NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COURSE CODE: AEM 504

COURSE TITLE: RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

**COURSE
GUIDE**

**AEM504
RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

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Introduction

Rural Community Development (AEM504) is a fifth year, 2-credit unit course available to all students offering the Bachelor of Science in Agriculture or Bachelor of Science in Sociology. It could also be taken by other students who wish to know about rural community development techniques.

Rural Community Development is formal instruction in the science and art of rural community development, underlying theories for rural development in organised institution of learning. It is aimed at providing practical solution to rural development problems and explaining social behavioural basis in rural communities. This is an essential aspect of educational provision as it will provide students who are products of rural areas or communities, useful explanations to social interaction which is a major determinant of rural development.

Rural Community Development essentially explains the concept, process and what constitutes development in rural content. The course highlights the underlying theories of rural development, contemporary examples of rural community development approaches in other developing countries around the world. Attempt is also made to venture into the explanation of the future of rural development in Nigeria.

What You Will Learn in This Course

This course consists of 3 modules which are subdivided into 14 units. This course guide tells you briefly what the course is all about and what course materials you will be using. It also suggests some general guidelines for the amount of time you are likely to spend on each unit of the course in order to complete it successfully.

It gives guidance with respect to your Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) which will be made available in the assignment file. These will be regular tutorial classes that are related to the course. It is advisable for you to attend these tutorial sessions. The course will prepare you for the challenges you will meet in the field of rural community development.

Course Aims

The aim of the course is to expose you to the knowledge of community development as it relates to rural societies. It also exposes you to contemporary rural community development techniques in Nigeria and other developing countries.

Course Objectives

In order to achieve the aims set out, the course has a set of objectives. Each unit has specific objectives which are usually included at the beginning of a unit. You should read these objectives before you study the unit. You may wish to refer to them during your study of the unit to check on your progress. You should also look at the unit objectives after completing a unit. By doing so you would be able to locate your bearing and level of attainment of the objectives of the unit.

Below are the comprehensive objectives of the course as a whole. By meeting these objectives, you should be able to:

- define the concept of rural community development
- state the sociological and economic policy perspectives to development
- trace the underlying theories of rural development
- explain the community as a unit of social change
- define the macro and micro approaches to social change
- expatiate the dimension of innovation
- compare community development and other developments
- state the model of rural development and their relevance to the Nigerian rural development question
- highlight the problems of constitution and infrastructures in rural communities
- compare case studies of community development in Nigeria and other developing nation
- state the functions of rural communities in Nigeria.

Working through the Course

To complete this course, you are required to read each study unit of this study material and other materials which may be provided by the National Open University of Nigeria. At the end of the course, there is a final examination. The course should take you about 17 weeks to complete. Below, you will find listed, all the components of the course, what you have to do and how you should allocate your time to each unit in order to complete the course on time successfully.

I advise that you avail yourself the opportunity of attending the tutorial session where you have the opportunity of comparing knowledge with your peers.

The Course Materials

The main components of the course are:

- The Course Guide
- Study Units
- References
- Assignments
- Presentation Schedule

Study Units

The course is divided into 3 modules that are made up of 14 units. The study units in this course are as follows:

Module 1

Unit 1   Rural Development Concept
Unit 2   Sociological Perspective of Development
Unit 3   Economic Perspective of Development
Unit 4   Theories of Community Development
Unit 5   Community Development and other Developments

Module 2

Unit 1   Micro-Approaches to Social Change
Unit 2   Micro-Approaches to Social Change
Unit 3   Rural Community as a Unit of Social Change
Unit 4   Dimension of Innovations
Unit 5   Models of Rural/Agricultural Development and Their Relevance to Nigerian Situations

Module 3

Unit 1   Problems of Institutions and Infrastructural Community
Unit 2   Case Studies of Community Development in Nigeria
Unit 3   Case Studies of Community Development in Other Developing Countries
Unit 4   The Future of Rural Communities in Nigeria

In the first module, unit 1 focuses on the objectives of rural community development. This explains the rationale and the importance of rural community development. Units 2 and 3 deal with the sociological and economic policy perspectives of rural community development. These

units address basically the sociological and economic views of rural development agents and how best to explain the development process as and its relationship with development agents. Unit 4 x-rays the various development theories necessary to help in the understanding of this course and rural community development processes generally. Unit 5 goes further to identify community as a unit of change.

In module 2, units 1 and 2 identify some micro and macro approaches to social change. These seek to make the students understand the difference between micro and macro approaches to social change. Units 3 traces the rural community as a unit of social change; unit 4 addresses the dimensions of innovation - it attempts to make the student understand the essence of innovations and the extent as well teaching students the practice of community development. Unit 5 explains the other types of development that are available and as they differ from community development as well as their similarities.

In the last module, unit 1 discusses the models of rural/agricultural community development as they relate to Nigerian rural communities as the problems of institutional or infrastructural development. Units 2 and 3 provide examples of rural development in Nigeria and other developing nations. Finally, unit 4 ventures into the explanation of the future of rural communities in Nigeria.

Each unit consists of one to two weeks work and includes an Introduction, Objectives, Materials, Exercises, Conclusion, Summary, Tutor-Marked Assignments and References. The unit limits you to work on exercises related to the required reading. Together with the TMAs, these exercises will help you in achieving the stated learning objectives of the individual units and of the course.

Presentation Schedule

Your course materials give you important dates for the early and timely completion and submission of your TMAs and attending tutorials. You should remember that you are required to submit all your assignments by the stipulated time and date. You should guard against lagging behind in your work.

Assignment File

In your assignment file, you will find all the details of the works you must submit to your tutor for marking. The marks you obtain for these assignments will count towards the final mark you obtain for this course. Further information on assignments will be found in the Assignment File itself, and later in this Course Guide in the section on assessment.

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There are many assignments for this course, with each unit having at least one assignment. These assignments are basically meant to assist you to understand the course.

Assessment

There are three aspects to the assessment of the course. First, is the self-assessment exercises, second are the tutor-marked assignments and third is the written examination/end of course examination.

You are advised to be sincere in attending the exercise. In tackling the assignments, you are expected to apply information, knowledge and techniques gathered during the course. The assignments must be submitted to your tutor/facilitator for formal assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated in the presentation schedule and the assignment file. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total course work. At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final or end of course examination of about three hours duration. This examination will count for 70% of your total course mark.

Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA)

The TMA is a continuous assessment component of your course. It accounts for 30% of the total score. You are required to submit at least 4 TMAs before you are allowed to sit for the end of course examination. The TMAs would be given to you by your facilitator and returned after you have completed them.

Assignment questions for the units in this course are contained in the assignment file. You will be able to complete your assignment from the information and materials contained in your reading your study units and, references. However, it is desirable to demonstrate that you have read and researched more into other references which will give you a wider view point and may provide a deeper understanding of the subject.

Make sure that each assignment reaches your facilitator on or before the deadline given in the presentation schedule and assignment file. If for any reason you cannot complete your work on time, contact your facilitator before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extension will not be granted after the due date.

Final Examination and Grading

The end of course examination for agricultural science education will be about 3-hours and has a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions, which will reflect the type of self-

testing, practice exercise and tutor-marked assignment problems you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed.

Utilise the time you have between finishing the last unit and sitting for the examination to revise the whole course. You might find it useful to review your self-assessment exercises, TMAs and comments on them before the examination. The end of course examination covers information from all parts of the course.

Course Marking Scheme

Assessment	Marks
Assignment 1 – 4	Four assignments, best three marks of the four account at 10% each = 30% of course marks
End of course examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course materials.

How to Get the Most from This Course

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to the lecturer. In the same way a lecturer might give you some reading to do, the study units tell you when to read, and which are your text materials or recommended books. You are provided exercises, to do at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise.

Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next to this is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do, by the time you have completed the unit. These learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course.

The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your references or from a reading section.

The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, telephone your tutor or visit the study centre nearest to you. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need assistance, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it. Read this Course Guide thoroughly, it is your first assignment.

Organise a study schedule and design a 'course overview' to guide you through the course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information, e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the semester is available at the study centre. You need to gather all the information into one place, such as your diary or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates and schedule of work for each unit.

Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please, let your tutor know before it is too late for help.

Turn to unit 1 and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.

Assemble the study materials. You will need your references and the unit you are studying at any point in time.

As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information.

Visit your study centre whenever you need up to date information.

Well before the relevant due dates (about 4 weeks before due dates), visit your study centre for your next required assignment. Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignment carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the examination. Submit all assignments not later than the due date.

Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to space your study so that you can keep yourself on schedule.

When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your

schedule. When the Assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the Tutor-Marked Assignment form and also the written comments on the ordinary assignments.

After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in the Course Guide).

Facilitaors/Tutor and Tutorials

There are 14 hours of tutorial provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of these tutorials as well as the names and phone number of your facilitator, as soon as you are located a tutorial group.

Your tutor or facilitator will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress on any difficulties you might encounter and provide assistance to you during the course. You mail your tutor-marked assignment to your tutor before the schedule date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your facilitator by telephone, e-mail and discuss problems if you need assistance.

The following might be circumstances in which you would find help necessary. Contact your facilitator if:

- you do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings
- you have difficulty with the self-test or exercises
- you have a question or problem with an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face to face contact with your course facilitator and to ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain much benefit from course tutorials prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating in active discussion.

Summary

Agricultural education is a course that intends to provide you with the concept and instructional methods. Upon completing this course, you will be equipped with the basic knowledge of the nature, scope, tasks of the teacher, principles and concepts of: teaching practice, instructional materials, teaching methods and techniques. Thus, you will be able to plan programmes in agriculture and manage them. In addition, you will be able to answer the following type of questions:

- What does agricultural education mean?
- What are the responsibilities of agricultural science teacher?
- Give examples of the expectations of agricultural teacher in the community.
- Discuss the importance of teaching practice.
- Of what significance are instructional aids in teaching?
- Identify the various teaching methods commonly used in agricultural science.
- Discuss the importance of programme planning in agriculture.
- How do you manage school farm?
- Discuss the concept of evaluation and its types in agricultural education programmes.

Of course, the list of questions that you can answer is not limited to the foregoing lists.

We wish you success in the course and hope that you will find it interesting and useful.

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MODULE 1

UNIT 1   RURAL DEVELOPMENT CONCEPT

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Rural communities are very important component of every nation, Nigeria inclusive. This is especially so because about 70 percent of food, raw materials and human beings reside in the rural areas or communities. According to Ekong (1988), *a rural community is an aggregation of families, within the same geographical confine, having similar cultural beliefs and influence one another socio-culturally.* The federal government of Nigeria understood the importance of these communities; as a result, several development programmes to uplift these rural communities were set up by successive administrations. These programmes include Directorate for Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), Better Life for Rural Women (BLRW), Family Support Programme (FSP), etc.

The ever increasing rural-urban migration has placed a premium on the needs for rural community development. The uplifting of rural communities will reduce the pressure on social infrastructure in the urban centres, generate employment for youths, and make raw materials available for local industries and even for export. In order to achieve these results and more, concerted efforts must be made towards developing the rural communities by all stakeholders. However, not

everyone understands the dynamics of the rural society as most of the programmes have not achieved their desired objectives. This course has been defined to open you up to the dynamics of rural development processes.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- state the workings of rural social system
- define the concept "rural communities"
- list the problems militating against rural development efforts
- state the rationale for rural development.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Concept of Rural Community Development

In theory, the concept of development is a normative term which implies growth and change. So its definition depends on the individual backgrounds. Essentially, community development is a continuous process of generating and efficiently allocating scarce resources for achieving socially satisfying needs of community members. It is made up of points which are inter-related.

In any country, the problem of community development comes under:

- increasing the availability of all potential resources existing in the country
- improving the utilisation of the resources.

Rural community development is a comprehensive programme made up of social and economic transformation which involves all segments of the population. It also involves the integration of rural people in the programme because they form the largest contingent of the population and majority of the rural poor in many developing countries. Therefore, if rural development is to be meaningful, the precondition must be an acceptance of the restructuring of socio-economies of the rural areas in favour of rural development.

Rural development is equated with changes in social, economic and structural institution relationships and processes. It is not just economic growth, but fair sharing of the socio-economic benefits resulting from the growth. So, this view assumed increased production, increased job opportunities, rooting out fundamental causes of poverty, disease and ignorance, generation of new employment, equitable distribution of

income between rural and urban areas, widespread improvement in health, nutrition, housing, creation of incentives and better prices, sharing in decision activities and fundamental education which should involve men, women and children.

Conclusively, rural development can be said to be a process by which series of changes take place within a given rural population with the aim of improving the living condition of the population of the rural community. It is a set of policies with two main goals:

- encourage production and the wellbeing of the rural majority
- ensure adequate production that will enable the uplifting of the development of rural areas.

3.2   Rationale for Rural Community Development

The development of the rural communities in Nigeria is cardinal for, but certainly not limited to, the following reasons:

- no country is completely urbanised
- they form the most important sector of the economy. This is because, they supply the entire country with its food needs, raw materials for industries, employment generation and foreign exchange earnings
- urban population are serviced by the rural population as they replenish urban population
- lack of development activities characterising the rural areas has led to sharp development difference existing between the urban and rural areas and has contributed to youth exodus from rural to urban centres. Rural development can reduce this exodus
- lack of development of secondary and tertiary infrastructures entails concentration of manpower in the urban centres. In order to   reverse this trend, rural community infrastructural development becomes an imperative
- there is humanitarian reason why policy makers should give attention to the rural areas. This is because, the human beings in the rural settings deserve the good things of life, having contributed so much to the entire system
- economic development is a process which requires the growth and modernisation of both the rural and urban sectors.

3.3 Problems of Rural Community Development

Development in the rural community sector has been bedeviled with some problems which include:

- Agriculture and agrarian reforms, peasantry fragmentation, low per capita income, non access to credit as a result of high collateral requirements, storage and marketing problems and inefficient extension services.
- Health and Nutrition: Most of the rural areas are characterised by inadequate health services and sanitation facilities which has led to communicable diseases compounded by under-nourishment and resultant diseases.
- Rural Manpower Development: The educational curriculum for rural development is unsuitable for job opportunities in rural areas.
- Lack of Institution: Lack of social institutions impedes development in the areas. These institutions include: hospitals, financial institutions, education programmes that target the educational needs of the rural people.
- Uncontrolled Population Growth: This problem, although is not limited to the rural setting alone, the dimension in the rural setting is alarming especially that the rural people lack the power to maintain this type of growth. The little effort at development is frustrated by the provision from this ever increasing population.
- Negative Perception of the People: The rural people think of themselves first as rural before they imagine themselves as human beings. Therefore, they do not make serious efforts at pushing for development while they felt development was meant for some more important people than themselves.
- Exclusive Corruption: Corruption has eaten to the fabric of the Nigeria people. This has sabotaged development efforts in the rural areas.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have attempted to learn about the concept of rural community development, its rationale and the various problems that militate against its realisation. You can now appreciate that the concept of rural development is clearly understood and you are also already to join the vanguard for rural development.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt:

- the meaning of the basic concept of rural community development
- that the importance of rural community development is a pre-requisite to national development
- that the militating factors of rural development are fundamentally human.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What are some of the intervention programmes to check rural-urban exodus?
2.   Outline the objectives of rural community development.
3.   What is the essence of rural development?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E.C. (1995). *Rural Sociology: An Introduction and Analysis of Rural Nigeria.* Lagos: Jamak Publishers.

