



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

COURSE CODE :AEM 411

**COURSE TITLE:
SOCIAL RELATIONSHIP AND BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE**

**COURSE
GUIDE**

**AEM 411
SOCIAL RELATIONSHIP AND BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE**

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Published By:
National Open University of Nigeria

First Printed 2009

ISBN: 978-058-799-3

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Printed by:

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Introduction

Social Relationship and Behavioural Change, is a fourth year three (3) credit unit degree course available to all students offering Bachelor of

Science (B.Sc.) Agriculture. It maybe taken by students who wish to know more about agriculture or agricultural extension.

Social Relationship and Behavioural Change (AEM 411) is a formal instruction in the science and art of agricultural extension and rural sociology in organised institutions of learning. It is aimed at assisting farmers to help themselves by developing wholesome relationships with the extension workers. In global definition AEM 411 refers to how the relationships in a social system results in the change in behaviour of the clientele by which they can accept change to improve their agricultural production and living standard. The course exposes and educates the youths of the tremendous opportunity in agro-business and to vast store of knowledge available for anyone contemplating big time agricultural farming.

What You Will Learn in this Course

The course consists of modules which are subdivided in units. This Course Guide tells you briefly what the course is all about, what course materials you will be using and in addition, it suggests some 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 you guidance in respect of your Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) which will be made available in the assignment file. There 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 agricultural education.

Course Aims

This course aims to provide an understanding, appreciation and feelings for the benefits of new research findings and how the research findings are communicated to the farmers in a social relationship with an ultimate goal of reducing resistance by the target group towards the emerging technologies or innovations.

Course Objectives

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 those objectives before you study the unit. You may wish to refer to them during your study of 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 have achieved the aims of the course as a whole. After going through this course, you should be able to:

1. explain the levels or stages at which interaction takes place in the social system
2. appreciate the concept of theories on social relationship and behavioural change in agriculture
3. appreciate the nature and measurements of social change
4. explain group dynamics and communication patterns in agriculture
5. plan the strategies for introducing change in agriculture
6. identify the hindrances to agricultural change
7. appreciate the concept of extension communication and adoption process
8. explain the basic communication process
9. state the factors affecting adoption of new technologies.

Working through the Course

To complete this course, you are required to read each study unit of this study material and read other materials which may be provided by the National Open University of Nigeria. Each unit contains self assessment exercises for this course and at certain points in the course you would be required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. At the end of the course, there is a final examination. The course should take about a total of 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 and successfully. I would advise that you avail yourself the opportunity of attending the tutorial sessions where you have the opportunity of comparing knowledge with peers.

Course Materials

The main components of the course are:

- 2.0 The Course Guide
- 3.0 Study Units
- 4.0 References
- 5.0 Assignments
- 6.0 Presentation Schedule

Study Units

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

Module 1 Introduction

- Unit 1 Social Interaction
- Unit 2 Human Behaviour
- Unit 3 Solving Problems in the System
- Unit 4 Social System Theory

Module 2 Theoretical Models of Social Relationship and Behavioural Change

- Unit 1 Theories of Social Relationship
- Unit 2 Theories of Behavioural Change
- Unit 3 Stages of Social Development

Module 3 Social Change

- Unit 1 Behavioural Change
- Unit 2 Nature and Measurement of Social Change
- Unit 3 Indicators of Social Change
- Unit 4 Rural Culture in Social Change

Module 4 Group Dynamics and Social Change

- Unit 1 Group Dynamics and Communication Pattern
- Unit 2 Factors Affecting Dynamics among Group
- Unit 3 Factors Affecting Group Participation
- Unit 4 Roles of Members in Group Dynamics

Module 5 Introducing Change

- Unit 1 Strategies for Introducing Change (1)
- Unit 2 Strategies for Introducing Change (2)
- Unit 3 Resistance to Change
- Unit 4 Hindrances to Agricultural Change

Module 6 Extension Communication and Adoption Process

- Unit 1 The Concept of Extension Communication
- Unit 2 Basic Communication Process
- Unit 3 The Adoption Process

The first module focuses on the objectives, philosophical background of social interaction and human behaviour particularly in devising solutions to the problems of social system.

Module two discusses the theoretical models in social relationship and behavioural change and the various stages that change has undergone for social development.

Module three has its focus on what is behavioural change. In this module you will be acquainted with the nature and measurement of social change and the general indicators of social change. You will also learn about how rural cultural influences change in a social system.

In module four you will be intimated with group dynamics and communication pattern in extension. Factors affecting group dynamics and group participation also the roles of members in group dynamics will be elucidated in the module.

Module five focuses on the strategies for introducing change, since if a change must be effectively introduced to the target group certain strategies must be adopted. In this module also you will study the reasons why people resist change and how you as an extension worker can help to reduce resistance to change.

Module six which is the last module contains units that focus on the concept of extension communication and communication process. The units are intended to enable you make effective communication of technology to the target group, the farmers and what you can do to assist the people to adopt such technology. You will equally be acquainted with the adoption categories and the characteristics of each category in this module.

Each unit consists of one to two weeks work and includes an introduction, objectives, reading materials, exercises, conclusion, summary, tutor-marked assignment (TMA), references and other resources. The unit direct you to work on exercises related to the required reading. In general, this exercise questions you on the material you have just covered. Together with 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. 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 are self-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 four (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 and 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' duration 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 between finishing the last unit and sitting for the examination to revise the whole course. You might find it useful to review your self-test, 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 assignment, 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

- 1) In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the greatest 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 readings 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 content 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 – 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 assignment.
- 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).

Facilitator/Tutor and Tutorials

There are 14 hours of tutorial provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, time 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 provided 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:

10. you do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings
11. you have difficulty with the self-test or exercises
12. 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

Social Relationship and Behavioural Change is a course that intends to provide you with the concept extension communication process. Upon completing this course, you will be equipped with the basic knowledge of the nature, scope, tasks of the extension worker, principles and concepts of social relationship, human behaviour, communication and adoption process. 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:

13. What does social relationship mean?
14. What is behavioural change?
15. Give examples of the nature of social change.
16. Discuss the importance of group dynamics.
17. Of what significance is the measurement of social change?
18. Identify the various strategies for introducing change in agricultural communication.
19. Discuss why people resist change in agriculture.
20. Explain the basic elements of communication process.
21. Discuss the factors affecting the adoption of new technologies.

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 both interesting and useful.

Wishing you the best of luck!

MAIN COURSE

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MODULE 1 INTRODUCTION

Unit 1	Social Interaction
Unit 2	Human Behaviour
Unit 3	Solving Problems in the System
Unit 4	Social System Theory

UNIT 1 SOCIAL INTERACTION**CONTENTS**

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2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
	3.1 Concept of Social Role
	3.2 Interaction at the Primary Groups
	3.3 Interaction at the Secondary Groups
	3.4 Outside Cultural Influences
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading
1.0	INTRODUCTION

No person is an island on his own, one's happiness lies among other things, on the day to day interaction with others. It could be in communicating with others or carrying one form of activity or the other with other persons. You will learn in this unit the ways through which one person gets interactive with others. You will understand that for any development, either personal or national, interaction with one another becomes germane and this pertinence ensures social relationship.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of social role as it differs from social status
- explain the levels or stages at which interaction takes place in the social system
- mention the agents involved at each level of interaction.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Concept of Social Role

The way in which the developing person learns to behave in his cultural group has been explained by the terms “status” and “role”. The term status refers to the position which the person occupies in the social group while the term role means the behaviour which is expected of him as a person of that particular status. The person may play many different roles depending on the different statuses he occupies in the society. Some roles, as specified by the community for assignment, can be gender or age sensitive.

In a society some statuses are bestowed on the individuals and are known as ascribed statuses while some others are achieved through the individual's efforts and those are known as achieved statuses. Don't forget that each status dictates the roles for the individual occupying it.

You should also note that appropriate forms of behaviour are also laid down to suit different social occasions. For instance, the forms of behaviour to be exhibited at a formal meeting, say, in a church, will be different from that of football match.

The concept of social role, according to Ottaway (1978) can be extended to group membership of all kinds. The implication is that, even the small group has its local culture which assigns the behaviour expected of its members. In this regard, it could be found that some members of a particular group behave in a way different from those who are not members of the group.

It may be said for a growing child for example, that as his social interaction increases, the child begins to learn his role in different groups and so imbibe the varied ways of behaviour and attitude which are expected of him.

3.2 Interaction at the Primary Groups

The primary group of individual is made up of his immediate family, that is, his parent and siblings. It also includes the friends he makes, his play group in the neighbourhood or at school. The interaction with each of this sub units of the primary group may not be in the same way, for instance, the imbibing of the culture and ways of doing things in the acceptable way by the society, to that of the gangs he has as companion where all kinds of behaviours are exhibited, some are acceptable while some are not.

3.3 Interaction at the Secondary Group

Interaction at the secondary group takes the form of all social relationship of the individual with the local community groups, work groups, school, church or mosque, the club he belongs and centres of relaxation among others.

The individual for instance, participates in the activities organised by his local community, either those activities intended for the development of the community or those that are social, such as observance of festivals by which he is exposed in varying degrees to the outside cultural influences which operate upon him. The individual also socially relate with his co-workers at work place, since a work place is made up of a network of activities and hence interaction with one another. So also, at the church or mosque level or with the club or other association the individual belongs to, interaction with others is unavoidable.

As one lives therefore, through live one's way of doing things, his behaviour and other innate characteristics become moulded by the different experiences he is disposed to.

3.4 Outside Cultural Influences

The most important influences external to the small group, but which impinge on all members of the community in some way, are the mass media of communication (Ottaway 1978). These consist of the cinema, radio, television, newspapers and magazines. All these media reflect the culture of the society in which we live. These cultural reflections are the features of the individual's life; his interests and tastes which are being broadcast more and more widely for all to see and hear. So, what the individuals accept as suitable for their happiness and leisure is being given.

