Ibadan became the headquarters of the Department of Agriculture in Southern Nigeria, while the Department of Agriculture was established in the North in 1912.

In 1921, a unified Department of Agriculture was formed in Nigeria, after the amalgamation of the North and the South. The major policy of the central Department of Agriculture was to increase production of export crops for the British market which was ready to absorb it for its industrial growth. Extension activities were therefore directed towards increasing efficiency in crop production and marketing. Regulations were made to set and enforce standards in export crop production.

The colonial government also established some agricultural development schemes to upgrade the skills of farmers and to produce agricultural commodities. The Kware irrigation scheme was established in 1926. It was situated 16miles or 25.74 kilometres north of Sokoto town. Its purposes were to increase rice yields and provide experimental data on production under severe drought during dry season and flooding during the rains. The scheme started with 1000 acres or 405 hectares involving 800 farmers with farms situated along the river banks. The irrigation scheme employed the shadoof which is an ancient Egyptian technique, also used by the Sudanese. The scheme did not attain much of its objectives because (a) the irrigation scheme (shardoof) was inadequate on large farms; (b) it is a slow technique of irrigation; (c) it was difficult to collect cost of services from users; (d) in 1943, 1945 and 1954, river Rima over-flooded and washed away most of the rice crop; and (e) use of manure was not popular among the farmers.

The colonial period also witnessed the establishment of the Niger Agricultural project in 1949 with the aims of producing groundnut as export and guinea-corn for local consumption. It was also to relieve world food shortage, demonstrate better farming techniques and increase productivity of Nigeria's agriculture. The project was sited near Mokwa at an area which is suitable for mechanized food crop production.

3.2.2 The Post-Colonial Period

Post-colonial agricultural extension in Nigeria can be categorized into two groups: (1) government-organized agricultural programmes; and (2) extension programmes organized and sponsored by private agencies. The first group constitutes the more extensive of the two.

Government organised agricultural extension include the National Accelerated Food Production Project (NAFPP) which was introduced in 1972, Agricultural Development Projects, ADP (1975), the Accelerated Development Area Project, ADAP(1982), and Multi-State Agricultural Development Projects, MSADP (1986). Other programmes were the Operation Feed the Nation Programme, OFN (1976), the River Basin Development Authority, RBDA (1973), the Green Revolution Programme, GRP (1980), the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure, DFRRI (1986), the National Directorate of Employment, NDE (1986), the Nigeria Agricultural Insurance Scheme, NAIS (1987) and the National Fadama Development Project, NFDP (1992). In recent years, the Poverty Alleviation Programme, PAP (2000), and National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy, NEEDS (2004) were introduced. Specifically the National Special Programme for Food Security, NSPFS was launched in March 2003.

Some private agencies have embarked on agricultural extension services largely towards a specific clientele system of their choice. Some of the agencies are: The Nigerian Tobacco Company, oil companies such as Shell Petroleum Development Company, and religious organizations such as the Catholic and the Anglican churches. Some Nongovernmental organizations, NGO's such as the Leventis Foundation also operate some extension services.

Many international organisations have been involved in agricultural extension, agricultural and rural developments in Nigeria for decades. Notable among these are the World Bank, International Fund for Agricultural Development, IFAD, United States Agency for International Development, USAID, Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation ACPECCTA, and Food and Agriculture Organization, (FAO) of the United Nations.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. How was extension activities carried out during the pre-colonial era in Nigeria?
2. List six (6) government organized extension programmes in Nigeria.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has introduced you to the meaning and history of agricultural extension both in the world and Nigeria. From these discussions you must have learnt the meaning of "Extension education" and "Agricultural extension" as well as history of agricultural extension in the world and in Nigeria.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are:

1. The term ''Extension education'' was first introduced in 1873 by Cambridge University in England to describe a particular system dedicated to the dissemination of knowledge to rural people where they lived and worked .
2. The term ''Agricultural extension'' was only adopted in 1914 when the United States Federal Smith-Lever Act of 1914 formalized a nation wide cooperative federal-state-county programme and gave operational responsibilities for this to the land grant colleges and universities.
3. The discussion of the history of agricultural extension in Nigeria is treated briefly in the pre-colonial and colonial periods as well as in the current or post-colonial epoch.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain the history of agricultural extension in the world.
2.   Discuss the various government organized extension programmes in Nigeria.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

6

Jibowo, A.A. (2005). *History of Agricultural Extension in Nigeria.* In**:**
        S.F. Adedoyin (ed.) Agricultural Extension in Nigeria.
        Publication of Agricultural Extension Society of Nigeria, pp1-12.

Kelsey L.D. and Hearne C.C. (1966). *Cooperative Extension Work.* New
        York: Constock Publishing Associates.

Obibuaku L.O. (1983). *Agricultural Extension as a strategy for
        Agricultural transformation.* University of Nigeria Press,
        Nsukka, Nigeria, 119pp.

Williams, S.K.T. (1978). *Rural Development in Nigeria.* Ile-Ife
        :University of Ife Press, Nigeria, 129pp.

Youdeowei A., Ezedinma F.O.C. and Onazi O.C (1986). *Introduction to
        Tropical Agriculture.* Longman: China, 344pp.

UNIT 2   THE   NEED   FOR   AGRICULTURAL
            EXTENSION

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5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit will make you aware of some definitions of agricultural
extension and objectives of agricultural extension. It is also important to
you because it will help you to understand the subsequent units. The
objectives below specify what you are expected to learn after going
through this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

· give some definitions of agricultural extension
· state the objectives of agricultural extension
· identify the kinds and levels of objectives in agricultural extension.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Definitions of Agricultural Extension

Extension can be defined as follows:

An education that brings about improvement in a systematic way,
through carefully planned and organized programmes (Fenley and
Williams, 1964)

As a kind of work to teach rural people how to raise their standard of living, but with the minimum of assistance from government, and by their own efforts, using their own resources (Saville, 1965).

It is an out of school system of education in which adult and young people learn by doing. (Kelsey and Hearne, 1966).

An informal out-of-school system of education designed to help rural people to satisfy their needs, interests and desires. It is a system of education which involves adult learners (Obibuaku, 1983).

As a comprehensive programme of services deliberately put in place for expanding, strengthening and empowering the capacity of the present and prospective farmers, farm families and other rural economic operators (Adedoyin, 2004).

Extension is concerned with three basic tasks:

1.   The dissemination of useful and practical information relating to agriculture and home economics;
2.   The practical application of such knowledge to farm and home situations. These are carried out in an informal atmosphere, with adults as main clientele and
3.   Helping people to use the information in order to help themselves.

In agriculture, the scope of extension is very broad. It is not a mere matter of giving the farmer actual knowledge from new research and technology, to help him raise his efficiency. It is this, of course, but it is more. It hopes to change his view of life, to persuade him and his family that they may reach and enjoy a higher and richer existence (Williams, 1978).

Extension work is considered as an aspect of adult education which differs from formal or classroom education in that it prepares its clientele to tackle the problems of today and helps them to live here and now. Formal education on the other hand, prepares its students for life after school years. The essence of extension work is that as an educational process it involves the following:

(a)   Working with rural people along the lines of their immediate and felt needs and interests which frequently involves making a living, enhancing their level of living and improving their physical surrounding

(b)   Conducting worthwhile and acceptable activities in the spirit of
       cooperation and mutual respect between the extension worker
       and the rural people.
(c)   Utilizing support activities to bring extension work and extension
       staff up-to-date through use of subject-matter specialists, resource
       persons, in- service training, conferences and the like
(d)   Utilizing certain teaching and communication techniques in
       attaining the educational objectives of extension.

Extension education is therefore an educational process directed to bring
about change in people. It is a dynamic process which brings about
changes in what people know, changes in how they react to situations
and changes in what they can do with their hands. The extension worker
must therefore do all in his power to build up mutual trust between
himself and the farmer by:

(i)   Demonstrating competence in needed practices or skills
(ii)   Conducting successful result demonstrations
(iii)   Showing genuine interest in the farmer and his family
(iv)   Doing what he promises and only promising what he can do, and
(v)   Having a social philosophy of extension which establishes a
        healthy relationship between the extension worker and the
        people.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. List the three basic tasks of agricultural extension

(a) --
(b) --
(c) --

2. What are the qualities of a good extension worker?

3.2.   Objectives of Agricultural Extension

Having looked at the definitions of agricultural extension, it is
imperative to equally look at the objectives of extension. Every
extension programme or activity should have clearly defined objectives.
An objective may be defined as an end towards which efforts are
directed or a condition to be attained. Objectives can be conceived as
statements of purpose for which an extension service is established,
change in clientele's behaviour being the ultimate end.

Leagan, (1963) defined an objective as a "direction of movement". This
means the direction in which an extension worker wants to take his

clientele or the distance he wants to cover. For example, where or in what direction do you want to go with respect to poultry enterprise? Is it increased number of eggs? Better quality eggs, more efficient marketing or feed efficiency? If there is to be improvement in farming or in the development of farmers, the objectives of extension must be clearly set down and regularly modified in response to changing conditions.

3.2.1 Objectives and Goals

Objectives are the direction of movement, while goals connote the distance one intends to cover within a given period of time. Again with respect to poultry programme, the objective may be to increase the average flock size among poultry keepers to 5,000 layers per farmer within the next five years. However, the goal for the current year may be to increase the size by 1,000. It should be borne in mind that not all the people want to go in the same direction or can cover the same distance. Therefore, opportunities must be provided for people to move in different directions and at their own pace. Not all farmers in the community may want to participate in the poultry programme. Not all can attain the 5,000 flock target. Alternative programmes must be provided so that people can pursue their divergent interests and attain their individual goals and objectives.

According to Bardsley (1982), the objectives of agricultural extension are as follows:

"To communicate to individual members of the community advice and assistance with respect to knowledge and methods of technical agriculture, with due consideration of the economic and social circumstances of the individual and other people collectively".

The individual-oriented and institution oriented views of extension have become supplanted by the resource model outlined by Salmon 1980 (Obinne, 1997) and it states:

"The basic concept was a pool of agricultural knowledge which resides in and is stored by all those related to the industry: farmer, Department of agriculture, and other organizations. Each contributes to this pool of knowledge, the farmer as a practitioner, the Department as a research organization, etc. The function of extension is to transfer and nurture this pool of knowledge within the rural industry. Thus extension embraces all those who contribute knowledge or transfer it to farmers. Farmers are thus legitimate extension workers as much as departmental staff. All participate in expanding the pool in different ways and at different times. The extension process was further defined as the skills

required to shift knowledge within the pool, and to help others integrate this knowledge into their own practices (Bardsley, 1982).

The four elements common to modern agricultural extension programmes according to Obinne (1997) included:

1. Knowledge to be extended
2. People to be served
3. A central extension organization, and
4. Extension agent.

3.2.2 Kinds of Objectives

In considering objectives and goals in extension it is important that we think of them in relation to the people with whom extension is dealing. The following types of objectives may be identified.

(1)   Group Objectives

These refer to the purpose which a group wants to achieve. Such a group may include Farmers' Cooperative Societies, Farmers Councils and the like. The objectives of the group may be to improve the quality of cocoa beans or to market their produce in such a way as to maximise their income. In pursuing such objectives, the group exerts an influence on the individual.

 (2)   Individual or Family Objectives

These are personal goals pursued in the production of a crop or in the improvement of a home. In pursuing individual or family objectives, the individual acts on his own, independent of the group.

(3)   Long-term objectives are those set by an individual or group to be attained during a relatively long period of time.

(4)   Short-term or immediate objectives are ones set and achievable within relatively short time, say within a year.

(5)   Broad Objectives

These are all inclusive objectives of a society. They are achieved with great difficulty mainly because progress is not as apparent as in the more specific objectives. Another difficulty in that measurement of progress is not feasible.

3.2.3 Levels of Objectives

Educators think of objectives as falling into various levels. Burton (1944) has identified four levels of objectives as follows:

(1)   The over-all societal objectives

The central aim of every society is the attainment of the ''good life'' for all its citizens. This kind of objectives is useful in defining national ends, but they are of little use to extension action programmes. The following objectives listed in the Nigerian 4-year Development Plan are examples of societal objectives:

(a) A great and dynamic economy
(b) A just and egalitarian society
(c) A land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens
(d) A free and democratic society.

(2)   Programmes objectives

These are more specific social objectives and are the type of statements found in programme documents of the extension services and development agencies. The objective towards which the activities of the extension services are directed is improvement for the economic and social wellbeing of the entire community. This level of objectives is therefore directed to the group rather than the individual. Examples are ''to help rural people to determine their own problems and initiate action to help rural people attain better living condition.

(3)   Extension workers' objectives (teaching objectives): Objectives at this level are stated in terms of the changes which the extension worker intends to bring about in the people with whom he works (Adedoyin, 1989). They show the ability of the worker to translate objectives into action programmes.

(4)   People's objective: This level of objectives is related to what the people wish to accomplish. A farmer may desire to increase his income from eggs by ₦100.00, or a youth club member may want to increase the number of birds in his broiler project to 100 birds. Such objectives may not be known to the extension worker unless he sets out to find out for himself. If he is alert, he will

easily see through people's needs and desires during the course of routine activities or through a fact finding community survey.

Experience shows that the most successful programmes are those based on actual situations, such programmes include the wants, needs, and problems of the people. These constitute the worker-learner objectives without which effective extension cannot be a reality. Objectives of the extension worker and those of his clientele need not be similar, but they need to have a common base (Kelsey and Hearne, 1966). The objectives of the people are those which they believe they can achieve through participation in projects they have been involved in their design.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Distinguish between objectives and goals.
2. List the various kinds and levels of objectives.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have learnt why there is the need for agricultural extension.

The various definitions and objectives of agricultural extension were discussed. From these discussions you would now be able to tell the meaning of agricultural extension and the various kinds and levels of objectives in agricultural extension.

5.0   SUMMARY

A summary of the major point in this unit is that:

1.   Agricultural extension was defined as an educational process which helps farmers to make a decent living and to master the best way to handle their farms in order to improve their standard of living

2.   The objectives of agricultural extension are as follows: To communicate to individual members of the community advice and assistance with respect to knowledge and methods of technical agriculture, with due consideration of the economic and social circumstances of the individual and other people collectively.

3. The kinds of objectives in agricultural extension include group, individual, long-term, short-term and broad objectives

4. The four levels of objectives according to Burton are:

(a) The over-all societal objectives

(b) Programme objectives
(c) Extension workers' objectives, and
(d) People's objectives

6.0   **TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. With examples, differentiate between objectives and goals.
2. Explain the various kinds of objectives in agricultural extension.

7.0   **REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS**

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UNIT 3   BASIC PHILOSOPHY AND PRINCIPLES OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   The Basic Philosophy of Agricultural Extension
        3.2   The Basic Principles of Agricultural Extension
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit will introduce you to the basic philosophy and principles behind agricultural extension work. It is a continuation of what unit 2 looked at and will help you to improve on your understanding of agricultural extension. Thus after studying this unit, certain things will be required of you. They are listed in the objectives below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

·   explain vividly the basic philosophy behind agricultural extension
·   list and discuss the basic principles of agricultural extension.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Basic Philosophy of Agricultural Extension

A philosophy is a body of principles governing human activities. A philosophy of agricultural extension is, essentially, an understanding of ideas which an individual agricultural extension worker holds about rural people and rural environment. An extension worker's philosophy consists of the ideas he holds as important and which influence his attitude towards rural people. When these ideas are consciously thought out, they can serve as guidelines to extension work. A sound and

positive agricultural extension philosophy can be an aid to an agricultural extension worker in effectively moving in the direction his philosophy suggests. If he believes that rural people are intelligent and capable of making use of educational opportunities, he is likely to provide such opportunities and assist the people in benefiting from them. On the other hand, if he down-grades the capabilities of rural people, he is likely to assume the attitude of a snub and consequently will encounter negative reaction from the people.

Agricultural extension is based on the philosophy that rural people are intelligent, capable and desirous of acquiring new information and making use of it for their family and community improvement. This assumes that direct approach to the people is required, and that friendly relationship and mutual trust between the extension worker and the people is assured. It also means that the extension worker must have a thorough knowledge of the peoples' problems.

Extension education is democratic in its approach. It is based on the principle of helping people to help themselves. The extension approach to economic development is, first, develop the people, and they will develop their farmland, their livestock, their educational and recreational institutions, their public services and anything else they wish. Agricultural extension philosophy is based on the premise that if farm people fully understand their relationship to the natural resources and other factors they deal with, it is possible for them to attain personal satisfaction in their way of life.

Agricultural extension work is based on the idea that each individual is unique and important. People differ as to values and goals they hold. Extension education fosters action to realize values and attain goals which will aid them in establishing new ones. Extension education supports activities to introduce change. Improvement requires change, but change is not necessarily improvement. The key consideration is the quality and type of change that is acceptable to the people and one that contributes to the achievement of their goals. Change will be discussed fully in module 2.

Extension education is also based on the belief that the aims and objectives of extension are not static. These must be modified on the basis of individual and social needs. It is the duty of extension to determine people's need and to help them to acquire knowledge that spurs or inspires them to action. The acquisition of knowledge as a basis for action is essential since it is the basic philosophy of extension to teach people how to think and not what to think. Through the acquisition of ability to think and to take positive action on the basis of mature

deliberation, the individual can accept new ideas and practices which will help to attain a fuller and more satisfying life.

A sound agricultural extension philosophy always looks ahead. We live in changing times and our agricultural extension philosophy must accommodate such changes. This means that agricultural extension must have a definite goal. In addition, each agricultural extension worker must have his personal philosophy consisting of what he believes about people and his work. If his philosophy is a sound one, it can weather whatever storm he may encounter wherever he finds himself.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. State the basic philosophy behind agricultural extension work.
2. What does a sound agricultural extension philosophy means?

3.2   The Basic Principles of Agricultural Extension

Certain basic principles underlie the conduct of agricultural extension work. These principles differ with respect to the kind of community in which extension education is carried on. The democratic nature of African communities needs to be systematically followed and agricultural extension workers are therefore enjoined to follow this democratic nature. The reason for this is that methods adopted by an extension worker are important for his ultimate success and because the implications of his methods are of great significance (Obibuaku, 1983). It is necessary to lay emphasis on this democratic nature because, extension directors and supervisors in Nigeria as in many ex-British colonial territories are known to have a tendency to adopt autocratic approach to extension work (Bauman, 1966). Since they are products of British education and administration in which the distinction between the supervisors and the subordinate is unduly emphasized, they favour autocratic methods, preferring the use of memos and directives to face to-face communication. The subordinates including those who work with farmers, appear to imitate their superiors in their relationship with farmers (Obibuaku, 1983). To counter this tendency, (Johnson et al, 1969) recommended: encouragement of the extension staff to adopt an attitude of persuasion through an approach which directs farmers as typified by such staff comments as '' we told farmers to ''and '' we supervised farmers, directing them '' in what was to be done. Extension work is directed to changing people's way of doing things in specific pre-determined way believed to be desirable for individuals and the entire society. The objective is to initiate actions that might lead to improvement on the farms, in the homes and within community institutions. This is a complex understanding and involves a set of principles (Obibuaku, 1983). Extension principles may be defined as

guidelines for the conduct of extension work and these principles are the bedrock upon which extension service rests. The principles are:

1.   Extension should start where the people are. Williams et al., 1984 believed that extension should work at the level where the people are, that is, at their level of knowledge, understanding, interest and degree of readiness. In order to be able to assist the people to move to higher levels of aspiration, it is important that extension worker should know what the conditions are. It means personal contact with the local condition, and its environment, an understanding of the social structure, the habits, traditions, attitude and economic status of the people and society. Colonial agriculturists and early extension workers in Nigeria, impressed by the large farms in North America and Western Europe, and despising the peasant farmers prevalent in Nigeria, proceeded to set up large government demonstration farms ostensibly to impress the Nigerian farmer or to persuade him to embark on large-sized farms. Several decades elapsed and not many farmers were persuaded to adopt the new system. According to Obibuaku, 1983, the correct approach would have been to start with the peasant system and try to improve the system and if physical and economic conditions permit, to aspire towards large-sized farms. This was the approach later adopted, particularly in the Northern States, in the production of the relatively successful '' cash crops'' such as groundnuts and cotton. The first principle therefore implies that to succeed with farmers, new ideas must be related to what the farmer already knows and that with which he is familiar.

