



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA
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FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION

Course Code:	PAD742
Course Title:	Development Theory and Administration
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COURSE GUIDE

PAD 742 Development theory and administration is a postgraduate course that tends to expose the student to the rudiments of development and administration in both theoretically and practically in the way and manner a society is governed in the interest of all and sundry subsumed into modules for easy of purpose and to guide an understanding of the course in its entirety. The overall aim of the course is to introduce you to the definition and origin of development planning and administration. Related concepts such as development, growth, underdevelopment and modernization will be learnt as well as underpinning theories to expedite the understanding of the intricacies that are embedded in the development paradigm. After that the focus will shift to the environment of development administration with emphasis on salient economic, political, administrative and socio-cultural factors which are parts and parcel of development agendas.

Course Description

Development theory and administration is a one semester, 2 credit, PAD course. It is made up of twenty units collapsed into four modules. The overall aim of the course is to introduce you to the definition and origin of development planning and administration. Related concepts such as development, growth, underdevelopment and modernisation will be learnt. After that the focus will shift to the environment of development administration with emphasis on salient economic, political, administrative and socio-cultural factors which impinge on government development efforts. Other issues that will be discussed include development planning.

Measurable Outcomes

To achieve the stated aims the course sets specific objectives at the beginning of each unit which you should read before studying the unit. You should endeavour to look at the units objectives after completing a unit to be sure you have attained the unit requirement. To complete the course, you are required to study the units, read the textbooks and other materials listed under further reading plus any other material provided by the National Open University of Nigeria. Each unit contains activities and tutor-marked assignments for assessment purposes. There is a final examination at the end of the course. There are two parts to the assessment of the course. First are the tutor- marked assignments and second there is a written examination. When completing the assignments, it is expected of you to apply the knowledge acquired during the course. There are thirty tutor- marked assignments in this course and you are encouraged to attempt all which constitute 30%. The final written examination for this course will be of three hours' duration and will have a maximum value of 70% of the total grade. The

examination will consist of questions, which reflect the course content. The time between completing the last unit and sitting for examination should be used to revise the course. It may be useful to review your activities and tutor-marked assignments before the examination.

One of the advantages of distance learning is that you can read specially designed materials at your own pace, and at the time and place, that suit you best. It may take place in an isolated village with a hurricane lamp or in an urban centre with electricity but the lecturer (replaced by the study units) is the same. Just as a lecturer might give you in-class exercise, your study units provide activities and tutor-marked assignments for you to do at appropriate times. Each of the units follows a common format in this sequence – introduction to the subject matter; objectives (let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed a particular unit); the main body of the unit (guides you through the required reading with activities); summary; conclusion; tutor-marked assignments and further reading. Activities are meant to help you achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the tutor-marked assignments and the final examination. When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking; do not wait for its return before commencing work on the next unit. When the marked assignment is returned go through the comments of your tutor carefully and mail any questions or any difficulties encountered to him.

Self-Assessment-Exercise (SAEs)

Two Self-assessment Exercises each are incorporated in the study material for each unit. Self-assessment Exercise helps students to be a realistic judge of their own performance and to improve their work. Promotes the skills of reflective practice and self-monitoring; Promotes academic integrity through student self-reporting of learning progress; Develops self-directed learning; Increases student motivation and Helps students develop a range of personal, transferrable skills.

SUMMARY

Each Unit contained a summary of the entire unit. A summary is a brief statement or restatement of main points, especially as a conclusion to a work: a summary of a chapter. A brief is a detailed outline, by heads and subheads, of a discourse (usually legal) to be completed: a brief for an argument.

Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

The materials contained Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content. The possible Self-assessments answers enable you to understand how well you

are performing in the contents. It is a way of analysing your work performance and any areas for growth. Reflecting on your strengths, weaknesses, values and accomplishments can help you determine what goals to work toward next.

COURSE STRUCTURES

MODULE 1 Origin and Concept of Development

UNIT 1: Origin of Development

UNIT 2: Concept of Development

UNIT 3: Fundamental Element of Development

UNIT 4: Theories of Development

UNIT 5: Related Concepts

MODULE 2: Growth and Development Administration

UNIT 1: Concept of Growth?

UNIT 2: Characteristics of Development

UNIT 3: Meaning of Underdevelopment

UNIT 4: Theory of Modernization in Development Administration

UNIT 5: Features Underdeveloped Economy

MODULE 3: Environment of Development Administration

UNIT 1: Political Environment of Development Administration

UNIT 2: Social – Cultural Environment of Development Administration

UNIT 3: Administrative Environment of Development Administration

Unit 4: Socio-cultural features of underdevelopment

UNIT5: Administrative Reforms in Nigeria

MODULE 4 DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

UNIT 4: History of Development Plan

UNIT 2 Concept of development Planning

UNIT 3: The Planning Process in Nigeria

UNIT 4: The Planning Machinery in Nigeria

UNIT 5: National Development Plan of Some selected countries

MODULE 1: ORIGIN AND CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

UNIT 1: Origin of Development

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

1.2. Learning outcomes

1.3 The Origin of Development Administration

1.4 Summary:

1.5 References/Further Reading

1.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



1.1 Introduction

The evolution of development administration, along with other facets of administration, can be traced back to a number of world events, most notably those that transpired in the Western world in the decades following World War II, which ultimately persuaded developing countries to adopt development administration in the years following their independence. In the following sections, we will talk about these events in order.



1.2. Learning outcomes

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

- i. Explain the origin of development administration
- ii. Explain why the developing countries adopted development administration.



1.3 THE ORIGIN OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Private ownership of the means of production was outlawed in Russia after the revolutionary movement of 1917. That meant the end of private industry and the free market as engines of economic growth. What took its place was the establishment of planning and public enterprise. The outcomes were impressive. Public savings and investment were encouraged at high levels by the state. Both national income and capital accumulation increased at historically high rates. After WWII, the Soviet Union had become the world's second superpower. The Soviet Union went from being an underdeveloped and backward country to a developed one in around four decades.

As so, it served as a model of well-organized economic growth for countries that came after. As a result of the Soviet Union's example, many countries in the Third World used a similar policy. The Soviet Union's planned economy eventually gave way to a free market system after the fall of socialism (now Russia). The Great Depression of 1929, also known as the World Economic Crisis, may be familiar to you. The result was a complete freeze of the market system, particularly in the developed nations of the West. Overproduction led to a glut of unsold goods, factory closures, a collapse in the stock market, and a sharp increase in the jobless rate. All of this led to a severe disconnect between supply and demand. It was well-known that a free market economy wouldn't necessarily grow without any bumps along the way. The Great Depression, however, made everything obvious. It's worth noting, incidentally, that the Great Depression had no effect on the Soviet economy because it was a planned economy. When thinking about the Great Depression, how do you think the crisis was handled? The answer lies in coercion from the state. States in the West's worst-hit countries stepped in to boost market demand by launching public works projects and funding them with newly created currency (printing currency notes, also known as deficit financing). The action led to an increase in sales and job creation. Because of this policy, the market's demand for products and services began to rise. Time allowed for everything to return to normal, and progress to resume. The famed English economist J.M. Keynes supplied the economic theory upon which this course of state intervention is founded, hence the alternative moniker "keynesian solution" for the economic crisis. This program of government intervention was dubbed the "new deal" in the United States. There was one important consequence of living during the Great Depression. A fence-sitting state that does not aggressively intervene in economic life to control the functioning of the market, known as "laissez faire," has been discredited. Since then, it has become standard practice for the state to intervene in the market economy whenever it is deemed essential. Until recently, this was only done on a case-by-case basis, usually during times of war or other emergencies. Second, as was already mentioned, the state exercises economic control and undertakes suggestive planning in these nations (where the state does not actively play a role in economic development but merely indicates the direction in which private enterprise is to move). Last but not least, it organizes and executes public works, especially in the realm of social infrastructure. The developing world could learn something from the changes that occurred in established capitalist countries in the wake of the Great Depression. The takeaway was that private enterprise and the free market couldn't do it all on their own, and the state needed to get involved in economic development as well. World War II (1936 – 45) followed the Great Depression quickly. Not only did capitalist and fascist countries like Germany and Japan require state intervention, but also so did a total command of the economy, its regulation, and its production planning, all in the name of winning the war. What we are talking about here is the "planning of the WarTime Economies," if you will. After a conflict, the government

had to take an active part in helping with rehabilitation and rebuilding. The lessons of history lend themselves well to the practice of development management. Concurrently with the foregoing evolution, the concept of the welfare state emerged and gained widespread acceptance in all market economies after World War II. Beyond its interventionist function, a welfare state must address the broader problem of social welfare by addressing and redressing the negative aspects of market-based development. The government in the developed countries of the West spends a significant amount of money on social services like healthcare, education, and retirement programs. These are examples of social protection or welfare programs. All of this needs to be planned for in advance. Market-based development has evolved with a number of unintended consequences, one of which being environmental pollution and ecological deterioration. It is the responsibility of the welfare state to ensure the preservation of natural resources and the planning for their future restoration and development in addition to their protection of the environment and ecology. This is because they are not part of the private-profit-driven free market process. The colonies began to agitate for independence after World War II, and many of them eventually gained independence. This is another historical experience that lends support to development management and can be said to have begun in the developing countries. Many of the newly independent nations were poor, but the general public had been taught to believe that their lot in life would improve dramatically once they attained their independence. Impatience grew as these hopes and dreams faded away. This kind of impatience could explode into violent reactions that threaten, if not destroy, the state itself if change isn't implemented as quickly as feasible. There was a swift realization on the part of these governments that steady progress might not be in their best interest. They believed that in order to modernize their economies and speed up development to one day be comparable to that of the West, appropriate administrative theories and processes would need to be followed. The new nations had to seal their doors to foreign investors due to the chronic shortage of capital (money or wealth used to start a business) and capital markets (where money used to start a business is sourced). This meant that private ownership could only mean foreign ownership. Therefore, it was concluded that only the state, with its well-established apparatus, could effectively induce, encourage, and manage economic and social growth. Because of this, after independence the government took the lead in fostering economic growth by building essential infrastructure and creating essential commodities and services, frequently through the mechanism of public enterprise. Governments often fund and construct public infrastructure; in Nigeria, for instance, the Federal government owns the Nigeria Railway Corporation, the National Electric Power Authority, and the Nigerian Ports Authority. In 1977, 400 state-owned companies in Tanzania contributed 38% of the country's total fixed capital formation (Jorgensen, 1990: 62). The field of development administration was birthed when these two schools of thought collided in the minds of students studying comparative public administration.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

Q1. Explain the origin of development planning?

Q2. What in your opinion led to the state intervention in the economies of the industrially advanced countries of the West?



1.4 SUMMARY:

Development administration is geared towards development and it stems from socialization. It is worthy of note also that the task of development in the post-independence period in the developing countries was considered an urgent one since upon it depended the very survival of the nations. The people had been made to believe that independence would bring about an immediate improvement in their conditions. It was therefore; felt that the idea of gradualism would be inadequate in the developing countries in providing guidelines for building a nation-state out of traditional society. Thus, government became the prime agent of economic development in these nations. These streams of thought gave birth to what is today known as development administration.



1.5 References/Further Reading

Jorgensen, J.J. (1990). 'Organisational Life Cycle and Effectiveness Criteria in the State-Owned Enterprises: The Case of East Africa in Alfred, M.J. and Rabindna, N.K., Management in Developing Countries, London and New York: Routledge.



1.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Q1. Socialist revolution in Russia in 1917 led to the abolition of private ownership and adoption of centralized planning.

Q2

i. The Great Depression of 1929

ii. The Soviet economy being a planned economy was not affected by the depression hence the motivation for the state to intervene in the economies of the advanced countries of the West. iii. The Second World War necessitated the state intervention in the economy iv. The welfare state wanted to correct the negative aspects of market based development.

UNIT 2: CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

Unit Structure

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Learning Outcome

2.3 Meaning of Development Administration

2.4 Growth in Development Administration

2.5 Summary

2.6 References/Further Reading

2.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



2.1 INTRODUCTION

Due to its lack of a single, universal definition, the idea of development has been studied from a variety of perspectives. While there is some overlap between the various definitions of "development," there are a few key features that really stand out. Given this reality, it's important to realize that development is synonymous with rising living standards, enhanced infrastructure, and flourishing communities.

To another set of people, development is a landmark national accomplishment that calls for deep dives into government, industry, science, and the general welfare of the people living there. Today, many nations are held up as examples of effective administration and the pursuit of development thanks to the careful and focused policies of their governments as communicated through administrative narratives. However, in less developed nations like Nigeria, such progress remains elusive. That's why it's important to talk about topics like development administration, planning, and even theories of development, which can help shed light on the subject as a whole.



2.2 Learning Outcome

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

- I. Define development administration and
- II. Explain the **Growth in Development Administration**



2.3 MEANING OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Unlike in developed countries, where citizens demand more social services to support a society that has already reached a high level of development in which the vast majority of its members possess and enjoy the basic necessities for a decent life, in the new nations even those basic necessities are either non-existent or minimal for the vast majority of the population. In addition, the mission of development was an urgent one because it is essential to the existence or building of the nation. In addition, the populace had been led to believe that the moment they achieved independence, everything would improve dramatically. As a result, it was decided that the standard model of public administration would not be sufficient for outlining how to create a nation-state from preexisting societies. To "modernize" their economies and speed up their growth until they were on par with those in industrialized climates, emerging nations chose a new style of administration called development administration, which emerged within the broader area of public administration. To remove tribal authority and superstition, it was thought that all that was needed was the application of technological skill in agriculture and industry, together with a technocratic bureaucracy based on the rational-legal concepts laid out by Max Weber. Accordingly, we might say that development administration is an approach to administration that prioritizes growth. It creates and directs political, social, and economic innovations that boost a country's economy. Innovation and social engineering define development administration. Development administration, as described by (Fainsod 1963: 1-5), is a transmitter of innovative norms. It incorporates the many new responsibilities being taken on by emerging nations as they pursue industrialisation and modernization. Normal development administration entails setting up apparatus for planning economic growth and mobilizing resources to increase national revenue.

Growth, advancement, positive change, or the addition of physical, economic, environmental, social, and demographic components are all examples of development. These factors work together to raise the standard of living for all members of society. Improvements in people's standard of living and the availability of new economic opportunities are why development is pursued. While progress can be seen and felt, albeit not immediately, and can involve both qualitative shifts and the establishment of conditions conducive to the maintenance of such shifts, development is best when it has a net beneficial effect on all aspects of human life.

During the second part of the twentieth century, development became an increasingly important topic on the world agenda. The importance of policies that direct resources and facilitate social and economic mobility for different strata of the population became clear as people throughout the world realized that economic expansion did not automatically lead to an improvement in the level and quality of life for all of them.

2.4 GROWTH IN DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Many different experts and researchers over the years have given the term "growth" their own unique meanings and focuses. For instance, (Amartya S, 2009) proposed the "capability approach," which defines development as a tool that allows people to realize their full potential by allowing them to pursue their personal goals with little restriction (in terms of economic, social, and familial freedoms, etc.). The UNDP's Human Development Index (HDI), an assessment of progress based on this method, was created in 1990. The abilities approach, pioneered by (Martha, N. 2016) in the field of gender, places special emphasis on women's empowerment as a means of progress.

Conversely, experts like (Jeffrey S. and Paul Col. 2018) have zeroed in on the factors that keep many nations mired in poverty despite decades of effort to get them out of it. Poverty traps like civil conflicts and limited access to natural resources are only few of the many that exist. Depending on the extent to which these traps are avoided, a country's political, economic, and social conditions might either deteriorate or improve. If done properly, it could be seen as an effort to push progress forward. One of Jeffrey Sacks' main goals in his writing is to further the concept of sustainable development, which emphasizes progress toward a better standard of living for all people while also taking into account the requirements of future generations and the planet's finite resources.

Some people think of development as the accumulation of material goods—cars, trains, refrigerators, televisions, computers, phones, radios, electricity, textiles, buildings, schools, paved roads, etc.—while others associate the term with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) or, even better, the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. In other words, development to them means eliminating issues like extreme poverty and hunger, lack of education, high rates of infant and maternal mortality, diseases like malaria and HIV/AIDS, discrimination based on gender, and so on.

Most definitions of "development" focus solely on economic growth, and this is justified by the fact that the economy has far-reaching effects on all societies and serves as a leading indication of other socio-political elements of a society. However, development can take many forms, including those related to the economy, government, society, culture, and individual progress.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: identify the attributes of Development Administration.

Q2: and describe the scopes of development



2.5 SUMMARY:

In essence, development administration is field especially within the broader field of public administration. Whereas public administration is concerned with the maintenance of law and order, development administration is geared more towards development. In the final analysis one may say that administration stems from capitalism while development administration stems from socialism.



2.6 References/Further Reading

Fainsod, M. (1963). The Structure of Development Administration in Development Administration: Concepts and Problems.

Swerdlow I (ed). Jorgensen, J.J. (1990). "Organisational Life-cycle and Effectiveness Criteria in State-Owned Enterprises: The Case of East Africa' in Alfred, M.J. and Rabindra, N.K. Management in Developing Countries. London and New York: Routledge.

Turner, M. and Hulme, D. (1997). Government Administration and Development: Making the State Work. London: Macmillan.



2.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question one: Development administration is concerned with development. It initiates and manages innovation, which can be political, social and economic. Development administration is characterized by innovation, and social engineering. It embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernisation and industrialization. Development administration involves the establishment of machinery for planning economic growth and mobilizing and allocating resources to expand national income.

Question 2: the scope of development revolves around the improved welfare of individuals within the state. It connotes societal development, which ranges from industrialization, infrastructural development and the general wellbeing of all and sundry.

UNIT 3: FUNDAMENTAL ELEMENT OF DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Learning Outcome

3.3 Characteristics of Development

3.4 Scope of Development

3.5 Economic Development

3.6 Political Development

3.7 Socio-Cultural Development

3.8 Summary

3.9 References

3.10 Possible Answer to SAEs



3.1 INTRODUCTION

Even though the idea of development is vague, some things can be used to describe it. Some countries have been able to develop, and as a result, their values and institutions are now used to measure and decide what development looks like everywhere else.



3.2 Learning Outcome

By the end of this unit, you should be able to

- i. Describe the Characteristics of development.
- ii. Explain Scope of Development



3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF DEVELOPMENT

A country is said to be developed if it has the following characteristics:

- ✓ Social infrastructures such as constant electricity, good network of roads, potable water, well equipped and functional schools and hospitals and sound communication networks

- ✓ Adequate Security to protect lives and property
- ✓ Good governance and political stability
- ✓ Industrialization

Moreover, according to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), societal development can be measured using the Human Development Index (HDI) and this includes:

- ✓ High life expectancy
- ✓ High literacy level
- ✓ High income level

In other words, for any society to be regarded as developed, it must be able to provide those basic amenities that would prolong the life of its inhabitants, provide education for the majority of its citizens as well as good jobs that can fetch them enough income to live a quality life.

However, the above UNDP indices of development have been criticized on the ground that they do not take into cognizance societal inequalities and the quality of education that is being given to the people as well as some other vital indicators of development. Majority of the citizens of a society for instance may have access to education, but that education may not be qualitative. The HDI on education is calculated based on number of people who have access to education; it fails to take into account the quality of that education. It is quality education that is needed for development.

Also, the income level in a society may rise as a result of increase in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), but the bulk of the income may be concentrated in the hands of the privileged few – the political and the economic elites. The UNDP's HDI on income is based on the rise of national income, and not on national income distribution.

It has been discovered that if the income rise is not fairly distributed, societal inequality will increase. The gap between the few elites and the rest of the society who are in the majority will continue to widen even as the GDP and national income increase. Despite these few reservations, Human Development Index (HDI) is still a yardstick for measuring development.

3.4 SCOPE OF DEVELOPMENT

We have said earlier that development is a multi-dimensional process, thus its scope is very broad. It ranges from economic, political to socio-cultural variables.

It also includes factors like national infrastructure, technology, transportation systems, information communications and technology, and military preparedness.

3.5 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

This is a dimension that readily comes to mind whenever development is mentioned. This is because of the primacy of the economy in shaping other sectors of human society. The economy is the foundation of a society or what (Ake 1981) referred to as the base, and if it is strong, it will have positive impact on the political system which is the super-structure.

However, if the economy is weak, it will have inimical effects on the political system. In fact, it is the economic system that produces the resources to be allocated. And if the resources are not produced in the first place, there will be nothing to allocate. Hence, the economic aspect of development appears to be at the foremost in the hierarchy of development discourses.