Government policies, as they affect the economy, health and welfare of her citizens are other outside factors that influence the individuals. This is because, government policies, to a large extent, determine to what extent the family is maintained and how the community is satisfied with developments.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention five statuses in the Nigerian Society.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have explained the difference between social status and social role. While status is the position being occupied in the social group, social role is the expected behaviour of the occupant of the position, social status has been studied to either be ascribed or achieved. We also learnt that interaction between individuals in the society are at the primary group, secondary group and the influences of the outside cultural group as typified by the media and government policies.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- social status is the position one occupies in the social group
- social role is the expected behaviour of the individual occupying a social status
- interaction between individuals and the social group takes place within the primary group, the secondary group and the outside cultural influences
- the primary group is represented by the immediate family and the neighbourhood
- the primary group is typified by the club one belongs to, the school, church or mosque
- the outside cultural influence is concerned with the media and government policies.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Differentiate between social status and social role.
2. Discuss interaction at the primary group.
3. Explain the agents of interaction referred to as outside cultural influences.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ottaway, A. K.C. (1978). *Education and Society. An Introduction to the Sociology of Education*. New York: Routledge & Kegan Paul The Humanities Press. Pp 145-166.

UNIT 2 HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Personality
 - 3.1.1 Types of Personality
 - 3.2 Motivated Behaviour
 - 3.2.1 Physiological Factors
 - 3.2.2 External Factors
 - 3.2.3 Internal Factors (Psychological Factors)
 - 3.3 Learning Behaviour
 - 3.3.1 Intrinsic Motivation
 - 3.3.2 Extrinsic Motivation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Human behaviour is full of complexities. These complexities arise from the nature of the individual innate tendencies predicated on hereditary and learned qualities. For instance, how does one explain the differences in the behaviour, attitude and mental abilities of an identified twin and even of other children of the same parents. Among such children, some can be bright while others are dull, some could be introverts while others are extroverts, some could be mentally gifted while other ones are not just to mention a few among the lot where differences are expressed.

From the above, it becomes clearer why some people behave in a particular way. You may no longer find it strange that, as you are receiving this lecture or going through this course, given the fact that you are being exposed to the same learning facility and learning environment, your disposition (your feeling) to the course and your eventual performance in the examination may not be the same.

You would need to ask the question, therefore, why is it so? Why am I behaving the way I am? Why is Dupe a flirt and Amina is not? Why is Chinedu so vocal while Ibrahim is not? This unit is set to let you learn about human behaviour particularly why people behave the way they do.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain human personality
- discuss the factors responsible for human motivation
- explain how learning takes place.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Personality

We often get the meaning of the word personality misconstrued in our every day speech to mean extent to which a person impresses or attracts other people. So it is not strange to hear people say “Mr. Odunze is a man of high personality” just because of his position, wealth or political influence. In the study of human behaviour (psychology) however, personality refers to the whole of a person’s outstanding characteristics, his abilities, his emotional and social fruits, his interests and attitudes (Lovell 1978).

The term personality is frequently interchangeably used with other terms such as temperament and character, while temperament refers to the innate bases of personality, such as natural tendencies and organic drives or other physiological causes which affect a persons behaviour to traits such as honest, reliable, truthful or their lack. One’s personality is determined by the interaction between the inherent traits of the individual and the forces in the environment (ante-natal and outside) from the conception to birth and to maturity. The ante-natal environment is made up of what nutrition the mother is exposed to, what drug is the mother subjected to, what illness does the mother suffer from and what stress does she undergo. On the other hand, outside environment refers to what happens after birth, how is the child brought up by the parents, the prevailing attitudes, ideas and the effect of peer group, the school, the neighbourhood and the culture of the society he grows up. All these forces summed up to influence the personality of the individual. For instance, a child who grows in a hostile environment may develop a hostile attitude towards other persons as adults. Just as a child who suffers at conception from the mother’s use of over dosage drugs may grow to become mentally retarded or become a weakling.

3.1.1 Types of Personality

There have been some attempts to divide people into types based on physical or psychological characteristics exhibited by them. These include:

- (i) **Extroverts and Introverts:** Extroverts are persons who likes to spend time in activities with other people rather than in attending to his own thoughts and feelings (Protector 1984) while introverts are unsociable and have the opposite qualities of the extroverts.
- (ii) **Schizothymes:** These are people who in their characteristics, are inflexible, suspicious and secretive (Lovell, 1978).
- (iii) **Cyclothymiacs:** These are people who are easy going, who are acceptable, generous and not easily provoked or arrogant.
- (iv) **Asthenic and Pyknic body:** The personality of people is linked with the structure of their body. Asthenic refers to the body form of thin and tall while pyknic concerns with the body-build of short and fat (Lovell op cit). Based on this, three types of body-build are linked with three personality types. These are:
 - (a) **Fat people:** they are sociable and love comfort
 - (b) **Body and Muscular:** They are energetic and assertive with a liking for muscular activity.
 - (c) **Thin people:** They are withdrawn and have a liking for mental activity (Parnel, 19580).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Distinguish between Extroverts and Introverts.

3.2 Motivated Behaviour

No action can take place without being motivated, why do people behave the way they do? The motives behind actions can be traced to emotions. All our emotional experiences (Bootzin et. al. 1986) have either a positive quality or a negative quality. For instance, we do one thing to get reward and avoid doing other one to escape punishment. Any action that is taken to reach a goal is called motivated behaviour. Motivated behaviour occurs for example, when a student reads hard in order to pass an examination, or when a farmer adopts innovations in order to increase his productivity. In all motivated behaviour three factors are identified, namely physiological factors, external factors and internal factors.

3.2.1 Physiological Factors

In response to the satisfaction of some physiological needs, certain actions are taken or certain behaviour are exhibited. The related physiological needs are hunger, thirst, need to excrete out the waste from the bowels, sexual urge among others propels us to take actions such as seeking food or water, go to the toilet or seek for sexual partner

in order to satisfy these needs respectively. In the process, observable or unobservable behaviour may be exhibited.

3.2.2 External Factors

In the most basic biologically motivated behaviour, organisms also respond to external motivational stimuli in the form of certain cues in the environment. For example, we may not be hungry ordinarily but the sight of a delicious meal, say; pounded yam with egusi soup and dry fish or bush meat that is well prepared can stimulate in us hunger that could make us to go after the meal. Or we as men may not feel erotic to desire for sex, but the sight of an attractive lady could stimulate the sexual urge. In both examples, what initiates our behaviour was external (found in the environment). External factor or external incentive is in fact the goal being sought to be achieved. Goals have propelling force which thus, triggers off some actions.

3.2.3 Internal Factors (Psychological Factors)

When motivated behaviour is predicated on internal motives which is also referred to as psychological factors it is classified as internal factors. For example the desire to be recognised, to be loved, to be taken care of, to be appreciated or complemented or the desire for independence are all psychological and they direct the path of our behaviour at a particular point. No one for instance, wants to be shouted down or disgraced in the public so that one's esteem is not in any way hurt. When you see a lady and pass a comment such as "Wao! You are beautiful", it gives assurance to the lady's personality and her ego is thereby boosted.

3.3 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The two classes of motivation are the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

3.3.1 Intrinsic Motivation

This refers to the behaviour that is undertaken because of long-term goals or an individual's established preferences is considered to be intrinsically motivated. A student who naturally like reading literature books already develop the intrinsic motivation for reading and he can not suffer any pain when given an assignment, may be, to finish reading a novel at a given time. Intrinsic motivated behaviour does not occur because a goal is being expected to be achieved, one may say goal or no goal, the behaviour would be exhibited.

3.3.2 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation refers to the behaviour that is undertaken because of some external reward. Behaviour that is extrinsically motivated depends upon the external conditions that support it. Extrinsically motivated behaviour therefore persists only as long as external rewards and punishment continue (Bootzin *et. al.* 1986). When a student reads hard in order to obtain a degree when the degree is out of the way, the students terminates reading hard.

However, most of our daily behaviour is a mixture of both kinds of motivation. When we go to the university, as we are now, it has extrinsic and intrinsic value, but the degree in view is the reward. This reward gives impetus to the daily efforts given to assignments.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this unit that no action takes place without being motivated. A motivated behaviour is any action taken to reach a goal. We also learnt that personality refers to the whole of a person's outstanding characteristics, his abilities, his interests, his emotional and social traits. Therefore, one's personality and behaviour to a large extent determine wholeness of one's entity.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- the term personality is often being interchangeably used with other terms such as temperament, and character
- three factors, namely, physiological, external and internal are identified in all motivated behaviour
- motivation is either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the personality types that are linked to the body-build.
2. Differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Richard, R. Bootzin; Bower, G. H.; Zajonc, R. B. and Hall, E. (1986). *Psychological Today: An Introduction* (6th ed). New York: Random House Pp. 299-317.

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UNIT 3 SOLVING PROBLEMS IN A SOCIAL SYSTEM

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Different Levels in Problem Solving
 - 3.1.1 Behavioural Problems
 - 3.1.2 Problems of Technology
 - 3.1.3 Communication Problems
 - 3.1.4 Political Problems
 - 3.1.5 Economic Problems
 - 3.2 Making Decisions
 - 3.2.1 Who Makes Decisions?
 - 3.2.2 For whom are the Decisions?
 - 3.2.3 What are the Expectations of the Ruler and the Ruled?
 - 3.3 Provision of Education
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about different levels in problem solving and will be acquainted with prevalent problems in a system. You will also learn about who takes decision and what decision is taken. The role of education in problem solving in a social system will be explained.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- identify the problems in the system
- explain who takes decisions and what decision is taken
- discuss the role of provision of necessary education in the system.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Different Levels in Problem Solving

Problems in the system often arise through various factors. Most problems that are either vital or not are not deliberately caused, but

emanate from the interaction of the various forces, namely, behavioural, technological, communicational, political and economic forces.