2.   Extension should be based on the needs and interests of the people which are closely related to improving their livelihood through increasing farm production and their physical environment (Williams et at., 1984). It is imperative therefore to conceptualize the basic needs of the people in the rural set up since the needs and interests of people vary from one set of people to the other due to difference in culture. Extension can only function if these two variables are put into consideration.

It is also imperative to note that extension workers must gain the confidence of their audience. This is so because farmers are said to be fatalistic as well as conservative in their attitudes. They are wary to thread on unsure grounds and are unlikely to take action without conviction. This is why it is necessary that the extension worker should gain their confidence (Obibuaku, 1983). Unless they are sure of the ability and skill of an extension worker, they will not be persuaded to accept his recommendations. This is more so if the extension worker is

young and has had little or no farm experience. In that case, he must start with one or two programmes that are likely to succeed and must work on them until eventual success.

3.   Extension should assist farmers to determine their own problems, help them to find desirable solutions and to encourage them to take action. This assistance does not imply that the extension worker's problems are replica of the farmer's problems and does not indicate that the farmers cannot think on their own. Embarking on this will enable the farmers to have the perception that the extension worker cares about their problems by assisting them in identifying their problems. In proffering solutions to these problems, the extension worker should not in any way solve their problems on their behalf as this will amount to imposing his own value judgement on them.

4.   It is an established fact that human beings have unsatisfied wants, this assertion is also applicable to the farmers. An extension worker cannot go far with people unless they want to help themselves, therefore programmes must start with the felt needs of the people and proceed to others that are also needed by them. The wants of the people must be kept in reasonable relationship with the effort they are capable and willing to make. All the people within a community do not want the same thing at same time, and in the same fashion (Obibuaku, 1983). To this end, their values differ and so do their goals and the ability to achieve them.

5.   The principle of co-operative work must be pursued to logical conclusion. This is so because the best programmes are those determined by the local people and extension staff working together. Planning of programmes with the people is an important part of extension teaching. People understand a programme better and are more likely to support it if they participate in its creation. Planning is also a learning process. By participating in programme planning, people learn to work together. Decisions that are collectively made are stronger and are more acceptable than the decisions that are passed and imposed on them from the outside. Rural people tend to resist change until they see the benefit of such a change and there is no better way of helping them than by involving them in planning for change.

6.   Extension workers should work with all members of the family. The family should be regarded as a working unit in the home and in the field (Williiams et al., 1984). Religion, race or political interests should be put aside in working with rural people,

extension worker should treat them as rational adults who are capable of making their own decisions.

7.   The principle of the use of variety of teaching methods is another basic principle. In this case, a teaching method can be conceived in teaching a segregated learning unit. This is equally based on the principle of variety is the spice of life and that no one method will help to bring out desirable changes in people. No method therefore is an island. The implication of this principle is that, the more the variety of ways a topic is presented and practised, the quicker the people tend to grasp the subject matter.

8   In African rural communities, participation in extension programme is voluntary and therefore programmes must meet the varying needs of individuals. Participation in extension programmes differ significantly in age, sex, education, attitudes, interests, needs and economic and social values. According to Obibuaku (1983), programmes must therefore be attractive and tailored to meet the needs and interests of the varying groups.

9.   Extension workers should provide maximum opportunity for the people to work on programmes that have been determined by them and the extension agent working together. The joint determination of the programmes is one thing and full participation is another dimension which is crucial to the eventual success of such programmes. The farmers feel fully satisfied when they are given maximum opportunity to practice what they participated in building. The principle of involvement has a sound psychological basis in that people are never interested in programmes which they have not helped to develop.

10   Extension workers should take advantage of any existing local groups to involve the people in extension programmes. The people in rural areas tend to listen more to the local leaders than even the extension workers since they are power brokers and the inability of the extension agent to work with them makes it impossible for him to succeed in his programmes. This principle must be strictly adhered to if innovation is to be well adopted by the local people. The existence of these local leaders makes it possible for extension agents to spread his service over a wide area. There are numerous organizations and groups that are in existence in Nigeria such as farmers' co-operative societies, farmer's councils, village unions. All these groups should be used more intensively in involving the people in extension programmes.

11.   Subject matter covered in extension must have definite purpose and must be specific so that programme would be able to achieve the purpose for which it was established. The subject matter here refers to the content of the extension programme, which must be relevant to the lives of the rural people and must therefore be useful to them. The content of the programme must be presented when it is most needed by the people. This is so because retention falls off rapidly if opportunity for application of what is learnt is not present. The subject matter covered must therefore be attainable within the time available, and within physical and economic resources of clientele, and within the social condition and learning ability of the participants.

12.   The principle of constant evaluation must be followed. It should appraise periodically its work in the light of existing and changing conditions so that it can be seen whether the objective are being achieved. Extension workers have to make endless decisions and then act according to what they understand to be the mandates of their decisions. In a similar vein, the longer a practice has been followed, the harder it is to be objective about its limitations and the harder it is to get at making needed changes. Therefore frequent appraisal will assist a long way in arriving at these benefits.

13.   The principle of professionalism should be followed. Extension workers should therefore work with extension professionals who can sell their programmes to their clientele. Credibility is therefore essential here. It should provide continuous opportunity, additional training and professional improvement for its staff.

14.   Learning is a gradual process and therefore results must not be expected too soon. Research evidence has shown that learners must be exposed to new ideas over a period of time and in variety of ways before they begin to respond to them. The rural people must not be rushed as they do not learn at the same rate. This principle must be put in mind when basic things are expected from the rural people. The adoption rate is therefore to be considered as a gradual process.

15.   Adult learning remains high throughout life. Adults have had years of varied experience, set beliefs and habits. Their beliefs and habits tend to change very slowly. However many of these have to be changed if progress is to be made. The Extension workers must therefore use all available strategies in taking care of these beliefs and habits.

16.   A closer principle to the one just highlighted is the principle that
        extension is educational in function through assisting people to
        make their own decisions among various alternatives put before
        them. Extension workers should not be involved with supply
        activities. The farmers may be expecting the extension agents to
        supply them with needed planting materials, fertilizers and
        fungicides. This is basically contrary to its educational function.

17.   Extension workers should promote the use and development of
        volunteer leaders. It is through this forum that extension agents can
        reach many people and educate them of the need for change. This
        principle therefore sees the volunteer leaders as loud speaker for
        extension. Without the use of the volunteer leader, most of the
        planned programmes will not be achieved.

18.   Extension should be based on facts and knowledge. This
        principle can be achieved through the process of working closely
        with the researchers and the farmer. Therefore, extension in this
        regard will be seen as an intermediary or a link between
        researcher and the farmer.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. What are extension principles?
2. List at least ten (10) agricultural extension principles.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learnt the basic philosophy and principles of
agricultural extension. It is good to note that the village must be the
starting point for any extension programme and must address problems
identified by the farmers themselves which they want solutions to. If the
aforementioned philosophy and principles are followed, the mission of
agricultural extension will be achieved.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit include the following:

1.   Agricultural extension is based on the philosophy that rural
        people are intelligent, capable and desirous of acquiring new
        information and making use of it for their family and community
        improvement.
2.   Agricultural extension work is based on the idea that each
        individual is unique and important. People differ as to values and
        goals they hold. Extension education fosters action to realize

values and attain goals which will aid them in establishing new
ones.

3.   A sound agricultural extension philosophy always looks ahead.
       Since we live in changing times, our agricultural extension
       philosophy must accommodate such changes.

4.   Certain basic principles underlie the conduct of extension work.
       These principles differ with respect to the kind of community in
       which education is carried on.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain clearly the basic philosophy of agricultural extension
2. Discuss the various extension principles.

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UNIT 4   COMMUNICATION IN EXTENSION

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Communication is an activity much taken for granted. Extension education is essentially a process of communication. Communication of ideas and skills between and among people. Ability to communicate determines to a very large extent the success or failure of an extension worker. This topic - communication in extension -is the topic of discussion for this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· explain clearly the term 'communication'
· discuss, vividly the communication models
· outline briefly the components of communication process.

0.0   MAIN CONTENT

0.1   The Meaning of Communication

The word communication is abstract and possesses numerous meanings. According to Clevenger (1991), it is inconceivable that any person cannot communicate. The process of communication is fundamental to extension, training and passing on information. Thus learning processes, the dissemination of innovations or social change cannot be explained without reference to communication.

Communication can be given a broad and inclusive or a restrictive definition. It can also be seen in the light of communication as linked to or not linked to intention and judgement.
Communication can be defined as:

1. The means of sending messages
2. The transmission of information
3. That situation in which a source transmits a message to a receiver with conscious intent to affect the latter's behaviours.
4. The verbal interchange of thoughts or ideas
5. The process that links discontinuous parts of the living world together
6. A process that makes common to two or several what was the monopoly of one or some.

Extension services are essentially communicative (Akeredolu and Ajayi, 1995). The ultimate aim of an extension system is to effectively deliver information to end-users in a comprehensible and utilizable manner. Extension services bear great potentials for improving the productivity of natural resources and promoting the right attitudes among natural resource managers (Adebayo and Adedoyin, 2003). The service is recognized as essential mechanism for delivering information and advice as input into modern natural resource management. The structures and institutions engaged in extension services encompass a diverse range of socially sanctioned and legitimate activities that seek to improve the ability of natural resource managers to adopt more appropriate and often new practices and to adjust to changing conditions and societal needs (Jones and Garforth, 1997).

Communication always occurs in context, that is, in a setting or situation. As such, the context of communication can be divided theoretically in a variety of useful ways. One such approach is; divide the field vocationally into categories like health communication, business and professional communication and instructional communication (Littlejohn, 1999). Communication can be divided along the lines of the level of involvement of technologies as unaided or aided communication. Often, intercultural communication is distinguished from intra-cultural communication.

The most common division of communication is along the lines of the number of actors involved in the communication scenario (Adebayo, 1987; Bittner, 1989; Littlejohn, 1999). In this case, communication can be intrapersonal (involving only one person), interpersonal (dealing with face-to-face, private settings), group (relating to interaction of people in small groups, sometimes in decision making settings), organizational

(occurring in large cooperative networks) and mass (dealing with public communication, usually mediated).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   What is the use of communication in extension?
2.   Divide communication along the lines of the numbers of actors involved in the communication scenario.

0.2   Elements of the Communication Process

Let us compare two situations:

1.   I have a coin in my hand and I want to give it to someone else. I do this simply by putting it in the other person's hand. Note that the coin does not change, that the other person's hand was empty before I gave him the coin, and that my hand is empty after I have given it to him.

2.   I have an idea that I wish to pass on to someone else. Is this any different from passing a coin? We think the following differences are important:

a)   ideas do not become scarce. I can give away ideas without having fewer myself.
b)   the receiver's head is not empty before I gave him the idea. On the contrary, his existing ideas help him to appreciate my idea and to include it with his own;
c)   a coin does not change when it is passed to another person, but an idea does. An idea exists only in the human mind and cannot be transferred physically like a coin.

We can draw the following conclusion from this comparison of passing a coin or an idea: the process consist of six essential elements (figure 1). These elements provide the building blocks from which all models of communication are drawn (Adedoyin, 1989; Lither, 1989; Adebayo, 1997; Littlejohn, 1999) they are:

1.   Source/sender
2.   Message
3.   Channel/medium
4.   Receiver
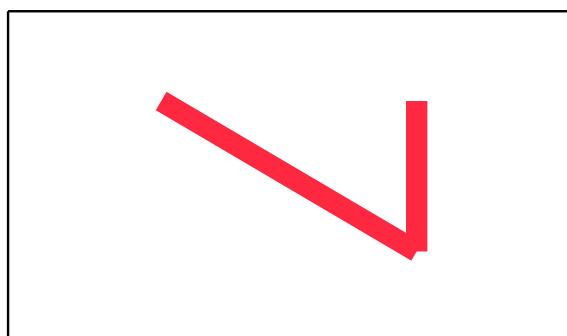5.   Effect, and
6.   Feedback

Figure 1: A basic model of the communication process

The source or sender is the individual or a group working together or an institution responsible for initiating communication and ensuring that the objectives of the exercise are clearly defined and achieved. In addition, the source must strive to update his knowledge through training, subject matter wise, as well as in the methodologies of communication itself.

The message is the stimuli or idea that the source transmits. Messages must be clear, useful to the audience, relevant to the environment and timely with respect to their livelihood activities. Message content should be relevant to the receiver; this implies that the message sent must be technically feasible, economically beneficial and acceptable with respect to the norms and values of the society.

Messages in extension communication bear particular characteristics which may enhance or hinder their acceptability by the target audience (Adebayo, 1977; Adedoyin, 1989; Adebayo *et al.*, 2002). These characteristics are:

1. Relative advantage- The degree to which an idea or technological innovation is perceived as being better than the one it seeks to replace
2. Compatibility- The extent to which an idea or message is in line with prevailing or past socio-cultural values and beliefs.
3. Complexity-The degree to which an idea or message is perceived as relatively difficult to use and understand.
4. Trial ability/ divisibility- The extent to which an innovation can be experimented with on limited scale
5. Observability- The degree to which the results of an innovation or message content are visible to others

6.   Risk level- The extent to which an idea or message is perceived
        to expose the receiver to vulnerability due to failure.

A channel or medium is the means by which a message travels from the
source to the receiver. The human senses (sight, hearing, touch, taste
and feeling) make up the most common means of exchanging ideas. The
methods include visual and oral, spoken and written. The more senses
employed in the communication process, the greater the chance that it is
understood.

The receiver is the target or audience of communication. The audience
are those whom the source/sender wishes to receive, understand and use
the idea. In extension communication it is important that the receiver of
each message be clearly defined and segregated into homogenous
groups for effective communication. If the audience is to make progress,
the extension teacher somehow helps them to change their knowledge,
attitude or behaviour. If no change takes place there has been no
communication - no progress. Good extension teaching requires a
thorough study of audience. This means their abilities, backgrounds,
interests and previous accomplishments. The more we know about the
audience, the better job of teaching we can do.

The effect of the communication is felt when the receiver decodes the
message (attaches meaning to the symbols) and develops an idea in his
mind which he may or may not use. Feedback is the response from the
receiver to the source of the message. Feedback is a control device and
an important indicator of the success of communication as well as areas
requiring modification and further enquiry.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   List the components of a basic model of the communication
        process.
2.   Enumerate on the characteristics of messages in extension
        communication.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learnt the meaning of communication and the
important elements that comprises the communication process. Other
areas discussed here include communication models and its comparison.
From these discussions, you now know that communication is
something we encounter everyday in our lives.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are:

1.   The process of communication is fundamental to extension, training and passing on information.
2.   In general, communication can be defined as:

a)   The means of sending messages
b)   The transmission of information
c)   That situation in which a source transmits a message to a receiver with conscious intent to affect the latter's behaviour
d)   The verbal interchange of thoughts or ideas
e)   The process that links discontinuous parts of the living world together
f)   A process that makes common to two or several what was the monopoly of one or some.

3)   The communication process consists of six important elements, they include:-

     a)   Source/sender
     b)   Message
     c)   Channel/medium
     d)   Receiver
     e)   Effect and
     f)   Feedback

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain what is meant by the term "Communication".
2.   Discuss briefly the various communication models.
3.   Explain vividly the various elements of communication process.

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UNIT 5   AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION METHODS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit you are going to learn about the various agricultural extension teaching methods. As we all know, teaching is the imparting of information and extension teaching guides the learning process so that the farmer learns more and better.

Agricultural extension teaching methods is going to be discussed under three subheadings namely:

1.   Individual methods
2.   Group methods and
3.   Mass methods.

The objectives below specify what you are expected to have learnt after studying this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· write briefly on the individual methods ·
discuss clearly the group methods

· identify the mass methods.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Extension Teaching Methods

Extension teaching methods may be defined as devices used to create situations in which new information can pass freely between the extension worker and the farming communities. It is the function of the extension worker to use the extension methods which provide opportunities for rural people to learn and which stimulate mental and physical activities among the people. For extension workers to be successful they must be proficient in technical knowledge and educational process and must also have the right attitude towards rural people.

Four conditions are necessary for effective use of teaching methods. These include the learning situation, the learning objectives, the learning experiences and the use of a variety of teaching methods. The learning situation comprises the extension worker who has clear objectives, knows the subject matter to be taught and is able to communicate freely with the farmers. The learning situation also includes the people who are capable and interested in learning and the subject-matter which must be pertinent to farmers' needs and which is taught at people's intellectual level. In physical terms, the learning situation should be free from outside distraction and should be suitable to the subject matter presented and should be available when required and ought to be skilfully used.

As a pre-condition, objectives for the use of extension methods must be clearly established. An objective has already been defined as an end towards which teaching is directed (see module 1 unit 2). Any purposeful teaching has specific objectives which must contain four basic elements-people to be taught, behaviour changes to be made, subject matter to be taught and life situation in which action is to take place.

Another condition is the employment of effective learning experiences. A learning experience is defined as the mental or physical reaction one makes in a learning situation through seeing, hearing or performing activities during a learning process. The final condition is that provision

should be made for the opportunity to use a variety of extension methods.

Extension methods may be classified in three groups on the basis of the number of people they are designed to reach: these are: (1) individual methods (2) group methods and (3) mass methods.

3.1.1 Individual Methods

Individual methods are used in extension teaching in recognition of the fact that learning is an individual process and that the personal influence of the extension worker is an important factor in securing people's participation in extension activities. The various methods which come under the classification of individual methods include farm and home visits, office calls, telephone calls, personal letters, informal contacts and result demonstrations.

Farm and home visits are essential elements of extension education. They provide a means of personal communication between the farm family and the extension worker in an environment where they can discuss matters of common interest in privacy and without the distractions and interruptions commonly experienced in group extension activities. Farm and home visits serve the following useful purposes:

 (1)   To acquaint extension worker with the farmer and farm family
 (2)   To answer specific requests for help
 (3)   To gain first hand knowledge of problems faced by the farmer or villager
 (4)   To explain a recommended practice
 (5)   To follow up and observe the results of recommended practices
 (6)   To plan an activity such as demonstration, or a meeting
 (7)   To invite the farmer or villager to participate in a planned activity
 (8)   To discuss policies and programmes
 (9)   To recruit, train or encourage a local volunteer leader

Careful and adequate preparation is the key to a successful visit as with all extension methods. Visits are extensive in terms of time and transportation. Preparation for a visit will include a review of all the known facts about the farm, the farmer and the family, specific information concerning the problem, purpose or activity involved and materials such as leaflets and samples that may be left with the farmer.

Office calls are made by the farmer for the purpose of satisfying a felt need. They are an expression of interest by the farmer in a need which he hopes the extension worker can help him meet. Office calls provide

the extension worker with knowledge of the needs of the farming community. Like farm and home visits, they help to build farmers' confidence in the worker and create good public relations. They are less expensive and time consuming than farm and home visits. However, the farmer may feel less at home in the office and may be sensitive to the attitude of the worker. He may also be too shy to disclose the real purpose of his visit.

Telephone calls are initiated by either the farmer or the extension worker, they are useful in giving specific information relating to treatment of known diseases, control of insect pests or to answer questions on interesting broadcasts or requests for bulletins and leaflets. Telephone calls cannot be used where telecommunication system is under-developed.

Personal letters are useful in answering request for information, as follow-up after visits and office calls and in contacting local volunteer leaders. The use of letters as a teaching method is quite limited in countries lacking an efficient postal service or where many rural residents are illiterate.

Be careful that the information you give in a letter is simple, understandable and complete without being wordy or including unnecessary information. Remember, the words you put on paper are all he has to go by in determining your meaning.

Informal contacts provide many opportunities for effective extension work. Every experienced extension worker has had people stop him on the street or in the village to ask a question. Often, seeing the extension worker will remind the villager of a problem about which he would like technical advice. Market days, picnics, holiday celebrations and religious events bring people together. Where people gather, they talk about current problems in farming and rural life. By attending such events, the extension worker will become better acquainted with his people, learn of their wants, needs and problems and be able to impart information on an informal basis.