Economic development entails increase in the wealth of a nation through expanded production of goods and services. It includes the rise in agricultural production, manufacturing and construction as a result of the introduction of better skills, techniques and technology. Also, it includes, but not limited to increase in GDP, rise in exports, job and wealth creation, high per capital income cum high standard of living. Suffice to state here that economic growth is different from economic development though; some western scholars would want us to believe that the two are the same. Economic growth entails increase in GDP, but that increase may not translate to development. The GDP and the economy may sometimes grow as a result of improvement in just few areas of the economy such as crude oil production and, or the price of oil in the International Oil Market.

It may also be induced by increase in the production of goods and services by a few Multinational Corporations (MNCs) whose subsidiaries are domiciled in the country, or due to bountiful agricultural harvests which may increase export of cash crops. This will in turn increase external revenues for the government (economic growth). But such revenues may not be utilized to improve the well-being of majority of the people which economic development demands.

In this case, there is economic growth without corresponding economic development. This shows that increase in GDP may only bring about increase in revenues or incomes of both the government and the privileged few in the society.

3.6 Political Development

This aspect of development is also very important. Politics is not only central to the making of development, but also vital to its sustenance. Political development is attained when a political system is able to enjoy popular legitimacy, articulate and aggregate public interests, authoritatively allocate resources as well as maintain law and order through strong and functional institutions. In the opinion of Lucian Pye, equality, capacity and differentiation are the three important features of political development. Gabriel Almond

described political development as the capacity of the political system to effectively perform rule-making, rule adjudication and rule application functions.

A society is said to have political development if there is accountability and transparency in political leadership, respect of the rule of law, constitutionalism, and periodic free, fair and credible elections or selection process as well as political stability. Most importantly, political development entails strong institutions that have legitimate authority to guarantee equilibrium in the system through proper management of identity crisis, political participation crisis, distribution of resources crisis and national integration.

It involves optimum performance of the institutions of state such as the legislature, the executive, the judiciary, the police, the military, etc. In contemporary times, political development is equated with liberal democracy.

Thus, countries with matured democratization processes are regarded as having political development. However, experiences have shown that there are countries that do not practice liberal democracy, yet, they have political development. For example, Russia and China have their own peculiar styles of leadership which the West often consider as not in conformity with the capitalist notion of development but insofar as it has translated into improvement of living standards and societal transformation, it can be termed development as well.

3.7 Socio-Cultural Development

This is another essential dimension of development. It entails improvement in social infrastructure. Regular supply of power, potable water, good road networks, functional and quality schools, sound communication network, good health care system and adequate security, are some of the characteristics of social development.

Also, human capital falls under socio-cultural development. This entails optimal harnessing of human potentials which translate to increased human knowledge and skills. Human capital is very vital because without it neither economic nor political development is possible.

Lack of development in the Third world has been largely attributed to the dearth of human capital. In a knowledge economy where ideas and skills are necessary catalysts, human capital is inevitable. It is the fulcrum of societal development.

Moreover, socio-cultural development involves the evolution of national norms, values and identity. All these are pre-requisite for nation building and national integration which are in turn necessary for total societal development.

Having said that, it is worthy of note that from a wholistic perspective, Development means different things to different people. To some people, it is the improvement of the economy, while to others, it is a political transformation. Yet to some others, it is a social

change or movement towards a desired state of being. At the Epi-centre of development is man. Hence, the ultimate goal of development is to improve the people's welfare and quality of life by harnessing the available resources, and creating resources where they are not available, to meet their immediate and future needs. No society fully embodies all the development ideals, but there are some societies that have approximated or achieved these ideals to a reasonable degree. Such societies are regarded as developed.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1. Itemize some of the features of Development

Q2. How can Development be measured?



3.8 SUMMARY

The term development means a lot to different scholars and their opinion varies in terms of the checklists of development as presented in each view. However, certain parameters abound when the concept of development is mentioned and it tends to address the welfare needs of the citizenry.



3.9 References

Chenery et al, Eds. H., (1974). Redistribution with Growth (Oxford University Press, Oxford,

Howe, I. W. (1975), The U.S. and World Development: Agenda for Action 1975 (Overseas Development Council Praeger, New York, 198-306.

Morris, M. D. (1979). Measuring the Condition of the World's Poor: The Physical Quality of Life Index (Pergamon/Overseas Development Council, Elmsford, New York.



3.10 Possible Answer to SAE:

Question one: When the questions of societal transformation in the interest of all and sundry in a society are met and when the levels of poverty, hunger and unemployment are tackled, a society can be adjudged to have experienced development.

Question two: In other words, it simply connotes a society that has achieved certain levels of individual welfare beyond the global poverty line. For example, when poverty is adjudged to be reduced, when shelter is for all, when all the indices of improved living are met.

UNIT 4: THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT

Unit Structure

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Learning Outcomes

4.3 Theories of Development

4.3.1 Modernization Theory

4.3.2 Dependency Theory

Feminist Theory

4.4 Summary

1.5 References/Further Reading

4.6 Possible Answer to SAE:

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This unit will be discussing the theories of development. Development theories as propounded by Todaro and Smith which looks at development as a multi-dimensional process that involves major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as economic growth, reduction of inequality, and eradication of absolute poverty. Most scholars propounded theories concerning development, how it is achieved and how it is impeded. These theories are the Modernization theory, the Dependency theory and the Feminist theory.



4.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Discuss the various theories of development



4.3 Theories of Development

4.3.1 Modernization Theory

The modernization theory elaborates on two main categories of societies in the world, namely the traditional and modern societies. Theorists argue that the traditional societies

are entangled by norms, beliefs and values which are a hinderance to their development process. Therefore, they must adapt the modern style of living, thus concentrate on accumulation of capital and industrialization.

In essence, this theory seeks to improve the standard of living of inferior societies, that is, improves the economic growth of supposed traditional societies to acquire basic and secondary necessities of life, by introducing modern technology and economic strategy to the third world. Modernization theorist like WW Rostow, also proposed swift machineries of transition for traditional societies to develop; these are preparation to take-off, take-off, drive to maturity and the period of mass consumption. These transitional path processes put traditional societies on the development path. Again, the theory succeeds in the idea that the norms, values and beliefs of a society can affect the social change of that society.

Despite the advantages attributed to the theory, it has weaknesses which must be addressed. Firstly, the theory seeks to entail only the economic and concrete industrial growth of the third world countries. The theory lacks Amartya's view of development, which states that "development can be seen as the process of expanding the freedoms that people enjoy" (Sen,1999). To Sen, development entails freedom, liberty, and self-esteem of humanity which are neglected by the theory.

Secondly, the modernization theory posited that the third world countries must admit the development processes of the modern countries. It fails to recognize the fact that one system cannot be adopted by all countries due to the diverse historical and cultural background of the countries.

Lastly, Wallerstein pointed out that the theory creates dependency and exploitation of the third world countries. The theory neglects the social and cultural structure of the third world countries and imposes on the poor, ethnocentric processes to develop that all societies must follow to attain development.

The dependency theory on the other hand opposes the modernization theory. Its main argument is that, the persistent increment in industrialization in the developed countries rather equally subject poor countries to underdevelopment as a result of the economic surplus of the poor countries being exploited by developed countries.

It was a great analysis done by Frank A. Gunder by being able to debunk the weak, non historical and ethnocentric issues propounded by the modernization theory (Webster 1984).

In addition, (Frank G, 1999) succeeded in pointing out the economic inequalities among the developed and the developing countries, as well as the rampant internal inequalities in the various periphery countries and the exploitation of economic surplus of developing countries during colonialism.

Again, the theory posits an essence on the fact that development is not mainly based on the cultural values but rather, the economic and social structures and procedures.

Dependency theory incurs some weaknesses upon examination of its central thesis hence it was said that; Frank failed to exhibit the specific and key dependency of the less developed countries on the metropolis; he merely stated that poor countries depend on rich countries with no specific clarification. The theory downplays internal development. It promotes the idea that indigenous industries cannot develop by its productivity, which is not true. Moreover, the theory refuses to point out how the developed countries get access to the economic surplus of the third world countries.

However, the notion that resources flow from a "periphery" of poor and underdeveloped states to a "core" of wealthy states, enriching the latter at the expense of the former cannot be ruled out when one considers the plunder of colonialism and its sustenance in the form of globalization as is known today. There is also a central contention of dependency theory that poor states are impoverished and rich ones enriched by the way poor states are integrated into the "world system".

The theory arose as a reaction to modernization theory, an earlier theory of development which held that all societies progress through similar stages of development, that today's underdeveloped areas are thus in a similar situation to that of today's developed areas at some time in the past, and that, therefore, the task of helping the underdeveloped areas out of poverty is to accelerate them along this supposed common path of development, by various means such as investment, technology transfers, and closer integration into the world market.



4.3.2 DEPENDENCY THEORY

Dependency theory rejected this view, arguing that underdeveloped countries are not merely primitive versions of developed countries, but have unique features and structures of their own; and, importantly, are in the situation of being the weaker members in a world market economy. Dependency theory no longer has many proponents as an overall theory, but some writers have argued for its continuing relevance as a conceptual orientation to the global division of wealth. There are a number of propositions, all of which are contestable, which form the core of dependency theory. These propositions include:

1. *Underdevelopment* is a condition fundamentally different from *undevelopment*. The latter term simply refers to a condition in which resources are not being used. For example, the European colonists viewed the North American continent as an

undeveloped area: the land was not actively cultivated on a scale consistent with its potential. Underdevelopment refers to a situation in which resources are being actively used, but used in a way which benefits dominant states and not the poorer states in which the resources are found.

2. The distinction between underdevelopment and development places the poorer countries of the world in a profoundly different historical context. These countries are not "behind" or "catching up" to the richer countries of the world. They are not poor because they lagged behind the scientific transformations or the Enlightenment values of the European states. They are poor because they were coercively integrated into the European economic system only as producers of raw materials or to serve as repositories of cheap labor, and were denied the opportunity to market their resources in any way that competed with dominant states.

3. Dependency theory suggests that alternative uses of resources are preferable to the resource usage patterns imposed by dominant states. There is no clear definition of what these preferred patterns might be, but some criteria are invoked. For example, one of the dominant state practices most often criticized by dependency theorists is export agriculture. The criticism is that many poor economies experience rather high rates of malnutrition even though they produce great amounts of food for export. Many dependency theorists would argue that those agricultural lands should be used for domestic food production in order to reduce the rates of malnutrition.

4. The preceding proposition can be amplified: dependency theorists rely upon a belief that there exists a clear "national" economic interest which can and should be articulated for each country. In this respect, dependency theory actually shares a similar theoretical concern with realism. What distinguishes the dependency perspective is that its proponents believe that this national interest can only be satisfied by addressing the needs of the poor within a society, rather than through the satisfaction of corporate or governmental needs. Trying to determine what is "best" for the poor is a difficult analytical problem over the long run. Dependency theorists have not yet articulated an operational definition of the national economic interest.

5. The diversion of resources over time (and one must remember that dependent relationships have persisted since the European expansion beginning in the fifteenth century) is maintained not only by the power of dominant states, but also through the power of elites in the dependent states. Dependency theorists argue that these elites maintain a dependent relationship because their own private interests coincide with the interests of the dominant states. These elites are typically trained in the dominant states and share similar values and culture with the elites in dominant states. Thus, in a very real sense, a dependency relationship is a "voluntary" relationship. One need not argue that

the elites in a dependent state are consciously betraying the interests of their poor; the elites sincerely believe that the key to economic development lies in following the prescriptions of liberal economic doctrine.

If one accepts the analysis of dependency theory, then the questions of how poor economies develop become quite different from the traditional questions concerning comparative advantage, capital accumulation, and import/export strategies. Some of the most important new issues include:

1. The success of the advanced industrial economies does not serve as a model for the currently developing economies. When economic development became a focused area of study, the analytical strategy (and ideological preference) was quite clear: all nations need to emulate the patterns used by the rich countries. Indeed, in the 1950s and 1960s there was a paradigmatic consensus that growth strategies were universally applicable, a consensus best articulated by Walt Rostow in his book, *The Stages of Economic Growth*. Dependency theory suggests that the success of the richer countries was a highly contingent and specific episode in global economic history, one dominated by the highly exploitative colonial relationships of the European powers. A repeat of those relationships is not now highly likely for the poor countries of the world.

2. Dependency theory repudiates the central distributive mechanism of the neoclassical model, what is usually called "trickle-down" economics. The neoclassical model of economic growth pays relatively little attention to the question of distribution of wealth. Its primary concern is on efficient production and assumes that the market will allocate the rewards of efficient production in a rational and unbiased manner. This assumption may be valid for a well-integrated, economically fluid economy where people can quickly adjust to economic changes and where consumption patterns are not distorted by non-economic forces such as racial, ethnic, or gender bias. These conditions are not pervasive in the developing economies, and dependency theorists argue that economic activity is not easily disseminated in poor economies. For these structural reasons, dependency theorists argue that the market alone is not a sufficient distributive mechanism.

3. Since the market only rewards productivity, dependency theorists discount aggregate measures of economic growth such as the GDP or trade indices. Dependency theorists do not deny that economic activity occurs within a dependent state. They do make a very important distinction, however, between economic growth and economic development. For example, there is a greater concern within the dependency framework for whether the economic activity is actually benefitting the nation as a whole. Therefore, far greater attention is paid to indices such as life expectancy, literacy, infant mortality, education, and the like. Dependency theorists clearly emphasize social indicators far more than economic indicators.

4. Dependent states, therefore, should attempt to pursue policies of self-reliance. Contrary to the neo-classical models endorsed by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, greater integration into the global economy is not necessarily a good choice for poor countries. Often this policy perspective is viewed as an endorsement of a policy of autarky, and there have been some experiments with such a policy such as China's Great Leap Forward or Tanzania's policy of *Ujamaa*. The failures of these policies are clear, and the failures suggest that autarky is not a good choice. Rather a policy of self-reliance should be interpreted as endorsing a policy of controlled interactions with the world economy: poor countries should only endorse interactions on terms that promise to improve the social and economic welfare of the larger citizenry.

4.3.3 FEMINIST THEORY

The feminist theory of development has its main argument being that, women have a great influence in development therefore must be empowered to partake in decision making and its implementation. This theory plays much role in the building of women capacity and capabilities as development is concerned. Also, feminists were able to bring awareness of gender inequalities among societies and engage in massive activities to emancipate women. Feminists succeeded in propounding theories namely, Women in Development (WID) and Woman and development (WAD) to promote equity.

Despite feminists' achievement on the theory, they seemed to address the interest of females instead of addressing issues concerned with gender as a whole. This was criticized by the Gender and development theory. Also, upon all the activities and struggle to attain a high standard of living for women, there are still high inequalities among our social world unaddressed. The feminist theory failed to point out the actual actions and procedures which must be taken by the society and men to empower women in development process but just emphasized on why women must be part and neglected the "how".

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1 Mention at least three theories of development.

Q2: Which of the theories of development tends to explain development from a disadvantaged position using colonialism as an underpinning factor?



4.4 SUMMARY

There are numerous theories for development with its advantages and critics alongside. The modernization theory was based on two main factors: Traditional and modern societies. The feminist theory of development suggest equality in ability and capability.



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4.6 Possible Answer to SAE:

Question one: there are various theories of development ranging from the modernization theory to the underdevelopment and dependency theories. Others include the Marxist theories, the political economy theories etc.

Question 2: the underdevelopment and Dependency theory tends to explain underdevelopment as a resultant effect of colonialism and imperialism. However, the postulated theories are essential as they aid in describing drastically, the economic differences; equality, perspectives and relevance of development to the society. Every theory has its flaws but an agreeable point is met, development can happen simultaneously.

UNIT 5: RELATED CONCEPTS

Unit Structure

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Learning Outcomes

5.3 Administration and Development

5.3.1 Administration

5.3.2 Development

5.4 Economic Development vs Economic Growth

5.4.1 Economic Development

5.4.1 Economic Growth

5.5 Modernization and Underdevelopment

5.5.1 Modernization

5.5.2 Underdevelopment

5.6 Conclusion

5.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

5.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

5.1 Introduction

There are some related concepts such as development, growth, modernisation, and underdevelopment. Though similar, they are not exactly the same. In this unit we shall attempt to explain them for the proper understanding.

5.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- i. Discuss the meaning of development as espoused by Dudley Seers.
- ii. Analyse the difference between development and growth
- iii. Explain the meaning of modernisation

5.3 ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

- i. Explain the meaning of administration
- ii. Explain the meaning of development

5.3.1 Administration

The concept of administration tends to connote different things at the same time. For our purposes however, we are interested in that connotation that concerns “cooperative rational action for the attainment of declared objective” (Waldo Safritz, Hyde and Parkes, 2004). The above understanding of administration could be described as general and that specific understanding of administration would require our utilisation of the prefix “public”. In that event therefore, the word or term “public administration” enables us to differentiate. Moreover, this distinction enables us to further distinguish between publicly defined objectives as against private goals. In the quest to understand the concept of administration, we shall inevitably come across another concept which is management. Ordinarily, management is used to describe those sets of actions undertaken by leaders of organisation in their effort to use men and materials for the achievement of organisational goals. In this respect therefore, it becomes clear why the words management and administration are sometimes used interchangeably. For a proper analysis of the concept of administration, we shall single out the various components of Waldo’s definition for elaboration.

5.3.2 Development

It is debatable whether listing the attributes of development does not constitute more useful knowledge than the search for linguistic elegance and precise definitions of the concept. In other words, why search for elusive definitions when we all know, or think we know, in our minds what we are all talking about. Development as a concept is multi-dimensional and thus appears elusive. It is not, however, altogether a semantic escapism or academic obscurantism for us to search for a precise definition of the concept.

Dudley Seers, a renowned Cambridge University economic development scholar, was famous for replacing growth ‘fetishism’ of the early post-war period with social development. He stressed the relativistic nature of judgments about development and questioned the value of the neoclassical approach to economics. The scholar was an advocate of ‘true development’ which he stressed can be assessed by pointing searchlight on poverty, inequality, and unemployment as key development indicators. He, perhaps

posed the most fundamental questions relating to the meaning of development when he asserted that:

The questions to ask about a country's development are therefore: what has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result 'development' even if per capita income doubled (Seers, 1969).

This way of posing the questions focuses the attention on the fundamental problems of underdevelopment which economic development is supposed to solve. While one may agree that the concept of development is a normative concept in the sense that it implies progress from a less desirable state to a more desired one, it would be difficult to find rational beings who would argue that the objective of eliminating poverty, inequality and unemployment for the largest majority of the population is not a desirable one. Seers maintained that 'true development' involves the elimination of poverty, increase in literacy and improvement in the health system as opposed to the increase of per capita output. Hence, the emphasis today in the development literature is on meeting basic needs and redistributing the benefits of growth.

According to Rodney (1972) development is a many sided process. At the individual level, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being. At the level of social groups, development implies an increasing capacity to regulate both internal and external relationships. Rodney (1972) also defines economic development as a process where a society develops economically as its members increase jointly their capacity for dealing with the environment. He however argues that development should not be seen purely as economic affair, but rather as an overall social process which is dependent upon the outcome of man's efforts to deal with his natural environment.

Riggs (1971) sees development as a process of increasing autonomy of social systems made possible by a rising level of diffraction. This autonomy manifests itself in the form of increased ability of human societies to shape their physical, human and cultural environments. He presents an ecological view of development as an increasing ability to make and carry out collective decisions affecting environment. The essence of development is a process of improved decision-making rather than the output of those decisions. Riggs maintains that development level of a society is reflected in its ability to make decisions in order to control its environment. This decision-making capability is based on the level of diffraction in a society. Diffraction, in turn, is a function of differentiation and integration.

Rogers (1969) defines development as a type of social change in which new ideas are introduced into a social system in order to produce a higher per capita income and levels of living through more modern production methods and improved social organization. Todaro (1981:56) in Garba (2016) says that development is a multi-dimensional process involving the reorganization and reorientation of the entire economic and social systems. He continued to argue that development is a physical reality and a state of mind in which society has, through some combinations of social, economic, and political processes secured the way of obtaining better life.

Development can also be defined as the coincidence of structural change and liberation of men from exploitation and oppression perpetrated by international capitalist bourgeoisie and their internal collaborators. Following this definition, therefore, real development involves a structural transformation of the economy, society, polity and culture of the satellite that permits the self-generating and self-perpetuating use of development of the people's potential.