3.1.1 Behavioural Problems

Behavioural problems arise through the misconception of certain introduced ideas into the system by some segment of the system. The reason for misconception may be linked to differences in values, beliefs and levels of understanding. When people are not equally exposed to information or to urban life style, people perceive things in different ways, thus brews disaffection, where disaffection is allowed to prevail, development and social relationship are hindered. This is one of the reasons why some others would not, since; they perceive the advantages of such innovation differently.

3.1.2 Problems of Technology

Subsistence farming still prevails in most developing nations today, including Nigeria because the level of technological development is still very low. Most operations carried out on the farm, for instance, are still by crude means. Where the technology is available, they are either not within the reach of the intended users, or they are not culturally or environmentally compatible.

3.1.3 Communication Problems

Effective Communication is very vital for the development of the system. Communication is a means of passing the culture, the values and the norms in the society. It is through effective communication that people become informed about governments' development strategies for the people. The success of such strategies on health care, political plans, technological innovations, educational programmes, just to mention a few, are as a result of well directed communication efforts. However, channels selected for the dissemination of information often impair the success of such efforts. Channels that are alien to the belief of the people, or are not affordable to the people or using incomprehensible language or lack of feedback constitute problems in the system.

3.1.4 Political Problems

Political institution, until recently in Nigeria, had not sufficiently addressed the needs of the people. Even, where people choose who rule or take decisions on their behalf, the disaffection that has been caused by the differences resulting from different political views has hampered development very greatly. People are not adequately informed or

educated about their political rights and privileges. In the process, political thuggery, deceit, embezzlement, maiming and killing are very prevalent. Political problems has its roots right from the family level which is the smallest unit of the society through the local councils to the national levels.

3.1.5 Economic Problems

Most segments of the society fit-in into the economy, mention it, the farmers, the industrialists, the manufacturers, the blacksmith, the petty traders to mention but a few are all engaged in the nation's economy. While this is so, poverty, particularly in the rural settings remain very prevalent, and so, most people cannot afford some of the basic needs. As a result, the strong, productive and capable channels abandon the rural area in search of luxury in the urban areas and in the process, while farming is left in hands of the aged, the urban centres have the concentration of people with vices and criminal tendencies resulting from joblessness.

Coupled with the above discussed situations, is the inability of the succeeding administrations to provide the enabling environment for the progress of the economies. Incessant power problems, poor infrastructure, lack of capital and motivation are the boons of economic development. Therefore a large percentage of the blame for economic problems may be heaped on decision makers.

3.2 Making Decisions

In 3.1 above, prevailing problems in the society were identified, though, it was described as interaction of forces, most if not all are the offshoot of bad administrations hence, bad decisions. You will want to know therefore, who makes decisions? And what is expected of the decision maker and the beneficiary of the decision?

3.2.1 Who Makes Decisions?

Decisions are often made by a segment of the society for the other segments. In a democratic setting, the people choose who makes decisions on their behalf. At the family level, the man (father, husband) takes decisions on behalf of other members. In most part of Nigeria, except the husband dies, the woman does not make decision in the family. At the local government level, the Chairman and the Council makes laws and take decision on behalf of the people of the local government area. The graduation moves through the state, where the State Governor and the House of Assembly legislate for the people, to the national level, where the Presidency, the Legislative houses (Senate

and House of Representatives) and the Judiciary, though with separated powers, make laws for the citizens.

The life of the society therefore, is determined by the quality of the decisions taken on their behalf. Does it meet the needs of the people? Are the people permitted to make input?

3.2.2 For whom are the Decisions?

Decisions are not made in a vacuum but are directed towards solving particular problems or meeting particular needs. Just as the family members are the beneficiary of the decisions taken by the man, the citizens of all the tiers of government are the focus of decisions taken on their behalf.

3.2.3 What are the Expectations of the Ruler and the Ruled?

Like the common saying, “can two walk together except they agree”, the decision maker and the beneficiary must come to terms in order for the goal(s) of the decision to be realised. This can be achieved if decisions are made based on what the needs of the people are. Most projects and efforts of government fail in varying degrees because of this problem of top-bottom approach.

What is Top-Bottom Approach?

Top-bottom approach is the type of decision making where decisions are made on behalf of the people based on the perceived solution by the ruler.

With this type of approach, the governed have no input to the decisions, the actual need of the governed were not investigated. The participation of the governed was not solicited. The decision could be said to have been imposed. Therefore, decisions should be bottom-top approach and the people should be allowed to have input and should have well defined roles in what summarily affects them.

3.3 Provision of Education

It has earlier been stated that, some problems arise in the society due to deficient method of information dissemination. As a strategy for problem solving in the society, effective education must be provided. It is only when people become well informed, well educated on the issues that bother on their welfare that they maximally participate and so optimally benefit. Success can be achieved in this regard, when such education being provided, touch the lives or meets the needs of the

people. So also, when the language and the channel of communication is comprehensible and reachable. There must also be opportunity for feedback.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt that various problems abound in any society, and that, this problems may be behavioural, technological, communicational, political or economic. For these problems to be solved, we learnt that the right decisions must be made and that the members of the society must be well informed and educated particularly on those issues that affect them and must be permitted to have input into such decisions so that they can actively participate.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- the problems in the society can be classified being behavioural, technological, communicational, political or economic.
- Certain segment of the society makes decisions on behalf of the others
- The best decision is the one that involve the beneficiaries
- The right type of education being provided must address the grassroot problems; use the appropriate channels and permits feedback.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What do you understand by bottom-up approach and what are its advantages?
2. Discuss the expectations of the government and the citizens on any project intended for implementation.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 SOCIAL SYSTEM THEORY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Adaptation
 - 3.1.1 Human Resources
 - 3.1.2 Material Resources
 - 3.1.3 Financial Resources
 - 3.1.4 Leadership or Management Resources
 - 3.2 Goal Attainment
 - 3.3 Integration
 - 3.4 Latency
 - 3.4.1 Pattern Management
 - 3.4.2 Tension Management
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You will learn in this unit that, the society is always striving to maintain its stability or equilibrium through constant exchanges with its specialised structures and substructures (Ekong 1988). So also you will come to know that the survival of the society as social system, depends largely on finding solution to four basic problems. These are the problems of adaptation, goal attainment, pattern maintenance and tension management.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

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

- explain the four basic problems that need to be solved for the society as a social system to survive.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

An ideal society must perform certain functions to survive. In whatever one is doing, one will find certain things go into the system which we can in this regard refer to as input. This input undergoes some means of processing to bring about the expected output and also to bring about the feedback.

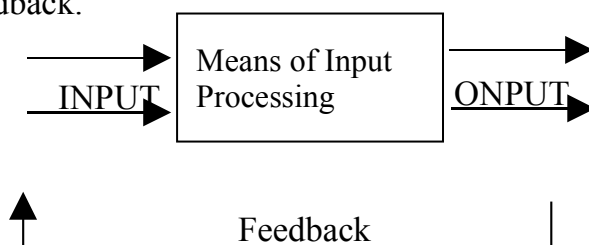


Figure 1: Diagrammatic Sketch of Input Processing in a System

The feedback obtained serves as the mechanism for change in the system. System analysis is analogous to petrol being put in a car (input), the petrol inside the car is processed (means) then gives the outcome which is the movement of the car (output).

This system must however perform certain functions for the society to survive. According to Talcott Parsons as reported by Ekong (1988), the functions which he refers to as “functional imperatives” are classified as adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency or pattern maintenance/tension management.

3.1 Adaptation

Adaptation refers to the problems of securing from the environment sufficient resources and facilities and then distributing these resources throughout the system. These resources may include human, material, financial and leadership resources.

3.1.1 Human Resources

Human resources is very important in any social system, this is because they constitutes the source of labour or workforce by which the operations that make the society be sustained, are maintained. In a manufacturing firm for instance, even where the operations are carried out largely by means of machines, the human resource still plays the role of controlling the operations of the machines.

3.1.2 Material Resources

Material resources constitute the source of input in some phenomena to bring about the product. In the analogy in 3.0 above, the petrol that eventually makes the car to move is material resource. The availability and affordability of material resource is a strong determinant of the sustainability and survival of the system.

3.1.3 Financial Resources

For a system to continue to bring about the expected output, availability of financial resources is imperative. For instance, securing labour supply, material resources and other vital requirements, such as the capital and recurrent requirement, for the system to make progress funding is required. Financial resources may be secured through credit or loan from financial institutions, sales of products or from savings. The success of the system can be measured by the rate at which the output exceeds the input resources.

3.1.4 Leadership or Management Resources

This resource is important because there must be a segment of the system that will be responsible for coordinating other resources in the system. The survival of the system also depends on the extent to which other resources can be coordinated to work or function for the realisation of the expected output.

3.2 Goal Attainment

The second function imperative is “goal attainment” which refers to the problems or establishing priorities among system goals and mobilising system resources for the attainment. When goals are set in a system, it enables efforts to be well directed, resources appropriately managed and the success of the goal measurable. Let us take a brewery firm as an example. The goal for this firm may be to produce 10,000 cartons or crates of what brand of its product per day. In this situation, the number and caliber of workers to achieve this can be determined, the input required can be measured and the hours to be spent can equally be set. At the end of each day, if that number (10,000 crates/cartons) is achieved, then the goal for that day has been attained. Goal setting allows for prioritisation and evaluation of efforts.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Itemise the goal(s) you set for yourself/family for this year and state how you will attain it/them.