Result demonstration is a method by teaching designed to show, by example the practical application of an established fact or group of facts. 'The result demonstration"- "Is one which shows after a period of time what happened after a practise is adopted. As an example, compost is put on a certain field. Good seed potatoes are planted and cared for. In the next field, no compost is used and poor seed potatoes are used. At harvest time the potatoes are dug in each field at the same time. The villagers have watched all during the planting, growing and harvesting season. They see how much better results are from using better

practices. This is a result of demonstration". Comparison is the essential ingredient in result demonstration.

The advantages of result demonstration are as follows:

(1)   Furnishes local proof of the desirability of adopting a recommended practice
(2)   Is an efficient method for introducing a new subject
(3)   Appeals to the eye and reaches the "show me" individual
(4)   Provides a good source of information for meetings, news items, pictures, radio talks.
(5)   Furnishes cost data and other basic information
(6)   A high percentage of people will understand
(7)   Aids in developing local leadership
(8)   Establishes confidence in the extension worker and in extension work

Limitations

(1)   Result demonstration requires a large amount of extension workers time
(2)   The cost is high per practice changed
(3)   Good demonstrations are hard to find
(4)   Few people see the demonstration at a not-convincing stage
(5)   The teaching value is frequently destroyed by unfavourable weather.

3.1.2 Group Methods

Group methods take into account the inclination of the individual to respond to the pressures and opinions of groups in which he participates and to listen to the views of others before arriving at a decision about making changes in his farming operations.

Group method include general meetings, group discussion, exhibits, tours and field trips, method demonstrations, extension schools and farmer training centre.

General meetings include all kinds of meetings held by the extension worker except demonstration meetings. The method of conducting the meetings may be lectures, discussions, showing of slides and motion pictures or any combination of these. The method of the meeting must be well thought out and the agenda carefully prepared in order to achieve objectives envisaged. During the meeting, provision should be made for use of models, charts, specimens, pictures e.t.c to illustrate points. Towards the end of the meeting allowance should be made for

questions and answers which would help clarify specific ideas. To make the meeting successful, the extension worker should enlist the help of local leaders to:

(1)   agree on the purpose of the meeting and to draw up tentative programme;
(2)   decide on and secure speakers;
(3)   arrange for social and recreational aspects of the meeting;
(4)   agree on the place and time of the meeting;
(5)   select the chairman and advertise the meeting.
        Kelsey and Hearne (1966) identify five general types of meeting involved in extension work:
(a)   Organization meetings include board of directors meetings, youth clubs, home makers clubs, executive committees and many others.

(b)   Planning meetings requires preparation of a large amount of situation material. Much of this must be done by professional extension workers who should resist a natural tendency to dominate the meeting.

(c)   Training meetings are essential element in developing and using rural leaders in extension

(d)   Special interest meetings are engaged to serve the educational needs of groups with common interest such as gardening, fishing, dairying, home management or sewing. They may be held singly or in series over a period of time.

(e)   Community meetings as the name suggest are for all the people in the community, men, women, young people, with all the varied interests of the community.

Like other methods used in extension work, meetings of all kinds have advantages and limitations. Meetings are useful in reaching a large number of people; they serve as a preparatory stage for the use of other methods. By means of meetings, use can be made of group psychology to promote programmes. One of the drawback of meetings is that they offer limited scope for discussion. Where the audience is large, handling a topic may become very difficult especially where there are disparities in age and educational attainments.

Group discussion is a method commonly used in extension work. Generally, discussion is the process by which two or more persons pool their knowledge and feelings, and through mutual agreement clarify the issues under consideration. There are several distinct types of group discussion meetings. The newest idea is called "brain trust" in which questions are posed and the participating "brains" provide their opinions and views. Actually this is quite similar to panel and symposium discussions. The panel is usually a rather informal

discussion by several "experts" to consider a major topic, while a symposium is characterized by having several speakers, each of whom gives a rather detailed and usually prepared presentation of his views. Sometimes the symposium speakers are given a chance to answer one or more of the others in a form of rebuttal.

Exhibits are systematic displays of specimens, models, charts, posters, etc. Their main purpose is to develop the interest of those who see them, influence their attitude, increase their knowledge and stimulate them to action. Exhibits are considered as some of the best methods of teaching illiterates. A well planned educational exhibit can present information quickly and convincingly. Exhibit have imaginative appeal, and can stimulate competitive spirit among participants, this will be particularly so when prizes are awarded to those who produce the best shows.

An exhibit can be of any size. It can be a display of a few potted maize plants with different levels of fertilizer treatments or it can be as big as world agricultural fair. However, for extension purposes, they should be made simple, and should convey only one idea at a time.

Tours and field trips are methods of extension teaching which appeal to man's desire to "go places and see things". It represents a teaching method whereby a group of people are taken on a study tour to observe the result of improved practices in actual situations. This means that the group will travel together for a day or more. Tours are among the best methods of teaching farm people to gain practical knowledge because people learn through seeing things in actual operation. Tours are most suited for teaching groups such as members of Young Farmers Clubs. A tour can be made to a research station, demonstration farms and similar places of educational interest.

The following suggestion will help you plan and hold a successful tour or field trip.

1. Decide exactly what you wish to accomplish
2. Work out a detailed plan for the tour well in advance
3. Go through a rehearsal or "dry run" of the entire programme well in advance
4. On the day of the tour, keep the party together and keep them moving briskly from point to point.
    In general smaller groups are preferred to larger groups.

Method demonstration- A method demonstration is to teach a skill. It teaches how to do certain work. It is always interesting to the farmers and especially when the demonstration is concluded by the extension worker, it increases their respect for the worker. Examples of method

demonstration subjects include (i) seed treatment (ii) pruning, and (iii) spraying.

Things to note in method demonstration are as follows:

1.   Outline operations in logical steps
2.   Identify key points
3.   Carefully select materials and tools
4.   Arrange for diagrams or other teaching aids
5.   Rehearse demonstration until perfect
6.   Make sure all the audience can see and hear him
7.   Explain purpose and show application to local problem
8.   Show each operation slowly, step by step
9.   Emphasize key points
10.   Invite members of audience to repeat demonstration

Advantages of Method Demonstration

1.   It teaches needed skill to many people at one time
2.   Seeing, hearing, discussing   and participating stimulate action.
3.   It builds confidence in extension worker if demonstration is skilfully performed
4.   Local leaders easily learn simple demonstrations and can repeat them with other groups.
5.   It promotes personal acquaintance between the demonstrators and the farmers
6.   It influences changes in practice with many people at a single meeting.

Limitations

1.   It is frequently difficult to ensure that all members of the group can see clearly
2.   With certain demonstrations considerable equipment must be transported to the meeting places
3.   Requires a certain amount of showmanship not possessed by all extension workers.

Extension schools are designed to give the participants knowledge and skill in some specific line of subject matter such as irrigation methods, dress making or gardening. Schools involve intensive training over a specific period of time, such as one to four days. They may require preenrolment and an obligation to attend all sections.

Schools offer an opportunity for presentation of much information in a short time to a selected group of people with special interest in the

subject. They must be well organized with specific teaching objectives and employ teaching methods which will hold the interest of participants. Demonstrations, discussions and the use of visuals add much to their effectiveness. Periodic and terminal evaluations help to keep the programme realistic and provide guidance in conducting future schools.

Farmer training centre have been used effectively in a number of developing countries to train farmers and their wives in concepts and practices of modern agriculture and home making.

Leadership training appears to be the most effective role of farmer training centres. To fulfil this role, training centre programmes must be integrated with extension programmes to the extent that:

1.   Subjects of training contribute to the educational objectives included in the extension programme.
2.   Participants are selected on the basis of their leadership potential and through recommended leader recruitment processes, and
3.   Returned participants are utilized in planning and executing extension programmes.

3.1.3 Mass Methods

Individual and group methods cannot reach everyone who wants and needs information. So mass methods-radio, television, cinema vans and public address systems, newspapers, posters and other printed materials are used to reach large numbers of people quickly.

Radio is one of the fastest, most powerful and in many countries the only way of communicating with the masses of rural people. It reaches people of all cultural levels who understand the language of transmission.

An advantage of radio programmes is that they can be done almost anywhere through the use of tape recorder. Radio is useful in reporting spot news, such as announcement of meetings, for warning about insect outbreaks, and especially as a part of campaigns.

Listening habits may vary according to the society involved. Studies of listening habits will tell the extension worker when his listeners are likely to be men and women and at what hours they listen most. Take these factors into account when planning your programme.

Television adds a second dimension to radio broadcasting thus increasing the scope of methods available to the extension worker. He

can demonstrate as well as talk. Television programmes require meticulous preparation. Every piece of equipments must be in place and the dialogue must be well thought out. In spite of the relatively high cost of receiving sets, television occupies an increasingly important role in developing countries.

Advantage of Radio and Television

1.   Radio programmes are especially fitted to handle emergency information
2.   Reach people who cannot read
3.   Reach people who cannot attend extension meetings
4.   Build interest in other extension activities

Limitations

1.   Broadcasting facilities are not everywhere available
2.   Active involvement of the audience in the teaching process is impossible
3.   Frequently extension programmes are given poor time for farm listeners
4.   Direct and immediate feedback from the audience to the teacher is not possible
5.   Frequently extension programmes loose out in competition with entertainment
6.   Specific local needs cannot be given adequate attention and there is often cultural gap (e.g. language, dialect) between the speaker and the audience.

Cinema vans and public address systems: In most African countries the Ministry of Agriculture and Information provides cinema vans which have substituted almost perfectly for television in bringing visual entertainment and agricultural information to rural people. A cinema van can show an agricultural film to a large audience in two or more villages each night. The films demonstrate new techniques that the people can apply on their own farms.

The public-address system can be used to make announcements and bring agricultural information to a number of villages in one day.

Newspapers provide a valuable channel for transmission of educational information where they exist and where rural people receive and read

them. Newspapers print news and news consists of items of broad interest to their readers. Newspaper space is valuable and limited. Your news item must compete for attention with other items as well as advertising and the editor is the sole judge of its news value. All materials for the press should be factual, well written, and intelligently planned. Otherwise it will probably be discarded by the editor.

Write simply, using short sentences and paragraphs that are easy to read. Remember that you must catch the readers' attention in the first sentence or he is unlikely to read further. The succeeding facts should be put down in the order of their importance. The ABC's of good writing are accuracy, brevity and clarity.

Poster: A poster is a sheet of paper or cardboard with an illustration and usually a few simple words. It is designed to catch the attention of the passer by, impress on him a fact or an idea and stimulate him to support an idea, get more information or take some kind of action.

Since a single glance may be all your poster will get, the message must be simple and clear. Details and wordy sentences have no place. Here are a few suggestions that will help you design more effective posters.

1.   Decide exactly who your audience is. Decide exactly what you want to tell them. Decide what you want them to do.
2.   Put down on a sheet of paper words and rough pictures that express your message simply and clearly.
3.   Try to put your message into a few words- a coincise striking slogan. Visualise or put into picture for the most important central idea in the message.
4.   Cut out your poster in small scale - $\frac{1}{8}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ actual size.

Other suggestions: use plain, bold lettering and lines. Use colour to attract attention and for contrast. Remember however that too many colours add confusion. Allow plenty of space. Do not crowd letters, words or illustrations.

Folders, leaflets and Pamphlets: Simple folders, leaflets and pamphlets can be used in many ways in extension programmes. They may be used singly for example to explain the advantage of testing soil. They may be used as reminders of when to plant crops or what chemicals to use to control different insects.

Folders, leaflets and pamphlets may be used in coordination with other visuals in long-range campaigns. Because of their lowcost, they can be given away at meetings and fairs and offered on radio programmes.

They are useful to supplement large publications when new information is available and when reprinting the whole publication is not practical.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   What is extension teaching method?
2.   List four conditions necessary for effective use of teaching methods
3.   Extension methods may be classified into three groups these are

        (a) -------------------- (b)------------------------and (c)------------------
4. Individual methods include (a)------------------ (b)--------------------
        (c) ---------------------- (d) -----------------------(e)--------------------
        (f)------------------------- (g) ----------------------------

5.   Group methods include (a)-------------------- (b)----------------------
        (c) -------------------- (d) ---------------------(e)-----------------------
        (g) ------------------------------

6.   List the components of mass methods.

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit has introduced you to the various extension teaching methods and their various classification according to use. In many teaching situations an extension worker will find that the use of two or more methods will be much more effective than the employment of any single method.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit include the following

1.   Extension teaching methods may be defined as devices used to create situations in which new information can pass freely between the extension worker and the farming communities.
2.   Extension methods may be classified in three groups on the basis of the number of people they are designed to reach. These are:

        (a)   Individual methods
        (b)   Group methods, and
        (c)   Mass methods

3.   Individual methods are used in extension teaching in recognition of the fact that learning is an individual process.

4.   Group methods take into account the inclination of the individual
       to respond to the pressures and opinions of groups in which he
       participates and to listen to the views of others before arriving at
       a decision about making changes in his farming operations.
 5.   Individual and group methods cannot reach everyone who wants
       and needs information. So mass methods are used to reach large
       numbers of people quickly.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   Extension teaching methods are devices used to create situations
       in which new information can pass freely between the extension
       worker and the farming communities.
2. (a) Learning situation   (b) Learning objectives   (c) Learning
       experiences (d) Use of a variety of teaching methods.
3. (a) Individual methods (b) Group methods (c) Mass methods
4. (a) Farm and home visit (b) Office calls   (c) Telephone calls   (d)
       Personal letters (e) Informal contacts (f) Result demonstration
5. (a) General meetings (b) group discussion (c) Exhibits (d) Tours and
       field trips Method demonstrations (f) Extension schools (g)
       Farmer training Centre
6. (a) Radio (b) Television   (c) Cinema vans and public address
       systems(d) Newspapers (e) posters (f) folders, leaflets and
       pamphlets.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Write explanatory notes on the individual methods
2.   Write briefly on the components of group methods
3.   Discuss the mass methods of extension

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 2

Unit 1   Basic Concepts and the Development of Rural Sociology
Unit 2   Social Stratification
Unit 3   Social Processes in Rural Society
Unit 4   Rural Social Change
Unit 5   Theories of Social Change

UNIT 1   BASIC CONCEPTS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Definitions of Sociological Concepts or Terms
        3.2   The Development of Rural Sociology
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

We studied the aspect of agricultural extension in module 1. In this Module 2, we shall learn about rural sociology. This module discusses the application of sociology to agricultural and rural problems. As agriculture is predominantly the rural occupation, this module also treats the discussion of rural sociology with emphasis on agricultural subjects. Unit 1 of this module 2 touches on the basic concepts and the history of the development of rural sociology.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· explain briefly basic sociological terms
· discuss vividly the development of rural sociology ·
define rural sociology.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Definitions of Sociological Concepts or Terms

Many students of rural sociology at the introductory level in many universities in Nigeria have not had any previous significant learning experience in the study of sociology; hence it is necessary to explain the basic concepts or terms often used in the field of sociology. These concepts are not the final subject matter of rural sociology, but are intellectual tools for analyzing social situations in rural society.

1.   Sociology is the scientific study of society.

2.   Society is a group of people who have lived together, sharing common values and general interests, long enough to be considered by others and by themselves as a unit. Rural sociology studies such societies when they exist in rural areas.

3.   Rural sociology is the systematic study of rural life. It is the systematic body of knowledge which had resulted from the application of the scientific method to the study of the rural society, its organization, structure, social processes, basic social systems, institutions and dynamics.

4.   Agricultural sociology is the application of sociology to the agricultural profession. It is the scientific study of the social lives of the people who are engaged in the agricultural occupation. As majority of those who are engaged in agriculture live and work in the rural area, Agricultural Sociology focuses largely on the use of rural sociological concepts.

5.   Structure is the systematic arrangement characteristic of a society, the smallest parts arranged to form a large discernible unit. A society's structure is composed of such parts as groups,

institutions (e.g. government and schools), neighbourhoods and communities, organizations and collectives.

6. Function is an aspect of the relationship between components mentioned above. It may involve the services provided by one component to another within the total structure. The function of the village school is to provide sound educational facilities to village children so that they acquire the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to citizens and members of society. The concept of function may also apply, in a mathematical sense, to relations among variables where changes in one are governed by changes in the other. For example, the density of population in a given geographical area will be governed by the size of population. Increase in density will be a function of increase in size of population.

7. Change means that some aspect of function or structure differs at latter times from what it was at earlier times, changes involves the processes of disorganisation, organisation or reorganisations. When one component changes, it may no longer fit with other parts and changes or modification of other parts and reorganisation of the whole structure may result.

8. Groups are defined as two or more people in reciprocal information with one another.

9. Institutions are "Crystallised mechanisms" -clearly defined ways in which society meets its needs-that have existed long enough to become embedded in the social structure. Examples of social institutions are government bodies, school systems, village council and religious systems.

10. Organisation are groups with special concerns and interest that have developed a structure involving specific roles for various members, and have a more or less formal set of rules and regulations for operation. An example is the village development organisation.

11. Communities and neighbourhoods are groups of people living within a contiguous geographic area, sharing common values and a feeling of belonging to the group, who come together in the common concerns of daily life. A society may include many communities and even more neighbourhoods (a smaller entity than the community characterized by much more frequent face to face contacts) a community can be a village or college campus. Hamlets are examples of neighbourhoods.

12.   Culture is the total way of life of people-their pattern of thoughts
      and behaviour-and constitutes the man made environment as
      opposed to the natural environment. Within this wide area called
      culture fit sub-concepts such as culture traits, the smallest
      component and unit of analysis. Cultural traits are the units which
      make up a culture. Examples of cultural traits in contemporary
      Nigerian Society are hoes, cutlasses, village residence and
      scattered settlements, various food, items; culture complex, the
      organization of culture traits around one dominant trait; culture
      area, the geographic area within which a common culture exists;
      and culture lag, the time difference between some technological
      change and the resulting change in culture.

13.   Social norms are techniques, folkways, mores and laws which are
      rules based on social values, that control and direct interpersonal
      relationships in society. Techniques are ways of doing things in
      which technical efficiency is the criterion of operation. *Folkways*
      are the socially acceptable ways of behaviour, the customary
      norms of society that do not imply moral sanction, e.g. good
      manners. *Mores* are the socially acceptable ways of behaviour
      that do involve moral standards; violation may result in severe
      social action such as ostracism. *Laws* are formalised norms with
      legal and /or political enforcement, such as acts and statutes of a
      nation or political state.

14.   Social role is the expected behaviour of one member of society in
      relation to others. A single person in society may play a number
      of roles such as father, teacher, citizen or rural sociologist. Some
      roles are temporary; others are more permanent; and some may
      conflict with others.

15.   Social stratification is the division of society into a series of
      levels indicating positions of individuals and groups in the value
      system existing in that society. Position in the social stratification
      levels denotes status of the group or individual. Individual and
      group behaviour in society is deeply influenced by stratification
      and status.

16.   Social processes are the interactions of groups and individuals
      with one another, and these may take four basic forms: a)
      competition, where the object is to out do another in achievement
      of a goal; b) conflict, where the object and goal is to "eliminate"
      the other; c) cooperation, where persons or groups unite efforts to
      achieve a common goal; and d) accommodation, where a

temporary or permanent termination of rival efforts occur and rival parties are able to function together.

17.   Leadership and patterns of influence are the networks of influence that weave through society, urban or rural and radiate from individuals and groups influential in decision making. These individuals and groups who serve from time to time in positions of leadership may often be difficult to identify, yet they are vital in decision making. Understanding of the patterns of influence, leadership, and power are invaluable in the analysis of the social situation.

18.   Religion is a system of belief in the supernatural power which distinguishes between right and wrong, and which provides answers to some of life's ultimate problems.

19.   Rural persons are those who live in the country or in towns of less than 2,500 populations in the United States of America or less than 3,000 populations in Nigeria.

20.   Urban people are those who live in towns with population of 2,500 and over in the United States of America, or 3,000 and over in Nigeria.

21.   Primary groups are small in size with face to face relationship of members and are informal in nature.

22.   Secondary groups are large in size, formal in nature and characterized by impersonal relationships among the members.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   What is rural sociology?
2.   List the four basic forms of social processes.