UNIT 2   SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF DEVELOPMENT

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1.0   Introduction
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         3.1   Sociological Policy Perspective
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         3.3   Sen Amartya's View of Development
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   Reference/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The concept of development has been described as having a normative meaning. That perception of this concept depends on the individual, his environment and general background. It is regarded as the continuous process of generating and efficiently allocating resources for achieving socially satisfying needs. The Whiter dictionary conceptualises development as *a move from the original position to one providing more opportunity for effective use of resources to expand through the process of growth.*

The understanding of the concept of development is important to every category of people and every sector of the economy, be it urban or rural economy. Recently, rural development has attracted significant attention of world organisations, probably because of the role it plays in human development. Although there are arrays of views of what rural development is or what it should be, only two perspectives have been discussed here – sociological and economic.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the differences between development, growth and westernisation
- state the factors responsible for westernisation
- state Sen Amartya's view of development.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Sociological Policy Perspective

Rural development has been defined as a far reaching transformation in the structure and function of the rural community. Rural development should be viewed from the point of social indicators.

Sociologically, a society is said to be developed if the following social indicators are available in an appreciable proportion:

(a)   **The Level of Urbanisation of the Society:** This indicates that certain social infrastructures are available; it will also mean that such a society should have scaled up in terms of population and social relations. The more urbanised a community, the greater the development level.

(b)   **The Level of Literacy:** A developed society accounts for high number of its population that has access to formal education. This is because, a developed society is characterised with certain tasks that require some skills, and hence, its members must be literate. The higher the literacy level, the higher the development.

(c)   **Mass Media Participation:** A major feature of a rural backward setting is use of folk media for communicating with members of the community. In this case, it is socially difficult to reach out to a large number of people using this type of communication means. A developed society therefore must allow its members' mass media participation.

(d)   **Political Participation:** Governance in the rural area is basically autocratic; inputs from members that are not in the ruling class with respect to any political decision is not encouraged. But a development-minded society should allow for every member's input politically; it should actually be democratic. The more democratic, the more developed.

(e)   **Opportunity for Recreation and Leisure:** Recreation in the rural setting is a luxury that cannot be afforded at all times; hence such is reserved exclusively for certain festive periods. For an individual to develop healthily, he must recreate. So the higher the opportunity for recreation and leisure, the higher the level of development.

There is a conventional concern of the founding fathers of sociology for human progress – development. Social problems existed from time immemorial and sociologists have been saddled with the responsibility of explaining and interpreting conditions for such social relations and its products. Their major concern is an endless search for better societies. Better societies, however, is a matter of time, place and orientation.

There is always a human crave for a society without crime and corruption; a people without social problem of hunger, disease, ignorance, unemployment, inadequate housing and insecurity.

The urge to change the scenario for the better gave birth to the study of development and the problems of development. Secondly, there is a global/societal response to cultural diffusion and cultural contact. The contact of different cultures and civilisation has created new problems for emerging societies. The diffusion of new cases of inter-dependence is one of the domains of sociology and development. There is the dominance and control of the economy, political fortunes by powerful nations, corporations mainly owned by developed nations and the growing values of attitudinal shifts and departure from traditional values and patterns.

One obvious fact however, which all students of sociology of development have agreed on is the fact that any kind of development (economic, social, political or cultural) entails major changes in the status quo. For development therefore, change is a *sine qua non.* However, the extent of the nature of change is often a topic of controversy. This is why there is a considerable confusion in development and its relationship to other concepts which connotes significant changes in the society.

In theory, the concept of development is a normative term which implies growth and change. There are arrays of explanation of the concept of development. However, Dudley Seer's view is adopted here to explain development concept. He said that development consists of increase in output in all sectors of the economy and distribution of the output in such a way as to enhance the quality of life of the broad masses of the population.

He noted that these three questions must be answered if any social system must understand the concept of development.

- What is happening to poverty?
- What is happening to unemployment?
- What is happening to inequality?

If all these three have declined from high levels, beyond doubt, there has been development in the country concerned. But if one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, then development has not taken place. This is in spite of an increment in per capita income.

Development has been conceived as multi-dimensional, referring to positive changes which affect the majority and which lie in the social,

economic, political and cultural spheres of societal life. Development entails social progress in both economic and non-economic components of societal life.

3.2   Modernisation, Westernisation, Growth and Development

These related concepts are often confused and tend to be used synonymously. Thus people use the term of development either with modernisation or westernisation or even with growth. Development is, however, different from either of these concepts.

The term modernisation has been used by Ian Weinberg to refer to "the experience of social change by new nations that have recently emerged from the yoke of colonisation" - if this conception of modernisation is valid, then it implies that there were no processes of modernisation before the advent and termination of colonialism.

Charles Tilly views modernisation as all encompassing process which involves the creation of industrial labour force, urbanisation, widespread political education of the people, widespread political participation and other interdependence transformation of the society.

It is relevant to indicate also that development is not the same as growth. A society's population may increase to astronomical figures even though quality of life of each member of that society is very low. Or even a majority will be living a precarious existence below the poverty line. On the other hand, a nation with a relatively small population may still find it possible to provide adequately for the basic needs of all members of the society. Even at such a lower level of analysis, a community may experience a rapid growth of its housing units even though much attention may not have been placed on tenants. In each case, growth has not proceeded simultaneously with development.

Criticism

1.   The meanings in the identified development indicators vary with country/community. It is like democracy. For instance, the Yorubas are one of the most urbanised but not equally developed.
2.   Mass media is usually controlled by government; consequently, it may be restricted in participation.
3.   Whether highly developed or not, rigging has continued to be part of all political systems.

So those social indices are rather too theoretical to be used as a basis for defining development.

In strictly economic terms, development has traditionally meant the capacity of a national economy, whose initial economic condition has been more or less static for a long time, to generate and sustain an annual increase in gross national product (GNP) at rates of perhaps 5% to 7% or more. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) may also be used. A common alternative economic index of development has been the use of rates of growth of income per capita or per capita GNP to take into account the ability of a nation to expand its output at a rate faster than the growth rate of its population. Levels and rates of growth of "real" per capita GNP are normally used to measure the overall economic well-being of a population – how much of real goods and services is available to the average citizen for consumption and investment.

Economic development in this part has also been typically seen in terms of the planned alteration of the structure of production and employment so that agriculture's share of both decline; and that of manufacturing and service industries increases. Development strategies have therefore usually focused on rapid industrialisation from growth.

A number of developing countries experienced relatively high rates of growth per capita income during the 1960s and 1970s but showed little or no improvement or even an actual decline in employment, equality and the real incomes of the bottom 40% of their populations. By the earlier growth definition, these countries were developing; by the poverty, equality of life and employment criteria, they were not. The situation in 1980s and 1990s worsened further as GNP growth rates turned negative for many Least Developed Countries (LDCs) and governments, facing foreign debts problems, were forced to cut back on their already limited social and economic programmes.

The phenomenon of development or the existence of a chronic state of an under-development is not merely a question of economics or even one of quantitative measurement of incomes, employment, and inequality. Underdevelopment is a real fact of life for more than 3 billion people in the world.

Development, in essence, must represent the whole agent of change by which an entire social system, tuned to the diverse basic needs and desires of individuals and social groups within that system, moves away from a condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory toward a situation or condition of life regarded as materially and spiritually better.

3.3 Sen Amartya's View of Development

Sen Amartya is perhaps the leading thinker on the meaning of development. Sen Amartya posits that the principal economic measures of development have often been supplemented by casual reference to non-economic social indicators: gains in literacy, sociology, health, conditions and services, and provision of housing for instance.

On the whole, therefore, prior to the 1970s at least, development was nearly always seen as an economic phenomenon in which rapid gains in overall and per capita GNP growth would either trickle down to the masses in the form of job and other economic opportunities or create the necessary conditions for the wider distribution of the economic and social benefits of growth. Problems of poverty, discrimination, unemployment, and income distribution were of secondary importance to getting the growth job done.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have understood the various sociological views of the concept of development relative to the closely related concepts such as growth, westernisation and modernisation.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Development, modernisation, westernisation and growth are different.
- Each of these sociological perspectives has its shortcomings.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are the sociological perspectives of development?
2. Distinguish between growth and development.
3. Explain the Sen Amartya's view of the concept of development.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harelanhos, M; Holbon, M. & Heald, R. M. (2004). *Sociology: Themes and Perspectives.* New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

UNIT 3   ECONOMIC PERSPECTIVE OF DEVELOPMENT

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

In order for development to be effective, there are usually several policy statements that are made. This is to be able to take a holistic look at the scope of development from all sectors point of view. The economic policy perspective is one of such points of views. A good understanding of the economic view will set the stage for what should be done per time, in terms of which sector should first receive developmental attention. In other words, it will help in the prioritisation of projects that can develop the rural settings.

In most cases, development decisions were made on political ground and consequently irrational. This results in abandonment of projects. This is because most of the project objectives did not meet the felt needs of the members of such communities. An economic appraisal using basic economic indices to determine what constitutes development will be helpful. This unit is set out to do exactly that.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   define economic development indices so that you can tell whether a particular system is undergoing development or not
•   identify the core values of development
•   state the basic development objectives.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Economic Policy Perspective of Development

The experience of the 1950s and 1960s, when many developing nations did realise their economic growth targets (but the trends of living of the masses/people remained for the most part unchanged,) signaled that something was very wrong with this narrow definition of development. An increasing number of economists and policy makers clamoured for dethronement of GNP and elevation of direct attacks on widespread absolute poverty, increasing equitable income distribution and rising unemployment. In short, during the 1970s, economic development came to be redefined in terms of reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment within the context of a growing economy. Redistribution from growth becomes a common slogan. As a laureate in economics, Sen Amartya contends that the "capability to function" is what really matters for status as poor or non-poor person. According to him, economic growth cannot be sensibly treated as an end in itself. Development has to be more concerned with enhancing the lives we lead and the freedom we enjoy.

In effect, Sen argues that poverty cannot be properly measured by income or even by utility as conventionally understood. What matters is not the things a person has – or the feelings these provide – but what a person is, or can be and does or can do. What matters for well-being is not just the characteristics of commodity consumed, as the utility approach, but what use the consumer can and does make of commodities. For example a book is of little value to an illiterate person. A person with parasitic diseases will be less able to extract nourishment from a given quantity of food than will someone without parasites. Sen's approach is valid for more developed countries as well. For instance, most of the things one could do with the personal computer one buys are never understood or even known, let alone over used by anyone other than specialist.

The point is that to make any sense of the concept of human well-being in general, and poverty in particular, we need to think beyond the availability of commodities and consider their uses to address what Sen calls functioning that is what a person does with commodities of given characteristics that they come to possess or control. Freedom of choice, or control of one's own life, is itself a control aspect of most understandings of well-being where under-development exists. A basic function of any economic activity, therefore, is to provide as many people as possible with the means of overcoming the helplessness and misery arising from a lack of food, shelter, health and protection.

To this extent, we may claim that economic development is a necessary condition for the improvement in the quality of life. Without sustained and continuous economic progress at the individual as well as the societal level, the realisation of the human potential would not be possible. Rising per capita incomes, the elimination of absolute poverty, greater employment opportunities, and reducing income inequalities therefore constitute the necessary but not the sufficient conditions to development.

3.1.1 Self-Esteem

A second universal component of the good life is self-esteem – a sense of worth and self-respect, of not being used as a tool by others for their own ends. All peoples and societies seek some basic form of self-esteem, although they may call it authenticity, identity, dignity, respect, honour, or recognition. The nature and form of this self-esteem may vary from society to society and from culture to culture. However, with the proliferation of the modernising values of developed nations, many societies in developing countries that have had a profound sense of their own worth suffer from serious cultural confusion when they come in contact with economically and technologically advanced societies. This is because national prosperity has become an almost universal measure of worth. Due to the significance attached to material values in developed nations, worthiness and esteem are nowadays increasingly conferred only on countries that possess economic wealth and technological power.

The main point is that underdevelopment is the lot of the majority of the world's population. As long as esteem was dispensed on grounds other than national achievement, it was possible to resign oneself to poverty without feeling disdained. Conversely, once the prevailing image of the better life includes material welfare as one of the essential ingredients, it becomes difficult for the materially under-developed to feel respected and esteemed.

3.1.2 Freedom

A third and final universal value that was suggested should constitute the meaning of development is the concept of human freedom. Freedom here is to be understood in the sense of emancipation from alienation, material conditions of life and from social servitude to nature, ignorance, other people, misery, institution and dogmatic beliefs especially that one's poverty is one's predestination. Freedom involves an expanded range of choices for societies and their members, together with a minimisation of natural constraints in the pursuit of some societal goals. The relationship between economic growth and freedom is that

wealth increases the range of one's choice. Wealth can enable people to gain greater control over nature and the physical environment than they would have if they would have remained poor. It also gives them the freedom to greater leisure, to have more goals and services or to deny the importance of these material wants and choose to live a life of spiritual contemplation. The concept of human freedom includes but is not limited to personal security, the rule of law, freedom of expression, political participation, and equality of opportunity.

3.2   Objectives of Development

Development may be described both as physical reality and a state of mind in which society has through some combination of social, economic, and institutional processes secured the means for obtaining a better life. Irrespective of the specific components of this better life, development in all societies must have at least the following features:

- to increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health, and protection.
- to raise levels of living standards, including, in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.
- to expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation – states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery.

Criticisms

(a)   GND/GDP's adequate data may not be available for proper appraisal of the country's performance within a given period.
(b)   GNP tends to compare only goods from countries; it does not take into cognisance family production.
(c)   Income per capita: Newly given means of income are recorded and hence do not represent the income level of all the individuals in the country. Consequently, it is possible to have development without growth. This makes economic views non-realistic.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you learnt the major criteria that economists use in defining development in addition to the core values that make development a possibility.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- The economic indicators for development include GNP, income per capita and GDP.
- Development has three core values (self esteem, freedom and sustenance).

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is GNP?
2.   What is the disadvantage of Income Per Capita?
3.   Explain the core-values of development.