Furthermore, according to Jhigan (1980), economic development can be defined in terms of an increase in the economy's real national income over a long period of time. But this is not a satisfactory definition. This definition fails to take into consideration change in the growth of population. If a rise in the real national income is accompanied by a faster growth in population, there will be no economic development. He goes further to say that economic development also relates to an increase in the per capita income of the economy over the long period. Economists are one in defining economic development in terms of an increase in per capita real income or output. Baran (1957) says let economic development be defined as an increase over time in per capita output of material goods. According to Buchanan and Ellis (1955), it is income potentialities of the underdeveloped areas by using investment to effect those changes and to augment those productive resources which promise to raise real income per person.

These definitions also have difficulties. An increase in per capita may not raise the standard of living of the masses because there is the possibility of the increased income going to the few rich instead of going to the many poor. There is also a tendency to define economic development from the point of view of economic welfare.

Economic development is referred to as a process whereby the real per capita income increases accompanied by reduction in inequalities of income and the satisfaction of the preferences of the masses as a whole. In the words of Okun and Richardson (1961), economic development is sustained, secular improvement in material wellbeing, which we may consider to be reflected in an increasing flow of goods and services. This definition is also not free from limitations. First, sustained growth in real national income does not necessarily mean improvement in economic welfare. A mere increase in

economic welfare does not lead to economic development unless the resultant distribution of national income is considered just.

The term economic development is often used interchangeably with such terms as economic growth, economic welfare, economic progress, and secular change. However, some economists like Schumpeter and Hicks have made a distinction between the more commonly used terms; economic development and economic growth.

Economic development refers to the problems of underdeveloped countries and economic growth to those of advanced countries.

Development, according to Schumpeter (1934) is a discontinuous and spontaneous change in the stationary state which forever alters and displaces the equilibrium state previously existing while growth is a gradual and steady change in the long run which comes about by a general increase in the rate of savings and population. Hicks (1957) points out that the problems of underdeveloped countries are concerned with the development of unused resources even though their uses are well known while those of advanced countries are related to growth, most of their resources being already known and developed to a considerable extent. The simplest distinction is made by Madison (1970) in these words: The rise in income levels is generally called economic growth in rich countries and in poor ones it is called economic development.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

- i. Explain economic development
- ii. Explain the differences between economic development and economic growth

5.4 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT VS ECONOMIC GROWTH

5.4.1. Economic Development

Furthermore, according to Jhigan (1980), economic development can be defined in terms of an increase in the economy's real national income over a long period of time. But this is not a satisfactory definition. This definition fails to take into consideration change in the growth of population. If a rise in the real national income is accompanied by a faster growth in population, there will be no economic development. He goes further to say that economic development also relates to an increase in the per capita income of the economy over the long period. Economists are one in defining economic development in terms of an increase in per capita real income or output. Baran (1957) says let economic development be defined as an increase over time in per capita output of material goods. According to Buchanan and Ellis (1955), it is income potentialities of the underdeveloped

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5.4.2 Economic Growth

Everyman's Dictionary of Economics makes the distinction between economic growth and economic development more explicit. Generally, economic development means simply economic growth. More specifically, it is used to describe not only quantitative measures of a growing economy (such as the rate of increase in real income per head) but also the economic, social or other changes that lead to growth. Growth is measurable and objective: it describes expansion in the labour force, in capital, in the volume of trade and

consumption. Economic development can be used to describe the underlying determinants of economic growth such as changes in techniques of production, social attitudes and institutions. Such changes may produce economic growth.

Economists generally use the term economic growth to refer to increases over time in a country's real output of goods and services - or more appropriately, real output per capita. Output is conveniently measured by gross national product (GNP) or national income, though other measures could also be used. On the other hand; economic development is a more comprehensive term. Some economists have defined it as growth, accompanied by change-changes in the structure of the economy, in the country's social structure, and in its political structure.

Growth does not necessarily imply development. Indeed, a well-known book about an African country is entitled 'growth without development.' What this essentially means is that a country produces more of the same type of goods and services to keep up with a growing population, while the benefits of this growth continue to go almost exclusively to a privileged elite and a small middle class; the vast majority of the country's population are completely unaffected. Development goes beyond this to imply changes in the composition of output and in the allocation of inputs by sectors. As with humans, to stress 'growth' involves focusing on height or weight (or GNP) while to emphasize 'development' draws attention to changes in functional capacities - in physical coordination, for example, or learning (or ability of the economy to adapt).

But despite these apparent differences some economists use these terms synonymously. Baran (1957) maintains that the mere notions of development and growth suggest a transition to something that is new from something that is old that has outlived itself. Lewis (1955) says in this connection that most often we shall refer only to growth but occasionally for the sake of variety *to progress or to development*.

Self-Assessment Exercise 3

- i. Explain the term “modernisation”
- ii. Describe underdevelopment

5.5. MODERNIZATION AND UNDERDEVELOPMENT

5.5.1 Modernization

Some writers define modernization in terms of changing institutions; others stress changes in individual attitudes; still others emphasize group attitudes. Frequently, modernisation has been equated with the attitudes and institutions of capitalist western countries; a strong personal work ethic, individual entrepreneurship, materialism,

optimism, and a group structure encouraging these attitudes and institutions. There is a growing dissatisfaction, however with ethnocentric definitions, and broader definitions of modernisation have been sought which could encompass all societies.

Nash views modernization as the process of transformation towards the establishment and institutionalization of modernity and by modernity he means the social, cultural, and psychological framework which facilitates the application of tested knowledge to all phases and branches of production. A similar view is that of Moore (1964) who refers to modernization as the rationalisation of social behaviour and social organisation (Anyebe, 2017).

Both definitions emphasize that modernisation is a process of becoming modern or process of social change. While the areas in which rationalisation takes place are essentially the same for all societies, Moore lists the areas as follows:

- monetization and commercialization;
- technification of production and distribution;
- demographic rationalization;
- education;
- bureaucratization; and
- Secularization.

The study by Inkeles and Smith (1960) is an interesting attempt to define modernisation as a syndrome of individual attitudes that could be expected to be common to all societies. Specifically, the authors propose to classify as modern those personal qualities which are likely to be inculcated by participation in large-scale modern productive enterprises such as the factory, and perhaps more crucial which may be required of the workers and the staff if the factory is to operate efficiently and effectively.

Inkeles and Smith began by identifying fourteen personal attributes of modernisation, including openness to new experiences, efficacy, understanding of productive processes, placing a high value on technical skills, and acceptance of skill as a valid base for distributing rewards. In addition, they looked at modernisation from a 'topical' perspective (e.g. attitudes towards family, family size, religion, politics, consumption) and a 'behavioural' perspective, which involve psychological testing, and interviews to determine political, and religious beliefs, and other activities. Finally, a fourth perspective was obtained by devising several modernity scales combining elements of the other three perspectives:

Inkeles and Smith concluded that 'modern man's character...' may be summed up under four major headings. He is an informed participant citizen; he has a marked sense of personal efficacy; he is highly independent and autonomous in his relation to traditional sources of influence, especially when he is making basic decisions about how to conduct

his personal affairs; and he is ready for new experiences and ideas, that is, he is relatively open minded and cognitively flexible.

The term modernisation is also employed by some authors to refer to the process by which a traditional society is undergoing transformation and becoming modern. Other authors use the term to describe the process by which traditional societies become more western, or acquire the character of the technologically advanced countries. Thus, a modern society or modernising society is one that is highly educated and technologised.

5.5.2 Underdevelopment

Ordinarily, the term underdevelopment refers to a situation where the economic, social, and political conditions of a nation are at their rudimentary stage of development. Using the major indicators of development, these nations are backward. Thus, these nations lack key development facilities including the following: efficient and effective transportation network, communication system, and other infrastructural facilities such as power, water supply and housing. Other indicators of underdevelopment include poor education, poor health, and generally low standard of living. This traditional approach to the description of underdevelopment has been found to be very limited as it does not explain the causes of underdevelopment nor is it capable of providing prescriptions for underdevelopment. In reaction to this limitation radical students of development such as Gunder Frank argue that it is capitalism both World and national which produced under development in the past and which still generates underdevelopment in the present.

Let us look at another description by Rodney. According to him, underdevelopment is not absence of development, because every people have developed in one way or another and to a greater or lesser extent. It makes sense only as a way of comparing levels of development. Underdevelopment is very much tied to the fact that human-social development has been uneven and from a strictly economic viewpoint some human groups have advanced further by producing more and becoming healthier. To Rodney, underdevelopment expresses the relationship of exploitation, namely the exploitation of one country by another (Rodney, 1972).

Underdevelopment can be defined in many ways: by the incidence of poverty, ignorance or diseases, maldistribution of the national income, administrative incompetence and social disorganisation. There is thus not a single definition, which is so comprehensive as to incorporate all the features of an underdeveloped country. Kuznets (1966) therefore, suggests three definitions of underdevelopment:

First, it may mean failure to utilize fully the productive potential warranted by the existing state of technical knowledge, a failure resulting from the resistance of social institutions. Second, it may mean backwardness in economic performance compared with the few economically leading countries of the period. Third, it may mean economic poverty in the

sense of failure to assure adequate subsistence and material comfort to most of a country's population.

5.6 Conclusion

There are some related concepts such as development, growth, modernisation, and underdevelopment. Though, apparently similar, they are the same. In this unit we have attempted to explain them for the proper understanding of development administration.

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5.8 Possible Answers to SAEs.

Answers to SAEs 1

- i. Explain the meaning of administration
- ii. Explain the meaning of development

Administration is concerned with “cooperative rational action for the attainment of declared objective”. Development administration can be said to be a system of

administration geared towards development and it is characterised by innovation and social engineering. It initiates and manages development. In the quest to understand the concept of administration, we shall inevitably come across another concept which is management. Ordinarily, management is used to describe those sets of actions undertaken by leaders of organisation in their effort to use men and materials for the achievement of organisational goals. In this respect therefore, it becomes clear why the words management and administration are sometimes used interchangeably. For a proper analysis of the concept of administration, we shall single out the various components of Waldo's definition for elaboration.

Dudley Seers, perhaps posed the most fundamental questions relating to the meaning of development when he asserted that: The questions to ask about a country's development are therefore: what has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result 'development' even if per capita income doubled. While one may agree that the concept of development is a normative concept in the sense that it implies progress from a less desirable state to a more desired one, it would be difficult to find rational beings who would argue that the objective of eliminating poverty, inequality and unemployment for the largest majority of the population is not a desirable one.

Answers to SAEs 2

- i. Explain economic development
- ii. Explain the differences between economic development and economic growth

Economic development can be defined in terms of an increase in the economy's real national income over a long period of time. Economic development refers to the problems of underdeveloped countries and economic growth to those of advanced countries.

Economists generally use the term economic growth to refer to increases over time in a country's real output of goods and services - or more appropriately, real output per capita. Output is conveniently measured by gross national product (GNP) or national income, though other measures could also be used. On the other hand; economic development is a more comprehensive term. Some economists have defined it as growth, accompanied by change-changes in the structure of the economy, in the country's social structure, and in its political structure.

Answers to SAEs 3

- i. Explain the term "modernisation"

ii. Describe underdevelopment

Some writers define modernisation in terms of changing institutions; others stress changes in individual attitudes; still others emphasize group attitudes. Frequently, modernisation has been equated with the attitudes and institutions of capitalist western countries; a strong personal work ethic, individual entrepreneurship, materialism, optimism, and a group structure encouraging these attitudes and institutions. There is a growing dissatisfaction, however with ethnocentric definitions, and broader definitions of modernisation have been sought which could encompass all societies.

Ordinarily, the term underdevelopment refers to a situation where the economic, social, and political conditions of a nation are at their rudimentary stage of development. Using the major indicators of development, these nations are backward.

MODULE 2: CONCEPT OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

UNIT 1: Concept of Growth?

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Learning Outcomes

1.3 Concept of Growth and Development

1.4 Summary

1.5 References/Further Reading

1.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



1.1 INTRODUCTION

Just as it was said of development in the preceding statements on its elusive nature and meaning different things to different people, growth as a concept operates within the same ambit of multilateralism hence cannot be pinned to a particular explanation even though certain attributes in the multiplicity of definitions stand out. For the purpose of this study and in the interest of our students, growth can be defined as increase in the economic and societal status of a state considering aspects such as development, planning and administration that cumulatively, enhance a more viable and sustainable conditions. As such, this unit attempts to explore the meaning of growth with a view to establishing a universally acceptable definition of the concept.



1.2 LEARNING OUTCOMES

At the end unit you, should be able to:

Explain the concept of growth and development.



1.3 Concept of Growth and Development

Let us look at some of the definitions of growth as given by some writers: Kuznets defines growth as a long-term rise in capacity to supply increasingly diverse economic goods to its population, this growing capacity being based on advancing technology and the instructional and ideological adjustments that it demands. This definition has three components:

- i. The economic growth of a nation is identified by the sustained increase in the supply of goods.
- ii. Advancing technology is the permissive factor, which determines the growth of capacity in supplying diverse goods to the population.
- iii. For an efficient and wide use of technology, institutional and ideological adjustments must be made to affect the proper use of innovations generated by advancing stock of human knowledge.

The above definition supersedes the earlier definition by Kuznets. Kuznets (1955) defining economic growth as sustained increase in per capita or per worker product, most often accompanied by an increase in population and usually by sweeping structural changes. According to Schumpeter (1934), growth is a gradual and steady change in the long run which comes about by a general increase in the rate of savings and population. Some economists generally use the term economic growth to refer to increase in a country's real output of goods and services or more appropriately real output per capita. As a concept, growth has a larger meaning and a more restricted meaning. Strictly it refers to sustained increase in productivity over a relatively long period or long periods each covering at least 10 years. An index of such growth at the national level is not an increase in national product in concrete terms. Growth modifies structures, attitudes and techniques, and where it is sustained; its economic effects are considerable. In the larger sense, growth includes three variables: an upward trend in gross national product and revenue over a long period; a self-sustained character of the growth and which is largely irreversible and growth also movement of structural transformation. Conceptually, growth implies change leading to increase in size including height and weight. Thus, economic growth means increase in economic resources or increased income. A nation is said to have recorded economic growth if that nation has experienced increase in national income or in or capita income.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: What is your understanding of the concept of Growth?

Q2: Differentiate between Economic growth and Development.



1.4 Summary:

Despite the apparent differences between the term economic development and economic growth they are often used interchangeably to refer to progress. The units attempted to explore the meaning of growth by making references to the views of writers such as Kuznets and Schumpeter. An attempt was also made to establish distinction between economic development and economic growth. This was done by making references to the views of Schumpeter, Hicks, Maddison, Baran and Lewis. Finally, it concluded that despite the apparent differences between the two terms they are often used interchangeably to refer to progress.



1.5 References/Further Reading

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Jorgensen, J.J. (1990). "Organisational Life-cycle and Effectiveness Criteria in State-Owned Enterprises: The Case of East Africa" in Alfred, M.J. and Rabindra, N.K. Management in Developing Countries. London and New York: Routledge.

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1.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: Growth can be defined as a gradual and steady change which comes about by a general increase in the rate of savings and population. Some economists generally use the term economic growth to refer to increases in a country's real output of goods and services or more appropriately, real output per capita.

Question two: The term economic development is sometimes used interchangeably with such terms as economic growth, economic, welfare, economic progress and secular

change. However, some economists like Schumpeter and Hicks have made a distinction between the more commonly used terms, economic development and economic growth. Economic development refers to the problems of underdeveloped countries and economic growth those of advanced countries. Development, according to Schumpeter, is a discontinuous and spontaneous change in the stationary state which forever alters and displaces the equilibrium state previously existing while growth is a gradual and steady change in the long run which comes about by a general increase in savings and population. Hicks points out that the problems of underdeveloped countries have to do with the development of unused resources even though their users are well known while those of advanced countries are related to growth, most of their resources being already known and developed to a considerable extent. The simplest distinction is made by Maddison in these words. The raising of income levels is generally called economic growth in rich countries and in poor ones is called economic development. Everyman's Dictionary of Economics makes the distinction between economic growth and economic development more explicit. Generally, economic development simply means economic growth. More specifically, it is used to describe not only quantitative measures of a growing economy (such as the rate of increase in real income per head) but also the economic, social or other changes that lead to growth. Growth is measureable and objective: it describes expansion in the labour force, in capital, in the volume of trade and consumption. Economic development can be used to describe the underlying determinants of economic growth, such as changes in techniques of production, social attitudes and institutions. Such changes may produce economic growth. Economists generally use the term economic growth to refer to increases over time in a country's real output of goods and services or more appropriately, real output per capita. Output is conveniently measured by gross national products (GNP) or national income, though other measures could also be used. On the other hand economic development is a more comprehensive term. Some economists have defined it as growth, accompanied by change, changes in the structure of the economy, in the country's social structure and in its political structure. Growth does not necessarily imply development. Indeed, a well-known book about African country produces more of the same types of goods and services to keep up with a growing population or to send to overseas market, while the benefits of this growth continue to go almost exclusively to a privileged elite and a small middle class leaving the vast majority of the country's population completely unaffected. Development goes beyond this to imply changes in the composition of output and in the allocation of inputs by sectors. As with humans, to stress 'growth' involves focusing on height or weight (or GNP) while to emphasise; development; draws attention to changes in functional capacities in physical coordination, for example, or learning (or ability of the economy to adapt). But despite these apparent difference some economists use these terms synonymously. Baran maintained that the mere notions of development and growth suggest a transition to something that is new from something that is old, that has

outlived itself. Lewis says in this connection that most often we shall refer only to growth but occasionally for the sake of variety to progress or to development.

UNIT 2: Characteristics of Development

Unit Structure

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Learning Outcome

2.3 Characteristics of Development

2.4 Summary

2.5 References/Further Reading

2.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



2.1 Introduction

Development is not just a descriptive word. It must stand for something considered worthwhile. In order to get some idea let us explore the meaning of the concept by making references to view of some selected scholars.



2.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. explain the meaning of development
- ii. Describe the characteristics of development



2.3 Characteristics of Development

It is debatable whether listing the attributes of development does not constitute more useful knowledge than the search for a precise definition of the concept. This is so because development as a concept is multidimensional and thus appears elusive. However, it is not altogether a semantic escapism for economists to search for a precise definition of the concept and how to separate it from related concepts (for example growth, modernization, undevelopment and underdevelopment). The concept development is used to refer to the total transformation of a system: thus, when used to describe a nation, describes the transformation of the various aspects of the life of the nation. In fact, development implies a progression from a lower and often undesirable state to a high and preferred one. Development also can be defined in terms of attacking

wide-spread absolute poverty, reducing inequalities and removing the spectre of unemployment – all these being achieved within the context of a growing economy. This led to the redefinition of development in terms of both redistribution with growth and meeting the basic needs of the masses of the population. It was Seers who posed the most fundamental questions relating to the meaning of development when he wrote: The questions to ask about a country's development are therefore what has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result; development' even if per capita income doubled. This way of posing the questions focuses the attention on the fundamental problem of underdevelopment which economic development is supposed to solve. While one may agree that the concept of development is a normative concept in the sense that it implies progress from a less desirable state to a more desired one, it would be difficult to find rational beings who would argue that the objective of eliminating poverty, inequality and unemployment for the largest majority of the population is not a desirable one. Hence, the emphasis today in the development literature is on meeting basic needs and redistributing the benefits of growth According to (Rodney 1974), development is a many-sided process. At the individual level, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material wellbeing. At the level of social groups, development implies an increasing capacity to regulate both internal and external relationships.