3.2   The Development of Rural Sociology

Rural sociology is the scientific study of the social behaviour of rural people. Rural sociology was established as sub-discipline towards the beginning of the twentieth century, primarily in the United States of America. Early beginnings of rural sociology date to at least 1908, when United States President T. Roosevelt appointed the County Life Commission. The President was influenced in his decision to set up the commission by Sir Horace Plunkett, who had observed the deterioration of rural life in Ireland and feared that if nothing were done about it the United States might face the same situation.

After the Second World War, rural sociology became established in European academic and research institutions. In most African countries rural sociology was introduced as an invention of western civilization during the colonial era, particularly in the British territories. It was not until the early 1960s that sociology was established as a component of higher education programmes in Africa. There are indications; however, that rural sociological research was conducted in many African countries as historical or anthropological studies long before sociology was established formally as a discipline in its own right.

Prior to 1960, when Nigeria became independent of British rule, no attempt was made to teach Rural sociology as a discipline in the only Nigeria University, the University of Ibadan, which was established in 1948. Although a Department of Agricultural Economics was established, rural sociology has been taught as a subject in the department since 1966. In 1968 when a department of Agricultural Extension services was created in that University, the teaching of rural sociology was transferred to the department.

The history of rural sociology during the last half century is impressive. From small beginnings and a few pioneers it has developed in status, academic importance, and practical utility to a full-fledge discipline which yields understanding of rural communities, groups, cultures, institutions and other forms of human association. Through scientific analytical study, it offers some solutions to social problems not only in the United States, but far beyond its borders to countries all over the world, particularly those in the process of development of their rural areas. The rural sociologist can now look to the world as his laboratory and his field for effective professional action.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   Early beginnings of rural sociology date to at least
        …………………when United States President T. Roosevelt
        appointed the …………………………………………..…….. 2.
Rural sociology has been taught as a subject at the Department of
        Agricultural Economics, University of Ibadan since
        ……………………….In ……………... when a department of
        Agricultural Extension services was created in that University,
        the teaching of rural sociology was transferred to the new
        department.

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit has introduced you to the basic concepts and development in rural sociology. Some of the basic concepts in this unit will be discussed at greater length in subsequent units.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are as follows:

1.   Rural sociology is the systematic study of rural life. It is the systematic body of knowledge which had resulted from the application of the scientific method to the study of the rural society, its organization, structure, social processes, basic social systems, institutions and dynamics.
2.   Other basic rural sociological concepts were also defined
3.   Rural sociology was established as a sub-discipline toward the beginning of the twentieth century (1908), primarily in the United States of America.
4.   Rural sociology has been taught as a subject in the Premier University in Nigeria (University of Ibadan) since 1966.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Define the following terms:

     a) Rural sociology   b) Social Processes   c) Social stratification
     d) Social role.

2.   Discuss the development of rural sociology.

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UNIT 2   SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit is a continuation of the rural sociology aspect of this course. It will introduce you to one of the basic sociological concepts briefly defined in the last unit-social stratification. We will now look at this concept in detail. The objectives below specify what you are expected to have learnt after studying this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· give some definitions of   social stratification
· identify the functions of stratification
· explain the dysfunctions of rural stratification.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Social Stratification

All societies exhibit some system of hierarchy whereby its members are place in position that are higher or lower, superior or inferior, in relation to each other. The term stratification is taken from the geologists who refer to different layers of soil or rock as stratum - the earth's surface consisting of various strata, each of which are district from certain criteria according to which they have been categorised. Each society hence constructs a vertical evaluative scale in terms of specific criteria considered important to it and places its population in various layers or strata at different classified levels on this scale - some in higher, others

in lower and still others various levels between the highest and lower strata. Those in the top stratum have more prestige, power, preferential treatment than those below and each succeeding stratum possesses less of these attributes than the one above.

There is thus a universal tendency for societies all over the world to evaluate differences that are socially significant among people, and that arise from cultural or biological variations. These variations are ranked on a scale involving differential value. Social status refers to social standing or position of an individual or group in relation to others as ranked by society in accordance with criteria which are considered of special worth or value by society. Thus in some societies occupation, income and wealth may be the important criteria that determine social status; in others, caste, creed, family name and background may be most important; in still others, education and ownership of material possessions may be the uppermost criteria. Whatever may be these socially defined criteria, they serve to place individuals and groups within some strata of society.

3.1.1 What is Social Stratification?

According to Lundberg, 1968 social stratification is the "division of a population into two or more layers, each of which is relatively homogenous and between which there are differences in priviledges, restrictions, rewards and obligations". Stratification involves rank differentiation and constitutes an order of ranking on the basis of relative position within the rating system operating in society. Each stratum of society is only relatively homogenous as distinct from other strata. Further priviledges and rewards enjoyed or restrictions imposed may or may not be related to needs of society. Social stratification has also been defined by Cuber, 1954 as "a pattern of superimposed categories of differential privilege". Three features of this definition need to be emphasized for greater comprehension: a) Social stratification is a socially accepted cultural pattern that assigns members of society a general position in the structure of society; b) Social stratification is superimposed by members of society by tradition and, without either the will or conscious knowledge of the majority; and c) Social stratification involves a system of differential privilege, unequal distribution of privileges, goods, power services, etc among members belonging to different social strata. According to Jibowo, 1992 stratification is the division of people into various classes. Social class in society is pyramid in which high classes take the topmost position and the lowest classes the base of the pyramid. Middle classes occupy intervening places on the pyramid between these two extreme levels of society. The social classes in the rural area are different from those in the urban area in the following ways:

1.   Social classes are fewer in the rural than in the urban area. This is because the opportunities available for rural dwellers to modify their social positions are limited.
2.   The lowest and highest social classes in the rural area are closer than in the urban area.
3.   Rural social class tends to be lower class.
4.   The caste system is not rigid in urban towns as much as in the rural areas or small towns of Hausa/Fulani dominated areas of Northern Nigeria. Among the Ibo, the caste system is minimal. The group referred to as "Osu" was being subjected to caste discrimination. The system is virtually non-existing among the Yoruba.

Social stratification emerges from interaction of members in society. When people in society interact with one another over a prolonged period of time they tend to compare and rank individuals and groups who differ from one another. Their relative worth is judged in terms of specific criteria. Roles are evolved, ascribed and evaluated differentially. Some roles are regarded more important, with greater esteem and social value than others, and individuals filling these roles thereby receive preferential treatment and greater reward than others. Groups thus ranked with some degree of permanence are said to be stratified. When society divides its population into a large number of such groups, a highly stratified society is the result.

3.1.2 Functions of Stratification

The following functions of stratification are identified:

1.   A means of accomplishing essential jobs in society. Stratification in society constitutes a means of society's getting some of its essential jobs done by distributing different amounts of prestige and privilege to various strata. An army is an example of stratification with clearly defined strata, each marked with visible symbol denoting rank, specific roles and role expectations, norms and prescribed standards of behaviour and inter-relationship-all clearly organised to do a job. Armies are within the structure of society and societies as a whole are also stratified although more often with less clarity and demarcation between various strata than in the army. As society moves from the primitive, with little differentiation except on such bases as sex and age, toward greater size and, with technological advances, greater complexity, its system of distributing privileges, prestige and rewards and punishment becomes increasingly elaborate. The rewards society gives serve as incentives to get the various essential jobs accomplished; hence, rewards must be commensurate with the

job to be done or at least adequate to attract individuals to do the job. These rewards may be economic, aesthetic or symbolic and give material and/or psychological satisfactions.

2.   Regulation and control of individual and group relationships and participation. Stratification regulates and controls human relationships in society. Prescribed roles and role expectation, norms and standards of behaviour are involved in relationships within each stratum and in interstratum relationships. Stratification tends to regulate participation of groups and individuals in the total life of society, giving them access to certain areas and restricting them to others. Inequality of opportunity or non availability of facilities gives advantages to those in higher strata and deprives those belonging to lower strata thus, regulating participation.

3.   Contribution to social integration and structure. Stratification in society has a strong integrative function, serving to co-ordinate and harmonise units within the social structure. Stratification further serves to influence the functions of various units of social strata. Each may develop its own voluntary organizations to serve recreational (and some other) needs, the nature of such organizations varying from stratum to stratum. Thus members of a particular stratum will have clubs, teams and perhaps a recreational centre distinct from those of other strata in society.

4.   Simplification. Stratification of society categorises people into different strata, thus simplifying man's world in respect to his relations with other people. While within primary groups it is no problem to know how one should behave toward other individuals because of intimate knowledge of each other, to know how to react in various situations involving several people outside of primary groups is extremely difficult without such classification. For example, the criterion of age as an identification of adulthood, while not always valid in specific instances, does serve as a desired purpose when dealing with the entire population. There is hence practical justification in the practice of categorizing of people and responding to each category differently, but responding identically to all persons within a category.

3.1.3 Dysfunctions of Social Stratification

Several dysfunctional effects of social stratification have been identified. They are as follows:

1. Status and role in stratified society carry with there duties, rights and expectations. It has been observed that the individuals who have been accorded status and roles by nature of their placement in various strata in society often lack the capabilities and competence necessary to effectively fill these roles and perform the expected functions. Since others who may be competent and capable of filling such roles are not ascribed these roles because of the stratification system that precludes them, the net result is wastage of social resources.

2. Essential roles of society are sometimes neglected or made subordinate when status is ascribed, not to them, but to some other roles that are less important to the essential interests of society. Essential effort and resources are thus diverted to functions that are of less social importance. The elaborate and somewhat ostentatious observance of feasting by certain stratified groups may neglect their high status, but contributes little and is functionally unimportant to effective performance of prescribed roles.

3. Social stratification may "set the stage" for interstratum rivalry and conflict. Such conflict may take various forms but in general results from an upthrust from lower strata to share equal rights with the upper strata and a downthrust from upper-strata to keep lower-strata in their place. Such conflict frequently occurs when stratification systems are weakening, or in the process of disintegration being subjected to a variety of influential forces within society such as new ideologies, pressure groups, collective frustration of lower strata, and/or political and other interest groups. Example, is the racial conflicts in the U.S.A., South Africa and countries newly independent or immediately prior to achievement of independence from colonialism.

4. Stratification may be linked with various types of deviant behaviour. A stratification system involves ascribing of roles to individuals and enforcement of conformity according to roles, expectations and prescribed norms and standards of behaviour. For some, particularly members of lower strata of society who have less rights and privileges than those belonging to higher strata, conformity is difficult. They therefore deviate from normative behaviour and may even withdraw from society to

become vagabonds, drugs addicts, drunkards; seek devious means to avoid normal social behaviour; resort to crime, or rebel in some way or other.

5.   Concentration of power by controlling a lower class group may result in the monopoly of the assets of society for personal gain and benefit at the expense of the dominated class. Thus a privileged few may prosper while the lower classes are deprived. Such inequitable distributions of power usually sow seeds of revolutions, which often has been the only way to destroy such imbalances.

6.   Each class tends to develop its own sub-culture, which may or may not fit into the cultural whole of society. In some cases where stratification is rigid, social integration is impeded and inter-communication between various strata may be difficult, concern for the whole may be lacking as each stratum tends to function as a sub-culture.

7.   Unless a member of a lower class is supported by a basic philosophy that explains his position in society and enables him to adjust to it, his personality will be adversely effected as will his own perception of himself as a "nobody" and one who does not count. Stratification in society can hence impede normal development of personality of members of lower classes so that realization of potential is never achieved.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   Define social stratification according to Lundberg.
2.   List the functions of stratification.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have learnt about social stratification, its functions and dysfunctions. The dysfunctions of stratification can lead to the breakdown of law and order in our society.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit include the following:

1.   Social stratification according to Lundberg is the "division of a population into two or more layers, each of which is relatively homogeneous and between which there are differences in privileges, restrictions, rewards and obligations".

2.   Social stratification has also been defined by cuber, as "a pattern
       of superimposed categories of differential privilege".
3.   According to Jibowo, stratification is the division of people into
       various classes.
4.   The following functions of stratification are identified:
       a)   A means of accomplishing essential jobs in society
       b)   Regulation and control of individual and group
              relationships and
              Participation
       c)   Contribution to social integration and structure
       d)   Simplification.
5.   Dysfunctions of stratification may lead to the breakdown of law
       and order in the society.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   Social stratification according to Lundberg is the "division of a
       population into two or more layers, each of which is relatively
       homogenous and between which there are differences in
       privileges, restrictions, rewards and obligations.
2.   a)   A means of accomplishing essential jobs in society
       b)   Regulation and control of individual and group
              relationships and participation
       c)   Contribution to social integration and structure
       d)   Simplification.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Give the various definitions of social stratification.
2.   Explain the functions of stratification.
3.   Discuss the dysfunctions of social stratification.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   SOCIAL PROCESSES IN RURAL SOCIETY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In unit 2, we discussed social stratification, its functions and
dysfunctions. Social processes in rural society will be discussed in this
unit. Here, you will read about the major basic social processes which
comprise: competition, conflict, cooperation, accommodation,
assimilation and acculturation. After studying this unit, you are expected
to have achieved the objectives listed below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· discuss briefly the two forms of opposition namely competition and
    conflict
· write explanatory note on the term "Cooperation" ·
outline vividly what is accommodation
· explain assimilation and acculturation.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Social Processes

Interaction among the people of a society occurs within the structure of
society in certain specific forms, referred to as social processes. Social
interaction is, "society in action" and has been defined as the "dynamic

interplay of forces in which contact between persons and groups result in a modification of the attitude and behaviour of the participants" (Suntherland, 1961). Social interaction which assumes a repetitive pattern in a specific direction becomes a social process. Social processes then refer to "repetitive forms of behaviour which are commonly found in social life".

The interaction of people in the rural area is within the context of some dynamic processes. Sometimes the rural people join hands to accomplish some tasks such as digging of a community source of water through cooperation. The few community members who are hereby deprived of their usual source of water for irrigating their farm might disagree with others on this proposal. Their resistance might lead to open hostility or conflict. Farmers who successfully grow their dry season vegetables by obtaining irrigation water from other sources than that used by the community might attract the same group of customers to buy their products through the process of competition. When some cultures coexist in a society through mutual adoption, they are able to do this through the process of accommodation. One culture may absorb the other through assimilation. When two cultures are blended, the process involved is acculturation. It is therefore important that a student of the rural society should understand how these and other rural social processes are operating.

3.1.1 Competition

Opposition and cooperation are two important social processes. Opposition is the struggle of one against the other in the attempt to achieve something good, while cooperation is the unification of the efforts of one with the other in the attempt to attain a goal. Two forms of opposition are distinguishable, namely competition and conflict. The two processes differ in the following ways:

1.   Competition is continuous, taking place in all places and situations where living organizations exist; conflict is intermittent arising in crisis situations;
2.   Competition is opposition without personal contact and attack; conflict frequently involves contact and attack.
3.   Competition is often unconscious; conflict is a conscious interaction;
4.   Competition does not injure the opponent directly or necessarily change his status; conflict could result in both.
5.   Competition often proceeds with a high degree of orderliness conflict is characterized by pronounced disorderliness.

Competition is the social process or form of social interaction in which two or more individual or groups strive against each other for the possession or use of some material or non-material good. The focus is primarily on the achievement of the objective desired by both and secondarily on each other. The goal or objective by its nature, quality or quantity may be such that only one can achieve, or secure it, making the competition more intense.

According to Horton, 1964 competition is the struggle for possession of material and /or non-material items that are in limited supply and has been defined as "the process of seeking to monopolize a reward by surpassing all rival". There is competition in nature among plants and animals, and "survival of the fittest" is based on competition for commodities that are in short supply. Those commodities may be material such as money, land, residences, or non-material as those that have prestige value, or give status and power, such as the executive position in government or industry, national champion, Member of Parliament or office bearer of a leading political party, etc.

Forms of Competition. Several sub-types of competition have been identified. Some of the more important are as follows:

1.   Absolute and Relative competition. Absolute competition exists when the goal is such that it can be achieved or secured by one competitor only at a time, and he is declared the victor. There is hence only one Olympic victor, one person who can be elected president of a country. All other competitors must be eliminated before one can claim victory. Relative competitions, on the other hand, are based on the degree to which a goal or objective may be achieved by competitors, there is thus competition for money, for other forms of wealth or for prestige, yet competitors do not expect to achieve all the money, wealth or prestige, but do strive to outdo others in securing more of these commodities.

2.   Personal and Impersonal Competition. In personal competition the focus or attention of each competitor is on other competitors whom he strives to eliminate as well as on the goal. Such personal competition often approaches conflict with rather a narrow dividing line. Impersonal competition, on the other hand, has no personal focus on individual rivals, striving instead to reach a goal rather than to defeat an opponent. For example, in a labour-management dispute, each side competes over wage-labour seeking the maximum and managing the minimum.

Functions of Competition

1. It constitutes one way in which limited commodities in society are allocated, along with such methods as distribution on basis of urgency or need or rationing on the basis of available supply and number of individuals involved.
2. Competition serves to mould the attitudes of competitors in a particular way. Normally unfriendly and unfavourable attitudes towards one another develop when individuals or groups compete
3. It serves as a means of maximum stimulation of individuals and groups. Provided it is culturally accepted and encouraged, competition can serve effectively to increase productivity in business, in industry and in agriculture.

Limitations of Competition

1. People may decide not to operate on a competitive basis and, instead operate by fixing work quotas, enforce promotion through seniority of service and use other means that enable them to avoid the rigours, tension and insecurity involved in competition.
2. People who regularly face defeat in competition may simple withdraw from it; although the frequent winner in competition may be encouraged and stimulated.
3. Competition serves to stimulate in only some kinds of activity, where the quantity of output is of great importance and the tasks are relatively routine ad uncomplicated.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. What is competition?
2. The forms of competition are (a)………………… (b) …………….. (c)………………. (d)………………………

3.1.2 Conflict

Conflict refers to the struggle in which competing partners, attempting to reach a goal, strive to eliminate an opponent by making the other party ineffectual or by annihilation. Victory is at expense of the opposing party. Conflict has been defined as "the process of seeking to monopolise rewards by eliminating or weakening the competitors" (Horton, 1964).

Social conflict takes many forms in rural areas. These are:

1. Pasteural-agricultural conflict
2. Town-country conflict

3.   Class struggle
4.   Inter-family and inter-clan conflict
5.   Conflict over wages
6.   Conflict over land, and
7.   Person-to-person common conflict

The differences between conflict and competition lies chiefly in the focus and manner of achieving the goal. In competition the primary focus is the goal, and interaction is according to culturally defined rules of behaviour and procedure. In conflict, the focus is on the annihilation or incapacitation of the opponent, so that the way is cleared for achieving of the goal.

There are several aspects of the process of conflict that serve to clarify the concept:

1.   Conflict can be of two types, personal or individual, and corporate or group.
2.   Conflict tends to be more intense when individuals and groups who have close relationships with one another are involved.
3.   Conflict is cumulative; each act of aggression usually promotes a more aggressive rebuttal.
4.   Groups previously in conflict may corporate to achieve a goal considered important enough for them to unite despite their differences.
5.   The source of conflict may not be easily identifiable
6.   Some societies provide "safety valves" or outlets for pent up emotions, in form of celebrations, festivals or organizations which have facilities for this purpose
7.   Conflict emerges as a result of opposing interests.
8.   Conflict has been described as a temporary form of social interaction which gives way to some form of accommodation, another form of social interaction (this will discussed in detail later in this unit).
9.   Conflict has both disintegrative and integrative effects
        The antagonistic state of affairs produced by conflict is impermanent, however, and cessation of hostilities usually occurs by means of one of two social processes of interaction, accommodation and assimilation.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   Define conflict.
2.   List the forms of social conflict.

3.1.3 Cooperation

Cooperation means working together toward common objectives or goals. The word is derived from two Latin words-"Co", meaning together and "operate", meaning to work. Thus, where two or more individuals or groups work or act together jointly in pursuit of a common objective, there is co-operation.