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Akello, G. (1999). "Policy Strategies promote Income Generating Activities for Rural Women: The case of Uganda". In: *The Economic role of women in Rural Agricultural Development.* Greece: CTA Publication.

UNIT 4   THEORIES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

A theory is a set of ideas that provide explanation for something. So community development theories can be said to be sets of ideas that provide explanation to development issues. Community development theories are essentially social change theories since they provide explanation to the occurrences in human society.

Change/development is selective, so are the theories. Some theorists are concerned with how changes occur; others are interested in continuity based on the assumption that change is continuous. Those who perceive society/community as basically integrated always agitate for return to the integration; those that emphasise conflict insist on ending strain and division or pressure to further change. By and large, all these culminate on the idea of progress, development, and modernisation which underscore the importance of the movement towards a better society.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- identify a theory
- explain the grand theories
- state the phases of development
- identify the strength and weaknesses of each of the development theories.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Role of Theories

Most of the time, people advocating for development have not appreciated the importance of development theories, consequently, the very assumptions required during planning are usually neglected resulting in failures of such development efforts. This unit sets to teach the student these grand theories as they affect development generally and rural communities in particular.

The main justification for presenting a material is that of identifying and critically evaluating dominant theoretical orientations. Theoretical orientation refers to the sets of ideas, assumptions and methodological approaches that serve to guide or orientate the researcher in his examination of substantive issues. Consequently, it does not constitute what is usually thought of as theory. An orientation offers ways of selecting, conceptualising, categorising, and ordering data relating to certain kinds of analytical problems. But it does not in itself form a consistent system of interrelated propositions which are capable of being tested empirically. These are what theories are.

The rural areas are characterised by variation in socio-economic status. This has made it virtually difficult to come up with a broad system prescription for rural development approaches. Consequently, theoretical approaches to the study of rural development are usually formulated in response to specific types of questions and have themselves influenced the ways in which the problems have been posed. Some of such questions are:

- aimed at depicting the general consequence on rural populations of such processes as the commercialisation of agriculture, modernisation and industrialisation.
- whether it is possible to identify particular local institutions or macro-level factors which might be said to inhibit the process of socio-economic development.

- why is it that within a cultural group or between groups placed in similar circumstances, there has been marked variation in the responses to economic opportunities?
- how are particular development policies likely to affect rural areas?
- to examine the intended and unintended outcomes of specific rural development programmes.

The analysis of the articulation of local and national system raises a host of complex problems which have been examined from different theoretical view points. The problems include questions relating to the mechanisms by which particular rural zones are linked into the national and international economy, the role and characteristics of brokers of various kinds, the relations between different modes of production, and rather vexed issue of the difference between peasant and non-peasant cognitive systems.

A theory concisely, is a collection of propositions and facts used to explain a phenomenon. They are usually explicit and objective statements integrating body of isolated facts together. Theories sought answers to "how" and "why" by explaining group of facts and relationship between them.

3.2   Attributes of a Theory

1. A theory should be able to provide you with background framework of the type of information you want to collect.
2. A theory should be able to provide you with hypothesis text.
3. A theory should be able to guide you when you want to cite a research problem.

In this course, the following social change or what can be termed community development theories are discussed.

3.3   Evolution and Differentiation Theory

Origin and transformation of the society was the major worry of early sociologists. At this time, Charles Darwin evolution theory was hardly to provide explanation for the metamorphosis of the society/community. Auguste Comte, Marx and Spencer all perceived society as progressing from primitive beginning to an eventual perfect state, although the exact nature of the perfection differs. Evolution theory has a methodological weakness as more data from different societies become available. They brought into sociology, sociological ideas, the models do not fit; there is little evidence from the distant past. No consensus on characterisation of societies at different stages of development.

3.3.2 Structural Differentiation Theory

Major proponents here were Spencer and Durkheim. Structural differentiation theory was further developed by Tallcott Pearsons and Smelser. According to these theorists, when a society develops, there is an increasing separation and specialisation of institution which must be re-integrated into a new whole. For instance, in a simple society, it is the responsibility of the family institution to do the following: socialisation of new members, political, religious and economic aspects of human life. Institutions attain a separate existence such that we now have many governmental, religious and economic institutions which are invariably inter-dependent.

Unlike Spencer and Durkheim who were mainly concerned with the fact of differentiation, later theorists emphasised social structure. The impetus for change arises from discontentment with the status quo. Those who are dissatisfied express their hostility in various ways and engender conflict within the society, between themselves and those who favour the status quo. In response to this, various agents/agencies of social control (palliative measures) attempt to handle and channel the disturbance, partly by repression and partly by trying to improve conditions to remove the cause of difficulties. This may later involve the introduction of new ideas or institutions. As this is integrated into the society, it settles into a new and more differentiated form until there is indication of dissatisfaction.

3.3.1.1 Problems of Differentiation Theory

1.   The society may never settle down as not all members of the society will equally benefit from the integration.
2.   The authorities may be ineffective agents of social control.

3.3.1.2 Benefits of Differentiation Theory

This theory is useful for describing the development of increasing complex types of social organisation which accompanied and facilitated industrialisation.

3.3.2 Equilibrium and Conflict Theory

The basic functionalist principle of a society is equilibrium, tending toward stability but reacting to change by adjusting in order to restore equilibrium.   These forces of change are either exogenous or endogenous. If as the functionalists hold that a society is united by consensus, then, we should expect that most pressures for change would be exogenous. It therefore means that members of the society would be

satisfied with stability and tend to resist change. Conflict would arise mainly during the process of adjustment to force changes when consensus is important or among people who were inadequately socialised, so they do not share this consensus view of the majority.

3.3.2.1 Benefits of the Equilibrium Theory

It explains gradual long term change such as individual revolution and changes that apply to the society as a whole and not a sudden political revolution and smaller exogenous changes where conflict plays an obvious role.

Adjustment to change does not necessarily tend to immediate return to equilibrium and that if instead reactions are dysfunctional and the situation gets worse, it may require violence or even revolution to return the society to a new state of relative equilibrium. This relative balance will now be between institutions. If for instance, the economic system has become dominant over the political system, the new balance gives each a more equal part. He suggested that revolution is more likely if opposing groups refuse to compromise, have little communication and deny each other's legitimacy.

However, revolution can be forestalled if members of conflicting groups play inter-dependent roles in the society or because the ruling group is effective enough to control the expression of the opposition. Another adaptation of this theory is look for dynamic rather than stable equilibrium. This idea accepts that social system does not return to the same position once it is disturbed but still, looks for a relative balance on each adjustment to change, e.g. clamour for wage increase.

3.3.3 Conflict Theory

Conflict theorists have seen change as mainly arising from within the system, based on the opposition of ideologies, institutions and/or groups. According to Marx, conflict is a historical necessity which must unavoidably tend to the revolutionary overthrow of a system which will not change of its own accord. The conflict theorists perceive economic system as fundamental to the society; it must change from capitalism to communism after which other institutions such as the state and social classes can be regarded as no longer necessary. The pressure for change in the societies is ubiquitous as various interest groups struggle for power and resources. This struggle emphasise the replacement of the ruling group, especially as Worsely asserts that the overthrow of the ruling group will result in the introduction of new value system. This is only overstating the case, as most African political changes only affect the personnel at the top but retain the value system.

3.3.5 Modernisation Theory

This is a current form of evolutionism stemming from the ideas of progress and social engineering. This assumes that change implies improvement of social conditions. It is a product of Euro-American centrism. In this case, concept of change is drawn from its own experience and therefore expects that "modernising" or "developing" societies will eventually come to resemble its own.

Like other forms of change, modernisation can be studied at both the society and the individual level. Pressure for modernisation is seen as coming from an increase in societal scale. Society grows when it takes in a larger territory and increase the size and density of their population. This provides the impetus for urbanisation, interdependence, and centralisation of economic and political power.

Self-sufficient units and locally based segments such as extended family systems and ethnic subgroups give way to national interest groups, class replaces status as the prime means of stratification. Political institution becomes differentiated from kinship and religious institutions. The society is democratised. The mass media and national culture replace local sources of information and culture. It is, however, contestable that less modern societies will change in form exactly the same way as the highly industrialised ones. This is because, once a change has taken place in the society, it cannot happen in another society the same way since "follower" societies can learn from the experience of "leader" societies.

While changes in family life, division of labour, bureaucratic and democratic development may appear to be internal to the society concerned, they are externally influenced as well. And this influence differs for each society just as the background culture and social structure to which these innovations are added, also differ for each society. Thus, this tendency to expect that industrialisation will have the same effects in every society and that every society will eventually be modernised to an identical version of the leader societies who is bound to be disappointed. However, certain features may make them to function differently, e.g. leaders of Hausa/Fulani, accommodated the innovations of independence so that they strengthen their trado-political structure rather than changing it.

Weaknesses

- The theory is structurally insensitive to the specific ways factors of economic growth such as introduction of new technology or markets may be interpreted or modified.
- Inequalities of power and social class that structured such relationships are virtually ignored.

It is important to note that despite those criticisms, modernisation theory helps to focus our attention on how values, beliefs, systems and attitudes can influence our behaviour and consequently our response to social change.

3.3.5 Structural Dependency and Metropolitan-Satellite Relations

The major challenges of modernisation have been to understand the processes and problems of modernisation and or development in the third world. Social scientists have argued that this can be understood in the socio-historical context of the expansion of Western European and industrial capitalism and colonisation of the third world by these advanced economies. Under-developed countries have been viewed as having been dominated economically as well as politically by external centres of power and hence function as their satellites. The societies are lined by depending relationship to the outside and are unable to exert much influence on the operations of world markets or in the sphere of international politics, such that within a nation there exists mechanism of internal domination and their obvious inequalities between different sectors of the economy, that the rural-agricultural sector is dependent economically, politically and culturally on the urban-industrial complex thereby, dividing the country into minority of those who monopolise power and economic resources and majority who are basically peasants.

According to Frank, advanced industrial nations of the West are fundamentally opposed to the industrialisation of the under-developed countries since the latter provide them with raw materials and investments outlets. The economic backwardness of the third world is thus attributed to its dependent status in an international market system that favours the industrialised countries, which control the capital, technology and markets essential for economic growth.

3.3.6 Phases of Change/Development

Smelser (1968) put forth a model of change as a combination of conflict and consensus. He came up with three phases of change. At each phase, the society may react by adjusting to the impetus or showing

strains and tensions which must be resolved in another phase. These strains are expressed as conflict over whether change should take place and the form it should take. The effect of a change impetus depends on:

- its content
- whether it happens suddenly and unexpectedly or builds up gradually
- the peoples' reaction to change
- the level of structural specialisation.

Phase I

The impetus for change is either assimilated or strains will accumulate. If it is assimilated, there is no further effect from the impetus, consequently, the society returns to its former state or attains a new balance. If there is a continuing strain and conflict, it then serves as impetus for further change in Phase II.

Phase II

The result of this may be recovery which brings about some relative balance or persistence and conflict which is either the old unresolved one or new ones in reaction to the system's attempts to handle earlier dissatisfaction. The ability of the society to recover in this phase depends largely on:

- how extensive the strain is
- how disruptive responses to it have been
- availability of command resources to handle it, and
- ability of those in authority to handle socially disruptive behaviour.

Phase III

If the society does not recover at Phase II, the accumulated strains are passed on, with the expectation that some long-term socio-cultural change will occur. The actualisation of this expectation also depends on the:

- amount of strain, and
- resources available to those who favour or oppose change.

The resultant effect may be stagnation and decline of the society. It may lead to development of the society, either by further differentiation and specialisation or institution or by a more radical change in cultural norms and values which will lead to a change in directive, e.g.

imposition of European norms on African societies during the colonial period.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have learnt the basic theories of development, their strength and weaknesses. You should be able to recommend and or apply any of these theories to the rural development needs in your locality.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- you need a solid theoretical basis to be able to explain the dynamics of rural development.
- none of the theories is without a problem hence a synchronisation of theories is required when applying them to rural development needs.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What are the attributes of a theory?
2.   What is the relevance of the structural dependency and metropolitan relation to rural economy?
3.   Critique the following:

(a)   Conflict theory   (b) Structural functionalist theory
(c)   Symbolic interaction.

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Haradanbos, M.; Hothon, M. & Heald, R.M. (2004). *Sociology: Themes and Prospective.* New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

UNIT 5   COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND OTHER DEVELOPMENTS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Earlier studies viewed a community mainly from the small geographical settlement point of view. Consequently, Balten wrote, "the idea of community development in the tropics is almost always associated with work in rural areas where recognisable communities already exist. To him, communities in the tropics comprise groups of people – in some cases, less than a hundred and at the most a few thousand – who live and work together in a village or neighbourhood to which they feel they specially belong". Community is viewed as any process of social interaction which gives use to a more intensive or more extensive attitude and practice of interdependence, cooperation, collaboration and unification. From these interactions and geographical perspectives therefore, it is clear that a community exists on the basis of social interaction. It involves a conscious organisation of individuals within a geographical area and definite legal boundaries, who support some basic or primary institutions, use some common legal as well as political identify. Hence, a community can be found in rural as well as urban areas. It may be large or small in size, and consciousness of interaction and identification are present among the members.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   trace the history of rural community development
•   state the approaches to community development
•   List the steps in community development and
•   State and explain the problems of community development.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Community Development and other Development

In some cases, community development has been used synonymously with community organisation. It is important to note that these two concepts are a little bit different. Community organisation is usually associated with the highly industrialised world with respect to their efforts to deal with problems arising from rapid social and technological changes. Community development on the other hand, deals with such efforts in the rural and pre-industrial developing nations. Precisely, therefore, community development is particularly concerned with economic aspects of rural community life, emphasising more on integrated technical assistance from the government.

Community development can be defined as the conscious and deliberate effort targeted at helping communities recognise their needs and to assume increasing responsibilities for solving their problems thereby increasing their capacities to participate fully in the life of the nation.

3.1.1 History of Community Development

According to Sandus (1958), community development derives from both economic development and community organisation as paternal and maternal needs respectively. Consequently, this perception regards community development as a process, solving the problem of community organisation in order to bring about economic development.

In tropical Africa, the idea of community development was first conceived by the colonial office in Britain around the 1920s as a special development model for the rural areas of its dependent territories. The essence then was to compensate for the limitations of the conventional school system in the British-dependent territories and to some extent, serve as a vehicle for progressive evolution of the people to self government in the context of social and economic change. The original intention of the colonial masters then was for mass education. They set up development centres in some of the colonies where skills such as

house-building, shoe – repairing and various handcrafts were taught. However, most of those who acquired such skills did not stay within their rural communities but went to establish in the city centres. Nevertheless, the motion of community development was pursued vigorously in Ghana where the national organisation for community development and social welfare was first fully developed.