3.3 Integration

Integration refers to the problem of co-ordinating and maintaining viable inter-relationship among the system units. Integration reduces conflict among the system units and with that cooperation would be enhanced particularly, in a system where there is a very clear cut division of labour and stratification.

3.4 Latency

Latency refers to two problems, that is, problem of pattern maintenance and tension management. These two problems are internal.

3.4.1 Pattern Management

Pattern management refers to ensuring that the individuals in the society perform their roles in the expected ways by maintaining the proper and kind of expected behaviour within the system. Every society has its own values, beliefs and norms and for which every of its member are expected to comport themselves. Anyone found violating these set of values and norms is regarded as a deviant and may have to face penalty depending on the degree of deviancy. There are formal and informal ways of checkmating deviancy in the society.

By formal ways of social control, the law enforcing agencies, such as the police, the immigration, the prison and such others are employed to maintain order. By informal social control, the use of praises and commendation to the compliant and use of gossips and condemnation of deviant actions are employed.

3.4.2 Tension Management

Tension management is the second aspect of dealing with internal problems and it is concerned with the reduction of internal tension among the members of the system. Tension within the system through the efforts at ameliorating the factors that cause tension, can be reduced. In a society where a large percentage of the youths are not employed, tension would be higher than where the reverse is the case. Welfare packages for the members of the system can douse tension a great deal. Dialogue among the rank and file to talk-over tension arousing tendencies is equally important in a system.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Every social system, to survive, must maintain the four functional imperatives at least a minimum standard of performance. Through feedback a system will be able to know when there is problem. It is at this point of awareness that changes must occur and if it does not, the system is in danger of not surviving. In this unit therefore, you have learnt that, adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency are the problems that need to be solved for a system to survive.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- for a system to survive it is required to perform four functions of adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency
- Resources in the system can be human, material, financial and managerial
- Latency refers to the problem of pattern maintenance and tension management.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the resources that may be available in a system's environment.
2. Explain the terms pattern maintenance and tension management.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E. Ekong (1988). *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*. Jumak Publisher Limited: Ibadan.

MODULE 2 THEORITICAL MODELS OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIP AND BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE

Unit 1	Theories of Social Relationship
Unit 2	Theories of Behavioural Change
Unit 3	Stages of Social Development

UNIT 1 THEORIES OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIP

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
4.0	Main Content
	4.1 Position and Phenomenology
	4.2 Evolutionary Model
	4.3 The Functional Model
	4.4 The Conflict Model
	3.5 The Consensus Model
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading
1.0	INTRODUCTION

You will learn in this unit about theoretical models, which refer to a broad system of explanation, which is founded not so much on prior research findings, but largely, on untested and possibly on assumptions that have no proves about realities. All theoretical models in sociology have interest in explaining ways in which social life is organised and ordered as well as the ways in which change comes into the society (Ekong 1988). You will therefore be exposed to the different theoretical models of social relationships.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define theoretical models
- explain at least five types of theoretical models.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

In trying to explain social relationships, the social scientists of various schools of thought have approached the subject matter in a common way but arrived at different responses. Though these responses are not necessarily mutually exclusive but have succeeded in classifying them into different camps predicated on the differences in emphasis.

3.1 Positivism and Phenomenology

According to the school of thought of positivism as propounded by August Comte (1798 – 1857), human behaviour like the other behaviour of other matter in the natural, is subject to stipulated natural laws and can therefore be investigated and explained through systematic observation and experimentation. This thought implies that only what can be observed and measured in the environment are acceptable as data for research. In other words, one's attitude, feelings and mental state are not acceptable since they cannot be measured. As supported by Emile Durkheim (1858 – 1917), the school of thought, according to him, "collective ways of acting or thinking has a reality outside the individuals". In other words, it is social facts that determine individual behaviour (Ekong, 1988).

Contrary to the view held by the positivists, the school of thought known as phenomenology, stresses that researchers must, so to say, get inside the skin of those they are studying in order to find meaning to the individual's social situation. To the proponents of this theory, understanding rather than accurate prediction is considered the primary goal of social research. One of the proponent was Max Weber.

3.2 Evolutionary Model

Evolutionary theory is one of the oldest and most influential perspectives on man's destiny. Social evolution supports the idea that societies like organism can grow. This belief is that they grow from simpler form to more complex form. While revolution is concerned with a total change from what was obtained before through intervention, evolution is a naturally gradual and continuous change without any intervention. Important adherents of this theory in the 19th century were Karl Marx, Herbert Spencer and August Comte.

3.3 The Functional Model

This model says that the society is made up of many parts each of which is performing the function for the society. Proponents of this theory were Emile Durkheim, Talcott Parsons and Radcliffe Brown among others. According to the theorists, to understand any organism, we have

to look at the functions being performed by the parts of that organism. By so doing, the importance of the parts of the organism can only be understood by knowing its functions.

There are two types of functions. These are manifest function and latent function. While manifest function has to do with the expected consequences of an organism, latent function refers to the unexpected consequences of action of the organism.

3.4 The Conflict Model

Conflict orientation is another theoretical perspective and essentially it says that, all society experience conflict at all times and that it is these conflicts which result to change. The three main theorists of this model were Karl Max, Ralf Dahrendorf and Lewis Coser.

Karl Max said that, the basic idea is that the model of economic production is the main cause of change. It is said that, the means of economic production tend to determine the social organisation in the society. For example, he said that social classes are determined by their relationship to the means of production that is, who owns the means of production and who works in the production process. According to him, social inequality is the major source of social conflict.

Dahrendorf Ralf sees unequal distribution of power and authority as the fundamental source of conflict in the society. To him, those persons or groups with power want to preserve the status quo. This puts them in conflict with the subordinate group whose interests is to change the status quo. In the process, organised interest group emerges and the struggle over numerous issues ensues. These conflicts can lead to various changes in the society.

For Lewis Coser, functional conflict can be very positive in its consequences upon the society. He said conflict is not necessarily and always destructive but can serve to maintain the vitality and flexibility of the society. Lewis emphasises the positive functions of conflict for maintaining social systems.

3.5 The Consensus Model

The consensus model (evolutionary and functional modes) assumes that social interests are generally shared and therefore have a uniting effect on society. Based on this model it is deduced that:

- social relations are on the final analysis advantageous to all units or parts of the society
- the society is united by a consensus on those things they share

- man is naturally bad and requires restraining institutions to make him conform
- social inequality is inevitable
- the state exists to promote common good (Ekong op cit).

4.0 CONCLUSION

Having gone through this unit, you have been adequately informed of the various models of social relationship which include positivism and phenomenology, evolutionary, functional, conflict and the consensus model. The views of the prominent theorists have been stressed.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- theoretical models refer to a broad system of explanation which is founded not so on research findings but on untested and unproved assumptions
- human behaviour like the other behaviour of other matter in natural, is subject to stipulated natural laws and can therefore be investigated and explained.
- the society like an organism can grow.
- the society is made of parts with each part performing the functions of the society.
- the society experiences conflict at all times and it is these conflicts that lead to change.
- social interests are generally shared in the society and it is interests that unite the society.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the main assumptions of evolutionary model.
2. Discuss the varying emphasis of the theorists of conflict model.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E., E., (1988). *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*. Ibadan: Jumak Publishers.

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UNIT 2 THEORIES OF BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE CONTENT

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
7.0	Objective
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Behavioural Theory
3.2	Psychodynamic Theory
3.3	Diffusionist Theory
3.4	Cultural Theory
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading
1.0	INTRODUCTION

The study of social change directly impinges on the society and on the individuals that make up the society particularly, as their interest is affected, how they become aware of innovation and how they eventually adopt innovation for their increase in production. To carry out this study, many views have been expressed by several schools of thought predicated on the perspective it had analysed. You will therefore learn in this unit about the schools of thought that have arisen.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

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

- explain behaviourist, psychodynamic school, diffusionist and cultural theories.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Behavioural Theory

The prominent proponents of this theory were Baudural, Kenkel, Homans and Eisenstadt. Making a deduction from learning theories on how an individual learns, they had the assumption that rewards and punishment had great influence on what an individual learns.

For instance, an individual may do one thing to receive reward and avoids another to escape punishment. The theorists therefore infer that, if rewards and punishment are urgently manipulated, the behaviour of the individual can be changed. This theory also assumes that cultural values and beliefs under which the individuals live control their exhibited behaviour, therefore the individuals behaviour can be altered by the alteration in those concepts. For example, attitudes and values

may have to be changed so that farmers will perceive certain conditions as problems, and aspire for greater income for themselves and their families.

3.2 Psychodynamic Theory

The father of psychoanalysis was Sigmund Freud (1856-1939). Freud coined the term “psychoanalysis” to denote a process of “psychological analysis”, designed to retrieve elements from a person’s unconscious mind. The theorist believed that once repressed memories and feelings were brought into consciousness and carefully examined, the patient would gain insight into his/her behaviour patterns and this in sight would put an end to behaviour that was disturbed or self-destructive (Bootzin et al 1986). The implication of this theory is that an individual’s internal state explains his behaviour. The theory holds that early childhood socialisation largely pre-determines future behaviour. The child that had been exposed to the patterns of hardwork would grow to imbibe the features of hard work which may include the adoption of innovation for increase in productivity.

3.3 Diffusionist Theory

Prominent among the firm believers in this theory were Rostow, Rogers and Hoselitz. The theory views social change as an educational process. Unlike in psychodynamic theory, the theorists placed less emphasis on the internal state of individuals but group the world society into two as the developed (modernity) and the undeveloped (primitivity). The developed society, as represented by the Western World, was said to be technologically advanced while the underdeveloped, as represented by Africa and the eastern world, was said to be technologically less developed. The diffusion theory advocates for the diffusion of technology and change from the developed world to the less developed.