(Rogers 1969), defines development as a type of social change in which new ideas are introduced into a social system in order to produce a high per capita income and levels of living through more modern production methods and improved social organization. Development can also be defined as the coincidence of structural change and liberation of men from exploitation and oppression perpetrated by international capitalist bourgeoisie and their internal collaborators. Following this definition, therefore, 'real development involves a structural transformation of the economy, society, polity and culture of the satellite that permits the self-generating and self-perpetuating use of development of the people's potential. (Rostow 1960) sees development in terms of modernizing a basically traditional society or a subsistence sector of a developing society with the aim of attaining sustained growth. He also regards four stages as essential in delineating the process of development: the traditional society, the pre-conditions for 'take-off', the 'take off' and finally sustained economic progress. Rostow's stages of growth have not received unreserved acceptance. (Caincross 1961), for example, has quarreled with the overlapping nature of the characteristics of these stages of development. Szentes sees the definition of these stages of linear growth as tautological and arbitrary. This, he maintains, would lead to a faulty interpretation of economy and

society, the essence of social development. Trade theorists like Prebisch, Lewis and Singer who are critics of the conventional international trade theory see development in terms of changes in external trade in particular and contemporary international economic relations and the effects of colonialism as constituting obstacles to the development of the periphery of the world economic system. Wallman in his book, *Perceptions of Development*, also defines development as an inevitable but certainly unilinear movement towards a condition of maximum industrialization, modern technology, high(est) GNP and high(est) material standards of living. He went further to say that philosophically development implies 'progress' which itself implies evolution toward some ultimate good. Development, thus, is an elusive term meaning different things to different groups of social scientists. Most would agree however that development implies more than just a rise in real national income; that it must be a sustained secular rise in real income accompanied by changes in social attitudes and customs, which have in the past impeded economic progress. When development is used to measure economic development, the issue of definition becomes more complex. No single definition of economic development is entirely satisfactory and it has been defined in various ways. For the average person, the term economic development refers simply to achievement by poor countries of higher levels of real per capita income and of improved condition of living for their people. In a technical sense, economic development refers to a process of economic growth within an economy, the central objective of the process being higher and rising real per capita income for that economy (with the benefits of this higher and rising income being widely defused within the economy). (Rodney 1974), also defines economic development as a process where a society develops economically as its members increase jointly their capacity for dealing with the environment. He, however, argues that development should not be seen purely as an economic affair, but as an overall social process which is dependent upon the outcome of man's efforts to deal with his natural environment. Some economists have defined economic development as growth accompanied by change in the structure of the economy in the country's social structure, and its political structure. According to (Jhigan 1980), economic development can be defined in three ways: One is to measure economic development in terms of an increase in the economy's real national income over a long period of time. But this is not a satisfactory definition. This definition fails to take into consideration change in the growth of the population. If a rise in the real national income is accompanied by a faster growth in population, there will be no economic development. The second definition relates to an increase in the per capita income of the economy over a long period. Economists are one in defining economic development in terms of an increase in per capita real income or output. Meirer (1964) defines economic development as the process whereby the real capita income of a country increases over a long period of time. (Baran 1957) says let economic development be defined as an increase over time in per capita output of materials goods. According to (Buchanan and Ellis 1955), it is income

potentialities of the underdeveloped areas by using investment to effect those changes to augment those productive resources which promise to raise real income per person. These definitions also have difficulties. An increase in per capita may not raise the standard of living of the masses because there is the possibility of increased income going to the few rich instead of going to the many poor. There is also a tendency to define economic development from the point of view of economic welfare. Economic development is referred to as a process of income and the satisfaction of the preferences of the masses as a whole. In the words of (Okun and Richardson 1961), economic development is sustained, secular improvement in material wellbeing, which we may consider to be reflected in an increasing flow of goods and services. This definition is also not free from limitations. First, sustained growth in real national income does not necessarily mean improvement in economic welfare. A mere increase in economic welfare does not lead to economic development unless the resultant distribution of national income is considered just.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: What in your opinion is the meaning of development?

Q2: Elaborate on the importance of development as regards the functioning of an individual.



2.4 Summary:

It is easier to speak of development than to define it. However, it is not altogether a semantic escapism or academic obscurantism for social scientist to search for an objective means of defining the concept. In other words, development is an elusive term meaning different things to different groups of social scientists. Most would agree, however, that development implies more than just a rise in real national income. It must be a sustained secular rise in real income accompanied by changes in social attitudes and customs, which have in the past impeded economic progress.



2.5 References/Further Reading

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2.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question one: Development can be defined as a type of social change in which new ideas are introduced into a social system in order to produce a higher per capita income and levels of living through more modern production methods and improved social organization with reference to the view of Dudley Seers, Walter Rodney, Rogers, Rostow, Jhigan, and any other writers you are familiar with.

Question two: Development involves biological, physical, social and cognitive aspects in relation to the well-being of life. The varieties of development and its importance are numerous with merits on the high side particularly when the welfare of individuals are measure, when unemployment is reduced and when poverty is at its lowest ebb.

UNIT 3: MEANING OF UNDERDEVELOPMENT

Unit Structure

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Learning Outcome

3.3 Concept of Underdevelopment

3.4 Summary

3.5 References/Further Reading

3.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



3.1 Introduction

The task of understanding underdevelopment is greatly reduced when one understands the concept and the scope of development as discussed in the preceding comments. However, underdevelopment is a relative term that can be approached from different perspectives. It does not necessarily mean the absence of development rather; it makes a lot of meanings by comparing levels of development. This unit tries to define the term underdevelopment within the context of basic concepts in development administration.



3.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Discuss the concept of underdevelopment
- ii. Distinguish between underdeveloped and underdeveloped countries.



3.3 Concept of Underdevelopment

The term underdevelopment refers to a situation where the economic, social, and political conditions of a nation are at their rudimentary stage of development. Using the major indicators of development, the nation is backward. Thus, the nation lacks key development facilities including the following: efficient and effective transportation network, communication system and other infrastructural facilities such as power, water supply, housing etc. Other indicators of underdevelopment include poor education, poor health, and generally low standard of living. This traditional approach to the description of underdevelopment has been found to be very limited as it does not explain the causes of underdevelopment nor is it capable of providing prescriptions for underdevelopment. In reaction to this limitation radical students of development such as Frank argue that it

is capitalism both world and national which produced underdevelopment in the past and which still generates underdevelopment in the present.

Let us look at another description by Rodney. According to Rodney, underdevelopment is not the absence of development but it makes sense only as a way of comparing levels of development. Underdevelopment is very much tied to the fact that human –social development has been uneven and from a strictly economic view point some human groups have advanced further by producing more and becoming healthier (Rodney 1974). To Rodney, underdevelopment expresses the relationship of exploitation, namely the exploitation of one country by another. In spite of all these, it is very difficult to give a precise definition of underdevelopment. Underdevelopment can be defined in many ways by the incidence of poverty, ignorance or diseases, mal-distribution of the national income, administrative incompetence and social disorganization. There is thus not a single definition which is so comprehensive as to incorporate all the features of an underdeveloped country. (Kuznets 1955) therefore, suggests three definitions of underdevelopment: First, it may mean failure to utilize fully the productive potential warranted by the existing state of technical knowledge, a failure resulting from the resistance of social institutions. Secondly, it may mean backwardness in economic performance compared with the few economically leading countries of the period. Third, it may mean economic poverty in the sense of failure to assure adequate subsistence and material comfort to most of a country's population. The problem of underdeveloped countries in our discussion reflects elements of all the three definitions. Its acuteness arises largely out of the material misery stressed in the third definition; it is sharpened by the realization of a lack compared with other economically more advanced countries, and it is generally viewed as a social problem originating from the failure of social institutions rather than from a lack of technical knowledge.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: Define underdevelopment in three different ways.

Q2: Define the term underdevelopment as best understood by you.



3.4 Summary:

From the discussion it is clear that there is no single definition which is so comprehensive as to incorporate all the features of an underdeveloped country. Normally, underdevelopment refers to a situation where economic, social, and political conditions of a nation are at their rudimentary stage of development.



3.5 References/Further Reading

Kuznets, S. (1955). 'Economic Growth and Income Inequality'. American Economic Reviews.

Rodney, W. (1974). How Europe Underdeveloped Africa. Washington, D.C: University Press.



3.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: Underdevelopment can be defined in these ways: First, it may mean failure to utilize fully the productive potential warranted by the existing state of technical knowledge, a failure resulting from the resistance of social institutions. Second, it may mean backwardness in economic performance compared with the few economically leading countries of the period. Third, it may mean economic poverty in the sense of failure to assure adequate subsistence and material comfort to most of a country's population.

Question Two: underdevelopment refers to a situation where economic, social, and political conditions of a nation are at their rudimentary stage of development.

UNIT 4: Theory of Modernization in Development Administration



4.1 Introduction

The term development, growth, underdevelopment, modernization, etc. are used in development administration to describe the stage(s) of progress which a country experience. However, this perspective is akin to the views of classical scholars who prescribe a streamlined pattern of growth and development and hold the internal rubrics of less developed countries to be antithetical to development and modernization. This unit, therefore, attempts to explore the meaning of modernization within the context of development administration.



4.2. Learning Outcome

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

- i. Explain the Concept of modernization
- ii. Identify the attributes of modernization.



1.3 Meaning of Modernization

Some writers define modernization in terms of changing institutions; others stress changes in individual attitudes, other still emphasize group attitudes. Frequently, modernization has been equated with the attitudes and institutions of capitalist western countries, a strong personal work ethic, individual entrepreneurship. Materialism, optimism and a group structure encouraging these attitudes and institutions. There is a growing dissatisfaction, however, with ethnocentric definitions and broader definitions of modernization have been sought which could encompass community as well as capitalist institutions.

(Nash 1991) views modernization as the process of transformation towards the establishment and institutionalization of modernity. By modernity he means the social, cultural and psychological framework which facilitate the application of tested knowledge to all phases and branches of production. A similar view is that of Moore who refers to modernization as the rationalization of social behavior and social organization. Both definitions emphasize that modernization is a process of social change, while the areas in which rationalization takes place are essentially the same for all societies. Moore list the areas as follows: (i). monetization and commercialization ii. technification of production and distribution iii. demographic rationalization iv. education v. bureaucratization vi. secularization the study by (Inkeles and Smith 1960) is an interesting attempt to define modernization as a syndrome of individual attitudes that could be

expected to be common to all societies. Specifically, the authors propose to classify as modern those personal qualities which are likely to be inculcated by participation in large-scale modern productive enterprises such as the factory, and perhaps more crucial that which may be required of the workers and the staff if the factory is to operate efficiently and effectively. (Inkeles and Smith 1960) begin by identifying fourteen personal attributes of modernization, including openness to new experiences, efficacy, understanding of productive processes, placing a high value on technical skills and acceptance of skill as a valid base for distributing rewards. In addition, they look at modernization from a 'topical' perspective (e.g attitudes towards family, size, religion, politics, consumption) and a 'behavioral' perceptive which involves 'psychological testing and interviews to determine political and religious beliefs and other activities. Finally, a fourth perspective is obtained by devising several modernity scales combining elements of the other three perspectives. (Inkeles and Smith 1960) conclude that 'modern man's character...' may be summed up under four major headings. He is an informed participant citizen; he has a marked sense of personal efficacy; he is highly independent and autonomous in his relation to traditional sources of influences, especially when he is making decisions based on how to conduct his personal affairs and he is ready for new experiences and ideas, that is, he is relatively open minded and cognitively flexible (Inkeles and Smith 1960). The term modernization is also employed by some authors to refer to the process by which a traditional society undergoes transformation and becomes modern. Other authors use the term to describe the process by which traditional societies becomes more western, or acquire the character of the technologically advanced countries. Thus, a modern society or modernizing society is one that is highly educated and technologized.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: Explain modernization briefly.

Q2: Mention some writers on modernization.



1.4 Summary:

Modernization is one of the basic concepts in development administration used to describe those stages of progress which a country experience. During the course of the discussion, it was variously defined using the views of some writers. However, the term modernization has also been employed by some authors to refer to modern. Other authors use the term to describe the process by which traditional societies become more western or acquire the character of the technologically advanced countries. Thus, a modern society or modernizing society is one that highly educated and advanced technologically.



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1.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: Modernization has been equated with the attitudes and institutions of capitalist western countries, a strong personal work ethic, individual entrepreneurship, materialism, optimism and a group structure encouraging these attitudes and institutions. There is a growing dissatisfaction, however, with ethnocentric definitions, the broader definitions of modernization have been sought which could encompass community as well as capitalist institutions.

Question Two: there are various writers on development particularly those of western origins. However, for the purpose of this exercise, Nash, Moore, Inkeles and Smith would suffice.

UNIT 5: Features Underdeveloped Economy

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Outcome
- 5.3 Features Underdeveloped Economy
 - 5.3.1 Economic Features Underdeveloped Economy
- 5.4 Characteristics of Underdeveloped Economy
- 5.5 Summary:
- 1.6 References/Further Reading
- 1.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



5.1 Introduction

In the humanities like in many other similar disciplines, we learn that every concept operates within an environment and the concept of development administration, theories and planning revolve and operate within the confines of an environment. However, emphasis would be placed on the economic environment at this point. It is worthy of note that the economic situation of today's developing countries was initially characterized by underdevelopment. Here we will discuss the key economic features of underdevelopment and when country begins to move on the path of development.



5.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Explain the Economic Features Underdeveloped Economy;
- ii. Evaluate the Characteristics of Underdeveloped Economy



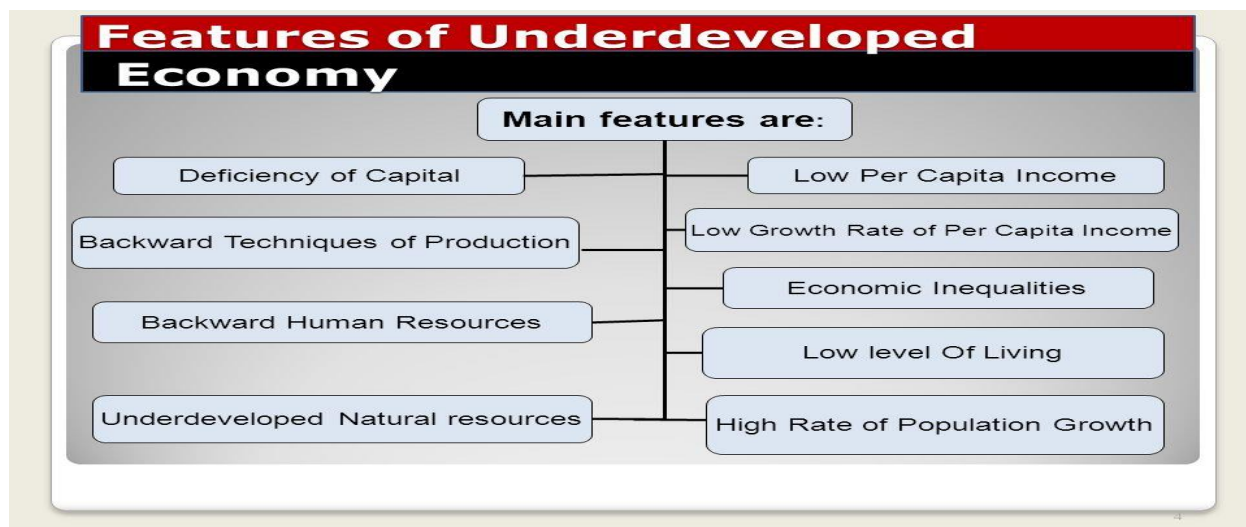
5.3 Features Underdeveloped Economy

5.3.1 Economic Features Underdeveloped Economy

There is no gainsaying that the economy of underdeveloped societies is predominantly agrarian and revolves around agriculture. Typically, up to 80 percent of the labor force is engaged in agriculture. Production is based on age old technology, is largely for subsistence and carried out under feudal relations. Feudal landlords live an ostentatious life and make little or no investment in agriculture. Within the industrial sector, traditional household craft preponderate. Modern industry, if it exists at all, is limited to a few lines

for instance, jute and cotton textiles in India prior to the Second World War. Infrastructural services like transport and communications are extremely poor and limited. As is implicit in the structure of an underdeveloped economy, its relative factor endowment pattern is dominated by land, or by land and labour together. Relative availability of capital is extremely low. Capital goods are mainly those which are turned out by the traditional craft. In countries like India and China marked by high population pressure, the relative factor proportion between land and labour is itself adverse, with a low land-labour ratio. Additional labour due to population growth, stays back in agriculture since little opportunity of other remains underemployed. Labour, the human capital resource, is thus poor in quality. Asset ownership, particularly of the most important factor of production, land, is very unequally distributed in an underdeveloped economy. It may so happen that a handful of feudal lords own most of the land and the rest of the rural population work as tenants. It should also be noted that disparity in incomes follow from land ownership, with 70 percent of the product going to a small class of land owners. The rest of the population lives at subsistence level under acute poverty. Furthermore, in large countries such as India, there also exists disparity of incomes between different regions as the relative factor endowments as well as the levels of development vary from region to region. Since an underdeveloped economy is characterized by stagnation in production and operates at a low-level equilibrium, savings are low, and so is investment. A kind of vicious circle operates: low income, low savings, low investment, low income, low savings and low investment capital accumulation. The majority of the people, living at subsistence level have no capacity to save but engage in conspicuous consumption. Merchants and traders do accumulate some money capital, but they lack in enterprise and do not invest in industry. The other reason for this failure is the large size of capital required by modern industrial units which individual holders of money capital are unable to provide. Underdevelopment is also characterized by low levels of scientific and technical knowledge. Due to illiteracy and lack of education, the quality of human capital is poor. On the other hand, an underdeveloped economy dependent on the traditional means and methods of production has little scope for technological innovation.

5.4 Characteristics of Underdeveloped Economy



Adopted from the work of Dr. Surendra Kumar

World Development Report categorizes economies on the basis of income in three categories viz. *high income*, *middle income* and *low income economies*. Usually, high income countries are known as developed / advanced economies while low income countries are known as underdeveloped economies. Developed or advanced economies are also characterised by high standard of living, universal and quality education, better health care facilities and high life expectancy.

Underdevelopment is low level of development characterized by low real per capita income, wide-spread poverty, lower level of literacy, low life expectancy and underutilisation of resources etc. The state in underdeveloped economy fails to provide acceptable levels of living to a large fraction of its population, thus resulting into misery and material deprivations.

The brief Characteristics of Underdeveloped Economies are:

i. Low Per Capita Income

Almost all underdeveloped countries of the world show low per capita income in comparison to developed countries of the world.

ii. Slow Growth Rate of Per Capita Income

iii. Low per capita income and slow growth rate of per capita income are characteristics of these countries.

iv. Economic Inequalities

v. High inequality of income and wealth is another common feature of underdeveloped countries. In these countries, large percentage of national income is shared by a small segment of the society while a large segment of the society gets barely enough to

survive. Economic inequality exists even in developed countries but it is not as much as found in underdeveloped countries.

vi. Low Level of Living

Level of living in the underdeveloped countries is low because of low per capita income. Low level of living of the people of underdeveloped countries is also reflected in Human Development Index prepared by the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP). HDI of developed countries is very high whereas for underdeveloped countries it is very low.

vii. Low Rate of Capital Formation:

Rate of capital formation is very low in underdeveloped economies due to low income levels and high incidence of poverty.

viii. Backward Techniques of Production

Underdeveloped economies use outdated technology for production. Lack of capital leads to less spending on research and development.

High Growth Rate of Population and Dependency Burden

These countries are characterised by high growth rate of population and high dependency burden.

Low Productivity of Labour

Underdeveloped economies are characterised by low labour productivity due to low level of skill set.

Underutilisation of Natural Resources

Natural resources are underutilised in underdeveloped economies. Their capability to exploit them is very low.

Large Scale Unemployment

Large scale unemployment is another characteristic feature of underdeveloped countries.

Dominance of Agriculture

Large section of people in underdeveloped economies depends on primary sector for employment. But the primary sector is not well-developed in those countries.

High Incidence of Poverty

Low per capita income results in high incidence of poverty in underdeveloped economies.

Infrastructural Backwardness

Economic infrastructure and social infrastructure are almost at their bottom level in underdeveloped countries.

Low Volume of Foreign Trade

Underdeveloped countries export primary products like, agricultural goods, minerals, petroleum oil, etc., and import finished products, especially consumer goods. Terms of trade are grossly unfavourable to underdeveloped countries

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: What are the basic economic features of underdeveloped countries?

Q2: Explain features of underdeveloped economy.



5.5 Summary:

Economic development is nothing but changing or transforming the situation of underdevelopment and backwardness of a country. This unit discussed the structural features, relative factor endowment. Income distribution pattern, saving investment and capital accumulation and science and technology of an underdeveloped economy which essentially constitute the economic environment of development administration.



5.6 References/Further Reading

Lewis, W.A. (1960). Development Planning: The Essential of Economic Policy. London: George Allen and Unwin.

Amuchazi, E.C. (ed) (1980). Reading in Social Sciences. Chapters 8 and 9.



5.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: An underdeveloped economy is predominantly agricultural. Typically, up to 80 percent of the labour force is engaged in agriculture. Production is based on age old technology, largely for subsistence and carried out under feudal relations.