In 1945, the Ashridge Conference on social development redefined community development as a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and on the initiative of the community. This redefinition came when it became obvious that the concept of mass education, though served a particular phase, could not be the sole orientation of community development.

In 1951, Ghana launched a five-year programme for mass literacy and mass education comprising literacy campaigns, home economics, extension work for women. The programme was meant to aid self-help and provide for starting a common service organisation for extension activities.

In 1948, community development was further redefined by Cambridge Summer Conference on African Administration under the sponsorship of the Colonial Office as a movement to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, by use of techniques arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active and on the sciatic response to the movement.

However, in 1956, the United Nations adopted the following definition: Community development is the process by which the effort of the people themselves are united with those of the governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress. This process is made up of two elements: the participation by the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living, with as much reliance as possible on their own initiative; and the provision of technical and other services in ways which encourage initiative, self-help and mutual help and make these more effective.

From these various definitions, it is clear that community development emphasises:

- community self-help
- attention to community's felt needs
- the development of the community as an integrated whole, and
- technical assistance.

3.2   Approaches to Community Development

Due to the fact that lots of agencies, institutions and organisations use the community development process, enquiry, planning, implementation, adjustment and evaluation variety of approaches have been identified as follows:

3.2.1 Rural-Urban Interaction

This approach focuses on planning of rural development along with and within the framework of overall national development plan. Provision for rural development is integrated in the overall agricultural development agenda of local, state and federal governments. This has failed to achieve much because the little recognition accorded rural development is further eroded by the fact that agriculture itself takes no significant place in the overall national planning.

3.2.2 Inter-Sectoral Coordination

This involves the coordination of hitherto isolated sectoral and zonal development programme. It assumes that all sectoral rural development programmes are well conceived and that effective coordination would make them attain rural community development goals. However, programmes under this arrangement have been so narrow and fail to consider restructuring of socio-economic and political systems as essential step towards attaining meaningful integration and narrowing rural-urban gap.

3.2.3 The Package Approach

This approach is founded on diffusionist theory of development in which innovative developed from outside and brought to the rural dwellers by a presumed beneficent and atomistic change agency. In Nigeria, naturally all rural community development programmes today adopted this model. Examples of such programmes include: Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Farm Settlement Scheme, National Accelerated Food Production Programme, Agricultural Development Projects (ADP), etc.

A critical look at the above approaches reveals that all the projects are centred on top-bottom approach to rural development. The practice assumes that what works elsewhere work anywhere. This is against the principle that a nation must solve its own particular problems and build its development on its distinctive ecological, social, cultural and political arrangements. The practice has the weakness of allowing policy makers assume what constitute rural development without capturing the feelings

of the intended beneficiaries which is against the principle of sustainable development.

3.2.4 Community Development Approach (CDA)

This approach to rural development is targeted at poverty alleviation or reduction and currently gaining popularity and application in Africa. The main vision of this approach centres on prosperity through local communities. The goal is to move political, administrative and fiscal power from top to bottom. It aims at building social capital by harnessing community participation and also to improve social capital by strengthening incentives for participatory development.

This approach has five key elements: empowering communities, empowering local governments, re-aligning the centre, improving accountability and capacity building. While it is suggested that each country/community may have to fashion its own CDD process, three stages are conceptually relevant. They are decentralisation – initiation, scaling up and consolidation, and finally sequencing that involves combining immediate action with long-term agenda.

3.3 Steps in Community Development

Community development as a process usually follows certain identifiable steps. Since community development is a problem-solving process, there is an identification of a problem or need. What a community needs is usually determined by the condition it wants and how the existing condition differs from that which is desired. "Wants" therefore refer to desired state of affairs whereas "needs" refer to the effective means of achieving such desired state or maintaining it. For instance, if a community wants a constant and reliable water supply, then it needs a well, or reservoir and all those things required for the construction of any of these facilities.

Aside from identifying the desired state of affairs or the ideal condition, the citizens must also identify the alternatives which exist before fully deciding on what actions they will embark upon to attain what they desire. Although, the entire process may vary from community to community and from one situation to another, some basic steps are crucial to the success of community development. These steps are itemised as follows:

(a)   An informal survey, fact-finding, and identification of community concerns.
(b)   Identification of a small group of leaders and or interest groups who can serve as the initiating sets.

(c)   Identification of immediate community problems.
(d)   Sharing of problems identified with community leaders for legitimation.
(e)   Definition of problems and definition of needs.
(f)   Securing citizens commitment to act and identify needed resources.
(g)   Appraisal of available internal resources and invitation of external aids.
(h)   Formulation of a detailed plan of action including a time-table.
(i)   Carrying out the action and evaluating the process and results.
(j)   Identification of derived needs or problems and planning for the continuation of the process.

3.4   Problems of Community Development

Several programmes have been initiated to facilitate rural development in Nigeria, some of which are still on-going, e.g. National Food Security programme.

While the programmes have significant merit on people, the fact remains that none singly or collectively had achieved the desirable effect to any significant and suitable extent. The factors limiting the effectiveness of rural development prospects include:

(1)   **Lack of commitment to rural development**: It is true that successive Nigerian governments have made development on their determination on rural development, but they are usually not consistent with capital budget allocation given to agriculture and rural development. When such allocations are substantial, release frequently fall short of the approved budget. In some cases funds were even misappropriated and nothing would be said or done about it.

(2)   **Policy-associated problems**: Idachaba (2000) provided a critical synthesis of policy related problems including harsh policy environment; design and implementation of workable and desirable agricultural policies for intended beneficiaries and desirable consequences of policies, difficulty of the Nigerian agricultural sector to respond to set of forces in external and domestic environment. High rate of policy instability characterised by frequent reversal of policy is associated with governance and high degree of political instability.

(3)   **Lack of systematic and coordinated implementation of programmes resulting in duplication and dilution of efforts**. There are usually streams of interventions from government,

international donor agencies and non-governmental organisation to the same target systems but in an uncoordinated manner. In such circumstances, while progress is difficult to comprehensively monitor and evaluate, more importantly is the fact that interventions grants thus provided are typically balkanised funds with narrow focus tied to donors' priorities.

(4)   Lack of community empowerment: Most interventions targeted at rural development rarely affect the lives of the rural folks on a sustainable basis because they were externally configured and executed with minimal participation of the rural beneficiaries. Meaningful development can only be achieved when beneficiaries determine their principles, participate in planning, implementation and evaluation; and utilise their locally available resources.

(5)   High degree of corruption: This has become a monster that frustrates any meaningful intervention and decimates their benefits since it is so widespread and had permeated the socio-economic fabrics of the Nigerian economy. Effort to combat it must move from lip services to a responsive and collective determination to wipe it off. While it is probably the most important socio-economic variable militating against development in Nigeria and indeed Africa, it is rarely factored into research equations.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have made efforts toward understanding the historical development of rural community development practice, the various approaches towards rural development, the steps involved and the basic problems of rural development.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

•   There are several approaches to rural development and that each of these approaches is need-specific.
•   There is more than one step that can be taken to achieve effective development. Sometimes these steps can be integrated.
•   Rural development process and practices are not without their attendant problems. Consequently, proactive measures should be taken to surmount these problems before they come.
•   Rural development is a historical continuity.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Differentiate between community development and other developments.
2.   Explain the steps necessary for rural development.
3.   What are the major approaches to rural development?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S. F. (2005). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Ilorin: AESON Publication.

MODULE 2

Unit 1   Micro-Approaches to Social Change
Unit 2   Macro-Approaches to Social Change
Unit 3   Rural Community as a Unit of Social Change
Unit 4   Dimension of Innovations
Unit 5   Model of Rural/Agricultural Development and their Relevance to Nigerian Situations

UNIT 1   MICRO-APPROACHES TO SOCIAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

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3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Symbolic Interaction
              3.1.1 Criticism
       3.2   Ethno Methodology
              3.2.1 Criticism
       3.3   Exchange Theory
              3.3.1 Criticism
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   Reference/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Previous units of this course have explained the fact that social change can only take place within a social system. The fact that community is a unit of change is discussed in unit three of this module. If social change takes place only within a social system, what then is a system?

A system consists of a set of interdependent units that interact with each other in order to perform one or more functions. In any system, the web of interactions is as important as the parts or units that are interacting, because they are interdependent. Change within a unit or a part of a system is what is referred to as micro change. In this unit; micro approaches to social change implying changes in a system through specific or definite parts of that system is discussed. These different approaches have their specific micro theoretical orientations. The details of these theories will be used to give specific explanation to a particular approach.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

This unit intends to teach you the specific micro level theories of social change which can be used to explain the experiences of changes at the micro level.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Symbolic Interaction

Though, it was influenced by Weber, this school of thought is mostly indebted for its existence to the intellectual activities at the University of Chicago during the first quarter of this century, and particularly to the systematic thinking of the social philosopher Herbet Mead who was largely influenced by the works of Dewey. Dewey insisted that human beings are best understood in relation to their environment.

Symbolic interactionism starts with the premise that interaction is the primary social process. This interaction takes place through symbols, representations that have agreed upon meanings. Herbert Bhomer who was a devotee of Mead noted that symbolic interactionism is a study of human group life and conduct. To explain this, he came up with three core principles:

- meaning
- language and
- thought

These core principles lead to conclusions about the creation of a person's self and socialisation into larger community.

The first core principle of meaning states that humans act toward people and things based upon the meanings that they have given to those people or things. The second core principle is language. Language gives human means by which to negotiate meaning through symbols. It is by engaging in speech acts with other symbolic interactions, that humans come to identify meaning, or naming, and develop discourse. The third core principle is that of thought. Thought marks each individual's interpretation of symbols. Thought, based on language, is a mental conversation or dialogue that requires role taking or encouraging different points of view.

Symbolic interactionists focus on the issue of identity, particularly the sense of self, which they argue is a sound product. They analyse the social process through which identify develops; primarily meaningful social interaction. They also focus on the nature of social interaction and

how it occurs within a content of socially relevant understandings and considerations.

However, they point out that rather than being static, this social background is a dynamic process of shifting and emergent meanings that derive from the previous experience of the participants, from the social content of the situations, and from the relevant features of the specific interactional encounter.

This perspective emphasises individuals' active role in their own development; it does not see people as passive elements in society rather as being selective and responsive to social situations and processes in their lives.

3.1.1 Criticism

Symbolic Interactionism has been criticised for ignoring the more formal and organisational agents of social life. How interpersonal interaction and a sense of identity are affected by large scale social forces is not significantly accounted for in this perspective. Critics argue that symbolic interactionism over-emphasises the cognitive aspects of social life, ignoring the rich emotional basis of human existence. The key concepts of this perspective, such as 'self', are seen as too imprecise and not capable of measurement and analysis.

3.2 Ethno Methodology

Ethnomethdologist is the study of the process by which meanings are created and shared. Ethnomethodologists derive much of their orientation from the work of Alfred Schutz and Harold Garfinkel. From the ethnomethodoligsts' point of view, there is no ordered social world unless the participants agree upon it. Together, people construct world, how they communicate that view to others, and how they understand and explain regularities. Much of ethnomethodological analysis excuses the narrative and mundane aspects of social life, such as telephone conversations. In fact, "conversational analysis is a style of ethnomethodological research.

Ethnomethodology reminds sociologists not to take for granted an ordered social world. It tries to clarify how social order is constructed and how people view it. Ethnomethodology, like symbolic interactionism stresses the importance in research of taking a phenomenological point of view, of seeing the world through the eyes of the respondents.

3.2.1   Criticism

Ethnomethodology has been criticised for:

- isolation from much of sociological analysis, and
- its failure to link up with the main currents of sociological thought.

3.3   Exchange Theory

This theory is derived in part from economics and behavioral psychology. It viewed social life as a process of social bargaining and negotiation, interaction proceeds on the basis of cost/benefit analysis. If the benefits derived from an interaction are greater than the efforts put into maintaining it, the interactions will continue. If not, it will be terminated. Nowadays, however, exchange theory has become more sophisticated. It now acknowledges the constraints in interaction. We are not always free to do what we want with others; there are customs and practice that circumscribe our actions.

Exchange theory is used to study transitory encounters as well as more enduring relationships like friendship and marriage. It provides a different way of understanding the factors that sustain or weaken these relationships.

3.3.1 Criticism

- Exchange theory's basic assumptions are untenable.
- Exchange theory assumes that much of life is guided by a "hedonistic calculus" whereby people seek to maximise pleasure and eliminate pain. But often people do things that maximise pain or at least increase tension.
- Exchange theory does not account for acts of love or heroism, where the individual's goals are subordinated to the needs of others.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have been able to learn the philosophy of micro approach to social change as a change at the individual unit level.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have leant that:

- Micro approach to social change is an approach toward changing the entire social system via the components of that system.
- Micro approaches are embedded in the main theories and an understanding of these theories in an understanding of the approaches.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is a micro-approach to social change?
2. Explain the concept of social system.
3. Critique the ethnomethodologists' perspective to micro approaches to change.
4. What is the basic tenet of symbolic interactionism?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Mandoza, M.G. & Napoli, V. (1977). *Systems of Society: An Introduction to Social Science.* Canada: Health and Company.

UNIT 2   MACRO-APPROACHES TO SOCIAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
          3.1   Structural Functionalist Theory
                   3.1.1 Criticism
          3.2   Conflict Theory
                   3.2.1 Criticism
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   Reference/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Every society contains a variety of sub-systems which are interdependent. Where the analysis takes care of the total system, it is referred to as macro analysis. In other words, if an approach of planned change targets the whole system, it is said to be a macro approach. Like what has been explained already in unit one, these approaches are explained via theories. In this unit, therefore, some main theories of change will be discussed to guide your understanding of main approaches.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

The objective of this unit is to make the student understand the theoretical orientation of championing a change that involves the entire or total system of a community, institution or even a nation.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Structural Functionalist Theory

The proponents of this theory are Bronislaw Malinowski an anthropologist, Talcott Parsons, Robert K. Merton, and Kingsley Davis - all sociologists. The basic premise of this theory is that we cannot explain various phenomena particularly, social structures, in terms of their consequences. For example, one cannot explain the practice of magic among Trobrian Islanders in terms of the sense of control it gives them over those activities that are both important and uncertain.

An element in this perspective is the notion of system, the idea that the various elements of society are related to one another in such a way that a change in one leads to changes in the others. In the case of Islanders Malinowski argues that any analysis of this society must take into account the tie between the practice of magic and the economic impact of fishing in the entire community.

In their view, society is a relatively stable, well integrated social system whose members generally agree on basic values. Society tends to have disequilibrium effects; change tends to be frowned upon unless it occurs slowly enough to allow the system time to adjust. Social service aspects of political machineries, for example, in distributing food to the poor and helping them deal with the complexities of public welfare and public social structures, are functional for society. But Merton argues that some can be eliminated with significant effects, for example, Costa Rica gets by with no military institution. In other cases, there may be functional equivalents to a particular social structure. For example, in the 1960s and 1970, many young people viewed communities as functional equivalents to the family.