For the adherents of the theory, the western culture should be the criterion for measuring development. Therefore, every society, in order to develop must follow the pattern and direction of the western world. Rostow, for example, advocates for the diffusion of western economic, social and political institutions in the Third World as necessary conditions for growth (Ekong, 1988).

3.4 Cultural Theory

Cultural theory holds that when specific cultural traits become tightly interwoven with others in a mutually inter-dependent manner, change in

that direction becomes almost impossible (Ekong, 1988). Cultural change, according to the theory, involves alterations in the way people perceive and relate to their environment changes in their customs, their artifacts, inventions and laws, the common knowledge shared among people, and in their attitudes, beliefs and values (Sofranko, 1984). Socio-cultural change is viewed as a requirement for technological change and as a consequence of the introduction of new technologies into rural communities. The theory specifically emphasise modification in values and beliefs as strategies for agricultural development.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The unit has afforded us to learn about theories of behavioural change. We learnt that rewards and punishment go a long way to affect the way an individual behave, which are referred to as behavioural theory. We also learn that, the experiences of an individual as a child play a great role in the behaviour the individual exhibits as an adult (psychodynamic theory). We also have learnt that for development to take place in a particular society, technology and change must diffuse from the developed society to the less developed society and lastly, we have been intimated with the understanding that for agricultural development to take place, there must be a deliberate modification in values and beliefs of people.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- An individual's behaviour is sharpened by rewards and punishments in his environment
- Experiences of the individual as a child affect his adult behaviour.
- There must be diffusion of technology and change from (the developed society to less developed society
- Modification in values and beliefs is usual for agricultural development

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain Psychodynamic theory.
2. Explain other words used for modernity and primitivity.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Bootzin, R. R.; Bower, G. H; Zajone, R. B. and E. Hall (1986). *Psychology Today: An Introduction*. New York: Random House.

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UNIT 3 STAGES OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

8.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Stages of Development
3.1.1	The Theological Stage
3.1.2	The Metaphysical Stage
3.1.3	The Science and Industrial Stage
3.2	Evolutionary Theories of Social Change
3.3	Theories of Change of the 19 th Century
3.3.1	August Comte (1789-1857)
3.3.2	Herbert Spencer (1820 – 1903)
3.3.3	Emile Durkheim (1858 – 1917)
3.3.4	William Sumner (1840 – 1910)
3.3.5	George Simmel (1858 – 1918)
3.3.6	Karl Marx
3.4	Western Industrial Evolution
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading
1.0	INTRODUCTION

You will learn in this unit about stages of social development, with emphasis on the stages of development right from the primitive stage. You will also learn about evolutionary theories of social change and the theorists of the 19th century, whose thoughts and views contributed so much to social change and how these efforts of the theorists culminated into the western industrial evolution.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the stages of development
- discuss evolutionary theories of social change
- explain the theorists of change of the 19th century
- discuss western industrial evolution.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Stages of Development

The stages of development of human thoughts which form the basis of social organisation according to August Comte were divided into three

namely, the theological stage, the metaphysical stage and the science and industrial stage.

3.1.1 The Theological Stage

This was the first stage of the social system that existed from the beginning of any permanent society. All the ideas at this stage were supernatural in nature. At this stage, explanations were beyond one's ability to reason, therefore, ideas were easily accepted. At this stage, societal goals were limited to conflicts and slavery as the basic means of production while the basic social unit was the family.

3.1.2 The Metaphysical Stage

This is the second stage that forms a transitional change between theological and positive stage. In the metaphysical stage, the basic social change which is important is the "state". The stage involves legalistic element.

3.1.3 The Science and Industrial Stage

This is the third stage, it was also known as the positive stage. Explanation for occurrences at this stage is based on observation and not on imagination as in the earlier stages. Factual evidences based on experimentations were the basis for confirming the truth of things. Industries become predominant and production becomes the primary societal role. The basic social role has now moved to that of mankind.

3.2 Evolutionary Theories of Social Change

Evolution is one of the oldest and most influential perspectives on man's destiny. Social evolution supports the idea that societies like organism can grow up. This belief is that they grow from simpler form to complex form. There are seven main assumptions which are common to all evolutionary theorists. The assumption include: wholism, universalism, potentiality, directionality, determinism, gradualism and deductionism.

- **Wholism:** This means that evolution theory deals with the society as a whole.
- **Universalism:** This means that change is universal and natural .
- **Potentiality:** This means that change is inherent in the society. That is, change is from within and that every society contains within itself the potential for change. It has a belief that what the society is going to become has the potential within.

- **Directionality:** This implies that change follows a single common route to achieve the societal goal. Due to this direction of characteristics, it is impossible to map out stages of progress for that goal.
- **Determinism:** Change is inevitable and it is irreversible. It goes to say that this change must happen, for all society to make progress, it also emphasises that there is no going back from the set societal goals.
- **Gradualism:** It is the assumption that change must continue to accumulate to greater level of development.
- **Deductionism:** This theory says that it is always possible to discover that there are certain reasons or causes for these changes to occur.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

At what stage of development is Nigeria and why?

3.3 Theories of Change of the 19th Century

Among the theorists of 19th century include August Comte, Karl Marx, Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, Max Weber, William Summer, and Parsons Talcott.

3.3.1 August Comte (1789-1857)

August Comte was a French Social philosopher. He was a positivist and advocated for the need to base scientific theories on observation. He divided human history into theology, metaphysical and scientific stages. Each of these stages represents advancement in man's knowledge of their world.

3.3.2 Herbert Spencer (1820 – 1903)

Spencer was one of the most influential English writers of the 19th century. As a theorist of evolution, he described evolution as “an integration of matter and concomitant dissipation of motion during which the matter passes from an indefinite, incoherent homogeneity to definite coherent heterogeneity and during which the retained motion undergoes a parallel transformation”

The major emphasis of Spencer's philosophy is that an evolution should be towards greater social complexity and increased individualism. According to him, society is like a complex organism in delicate balance and only natural processes of evolution should be allowed to affect its development.

3.3.3 Emile Durkheim (1858 – 1917)

Durkheim was a student of social organisation. He studied the contribution of religion to social cohesion. To Durkheim, the society is essentially a moral entity imbued with norms and values, statuses and roles.

3.3.4 William Sumner (1840 – 1910)

Sumner's work emphasises the conservative influence of custom. He was also a staunch conservative on both political and economic issues. According to Sumner, the class system in society follows the laws of natural selection with the most able being at the top and the least able at the bottom of the social structure.

3.3.5 George Simmel (1858 – 1918)

Simmel was a German philosopher and was among the few conflict theorists. Simmel was well known for his contribution at identifying the distinctive subject matter of sociology, which he saw as the study of "forms of social interaction" such as subordination, competition and division of labour (Olatayo 1984). According to Simmel, the society persists only because of the existence of external threats. Points of conflict determine the lines of cleavage between groups.

3.3.6 Karl Marx

Karl Marx was a staunch theorist of the conflict school. He viewed society as progressing inevitably through a series of stages leading ultimately to the view that the society was a stage for class struggle. To him, the two dominant classes in society are the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. While the former is characterised by the affirmation or possession of those features of which the latter is the complete negation.

3.4 Western Industrial Evolution

Developing countries are skipping over all stages of development as they are not beginning from the "small" end like the Western world. The developed countries, as represented by United States of America and

their European counterparts, started their development from the scratch until they experienced technological breakthrough. The developing countries, however, want to achieve overnight what took the developed countries hundreds of years. The developing countries can develop or experience industrial evolution by allowing transfer of technology and exchange of experts.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this unit the stages of development which are identified as the theological, the metaphysical and the scientific. We also identified the assumptions of the evolution theory and made a brief on the theorists of the 19th century. With these I hope you have been well enlightened about the earlier sociologists who devoted their intellectual works on social relationships and social change.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- The stages of development are the theological stage, metaphysical stage and the scientific or industrial stage
- The assumptions of evolutionary theory are wholism, universalism, potentiality, directionality and determinism. Others are graduation and deductionism
- Some of the 19th century theorists were Karl Marx, August Comte, Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, William Summer and George Simmel.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the stages of development
2. Write on three theorists of the 19th century

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E. E. (1998) *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*. Ibadan: Jumak Publishers, pp 7 – 11.

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MODULE 3 SOCIAL CHANGE

Unit 1	Behaviour Change
Unit 2	Nature and Measurement of Social Change
Unit 3	Social Indicator of Social Change

Unit 4 Rural Culture in Social Change

UNIT 1 BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 5.0 Main Content
 - 5.1 Behavioural Change in Agriculture
 - 3.2 Change Obstacles
 - 3.2.1 Social-Cultural Obstacles
 - 3.2.2 Economic Obstacles
 - 3.3 Change Incentives
 - 3.4 Reducing Resistance to Change
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Increase in agricultural production requires that the traditional ways of agricultural practices must change. For example, the traditional laws governing ownership of land must give way to that which becomes easier for willing hands to have access to land use, improved breeds of animals and varieties of crops must replace the less productive ones. In achieving these the behaviour of the people towards them must change too. This unit provides an understanding of what is required to promote technological change among farmers. The focus is on the understanding of what constitutes obstacles and incentives to change and how resistance to change can be reduced.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss behavioural change in agriculture
- explain change obstacles
- explain change incentives
- list ways of reducing resistance to change.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Behavioural Change in Agriculture

Social change has been defined as the process by which alterations occur in the structure and function of a social system (Rogers 1969). Any change, according to Ekong (1988), that occurs either in ideas, norms, values, roles and social habits of a people or in the composition or organisation of their society can be referred to as social change. Moore (1963) as reported by Ekong (1988) sees, social change as “the significant alteration of social structures, by social structures, he means patterns of social action and interaction, including consequences and manifestations of such structures embodied in norms, values and cultural products and symbols”.