Question Two: Since an underdeveloped economy is characterised by stagnation in production and operates at a low level equilibrium, savings are low and so is investment. A kind of vicious circle operates: low income, low savings-low investment- low income, low savings and low investment capital accumulation. The vast majority of the people, living at subsistence level have no capacity to save but engage in conspicuous consumption.

MODULE 3: Environment of Development Administration

UNIT 1: Political Environment of Development Administration

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Learning Outcome

1.3 Political Features of Underdevelopment

1.4 Summary:

1.5 References/Further Reading

Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



1.1 Introduction

This unit deals with political features of underdevelopment (environment of development administration). The features include ethnic, religious and tribal conflicts, extra-legal change of leadership and lack of continuity. We shall discuss them one after the other.



1.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Identify the political features of an underdeveloped economy.



1.3 Political Features of Underdevelopment

One of the political features of the underdeveloped countries is the growing gap between expectations and the actual achievements. For example, when the Obasanjo Administration took off in 1999 it promised to restore power supply to normalcy and provide employment for all. The realization of these noble objectives has fallen below expectations. Power supply is still erratic and the rate of unemployment is on the

increase. There is a high unemployment and/or underemployment rate among the youths in underdeveloped countries. In such conditions this age group presents a potent threat to political stability and economic growth, being less amenable to nationalist anti-imperialist rhetoric as a panacea for their problem (Mazrui, 1998).

An idle mind is the devil's workshop goes the adage and much of the political unrest on the African continent can be attributed to the presence of unemployed, frustrated and alienated young people. They are easily drawn to parties and groups that promote total and revolutionary change rather than incremental and evolutionary change. If you observe well, they have been in the forefront of pre-democracy movements in many of the African countries (Mazrui, 1998). There are persistent ethnic, tribal and religious conflicts. For example, the activities of the Odua People Congress (OPC) in the western part of Nigeria, Arewa People Congress (APC) in the north and Bakassi Boys in the east. Structures that could have assisted in integrative function. In brief, the common political features of developing countries include, a widely shared developmental ideology as the source of basic goals, a high degree of reliance on the political sector for achieving results in the society, a widespread of insipient or actual political instability, a modernizing elitist leadership accompanied by a wide political gap between the rulers and the ruled and an imbalance in the growth of political institutions. Some version of socialism tends to be the dominate preference with a philosophy having a Marxist label while evils of foreign capitalism are denounced. The state is generally seen as the main hope for guiding society towards modernization. The politics played is agitational. Political instability is a prominent feature as surveys have shown that 40 percent of the countries have had successful or attempted coups. Compared to developed countries the politics of developing countries is that of uncertainty, discontinuity, and extra-legal change.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: What in your opinion do we mean when we say underdeveloped countries are characterized by political instability?

Q2: What are the political conditions of underdevelopment?



1.4 Summary:

In this unit we have been discussing the political features of underdeveloped countries which include instability, ethnic and religious conflicts. Structures which could have assisted in integrative functions are either absent or not well-developed.



1.5 References/Further Reading

Mazrui, A.A. (1998). 'Africa in Political Purgatory: The Cross Roads between Collapse and Redemption' *Governance, a Journal of the Institute of Governance and Social Research* 1(1) pp. 49-51



1.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: Political instability results from ethnic, tribal and religious conflicts. There is also uncertainty, extra-legal change of government, lack of continuity, etc

Question Two: The political conditions that characterize Third world countries including Nigeria tends to also affect governments of these countries and they range from unstable political systems, terrorism, insurgency, corruption etc.

UNIT 2: Social – Cultural Environment of Development Administration

Unit Structure

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Learning Outcome

2.3 Socio- Cultural Features of Underdevelopment

2.4 Summary:

2.5 References/Further Reading

2.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



2.1 Introduction

In this unit you are introduced to some key socio-cultural features of underdevelopment. These factors include superstitious belief, tribalism and belief in having large families.



2.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Identify some salient Socio-cultural features of underdevelopment
- ii. Describe some of the features.



2.3 Socio- Cultural Features of Underdevelopment

In underdeveloped countries superstition is a key socio-cultural feature. For example, in many parts of Africa, people attribute their problems to supernatural factors such as an angry deity, curses and witchcraft. In this view, man is at the mercy of a bewildering array of unseen, often malevolent forces that are beyond his control. The sufferer may experience some relief when a culturally accepted explanation for his problems is provided, for instance his problems explained as being caused by witches. The fact that these forces are seen as beyond his control but amenable to the intervention of the traditional healer renders the sufferer more open to his suggestions. Is a person considered healed when he continues to live in fear of individuals, and unseen forces in his environment? Our answer should be 'NO' The price a nation pays for being uncritical of the beliefs held by the citizens, that their lives are controlled by forces outside their control is grave indeed. Apathy becomes the predominant attitude of such citizens and underdevelopment a resultant consequence. The belief that anyone with the help of the supernatural may bring harm to others does little to promote mutual trust. In the absence of trust individuals cannot cooperate in engineering solutions to pressing national or community

issues. These are societies where children are for instance, seen as needed to continue the lineage and perpetuate the family name and spirit. The aged are dependent on their adult sons and daughters for supported hence fertility remains high in order to guarantee enough children to meet the need. Developing countries like those of Africa have the fastest growing population rate. Most of them have large areas of land with population scattered, largely rural and often involve tribal groupings alienated from functional government. People are differentiated on the basis of race. Tribe and religion. Tribal sentiments usually determine the pattern of voting or appointment to positions of responsibility. Most of the time merit is compromised and this effects executive capacity and consequently, national development.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: what is culture?

Q2: In your opinion how has the socio-cultural elements impeded development?



2.4 Summary:

This unit has been examining the socio-cultural factors of underdevelopment with their implications for development. Hence, it can be said that Social-cultural feathers of underdevelopment usually revolve around tribal authority and superstition. Superstition endangers trust which may affect development efforts.



2.5 References/Further Reading

Jegade, R.O. and Olatawura, M.O. (1977). 'Problems of Psychotherapy in Changing Societies', (Pp. 75 -80), African Journal of Psychiatry (3), 75 – 80.

Asuni, T. (1966). 'Development in material health in Nigeria: Special Reference to Western Nigeria', Represented from excerpts in Medical International Congress, 150, 1067 – 1068.



2.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Question One: culture is the totality of the ways of life of a people. It can promote or impede development depending on the attributes of the culture that is promoted above other considerations. Some aspects are negative to development while others tend to promote development as the case may be.

Question Two: The socio-cultural features of Nigeria which impede development include superstition (irrational) beliefs), tribalism and the belief in having a large number of children.

UNIT 3: Administrative Environment of Development Administration



3.1 Introduction

This unit deals with the administrative characteristics of underdeveloped countries and their implications for development. The influence of the colonial heritage on the service and the need for reforms will also be discussed.



3.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Identify administrative features of underdevelopment
- ii. Describe the features.



3.3 Administrative Features of Underdevelopment

There is usually an effective bureaucracy coupled with a vigorous modernizing elite. The basic pattern of administration is imitating rather than indigenous. In Nigeria, for instance, the current administrative laws are those introduced by the British some 50 to 100 years ago. Nigerian civil servants commonly claim that, their system 'follows the British system'. Such claims are made with pride and are supposed to demonstrate the pedigree and quality of their civil service. They fail, though, to note that the system is based on a British colonial model (rather than the British domestic model). The colonial heritage is more elitist, more authoritarian, more aloof and paternalistic in these developing countries. Bureaucracy maintains sole ownership of technical knowledge in the various sectors from agriculture to mining and industry. It is usually the sole employer of professional experts, most often trained in the country of the former colonial master. The bureaucracy is often large and deficient in skilled manpower necessary for developmental programmes. The countries emphasize orientations that are other than production directed. Freed Riggs refers to this as preference for personal expediences as against public principled interests. Value attached to status is based on ascription rather than achievement. Outwardly, they preach a merit system but practice a spoils system. Corruption is widespread and bureaucracy is used as a social security programme to solve an employment problem which in turn leads to a padded bureaucracy. There is widespread discrepancy between form and reality, what Riggs refers to as formalism.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: what are the main characteristics of the Nigerian civil services?

Q2: In your opinion, what are the characteristics of bureaucracy in underdeveloped societies?



3.4 Summary:

The bureaucracy in the developing countries is usually padded being the largest employer of labour in those countries. It is deficient in skill but claims sole ownership of technical knowledge in the various sectors.



3.5 References/Further Reading

Anyebe, A.A. (1992). 'Civil Service Reforms in Nigeria: A Brief Examination of the Department Seminar, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.



3.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: The Nigerian civil service is elitist as a result of colonial heritage; it maintains sole ownership of technical knowledge and is the major employer of labour in Nigeria.

Question Two: The bureaucracy in the developing countries is usually large and important but does not have the institutional support to work effectively.

Unit 4: Socio-Cultural Features of Underdevelopment

Unit Structure

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Learning Outcome

4.3 Socio- Cultural Features of Underdevelopment

4.4 Summary:

4.5 References/Further Reading

5.5 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



4.1 Introduction

In this unit you are introduced to some key socio-cultural features of underdevelopment. These factors include superstitious belief, tribalism and belief in having large families.



4.2 Learning Outcome

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

I identify some salient Socio-cultural features of underdevelopment and describe some of the features.



4.3 Socio- Cultural Features of Underdevelopment

In underdeveloped countries superstition is a key socio-cultural feature. For example, in many parts of Africa, people attribute their problems to supernatural factors such as an angry deity, curses and witchcraft. In this view, man is at the mercy of a bewildering array of unseen, often malevolent forces that are beyond his control. The sufferer may experience some relief when a culturally accepted explanation for his problems is provided, for instance his problems explained as being caused by witches. The fact that these forces are seen as beyond his control but amenable to the intervention of the traditional healer renders the sufferer more open to his suggestions. Is a person considered healed when he continues to live in fear of individuals, and unseen forces in his environment? Our answer should be 'NO' The price a nation pays for being uncritical of the beliefs held by the citizens, that their lives are controlled by forces outside their control is grave indeed. Apathy becomes the predominant attitude of such citizens and underdevelopment a resultant consequence. The belief that anyone with the help of the supernatural may bring harm to others does little to promote mutual trust. In the absence of trust individuals cannot cooperate in engineering solutions to pressing national or community

issues. These are societies where children are for instance, seen as needed to continue the lineage and perpetuate the family name and spirit. The aged are dependent on their adult sons and daughters for supported hence fertility remains high in order to guarantee enough children to meet the need. Developing countries like those of Africa have the fastest growing population rate. Most of them have large areas of land with population scattered, largely rural and often involve tribal groupings alienated from functional government. People are differentiated on the basis of race. Tribe and religion. Tribal sentiments usually determine the pattern of voting or appointment to positions of responsibility. Most of the time merit is compromised and this effects executive capacity and consequently, national development.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: what is culture?

Q2: In your opinion how has the socio-cultural elements impeded development?



4.4 Summary:

This unit has been examining the socio-cultural factors of underdevelopment with their implications for development. Hence, it can be said that Social-cultural feathers of underdevelopment usually revolve around tribal authority and superstition. Superstition endangers trust which may affect development efforts.



4.5 References/Further Reading

Jegade, R.O. and Olatawura, M.O. (1977). 'Problems of Psychotherapy in Changing Societies', (Pp. 75 -80), African Journal of Psychiatry (3), 75 – 80.

Asuni, T. (1966). 'Development in material health in Nigeria: Special Reference to Western Nigeria', Represented from excerpts in Medical International Congress, 150, 1067 – 1068.



5.5 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Question One: culture is the totality of the ways of life of a people. It can promote or impede development depending on the attributes of the culture that is promoted above other considerations. Some aspects are negative to development while others tend to promote development as the case may be.

Question Two: The socio-cultural features of Nigeria which impede development include superstition (irrational) beliefs), tribalism and the belief in having a large number of children.

UNIT 5 Administrative Reforms in Nigeria

Unit Structure

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Learning Outcome

5.3 Nigerian Civil Service and Reforms

5.4 Reports of the Civil Service Reforms

5.4 Summary

5.5 References/Further Reading

5.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



5.1 Introduction

The Nigerian civil service was modeled on the civil service which existed in Britain. Here we will discuss the structural and operational features of the civil service and the recommendations of some of the reforms.



5.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Identify the structural and operational features of the Nigerian civil service and
- ii. Explain some recommendations of the reforms.



5.3 Nigerian Civil Service and Reforms

The evolution of the modern civil service in Nigeria can be traced generally to the close of the Second World War. As we discussed in the last unit, specific landmark events in the evolution started with the 1954 review of the Macpherson constitution which was not only a response to the independence movement, but also a response to the forces of regionalism and ethnicity. By this time, the need for the establishment of regional governments and consequently regional civil services was recognized and accepted. This period also marked the beginning of the process of dismantling the colonial civil service in Nigeria, which hitherto, as all other British African colonies then, was composed of two

broad classes: the senior service, covering all posts reserved for the Europeans and the junior service, embracing all posts to which Nigerians were appointed.

The Gorsuch report of 1954 recommended the division of the service into four broad classes corresponding to the general educational standards of the time. These were the sub-clerical and manipulative, clerical and technical, executive and higher technical and the administrative and professional classes. The system was modeled on the civil service which existed in Britain. During the period of decolonization, however, the public service began to undergo some significant changes in both its complexity and the responsibility assigned to it. In 1948 for example, there was a general directive from the colonial office in London to the colonial governments instructing them to expand the tasks of government to include reforms of local governments as a means of mobilizing the local human and material resources for socio-economic and political development. Along with this development, there was the expansion of the bureaucracy and establishment of public corporations. The high hopes raised by nationalist and the anxiety of the post-independence leaders of Nigeria to achieve quick social economic development of the country and the availability of more resources especially the oil windfall in the 1970s, greatly contributed to the expansion of the size and responsibilities of the civil service bureaucracy. At the federal level, for example, in 1960, there were only 12 ministries with a total of 60,000 staff. By 1978 the number of ministries and staff strength had risen to 25 and 187 000 respectively, and by 1984 the number of employees stood at 302 000. The breakup of the country into 12 states in 1967 and into 19 in 1976, also contributed greatly to the expansion of the civil service in the country. The phenomenal growth in the size and responsibilities of the service and in particular, the realities of the social, economic and political situation within which it operated made the institution to become embroiled in many serious problems e.g red tapism, rigidity, corruption, nepotism, ineffectiveness and inefficiency, conservatism, etc. These challenges posed for the civil service made it a subject of many inquiries by the government, all in an attempt to improve it. Such inquiries include the Gorsuch Report (1954), the Adebo Commission on the Review of the Salary Structure of the Civil Service (1971), the Udoji Commission (1974), the 1988 Civil Service Reforms and the Ayida Panel (1994). The civil service in 1974 according to the Udoji Commission was almost a caste-like system. The career structure meant that a civil servant was recruited at an early age into the service with an implied promise of a life career, during which he was to work his way through the hierarchy of the service. This promise of a life career meant an assurance of life-long employment which could be terminated only by mental or physical incapacity or the commission of a criminal offence. The structure was closed because it had no adequate provision for the admission of outsiders (well-qualified and experienced persons) in the higher grades of the hierarchy. Such a career and closed system did not provide enough incentives for change, modernization or the achievement of excellence and could lead to inbreeding

and obsolescence. Obsolescence affects not only the structure but also organization and management.

5.4 Reports of the Civil Service Reforms

In its report, the Udoji Commission made far reaching recommendations or making the civil service a result-oriented system. It recommended introduction of such management techniques as Management by Objective (MBO), Project Management, and Programme and Performance Budgeting. The Political Bureau (1987) noted that the above recommendations of the commission were not accepted by the government and therefore, not implemented. The 1988 reforms, like the Udoji Commission recommended that emphasis in the civil service should be on management rather than on administration. The former arrangement (administration) tended to favour the generalists over the professionals. However, it is worth nothing that the closed career system which the civil service has hitherto been, is likely to continue, as there will be very few instances where direct appointments will be to higher positions (GL-11 and above) from outside. Most of what will happen with such positions is that they will be filled through promotions or what a personnel management expert calls 'selection from inside the service'. The phenomenal growth in the size and responsibilities of the civil service has produced such a diffusion of power that the task of central direction and coordination has become extremely difficult. The office of the Secretary to the Federal Government which is formally responsible for the coordination of all activities of ministries and departments of the government and for ensuring the efficiency of the functioning of the departments of machinery of government, Udoji noted, was not adequately equipped to perform the role of either coordinating or overseeing the efficiency of the government machinery. This situation led to problems such as red-tapism, rigidity and conservatism, inefficiency, etc.

The Udoji Commission met a civil service ridden with corruption and it made the following: We live in a society in which corruption is generally believed to be, and no doubt it widespread. It is unrealistic for Nigerians to say that government will eliminate corruption completely from its public service, but it must make it one of its prime objectives to control corruption. The 1988 reforms took a tough stance on accountability by saying that the accountability of an officer shall not cease by virtue of his leaving office as he may be called at any time after leaving office to account for his tenure. Before the 1988 reforms, the minister or commissioner was the political head of the ministry while the permanent secretary was the administrative head as well as the accounting officer. A situation in which the administrative head of the ministry was also the accounting officer rather than the political head has tended to frustrate many noble projects of the government. As accounting officer, the administrative head often placed unnecessary bureaucratic obstacle to quick execution of such projects. The 1988 reforms made the minister or the commissioner both the chief executive as well as the accounting officer of

the ministry. The minister as the chief executive would be in total control of men, materials and money which are critical inputs in the management of the organization. As accounting officer, he would also be responsible and accountable for administration, personnel and finances of the organization. In prescribing these functions, for the minister, the task force was evidently aware that his efficiency and output may be impaired because of too much responsibility. So, it recommended that he delegate a substantial part of his functions to the permanent secretary who in the new structure would be director-general. The Nigerian civil service was divided into two broad segments, namely the administrative and professional cadres. The permanent secretary headed the former at the apex, below who were the executive, the clerical and the sub-clerical officers. The latter was headed by professionals such as engineers, doctors, agricultural officers, etc. who reported to the political head of their ministries through the administrative officers.

Below then were the technologists, technicians and those engaged in manually appointed.

The permanent secretaries were heads of the various ministries and as such, they were the principal advisers to the ministries and commissioners. Technically this meant that the professionals who headed the divisions in a ministry were under the permanent secretary. This relationship between the administrative cadre and professional cadre had generated a considerable degree of acrimony in the service because the professional cadre resented their subordination to the administrative cadre. This tension affected morale and productivity of the service. Officers progressed within their cadre and rarely moved from one to the other. When they did, they usually suffered a loss of seniority. This situation did not motivate the best deployment and utilization of available scarce manpower. This generalist/specialist dichotomy has been targeted by successive civil service reforms during the last two decades for eradication. The Udoji Commission tried to resolve this conflict by evolving only one hierarchical structure (the Unified Grade System) into which every cadre should fit. There were 17 distinct ranks and a range of salary attached to each rank for the purpose of salary administration. The lowest category of grades (grade level 01 to 06) consist of the junior staff of the civil service; the messengers, typists, stenographers, clerks, craftsmen and artisans and technical assistants. The next category of grades (grade level 07 to 09) are the supervisory, intermediate and lower management staff including executive officers. The third broad category consists of the middle management staff (grade level 10 to 13) who perform the bulk of the administrative and professional functions within the ministries and departments. At the top of the hierarchy is the upper management category (Grade level 14 to 17). This category of staff constitutes the leadership group and they are responsible for the policy and general management. Thus, a generalist and a professional could both be on the same grade level, say GL 16 & 17. This in theory, meant that anybody who

qualifies could hold the post of permanent secretary in any ministry. In practice, however, most permanent secretaries were still drawn from the generalist cadre. Thus, even though the conflict has lessened, it was still a phenomenon in the system. This conflict was finally erased by the 1988 civil service reforms which professionalized the service as every officer was expected to acquire the necessary expertise through relevant specialized training and experience. The 1988 reforms concentrated more on the intra-bureaucratic power or authority realignment aimed at ensuring clearer channels for easy communication flow and lines of authority that clearly define the locus of responsibility and accountability. This is likely, according to Abdulsalami, 'to facilitate decision making and thereby improve administrative efficiency and/ or effectiveness'. However, for better and for far reaching results, more comprehensive reforms are imperative to usher in modern management techniques, new attitudes that are change conscious and development oriented. The criticism that trailed the discarded 1988 reforms was enormous. On the vanguard was Chief Adebo who said that he preferred what existed before the so-called reforms. This criticism among other things led to the setting up of the Ayida Panel in 1994 to review the existing system by December of the same year the interim report was ready. It suggested the dropping of the director-general title and the restoration of the order. The full report was submitted to the government in 1966. From the above discussion, it is clear that the civil service occupies a very strategic position in the social-economic and economic-political development of this country. It is the most central of the institutions of government, which should be the prime mover of the social and economic development of the country. It is also evidenced that there are serious problems which have impeded its efficient functioning. For the civil service to play its proper leadership role in the new political system envisaged for the country, it must be re-oriented and restructured.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: Where did Nigeria copy her style of administration from?