3.1.1   Criticism

i.   Some of the primary elements of the theory involve circular reasoning. To argue that a structure exists because it fills a certain need and that because it fills a need it therefore must exist, adds little to our understanding, they point out.
ii.   Structural functionalism views stability as all important and decrying social change as disruptive. The structural functionalists view is inherently conservative. The functionalists are seen as supporting the status quo but change is both necessary and desirable.

3.2   Conflict Theory

The basic orientation of the conflict theory derived from Marx's work focuses on the conflict and competition between various elements in society. The Marxist version looks at competition between social classes. Many contemporary conflict theorists focus on conflict between racial, ethnic and religious groups as well as on gender and class conflict. Conflict theorists note the seminal work of Simmel who pointed to division as well as to the consensual forces in society. Societies, he argued, have both associative and dis-associative pressures, and the relative weights of these pressures will vary at different times.

Lewis A. Coser, a major contemporary theorist influenced by Simmel argues not only that conflict is inherent in society, but also that under

some conditions, it scores very positive findings. Conflict may help to clarify certain key values. Multiple group affiliations, which functionalists see as weakening consensus, are viewed by Coser as a mechanism for maintaining some level of stability by preventing a single axis of cleavage in society. Our belonging to different classes, ethnic groups, religious and even genders keeps any one of these from dividing society into two mutually exclusive and continually working groups or camps. The social fabric is kept from being torn apart by divisive forces because of our varied and interconnected identities.

Whereas, the functionalists decry change, conflict theorists tend to welcome it. Where functionalists see positive consequences of existing social arrangements, conflict theorists look for winners and losers and assume both exist. In essence, conflict theorists tend to have a more dynamic view of society and positive view of change.

3.2.1 Criticism

Conflict theorists point to its tendency to focus on the divisive and conflictive aspects of social living, while ignoring the many harmonies and consensual processes that bind hundreds of a society together.

Conflict theorists are considered political radicals applauding change if not formulating change irrespective of its consequences.

4.0   CONCLUSION

At the end of this unit, you may have learnt the basic concept of macro level approach to change in the social system.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Macro approach to social change is a change involving the total system.
- There are two grand theories of macro approach to social change which are structural functionalists and conflict theory.
- These theories are direct opposite which one is advocating for structural continuity, the other insists on change in the status quo.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is macro social change?
2.   Outline the grand theories of macro level social change?
3.   What is the basic shortcoming of the conflict theory?
4.   Compare and contrast conflict and functionalists perspectives of
      social change.

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S. F. (2006). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Ilorin:
      AESON Publication.

UNIT 3   RURAL COMMUNITY AS A UNIT OF CHANGE

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Change, which is a significant alteration in the way of life of a people, is constant, ever occurring. This change does not occur in a vacuum. There is always a unit or system within which changes take place. Some changes are man-made whereas others are accidental and thus not giving man any chance to plan for it. The understanding of the concept of change and the various factors that affect change will help in the management of change.

Most rural dwellers are fatalistic, which implies that they resign to fate in the face of eminent change. This is sometimes as a result of ignorance. There are some instances where government and non-governmental agencies have tried to prevent the effects of accidental change. This has given rise to minimal results as a result of the low level of understanding of the ministry for planning for change in the part of those affected by change. This unit essentially, sets to provide this understanding to you, so you can be provide this all important knowledge to members of your communities to make planned change effective as well as helping to adjust to accidental change.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of community
- define rural community
- explain settlement patterns
- define the concept of social change
- list and explain the factors affecting change.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Concept of Community

A community is an aggregation of families habitually living together within a definite geographical location more or less rooted in the soil they occupy, living in a state of mutual interdependence, supporting some basic social institution and having some measure of political autonomy in relation to other community. The term community has equally been used to denote something both geographical and psychological. Geographically, it denotes specific area where people cluster. Psychologically it implies shared interests, characteristics or association as in the expression "community of interests". However, there is a sociological definition of the term that combines the two meanings and denotes a people within a common locality having shared interests and behavioural patterns. Such shared interests and behavioural patterns manifests, mainly in the areas of production, distribution and consumption of goods and services; socialisation; social control; social participation and mutual support. A community is essentially characterised by the organisation of these functions on a locality basis.

The word rural is a normative term that has a subjective interpretation. It is measured by the availability of certain basic amenities that can improve living standards, population and infrastructural development.

Rural community therefore can be carried out to mean the aggregation of people whose population are low and at very low levels of infrastructural development.

Every urban community is serviced by rural communities. Consequently, the rural community should be the hob of transformation as any change in the rural community is a change of development in the urban centres. This unit teaches the rural community as a major entity of change and development.

3.2   Settlement Patterns in Rural Communities

Settlement patterns are usually related to the following factors:

- The natural physical condition such as topography, soil type, water availability, vegetation types that can determine their economic activities.
- Social conditions including family organisations need for security and economic arrangements.
- The nature of the existing agricultural economy.

All these factors largely influenced the settlement patterns of rural community, whether they are to have scattered, nucleated or line settlement.

The two major types of settlement patterns in Nigeria are clustered or nucleated and scattered settlements.

3.2.1 The Clustered or Nucleated Settlement

This refers to the thickly populated urban centres typical of Yoruba towns, Hausa and Nupe villages. They consist of clusters, contiguously located compounds each of which might be separated by mud walls or fences.

This type of settlement has its origin from the people's need of defence in the past. Their farms are located outside the villages. Farmers have to walk long distances to go to their farms every morning. In some cases, farmers had to establish farm camps where they spent parts of the week and then return to the main villages on weekends and festivity days.

The advantages of this type of settlement include:

- Security from enemies
- Closer social association
- Easier transmission of information on innovation within a short period of time
- Enhancement of efficient utilisation of social amenities.

Some of the disadvantages, on the hand, are:

- Easy transmission of infectious diseases
- Farmers experience drudgeries at work since they have to travel long distances to get to their farms
- It may encourage gossips and
- May complicate sanitation problems.

3.2.2 Scattered or Dispensed Settlement Patterns

This type of settlement pattern consists of round houses set in the individual land holdings. The concept of blood relationship runs through grouping of habitations everywhere. A number of people from one extended family occupy dwellings along a single branch path forming a ward and a number of such wards scatter over the entire territory owned by a particular village. This is typical of Igbo, Tiv and Ibibio settlements.

Some of the reasons for this pattern of settlement then are:

- the pacification of Eastern Nigeria in 1910, abolition of slave trade and tribal wars and the consequent removal of fear of attack by enemies
- The bid to resist the colonial governments imposition of free labour upon the people
- Increased demand for farm land due to increase in population, and
- The lessening of family ties due to modern and extra territorial influences.

3.3   The Concept of Social Change

Social change is a continuous process in which alterations in human relationship occur. It is the significant alteration of social structures involving patterns of social action and interaction, including consequences and manifestations of such structures embedded in norms, values, cultural products and symbols. Social change may assume either of the following forms:

(a)   Modification in human attitudes and behaviour pattern as a result of education
(b)   Alterations in social conditions as a result of changes in policies of a social organisation
(c)   Effecting reforms in major legal and functional systems
(d)   Changes in the material culture. Social change touches all aspects of societal life and may manifest as:

(i)   economic change
(ii)   political change
(iii)   technological change
(iv)   cultural change and behavioural change.

The introduction of social change into any system involves the uplifting of the equilibrium of the subsystem.

Social change may be planned or unplanned. Planed change entails the direct human introduction in the shaping and direction of change toward a predefined goal. Accidental change or unplanned change is that which happens suddenly, usually through the uncontrollable acts of nature thereby affording man no chance to plan before it occurs, e.g. earth quake, flood, locust infestation, bird flu, etc.

Social change may be total or segmental. Total change refers to that which covers wide range of activities and may lead to a complete transformation of a people's way of life. Conversion to Christianity for instance requires a change from traditionalism; farm mechanisation calls for a change from the traditional way of farming. Segmental change as the name implies, refers to a change covering only a particular sector of human life and may call for total transformation.

3.4   Sources of Social Change

Social changes are brought about mainly through invention, diffusion and discovery.

Invention involves the combination of existing cultural traits to fashion new things and the rate at which this takes place is directly proportional to the strength of the existing cultural basis.

Discovery refers to the sharing of perception of the fact, object or relationship which has always existed, but was not known or people were not conscious of its implications. Discovery can help the cultural base in a social system and so it can help invention.

Diffusion involves a spread of information from the source, inventor or the organiser of that information to other members of the society with minimal or no knowledge of the existence of such information. Cultural diffusion can take place at both the material and non-material levels. Diffusion has been largely facilitated by:

(i)   increased and more efficient communication system;
(ii)   The rate at which people can travel and
(iii)   Availability of experts in the relevant field of expertise. Other sources of change in rural Nigeria are:

• religious constitution
• urbanisation
• government policies
• use of science and technology.

3.5 Factors Affecting Social Change

Several factors are responsible for the rate of societal changes. These factors are, but not limited to, the following:

- Physical environmental factors: these may include climatic changes, soil erosion, landslides and or earth quakes.
- Migration and population change: Refers to the movement of people from one place to another. This will bring about cultural diffusion and consequent integration.
- Openness of a particular social system to other social systems. Some societies are more open to others thus more amiable to change.
- Perceived Needs: if the change being introduced is perceived as needful in the society, it will modify its system to suit it.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you have attempted to learn the concept of social change, appraisal of what a rural community within which these changes take place, the circumstances of change and their sources.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Rural community consists of families, deriving mutual benefits and influencing one another.
- Social change is a continuous, never-ending process which modifies the social system.
- Change is either total or segmented, affecting wide range of activities or a particular case respectively.
- Changes are affected by both external and internal factors.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Identify the major settlement patterns in Nigeria.
2. What factors influence settlement patterns in rural Nigeria?
3. Discuss the sources of change?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E. E. (1988). *Rural Sociology: An Introduction and Analysis of Rural Nigeria*. Lagos: Jumak Publishers Ltd.

Williams, S. K. T.; Fenley, J. M. & Williams, C. E. B. (1984). *A Manual for Agricultural Extension Workers in Nigeria.* Ibadan: University of Ibadan Press.

UNIT 4   THE DIMENSION OF INNOVATIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   The Concept of Innovation
        3.2   Sources of Innovation
                3.2.1   Top-Oriented Innovation (Linear model)
                3.2.2   Bottom-Oriented (End-Users Innovation)
        3.3   Objectives of Innovation
        3.4   Dimensions of Innovation
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Innovation is another level of change. So many times, it is resisted for several reasons. A possible reason for strict resistance of innovation is fear of interference to the status-quo. Most people assume that innovations are conscious efforts to eliminate what is known and used over a long time. Some strive for far distorting cultural artifacts and values. These causes of resistance may be due to the perception of innovation as an entirely new idea in the real sense of the word, such that its acceptance may lead to waste of already invested resources, as you may have to switch over to the "new" products. Innovation does not necessarily refer to an entirely new idea. Such an idea may have been there, but as you use it, you may discover a better way to do it to achieve a better result. This unit is designed to make you understand the objectives of innovation and the various parts of life it can affect.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of innovation with a view to promoting it
- state the various facets of life that innovation can occur
- originate an innovation from your already existing practice.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Concept of Innovation

An innovation is an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual. It matters little, so far as human behaviour is concerned; whether or not the idea is objectively new as measured by the lapse of time since it first use or discovery. It is the perceived or subjective newness of the idea for the individual that determines his reaction to it. If the idea seems new to the individual, it is an innovation. The term also refers to a new way of doing something. It may refer to incremental and emergent or radical and revolutionary changes in thinking, products, processes or organisations.

In many fields, something new must be substantially different to be an innovation, not an insignificant change, e.g. in arts, economics, business and government policy. In economics, the change must increase value, customer value, or producer value. The goal of innovation is positive change, to make someone or something better. Innovation leading to increased productivity is the fundamental source of increasing wealth in an economy.

Colloquially, the word innovation is often synonymous with the output of the process. However, economist tend to focus in the process itself, from the organisation of an idea to its transformation into something useful, to its implementation and on the system within which the process of innovation unfolds.

The "new" in an innovative idea need not be viewed simply as new knowledge. An innovation might be known by the individual for some time, but he has not yet developed a favourable or unfavourable attitude to it, nor has adopted or rejected it. The newness aspect of an innovation may be expressed in knowledge, attitude, or regarding a decision to use it.

3.2   Sources of Innovation

It is important to note that although innovation may have several sources, it emanates mainly either from the top or from bottom.

3.2.1 Top-Oriented Innovation (Linear model)

This is the traditionally recognised source of innovation which is expert (manufacture innovation). This is where an agent (person, business, scientist or any expert) innovates in order to sell the innovation. Under this, it is believed that, the innovators are exclusive reservoirs of

knowledge. This type of innovation has been achieved over the years through research and development. Usually, the more radical and revolutionary innovations have emerged from research and development.

3.2.2 Bottom-Oriented (End-Users Innovation)

This type of innovation has just started gaining popularity, as no one expects that an end use of any product can initiate another idea. This is where an agent develops an innovation for their own use because existing products do not meet their needs. This type of innovation has been identified by experts as, by far, the most critical type of innovation since it originates from beneficiaries.

This is especially so because, a great deal of innovation is done by those actually implementing and using technologies and products as part of their normal activities. Some innovators may become entrepreneurs, selling their products, they may choose to trade their innovation in exchange for other innovations, or they may be adopted by their suppliers. Nowadays, they may also chosen to freely reveal their innovations, using methods like open source. In such networks of innovations, the users or the communities of users can further develop technologies and reinvent their social meaning.

3.3   Objectives of Innovation

Like any other human venture, innovation is an intervention programme; that is why it is considered positive. It has the following objectives to human existence:

- improved quality
- creation of new markets
- extension of the product range
- reduced labour cost
- improved product process
- reduced materials
- reduced environmental damage
- replacement of product/services
- reduced energy consumption
- conformance to regulation.

3.4   Dimensions of Innovation

Innovation can come in different sectors of human existence. Some of these dimensions are discussed here:

(i)   Economic Dimension

This is basically reflected economic relations of the people with respect to approach towards economic transaction and as they have assisted in bringing to bear in the people's life the fundamental objectives of innovations.

(ii)   Political Dimension

This involves changes in the distribution and operating mechanism of social and political power. For example, this can be seen to be evolutionary from the obas and chiefs as traditional sole authority to democratically elected counselors of parliamentary to military regime.

(iii)   Cultural Dimension

This is a broader term used to describe all changes occurring in any part of a culture or non-material facts of life such as values and beliefs. Cultural change involves alterations or modification in the way people perceive and relate to the environment. For example, pride in weaving of Nigeria National dress or preference for traditional Apala or Fuji music to foreign music.