Can you mention some changes that you have observed in your community since your childhood stage until now? This change could be in terms of physical structure such as roads, marriage practices, traditional rulers patterns of doing things such as rituals, burying one alive with the dead ruler, or even changes in agricultural practices. To this extent, you can say, “things have really changed they are no longer what they used to be” that exactly is what is referred to as social change. What has changed in people’s behaviour towards them?

Having the above explanation behind your mind therefore, you can explain behavioural change as the modifications in human attitudes and behaviour pattern as a result of education. Change in behaviour could be favourable or unfavourable towards a subject. The whole essence of behavioural change efforts however, is to make farmers change their unfavourable attitude towards an innovation to a favourable one.

3.2 Change Obstacles in Agriculture

Before considering the issues of obstacles to change in agriculture, we may need to explain what the goals of agricultural development are. The goals of agricultural development are:

- getting farmers to produce more than what is required for immediate household consumption
- encouraging farmers to grow crops for which a demand exists but which the farmers are not used to, and
- persuading farmers to improve the quality of the crop they produce to meet consumer demands or the demands of an export market.

The role of extension workers as regards the above basically involves changing the behaviour of farmers, but there are obstacles.

3.2.1 Social-Cultural Obstacles

Perhaps the simplest classification of obstacles to agricultural development (Sofranko 1984), has been the basis of whether they lie within the farmer or within the farm environment. Obstacles associated with the farmers themselves and their immediate cultures have been identified as

- traditional value and beliefs
- illiteracy
- lack of motivation for achievement
- insufficient resources to take advantage of opportunities
- low-level skills, and
- limited aspirations

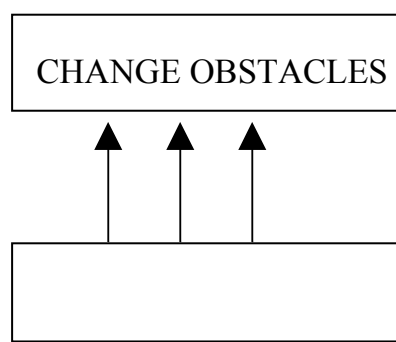
As a result of certain traditional beliefs, values, or cultural practices, farmers are felt to be unconcerned with improvement, unwilling to take risks, or unable to take advantage of existing opportunities and the existing production technologies (Sofranko, 1984). To overcome this obstacle, there is the urgent need to re-orientate farmers' beliefs, values and behaviour through education, training in literacy, and exposure to information through the mass media, demonstrations, visits and other extension strategies.

3.2.2 Economic Obstacles

Economic obstacles are those that are associated with the farmers' farm environment. These have been identified as inadequate financial incentives and lack of inputs necessary for making progress in agriculture. The alteration of these obstacles involve making available, in a timely manner, new technological inputs such as fertilizers and other chemicals, new seed varieties, tools and machines. Also necessary are low-interest credit, improved transportation, storage facilities, and improved marketing facilities, adequate funding of research and extension activities.

3.3 Change Incentives

We have to a large extent dealt with the obstacles to behavioural change in agriculture in 3.2. above. What we need to know further about the farmers' behaviour is that, it is not only the obstacles that the farmers are subjected to, rather, an interaction between change obstacles and change incentives. Therefore, the decision the farmers make or the attitudes they exhibited towards change is the product of this interaction between the duo in relation to the farmers.



FARMER BEHAVIOUR

CHANGE INCENTIVES

Figure 2: Illustration of Interaction of change obstacles and change incentives on Farmers' Behaviour in the Developing Countries.

Source: Sofranko (1984)

Change incentives may include:

- changes in the environment in which farmers live and work
- changes in the opportunities available to them
- the availability of new technologies
- access to extension services and external markets, and
- availability of credit.

What is paramount from the extension worker's perspective is to be able to identify the types and strengths of various obstacles and incentives and should have an understanding of both the change incentives and the change obstacles in a particular area. This would enable him to strive and to reduce the obstacles while laying emphasis on and improving the existing incentives.

3.4 Reducing Resistance to Change

Influencing the way farmers and farm households make decisions is one of the vital goals of extension. However, whenever the farmers are asked to change their decision making habits it usually attracts resistance from the farmers. Resistance may occur due to:

- the fear of the unknown
- reluctance on the part of many farmers to learn a new behaviour particularly, if risk is perceived
- when anticipated new behaviour is not compatible with the existing traditions and practices, and

- direct consequence of the technology being promoted viz its costs, ease of use, labour requirement or perceived improvement over existing technology.

Resistance to change can take the form of lack of interest or apathy among farmers and in other cases as outright opposition. Apathy may be as a result of inadequate information or of a poorly designed technology while opposition may be as a result of a perceived threat to a person's security or status.

Resistance to change can be reduced by:

- providing more information
- modification of the technology
- neutralisation of the opposition by exchanging the person(s) from the change programme or resort to some form of coercion
- making the farmers to feel that an activity is at least partly their own
- securing the support of the leaders in the community
- making the participants to see the proposed changes are reducing rather than increasing their burdens
- involving the participants at the diagnosing of needs and planning stages.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this unit that behavioural change has to do with the alterations in human attitudes and behaviour pattern as a result of information. Change does not occur in agriculture unless there is favourable attitudes towards the change by the farmers. You have equally been informed that farmers behaviour is a product of interaction between change obstacles and change incentives, and that, in an attempt by the extension worker to influence the behaviour or decision of the farmers, resistance may occur. However, resistance we learn can be reduced through deliberate strategies such as education and participatory approaches.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- behaviour change deals with the alteration in human attitudes and behaviour pattern
- change obstacles are socio-cultural and economic
- change behaviour is the product of the interaction between change obstacles and change incentives on the farmers behaviour
- resistance takes the form of apathy or outright opposition
- Resistance can be reduced by providing information and modification of technology among others.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are the goals of agricultural development and why may these goals not be achieved.
2. Discuss how resistance to change can be reduced.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E. E. (1988). *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*. Ibadan; Jumak Publishers.

Rosers, E. M. and Svenning L. (1969). *Modernisation among Peasants: The Impact of Communication*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston Inc.

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UNIT 2 NATURE AND MEASUREMENT OF SOCIAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Nature of Social Change
3.1.1	Planned or Unplanned Change
3.1.2	Total or Segmental
3.1.3	Coercive or Voluntary
3.1.4	Immanent Change or Contact Change
3.2	Conditions Conducive for Social Change
3.3	Characteristics of the Change Process
3.4	Measurement of Social Change
3.5	Data Collection
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We are about to learn in this unit the nature of change, conditions necessary for social change and the inherent characteristics of change process. It is also hoped that this unit will expose us to how social change is measured and the methods by which data on social change are collected.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the nature of social change
- state the conditions necessary for social change
- list the characteristics of social change
- discuss measurement of social change
- explain the methods of data collection.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

We have earlier defined social change as the modification in a social system, in the structure, functioning or process over a period of time. Social change has nature and characteristics, there are also some conditions that are favourable for the change process while also, social change has peculiar data by which it could be measured.

3.1 Nature of Social Change

The nature of social change is such that, it may be planned or unplanned, total (whole) or segmental (partly). Social change may also

be coercive or voluntary and it may be an immanent change or contact change.

3.1.1 Planned or Unplanned Change

Planned change is the one that a deliberate intervention effort is made to alter the existing practice. For example, when extension workers deliberately introduce an innovation to the farmers. Unplanned change however, is accidental because it occurs suddenly. For example, natural disasters such as a flood or earth quake can make people to change location or get involved in one thing or the other to cope with the prevalent situation.

3.1.2 Total or Segmental

Total change is the one that involves all aspects of a wide range of activities of the people ranging from mode of dressing, methods of farming and religious practices. Segmental change however, touches only an aspect of life of the people or a small percentage of the people living in a place.

3.1.3 Coercive or Voluntary

Coercive change is the one that entails a change by force or by compulsion, for example, when a military government through coup d'état swooped over a democratic government and alter the structures in the system. Voluntary change occurs when the people by themselves make a plan for a change such as embarking on self-help projects.

3.1.4 Immanent Change or Contact Change

Immanent change is that which takes place internally among the people without external influence. For example when a local blacksmith comes up with a new farm implement (Ekong 1988). In case of contact change, the change occurs when an external person unintentionally introduced a change (selective contact change) or represents a planned change organisation to effect a change among the people (direct contact change).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

How will you describe the change you have observed in your community in the past five years?

3.2 Conditions Conducive for Social Change

- New needs in a society create a situation conducive to changes, for example, Nigeria relegated agriculture which was once the main source of revenue at the advent of oil boom.
- Dissatisfaction with the status quo. This makes people to realise that the situation is not what it should be and thus creating room for change to take place.
- The bias and general orientation or attitude for change in a society effect whether or not circumstances are conducive for change. For example, people are not likely to accept change as that contrasts their beliefs, social norm, traditions, customs and biases.
- The change in the complexity of the culture of the people. Complexity in culture has to do with high level of division of labour and specialisation. People who are more innovative are more likely to embrace change.

3.3 Characteristics of the Change Process

The change process has certain characteristics. These characteristics are:

1. **Spatial and Time Temporal Characteristics:** By space, we mean the geographical location where the change is taking place and by time temporal, importance is being laid on the period of time, the change is taking place.
2. **Change must be assessed in relation to social structure:** Changes and their significance are used to assess the reaction to the relevant conditions of the society at the time of change.
3. In any situation of change, there are always forces that will be trying to promote the status quo and so there can never be a situation where there will be no resistance to change.
4. **Change is inevitable:** Change is a normal phenomenon in every society as no society is ever static.
5. Change occurs at different rates from one society to the other and even from one different parts of a society to the other.