Q2: Identify the structural and the operational features of the Nigerian civil service.



5.5 Summary

In this unit, the structural and operational features of the Nigerian civil service have been discussed. Some recommendations of the various commissions were also discussed and they together guide an understanding of the internal workings of the Nigerian civil service and how it originated in the British model.



5.6 References/Further Reading

Anyebe, A.A. (1992). 'Civil Service Reforms in Nigeria: A BRIEF Examination of the Udoji Commission and the 1988 Reforms'.



5.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: It should be recalled that Nigeria got her style of administration from Britain. the major commercial, financial and technological developments that has taken place originally in the public and private sector of the economy especially in complex managerial devices and industrialization has its roots in the British model.

Question Two:the structural and operational features of the Nigerian civil service includes: 1. Dual headship 2. Phenomenal growth in size and responsibilities 3.Closed career system 4.General/professional dichotomy 5. Corruption

MODULE 4 DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

UNIT 1: History of Development Plan

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 History of Development Plan (1946 -56)
- 1.4 Development Plan (1955 – 60)
- 1.5 Development Plan (1962 – 68)
- 1.6 Development Plan (1970 –74)
- 1.7 Development Plan (1975 – 80)
- 1.8 Development Plan (1981 – 85)
- 1.9 Planning Problems
- 1.10 Prospects for Planning in Nigeria
- 1.11 Summary:
- 1.12 References/Further Reading
- 1.13 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



1.1 Introduction

Nigeria like many other countries, have always had development plans. They were more pronounced during the early years of independence up to the 90s however, there are still development plans but not as prominent in development literature as they used to be. This unit deals with the ten-year plan of development and welfare for Nigeria, 1946 -56 and the criticisms that greeted the plan.



1.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Describe the preparation of plan and be able to give reasons why plans succeed or are criticized.



1.3 History of Development Plan (1946 -56)

In February 1946, legislation incorporating the plan was adopted by the Council. It derived from a development in 1940 when the Colonial Development and Welfare Act was passed in Britain with the purpose of promoting social betterment of the colonies. Following the adoption of the legislation incorporating the plan, a colonial Economic Advisory Committee with a membership that included economists such as Lionel Robbins, Evan Durbin, Arnold Plant, Hubert Henderson and ex-colonial administrators such as the former Governor of Nigeria. Sir Bernard Bourdillon was established. The controversy that greeted the committee over its status, role, and competence to discuss or initiate discussion of such matters as strategies for agricultural development, industrial development, colonial public debt, division of taxation between the colonies and the United Kingdom and the bulk purchasing arrangement made the enactment of a new Colonial Development and Welfare Act imperative. The New Colonial Development and Welfare Act of 1945 restricted the role of the advisory committee to the steady inflow of development plans from the colonies without imposing solutions on them. As far as Nigeria was concerned, its size dictated that some central organization be established for overall coordination, control of finances and the preparation of major policies. An advisory committee on economic development and social committee was established in the colonial office but its membership was restricted to officials. Also, a Central Development Board consisting of the Development Secretary (Chairman), the three chief commissioners for the Northern, Western and Eastern Provinces, the Commissioner of the Colony the Financial Secretary to the Government, and the Director of Public Works was established in the Secretariat in Lagos. The function of the Board was lay down planning principles and policies, priorities and funding of development year by year and between one part of the country and another. In the provinces and the colony, the chief

commissioners established Area Development Committees made up in each case of the Resident and representatives of departments. The area committees were expected to evaluate proposals from the provinces prior to their submission to the Central Development Board. Each province (there were twenty-four of them) also had a Provincial Development Committee consisting of the Resident as Chairman, representatives of departments and some unofficial members. The role of these committees was to prepare local schemes to be sent to the Area Development Committee. The arrangements, according to Okigbo, would have been to no avail if there had been no organization at the apex to make the necessary decisions. The answer was the Governor-Council in Lagos who took the necessary decisions on the spot and the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the Colonial Office who had the power to approve or reject proposals. And since the bulk of the finance was to come directly from or was channeled through the colonial office. The approval or sanction of the Secretary of the State became, in the final analysis, the ultimate authority and represented British government policy. Simultaneously, decisions that were to apply to a particular colony had to be given local legal backing. In Nigeria, they were therefore, referred to the legislative council in which at that time, British Official members predominated over Nigerian members who were either elected (as in the colony) or appointed (as in the protectorate). The ten-year plan of development and welfare in Nigeria, 1946 -56, had therefore to be approved by the legislative council in order to have the necessary legal validity and legitimacy. The philosophy underlying the plan was fully articulated in a document published in 1945 entitled, Preliminary Statement on Development in Nigeria. The need for planning was defined by the uneven progress of the country up to that time, a situation made worse by the retrenchment policies of the 1930s following the worldwide recession. It had become apparent therefore, that coordinated plans should be formulated and executed to improve the standards of health, education, transport and other similar services. The plan drew deeply on the philosophical attitudes of the time in particular socialist doctrines that sprang from the triumph of the Labour Party in Britain after two decades in the shadows. The pre-occupation with welfare and social development in Britain was carried forward to the colonies and translated into concrete form in the plan. Under the plan a total planned expenditure of about N110 million for a period of ten years was envisaged with N46 million of the amounts to be met with funds provided under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act. The plan, however, did not run its full term because by 1950, the inappropriateness of charting development over a period as long as ten years in a country experiencing rapid structural changes had become evident. The estimated costs of projects over a ten-year period could be at best, an educated guesswork. This was readily appreciated in the formulation of the plan that the cost figures were only tentative and would be subject to further revisions in the light of new information, knowledge and prospect for financing. Also, the data required for effective planning were grossly deficient. Therefore, a decision was taken to break the plan into 2 five-year periods (1946

– 51) and (1951 – 56). The plan had been criticized for many reasons. For example, the authors of the National Development Plan, 1962 – 68 wrote that the programmes of the ten-year plan of development and welfare for Nigeria, were not ‘plans’ in the true sense of the word. More accurately, they constituted a series of projects which had not been coordinated or related to any overall economic targets. The criticism contained a large element of truth. It was valid in the sense that there were no overall economic targets in terms of macro-economic variables, readily quantifiable, against which the performance of the plan could be measured. The plan, also, was comprehensive as it was more of a list of projects, the selection and preparation of which did not take into account the participation of the people being planned for. It completely neglected major branches of activity (for example industry) and concentrated on social services, agriculture and communications. One major error which was frequently permitted, the authors of the National Development Plan 1963 – 68 continued, was that entirely new unrelated projects were readily substituted for original programmes without proper analysis and coordination with other projects. The justification given was flexibility. Actually, ten years was too long a span given the state of statistical information, to plan for a country like Nigeria.

Other plans that emanated from these plans include

1.4 Development Plan (1955 – 60)

The Plan Even though the revised 1951 – 56 plan was not due to come to an end until March 1, 1956 it came to a premature end in 1955 as a result of the introduction of a federal system of government in the country in 1954. Since the new constitutional arrangements made each of the regions autonomous, each of the then regional governments and the federal government launched its own five-year developments plan for the period, 1955 – 60. After a series of reviews, the estimated total cost of the programme was about N328 million. One consequence of setting up such powerful autonomous regions was the existence of consideration over-lapping in the plans of the various regions and the need to coordinate them at the national level. The National Economic Council (NEC), which was established in 1955, was the first major attempt to create a national institutional framework for planning and this body was to provide a forum to discuss development policies and common economic problems. NEC which was chaired, initially by the Governor-General and later by the Prime Minister while the regional premiers and some federal and regional ministers were members, was intended to achieve the coordination that the decentralization of planning had made necessary. It was stipulated that. The council will be consultative body in which the governments of the Federation and the regions may meet to discuss the many economic problems common to each notwithstanding their separate constitutional functions and of

consequences reaching beyond their respective constitutional spheres. The council will provide a permanent basis for such consultations without, however, encroaching upon the authority entrusted by the constitution to the respective governments. It is designed to give the maximum encouragement to the development of a national economic policy and to close cooperation towards that end between the governments in the federation. One defect of NEC was that its deliberates were infrequent, meeting only seventeen times in the ten years of its existence, an average of about 1.5 meetings a year and there were years, too, in which it did not meet. The mode of discourse at NEC's meetings was said to be one of generalized debates examination of policies. Conscious of its relative weakness NEC established the Joint Planning Committee (JPC) in 1958 as its intellectual and technical arm which was charged with the advisory task of formulating planning objectives and of coordinating the planning proposals of the federal and regional governments. This committee, chaired by the economic adviser to the prime minister had officials (permanent secretaries of planning ministries) of the governments of the federation as members. Its specific duties among others were: 1. To examine and report upon any matters remitted to it by the National Economic Council or individual governments. 2. To advise the National Economic Council, in particular by: (a) Preparing a statement of fundamental objectives for the guidance of the planning committees of the several governments in the federations of their development plans for each succeeding period. Examining the plans formulated by the governments and advising what modifications should be made to them in the light of the fundamental objectives agreed for this purpose in order that the plans together may form a coherent whole. 3. To direct its secretariat in: (a) The preparation studies, reports and surveys. (b) The collation, coordination, and dissemination of information. Although the JPC was supposed to be a committee of experts drawn from the federal and regional governments, most of those who took part in its deliberations were not economists but generalist administrators. Other weaknesses of the committee according to (Oyovbaire 1975), include the fact that its members were not only impermanent, its meeting were generally attended only by junior regional and federal officials (representatives of the relevant permanent secretaries). The high rate of mobility of civil servants between ministries and between ranks caused a (rapid) turnover in the committee's membership, few participants in its activities were said to be there under the same schedule for more than two years running. By and large, the politics of the regional governments, their rivalries and political alignments seeped through to the JPC. Although the officials were expected to attend and to discuss the issues before them passionately and in the interest of the country as a whole, the divergent views of the members of the JPC, according to Okigbo, often reflected the positions taken by the governments whose delegates they were. In fact the rivalry between the regions became a regular feature of the meetings of the JPC and this rivalry was often transferred to the meetings of the National Economic Council. The fact that the committee was subservient to NEC, and the need to reflect in its own

deliberations the political bargaining of the council, made the JPC succumb to political pressure.

1.5 Development Plan (1962 – 68)

The Plan At this tenth meeting in 1959, the National Economic Council (NEC) decided that a national development plan be prepared for the country. This decision gave birth to the 1962 – 68 plan. Under the plan, a total investment expenditure of about N2.130 million. Was proposed, out of this, the public sector investment was expected to be N1,352.3 million while the remaining investment expenditure of N780 million was expected to be undertaken by the private sector. The statement of national objectives expressed in the 1962 – 68 plan appeared clear and articulate (Okigbo, 1989). These objectives were basically the achievement and maintenance of the highest possible rate of increase in the standard of living and the creation of the necessary conditions for this, including public support and awareness that will be required. In concrete terms, these objectives were translated to cover: 1. a growth rate of the gross domestic product at 4 per cent per annual; 2. savings ratio to be raised to 15 per cent on of the gross domestic product; 3. an annual investment of 15 per cent of gross domestic product; 4. acceptance by all governments that the highest priority should go to agriculture, industry, training of high level and intermediate manpower. However, the procedure for formulating these objectives was no more than an educated guess work as the planners did not have as their disposal the relevant information on the main parameters such as consistent national income series, data on population growth and its characteristics, productivity costs and financial flows. For example, the rate of growth of 4 per cent annum was arrived at, by using the 1950 – 57 data on national income to calculate the income for the base year 1962 and this was extrapolated to 1968 (Anyebe, 1955). In the absence of such detailed information the cost of decisions could become prohibitive and the possibilities of inconsistent decisions become greater and greater. (Stoppor 1966) describe the 19662 – 68 Development Plan as ‘planning without facts. Nevertheless, the plan, which came out in 1962, was considerable improvement over the 1955 – 60 development programmes in many ways. First, all government had a uniform plan period. Second, efforts were made to set and quantify national economic goals, and finally all governments accepted the same priorities. The plan, according to the then Minister of Economic Development, ‘is a manifestation of the growing recognition... of the need to work towards common ends’ (1962 – 68 plan document, pg. 5). In fact, the 1962 – 68 plan was described as the first national plan. The plan was so described because it was the first post-independence plan, the previous ones having been formulated and executed during the colonial era with little participation (especially during the ten-year plan of development and welfare) by Nigerian nationals. It was even claimed that the 1962 – 68 plan rectified the defects in the previous plans. It has therefore, become necessary to see how far this claim is true and to what extent the 1962 – 68 plan established a procession of truly national plan.

1.6 Development Plan (1970 –74)

The Plan Before the expiration of the 1962 – 68 plan and just about the time that the preparation of the next plan was to commence, the country experienced a national crisis of proportions which seriously affected the operations of the planning institutions. The National Economic Council and Joint Planning Committee ceased to function because of the crisis. They were both replaced by the National Economic Planning Advisory Group in 1966. One of the functions of this body was to review the progress of the economy since independence. The advisory group was unable to function effectively in an environment that required a rigorous and constant interventionist policy by the government in the economic affairs of the nation. The Second National Development Plan (1970 – 74) was formulated and implemented under a military regime and it was launched shortly after the end of the civil war, with the aim of reconstructing the war battered economy and social development in the country.

The preparation of the Second National Development Plan would have been finalized much earlier but because of the civil war, the implantation of the First National Development Plan was extended to 1970. The experience and the lessons of war, no doubt influenced the national philosophy which served as the principal focus of the plan. This philosophy was spelt out in the objectives which were to establish Nigeria as: 1. a united, strong and self-reliant nation; 2. a great and dynamic economy; 3. a just and egalitarian society; 4. a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens; and 5. a free and democratic society. This was the first attempt to express the social philosophy underlying the country's planning efforts. The plan was much bigger in size (the total capital expenditure was about N4.9 billion) than its predecessors. According to Ayo (1988), the second plan was more diversified in its project composition than the earlier plans and it was in fact the first truly national and fully integrated plan which viewed the economy as an organic unit, the twelve states being fully integrated in the plan. However, Okigbo (1989), described the objectives of the 1970 – 74 plan as general or what would be regarded as dynamic. There was no way to measure or assess whether the claim of a particular policy was valid with respect to making Nigeria great and dynamic. The inclusion of the objective of a free and democratic society, he constituted, took the planners outside the realm of economics. The splitting of the country into twelve states in 1967 brought another dimension to the problem of planning. The machinery which had been designed to formulate and coordinate national planning when there were five governments became inadequate to withstand the demand of thirteen governments, most of which lacked the relevant institutional machinery and manpower resources for economic planning. With the exception of perhaps the Western and Mid-Western States, all other states were still relatively new for planning purposes during the 1970 – 74 plan period, and this included the East-Central State which had just emerged from being the main theatre of the civil war. What emerged therefore, was a clear recognition that the

federal government must take the lead and coordinate the national efforts in formulating plans. This greater role was exercised through the Federal Ministry of Economic Development and Economic Planning Unit (EPU) located in that ministry. The EPU, in essence, became the centralized agency for coordinating federal and state projects through mutual consultations. As to the institutional machinery for planning after the civil war, the prewar practice and methods became inadequate. Therefore a professional planning body the Central Planning Office (CPO) was created in 1972 under the umbrella of the Federal Ministry of Economic Development and Reconstruction. The CPO replaced the EPU. To ensure that all the sectors of the economy were given adequate consideration in the formulation of the plan, a National Economic Advisory Council (NECA) was set up in 1972. This was in response to the criticism that the private sector had been planned for but not taken into confidence. This council was presided over by the Federal Commissioner for Economic development and Reconstruction and its membership cut across the various sectors of the economy comprising the representatives of various organizations in the private sector of the economy such as the trade unions, the Nigerian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, Manufacturers' Association of Nigeria, university teachers, some acknowledge individual professionals and officials of the Central Bank and the Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research. It was to advise the government on economic matters. It is arguable to what extent the inputs of these organized private sector representatives in the council adequately took care of the sector's interests in the subsequent development plans. In fact, the Udoji Public Service Review Commission cynically observed in 1974 that, '... the performance of NEAC has so far fallen below expectation. Its performance has been more or less limited to consideration of papers prepared by the Central Planning Office'. This was definitely not sufficient. The council was expected to identify problems independently, commission its own studies and make positive recommendations to the government on the integration of the private sector in the planning process. Another body, the Joint Planning Board (JPB), which drew its membership from the federal and state ministries, the Central Bank of Nigeria and the Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research (NISER) was set up to harmonize the economic policies and development activities of the federal and state governments and to examine in detail all aspects of planning and make recommendations to the government. In the military era, the draft went from the Joint Planning Board to the higher decision making bodies such as the Conference of Minister/Commissioners for Economic Planning, Federal Executive Council or National Council of Ministers and the National Council or the Armed Forces Ruling Council for approval. This body was the highest authority making policies, projects and programmes during a military regime and it was composed of the head of state and commander-in chief of the armed forces as chairman, the chief of staff supreme headquarters or chief of general staff, the secretary to the Federal Military Government, heads of the Nigeria Army, the Navy, the Airforce, the Police and a few other top ranking military officers. The second national development

plan was largely the responsibility of the federal governments. The plan differed from its predecessor (that is, 1962 – 68 plan) as it was addressed more to reconstruction than to growth. Unlike predecessor, it was born out of hopes generated by the euphoria of independence but out of frustrations and fear generated by a pernicious, fratricidal civil war. It required that the policies used to see the country through three years of civil service be remobilized for peace to see the country resettle on a normal course. It required that even where the same criteria were used to select the main channels of investment, the policies would have to be different because the environment had to be radically altered to re-align it to peace time objectives. There were a few other significant differences between the 1971 – 74 plan and the 1962 – 68 plan. The state governments proposed an allocation of 17.8 percent of their capital programmes on agriculture between 1970 and 1974, for all governments combined, that is, including the federal government. The overall proportion was 9.9 per cent. This was clearly below what could have been expected if the emphasis of 1962 – 68 plan had been continued into 1970 – 74. The lion's share of the allocations in the 1970 – 74 plan went to transport and communications, roads, waterways and telecommunications. These represented some 40.1 per cent of the federal government capital programme compared with 32.5 per cent in the 1962 – 68 plan. Social services accounted for 26.6 per cent for all governments' programmes compared with 13.5 per cent of the 1962 – 68. Finally, defence and security represented as much as 10.3 per cent of the overall programme and 17.9 per cent of the federal governments programme. This new development reflected the increasing emphasis of the federal government on security and defence problems as a result of the civil war. Even in the field of agriculture, there was a significant difference in the approach taken by the federal government in 1970 from the stand it took in the 1962 – 68 plan. To that the nation was able to feed itself the 1976 – 80 plan reviewing the 1970 to 74 plan declared, government (federal) established food production companies which have brought into cultivation more than 60,000 acres for the production of substantial quantities of food items such as rice, maize, cassava, etc. This was the first time the federal government had entered into direct production in agriculture. Hitherto, it was content to leave that to the state (regional) governments which established farms and plantations. The expectation of the federal government that by its entry into this field the food problem would be nearer to its solution reflects the prevailing philosophy and a lack of appreciation by all governments of the economics of state government intervention in direct production. This miscalculation of the 1970s has continued to influence successive governments which, in the face of unsatisfactory results, have multiplied their involvement instead of pulling out of direct production.