(iv)   Technological Change

This deals with continuous process of change within the technical material and physical practices in a culture, e.g. change from traditional cutlass and hoe agriculture to mechanised system of farming. This has been the view of technological change for many years which is the introduction of machines. Today, agricultural technology is viewed as representing much more than only mechanisation. It now includes:

(i)   introduction of new farm inputs such as improved seeds, fertilisers, insecticides, irrigation system
(ii)   introduction of new techniques or practices such as new planting and cultivation techniques, crop rotation, improved storage system.

(v)   Behavioural Dimension

This refers to modification in the behaviour of individual as a result of changes experienced in their economic life, political system, cultural and technological innovations. These changes can modify the interaction both at the level of individuals and the community at large, thereby giving them a new identity.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have attempted to learn about the philosophical background of innovation, having exhaustively discussed the concept, its sources and objectives as well as the dimensions. You now have another understanding that innovation does not necessarily refer to a "new" object in the real sense of the word.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

- Innovation does not refer to something that is necessarily "new" in the real sense of the word.
- Innovation is more critically initiated from the users of a product.
- The fundamental objective of innovation is to bring about improvement in the living standard of the people.
- There are five basic dimension of innovation.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is an innovation?
2.   Itemise the objectives of an innovation.
3.   Compare and contrast the two main sources of innovation.
4.   What are some of the areas or dimensions of innovation?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

William, S. K. T.; Feuley, J. M. & Williams, C. E. B. (1984). *A Manual for Agricultural Extension Workers in Nigeria*. Ibadan: University of Ibadan Press.

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**UNIT 5   MODELS OF RURAL/AGRICULTURAL
                  DEVELOPMENT AND THEIR RELEVANCE TO
                  NIGERIAN SITUATIONS**

CONTENT

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Every country that is interested in development must have its own indigenous model based on its own socio-cultural circumstances. Models are approaches adopted for development. It must be understood that these approaches cannot be continually used. Rural development efforts have failed over the years probably, because of adopting alien approaches which are not necessary or suitable for our environment.

This unit should make you understand the best approach for rural/agricultural development having reviewed some development approaches by the government and their attendant problems. The student should at the end of this unit understand why these approaches have not succeeded, as well as their proliferation. This unit teaches the different development approaches as they affect the unique Nigerian rural system.

Models are also referred to as policies and or approaches. It is a blueprint or even principles laid down for achieving a goal. Sometimes, models are put in the form of a schema to convey the relationship between variables that are expected to interact to bring about achievement of stated objectives.

Rural community development is synonymous with agricultural development, as agriculture is rural. Any effort therefore at developing agriculture is ultimately an effort of rural community development. It is the stated methodology for rural development either by government or

non-government agencies. In order to ensure the success of a model, it must be developed based on the cultural tenets of the people using the participatory approach (bottom–top); otherwise such projects/programme will only become a historical movement as it will be starved of community support. Consequently, any agency interested in community development must as a matter of necessity understand the socio-cultural environments of the beneficiaries.

The basic objective for community development is to improve the living standards of the people by empowering them through the provision of fundamental infrastructures to support their production and productivity.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- identify different development approaches
- state the principles of rural development approach
- identify the various components of rural development approach.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Functional Components of Rural Development

Rural/Agricultural development systems have 6 functional components.

(i)   *Production:* This refers to the practical act of the people with respect to crop/livestock production and marketing.
(ii)   *Supply and Credit:* This component concerns itself with the acquisition of basic inputs including finances.
(iii)   *Marketing:* involving every activity that ensures that whatever is produced gets to the final consumers (processing, storage, distribution).
(iv)   *Research:* This has to do with investigation into how best the people can be served and at the same time improving the lives of the people. It may involve discovering facts and other developmental approaches.
(v)   *Extension:* This is the outreach component of the system. It is charged with the responsibility of transferring the products of research to the producers as well as feedback to the researchers.
(vi)   *Regulation:* This is essentially the management component; it is concerned with productive resource allocation; as well as rules for development. It houses the quality control aspect.

Since this is a system, weaknesses suffered by any of the components or linkage have the tendency to disrupt development. In designing a

development model, consideration must be given to these components from the onset to guide against jeopardising development objectives.

It has been pointed out earlier that rural development is synonymous with agricultural development in considering models for rural community development. Consequently, 4 of such models: autonomous extension, package approach, contract farming approach and integrated rural development approach are essentially agricultural development models.

3.2   The Extension Approach

The basic assumption behind this approach is that absence of technical knowledge at the farm level. The gap between sources and users of technology could be closed by agricultural extension service which is charged with the responsibility of innovation information dissemination. Both the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and British Colonial Government approaches are discussed in this section to enhance the understanding of this responsibility.

USAID Model

It was based upon the United States Department of Agriculture, Federal extension service and land grant Colleges. This was introduced into Latin America and part of South East Asia in the two decades after the Second World War. Independent extension services were set up. The typical programme in a country included expatriate specialists in extension methods, rural youth training, home economics and the use of communication media. Agencies were established in the rural areas.

The service was normally organised outside the regular government bureaucracy with the purpose of ensuring freedom for the extension staff. Extension workers were discouraged from becoming involved in marketing, farm credit or the distribution of supplies. Also, agricultural research did not feature strongly in the technical assistance programmes of the 1950s and 1960s. It was assumed that there was a large amount of useful information that was not being put into practice, and that impressive results could be achieved without basic research and trials in the farmers' field.

Agricultural extension services as an autonomous service in most former British Colonies, under the Ministry of Agriculture, operates fairly independently although subject to national agricultural policy. Colleges and universities give pre-service professional training and rarely integrated with the extension service.

3.3   The Package Approach

This is based on the knowledge that success in farming depends on the interaction of several practices and inputs. When combined, they give increase yields. For any crop or livestock husbandry, there are a number of operations involved. Lack of attention to the correct method and timing at any one stage of the operation can result in poor returns.

A successful package programme has the following features:

(i)   Linking research, extension and the producer to provide an improved, locally adapted technology.
(ii)   Linking producer to a combination of services: supply and credit for seed, fertiliser, insecticides, etc. and marketing (e.g. price support, storage and transport).

The logic of the package idea is that inter-related resources, when applied by the farmers in combination, yield more than the sum total of the outputs produced by the resources when applied individually.

3.4   The Contract–Farming Approach

In this approach, the farmer is given incentives to participate. He is encouraged to work in his own time, on his own land, for his own benefit. The system was adopted by colonial governments to increase the quantity of export crops produced by small holders.

The approach is socially more acceptable than the plantation system in which the owner has direct control over land and labour. In most schemes of the contract farming, a company or even state, corporation provides advice, farm inputs, credit and marketing services to small holders in return for farm produce of a certain minimum quality or grade.

This approach is characterised by close integration of all the functions of agricultural system production, research, extension, supply and credit, regulation and marketing for the production of a single crop.

In developing countries, the success of contract-farming is usually dependent on the company having a monopoly over the supply of seed and planting material, marketing and processing. Contract-farming is therefore limited to export crops such as sugar, tea, cocoa, rubber, tobacco, cotton, and oil palm for which special processing is required and for which local demand is very limited.

3.5 The Integrated Regional Development Approach (IRDA)

The IRDA is based on the assumption that a critical minimum effect is needed to make a noticeable impact in a relatively short period. Its purpose is to overcome stagnation and ease social problems among traditional farmers in a particular region or district by a concentrated and comprehensive effort.

Integrated regional development programme usually focuses on improving traditional agriculture, especially extension services, supply, credit and marketing. But, in order to make investment in these activities effective, improvements are sought in social services as well, particularly in health and education.

Factors for IRDA Programmers

(i)   It depends on financial aid from outside the country.
(ii)   A team of specialists – nationals of foreign experts are needed to cooperate closely with the local population and existing administration.
(iii)   A special executive body, with a considerable degree of local autonomy and authority is usually necessary and agencies are effectively coordinated.
(iv)   Special financial powers may be needed to carry out the commercial transactions involved in the buying and selling of farm inputs or the purchase and resale of crops and livestock.

Constraints of IRDA

Money and specialists are usually too scarce in developing countries to allow the adoption of this approach nationwide.

The concept integrated development became fashionable in the early 70s and later begins to suffer neglect.

3.6 Community Development Approach (CDA)

Community development (CD) is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and on the initiative of the community. CD operates primarily through enlistment and organisation of self help and cooperative effort on the part of the community but usually with technical assistance from government or voluntary agencies.

CD is preferred to the traditional extension process because problems of agriculture and home economics are so interwoven with those of health,

transportation, marketing, etc. That is, the way a programme which incorporates all these better facilitate progress in agriculture. People are also likely to respond to programmes which are group-oriented. In the CD approach, greater emphasis is on groups and group activities than on the individual and individual activities.

Principles of Community Development

Some guiding principles in community development are:

(a)   Help the people to discuss, recognise and define their needs.
(b)   Involve the people in planning and actions necessary to satisfy their needs.
(c)   Encourage the people to assume increasing responsibility for those actions.

If we substitute farmers for people, we obtain same ideals of the meaning of CD approach and agricultural extension.

Objectives of Community Development

(i)   To persuade people, that by their own efforts, they can do much to improve living condition by the wise and effective use of community resources, material and human.
(ii)   To develop cultural needs, social welfares, etc.
(iii)   To encourage every individual to participate in community affairs, especially in those matters relating to his or her livelihood.
(iv)   To develop the community; women as well as men, poor as well as less poor, labourers and tenants as well as land-owner.

As agricultural production is only one aspect of rural life, community development approach also requires close cooperation with other rural development agencies. CD requires also that the extension worker is trained in group work and is well disposed towards the people he is supposed to help.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learned the philosophy of rural development models or approaches, the major components of rural development models, some guiding principles and the different rural development approaches.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt that:

- There are several rural development models.
- Each rural development is location specific.
- There are major guiding principles for rural development model design.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define a model.
2. What are the guiding principles of rural development?
3. Discuss the package approach.
4. What is the major contention of the integrated rural development approach?
5. Distinguish between the community development approach and the extension approach.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S. F. (2006). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Ilorin, ARMT: AESON Publications.

MODULE 3

Unit 1   Problems of Institutions and Infrastructural Development
Unit 2   Case Studies of Community Development in Nigeria
Unit 3   Case Studies of Community Development in other Developing Countries
Unit 4   The Future of Rural Communities in Nigeria

UNIT 1   PROBLEMS OF INSTITUTIONS AND INFRASTRUCTURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Agricultural Extension as an Institutional Support to Community Development
       3.2   Problems of Institutions and Infrastructural Development
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   Reference/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Over the years, there has been a long struggle to institutionalise infrastructural provision for rural settings. This will make it possible for people in the rural communities to have access to the same social infrastructures as their urban counterparts. The effort manifested in the proliferation of different organs of government charged with the responsibility of ensuring the provision of such infrastructural facilities. Each agent or agency was not and is still not able to meet its mandate due to certain problems.

In this unit, you will learn about some of the problems, how efforts were made to solve them and how these efforts have not yielded the desired dividends.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   define infrastructure
•   state the various problems militating against infrastructural development
•   trace agricultural extension as a major institutional support for infrastructural development.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

The quantity of capital employed and its financing are significant determinants of the productivity and efficiency of the agricultural enterprises (among others). The capital which is either in the form of finance or in other forms that are capable of boosting human productivity when institutionalised is what is referred to as institutional factors/supports. This can also be in the form of external or internal support. Bank loans can be ranked among the most important external resources. Bank loans are a cornerstone by planning cash flow on both the production level and the investment level. The credit market is however, characterised by the asymmetric information that may result in credit rationing.

The nature of agricultural and rural development activities reinforces the asymmetric information between farmers and banks and thus increases the likelihood of the external credit rationing occurrence. In the case of bank loans and farmers, one may also take into consideration the limiting collaterals, which may result in an internal credit rationing. The constraining factor for obtaining bank loans on the part of farmers necessitate an institutionalised support which is not only in the area of money capital but others such as extension training and other agricultural input supplies.

About twenty years ago, there was limited support from government and educational institutions in Washington State for organic and sustainable agriculture. Now these institutions do everything from conducting organic research to addressing organic trade barriers. The growth in organic and sustainable agriculture in Washington State has been phenomenal. The State's organic food industry has grown a hundred fold since 1988. Farmers' markets are thriving and provide gathering places that improve the quality of life of the social system as well as providing economic well being for many small farmers. Community-supported agriculture supports dozens of farms throughout the State. Domestic and export markets have expanded and provide markets for hundreds of organic farms.

In order to institutionalise support for community development, McEvry (2005) notes that in the political process, leadership was provided by many people who were outside institutional structure but were not shy about advocating for institutional change. They worked countless hours attending meetings, meeting with legislators, testifying at legislative hearings, writing letters, and making phone calls. Success also depended upon allies within the institutions that listened and worked within institutional structure for change. Institutional change does not happened a night and requires persistence and perseverance.

The first step in creating change within government institutions is legislative, getting the authorisation for a programme. The second step is obtaining funding for the programme. Without funding, legislation is not worth very much. Obtaining funding requires building alliances with government agencies using the media to promote your programme, building alliances to gain allies within the political process, and working the legislative process through attending hearings and meetings with legislators. It is also critical to avoid making enemies that can easily derail all of your work. The final step requires working closely with agent staff to ensure the intent of the legislation is implemented and not watered down by incompetence or indifference.

One key element in the success for institutional change is in knowing who to work with within government agencies. There are many allies of organic agriculture within government agencies. Teaming up with these individuals can make a big difference in creating institutional change. It is also important to know whom to collaborate with and when to fight. Collaboration requires meeting with governmental leaders, respecting their positions and constraints and having an open mind about working with government agencies.

3.1 Agricultural Extension as an Institutional Support to Community Development

In a country's rural and agricultural development process, agricultural extension workers are expected to help farmers and rural people to identify and analyze their production problems, make them become more aware of the opportunities for improvement in standard of living. The role of agricultural extension workers involves disseminating information on agricultural technologies and improved practices to farm families and ensuring farmers' capacity building through the use of variety of communication methods and training programmes. It is through education and communication that agricultural extension agents are able to bring about changes in farmers knowledge, attitude and skills which help to put farmers in a frame of mind that is conducive for adopting proven agricultural innovations.

In the current dispensation, the role of agricultural extension is more as a process of helping farmers to make their own decision by providing them a range of options in a given innovation from which they can chose, and by helping the farmers to develop insight   into the consequences of each option.