3.4 Measurement of Social Change

The traditional way of measuring social change has been through:

1. **Economic Indicators:** such as changes that occur in Gross National Product (GNP).
2. **Demographic Indicators:** The factors considered under this type of measurement are birth and death rate, expected life span, fertility rate, immigration and emigration rates. For

instance, if there is decrease in mortality rate (death rate), there is an element of development.

3. **Social Indicators:** This may be defined to be a statistic of direct normative interest (based on social norms or what is socially acceptable) which facilitates concise, comprehensive and balanced judgement (objective or subjective) about the conditions of major aspect of the society. Social indicator is a direct measure of welfare.

Social indicators consider the following areas:

- i. health
- ii. public safety
- iii. education
- iv. employment
- v. income
- vi. housing
- vii. leisure and Recreation
- viii. population

3.5 Data Collection for Measurement of Social Change

Data for the measurement of social change are normally collected at three levels, namely; Information, Enlightenment and Intelligence data.

1. **Information Data:** This is the most specific type of data and it is used for operational purposes, for example, in Agricultural Development Projects (ADP), we can identify the number of projects, vehicles and the number of people they employ. This data is specific since it doesn't give more than the required information.
2. **Enlightenment Data:** This is the most common and general. It is the kind of data upon which we can make some evaluation and it is used for contributing to general understanding of a problem situation and for the formation of government policies.
3. **Intelligence Data:** This kind of data is used for administrative and management purposes. Here you decide on what to do with the data you have. We can say for instance, that in a particular area a change organisation concentrates more on the provision of road or water and to further conclude that the people's life has been improved or not.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have seen in this unit that social change can be in various forms, that is, whether planned or unplanned, total or segmental, coercive or voluntary and either immanent or contact. The condition under which social change occurs have been elucidated while the characteristics of social change and how data are collected for its measurement were stressed. Social change is therefore a normal phenomenon that occurs in every society.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:

- social change may be planned or unplanned, total or segmental, coercive or voluntary and immanent or contact
- social change occurs under certain conducive conditions
- social change has certain characteristics
- social change can be measured using demographic, economic and social indicators
- data for measuring social change are at three levels namely, information, enlightenment and intelligence.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the nature of social change
2. State the conditions conducive for social change to occur
3. Discuss data collection in the measurement of social change

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

FAO (1984). *Agricultural Extension: A Reference Manual*. In Swanson (Eds), FAO, Rome.

Ekong, E. E. (1984). *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*. Ibadan: Jumak Publishers.

UNIT 3 SOCIAL INDICATOR OF SOCIAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Definition and uses of Social Indicators
3.2	Areas of Social Indicators
3.3	Processes of Social Change at National Level
3.3.1	Development
3.3.2	Modernisation
3.3.3	Industrialisation
3.4	Conditions for National Development
3.5	Problems of Development Plans
3.5.1	Instability of Government
3.5.2	Lack of Long-Term Development
3.5.3	Limited Participation of People in Decision Making
3.5.4	Shortage of Resources
3.5.5	Lack of Up-to-Date Statistical Information
3.5.6	Organisational Problems
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We briefly discussed on social indicators in social change in the last unit, in this unit however, more details about the subject will be undertaken. Therefore, in this unit, you will learn the uses of social indicators in national plans and you will also learn the processes of social change at national level and the problems associated with development plans.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define social indicators and state their uses
- explain the variables of social indicators
- discuss the processes of social change at national level
- state the conditions for national development
- identify the problems of development plans.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

An understanding of what the main features of society are, how they inter-relate and how these features and their relationships change is the chief purpose or main purpose for social indicators.

3.1 Definition and Uses of Social Indicators

A social indicator may be defined to be a statistic or direct normative interest which facilitates concise, comprehensive and balanced judgement about the conditions of major aspect of the society. Social indicators, in all cases, are measures of welfare of the society.

There are several potential uses for social indicators:

1. A measure of social conditions, that is, how the people fare in terms of social provision
2. A measure of social change as it occurs periodically. This enable us to know whether there is an improvement at a particular time over what it was at a period before
3. Uses as supplement for economic indicators with information on how such economic indicators impact on the quality of life of the society
4. Used for evaluating public programmes as such a measure gives more scientific evaluation rather than political evaluation
5. Used for advising or establishing certain social goals and social policies
6. For improving upon social reporting
7. For predicting future social events.

3.2 Areas of Social Indicators

The variables usually considered as social indicators are:

- health
- education
- public safety (Security)
- employment
- income
- housing
- recreation
- population

- i. **Health:** At a point in time, one would want to know how the society fares in terms of health conditions. Are the people having access to drugs, in terms of availability and affordability? What

is the mortality ratio? What percentage of the population are infected with pandemic diseases? Answers to these questions and many other more ascertain the society's health conditions.

- ii. **Education:** This refers to the literacy level of the society and the levels of education attained by what percentage of the population.
- iii. **Public Safety (Security):** This has to do with the security of lives and properties of the members of the society. The focus of this indicator is on how vices and crimes are reduced to manageable level and the ratio of security agents to the population.
- iv. **Employment:** This social indicator is concerned with the levels of employment, unemployment and underemployment in the society. It is interests is also in whether people are in self employment or public employment.
- v. **Income:** This indicator is important in determining the national plans for the society, since it has to do with what and how revenue is made into the national purse. Variables usually considered in this indicator are the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross Net Product (GNP). This enables government to plan for development using budget analysis.
- vi. **Housing:** This refers to the habitable houses available for the population. At a particular time the government will want to know how many people own houses so as to plan for the deficiencies.
- vii. **Recreation:** Recreation, as a social indicator, refers to how the members of society utilize their leisure time.
- viii. **Population:** The major characteristics of interest in population include age composition, sex ratio, marital status and household size. Age composition enables data to be collected on the percentage of dependency, what is the age at which people depend on others for sustenance (0 – 15 and 65 years and above). Sex ratio refers to the number of males per 1,000 females in the population while marital status indicates the ratio of the married, single, divorced and widow(er).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain the difference between GNP and GDP.

3.3 Processes of Social Change at National Level

There are three processes of social change at national level. These processes are Development, Modernisation and Industrialisation.

3.3.1 Development

Development is a process of improving the capacity of national institutions and value systems to meet increasing demands of the population and whether these demands are at the social, economic or political character. In national development, variables such as poverty, unemployment and inequality are important determinants. We talk of progressive development or not when those three variables are making progress or not.

3.3.2 Modernisation

Modernisation is a process of imitation or transferring of patterns and models from the achievements of other countries to our own. What is done is to compare our nation's level of development with the more advanced countries and carry out a selective imitation of these products and practices which have been shown to have positive impact.

There are three forms of modernisation, these are:

1. **As a Result of Industrialisation:** This results from an attempt to industrialise by accepting or adapting not only more efficient production techniques but also accompanied values and other aspects of life.
2. As a consequence of Confrontation between more developed society and the less developed society. This type of modernisation is known as acculturative, for instance, during the colonial era, British culture was super-imposed over Nigeria in terms of way of dressing, religion and others of such.
3. **As a Result of Purposeful Plan:** This refers to the government's attempts to uplift the economy and the culture to a level considered most modern by disseminating, educational and scientific achievement from the rest of the world. This is known as induced modernisation.

3.3.3 Industrialisation

The difference between the developed and developing countries of the world is industrialisation. The concept industrialisation refers to provision or establishment of industries particularly in the manufacturing sector. As at now, one way for achieving industrialisation is by importing the latest industrial process and technology. Industrialisation becomes easily developed where the host nation also produces the raw materials. In Nigeria small-scale industrialisation is been given a boost. However, poor infrastructure, in terms of electricity and roads is the bane of Nigeria's industrialisation efforts.

3.4 Necessary Conditions for National Development

There is no country that may want to remain undeveloped. Nigeria, like any other developing countries, wants to be like other developed countries of the world such as United States of America and other European countries. However, there are certain factors which are necessary for a country to develop. Some of these factors include:

1. **An Independent Political Status:** A nation that wants to develop must be able to make her own decisions. Political status in the hands of indigenous leaders, provides for patriotic minds and deep knowledge about what the composition of the citizens are, their needs, culture and aspirations. This enables the problems that may confront development be easily tackled than when such political status is in the hands of colonialists or foreigners.
2. **Indigenous Personnel in key Positions:** You have just learnt from the proceeding paragraph about patriotic minds, it is believed that indigenous people are more patriotic to their father land. Therefore more commitment to the task of national development will be more expected from the indigenous people. Although when indigenous people occupy some key positions in a national structure, it may not totally bring development but will eliminate, to a large extent, some negative effects of foreign dominated key positioned structure since the indigenous people will be there for a longer time and be more nationalistic.
3. **Greater Control of Foreign Investment:** Foreign investment into a nation's economy results in rapid development, however, if control measures are not adequately being put in place, it may result into exploitation and which may not benefit the society.
4. **Development of Indigenous Technology:** Transferred technology is costly and sometimes may not be compatible to the

host's culture and environments. Indigenously developed technology, which the local people can operate and which is adaptable to the local beliefs and environment is a vital condition for rapid national development.

5. **National Planning:** Planning is the essential key to development because it facilitates developments. Planning is the process of selecting among alternatives causes of action with a view to allocating scarce resources in order to reach specified objectives on the bases of a preliminary diagnosis covering all the relevant factors that can be identified. Simply stated, the basic task of planning is to guide social change along national guidelines or national priorities.