Cooperation may be brought about by several motivating factors and by situations involving such factors. The more important have been identified and listed as follows:

1.   Personal gain
2.   Common motives
3.   Situational necessity
5.   Achievements of goals of greater values

Forms of cooperation: The forms of cooperation are as follows:

1.   Cooperation that results from loyalty or adherence to the same objective
2.   "Antagonistic   Cooperation", often occurring in labour disputes when management and labour agree to discuss differences
3.   Cooperation that results from mutual dependence
4.   Cooperation that results from efforts to compete with others in order to achieve the goal before them
5.   Cooperation that is enforced as a result of subordination
6.   In addition to the above there are three other types of cooperation, based on differences in group attitudes and group organizations.

a)   Primary Cooperation: The group and individual fuse so that the group engulfs all or nearly all of the individual's life. An example of such cooperation is the daily routine of life in a monastery, where cooperation is itself considered a value.
b)   Secondary Cooperation: Such cooperation, characteristic of modern western society, is highly formalized and specialized and occupies only part of an individual's life. Examples of such secondary cooperation are a business office, an industrial concern or a factory.
c)   Tertiary Cooperation: Tertiary cooperation is insecure because of latent conflict underlying it. Common means of achieving separate goals by two antagonistic parties are involved. Thus, two otherwise antagonistic political parties may cooperate to oppose a

third party. Once the party is defeated their cooperation may cease.

Whatever may be the type or form, cooperation is goal oriented, and is the most pervasive and continuous of the social processes. It surrounds man, often in ways of which he is not aware, exerting its influence on his everyday behaviour in relation to others in society.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. What is cooperation?
2. List the factors that can bring about cooperation.

3.1.4 Accommodation

Accommodation is the adjustment by a person or group to a conflict or threat, resulting in the recognition and acceptance of the relations which define the status of a person or persons in the group or a larger social organization. According to Horton, 1964 accommodation is "a process of developing temporary working agreements between conflicting individuals or group". The conflicting parties arrange for alternatives to conflict to bring about termination of hostilities or conflicting relationship and to enable some form of cooperation.

Thus, accommodation may be viewed both as a process of social interaction as well as the result of social interaction, and it is one of the important and inevitable outcomes of a social situation of competition or conflict. Accommodation, then refers to "permanent or temporary termination of rivalrous parties to function together without open hostility at least in some respect". (Cuber, 1968).

Forms of Accommodation. Accommodation may be achieved in various ways and take several forms. The more important of these are as follows:

1. **Compromise**. In a compromise, each antagonistic party agrees to make concessions that allow them to reach an agreement. This "give and take" continues until all parties are satisfied.

2. **Conversion:** In this form of accommodation, one of the interacting parties accepts and adopts the views of the other. Conversion is frequently related to religious beliefs. Those who accept and adopt the religious beliefs and views of others are referred to as converts.

3. **Tolerance:** In this form of accommodation, interacting parties agree to disagree. Each party holds its own position, but respect

the fact that the other party has an opposing view point. They
"tolerate" each other, despite the fact that the basic issue is not
eliminated.

4.   **Arbitration.** When contending parties do not settle differences
      among themselves, arbitration is frequently employed - the
      problem is submitted to a mutually agreeable third party who acts
      as a mediator, capable of studying the issue objectively.
      Arbitration may be formal, such as in a court of law, and conflict
      may be terminated on the basis of the court decision. However
      informal arbitration using an objective person is usually sought.

5.   **Truce.** A truce is an agreement to cease rivalrous interaction for
      a definite or indefinite period of time. The purpose is usually to
      give both parties time to review the issue in the light of proposals
      or suggestions for settlement.

6.   **Subordination and Super Ordination.** Subordination as a form
      of accommodation serves to structure relationships between a
      victor and the conquered at the end of a conflict. Temporary
      subordination - super ordination arrangements may in some cases
      operate as a form of accommodation. If one party achieves
      advantages which make its ultimate victory inevitable, an
      arrangement similar to compromise - differing in that order may
      be agreed upon.

7.   **Displacement.** Displacement involves termination of one conflict
      by replacing it with another. Use of a "scape goat" is a
      displacement techniques; the problems of a nation or a village
      may be blamed on an individual, on a minority or on
      "imperialists" or "colonial policy", etc.

8.   **Institutionalised "Safety Valves for Release of Hostility".** The
      structure of various societies may provide institutionalized means
      of release of tensions, which may serve as a form of
      accommodation in bringing about termination of antagonistic
      relationships. Community sports, wrestling and other
      amusements, special feast days, religious and other festivals at
      various times of the year are examples. While having their own
      objectives, these events may also serve to provide catharsis for
      antagonistic feelings and to release tension, thus easing pressures
      that lead to conflict.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

1.   Define accommodation.

2.   Differentiate between compromise and Conversion.

3.1.5 Assimilation

Assimilation has been referred to as the fusing or blending process, whereby cultural differences tend to disappear and individuals and group once dissimilar become similar. Assimilation implies complete merging of divergent cultural groups within a society and has been defined as "a process of mutual cultural diffusion through which persons and groups become culturally alike" (Horton, 1964).

The process takes place when two different cultures meet, with the dominant culture assimilating the other. Thus, immigrants to the United States of America from different cultures of the world undergo assimilation into the American culture as they get increasingly "Americanized".

Retarding and Conducive Factors of Assimilation. Various factors both facilitate and retard the process of assimilation. They are as follows:

1.   **Retarding Factors**

a)   Extreme differences in cultural background: When two cultures
        share many common elements, assimilation is accelerated; the
        absence of such factors acts as a barrier to the process.

b)   Prejudice: Stereotypes and ethnocentrism both can operate as
        barriers to assimilation. Prejudgement by the dominant group of
        the other cultural group or individual can result in prejudices that
        form serious impediment to assimilation.

c)   Physical differences: Discrimination on the basis of physical
        differences presents a formidable barrier to assimilation. Physical
        differences are extremely visible and can be eliminated by
        generations of intermarriage between the cultural groups
        concerned. When physical differences arise as a barrier, cultures
        may live together in a symbiotic relationship.

2.   **Conducive Factors:** Assimilation is accelerated by the absence
        of the above retarding factors and the presence of all such
        conditions and factors that favour and facilitate contact and
        participation by individuals and groups in common social ands
        cultural life in society (Sutherland, 1961).

Forms of Assimilation: Different kinds of assimilation have been identified, but three kinds are listed as follows:

1.   A socialized individual in one culture may later move to another
        culture. In course of time he becomes assimilated into this second
        culture.

2.   Two cultures merge into a third culture which, while somewhat
        distinct, has features of both merging cultures. Examples, rural
        and urban cultures which are radically different in western and
        developing countries are, with rapidly increasing communication,
        merging as differences continue to disappear although they still
        exist.

3.   In small groups - even in the family between husband and wife -
        assimilation may bring about a similarity of behaviour. The
        tendency is to conform to the others behaviour pattern and
        differences in time may largely disappear.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5

1.   What is assimilation?
2.   What are the retarding factors to assimilation?

3.1.6 Acculturation

Closely related to the sociological concepts of assimilation and
accommodation is the concept of acculturation, referring to the changes
in culture that results from continued contact between two cultures. This
is the acquisition of new cultural traits by individuals or groups and
utilization of these in their new patterns of living.

Acculturation refers specifically to changes in their culture   -   their
behaviour (knowledge, attitudes, and skills). Thus before assimilation
between groups occurs, acculturation must take place. It does not
follow; however, that acculturation invariably leads to assimilation.
Acculturation does not imply movement toward a completed process or
condition, or that individuals will move toward acceptance of each
other. Both implications do exist in assimilation. Acculturation, infact,
may be in process when groups are in conflicts,   each learning from the
other. Cultural changes in turn may give rise to the need for
accommodation involving readjustment of relationships of affected
groups, rather than assimilation

Acculturation has no biological connotation included in it. Whereas, to
some sociologists, assimilation involves some biological mixing of a
people with his new culture. Introduction and diffusion of new
agricultural technologies is a form of acculturation in many societies,

because it involves blending the culture of the country from where the technology was developed with that of the recipient society, in relation to the specific farm practice. For instance, the introduction of the hybrid maize into Nigeria through the Institute of Tropical Agriculture, IITA is expected to have a widespread impact in maize production culture in Nigeria. The techniques of producing this maize is expected to influence the cutlass-hoe system of maize production by many farmers in the country.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 6

1.   Define acculturation.
2.   Distinguish between acculturation and assimilation.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learnt about social processes in rural society. Six social processes of interaction have been discussed in their various aspects. These include competition, conflict, cooperation, accommodation, assimilation and acculturation. It is important to recognize that in actual situations, social interaction does not manifest itself in well defined forms, but in a mixture of various forms or social processes, so that the same situation may include competition as well as cooperation.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are as follows:

1.   Interaction among the people of a society occurs within the structure of society in specific forms referred to as social processes
2.   Opposition is the struggle of one against the other in the attempt to achieve something good. Two forms of opposition are distinguishable, namely, competition and conflict.
3.   Cooperation is the unification of the efforts of one with the other in the attempt to attain a goal.
4.   Accommodation is the adjustment by a person or group to a conflict or threat, resulting in the recognition and acceptance of the relations which define the status of a person or persons in the group or a large social organization.
5.   Assimilation implies complete merging of divergent cultural groups
6.   Acculturation is the acquisition of new cultural traits by individuals and groups and utilization of these in their new patterns of living.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Write explanatory notes on:

a)   Competition
b)   Conflict

2.   Discuss the term "Cooperation".
3.   Explain the following in detail:

a)   Accommodation
b)   Assimilation
c)   Acculturation

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4   RURAL SOCIAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

One invariant in the life of all living and non-living things is change. When it takes place in the lives of interacting human beings, it is termed social change. Social change occurs in all societies, slow, perhaps, in primitive and folk societies and rapid in complex modern societies. This topic-rural social change is the topic of discussion for this unit. The objectives below specify what you are expected to have learnt after studying this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· explain vividly the term "social change"
· discuss the types of rural social change
· outline briefly the barriers to social change.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Social Change

Social change involves a change in the structure or function of societal forms. Social interaction, involving social processes in society, takes place in accordance with existing norms and values in organisations, institutions and other societal forms without alteration in these societal forms and within their framework. Social change, however, involves alteration in the structure and functioning of these values, norms, social roles, habits, obligations of people, or change in lifestyle, life goals, chances, environment or in the composition or organization of their

society. When it is viewed within the rural setting, it is termed rural social change. The fact is that changes take place in the rural, sub-urban and urban areas. Change could be in all attributes of a societal unit such as in number, quality and importance. It could be introduced from internal or external sources to the society or both. It could be planned, when it is more effective and predictable, or unplanned. It could be by force, when it is quick with early gains but not enduring, or voluntary, when it is slow but enduring. It could be total, when it is comprehensive or segmental when it affects a part of the system.

3.1.1 Types of Rural Social Change

Many types of social change are noticeable in the lives of the rural population of the developing countries such as Nigeria. The various types of such changes are as follows:

1.   Economic change: Rural areas of the developing world had undergone some degree of economic change particularly during the post-independence era. In Nigeria for example, with the increased exploitation of petroleum resources, salaries have increased by more than 1,000 percent in government establishments over the past three decades. A greater number of roads have been constructed to link rural with urban areas. Some dual carriage express ways have been constructed in the economically active parts of the country to link goods from the rural areas and major cities to the sea for export. It must be admitted that changes in the processing, storage and distribution of economic goods have been rather slow. Storage of agricultural products such as maize, cowpeas and rice is still largely in bags, bottles, guards, bare floor and ceilings of buildings. The practice of storing in cribs is fairly satisfactory, while the use of silo for grain storage or refrigeration for preserving fresh fruits, fish and vegetables is becoming a common feature.

2.   Political change: This is the change in the distribution and operation of social and political power. Democratically elected governments are now common in the less developed countries of the world. For example in Nigeria, a democratic government had been in place since 1999. Although when elections are held, there is constant accusation of rigging by the competing political parties. The law enforcement agencies are frequently accused of supporting one political party or the other. The people therefore place little confidence in the electoral process of choosing political leaders, yet they have frequently failed to come up with a more acceptable formula.

Changes in the political organization through change in personnel running the political system could be advantageous if enough time is given each good government to fulfil its promises. Political change has the following advantages:

(a)   A government which is not responsive to the aspirations of the people can be changed

(b)   Politicians who have outlived the peak of their effectiveness can be changed

(c)   A tyrannical government can be changed

(d)   People with better qualifications and greater enthusiasm to serve can be given the chance to serve, and

(e)   Political power can be distributed among the various social groups in a country. The impact of political change is therefore witnessed in both rural and urban sectors of a country.

(3)   Technological change: This is the continuous process of change within the technical materials and physical practices and objects in a society. The early man started by making use of stones to produce fire and to hunt animals. Today technology change has resulted in using matches to prepare fire and guns to hunt animals.

Perhaps the most striking technological change in the rural areas has been in the area of farming. The changes have taken place in the physical, biological and cultural dimensions of agriculture. Within the physical sphere, the early man used sharp sticks to dig the ground for utilization. Technological change in   many less developed countries have resulted in the use of hoes and cutlasses for cultivation. The use of tractor and its attachments such as trailers for haulage of farm produce and inputs, ploughs, harrows and ridges, is more popular in the developed than less developed countries of the world due to the following reasons:

a)   Lack of spare parts to repair broken down machines

b)   Inadequate number of mechanics to repair the broken down vehicles

c)   Inadequate number of operators to handle the machines

d)   Inadequate observance of maintenance schedules

e)   Poor adaptability of tools to soil types.

f)   The costs of the machines are too high for the small scale farmers to afford. However large government company or private farms have used tractors and their attachments to their benefits over the years.

In the biological sphere of technological social change, improved varieties of crops and breeds of livestock have been introduced to farmers. The Ife Brown cowpeas which is upright with bunches of pods and more erect growth allow easier harvesting and more convenient cultural operations such as weeding than the spreading variety which it replaced.

In the chemical sphere, technological social change includes introduction of fertilizers to enrich poor soils and consequently crop yield, introduction of pest and disease control chemicals and others.

Technology change has taken place in other sectors of rural life apart from agriculture. Use of vehicles has largely replaced trekking from villages to the town or market. Widespread use of radio provides entertainment and current affairs programme. Kerosine stoves have replaced firewood for providing cooking fire in some homes. Corrugated iron sheets roofing has replaced thatched roofs. Technological change therefore takes place in all parts of the rural community, namely the farm, home and community.

4.   Cultural change: Culture consists of material and non-material aspects. Cultural change is therefore alterations in the non-material and artifacts of the society. The material aspect of cultural changes is mainly technical. Examples are use of aluminium cooking pots instead of clay pots, use of metal eating plates and utensils instead of clay plates and wooden utensils etc.

The change in non-material aspects of culture are also numerous. If the institution of the rural family is considered as social system in terms of its elements ands processes, the cultural changes which had taken place can be elucidated with some examples. The objective of a typical rural family, in many parts of Nigeria particularly in the South, has shifted from marrying for their children and settling them in farming to assisting them to acquire formal education, or at least undergo technical apprenticeship training and then settle to profitable employment. The norm of not calling elders by name still persists as a reflection of the value of respect for age which is universally resistant to change etc.

5.   Behavioural change: This includes favourable change in the knowledge, skill and attitude of people as a result of their exposures to educational experiences. Residents of rural areas are exposed to information which had led to acquisition of better knowledge, skill and attitude in the economic and social spheres.

Agriculture is the major occupation of rural people. Improvements in knowledge of crop and livestock pest and disease control measures, higher yielding crop varieties, better spacing of crops, weeding, cultivation, harvesting, processing, storage and marketing operations had taken place. The skill to practice such knowledge is also taught largely by agricultural extension workers through the method demonstration technique. In Nigeria educational change had resulted from increase in number of schools in the rural areas, and change in the system of education to 6-3-3-4.

6.   Changes in the use of leisure through recreation: One social sector which had witnessed a noticeable social change in rural areas of Nigeria had been in the use of leisure through the recreational sector. In many parts of the country, particularly in the urban areas, parks, flower gardens, swimming pools and zoological gardens for animals have been established as holiday resort for the citizens. Some games reserves have been established in rural areas. However, rural entertainments which made the village life enjoyable such as hide and seek game during the full moon, competitive wrestling, routine and competitive swimming, some village band sets have virtually disappeared. These recreational opportunities should be modernized to contribute to the quality of rural life, rather than allow them to die.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   What is social change?
2.   List the various types of rural change

3.1.2 Barriers to Rural Social Change

The main barriers to rural change are mainly cultural, social and psychological.

1.   Cultural Barriers to change: The values and attitudes of a culture - as embodied in its tradition - determine how receptive it is to change. Some cultures view change with scepticism; others with excitement. Conservative forces within the rural community can be identified with the latter. Some rural communities are fatalistic in their approach to nature and the social environment; other rural communities may have a tradition of striving to conquer nature and the social environment. Fatalistic attitudes are sometimes intimately linked with a people's religious beliefs.

Some cultures may reject innovations because of their belief in their relative cultural superiority (cultural ethnocentricity). Science and technology - the principles of which are in any case universal - can be compared across cultures. It is however difficult to cross-culturally compare social forms, values, institutions, etc.

In many rural communities, new programmes have failed because they did not synchronise with accepted and well defined roles in society. Sometimes innovation programmes are grounded because relative values are not sufficiently taken into account. In the case of new varieties of maize in Western Nigeria and New Mexico the quality factor turned out to be very important. In the trade-off between quality and quantity of maize, strong preferences was revealed for taste at the expense of quantity from increased yields of the new variety.

Another cultural barrier to change occurs when demands of innovations are inconsistent with established cultural traits and values. In some Buddhist countries for instance, the religious sanction against the taking of life in any form interferes seriously with pest control programmes that rely on the use of insecticides. Sometimes such incompatibilities can be ingeniously rationalized so that the innovations can win acceptance.

2.   Social Barriers to Change: There are four main factors here. First, we must recognize the primacy of some key social units in many cultures: the family, the kinship, the friendship group, the old school-tie group, etc. Within these groups, there are mutual obligations and reciprocal relationships. The related demands of group loyalties are frequently inconsistent with the demand of industrialization and the progressive individualization of values that usually accompanies it. One such area is the potential conflict between private initiative or reward and social obligations: higher income earning opportunities may be rejected because members of one's social group feel entitled to a share of the incremental income.

Second, the rural community may be traditionally split into factions. Attitudes to genuinely useful innovations come to be defined in terms of the roles of leaders and members of the factions in the promotion of the package. General adoption by most of a given rural community is impeded by factional divisions within the community. The unwary extension agent in an attempt to develop hospitality gets entangled in the factional politics and if he is not adept enough he might have the

innovation programme grounded from the start. Sometimes such factions are along economic lines especially when there are vested interests. Distributors and merchants may oppose the introduction of consumer's cooperatives while money lenders may oppose low-interest rate credit programmes while herbalist may oppose modern health-care programmes.

The third problem has to do with locating the centres of authority within the rural community as these relate to decision making as to whether or not to adopt a particular innovation package.

The fourth problem arises from the presence of rigid social classes, a problem that is particularly serious in India and other South East Asian countries. The rigid class differentiation (e.g. caste system) inhibits the free flow of ideas across all strata of society, more so where the distribution of political power is also along class lines. Such rigidities also exist within the bureaucracies of many Ministry of Agriculture and Extension as subordinates are really not encouraged to criticize their superiors: this seriously obstruct the feedback mechanism of the communication network as field problems do not adequately get relayed to superiors and superior consequently possess incomplete information about the actual field situation.

3.   Psychological Barriers to Change: There are three main problems here. First is the problem of differential interpretation and/or perception of an innovation. An innovation may be viewed by the rural community in a completely different light from that viewed by the extension agent.

The second main psychological problem has to do with communication difficulties. This is particularly serious in the multi-ethnic societies of Africa. In most of these countries, extension ministries promote most of the new Agricultural programmes. Where extension personnel do not speak the local language properly, effective communication between agents of change and recipients of change breaks down.

The third and last main problem in this area has to do with learning problem themselves. Under what conditions will rural people successfully learn to adopt change? First, the learner must have no resource constraints to learning. Second, there must be an opportunity for the learner to experiment initially without any undue financial commitment. Third, the agent of change - the teacher must be continuously physically present especially during the "learning process". If it is a new agricultural programme such

as the promotion of fertilizer use, then the Field Overseers, Agricultural Assistants and other extension men must be continuously present during the planting season to advise farmers on application rates, etc.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   What is cultural ethnocentricity?
2.   List the barriers to rural change.