This rather important role of agricultural extension as expressed above is not properly performed in the rural communities of our developing countries – because of certain problems facing the service. The uniqueness of developing countries also determines the nature of some of these problems. An understanding of the nature of agricultural extension can help appreciate the problems better. Consequently, some basic characteristics of agricultural extension are highlighted below:

(a)   The control and direction of the activities of agricultural extension systems in developing countries are usually from top to bottom, with the professional extensionists at the operative level carrying out highly regimented activities.

(b)   The extension systems are typically entrenched as part of parastatal of the ministry of agriculture. They often exist as independent establishments, separate from agricultural research or teaching institutions and have few bureaucratic linkages with other agencies to facilitate the flow of technical information and research findings into the extension systems.

(c)   Professional development activities, training, motivation and support funds for agricultural extension workers are limited.

(d)   The systems are subject to intensive political control.

(e)   Agricultural extension workers in many developing countries are expected to perform a wide range of non-extension duties that include regulatory functions or enforcement of governmental rules and supply services.

3.2   Problems   of   Institutions   and   Infrastructural Communities

A myriad of problems are known to plague agriculture and rural development in developing countries. These problems vary with countries and communities because of the peculiarities of the various communities. However, a lot of problems are common to the different communities in developing countries because of the similar socio-economic milieu. Some of the problems but certainly not limited to these, are discussed below:

(a)   Inadequate and Instability of Funding

Rural community infrastructural development requires adequate funding to ensure successful service delivery. Rural development programmes are usually extensive in nature in terms of recurrent budget. Due to poor foreign exchange earnings and low domestic product of developing countries, they are unable to provide adequately the needed funds for development. The problem of inadequate funding many decades ago still persists till today. The trend of funding can even be described as erratic because of the irregular manner of funding in which some years witness good funding through assistance from international organisations and some years are characterised by gross under funding.

(b)   Poor Logistic Support for Field Staff

This has to do with the problem of planning and organisation that is needed to carry out large and difficult operation as an extension service. It also pertains to skill of moving personnel and supplying them with working materials. The major problem as far as logistics are concerned is transportation of people and materials meant for community development due to poor road network where services can be rendered on a daily basis. Mobility of field staff is vital in operating an efficient agricultural extension service.

(c)   Insufficient and Inappropriate Agro Technologies

The development of relevant agricultural technologies appropriate to farmers' needs in a country depends in part on the expertise of her agricultural scientists. The technical strength of agricultural scientists/researchers in the developed countries and the unit of sophisticated equipment availability are evident in the more complex and profitable techniques directed to farmers in those countries.

Most of the technological recommendations from researchers to extension officers in developing countries are not beneficial economically and not so appropriate for on-farm level application. Some of the innovations released to the agricultural extension system and most of those published in journals in the developing world do not directly meet farmer's needs and some are socially unacceptable technologies to the resource–poor farmers.

A lot of initiative and skill are then required on part of the extension workers to try some of the irrelevant technical practices in local conditions in order to adapt them to the traditional farming systems of the people and their circumstances. In this era, it is imperative that more sophisticated, more economically and socio-culturally acceptable

technologies be made available from research system for introduction to farmers in developing countries.

(d)   Dilution of Development Agents Specific Responsibility using the extension agent as a case study, it will be noted that a preponderance of non-extension agents in certain developing countries has been a bail of extension service delivery. In most cases, agricultural extension agents are saddled with the responsibility of writing applications for credit and subsidies for farmers, filling in many questionnaires and forms or data collection for headquarters, setting up and maintaining demonstration plots, and distributing supplies to farmers that require critical farm inputs.

The extension agents may be the only government officer operating at the local level and may be assigned various tasks such as helping to ensure that government rules and regulations on environmental issues, land use and proper use of rural infrastructure are enforced or adhered to. The implication of the inclusion of these other non-extension tasks in responsibility of agricultural extension agents is that very little time is left for meeting typical agricultural and rural development obligations for farmers. The dilution of the specific responsibility of extension agents will also affect the time left for the in-service training of this cadre of workers by subject matter specialists. They may be cruelled by circumstances to temporarily abandon the maintenance of on-farm small plot adaptation trials on farmer's fields in order to cope with the non-extension tasks given them. Rather than performing purely educational functions in the agricultural domain, the extension agents find themselves performing educational, regulatory and supply function. This is usually the case with development agents and agencies. Therefore, to ensure an effective agricultural extension system, it is important for change agent system to focus purely on assisting farmers with utilisation of improved farming practices while the work of input and credit supplies and those of enforcing government regulations are handled by other workers or organs charged with that responsibility.

(e)   Lack of Clientele Participation in Programmes

The management of agricultural extension systems in developing countries is such that agricultural programmes for farmers are planned by experts in an extension agency and decisions are taken by senior staff at the top who tend to be out of touch with local problems and the day to day difficulties facing the farmers and the extension agents. There is very little feed-back to programme planners and decision makers because extension supervisors and intermediate staff are reluctant to pass back information which might imply criticism of senior officer.

Those given the responsibility of programme planning and development hardly identify with farmers and their anxieties. In many developing countries, too little attention is paid to the understanding of farm-level realities. So, extension programmes are developed without diagnosis of the constraints of farming and rural development. In most cases, farmers who constitute extension clients are not involved in planning the extension programmes. Relying on only the reliability superficial observations of field officers or arm chain deductions and ready generalisation of programme planner is a mistake.

(f)   Instability of Rural and Agricultural Development Policy

Over the years of government presence in agricultural extension in Nigeria, policy institutional and programme instabilities have bedeviled its operation. The beginning of institutional backing for extension in Nigeria was in 1912 in which Southern and Northern Nigeria had departments of Agriculture and itinerant agricultural agents were used. This institutional beginning fell into embryonic stage of extension between 1893 and 1920, while 1921 – 1950 were characterised by the intervention period that saw the Second World War and less activity, but agricultural extension activities and training programme increased between late 1930s and mid 1940s. The period of "pupilage" in extension which covered 1952 to 1969 culminated in Federal Government involvement in extension with the establishment of Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources in 1964. This period witnessed a number of re-organisation: from the use of specific commodity extension, through farm settlement scheme strategy to Ministry-operated extension in the 1960s and 1970s, and later the use of National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP). There have been changes in policy that guide extension services and there were institutional changes leading to abrogation of previous programmes and the establishment of new institutions.

From 1976 to 1990, River Basin and Rural Development Authority operated extension service, then National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) operated extension services from 1991 – 2000. In the 1980s to 2004, the Training and Visit (T & V) era, there was the state–wide Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs) under which agricultural extension operates. This removed agricultural extension from the direct operations of state Ministries of Agriculture and Natural Resources and created state Agricultural Development Programmes and a unified agricultural extension system came into being in 1990.

The various extension programmes tied to different development schemes in the above historical brief, policy instabilities occurred such

that extension personnel had to adjust to the different policy shift, modification and reversals of extension policy thrust. These changes affected the entire programmes and consequent strategies negatively. There is therefore, an advocacy for a consistent rural and agricultural development to enhance development based on the felt needs of the people.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have attempted learning that agricultural extension is an institution designed principally to facilitate rural development in Nigeria.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Agricultural extension is a major tool for rural development in Nigeria.
- Rural development policy has been unstable.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define agricultural extension.
2. What roles does agricultural extension in Nigeria play in rural community development?
3. Identify some community infrastructural problems.
4. What in your opinion are the major causes of these problems?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S. F. (2006*). Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Ilorin: AESON Publication

**UNIT 2   CASE STUDIES OF COMMUNITY
                        DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA**

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Most definitions of the concept of development have not accounted for the basic ideas or concepts of development. They have concentrated attention on how to measure it. It is possible to see development as a matter of productivity not minding how productivity is measured. Productivity may be viewed as being limited to economics but extends to socio-political spheres as well. In economics for instance, productivity is defined as the capacity for the production of goods and services. In social relation, productivity implies the production of esteem and defence and in the political world; productivity refers to the increase and distribution of authority.

According to Dudley Seers, development is a normative concept with the aim of actualising the potential of human personality. To actualise this he identified three pre-conditions:

- an adequate income to purchase the physical necessities of life, (food, shelter and clothing)
- employment of meaningful productive role in society, and
- equality.

If all these three are becoming less severe, then development is said to be taking place. Important development criteria as emphasised by Seers (1972) are self-reliance and national independence.

Development may mean terminal condition on one hand, and on the other hand, it refers to a process of successive approximation where one arrives at an end-point. Development includes all changes a social system is subjected to when moving from a condition considered unsatisfactory to a condition that is comparatively better. This state of life according to Goulet (1977) has no regard for the wishes of the individuals and sub-systematic components of the system.

Development essentially is a continuous process of generating and efficiently allocating resources for achieving greater socially satisfying needs. This essentially comprises two interrelated components: increasing the available resources in a community and increasing the utility of those resources. Within the structure of national development, the special attention being paid to rural development evolved from early thoughts on the role of agriculture in industrialisation. Prominent theoreticians in economic and broader social science literatures have paid special attention to issues of agricultural and rural development and their interaction with industry and urban development.

Rural community development is a process by which a set of technical, social, cultural and institutional measures are implanted with and for the inhabitants of rural areas with the aim of improving their socio-economic conditions in order to achieve harmony and balance both on the regional and national levels. It can also be defined as the far reaching transformation of social and economic structures, institutions, relationships and process in any rural community. Ekong (1988) notes that rural community development is concerned with the economic aspects of rural community and lay more emphasis on integrated technical assistance from the government.

Community development is thus a conscious and deliberate effort oriented at helping communities recognise their needs, and to ensure increasing responsibilities for solving their problems thereby increasing their capacities to participate fully in the life of the nation. Community development is a process oriented and covers an array of activities. It laid emphasis on self-help by citizens and initiates a people-directed process which is based on their own perception of their needs. It is important to note that community development recognise the necessity for creating a rural community in a process that will utilise the existing social structures that will help create new organisation and institution when needed.

3.1   Rural Community Development in Perspective

The colonial office in Britain first conceived the idea of rural community development in 1920s. It was taken as a special development

model for the rural area of its dependent territories. Its main objectives were to compensate for the lapses of the conventional school system for progressive evolution of the people to self government in the context of social change and economic change. In pursuance of these goals, rural development centres were set up in some of the colonies where skills in house building, carpentry, shoe repairing and various handcrafts were taught. However, the programme objective faced some problems as the trained personnel refused to stay in the rural areas and instead went to the burgeoning city centres. Nonetheless, community development notion was pursued very vigorously in Gold Coast especially and it was here that national organisation on rural development and social welfare was fully developed.

Generally, development is brought about via certain programs. For these programs to realise their goals, there is a dive need for proper planning of such programs. Planning can be viewed as a conscious effort to use our resource and organisational abilities more efficiently through the use of basic principles and procedures. This varies with individual nations.

Having set the stage for the understanding concept of community development, it is time to discuss the same rural development approaches in Nigeria and other developing countries.

Rural Development Programmes in Nigeria

Successive Nigeria governments have made concerted efforts towards the development of rural communities in Nigeria. This is because the various leaders believed that in order to achieve any meaningful development, the rural sector and in fact, the rural people, must be empowered. Rural community development has been defined as any effort targeted at the improvement of rural economy such that the socio-economic status of the rural dwellers can be enhanced. A few examples of rural development programmes in Nigeria are discussed below:

3.1.1 National Accelerated Food Production (NAFP)

This project was launched in 1973 as a national network of agro-service centres created to facilitate the distribution of tractors and machinery services to farmers to support the promotion of improved packages of technology development by various research institutes under the NAFPP. The original policy intention is to put these centres in the mainstream of rural development plans.

3.1.2 People's Bank and Community Banks

This was Federal Government policy to liberalise access to credit by the poor in 1989. The operation of the people's Bank faced a number of problems like any community development efforts, among which are the unsustainable rate of branch expansion, the dependence on government for funds and weak management as a result of which its effectiveness in alleviating the problems of the poor remains insignificant. Even so, the peoples' Bank is no more.

As a result of government continued effort, the peoples' Bank was merged with the Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB) to form the Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB).

The establishment of community banks was intended to inculcate the banking habit in rural areas and providing needed banking services to members of their community. Although, the community banks can be said to have recorded some successes, it will be fool hardy to believe that it has actually improved the living standards of the rural poor who are supposed to be the target group. For instance, most of those that benefited from the community banks are businessmen with medium scale business enterprises. The poor with no collateral and adequate deposit base were largely unable to meet their credit needs from these banks. Apart from this, a large number of these banks are located in the urban areas and most of their services are directed to the urban with less credit risks.

3.1.3 Better Life Programme

This is yet another programme for rural community development in Nigeria. It was established in 1987 with a view to empowering women and the development of the rural areas. It was to ensure good environmental condition such as recreational centres for optimum performance. It transformed to Family Support Programme with the same intention or objective of encouraging rural dwellers and especially women to improve their standard of living. Through this programme, the success noticed and desires to improve living standards were plausible. The programme, however, suffered the same fate like others as political powers change from one person to another.

The major concern of the Better Life Programme is improving the lives of rural women within the communities which constitute the largest and most exploited group of the total rural population. It is the binding force for most of the ambitious projects and programs which the administration has set in motion. The Better Life Programme recognised

the consensus of the large population of women as rural dwellers which constitute majority of our labour force. These women work as mothers and wives as well as true bread winners engaged in trading and farming.

The objectives of Better Life Programme were:

(i)   To promote the welfare and full utilisation of women in human resources development along with the promotion of responsible motherhood.
(ii)   To stimulate action aimed at improving the political, cultural, social and economic status of women as well as support non-governmental organisations.
(iii)   To provide modern amenities like those enjoyed in the towns, it was hoped that rural communities could be made attractive. The development of small scale industries and introduce new technology. This is to reduce the problem of employment in the rural areas.
(iv)   To formulate and propagate the moral values within the family units.
(v)   To promote the interest of women in the social front to ensure that, they are not relegated to the background.
(vi)   To improve the home life and general status of women in rural communities.
(vii)   To encourage cooperative activities among women while also working towards the total elimination of all social and cultural values which discriminate against and dehumanised womanhood.
(viii) To encourage acquisition of skills, knowledge and positive effect in agriculture, house management, health education, industrial sectors and cooperative societies.

Better Life Programme played important roles in Nigeria's women and economy. As the women started this programme, there were changes in their standard of living and also it raised their social status.
Generally, Better Life Programme aimed at human development through the encouragement of optimal resource management and which generally works with women as its audience would seem to have relevance to women's lives.

3.1.4 Family Support Programme (FSP)

FSP was given birth to when the Babangida administration was toppled by General Abacha. The Better Life Programme being the brain child of Mrs. Babangida naturally died and was replaced by FSP, chaired by Mrs. Abacha.