1.7 Development Plan (1975 – 80)

The Dimension of the Plan It has been observed second national development plan 1970 – 74, as formulated, were not operational. The view as also expressed in a different way

concerning the third national development plan, 1975 – 80, the statement of the objectives merely provided a broad view of the ultimate aspirations of the society. The five cardinal objectives of the second national plan were modified and expanded into seven short-term objectives for the third national plan: 1. Increase in per capital income 2. More even distribution of income 3. Reduction in the level of unemployment 4. Increase in supply of high level manpower 5. Diversification of the economy 6. Balance development The third national plan was an improvement over the second plan in terms of definition of objectives. The overall strategy of the plan was to utilize the resources from oil to develop the productive capacity of the economy and thereby improve the standard of living of the people. The huge size of the plan was as a result of the optimism generated by the unusually favourable financial circumstances under which the country was operating on the eve of the plan. There had been sharp increases in both the price of crude oil as well as its level of production. By March, 1975, the country's oil production was at a record level of 2.3 million barrels per day while the price stood at 14.69 dollars per barrel having risen from 3.55 dollars per barrel in 1973. Nigeria's oil production was projected to reach 3.0 million barrels per day by the end of the plan period. This was however, not realized due to the prevail world economic depression which resulted in production and price decline to the extent that the estimated value of oil exports in the first year of the plan in 1975 – 76 fell by about 1 billion dollars. Apart from this, barely two months after launching the plan, a number of other problems of disturbing proportions, which were not much in evidence at the time of the plan preparation, surfaced to pose a serious threat to the successful implementation of the plan. These included the effects of the growing congestion at the ports and the acceleration of inflation, which was not only distorting the plan priorities but also eroding living standards all over the country. With the change of government in July 1975, a reappraisal of some of the national objectives was undertaken. Consequently, the third plan was reviewed with more emphasis placed on those projects which had direct effect on the living standard of the common man. Sectors such as agriculture, health, housing and water supply were therefore given more priority. For instance, the target number of hospital beds proposed earlier in the plan was raised from 82,000 to 120,000. The target number of housing units was raised to 200,000 as against 60,000 units. One of the most significant features of planning since the beginning of military rule in Nigeria, according to Abdu Salami, was the noticeable national trend towards greater centralization; the increasing federal share of available national resources, increasing scope of federal responsibilities, increasing dependence of states on federal sources for their resources and the increasing integration of the inter-governmental authority of the military had an impact on the style of government at this time. These features destroyed the old regional rivalry and consequently enabled the central government to assert itself and to prepare a plan that is more comprehensive and more integrated. The second and the third national development plans were formulated and implemented by military regimes.

1.8 Development Plan (1981 – 85)

The 1981 – 85 Plan Objectives Towards the end of the military administration in 1979, the federal military government issued guidelines for the fourth national development plan. The five year plan was not launched until January 1, 1981. The reason for the delay was to enable the new civilian administration which was installed on October 1, 1979, to participate in the formulation of policies and programmes of a development plan that it was to implement. The 1981 – 85 plan will provide for an investment of N82 billion was therefore launched by a democratically elected government under a new constitution based on the presidential system of government. The plan was intended to further the process of establishing a solid base for the long-term economic and social development of Nigeria. High priority was consequently accorded agriculture particularly food production, manufacturing, education, manpower development and infrastructural facilities. Social services like housing, health and water supply were also emphasized with a view to improving the quality of life in both urban and rural areas. Although the guidelines adopted in the outline for the 1981 – 85 plan accepted almost the specific objectives of the third plan as still valid, it criticized the focus on growth in the previous plan as wrong and misconceived. It raised, perhaps for the first time and appropriate too far for the incoming civilian politically elected administration, the basic questions, what kind of society did Nigeria wish to evolve and what was development? The guidelines proceeded to answer that true development must mean the development of man, the realization of his creative potential enabling him to improve his material condition of living through the use of resources available to him. It went further to articulate the need for self-reliance ... and concluded that a conscious effort be made to mobilize the masses - the entire Nigerian population for the implementation of the fourth plan. The specific objectives set for the plan were: 1. Increase in average income of average citizen. 2. More even distribution of income among individuals and socioeconomic groups. 3. Reduction in the level of unemployment and underemployment. 4. Increase in the supply of skilled manpower. 5. Reduction of dependence of the economy on a narrow range of activities. 6. Balanced development, that is, achievement of a balance in the development. 7. Increased participation by the citizens in the ownership and management of productive enterprises. 8. Greater self-reliance, that is, increased dependence on local resources in seeking to achieve the various objectives of societies. This also implied greater efforts to achieve the optimum utilization of Nigeria's human and material resources. 9. Development of technology. 10. Increased productivity. 11. The production of a new national orientation conducive to greater discipline better attitude to work and a cleaner environment.

1.9 Planning Problems

Planning as a term implies the formulation of a strategy for the future. In economic parlance, it may mean the assessment of one's resources at present and its allocation among different uses as to meet some specific goals in the future. For example, an individual might plan for secure income in his old age by allocating his income between present consumption and saving in various schemes like taking an insurance policy or simply keeping his money in a bank. A business firm might also plan to double production in, say, two-year time in which case it has to decide how much resources it can raise internally, how much to borrow, what equipment to buy, etc. When a nation plans its economy, it is more or less a similar exercise, though on a larger scale. The nation has to assess its resources and allocate these resources among different competing uses, depending on specific priority of each use. The planning authority has to assess how much of these resources are available and how they are to be exploited and further developed for meeting the goals set for the economy. The time-frame by which these goals are met also has to be fixed. Planning in a developing economy goes further to attempt to fulfil the objective of transforming the economy from a low level of production to a higher level of self-sustained growth. This is done by planning for a more effective use of existing resources, developing resources for future use and dismantling institutional and other constraints which hamper the growth of the resource base of the economy. Nigeria's planning experience dates back to the 1940s when the British colonial office requested the colonies to prepare development plans which would assist it in disbursing the Colonial Development and Welfare Funds. In response to this request, the administration in Nigeria prepared the ten-year plan of development and welfare covering 1946 – 1956. Since Nigeria became independent in 1960, it has formulated and implemented at least four development plans (1962 – 1968, 1970 – 1974, 1975 – 1980 and 1981 – 1985). In spite of the apparent faultless process and machinery for development planning in the country, success has been mixed, due to problems which the planning agencies have had to contend with. These problems range from shortage of executive capacity to conflicts in areas of planning, plan indiscipline, and the advisory role of the planning machinery.

3.2 Shortage of Executive Capacity Ayo (1988) asserts that except for the former National Planning Office (NPO) which had a cadre of specially trained planning officers, very few ministries and agencies at both the federal and state levels had such an institution to undertake planning functions on a permanent basis. Planning duties therefore, had to be undertaken by administrative officers who were given ad-hoc training prior to the commencement of plan preparation. What usually emerged from this arrangement was the production of planners who were amateurs in planning activities. In fact, many of the state ministries and their agencies were unable to evaluate the guidelines issued by the former National Planning Office to know the implications for their states, and so the question of drawing up comprehensive documents encompassing details of local needs did not arise. Consequently, most of the projects submitted to the office by many of these

state ministries and their agencies for inclusion in the plan were mere ideas lacking the necessary preliminary appraisals to establish not only their feasibility but also their scope and estimated costs. Thus, a considerable number of ideas admitted into the plan as 'projects' were not properly studied, designed and costed and as a result, their full implications were unknown at the time of their admission. The inadequacy of plan integration can also be traced to the limitations in the technology of data collection and processing. The abortive attempts at population censuses since the country's independence, the atrophy of several branches of economic data collection and even more so of the organisation of the Federal Office of Statistics all point in the direction of a weakening of the database of Nigeria planning. Consequently, the preparatory work that should lead to a sound plan was often perfunctory. The procedure for formulating development targets was in most cases, no more than an educated guess work.

1.10 Prospects for Planning in Nigeria

In spite of all the problems highlighted in the course of this study, there are still projects for using the planning process to achieve Nigeria's development objectives. As indicated earlier, except perhaps the National Planning Commission which can be said to have some trained planning officers, very few ministries and agencies at both the federal and state levels have officers with relevant training to undertake planning functions on a permanent basis. Planning duties have therefore, been undertaken by administrative officers who are given adhoc training prior to the commencement of plan preparation.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: In your opinion, were criticisms against the 1946 – 56 plans valid?

Q2: how relevant was the 1946-56 plan to Nigeria?



1.11 Summary:

Nigeria's planning experience dates back to 1945 when the British colonial office requested the colonies to prepare development plans which would assist it in disbursing the colonial development and welfare funds. In response to this request, the administration in Nigeria prepared a ten-year plan of development and welfare covering the period, 1946 – 56 but this plan was greeted with criticisms.



1.12 References/Further Reading

Okigbo, P.N.C. (1989). National Development Planning in Nigeria 1900 – 1992. London, N6: Valliers Publications.



1.13 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One:the 1946-56 development plan were laced with a lot of criticisms owing to the fact that it didn't reflect the true needs of the Nigerian state more so that it was drafted by foreigners. The plan did not take the people being planned for into consideration. 2. The plan period was too long for a country undergoing rapid structural changes like Nigeria. 3. There were no adequate data. 4. The private sector was not involved.

Question Two. The plan laid the foundation for future plans hence its relevance cannot be ignored.

UNIT 2 Concept of development Planning

Unit Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Learning Outcome
- 2.3 Concept of Planning
- 2.4 Why we planning are necessary in development administration
- 2.5 Types of Planning
- 2.6 Summary
- 2.7 References/Further Reading
- 2.8 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



2.1 Introduction

This unit introduces you to the meaning of planning, why we plan and the types of planning especially as it pertains to issues of development and administration. The relevance of planning cannot be overstated hence, planning would be given primacy at this.



2.2 Learning Outcome

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

1. Define planning
2. Explain why we planning are necessary in development administration.
3. Identify at least three types of planning.



2.3 Concept of Planning

It is probably true that there is no universally acceptable definition for planning. However, Buchacet (1970), describes national planning as a system of community action over a period of time ... a national plan constitutes the decision of national persons and corporations to the achievement of coordinated aims within a fixed period. Waterston (1974) says, 'a country is considered to be engaged in development planning if its government makes deliberate and continuing attempts to accelerate the rate of

economic and social progress and to alter institutional reforms to remove conflicts in aims and structures. A definition presented at the Minnowbrook Conference of the Comparative Administration Group in 1964 puts national planning as: An effort to promote or coordinate through central planning institutions the activities of: (a) intermediate bodies, such as national government departments, regional, state or local government, business federation and large nationwide enterprises, (b) operating units, such as enterprises, associations, local government, agencies, communities, families and the individual. This definition which focuses on functional relations among the various levels of government and the institutions engaged in development efforts, seem to be in tune with Nigeria's political and economic evolution. Planning can be categorized according to purpose, scope, degree of comprehensiveness and duration. Planning according to purpose can take the form of centralizing all economic activities and exercising control over strategic materials. An example of this type of planning is war time planning. For national development planning, the purpose is to accelerate social and economic progress of the country as a whole. Planning according to scope could be a national development planning which encompasses all sectors of the economy. Under this, we can also have regional or sectoral planning.

Planning according to degree of comprehensiveness is a situation where national development planning varies in terms of details. In socialist countries the economy is planned in detail in order to provide a basis for instructions and targets to productive units. Without these details it is difficult to exercise control. Planning in developing countries is not as detailed as in socialist countries and that of capitalist countries is merely for projection.

2.4 Why we planning are necessary in development administration

National planning is usually prepared according to specific periods but it can vary according to duration ranging from one year to even fifty years. We can have short time plan (1 or 2 years), medium time plan 5, 7, 8 years) and long time or perspective plan (10, 15, 25 or 50year). Following the socialist revolution in Russia in 1917 private ownership of the means of production was abolished. With that went private enterprise and the free market mechanism as vehicles for economic development. Planning and public enterprise were instituted in its place. The results were remarkable. The state mobilized high rates of public savings and investment. Capital accumulation and national income grew at unprecedented rates. By the end of the Second World War, the Soviet Union emerged as the second big power in the world. In about four decades, from a situation of underdevelopment and backwardness, the Soviet Union became a developed country. This was thus a very successful example of planned economic development for the countries developing later to learn and emulate. The strategy adopted by Third World countries was greatly influenced by the Soviet experience. However, with the collapse of socialism, planned economy gave way for a free market system in Soviet Union (now

Russia). You may have heard about the Great Depression of 1929, also called the 'World Economic crises. What happened was that the market system. Especially in the industrial countries of the West ground to a halt. There was over production, stock of unsold goods piled up, factories were shut down, share markets collapsed, unemployment soared up. All these meant a complete mismatch between production and market demand. It had been known that the free-market system did not ensure smooth development of an economy based on private enterprise. But the Great Depression made it crystal clear for everyone to see. Incidentally, one should also note that the Soviet economy, being a planned economy, remain unaffected by the Great Depression. How was the crisis of the great Depression handled? By the intervention. The states in the badly affected countries of the West intervened to push up market demand by undertaking public works and financing them by money creation (printing currency notes, also known as deficit financing). This step generated additional income and employment. Markets demands for goods and services gradually picked up as a result of policy. In the course of time, normalcy was restored and development resumed. This course of state intervention is also known as the 'Keynesian solution' of the economic crisis, after the name of the famous English economist, J.M. Keynes, who had provided the economic theory on which this solution was based. In the United States, this course of state intervention came to be known as the 'New Deal'. The experience of the Great Depression had, apart from other things, one very major effect. The faith in a laissez faire state, a fence-sitting state not actively intervening in the economic life to control the functioning of the market, was shaken. Since then, state intervention in the market system wherever necessary, become a normal feature of the capitalist countries. Secondly, as noted earlier, the state in these countries oversees the economy and engages in indicative planning (where the state does not actively play a role in economic development but merely indicates the direction in which private enterprise is to move). Finally, it plans for and undertakes public works, especially in the field of social infrastructure. Such developments in the develop in capitalist countries following the Great Depression, had a lesson for the developed countries. The lesson was: economic development could not be left wholly to private enterprise based on the free market. The state had a role to play in it. Shortly after the experience of the Great Depression came the Second World War (1939-45). It necessitated not just state intervention in the capitalist and fascist countries like Germany and Japan but an overall control of the economy, its regulation and production planning for the meeting the war needs. This is what is known as 'planning of the War Time Economies' after the war, rehabilitation and reconstruction required the active role of the state. This historical experience favours centralized planning. Alongside the above arose the notion of a welfare state which finally came to be accepted in practice in all market economies after the war.

Apart from its interventionist role, a welfare state also has to correct the negative aspects of market-based development concerned with the wider issue of social welfare. In the

developed countries of the West, the state makes a sizeable expenditure on old-age security, unemployment benefits, health, education and such other social services. All these are known as 'social security' or welfare measures. Provision for all these requires planning. A major negative effect of market-based development which has emerged lately is environmental pollution with ecological degradation. The welfare state is required not only to protect the environment and the ecology but also to conserve and plan for restoration and development of the natural resources. The free market mechanism, based on the accounting of private profit, does not provide for these. This also is a historical experience favouring development planning. The field of development administration can also be said to have started in the developing countries after World War II. After this war, the colonies started agitating for independence and many of them got it. However, most of the newly independent countries were poverty stricken but the masses had been led to expect that independence would bring about an immediate improvement in their conditions. The non-realisation of these expectations in turn bred a mood of impatience. Thus, improvement needed to be effected as speedily as possible or the mood of impatience would explode into violent reactions which would engender, if not destroy the state itself. These governments of these nations quickly realized that the idea of gradual development might not serve their purpose well. They were convinced that relevant administrative theories and procedures would have to be adopted to modernize their economies and accelerate development to be equivalent, eventually to this of the West. Because there was a chronic shortage of capital (money or wealth used to start a business) and capital markets (where money for starting a business is sourced) such that private ownership would necessarily mean foreign ownership the new nations wanting to preserve their independence closed their doors to foreign investors. It was therefore felt that government was the only agent organized enough to employ its machinery to induce, promote, and manage socio-economic development. Thus, in the post-independence period, government became the prime agent of economic development providing infrastructure and producing goods and services, often provided through the mechanism of public enterprise. It is possible to describe such planning as an attempt to promote and coordinate through central planning institutions, the social and economic activities of central and regional governments with a view to achieving an accelerated national development. It is obvious that such planning presents problems in a federal set-up whose principle includes the divisions of power among the levels of governments, the existence of a written constitution showing the division, and the coordinate supremacy of the levels of the government with regard to their respective functions. We shall examine the implications of this for the planning process later.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: Define development planning?

Q2: What are the categories of planning?

2.5 Types of Planning

1. Operational Planning

“Operational plans are about how things need to happen,” motivational leadership speaker Mack Story said at LinkedIn. “Guidelines of how to accomplish the mission are set.”

This type of planning typically describes the day-to-day running of the company. Operational plans are often described as single use plans or ongoing plans. Single use plans are created for events and activities with a single occurrence (such as a single marketing campaign). Ongoing plans include policies for approaching problems, rules for specific regulations and procedures for a step-by-step process for accomplishing particular objectives.

2. Strategic Planning

“Strategic plans are all about why things need to happen,” Story said. “It’s big picture, long-term thinking. It starts at the highest level with defining a mission and casting a vision.”

Strategic planning includes a high-level overview of the entire business. It’s the foundational basis of the organization and will dictate long-term decisions. The scope of strategic planning can be anywhere from the next two years to the next 10 years. Important components of a strategic plan are vision, mission and values.

3. Tactical Planning

“Tactical plans are about what is going to happen,” Story said. “Basically at the tactical level, there are many focused, specific, and short-term plans, where the actual work is being done, that support the high-level strategic plans.”

Tactical planning supports strategic planning. It includes tactics that the organization plans to use to achieve what’s outlined in the strategic plan. Often, the scope is less than one year and breaks down the strategic plan into actionable chunks. Tactical planning is different from operational planning in that tactical plans ask specific questions about what needs to happen to accomplish a strategic goal; operational plans ask how the organization will generally do something to accomplish the company’s mission.

4. Contingency Planning

Contingency plans are made when something unexpected happens or when something needs to be changed. Business experts sometimes refer to these plans as a special type of planning.

Contingency planning can be helpful in circumstances that call for a change. Although managers should anticipate changes when engaged in any of the primary types of planning, contingency planning is essential in moments when changes can't be foreseen. As the business world becomes more complicated, contingency planning becomes more important to engage in and understand



2.6 Summary

In this unit planning has been defined by making references to the views of some writers. It has also been categorized according to purpose, scope, degree of comprehensiveness and duration. The discussion ends with the reasons given for improved development planning in the developing countries as the major way to attain development.



2.7 References/Further Reading

Buchacet, I. O. (1970). Comparative Federalism: Territorial Dimension of Politics. New-York: Holt Rinechart and Winston.

Waterston, A. (1974). Development, Lessons of Experience. Baltimore, M.D.: Johns Hopkins University Press.



2.8 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise.

Question One: Development planning can be defined as an attempt to promote and coordinate through central planning institutions, the social and economic activities of central and regional governments with a view to achieving an accelerated national development.

Question Two: Planning can be categorized according to purpose, scope, degree of comprehensiveness and duration.

UNIT 3: The Planning Process in Nigeria

Unit Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Learning Outcome
- 3.3 The Planning Process
 - 3.3.1 Institutions involved in the planning process
- 3.4 Rational Planning Framework (RPF)
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 References/Further Reading
- 3.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercises



3.1 Introduction

This unit introduces you to the planning process and how it has been carried out from the independence period to the present-day Nigeria cutting across the various development plans and the reform efforts put in place across boards. The processes and institutions involved will be explained as well.



3.2 Learning Outcome

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

- i. Discuss the institutions involved in the planning process
- ii. Describe the stages in planning process in Nigeria.



3.3 The Planning Process

3.3.1 Institutions involved in the planning process

The federal character of the Nigerian government and the political sensitivity of the various states or sections highlighted the need for a balance between centralization and decentralization in the planning process. Thus, the process of plan formulation in Nigeria involves almost all the agencies of the federal and state governments. For the 1981 – 85 plan for example, the planning process was set in motion through a planning workshop held at the University of Ibadan in 1978 at the instance of the National Planning Office. Areas emphasized at the workshop included planning techniques, plan formulation,

national and sectoral policies, manpower implications for the plan development strategies, etc.