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit has discussed the types and barriers to rural social change. The various types of social change described earlier on, namely economic, political, technological, cultural, behavioural and use of leisure changes are closely inter-related. Some operate as causes, some operate as consequences of others. Although the impact of one type of change may be largely felt by a society at a time, more than one type of social change take place at any given period in the life of a society.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are as follows:

1.   Social change involves a change in the structure or function of societal forms
2.   The types of rural social change include: economic, political, technological, cultural, behavioural and use of leisure changes
3.   The main barriers to rural change are as follows:
      cultural, social and psychological.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Discuss the various types of rural social change
2.   Write explanatory notes on the barriers to change

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UNIT 5   THEORIES OF SOCIAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Theories of Social Change
              3.1.1 Theories of Causation
              3.1.2 Theories of Process
              3.1.3 Theories of Functional Analysis
              3.1.4 Modernization theory
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit is a continuation of unit 4. In this unit we are going to learn about the various theories of social change. After studying this unit, you are expected to have achieved the objectives listed below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

· discuss the theories of causation
· outline briefly the theories of process
· write short note on the theories of functional analysis ·
explain, vividly, the modernization theory.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Theories of Social Change

"Theory" has been described by Homans, (1950) as the form in which the results of observation may be expressed. It is thus a generalized conceptualization, a body of logically interdependent generalized concepts with empirical reference (Parsons, 1954). Parsons has identified two functions of theory, description and analysis. Analysis involves causal explanation and the generation of general laws.

Social thinkers have from antiquity formulated broad theories of social change. Among early theories are those that base change on divine determination, holding that changes occur in the social world on the

basis of man's obedience or disobedience to the will of God. Man was blessed for good deeds and punished for his ill deeds and changes for improvement or deterioration of his lot in his social world accordingly took place through divine determination. Early Greek social philosophers explained change as development from the original nature of man; man was considered social by nature and changes evolved because of such nature. Others felt that man, while born good as a creation of God, degenerates by his own actions. Thus change was conceived as a departure or development of man from his original nature.

Social change through a series of developmental stages, theological, metaphysical and positive, was the theory of August Comte, the father of sociology. Darwin's theory of biological evolution influenced the thinking of sociologists, like Gumplowicz, Ward, Sumner, Keller and Ratzenhoffer, who applied such thinking to social change. The various explanations of social change may be classified as belonging to theories of causation, theories of process or theories of functional analysis.

3.1.1 Theories of Causation

These major theories can be grouped on the basis of four factors:

1.   Geographic determinism
2.   Biological determinism
3.   Economic determinism
4.   Cultural determinism

Theories that explain social change in terms of some feature or features of the natural environment constitute theories based on geographic determinism. Arnold Toynbee and Ellswooth Huntington are among the leading exponents of such theories. Theories that explain social change on the basis of traits or characteristics of the human organism are referred to as biological determinism. Included in such theories are those contained in doctrines of racial superiority and inferiority. Such theories generally were popularized by writers, and Adolf Hitler followed this theory in his book "Mein kampf". Theories that consider economic factors such as production, demand and supply as the bases of social change are referred to as economic determinism. Cultural determinism refers to theories that seek to explain social change as a result of some element or elements of cultural heritage. Max Weber and Williams, F. Ogburn are two sociologists who have expended theories based on cultural determinism.

While contributing much to early understanding of social change, these four single factor theories are now largely without support.

3.1.2 Theories of Process

These theories of social change have been classified into:

1.   Linear theories conceive of social change as an unfolding line.
        The concept of evolution is the basic influence in the formulation
        of the linear theory. August Comte, Lewis Henry Morgan, and
        Hebert Spencer are among the formulators of such evolutionary
        theories of social change. Sociology actually began with
        evolutionary theory, and much of contemporary sociology bears
        the imprint of the 19th century evolutionary theories. Evolutionary
        theory in the 19th century drew heavily upon the biological
        sciences; although few theorists went so far as Comte in drawing
        analogies between the "social organism" and its biological
        counterpart, the biological sciences clearly provided many
        models for would be science of society. Karl Marx's theory of
        development of a "classless" society may also be classified under
        linear theories. Conflict theorists conceive of social organization,
        as arising in response to a scarcity of desired resources. For
        Marx, these resources were economic in nature - the means of
        subsistence, or property generally. Marx's propositions
        concerning the historical development of class conflict derive
        from his observation of historical data and seem to fit the data
        well.

2.   Cyclic theories stress the undulating character of social change.
        Each phase of the cycle emerges from the previous phase and
        gives birth to the next phase. Toynbee's cyclic theory consisted
        of three phases - the state of social equilibrium, the transition to
        disequilibrium, and the disequilibrium leading to a new state of
        equilibrium.

3.   The trend model is another way expressing the linear theory.
        Social change is characterised by an overall trend that exists in
        spite of minor fluctuations and variations. The trend of movement
        of society was described by Tonnies as transition Gemeinschaft to
        Gessellschaft or communal to associational society. The sacred
        traditional orientation of communal society in its trend gives way
        to associational society that is characterized by secularism,
        rationality and a more pragmatic approach

3.1.3 Theories of Functional Analysis

Social change is conceptualized as a social function. Functional analysis emerged form evolutionary theory, but Durkheim gave it its present form. The determination of function is necessary for the complete explanation of social phenomena. To explain a social fact, Durkheim writes, "is not enough to show the course on which it depends, we must also show the functions in the establishment of social order" (Durkheim, 1933). Radchiffe-Brown (1949) later reasserts this Durkheimean conception when he argues that the function of any social phenomena should be perceived in terms of the contribution of those phenomena to maintenance social order. Rather than engage in the formulation of theories of social change, sociologists instead follow the approach of studying change as a class of social phenomena. Following this approach, efforts are to identify, describe and measure social change to be able to identify the social and other environmental conditions that underlie it. The phenomena comprising social change are thus subjected to study and analysis as other social phenomena that are the object of sociological study.

3.1.4 Modernization Theory

Interest in the concept of development flourished after the Second World War. This interest was however more consciously influenced by the work of liberal economists, although the ideas of evolution, progress and stages characteristic of work of the earlier philosophers remained important elements in the understanding of the concept. The work of economists became influential because the problem of development came to be specifically associated with the issue of alleviating the problems of non-Western Societies as these problems were perceived by Western nations and indigenous leaders. In the post-war era many of these nations were gaining political independence from their colonial masters and it was understood that changes must occur within these societies where they would breakout of the depressing cycle of unemployment, illiteracy, diseases, poverty, and so on. In short they must be set on the path of "development", with the assistance of theory and empirical studies in their problems.

Modernization is not a fixed condition. It is often seen as a period, a period of transition during which a society sheds its "traditional" characteristics and become dominated by "Modern" types of institution and action. The functionalist theory of social change is the theoretical foundation of all the modernization perspectives.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   What is theory?
2.   Two functions of theory according to Parsons are:
        a)……………………………………..   (b)
        ……………………………………………
3.   Theories of causation consist of (a)…………………………….
        (b)……………………(c)……………….(d)…………………
4.   What is linear theory?
5.   ……………………………... and ……………………………
        are among the formulators of evolutionary theories of social
        change
6.   Conflict theories conceive of social organization as arising in
        response to a scarcity of described…………………………..
8.   List the three phases of cyclic theory
9.   Functional analysis emerged from ……………………theory
10.   What is functional analysis?
11.   Interest in the concept of ……………………….flourished after
        the Second World War
12.   Define modernization

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learnt the meaning of theory and the various
theories of social change. We centred our view of the theories of social
change around the discussion of concepts in order to show how
culturally relative and historically specific these concepts are:

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit includes the following

1.   Theory is been defined as the form in which the results of
        observation may be expressed.

2.   a)   Geographic determinism
        b)   Biological determinism
        c)   Economic determinism
        d)   Cultural determinism

3.   Theories of Process have been classified into:
        a)   Linear theories
        b)   Cyclic theories
        d)   Trend model

4.   The functionalist theory conceptualise social change as a social
      function and is the theoretical foundation of all the modernization
      perspectives.

5.   Modernization is not a fixed condition, but a period of transition
      during which a society sheds its "traditional" characteristics and
      become dominated by "modern" types of institution and action.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Write short note on evolutionary theory
2.   Discuss the theories of causation
3.   Outline briefly the theories of process
4.   Explain the theory of functional analysis
5.   Write explanatory note on modernization theory

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MODULE 3

Unit 1   The Concept and Strategies of Rural Development
Unit 2   Characteristics and Major Institutions of Rural Society
Unit 3   Leadership in Rural Communities - 1 (The Concepts of Leader and Leadership, Characteristics and types of Leaders)
Unit 4   Leadership in Rural Communities - 2 (Functions of Leaders and Their Bases of Power and Influence)
Unit 5   Leadership in Rural Communities - 3 (Development and Functions of Rural Community Leaders)

UNIT 1   THE CONCEPT AND STRATEGIES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Definitions of Rural Development
        3.2   Basic Process of Rural Development
        3.3   Strategies and Approaches for Rural Development
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

We have entered a new module-module 3. The first unit of our discussion will be on the concept and strategies of rural development. In the last two units of module 2, we discussed about rural social change and the various theories of social change. Social change can bring about progress. Progress is change in a direction that is considered desirable. Progress leads to development, and development essentially is a continuous process of generating and efficiently allocating resources for achieving greater socially satisfying needs. This unit will introduce you to the various definitions of rural development, the basic process of rural development and the strategies and approaches for rural development. After studying this unit, you are expected to have achieved the objectives listed below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

· define rural development
· explain the basic process of rural development
· outline briefly the strategies and approaches for rural development.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Definitions of Rural Development

Within the structure of national development, the special attention being paid to rural development evolved from early thoughts on the role of agriculture in industrialization. Prominent theoreticians in economic and broader social science literatures have paid attention to issues of agricultural and rural development and their interaction with industry and urban development (IDRC. 2004).

Until recently "rural development" and "agricultural outputs" were considered synonymous. But agriculture is by no means the only possible occupation for people living in rural areas, and accordingly a new and broader view has emerged which distinguishes rural from merely agricultural development.

Various scholars have defined rural development at different levels of what it involves. According to UNECA (1974) rural development is a process by which a set of technical, social, cultural and institutional measures are implemented with and for the inhabitants of rural areas with aim of improving their socio-economic conditions in order to achieve harmony and balance both on the regional and national levels. This definition implies that many different elements must come together to achieve rural development. It means further, integrating a set of sectoral programmes (health, agriculture, education, etc) to achieve a comprehensive development of the rural area.

Similarly, but in more encompassing terms, Coombs and Ahmed (1974) defined rural development as the far-reaching transformation of the social and economic structures, institutions, relationships and processes in any rural area. It conceives the goals as not simply as agricultural and economic growth in the narrow sense but as well as balanced social and economic development, with emphasis on the equitable distribution as well as the creation of benefits. Among the goals are equitable access to arable land, more equitable distribution of income, widespread empowerment in health, nutrition and housing, greatly broadened

opportunities for all individuals to realize their full potentials through education and a strong voice for all rural people in shaping the decisions and actions that affect their lives".

A careful analysis of this definition implies the following:

1. Transformation in terms of changes in social and economic structures, institutions, relationships and progresses are desirable.
2. Agricultural and economic growth are not sufficient, therefore rural development should engender balanced social and economic development.
3. Benefits creation and distribution are desirable in equitable terms.
4. The outcome of the processes should include improved health, nutrition and housing.
5. Education is a vital tool through which broadened opportunities could be generated for all individuals to realize their full potentials including women, youth and the poor.

According to Williams (1978) the ambit of rural development is therefore very wide indeed. It includes generation of new employment; more equitable access to arable land; equitable distribution of income; widespread improvement in health, nutrition, and housing, maintenance of law and order; creation of incentives and opportunities for saving, credit, and investment. It also involves creating wider opportunities for individuals to realize their full potential through education and sharing in the decisions and actions which affect their lives. It is not sectoral but comprehensive. In a nutshell, rural development is the result of many interacting forces.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Define rural development according to UNECA.
2. Distinguish between agricultural and rural development.

3.2   Basic Process of Rural Development

Rural development process evolves from a combination of a series of activities generated by creative human actions (element of innovation) backed up by available natural resources that rural development flourishes only under certain political, social and economic conditions. Sometimes an individual or a small group of innovators triggers a process of rural development. Sometimes it is promoted by changes in the economic or legal framework on the national or international level (European Rural Development, ERD 2005). All these point to one fundamental fact that rural development is characterized by great diversity of conditions, actors and options.

Rural development is a cyclic process as presented in figure 2, which is characterized by four main activities as follows: (ERD, 2005):

- Analysis: what is the current situation?
- Policy: who are the main actor and what do they want?
- Modelling: which developments are possible?
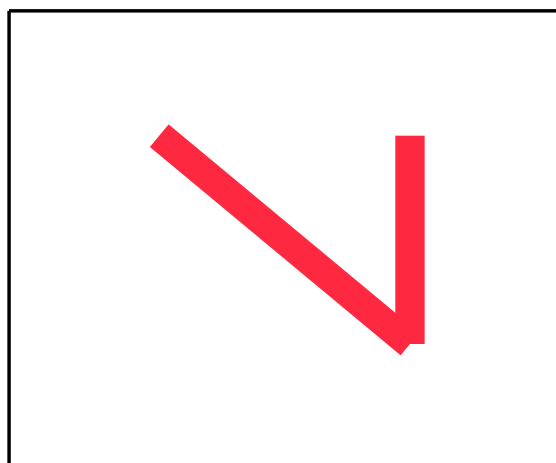- Implementation: which measures should be used?

Figure 2: Rural development as a cyclic process.

These four stages can be found in all kinds of development processes. They can also be found at different scales from the initiative of an individual to the programmes of a national or international development agency. They are typically repeated many times to fine adjust a development process.

It might be worthwhile to complement the above process by mentioning another process according to Jibowo (1992), which consists of five stages of a rural development programme as follows:

1. **Enquiry:** obtaining reliable and valid information about the target community (Availability of Rural Rapid Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PPR) tools have been found to be effective to achieve this in recent time).
2. **Planning:** base on information obtained from enquiry. It should involve interventionists (administrators), local change agents, representatives of the rural people and related agencies' officials as stakeholders.
3. **Implementation:** action time for all concerned as stakeholders in systematic manner toward realizing the stated goals of the intervention.
4. **Adjustment:** necessary institutionalization and change resulting from the intervention.

5.   **Evaluation:** adequate attention should be given to monitoring
        and review of the process to accommodate in process
        modifications and at the end to determine how far the set goals
        have been realized and provide basis for further action.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   Rural development as a cyclic process is characterized by four
        main activities. List these activities.
2.   List the five stages of a rural development programme according
        to Jibowo.

3.3   Strategies and Approaches for Rural Development

A rural development strategy is a systematic, comprehensive and
reliable tool aimed at bringing about desirable rural transformation. A
strategy for rural development is expected to produce results; hence it is
tested and found effective under certain circumstances before being
introduced under similar circumstances in another setting. Its expected
effectiveness could be because it is developed on basis of experience
which had worked.

The strategies which had been adopted for rural development by many
developing countries, according to Williams (1978) are:

1.   Community development
2.   Agricultural extension, and
3.   Integrated rural development

Community development aims at utilizing the rural people to develop
themselves through self-initiative and motivation with minimum
assistance from government. It aims at social development such as
prevention and control of juvenile delinquency and community
development through self-help projects, health and nutritional
improvement projects and similar projects. It involves community
members in planning and implementing programmes for their own
development. It stimulates government and other development agencies
to provide technical advice and materials in planning and implementing
the projects.

The multipurpose community development agent who is trained in many
aspects of community life such as health, agriculture, education,
cooperatives is stationed at the local level where he works with local
people. To succeed, the community development worker needs to make
use of the services of specialized agencies of government in the rural

areas. This is because it is not easy for an agent to be skilled in the rural sector.

If coordination and integration of activities of development related agencies working in the rural areas can be facilitated through the efforts of the community development agent, this strategy could be more popular in rural development. The problems in using this approach are:

a)   It is not easy for one person to be effectively trained in all sectors of rural development; hence the community development agent may turn out to be ineffective.
b)   There is often no formal coordination between the agencies working at the local level; hence the community development agent has power to enforce cooperation by other agencies.

There is often a dilemma concerning whether community development should focus on development of the various sectors of the rural community or focus on educating the rural people on how to develop themselves and seek assistance for developing themselves. Education is the cornerstone of all forms of development; hence it is advisable that rural people are educated on how to develop themselves. Even when infrastructural facilities are provided, the rural people should still be educated on how to maintain these and even introduce others.

Agricultural Extension aims at assisting the rural farmers to bring about agricultural development. It does this by facilitating education of farmers to improve their skills, knowledge and attitude as related to agricultural development. It transmits the results of research on how to solve problems of agriculture to farmers and encourages the application of these as well as other improved technical knowledge in agriculture by farmers. It utilizes demonstration farms, farm visits, audio-visual aids and other methods in teaching farmers. While agricultural extension concentrates on agricultural development and only encourages related development agencies to extend their services to the rural areas, community development endeavours to provide some of the services. The training received by the village agents is therefore aimed at equipping them to perform their different roles.

A glaring deficiency of the agricultural extension strategy had been its ineffectiveness in promoting agricultural development. The main reasons for this had been:

a)   inadequate number of extension agents who are to teach farmers improved farm practices;
b)   inadequate credit facilities to purchase farm inputs;

c)   inadequate use of local leaders to assist extension agents in
        teaching farmers;
d)   inadequate planning of extension programmes and
e)   inadequate motivation of extension agents. If these and similar
        problems are largely solved, extension should become an
        instrument for effective agricultural development.

Integrated rural development strategy combines the development of the
various areas of the rural society including agricultural, educational,
health, nutrition, rural electrification, rural water supply and cooperative
simultaneously. The strategy also aims at improved employment, access
to production resources, access to social services and management of
development resources. The distinguishing feature of this strategy is that
the various development sectors are considered together rather than in
isolation so that their relationships can be seen.

The use of this strategy involves increased mobilization and motivation
of rural people to participate actively in decision-making process
concerning their progress and in the development activities. There
should also be established institutional relationships which will facilitate
the development of the sectors. Rural development councils should be
set up at the national, state, local government in village levels to educate
people, clarify ambiguities and mobilize moral and financial support for
rural development.

Approaches for rural development are the geographical and the subject-
matter scopes of rural development. Three approaches can be identified,
namely:

1.   the sectoral approach
2.   the holistic approach, and
3.   the regional approach

In the sectoral approach rural development efforts are geared towards
developing the various sectors of the rural society. Efforts are made to
identify the important sectors such as the agricultural, health, education
and infra-structural sectors of the rural society. Development efforts are
then focused on one sector. It is this tradition that had tended to favour
the development of the agricultural sector, which had been regarded as
the most important sector of the rural society in developing countries
because majority of the rural population of these countries are engaged
in it. Experience with this approach had resulted in some problems,
namely:

a)   The agricultural sector had not been substantially developed
      partly because of its relationship with the other sectors which had
      not been supportive;
b)   The other sectors had been largely ignored in the development
      process, and
c)   There had been overwhelming criticism of this approach by the
      professionals from the other non-agricultural sectors.

The holistic approach attempts to develop all the sectors in a given area
about the same time. The agricultural, health, education, and rural
infrastructural sectors are developed simultaneously. The problems with
this approach are:

a)   inadequate financial resources to implement development
      programmes in all the sectors simultaneously;
b)   inadequate number of specialized and technical manpower to
      implement the programme, and
c)   inadequate coordination of the development activities in the
      various sectors.

In the regional approach to development, a society is zoned into
development regions which are most suited for establishing certain
development projects.

In Nigeria for example, while potato production might be developed in
the derived Savannah parts of the country, cocoa, kola and oil-palm
production are naturally encouraged in the rain forest areas of the
country, infrastructural facilities are developed all over the country. The
major criticism of this approach is that it ignores the fact that scientific
rural development aims at bringing development facilities to the rural
areas where they do not originally exist, apart from developing the
potentials where they naturally existed. Another problem is that some
regions might be ignored while others are developed or favoured on the
basis of political advantage.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1.   List the strategies which had been adopted for rural development
      by many developing countries.
2.   What are the approaches for rural development.