The FSP focused on the status and welfare of children especially in rural communities. The programme aimed at improving the experience of women in development programme. This was mainly done by broadening its scope and sharpening its focus. The overall aim of the FSP was to improve and sustain the family cohesion through the promotion of social and economic well being of the Nigerian family for its maximum contribution to national development and to promote policies/programs that strengthen the observance and projection of human rights, the advancement of social justice and human dignity. The specific objectives of FSP were:

(i)   To promote decent health care delivery in reducing maternal and child mortality and morbidity through improved health care system.

(ii)   To eradicate negative social and cultural factors affecting women and children.

(iii)   To assist families identify economically viable enterprises for income generation, and to provide technical and financial support for their implementation.

(iv)   To assist families increase their agricultural productivity as well as improving their internal status.

(v)   To carry the public enlightenment campaign to sensitise the general public on matters of human decency, civic responsibilities and concern for the welfare of the disadvantaged.

(vi)   To establish a family round-table for promotion of discipline, morality and family cohesion through projects such as girl child scheme; the boy-drop-out and the children in distress.

(vii)   To enhance the capacity of parents to act as role models to their children through various means including guidance and counselling.

(viii) To help family members learn more about the psychological dynamics of families as units on which more effective social organisation and responsibilities can emerge.

(ix)   To create, arouse and sustain the interest of government, the Nigerian people and international organisations on the activities of FSP.

(x)   To sensitise government on the need to provide adequate shelter for all Nigerians.

(xi)   To promote the maintenance of high moral standards of the nation as well as responsive action against policies and trends, both foreign and local, that may militate against such standards.

(xii)   To promote and improve on the welfare of the most vulnerable and disadvantaged groups in the community.

(xiii) To carry the public enlightenment campaigns to sensitise the general public on matters of human decency, civil responsibility and concern for welfare of the disadvantaged.

3.1.5 Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI)

DFRRI was established in 1986 with a determined focus on the development of the entire rural areas of Nigeria in order to improve the quality of life of the rural dwellers. It was charged with a mandate of rural infrastructural development in the areas of feeder, roads construction to open up the rural areas. Emphases were also placed on how to add value to food production, so storage facilitates and other post harvest processing facilities were provided.

DFRRI recorded successes as the rural areas bubbled back to life with cottage industries springing up on the heels of rural electrification; the rural people could diversify their business venture from mainly turning to rendering services which was able to resolve the human sense of dignity. In 1994, however, DFRRI with its attendant benefits also went the way of other development institution already discussed. There are several other rural development programmes in Nigeria as each administration has a different approach towards rural development but the common feature to all these initiatives is that inconsistency occasioned by unstable polity.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have learned about definite cases of rural development efforts; and that the reasons for their proliferation in Nigeria vary with objectives and benefits.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Rural development programmes were duplicated mainly because of unstable polity.
- None of these have actually met the needs of Nigeria as their life span was as long as the regime that introduced it.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Give 3 examples of rural development programs in Nigeria.
2.   What are the objectives of Better Life Programme in Nigeria?
3.   How were these objectives achieved?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S. F. (2006). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Ilorin: AESON Publication.

UNIT 3   CASE STUDIES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENTS IN OTHER DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
           3.1   The Gezira Scheme in Sudan
           3.2   The Ujama'a in Tanzania
           3.3   The Animation Rural in Côte d'Ivoire
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The word system is actually intertwined, implying that every part depends on another to make progress through information exchange. In order to compare rural development activities elsewhere in the developing nations, few case studies have been reviewed. This is to help in the cross fertilisation of ideas, as well as to observe how those countries have failed. It is hoped that as these reviews are done, you will be able to identify strength and weakness of those country's approaches so that you can explain why your country's system have made the kind of progress being experimented so far.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   discuss the Gezria scheme in Sudan
•   discuss the Ujama'a Vijinjini in Tanzania
•   discuss the Animation Rurale in Côte d'Ivoire
•   identify at least a few development models in other parts of the world.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Gezira Scheme in Sudan

The Gezira is probably the earliest rural development project. The idea was conceived before World War I, although the beginning of the scheme proper was not until 1926. It was also the largest scheme of its kind in Africa by 1982. Also, the technical or engineering side seemed basically quite simple.

The idea was to supply irrigation to the Gezira plain, which lies immediately to the South of Khartoum between the white and blue Niles. This was done by constructing a dam on the Blue Nile upstream from the plain so that water could be taken from it to irrigate a huge area by gravitation. Another important feature on the physical side was the fact that the soils were particularly suitable, being fertile and not liable to much leaching so that the canals did not need expensive thing and relatively easy to drain.

A tripartite agreement was set up between the people who owned the land, the government and a commercial company which was established specifically to help man the project and profit thereby. Ownership remained in the hands of the people, but the government hired the land, initially for a period of 40, and paid rent, although the areas required for canals, buildings etc. were brought outright. The whole system of land use was transformed into a single, efficient, irrigation system divided into regular, rectangular tenancies, of almost 12 hectares each. The owners of the land were then allowed to take up these tenancies. The tenants in addition to producing their own food; were to grow cotton, which was intended to generate the cash profits to be shared between the three parties of the agreement.

However, Gezira has not been without its critics, despite its boldness, its suspicious beginnings, its apparent economic and social soundness and its longevity. There are extensive hiring of labour by tenants heavy and continued indebtedness, unapproved irrigation methods and unequal access to water. The incomes of tenants are apparently not higher than incomes outside the scheme too. The problems seem to be mainly associated with the built-in rigidity and the organisation. The scheme failed to provide conditions necessary for a continuing improvement.

3.2   Ujama'a in Tanzania

The ultimate aim of rural development policy in Tanzania has been to fashion a rural society and economy based on villages, which would

engage in communal production with the common ownership of resources, particularly land.

The concept underlying the ideology of Tanzania development goes by the Swahili name 'Ujama'a', which literally means 'familyhood'. Ujama'a is a particular type of socialism that attempts to harness the tendencies towards communal living already existing in African rural society, especially in the extended family. These tendencies include common ownership of land, obligation to help those in need, communal labour and an egalitarian attitude towards the rights of the individual.

Conversely, the Tanzania strategy seeks to inhibit or reverse the momentum of growing economic and social inequality which is likely to arise, especially where land is relatively scarce. The main material advantage of the Ujama'a villages lies in the possibility of reducing the cost of providing services such as water supply, credit, medicine, education, extension and transport. Coercion of peasants to move to villages was widespread. Participation in communal farming was law. There was most marked resistance to being moved to villages in those regions where commercial crops were important and which were relatively well-off.

3.3   Animation Rurale in Côte d'Ivoire

This strategy was most pronounced in the Francophone African countries (e.g., Côte d'Ivoire). Embarked upon in the early sixties, animation rurale has as its aim the spread of new methods to farmers. Côte d'Ivoire is a region which explains the typically African condition of relative land abundance, and farming system based on shifting cultivation.

The most outstanding feature of animation rurale was its attempt to induce farmers, in effect, to motivate themselves. The organisation of the programme was concerted by government and its agents and was based on research into better farming methods, but the idea of imposing advanced techniques farm above on 'backward' farmers was ruled out from the beginning.

The strategy started by the study of rural condition as they already were trying to discover what improvements might be feasible under those conditions.

Strictly, the term animation rurale only applied to the technique of making the rural community receptive to change by instructing, and generally arousing the interest of particular farmers – amateurs – selected by the villages themselves; the actual communication of new

techniques to the villages was considered as something separate, i.e. extension proper.   But in practice the distinction was blurred for obvious reason that farmers would not have been 'animated' by new techniques unless those techniques were seen to be clearly advantageous.

Thus the foundation of the programme was laid in the research done and in the sound altitude to research before animation rurale proper was begun. This included:

(a)   socio-economic survey carried out in a pilot survey.
(b)   commencement of development programmes with villagers; consisting of:

        (i)   introduction of short-duration alien cotton
        (ii)   the regrouping of fields into blocks, and
        (iii)   integration of animal husbandry with cultivation.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have been able to learn other African countries' development model. You have discovered that their development models are location specific consistent with their socio-cultural milieu.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt about the:

•   Gezira scheme in Sudan as their earliest rural development efforts around Africa.
•   That the Ujama'a system was aimed at fashioning rural economy based on villages.
•   Animation rurale was intended principally to diffuse farming methods to farmers and cropping system based on shifting cultivation.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is the idea behind the Gazira scheme?
2.   What prompted the establishment of the Ujama'a villages?
3.   Compare and contrast the Ujama'a system and Animation–Rurale.

6.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S.F. (2006). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria.* Ilorin: AESON Publication.

UNIT 4   THE FUTURE OF RURAL COMMUNITIES IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
      3.1   External Intervention
      3.2   Organising Rural Development
          3.2.1   Basic Indications of Rural Development
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   Reference/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The rural communities in Nigeria are basically referred to as agrarian societies - where the bulk of the nation's food supplies originates, this consequently houses all raw materials for industrial development. With these attendant rewards in rural communities, it is only rational to worry about its future.

The future of rural communities in developing countries will depend to a large extent on the political leaders in those countries including Nigeria to make both concerted and conscious efforts to mobilise enough courage to solve the problems facing it.

The possibility that agricultural extension will thrive in Nigeria in this 21st century is also dependent on efforts geared towards making the service to be more effective through the relevance of its contact to rural dwellers (farmers) alternative sustainable financing option, well trained and adequate staffing in the extension service to be able to cope with population of farmers and the use of participatory approach under stable policy and sustainable institutional arrangement.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- state the future of rural communities
- list and explain intervention policies that are beneficial to these communities
- organise rural developments
- identify some basic indication of progress.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   External Intervention

It is expected that in the years to come, most government policies will push aggressively to cut public expenditure and there will be a tendency to privatise extension service. The extent of this push will depend ultimately on the definition of the role of public agricultural extension in national or even rural development.

In the interim, however, it may be possible to exclude non-payers, particularly where the extension service covers techniques which cannot be directly copied by neighbouring farmers or market information which can be concealed or which is quickly outdated. In such cases, rural development information is likely to become a public good through diffusion via individual members of the community. The problem can be overcome by encouraging farmer associations which through membership fees are able to recover the costs of extension information. Where farming practices are more commercialised, the corresponding agricultural extension services needed to support these activities also become client and situation specific. Under such conditions, agricultural extension is a toll good and amendable to private provision and user charges. It is noteworthy that where agricultural extension involves technology that is non-excludable or can be easily replicated, there will be limited incentives for private supply and agricultural extension can be considered a common poor good.

A possibility that can occur in the future is that private agricultural extension provision that will emerge in some developing countries will be those that are highly specialised and client-specific, and those involved with the sale of physical inputs. In some developing countries, government would be able to withdraw from public financing of agricultural and rural development services in some areas that would be adequately serviced by commercial bodies.

However, the public good nature of agricultural extension services would tend to be the major factor limiting privatisation and justifying continued government support. There will always remain development issues requiring public extension such as promotion of crop varieties, animal breeds, cropping practices, livestock husbandry, natural resource management, and environmental protection questions. Public support for agricultural extension will also be justified because benefits from agricultural extension flow directly to producers via increased profits and indirectly to consumers via long term tradable commodity prices decreases resulting from technical change. All of these contentions

regarding the future of agricultural and rural development will hold in poorer countries with greater force in some instances.

Another prospect of agricultural and rural development is the likely emergence of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) that will be willing to provide extension services in poor communities as an agricultural development aid. It is likely that information delivery could become a tool for market competition that will be used by private extension providers. In this context, it is also plausible that NGOs, agricultural cooperatives, farmers' associations, and chambers, of agriculture and commerce will be more active in providing agricultural extension services for the benefit of their members. It will be necessary in the future to re-evaluate the role of the state in the adoption and dissemination of agricultural innovations.

3.2   Organising Rural Development

Nigeria has a land area of $924,000km^2$, 80% of which is suitable for agriculture which is the economic mainstay of the rural populace. The land is served by an enviable net-work of water resources and five distinct agro-ecological zones. What this connotes is that nature has already provided for self sufficiency and swift development agriculturally and indeed in all sectors.

It is evident that a web of complex technical, managerial and political problems has constrained the rural community's ability to convert this potential to a veritable instrument of economic empowerment.

The agricultural sector in periods after independence has performed creditably in making the required contribution to national development. However, over the years, the sector has witnessed a decline in its contribution to national development. Development economists have attributed the present economic level of development in Nigeria and of course the rural areas to the poor performance of the agricultural sector as result of neglect on discovering oil; inconsistent and unfocused rural development policies. Since the oil boom period (1972–1975), agriculture's contribution to national development has been erratic (about N24.4b to N27.85 between 1981 and 1955) growth rate of 3.24% and between 1990 and 1999 N35.28b and N47.95b contribution respectively were recorded putting the growth rate at 2.31%. This is so because Nigeria has a myriad of constraints militating against its development efforts. Principal among these constraints is the top sided perspective from which rural and agricultural development is viewed. All along, rural development problems/efforts have been viewed from the population aspect; it should also be reorganised and refocused to view development from the market price point of view.

The small-scale farmers dominate the agricultural production landscape and produces about 85% of the total production. These resources poor farmers are also characterised by strong dependence on agricultural labour market. Little forms of savings or storage facilities and cultural practices adopted are highly labour intensive.

3.2.1 Basic Innovations of Rural Development

Development is always perceived with a positive connection. It signifies advancement and progress, shifting from the existing state of affairs to a more positive, effective and efficient one. Rural development is greatly influenced by the socio-cultural and economic environments. However, the common denominator for environments is that, they all require further developmental activities. The reasons for the obvious absence of development in the rural-agricultural sectors are already known, what is left now is the political commitment to the development the basic indicators of rural progress which can be classified into five major innovations:

A. Infrastructure

(i)   Roads
(ii)   Market
(iii)   Water supply
(iv)   Health
(v)   Electricity

B. Housing

(i)   Type of houses
(ii)   Convenience
(iii)   Kitchen
(iv)   Rooming system

C. Education

(i)   Levels
(ii)   Ownership (private/public)
(iii)   Teacher – student ratio
(iv)   Facilities
(v)   Other infrastructures

D.   Other social and economic facilities like halls, post office, police post, bank, telephone facilities, etc.

E.   Level of industrialisation in term of the number of cottage industries, availability of economically active individuals and the main mode of transportation.

If the rural development plan is arranged in this way, progress will be recorded appreciably within a short period of time.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have attempted to learn about the future of rural communities in Nigeria, by analysing the present situation.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt that:

- This future of rural Nigeria should be guaranteed since about 85 percent of this food needs are provided here.
- There has been government and external intervention to help rural development.
- Rural development plan is organised and followed naturally, with commitment from the people concurrently, it will be possible to transform the rural communities.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Why do you think that future of rural communities should be safe guarded?
2.   Identify some external interventions of rural community development.

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adebayo, R. & Okuneye, P. A. (2006). "Economics of Agricultural Extension". In: *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria.* Ilorin: AESON Publication.