The planning office proceeded to prepare guidelines for ensuring plan and in so doing due attention was accorded recommendations of the workshop. The guidelines usually contain an analysis of the major problems of the country's socio-economic system, sector by sector provide some indications of the types of policy guidelines aimed at alleviating the identified problems during the ensuring plan periods. The guidelines also contain estimates of funds which will be available during the plan period, the objective of the plan, etc. This document is extensively discussed at ministerial levels, the Joint Planning Board, the Conference of Ministers/Commissioners for Economic Planning and the decision-making bodies in the country, for example, the National Economic Council for approval and subsequently published as a policy document. It helps to prepare the mind of government agencies both at the federal and state levels for the impending planning exercise. Shortly after the publication of the guidelines, circular letters are sent to all federal ministries and state governments inviting them to submit their projects for the plan. They are required to submit such projects on formats designed for the purpose and in line with the policies and priorities spelt out in the guidelines. On receiving the project proposals, each department of the National Planning Office embarks on a careful analysis of each project proposal under its schedule and makes appropriate recommendations as to whether a particular project based on its technical and economic viability, social justification and consistency with the stated national priorities should be admitted into the plan. The specifications of selected projects are also indicated by providing such information as, the agency responsible for the implementation of the project, the physical scope and financial magnitude of the project. Attempts are also made, based on projected executive capacity of various agencies, to indicate the phasing of the plan and allocation to each project on an annual basis. This serves as a guide in making yearly budgetary allocations. These projects with the appropriate recommendations of the sectoral officers are subsequently examined by the National Planning Office in a series of internal seminars at which the position of the planning office with respect to each project is determined, subject of course, to further examination at the succeeding planning stages. The next stage is a series of bilateral meetings with each federal ministry and its associated agencies to enable further reviews of the projects. Additional information is supplied where necessary and ambiguities clarified. By the end of such meetings each ministry would have known which of its projects were likely to be admitted having regard to relevance, scope, costs, phasing and other details of the projects. Similar series of meetings are also held with representatives of each of the state governments. By the end of these rounds of consultations, a clearer picture would have emerged as to the likely magnitude and composition of the investment component of the plan. The total picture is, of course, reconciled with the macro-economic projections to ensure consistency of goals and means because the aggregate demand for investment resources (especially

domestic savings and foreign exchange) must not exceed the projected level of investment funds for the purpose if serious economic instability is to be avoided in the pursuit of rapid economic growth. After the project details have been agreed upon, the drafting of the various chapters of the plan is commenced. This draft is again submitted to the various planning bodies such as the Joint Planning Board (it uses technical criteria to assess feasibility of all projects to ensure that these proposals are consistent with the national planning objectives explained in the guidelines), the Conference of Ministries/Commissioners for Economic Planning and National Economic Council where it is discussed in great deal and proposed amendments incorporated thereafter. The draft then moves to the President-in-Council for final approval after which it is published as a national document.

3.4 Rational Planning Framework (RPF)

The most popular planning framework is the Rational Planning Framework (RPF). There are six phases in the RPF. They are: 1) Establish objectives, 2) Establish planning premises, 3) Determine alternative courses of action, 4) Evaluate alternatives, 5) Select course of action and 6) Formulate derivative plan.

The RPF is an inappropriate framework for planning because it encourages people who do not understand problems to plan for a nation like a company and set non-achievable and beautiful objectives and day-dream in the name of planning. Nigeria has always been setting non-achievable objectives: education for all, housing for all and egalitarian society by year 2000; green revolution, operation feed the nation (OFN); transformation agenda; etc. Ogbimi and Adjebeng-Asem(1994,) developed the scientific planning framework(SPF).

The SPF has seven phases. They are: 1) Problem identification, 2) Problem analysis/perception, 3) Setting achievable objectives, 4) Plan implementation, 5) Plan monitoring and appraisal, 6) Plan review and 7) Plan termination. The SPF ensures that a problem is well analyzed and understood before setting achievable objectives. The SPF also ensures that a plan has implementation, monitoring/appraisal, review and termination phases.

In terms of planning theory, planning framework and assumptions, therefore, Nigeria has not been planning at all. African nations including Nigeria have been erecting infrastructure, practicing technology transfer, begging for foreign investments and pretending to have educational and training systems. Nigeria since 1986 has been implementing SAP and claiming to have adopted crude capitalism as economic philosophy. Federal and state governments in Nigeria have been borrowing heavily to

erect structures without build-up competences for solving problems for building or maintaining the structures.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: Identify three planning institutions in Nigeria.

Q2: Describe the role of the National planning office in Nigeria.



3.5 Summary

The planning process can be viewed as a sequence of preparation of a development plan. The core of a plan is a statement giving the allocation of investment between the centre and the states in a federal political system. In Nigeria the planning process is a tedious and time consuming exercise because of the federal character and political sensitivity of the various states.



3.6 References/Further Reading

Buchacet, I. O. (1970). Comparative Federalism: Territorial Dimension of Politics. New-York: Holt Rinechart and Winston.

Waterston, A. (1974). Development, Lessons of Experience. Baltimore, M.D.: Johns Hopkins University Press.



3.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: National Economic Council, National Planning Commission and Joint Planning Board.

Question Two: The National Planning Office (national Planning Commission) occupies a strategic position within the planning machinery and it is responsible for coordinating both the federal government economic programmes.

UNIT 4: The Planning Machinery in Nigeria

Unit Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Learning Outcome
- 4.3 The Planning Machinery
- 4.4 What is the state of Nigeria?
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 References/Further Reading
- 4.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



4.1 Introduction

This unit deals with the planning machinery in Nigeria with the three key planning institutions examined: National Planning Office, Joint Planning Board and the National Economic Council and the various roles they perform in the quest for development.



4.2 Learning Outcome

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

I Identify at least three planning institutions explain their functions.



4.3 The Planning Machinery

There are three of the main institutions which constitute the planning machinery in Nigeria even though there may be other smaller units of departments and agencies charged with these tasks as well. The major ones are the National Planning Office, Joint Planning Board and the National Economic Council. The National Planning Office (national Planning Commission) occupies a strategic position within the planning machinery and it is responsible for coordinating both the federal government economic programmes. It also serves as the secretariat of the Joint Planning Board, Conference of Ministers/Commissioners for Economic Planning, and the National Economic Council. The quality of the plan therefore depends in no small measure on the effectiveness of this office. The National Planning Office has its origin in the small Economic Planning Unit (EPU) created in the Federal Ministry of Economic Development during the preparation of the first national plan. It was in 1972 that the EPU was transformed into a Central

Planning Office with a staff of 52 professional officers, about 17 of who had at least a master's degree. By the end of 1980, the office had been re-named National Planning Office with a total staff strength of 78, about 45 of who had at least a master's degree. It was eventually transformed into the National Planning Commission. The Joint Planning Board (JPB) as an advisory body consisted of top officials from the federal and state Ministries of Planning, the Director of Research, Central Ministry of Finance and the Head of the Economic Development, Cabinet Office. Then the Permanent Secretary, Federal Ministry of National Planning, chaired the JPB. This body was a kind of clearing house for planning officials of the various governments with the following functions (a) to harmonize and coordinate the economic policies and development activities of the federal and states and their agencies; and (b) to examine in detail all aspects of economic planning and make recommendations. Such recommendation passed through the Conference of Ministers/Commissioners for Economic Planning to the National Economic Council. The fore-runner of the Joint Planning Board was Joint Planning Committee (JPC) which was set up in 1958 as an advisory body to the National Economic Council. The 1979 constitution created the National Economic Council (NEC) which occupies almost the apex of Nigeria's planning machinery. The council consists of the Vice-President as Chairman; the State Governors and the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria as members. The National Economic Council has powers to advise the President concerning the economic affairs of the federation, and in particular on measures necessary for the governments of the federation. It is thus quite similar in composition and functions to the NBC which operated during the First Republic except that while the NEC in the First Republic was chaired by the Prime Minister (the Head of Government) the NEC in the Second Republic was headed by the vice-President (the number-two man).

4.4 What is the state of Nigeria today?

Today, Nigeria may be described as a failing state. Unemployment, poverty, high crime wave problems have been worsening. Also there are no physical structures to show for the trillions-of -Naira budgets announced every year over the decades. Sadly, too, Nigeria is not only highly indebted but also has a very high propensity for accumulating local and foreign debts. Nigerian governments have only been wasting resources and imposing untold hardship on the ignorant and unsuspecting citizenry. The purpose of this article, therefore, is to explain why Nigeria's planning over the years has been fruitless. More importantly, the article is also written to explain how the missing growth elements can be introduced into Nigeria's planning process to promote competences-building growth.

What has been the development theory guiding Nigeria's planning? Okigbo (1989), analysed the Nigerian planning process 1900-1992 and noted that the theory that guided the Nigerian First National Plan (1962-68), was the Harrod (1939)-Domar (1946) Model – the HDM, and the model remains Nigeria's planning theory. This model states that the

growth in income achievable by a nation over a period is dependent on the rate of savings and the capital invested.

In other words, the more the capital invested, the higher would be the growth of income in a society. The HDM assumes that labour is not needed in the production process or that there is only one input in the production process and that is capital (Glahe, 1977). With HDM as a planning theory, there is only one planning variable – capital. In a society where capital is considered as the most important factor of production, planning is synonymous with efforts aimed at making capital available for spending (Galbraith, 1967).

The HDM, Rostow's stage growth theory and some others like them constitute the set of theories sociologists called the Modernization theories. The evolutionary, neo-evolutionary and modernization theories are mechanistic and a historical perception of the human development experience (Hoogvelt, 1976). These theories claim that Western Europe in the sixteenth century achieved the maximum level of development for human societies; Europeans achieved the modern industrialization, uniquely – other races of the world would not achieve the modern Industrial Revolution (IR). The theories then classified nations into two categories – simple (primitive) and complex (advanced). African and Latin-American nations were classified as primitive nations while Western nations were classified as advanced nations.

The evolutionists and modernists proposed that primitive people and places may be made modern by transferring resources especially capital and technology from the rich West to them. This is the origin of International Technology Transfer (ITT) in its various forms as the main development strategy for African and Latin-American nations. Nigeria has existed for about 56 years as a flag-independent nation with Western nations, the World Bank, the IMF, Nigerian economists, accountants, bankers and lawyers, and other social scientists that see the claim about capital and the assumptions of the evolutionists and modernists as axiomatic truths, urging Nigeria to throw money at every problem.

Youths have largely been unemployed or have been riding Asian motor cycles to earn money to buy food or selling imported articles everywhere. The Central Bank has been destroying the Naira and claiming to attract foreign investments, rationing the dollar earned from oil and gas explored and produced by foreigners among technology-transfer companies through the machinery of the mandatory foreign exchange market and moping excess liquidity at unnecessarily high cost to the people under the pretext of managing inflation.

History shows that nations build-up competences through learning; intensive learning: education and training, large employment and full employment policy, produces rapid

growth and development. But organized learning has always been lacking in the Nigerian development planning. To save Nigeria, the nation must adopt intensive learning: education, training, large life-long employment and full employment policy to promote competences-building growth and rapid industrialisation

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: Explain the functions of the National Planning Office or

Q2: Elaborate on the Joint Planning Board and the National Economic Council



4.4 Summary

The importance of planning machinery in a country like Nigeria cannot be overemphasized. However, in spite of its existence the achievements of the various plans have been mixed as it is not a clear case of successes as there is much to be desired. In line with that however, this unit discussed three key planning institutions: National Planning Commission, Joint Planning Board and the National Economic Council with their functions spelt out.



4.5 References/Further Reading

Lewis, W.A. (1960). Development Planning: The Essential of Economic Policy. London: George Allen and Unwin.

Amuchazi, E.C. (ed) (1980). Reading in Social Sciences.Chapters 12 and 13.



4.6 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: The National Planning Office serves as secretariat for National Economic Council. Question Two: It prepares development plans on behalf of the nation and it coordinates economic activities of the nation.

UNIT 5: National Development Plan of Some selected countries

Unit Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Outcome
- 5.3 The Planning Process
- 5.3 India National Development Plan
- 5.4 Ghana National Development Plan
- 5.5 UK National Action Plan
- 5.6 Summary
- 5.7 References/Further Reading
- 5.8 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise



5.1 Introduction

In development administration and planning, there are models that tends to stand out in certain aspects; in the light of that fact, the whole idea of development planning in India would be discussed as a prelude to the understanding of the Nigerian situation. In furtherance of that, this unit will introduce the planning process in India (a typical example of planning in a federal set-up). The various processes and institutions involved in planning for the country will be discussed.



5.2 Learning Outcome

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

1. Explain planning in India describe the role of government in the planning process.



5.3 India National Development Plan

This involves the setting of goals and targets which have to be pursued through the formulation of policies, articulation of appropriate projects and programmes of the mobilization of available resources for their effective realization. The essence of a plan is a statement giving the allocation of investment in various sectors of the private sector and also between the centre and the states in a federation. The allocation of investment among the sectors like agriculture and industry is guided by three considerations (1) goals

of development, (2) the long-term strategy of development and (3) inter-sectoral balance or consistency. Here you may simply note that the strategy indicates which particular sector should receive relatively more investment so that the economy develops faster. Inter-sectoral balance is required because output from one sector is used as input in some other sectors. For instance, coal output is required in steel production, or for that matter agricultural output (food grains, cotton, oil, seeds) is used as wage goods or input in industry. The planning process is naturally organized by the state. Plan formulation is done in India through the executive wing of the state, the central government technical body like the planning commission. The draft five-year plan, thus prepared, is presented to the national development council (NDC) for its approval. After it has been approved by the NDC it is presented to parliament, the legislative organ of the state. When finally approved by the parliament it becomes the national development plan, ready for implementation. Plan implementation is the responsibility of the bureaucracy, another organ of the state. Appraisal of the plan performance is done by the planning commission. The mid-term appraisal, as it is called, is done after the plan has been implemented over half its period. This is necessary because the work on the next plan formulation starts at this time. The final appraisal is done at the end of the plan period and is included, by way of review of development, in the next plan document. The state's role in a mixed economy is not limited to the planning process described above. Development plan requires to be supported by a number of appropriate policies and institutional reforms. There are too many to be enumerated here. An example of supporting policies for the plan is monetary and fiscal policies. The state designs and executes such monetary and fiscal measures as would help mobilize private savings and channel them into investment according to plan priorities. Similarly, ceilings on land holdings and land redistribution are examples of institutional reforms that support the plan goal of agricultural growth with equity. Lastly, one must not forget that in a mixed economy of planned development, market-mechanism plays an important role in guiding the production and investment decisions in the private sector. Particularly, the plan itself creates conditions for markets to emerge and develop by building up infrastructural facilities like transport, communication, power, etc. at the same time it tries to overcome the failures of the market-mechanism noted earlier. The resultant outcome of development is therefore, determined both by the plan and the market in a mixed economy.

Self-Assessment Exercises

Q1: Explain the process of planning?

Q2: In one sentence how will you explain the planning process to a layman using India's experience?

5.4 Ghana National Development Plan

The Co-ordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies 2010–2016 underpins the preparation of development plans and annual budgets at the sector and district levels throughout the country.

Policy

The long-term objective of the Co-ordinated Programme is the creation of a just, free and prosperous society in which:

1. extreme forms of deprivation, such as hunger, homelessness and poverty, are eliminated
2. economic growth is environmentally sensitive and public policy will ensure that it is equitable across sectors, administrative regions and socio-economic groups
3. the economy is driven by industrial production with full participation of Ghanaians in a stable macroeconomic environment
4. health care is available and affordable, and education prepares people for purposeful life
5. science, technology and innovation underpin development
6. all citizens participate in and share equitably the benefits of development.

Governance

Major institutions established to deal with abuses of public office include the Economic and Organised Crimes Office (Act 804 of 2010); the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (Act 456 of 1993); the Internal Audit Agency (Act 658 of 2003); the Public Procurement Authority (Act 663 of 2003); and Public Account Committee of Parliament.

The National Development Planning Commission advises the president on national development policies and strategies. It is the central co-ordinating agency of the nation's decentralised planning system. It provides a national policy framework and is responsible for preparing development policies and plans, and for monitoring and evaluating their implementation.

5.5 UK National Action Plan

The UK remains committed to the principles of openness and [transparency](#) of government. This fourth National [Action Plan](#) for Open Government continues our push to increase accountability and visibility of public institutions and services.

The pace of technological innovation in recent years has given rise to a number of high profile cases that serve to underline the importance of the open government movement, and once again reinforce the need for government to strive to be as open and accountable as possible.

The National Action Plan is set against the backdrop of innovative technology being harnessed to erode public trust in state institutions, subverting and undermining democracy, and enabling the irresponsible use of personal information.

But where technology can be misused, there are also positive new opportunities to use technology to elevate the voice of citizens, forging new connections between individuals and the state. As government we must show the way forward, demonstrating how the use of technology in ethical ways can also be a force for good, empowering citizens to scrutinise the work of those they elect, and have a meaningful say in the development and delivery of public policy.

The [Open Government Partnership](#) allows us to demonstrate how technology can be used in a positive way, committing alongside other nations to provide new means for people to influence decisions being made on their behalf, create new forms of accountability for public institutions, and shine a light on corruption and fraud.

We are proud to be a founding member of this movement, and to demonstrate our dedication to the cause by once again signalling our intent through the publication of the fourth National Action Plan.

The National Action Plan has many ambitious commitments:

Opening up policy making to citizens

Transparency around publicly owned [natural resources](#)

Improvements to the quality and quantity of data we publish as a government to show accountability and drive improvements in the way we deliver public services through third party contractors

I would like to commend the collaboration between government and Civil Society in developing the proposals, the efforts of organisations to continuously push their government counterparts to be ever more ambitious, highlighting the areas that will have the most impact from a citizen perspective and helping to work through the details. The creation of the Action Plan would be a limited and fruitless exercise without the critical friendship of Civil Society organisations throughout its development.

Now that this National Action plan has been developed, we are eager to get on with its delivery, working with our partners in Civil Society to transform the relationship between citizen and state. We want to continue harnessing innovative technologies and approaches to give individuals ever greater agency in the decisions made on their behalf. The commitments of this plan continue the tradition of placing transparency and accountability at the heart of public policy making and service delivery, propelling the UK to be a fairer society, and its people to be ever more empowered.

The UK has a strong track record in [open data](#). Since co-founding the Open Government Partnership (OGP) in 2011, the UK has led by example – increasing [citizen participation](#) in policy and decision making, adopting international open standards for publication, and making an ever greater number of datasets available to the public.

This unprecedented level of openness has created many benefits, from making government more accountable and transparent to improving the effectiveness of public services. It has also created the potential for new businesses to thrive. Through making our data available to the public, we have been able to fuel innovations that make life better and easier.

The fourth National Action Plan (NAP) builds on this momentum by making commitments to increase [public participation](#) in government and helping to deliver solutions that are truly transformative. It also acknowledges the need for the public sector to innovate, develop policies that meet the demands of a fast paced world, scale with the demands of public service users, and that can be tested and iterated as they are delivered.

The NAP recognises the need to deepen previous commitments and improve the quality of the data that has been released. The plan shines a light upon the full process of government procurement and spending and promotes transparency about who the government is doing business with.

The plan seeks to address the corruption and fiscal mismanagement in the international natural resources sector. Countries have achieved strong progress over the past 15 years through voluntary reporting and mandatory rules now in force in the UK, the EU, Canada and Norway. The plan commits to going further by enhancing company disclosure regarding payments to governments for the sale of publicly owned oil, gas and minerals, and to establish and implement a common global reporting standard.

At a time when citizens' trust is being eroded by the influence of social media, it is important to allow for engagement and influence on a local and national basis at times outside of the general election cycle. The NAP looks to pursue new ways to involve citizens in decision-making, through participatory democracy and the piloting of Area Democracy

Forums to empower individuals, complementing face-to-face participation with digital platforms to increase engagement and transparency.

We are moving in a new age where technology, such as artificial intelligence, is making all organisations more data-driven. As the UK moves rapidly towards a data-driven economy, we have a real opportunity to harness the potential of open data further. As such the fourth UK National Action Plan is a critical milestone in realising those benefits in government and the economy as a whole.



5.6 Summary

The unit discussed the national development plan of some selected countries. The planning process in India is usually organized by the state using its agencies. The state is particularly assisted in plan formulation by the planning commission and when the plan is approved by the parliament it becomes a national development plan, ready for implementation. The implementation is usually appraised at least two times before the plan ends.



5.7 References/Further Reading

Buchacet, I. O. (1970). Comparative Federalism: Territorial Dimension of Politics. New-York: Holt Rinechart and Winston. Waterston, A. (1974). Development, Lessons of Experience. Baltimore, M.D.: Johns Hopkins University Press.



5.8 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Question One: Planning has become popular in the developing countries because it is seen as the best approach for transforming their economies and for narrowing the gap between them and the advanced countries.

Question Two: The planning process involves the setting of goals and targets which have to be pursued through the formulation of policies, articulation of appropriate projects and programmes and the mobilization of available resources for their effective realization.