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit exposed us to the concept and strategies of rural development and its distinction with agricultural development. Good governance/ commitment on the part of government functionaries is a sine qua non to meaningful rural development. Finally, the greatest empowerment that could benefit the rural folks is education and information. Professional role of the extensionist is not negotiable for the attainment of sustainable rural development.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are as follows:

1.   Rural development means integrating a set of sectoral programmes (health, agriculture, education etc) to achieve a comprehensive development of the rural area.
2.   Agricultural development means concentrating on the agricultural sector only to bring about development in the rural area.
3.   Rural development is a cyclic process and is characterized by four main activities namely,   (a) analysis (b) policy   (c) modelling and (d) implementation
4.   The five stages of rural development programmes are,
      (a) enquiry (b) planning   (c) implementation (d) adjustment, and (e) evaluation
5.   The strategies adopted for rural development by many developing countries include:
      (a) community development, (b) agricultural extension, and (c) integrated rural development
6.   Three approaches for rural development has been identified, namely, (a) the sectoral approach   (b) the holistic approach, and (c) the regional approach.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain the definitions of rural development
2.   Discuss the basic process of rural development
3.   Write explanatory notes on the following:

(a)   Community development (b) Agricultural extension   (c) Integrated rural development   (d) Approaches to rural development

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UNIT 2   CHARACTERISTICS   AND   MAJOR
              INSTITUTIONS OF RURAL SOCIETY

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Characteristics of Rural Area and Rural Life
       3.2   Major Institutions in Rural Society
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

From the discussions in the last unit, that is unit 1 you are now aware of the concept and strategies of rural development. The topic of discussion in this unit is the characteristics and major institutions of rural society. After studying the unit, you are expected to have achieved the objectives listed below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

·   outline the characteristics of rural area
· explain the characteristics of rural life
· discuss vividly the major institutions in rural society.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Characteristics of Rural Area and Rural Life

The concept of rurality has various meanings to people in different fields. For ease of quantification, population size has long been used as the basis of dichotomy between rural and urban areas by geographers and political administrators.

For example, in Nigeria, rural areas have been defined as areas with a population less than 5,000 in 1956, less than 10,000 in 1963 and less than 20,000 today. It could be stated that based on size some designated rural areas have services and infrastructure similar to those in urban

areas and with rapid changes in population size. This use of size often is rendered meaningless.

Besides, many rural areas are dynamically modernizing. This gives rise to the concept of rural urban continuum. It maintains that communities cannot be forced into two categories but should be seen to represent various stages of modernization on a linear scale (fig.3). For example while cities as Lagos and Kaduna may extend urban characteristics maximally, some communities are typically rural, and between the two extremes are found communities at various stages of modernization.

Rural⎣————————————➤————————————⎦   Urban

Figure 3. Various stages of modernization on a linear scale

Rural area, whether in developed or developing countries of the world is of great significance in view of the fact that the area is richly endowed with abundant human and natural resources. Ekong, (2003) asserted that in Nigeria, the importance of the rural areas also lies in the fact that over 70 percent of the population live and derive their livelihood in the rural areas. Rural area is characterized by:

1.   High level of poverty, especially among those in women headed households;
2.   Endemically low productivity;
3.   Smallness of cultivable land owned by a farmer;
4.   Technical inefficiency of agriculture due to poor production methods;
5.   Low per capital income of the average rural dweller,
6.   Social infrastructures including educational facilities, health facilities, water supply, electricity supply and communication facilities are poor relative to the level in the urban sector;
 7. Physical infrastructures including transportation facilities and irrigation facilities are generally poor;
8.   Institutional infrastructures including rural credit and financial institutions, co-operative societies and farmers unions, agricultural research institution are either weak or ineffective, and
9. Comparatively lower level of living in the rural than urban areas.
        Both rural and urban people have their own characteristics, though the interest here is the characteristics of rural life.

These characteristics are best and most easily discerned by comparing them with those of urban life. Some such rural urban differences are:

1.   **General Environment and Orientation to Nature.** Rural people because of their geographic location in rural areas are

closely associated with nature. They have constantly to contend with natural elements - rain, heat, frost, snow, and drought - over which they have no control. For farmers these elements are vital. Rural dwellers may, therefore, build up beliefs and convictions about nature - a pattern of thought and philosophy of life - that are very different from those of an urban dweller who lives removed from nature.

2.   **Occupation:** The major occupation in most rural areas of the world is farming. There are non-agricultural occupations in rural areas, but these are secondary in economic importance. In some areas farming is a business or an industry, but in others it operates largely as a way of life - a family occupation.
       Furthermore, in urban areas occupational pursuits tend to be specialized. A man may work in a factory at a lathe or at a stamping machine turning out hundreds of similar paths; he may develop the specialized skills of manager, foreman, or executive. A farmer on the other hand , must usually be competent in variety of skills - soil conservation and improvement of fertility; machine repair; some skills as agronomist as he selects and grows crops; some skills as entomologist and plant pathologists as he protects his crops from pests, diseased weeds; skills as veterinarian and animal husbandry-man as he cares for his livestock and protects them from disease; and skills of agricultural economics as business manager as he handles the marketing distribution, overall planning and operation of his farming enterprise. Farmers thus have a wide area of specialization as compared with urban workers.

3.   **Size of Community:** the rural community is always smaller than the urban community. Agricultural occupations by their very nature call for higher land-to-man ratio than industry does, and consequently, rural areas have a low population per square mile or kilometre. Farmland may vary in size depending on the type of farming practised, but enough land must be available to raise crops and livestock as a paying proposition. A rural community is hence a small community - much smaller than an urban community.

4.   **Density of Population:** Density of population and "rurality" are negatively correlated. Thus, as population density increases the community moves in the direction of being classified as urban; and the pattern of settlement changes somewhat from individual family dwelling houses to multi-family buildings with flats and apartments.

5.   **Homogeneity and Heterogeneity.** Homogeneity or similarity of such social and psychological characteristics in the population as language, beliefs, mores, and patterns of behaviour, is found much more in rural than in urban areas. Being part of a small community, members of a village share common interests and major occupations through frequent face-to-face contacts. A city, on the other hand, has a heterogeneous population, comprised of persons from a wide variety of sub-cultures -many interests, cultures, occupations, patterns of behaviour and even languages make up the widely heterogeneous city population.

6.   **Social Differentiation:** The heterogeneity of a city's population by necessity indicates a high degree of social differentiation. City services, its utilities, and educational, recreational, religious, business, and residential facilities are therefore purposefully organized with division of labour and mutual interdependence. In contrast, the segments of rural society, being highly homogeneous in nature, are relatively independent, with a low degree of social differentiation.

7.   **Social Stratification** (Please go back to module 2, unit 2 for detail).

8.   **Social Mobility.** Social mobility refers to the movement from one social group to another; occupational mobility from one occupation to another, and territorial mobility from rural to urban areas, from urban to rural areas, or within the rural or urban areas. Because of the heterogeneous urban population, the concentration of institution, more opportunities for mobility exist; hence a higher degree of social and occupational mobility exists in urban than in rural areas.

In addition, mobility from rural to urban areas is greater than urban to rural, although the latter does exist and in some countries, such as the United States of America, is quite marked.

9.   **Social Interaction.** The pattern and type of social interaction in rural areas contrasts significantly with those in urban areas both in qualitative and quantitative aspects. The following stand out as more important differences between rural and urban areas in respect of social interaction:

a)   Rural population. Smaller, less dense, and possessing lower mobility than urban populations, will also have fewer personal contacts per individual. The contacts through various media of communication are also lower in rural areas. A city dweller is

literally surrounded by radio, television, magazines, posters, newspapers and many other sophisticated media that are a part of city life.

b)   As there is a quantitative difference in social contacts so also there is a qualitative difference. Urban contacts may be frequent, but they tend to be more cursory, formal and impersonal. Rural contacts, however, are more face-to-face, informal and personal. On the other hand, in rural communities the area of contact is spatially more limited and narrower than the area of contact of urban communities. Contacts in urban areas seem to converge from a wide geographical area.

10.   **Social Control.** Because of personal and informal contacts, size and homogeneity of rural communities, and other factors, social pressure by the community in rural areas is strong, and conformity to social norms is more by informal social pressure than by other means of social control. In urban areas control is more by formal, impersonal means of law - prescribed rules and regulations with penalties for infringement.

11.   **Leadership Pattern.** Choice of leadership in rural areas tends to be more on the basis of the known personal qualities of the individual than in urban areas. Mainly because of far greater faceto-face contacts and more intimate knowledge of individuals than is possible in urban areas. (detail on leadership will be in the next 3 units of this module, unit 3, 4 and 5).

12.   **Standard of Living.** Home conveniences, public utilities, educational, recreational and religious facilities and other facilities for living can be provided if supported by a sufficient population base. While urban areas have such concentration and density of population and are able to provide these conveniences, rural communities usually do not.

13.   **Social Solidarity.** Social solidarity, or cohesiveness and unity, for rural and urban communities are created by different factors in each. In rural areas, cohesion and unity results from common traits, similarity of experience, common objectives that are shared by rural people: informal non-contractual personal relationships. Unity and cohesiveness in urban areas, on the other hand, are based on differences and dissimilarities, division of labour, interdependence, specialization, or impersonal, strictly formal and contractual kinds of relationships.

Rural-Urban Differences - The Closing Gap. With rapid increase in communication; progressive and rapid breaking down of isolation of hitherto scheduled rural areas; rapidly increasing contacts, needs and wants of rural people; and increases in borrowing and diffusion of ideas between urban and rural areas, the gap of difference between rural and urban life styles has and will continue to narrow. Will this lead to a complete closure of the gap or will there always be a lag of the rural behind the urban in the face of rapid technological and other changes? While there may not be ready answers, these and other similar questions could be raised within the total complex of social and cultural change in rural societies. (Please refer to module 2, unit 4)

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   In Nigeria, rural areas have been defined as areas with a population less than ………..in 1956, less than ……………in 1963 and less than …………...today
2.   The major occupation of most rural areas of the world is ……………………

3.2   Major Institutions in Rural Society

Generally recognized are five basic institutions in both rural and urban society: the family, religion, the economy, government, and education.

1.   The family: The family is the most multifunctional of all institutions in society, and is a system of organized relationships involving workable and dependable ways of meeting basic social needs. More specifically the family commonly fulfils the following tasks in society:

a)   Sex regulation;
b)   Reproduction and perpetuation of the family and human race;
c)   Socialisation;
d)   Provision of economic maintenance and livelihood in many cultures;
e)   Provision of love, affection and security to the individuals, and
f)   Provision of class status to the individual of the family into which he/she has been born.

Within the basic institution of the family are secondary institutions such as engagement, marriage, courtship and relationships with the family into which marriage has taken place.

The specific ways in which these functions and tastes are carried out are defined by the culture of the society concerned, involving systems of

social roles, norms of behaviour, and prescribed rules and regulations governing forms and procedures involved in these relationships.

For example, there are two major types of composition of the family: the conjugal family - consisting of husband, wife, and children - and the consanguine family - founded on blood relations of a large number of people and consisting of a large group of blood relatives with a fringe of spouses. The former type is common in western cultures and the latter in the east and Africa. Further, the number of persons united in marriage may vary according to the system prevalent in the culture: monogamous (one man to one wife), polyandrous (one woman to more than one man), or polygamous (one man to more than one woman). Similarly, systems of mate selection, premarital relationship, courtship, engagement, and marriage exhibit wide variation all over the world.

As in case of other institutions, the family in Nigeria and in other parts of the world are in the midst of change, and many functions of the family have been transferred to other institutions in society. The family has tremendous influence on the individual; his behaviour and his action for it mould him from infancy and has significant influence on the development of his personality.

2.   **Religion.** From antiquity man has sought answers to questions concerning the mysteries of his own creation, his relationship to the supernatural, a satisfying philosophy of life, and life after death. In his searching he has built up a category of individuals who would devote their specific attention to these matters as possible intermediaries and religious guides, he has developed rituals and ceremonies for appeasement and propitiation of the supernatural; these rituals, based on beliefs, convictions, and the ceremonies, and symbols accompanying prescribed roles and prescribed patterns of behaviour together constitute religion. Most religions of the world have the following elements:

a)   "A set of beliefs regarding the ultimate power in the universe
b)   A set of beliefs regarding the idea and proper pattern of behaviour
c)   A set of ceremonial ways of expressing these beliefs" (Rose, 1957).

Each of the elements will vary in form, in observance, in the response they evoke from individuals and in influence according to the culture concerned - together, these elements prescribe specific lines of action, attitudes, and values desirable under varying conditions according to which man is expected to behave.

Religion also provides a foundation for mores of society. Hence religious sanctions are sought for certain desirable patterns of behaviour to persist in society in the form of mores. In doing so, violation of the pattern of behaviour then become violation against divine order. Thus, many taboos in various cultures have religious sanction, e.g. the taboo against eating of pork in Muslim and Jewish cultures has definite and precise religious sanction.

Another function of religion is to provide a means whereby man can face the crises and vicissitudes of life with strength and fortitude.

The religious beliefs, forms of worship, objectives of worship, rituals, ceremonies of the people of the world are varied and most numerous, but most are basic in the profound influence that they exercise on the behaviour of individuals, groups and society as a whole in almost every aspect of life . Secondary institutions within the major institution of religion include rituals, forms of worship, and organized groups for propagating religions.

3.   **Government.** Also referred to as the political institution, government administers the regulatory functions of law and order and maintains security in society. It provides both the means for regulating the behaviour of individuals within society in accordance with required norms and protection from external aggression. Within this major institution are secondary institutions such as military systems, police forces, legal systems, and diplomatic relations with other countries. In various cultures of the world government has tended to assume many functions of other institutions, e.g. the formal education of children, physical protection of home, fixation of prices, credit, and the regulation of marriage conditions. Another tendency or trend has been an increase in the number and scope of its functions.

Forms or constitution of government, and the procedure and manner of regulation depend on the accepted patterns of behaviour within a society. Such patterns may start, for instance, from a government with supreme power vested in an individual or small group to a democratic system of government.

4.   **Economy or Maintenance.** Such institutions provide basic physical subsistence for society and meet basic needs for food, shelter, clothing and other necessities. Included are the economic institution of production - agriculture, industry, and the distribution, exchange and consumption of commodities, goods and services necessary for human survival. Secondary institutions included within the major economic institutions are credit and

banking systems, advertising, cooperatives etc. Means of livelihood show wide relationships not only in various parts of the world but within societies.

5.   **Education.** Educational institutions are those which seek to socialize individuals in society or introduce them in formal ways into their social and cultural world. Every new generation must be prepared and trained to play a role in society. This process, referred to as the process of socialization, commences informally at home and then formally in an institution of education. Educational institutions have emerged from this background - from the home and the church, the mosque to the formal village school, college and university. In most societies, however, the function of providing education mainly has been assumed by the government. Education as an institution in various parts of the world seeks to fulfil its function of transmission of cultural heritage, social integration of socialization and personal development in various forms and in various ways that are socially acceptable and culturally defined. This major institution is of tremendous influence on the behaviour of rural people, their inter-relationships and the moulding of behaviour and personality of individuals and groups.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   List the major institutions in rural society
2.   What are the elements in most religions of the world?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we discussed the characteristics of rural area and rural life and major institutions in rural society. From all this you would have learnt that both rural and urban people have their own characteristics and the major institutions that exist in the rural areas are also found in urban areas.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are:

1.   The concept of rurality has various meanings to people in different fields.
2.   Rural area, whether in developed or developing countries of the world is of great significance in view of the fact that the area is richly endowed with abundant human and natural resources.

3.   Both rural and urban people have their own characteristics. Though the interest here is the characteristics of rural life, these characteristics are best and most easily discovered by comparing them with those of urban life.

4.   There are five basic institutions in both rural and urban society, namely,
(a) Family   (b) religion   (c) Economy   (d) Government   (e) Education

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Outline briefly the characteristics of rural area
2.   Discuss rural-urban differences
3.   Write explanatory notes on:

(a)   Social control   (b)   Social mobility   (c) Social interaction
(d) Social stratification   (e)   Social solidarity.

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UNIT 3   LEADERSHIP IN RURAL COMMUNITIES - 1 (THE CONCEPTS OF LEADER AND LEADERSHIP, CHARACTERISTICS AND TYPES OF LEADERS)

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   The concepts of "Leader" and "Leadership"
       3.2   Characteristics and Types of Leaders
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In the last unit we discussed the characteristics and major institutions of rural society. In this unit we shall be discussing leadership in rural communities. After studying the unit, you are expected to have achieved the objectives listed below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· define the terms "leader" and "leadership" ·
outline the characteristics of leaders
· explain the types of leadership.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Concept of "Leader" and "Leadership"

The simple dictionary definition of a leader is "one who leads or goes first". In other words one who first perceives the groups needs far ahead of others in its implementation. A leader is a person who exercises the acts which facilitate group goal accomplished. Beal *et al.,* (1962) defined a leader as "an individual in any social situation in which his ideas and actions influence the thoughts and behaviour of others". Reading (1963) in his Glossary of Sociological Terms defines a leader as:

a)   Person initiating interaction with other members of a group
b)   Person who initiates interaction more frequently than anyone else
        in a group, and
c)   Person who moves the group towards group goal.

Gibb (1954) makes the following distinction between a head and a leader.

1)   Headship or domination is maintained through an organized
        system and not by the spontaneous recognition by fellow group
        members, of the individual's contribution to the group;
 2) The group goal is chosen by the headman in line with his interest
        and is not internally determined by the group itself;
3) In domination or headship, there is little or no sense of shared
        feeling or joint action in pursuit of the given goal;
4)   There is in the dominance relation a wide social gap between the
        group members and the head who strives to maintain this social
        distance as an aid to his coercion of the group;
5)   The leader's authority is spontaneously accorded him by his
        fellow group members -the followers, whereas the authority of
        the head derives from some extra group power which he has over
        the group members who may not be meaningfully called his
        followers.

The business executive, heads of departments, foremen and so forth, are examples of headmen. The workers under such people are not necessarily their "followers", they obey them on pains of punishment and accept their domination as part of their duties to the organization. However, it is possible that sub-ordinates may come to identify qualities which they admire in their headman and accord him willing cooperation thus giving him a leader's status in addition.

Leadership has been defined in three fundamental ways on the basis of whose property it is. The first definition regards leadership as a property of an individual. Leadership was therefore defined by Haiman (1957) as "the process whereby an individual directs, guides, influences or controls the thoughts, feelings or behaviours of other human beings". Thus while the term "leader" refers to a person or an actor, "leadership" is a process. Leadership includes the dominant personality traits of one person and receptive traits of one person and other traits of many persons in such a way that the course of events of the group is changed or determined by one person.

As a group property, Cartwright and Zander (1968) viewed leadership as the performance of those functions which assist the group in achieving its outcomes. It consists of group member actions which facilitate

setting of group goals, moving the group towards the attainment of its goals, improving interactions among the group members, facilitating group cohesiveness, procuring resources for the group. As a group property therefore Pigors (1935) defined leadership as " a process of mutual stimulation, which by successful interplay of relevant individual differences, controls human energy in pursuit of a common cause".

As a situational attribute, leadership is a property of a person or group of persons in a given situation whereby through successful utilization by their qualities moves a group towards the attainment of its goals.

In the three definitions given above the use of authority and influence of one actor or group actors over another actor or group could be determined. The exercise of leadership therefore involves the use of authority and influence.

Other related terms often used in discussing the concept of "leader" and "leadership" include:

Followers are the members of a large group over which leadership is exercised by a person or group of persons. Followership is the willing acceptance and fulfilment of the authority and influence of a person by another person or group of persons. Followership does not imply a passive reception of orders rather it connotes possession of qualities required for effective response and responsibility in carrying out the instructions of person giving the directives.
Power: This is the potential or manifest ability of an individual or group to modify the actions of others through the use of force, authority influence or control. Control involves actual mobilization of power to obtain the results desired by the power wielders. Loomis (1960) defined power as the ability to control the actions of others. They considered power to consist of two major components, namely, authority and influence.

Authority is the right to control the actions of others, while influence is non authoritative control over the actions of others. Leadership acts cannot be exercised in a vacuum. To control the actions of others through acts of leadership, a leader inevitably needs power. Here lies the relationship between leadership and power.

Power structure: This is a patterned distribution of authority and influence among various actors in a group or community. Power arises from the fact that in any group or community, the extent of possession and utilization of the resources for power both qualitatively and quantitatively, by one member of the group or community, is often different from that of the other. Persons who exercise power can

therefore be arranged in a constellation which depicts these differences. Such as arrangement within a group or community designates the power structure of that group or community.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   Who is a leader?
2.   Power consist of two major components namely…………….. and …………

3.2   Characteristics and Types of Leaders

Leadership calls for certain qualities or characteristics firstly on the part of the individual to want to become a leader and secondly on the part of a group who want to respond favourably to the individual's leading acts.

Ross and Hendry (1957), after a thorough review of leadership studies, stated that a leader must possess the following eleven characteristics, namely, empathy, be a member of the group, have consideration, surgency, emotional stability, desire for the recognition of leadership role, intelligence, competence, consistency, self confidence and ability to share leadership role.

Empathy is the ability to share the feelings of others. When a leader puts himself in the shoes of followers, he can perceive their needs and develop the sensitivity needed to search for ways of meeting such needs.

The leader must be a member of the group, particularly in a group of equals, share the group values and endeavours to discharge his leadership responsibilities effectively as well. Consideration is the ability of the leader to help the group in practical ways by explaining, giving instructions and giving helping hand in general. The leader anticipates the difficulties which might confront group members and arms himself with the knowledge and skill needed to provide practical solutions.

Surgency is the degree of talkativeness, cheerfulness, enthusiasm, alertness, originality, acumen and alacrity of the leader. This quality is particularly important for an elected leader if he is to sustain his popularity, prominence, hedonism and progressiveness.

Emotional stability demands that a leader must be a well adjusted and integrated person with the ability to function confidently, courageously and smoothly during quiet and stormy occasions. He should not be overinvolved emotionally in crises. Rather, he should look for causes of any crisis in the group and ways of resolving them.

The leader must possess the desire for and recognition of leadership role. Under normal circumstances, leadership should not be forced on a person who sincerely does not want it. The leader must be of high intelligence, but does not need to be of much higher intelligence than the followers so as to facilitate understanding between the leader and the followers.

Competence or technical skill is required by a leader so as to be able to perform the group tasks and assist the group in practical ways. Competence will increase the credibility and request of the leader by the followers. Consistency requires that the leader must not change his mind, policies and words frequently, although he cannot be completely inflexible against making some changes for improvement. He must follow agreed-upon decisions, be consistent in his attitude and loyalties.

Self-confidence, when grounded on competence in handling group problems and assisting the group to attain its objectives, is an important quality of a leader. Effective communication with members in performing group functions requires self-confidence. Surgency and competence would lead to self-confidence required of an effective leader, rather than empty boasting.

Ability to share leadership roles prevents overtasking the leader and could increase leadership effectiveness. When a leader has competent and trusted subordinates, it becomes important that he should share leadership role.

According to Ross and Hendry (1957) the first five characteristics are more important than the next six.

Nelson, Ramsey and Verner (1965) identified four types of leadership: Institution leadership. The institutional leader emerges through an appointment, promotion, selection or election to hold a formal leadership position. The position is his predominant leadership base. He performs the functions associated with his position, so that when he vacates the office, whoever takes over from him continues to perform the same essential functions. The choice of the leader is made by a source intralocal or extralocal to the institution. Examples of institutional leaders in Nigerian rural communities are School teachers, Muslim leaders or Imam, Church pastors, rural health clinic officials, heads of the village Council and Agricultural Extension Agent. Others in a large community are the Chief of Police, and in more developed countries, particularly in the United States, the Chief of fire services, and leaders of various community social, fraternal, professional, patriotic and philanthropic organization such as the Lions Club, the Rotary Club, the Masons and Jaycees.

The situational leader arises when there is perceived inadequacy in a social situation. He emerges to assist in rectifying the anomaly. He is therefore a product of the situation. His arrival is received enthusiastically by the generality of the people. His immediate assignment is therefore to meet the challenges of the existing situation so as to justify his arrival and support by members. As situations change, he has to modify his approach so as to meet the changes effectively; otherwise as changes brought him to power, changes may sweep him out of the leadership position. Examples are games captains and military leaders in political leadership positions.

The dictatorial leader could develop from an institutional or a situational leader. He may be a member of a dominated family in the community, a business magnate controlling the bulk of the economy of the community, or a political bag. He forces his decisions on the rest of the community.

The creative leader helps the group realize its creative potentials, rather than for his own ego satisfaction. He is the democratically accepted leader.

The fifth type of leader is the charismatic leader. The term "charisma" means a divine or spiritual power. It also means a personal character or quality that enables an individual to influence his followers or quality that enables an individual to influence his fellowmen. A charismatic leader is therefore the type of person who has such personal qualities: good looks, high level of intelligence, ability to speak fearlessness and commitment to certain ideals which when taken altogether makes people follow him almost without questioning his authority. Examples in contemporary history of the world are Jawaharlal Nehru of India (1889-1964), John Kennedy of the United States of America (1917-1963), Murtala Muhammad of Nigeria (1937-1975), and Ahmadu Bello (1909-1966) of Nigeria who was assassinated in the first military uprising in Nigeria in 1966. Many Nigerians, particularly in the Yoruba speaking areas of the country regarded Chief Obafemi Awolowo (1909-1987) as a charismatic leader.

The sixth type of leader is traditional hereditary leader. This is one who is born into a hereditary leadership position which custom and tradition recognize. His leadership status is therefore ascribed rather than achieved. In other words, he has authority by virtue of the tradition of the community. This tradition affords him an unlimited loyalty and unquestioned obedience from the community members. Examples are the Emirs in Northern Nigeria, the Obas in South western Nigeria, the Obis in South Eastern Nigeria etc.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1.   List the characteristics of leadership
2.   What are the types of leaders we have?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we discussed the concept of "leader" and leadership, characteristics and types of leaders. From all these, you would have learnt that the type of leader or leadership in rural communities determines the level of development in such communities.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are:

1.   A leader is a person who exercises the acts which facilitate group goal accomplished
2.   Leadership has been defined in three fundamental ways on the bases of whose property it is:

a)   leadership as a property of individual
b)   leadership as a group property
c)   leadership as a situational attribute

3.   Leadership calls for certain qualities or characteristics firstly on the part of the
      individual to want to become a leader and secondly on the part of a group who want to respond favourably to the individuals leading act.
4.   The types of leadership include:

a)   institutional leader
b)   situational leader
c)   dictatorial leader
d)   charismatic leader
e)   traditional hereditary leader

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Distinguish between "leader" and "leadership"
2.   Write brief notes on the following:

a) Authority   (b) Followership (c) Power   (d) Power structure

3.   Discuss the characteristics and types of leadership.

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UNIT 4   LEADERSHIP IN RURAL COMMUNITIES - 2 (FUNCTIONS OF LEADERS AND THEIR BASES OF POWER AND INFLUENCE)

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In the last unit we discussed leadership in rural communities. This unit is a continuation of leadership in rural communities. The objectives below specify what you are expected to have learnt after studying this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1.   recognise leader's bases of power
2.   outline leader's bases of influence
3.   explain the functions of leaders.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Leaders Bases of Power and Influence

That leadership involves the ability to influence, direct or control others, means that leadership involves the use of power. The leader must have a recognized power, the source of which may be within or outside the group led. When his power is from the group, this is spontaneously accorded him by his followers, whereas where the source of power is located externally there may be some elements of coercion. Power is the ability to exact compliance or the ability to execute one's will

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irrespective of opposition. Cartwright and Zander (1960) have identified five bases of power of a group leader. These include:

1)   Reward power which derives from the belief on the part of the followers that they will be rewarded in some way for complying; 2) Coercive power which arises from the belief that non-compliance will result in punishment;

3)   Expert power. In this case when a person is evaluated to have needed knowledge, information or skills which cannot be obtained readily elsewhere, that person holds power over the group;

4)   Referent power. This is the power the leader has as a result of his having qualities which the groups members like, admire and want to identify with, they submit to him because they identify with him; and

5)   Legimate power. This derives from the office or official position which the individual occupies and which gives him the right to control others and equally compels others to comply. The tax collector and the police all have legimate powers to do their work.

Power is usually conceived in terms of authority and of influence. Authority and influence are not synonymous as an individual who has influence may not have any authority. Authority derives from official position and is the power attached to that office whereas influence resides within the individual on the basis of his possession of certain characteristics or qualities which make other people want to submit to him.

Moss (1970) in a study of community leaders, has identified six bases of influence. These include the following:

1)   **Official Position:** This may be elected, appointed or earned office within the political structure. The village headship is an official position for instance. It usually grants the incumbent a certain minimum of functions and responsibilities which enable him to become involved in and affect the outcomes of community issues more readily than other actors in the community's political structure. It provides access to knowledge and information, popularity, friendship, development of skills, the expectation of activity and the legitimation of attempts to exercise influence by others.

2)   **Financial Control:** economic base such as control over money, credit, jobs and other resources or essential services is a recognized strong basis of influence. People who are rich may also enhance their influence within the community by donating

generously to community programmes. In most parts of Nigeria today, they may even purchase traditional titles thereby warming themselves up into the power structure of the community. When these types of people have featured repeatedly in community issues, they may later be regarded as being indispensable.

3) **Organizational Influence:** this derives from one's ability or potential ability to mobilize and organize others into active groups. It also derives from participation in organizations and perhaps holding position within such organizations. Most community issues are crystallized in voluntary formal and informal organizations hence people who are active in such organizations are bound to wield considerable influence within the community.

4) **Knowledge or Expertness:** This may be related to official position but it involves the possession of particular knowledge or skills above others in the group.

5) **Interpersonal Contacts:** This includes access to and interaction with other persons both inside and outside the community. The individual who has many friends and contacts within the community is likely to be more informed, knowledgeable and influential than others. Community members may look up to him to link them up with these external agencies and personalities from whom they can obtain the needed resources with which to attain their objectives.

6) **Personal Characteristics:** This includes attributes like appealing personality, popularity, esteem, charisma, ability to persuade others, eloquence, honesty, congeniality, etc. These attributes by themselves may not form a solid base for influencing others. To be effective, they must go hand in hand with the possession of a combination of the other bases of influence earlier on mentioned.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   Enumerate the bases of power of a group leader.
2.   List the bases of influence in a rural community.

3.2   Functions of Leaders

To advance the course of powers of a group, leaders have to perform some functions. In any social situation, there are four fundamental leadership functions, these are, goal-setting, goal-achievement, group maintenance, and group evaluation and feedback. Acts of leadership

should result in satisfactory performance of these functions if the need for existence of any group is to be justified.

The functions of leadership are many and inter-related, Rose and Hendry (1957) identified nine leadership functions after a thorough examination of previous writings on leadership. These are ensuring:

1) Viscidity
2) Hedonic tone
3) Syntality
4) Goal-achievement
5) Initiative
6) Group and goal analysis
7) Communication
8) Establishing structure, and
9) Implementing philosophy

Viscidity is the tendency of the group to pull together. It is the degree to which members can work as a unit in the common interest. The group leader could facilitate viscidity by minimizing dissertions, personal conflict among members so that they can work together as a body.

Hedonic tone is the degree of agreeableness among group members, it relates to pleasantness in the group atmosphere, generality of relations among members and satisfying experience in the group. To facilitate hedonic tone, the leader should enhance members' likeness for the group and willingness to look forward to its meeting.

Syntality is the prediction of what performance of the total group will be in a given stimulus situation. It includes such dimensions as group integration, cohesiveness, morale, sociability and permeability.

Goal achievement is the extent to which the group is able to attain alms. The leader in any situation must be able to help the group define, mobilize resources and attain its goal.

The leader must take the initiative in most aspects of group life. He must start new ideas, projects, contributions, discussions, and take the lead in carrying out group tasks.

Group and goal analysis as a leadership function requires that the leader must possess the ability to see the subparts of problems and projects and the group process. He must utilize such analysis for efficient group productivity.

The leader must facilitate effective communication among group members. The moment individuals are not informed about what is going on in their group, they tend to limit their interest in the activities of such group.

The leader should devote time to establishing structure in a group. After goal-setting, the leader should make internal arrangements for ensuring congenial member interactions, group activities and extra-group relations. "Who is to do what", should be clearly stated to clarify responsibilities and prevent role misconception.

The leader must implement the philosophy of the group he represents. Sometimes a leader has some personal goals apart from the group goals which he wants to achieve. There should be no conflict between the goals of the leader and the group goals if the atmosphere is to be maintained in which both can be achieved. That is to say, for any leader to succeed, his personal goals must be secondary to and compatible with the group goals.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. List the four fundamental leadership functions
2. What is hedonic tone?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we discussed functions of leaders and their bases of power and influence. From all these you would have learnt that we tried to analyze "leadership" by breaking it down into several types according to basic function or process, in order to give a bit clearer description of all the leadership that comes to play in a community.

5.0 SUMMARY

The main points in this unit are as follows:

1. The five bases of power of a group leader include:

(a) Reward power
(b) Coercive power
(c) Expert power
(d) Referent power
(e) Legitimate power

2. Power is usually conceived in terms of authority and influence
3. The bases of influence include:

 (a) Official position
 (b) Financial control
 (c) Organizational influence
 (d) Knowledge or expertness
 (e) Interpersonal contacts
 (f) Personal characteristics

4. The four fundamental leadership functions are goal-setting, goal-achievement, group maintenance and group evaluation and feedback

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Identify and discuss the bases of power of a group leader.
2. Discuss the bases of influence of community leaders.
3. Explain the functions of leaders.

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UNIT 5   LEADERSHIP IN RURAL COMMUNITIES - 3 (DEVELOPMENT AND FUNCTIONS OF RURAL COMMUNITY LEADERS)

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In the last two units we discussed leadership in rural communities. This unit is a continuation of the last two units and will bring us to the end of the course - Introduction to agricultural extension and rural sociology. After studying this unit, you are expected to have achieved the objectives listed below.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

· appreciate what leadership is in rural community ·
understand what leadership development is
· recognise the functions of community leaders in agricultural extension and rural development.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Appreciation of what Leadership is in Rural Communities

Leadership, in essence, is simply influencing the attitude and actions of one or more persons, leading toward the achievement of some purpose or goal. This is generally accomplished through various ways. For example, imparting knowledge, giving advice or suggestions, expressing a belief or opinion, making decisions on behalf of groups, providing assistance, exercising power, lending approval or support, also by example or demonstration.

Most leadership position call for some degree of decision making, may 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. For leadership requires followership, based upon service to and support from people.

Most important of all, leadership is more than having been born with favourable characteristics, such as appearance, voice, personality and ambition. These characteristics may aid a person in developing leadership ability, but this ability is acquired as a result of training and experience rather than as a result of being born with certain attributes. If people have the desire to lead they can learn to be leaders. Some will not be as effective as others, even after considerable effort.

Leadership generally arises out of social situations of some kind that happen to call for particular leadership at given times for specific purposes, sometimes even crises; arises out of the need for leadership. It is usually based upon some degree of previous accomplishment in the eyes of the group or one's followers who grant leadership or acquiesce to one assuming it.

Thus, leadership reflect a relationship between people or between a person and group members. It is sometimes earned. It is bestowed, for 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 judgement about his accomplishment, nature and potentiality, and the needs of the particular leadership job at hand. For a person to merely think he is a leader is not enough. Nor is it enough for a professional worker to think a person is a leader without adequately considering whether or not he has any followers or leadership relationship with the group or people under concern.

Leadership distribution follows relationships. Research bears out that leaders are generally rather widely distributed and vary in scope of influence according to the group relationships and concerns of the people in given social situations. Communities themselves, large or

small, are networks of relationships or social systems. Within these systems various types and patterns of leadership usually function and can be identified.

The elitists who conceive of power in terms of domination of the masses by an oligarchy of the few, favour the reputational approach of identifying community leaders, while the pluralists who see power as decentralized in a democratic society, favour the use of the decisional approach of identifying community leaders. Other approaches are; the positional, social participation and opinion leadership approaches.

People of given population segments, or social systems generally, are best reached through leadership of their own people. However, in many cases, their interest in a given subject and your rapport with them may first have to be developed.

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. Always the factor of maturity and growth must be considered by professional workers as they work with people in programmes. Very few leaders start out at the top of a ladder. People grow in leadership through experience and training. One form of growth is advancement in kind of positions held.

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 and see to it that they are given recognition and encouragement. They become a reservoir from which to draw when filling other positions later.

Leaders also grow in their ability to do better in given leadership positions; not all need to be ''promoted'' for development to take place. People grow in personality development, too, as they have opportunities to function as leaders. Besides performing a particular task or leadership function, one gains in knowledge, interest, aspiration and satisfaction.

Thus, leadership development, made possible through expanding opportunities to become involved, is truly human resource development.

Frequently it is best to avoid referring to persons as ''leaders'', or of using the term ''leadership'' when working with given persons or groups. One reason for this is that most good leaders prefer to be humble and not known by such a weighty title. For many, the term implies something they do not think they are or want to be; they prefer to be known by the particular position they are in at a given time, such as

president, secretary, committee man or counsellor, rather than as a "leader", a term which to them tends to imply too much "front", "authoritative" or "top" position.

Another reason why professional workers avoid over-use of the term "leader" and "leadership" is that such terms may weaken the relationship between a leader and his group, which gives rise to his leadership in the first place.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Leadership, is simply influencing the …………and…………… of one or more persons, leading towards the achievement of some purpose or goal.
2. Leadership distribution follows ……………………………..

3.2 Functions of Community Leaders in Agricultural Extension and Rural Development

Regardless of their dwindling influence, community leaders perform many functions to promote agricultural extension and rural development particularly in Nigerian rural communities. Some of the functions are:

1. **Education:** They take part in training other community residents how to carry out agricultural extension programmes once they have undergone such training themselves. They therefore increase the volume of teaching carried out in the rural communities.

2. **Legitimation:** They give approval to rural development programmes which are brought into their communities for implementation. The approval of the leader is crucial in determining whether many rural development programmes brought into a community are accepted or rejected by the generality of residents of the community.

3. **Planning:** They take part in planning extension and other rural development programmes which are to take place in their communities. Community leaders often serve as officials such as chairman of programme planning committees set up in their communities to plan rural development programmes.

4. **Programme Execution:** They take an active part in carrying out rural development programmes in their communities. Specifically, they contribute money, landed properties, time and energy, and also attend meetings aimed at facilitating the

execution of rural development programmes. They also organize, supervise and motivate other people to carry out rural development programmes and to contribute their resources to such programmes.

5. **Spokesmanship:** They also represent the community in extra-local meetings. In less important instances, they select other community residents to represent them in meetings outside the community so that they can concentrate on dealing with pressing local issues.

6. **Father-Figure:** Community leaders are looked upon as the fathers of the communities particularly by the outsiders. Many issues concerning the community are therefore referred to the leaders first before attempting to reach other community residents. Some issues are resolved at the top by the leaders.

7. **Summoning to Meetings:** The leader summons other elders to his house to meet regularly. He summons other village residents for meetings less frequently to deliberate on community issues or to visitors to the community who might be interested in meeting them. The leader normally ensures that such a meeting is necessary before he summons the general community meeting. He often chooses another resident to perform the function of summoning people for him.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. List the functions of community leaders in agricultural extension and rural development.
2. What is legitimation?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit we discussed the appreciation of what leadership is in rural communities as well as the functions of community leaders in agricultural extension and rural development. From all this we must have learnt to make use of leaders invited into programmes. As soon as possible open opportunities for them to serve or contribute. Provide them guidance, training and assistance. Then give them recognition - words of commendation and encouragement.

5.0   SUMMARY

The main point in this unit includes the following:

1.   Leadership is simply influencing the attitude and actions of one or more persons, leading toward the achievement of some purpose or goal.

2.   Leadership is more than having been with favourable characteristics, such as appearance, voice, personality and ambition. These characteristics may aid a person in developing leadership ability, but this ability is acquired as a result of training and experience rather than as a result of being born with certain attributes.

3.   The methods of identifying community leaders are reputational approach, decisional approach, positional approach, social participation and opinion leadership approaches.

4.   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.

5.   Some of the functions of community leaders in agricultural extension and rural development are education, legitimation, planning, programme execution, spokesmanship, father-figure and summoning to meetings.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Discuss how leadership in rural communities can be appreciated.
2.   Explain the term ''leadership development''.
3.   Outline the functions of community leaders in agricultural and rural development.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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