3.5 Problems of Development Plans

Designing and preparing a development plan is easier than implementing it. Problems posed to implementation of development plan include; instability of government, lack of long-term development, limited participation of people in decision making and shortage of resources. Other problems that may affect implementation of national plans are the lack of accurate and up-to-date statistical information, such as in population, and organisational problems.

3.5.1 Instability of Government

You may have heard the common saying that “government goes government comes, the nation remains”. Every nation, as a single entity, outlives her leaders. However, his instability results in lack of continuity in governance. That alone is not the problem but where the succeeding administrations jettison the efforts of their predecessors, no matter how laudable such efforts are, is the problem.

3.5.2 Lack of Long-Term Development

Long-term plans enable the government to put in place the resources, in terms of funding and infrastructure, since the objectives and procedures of achieving them would have been well articulated and yearly budgets also put such into focus. Monitoring and evaluation of such plans also becomes possible. However, where there is no long-term plan, the reverse of the above advantages becomes the situation.

3.5.3 Limited Participation of People in Decision Making

Top-bottom approach of national planning does not augur well for national development. Where the people's orientation, beliefs, customs, culture and needs are not a focal point in national planning, implementation of such design is likely to meet with difficulties particularly, on the part of the people who are likely to resist it, since it is seen as not compatible to their orientation. People must be allowed to have input towards what affect them.

3.5.4 Shortage of Resources

Planning is one thing, having the resources to execute it is another. Most national plans fail in varying degrees due to chronic shortage of the appropriate resources for implementing it. Resources can be human, infrastructural or financial.

3.5.5 Lack of Up-to-Date Statistical Information

Information on what is available and what is required is not usually available, and where it is available it is often inaccurate and full of biases. Reasons for this being so may be attributed to insincerity on the part of the political leaders who would want to have an advantage over other parts of the country, this often engenders inflation of census figures and falsification of other available data. The problem may also be associated with lack of experts for the data gathering. Accurate data can easily predict expectations for development.

3.5.6 Organisational Problems

Organisational problems that may hamper implementation of national plans include; corruption, nepotism, tribalism, political rivalry, social injustice and other anomalies that have eaten deep into national fabric and solidarity. All these vices beclouds patriotic ideas and commitment whereby national plans suffer some setbacks.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Differentiate between nepotism and tribalism.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt in this unit about the social indicators of social changed. Areas of social indicators have been identified to include health, education, public safety, employment, income, housing, recreation and population, while, the processes of social change at national level are development, modernisation and industrialisation. You have equally be

intimated with the conditions necessary for national development and problems that are posed to development plans.

5.0 SUMMARY

Having gone through this unit, you have been exposed to:

- the meaning and uses of social indicators
- areas of social indicators to include, health, education, safety, employment, income, housing, recreation and population.
- Processes of social change at national level to include, development, modernisation and industrialisation.
- Conditions necessary for national development, and
- Problems of national plans.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the areas of social change
2. Explain the conditions necessary for national development
3. Explain the problems of national plans

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E. E. (1984). *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*. Ibadan: Jumak Publishers.

UNIT 4 RURAL CULTURE IN SOCIAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Values and Beliefs
 - 3.1.1 Values
 - 3.1.2 Beliefs
 - 3.2 Foundation of Values and Beliefs
 - 3.3 Power and Influence
 - 3.4 Social Stratification and Organisation
 - 3.5 Social Forces and Cultural Change
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the factors that affect social change particularly behavioural change is the culture of the people. If a change is not considerate over the beliefs and values of the people, such a change is likely to be rejected. That is why in this unit, you will be learning about values and beliefs, power and influence, social stratification and organisation and also social forces and cultural change.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain values and beliefs
- discuss the foundation of values and beliefs
- explain power and influence in social change
- define social stratification and organisation
- state how the social forces and cultural change affect social change.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The culture of the people, to a large extent is a determinant of the level of acceptance of change (Williams 1984). Change agents are frequently criticised for not taking cultural factors into consideration and constantly being advised to have an understanding of the local culture of the target people. There is that assumption that if they have better understanding of the people's culture, they would be more effective in persuading

farmers to accept change. We shall therefore treat some cultural factors as they affect change.

3.1 Values and Beliefs

3.1.1 Values

Values are important elements in the change process whereby they are considered as obstacles to change. Values have been defined as conceptions of the desirable as standards of evaluation, as guides for decision-making behaviour, or simply as expressions of preference (Sofranko, 1984). Values are assumed to be crucial in influencing farmer's goals and behaviour. In an attempt for the local people to accept technological production, it is believed that these required behavioural changes will not occur until values change. Value change entails replacing traditional values by more modern values. Traditional values that are required to change are familism, fatalism, low empathy, aversion to risk and traditionalism. Other traditional values include immediate stratification and submission to nature.

Familism: Unwillingness to engage in activities with persons outside one's family.

Fatalism: Feeling that lacks the ability to influence the future, resignation or passivity. It is also a feeling that the outside world is unpredictable.

Low Empathy: Difficulty in viewing oneself in a relatively better off position.

Aversion to Risk-taking: Unwillingness to take chances. It is refusal to try out beyond one's immediate social environment.

Traditionalism: This emphasis on the past at the expense or neglect of new ones. It is a belief that one's ways of doing things is natural and best.

Immediate Gratification: It is unwillingness to save or invest for the future. It is unwillingness to postpone present satisfaction in anticipation of future rewards.

Submission to Nature: Unwillingness to move with modern trend of things.

3.1.2 Beliefs

Beliefs are closely related with values as both have influence on social change. Beliefs are propositions accepted as being true by an individual or group. All sets of propositions towards which one takes an approving or disapproving attitude form his belief or disbelief system (Ekong 1984). Beliefs serving as barrier to change include beliefs in how one controls events in this world, in the possibility of self-improvement and in the likely outcomes of individual actions.

3.2 Foundation of Values and Beliefs

It may not be wise to totally condemn the local people for the beliefs and values they hold without understanding the reason why they do. Instead of seeing values and beliefs as barriers to change they should rather be seen as a reflection of what is prevalent in where they live or what they do. Take for example, the change agent may criticise the people for risk aversion forgetting that taking risks, if backfires, can have serious consequences on the livelihood of the family. So, also, where much premium is placed on family's interest by the people, the people may be opposed, whereas, family ties is a vital cultural element among the people. Change agents should therefore, be sensitive to the fundamentals of values and beliefs.

Values and beliefs, though, cannot be observed they can be inferred through the choice the people make, their behaviour and the statements they make. The opportunities the people have, their exposure to modern influences, contacts with the outside world and early learning experiences are underlying causes of people's beliefs, values and behaviour.

3.3 Power and Influence

Another important factor that influences social change is power and influence. Nielioff (1969) as reported by Sofranko (1984), leadership is the most important feature of local culture. Power and influence refers to individuals whose opinions are taken more seriously than others, whose cooperation is essential if goal is to be attained, and who have a major role in making decisions and mobilising people. People with these attributes are powerful and influential. A change agent who must be successful in his undertakings cannot neglect influential people. Change agents are such people to lend approval to his activities. If he succeeds in persuading these category of people, his mission becomes easier, as mobilising the rest people becomes less difficult.

The change agent can determine who is powerful and influential in three ways:

1. **Reputational Method:** This is based on asking the people in a locality to identify the influential person or persons. For instance, one may ask the people who have respect or whose word is highly regarded or whose approval is essential for a particularly activity in the country.
2. **Positional Method:** This method places position or title held by some persons at par with influence. This assumed that people who hold traditional or appointed positions are influential.
3. **Decision Method:** This method takes into consideration who takes major decisions in some accomplishments in recent times. That is taken as the one who is influential or powerful.

However, none of the methods would be said to be perfect but a combination of the methods could make a better information to the change agent. Some of the type of leaders and influential people that the change agent needs to recognise are:

- administrative or formal political leaders
- educators
- religious leaders of the major and indigenous religions
- the non-institutional leaders; the people who are looked upon to and emulated as a result of their wealth, family background or personality
- civic leaders who are very active in local groups and associations or clubs.

3.4 Social Stratification and Organisation

Social stratification refers to the arrangement of individuals or groups into a hierarchy in the society. The basis for status distinctions according to Sofranko (1984) may be ownership of property, family wealth, amount of education, type of occupation, skills, personal qualities, or ascribed characteristics such as age, sex, race or ethnic group membership. While status distinctions is clearly observable in heterogeneous communities such as in urban areas, it is blurred in homogeneous communities such as in rural areas.

The network of social relationships within which people live, such as families, organised and informal groups within communities is known as social organisation. The focus of social organisation is the basic ways in which people are organised particularly, the enduring social relations that exist in a community. The bases of social organisation are on the

nuclear family, kinship, and sex. In some rural areas, while kinship is the central social bond, the family is the basis of social organisation.

Many modern agricultural technologies alters old forms of social organisation particularly, as it concerns vocational interests and problems. Social change brings about this alteration, for example, the provision of a new health centre in a community, may bring several people together, who were hitherto, unrelated, to make joint decisions. Social change can also alters traditional forms of social organisation, by displacing existing work groups and creating new associations.

3.5 Social Forces and Social Change

In a society people relate together in groups for a common goal with a common interest. By its collective action or decision, when such a group of people is able to influence the action or decision of other groups or section of the public, or influence the policies of government, it is referred to as social force. Therefore, social forces are human forces which work upon each other within society. By way of definition, a social force is an attempt by a number of the members of a society to bring about social action or social change, Ottaway (1980).

Social forces that are at work in a society at a given time are the channels of information on techniques and values, and the resultant change from the interaction of the duo. Social forces, by operation, will themselves overlap and interact and are therefore categorised into economic forces, occupational groups, educational forces, social status groups, religious forces and political forces. All the categories make continuous conflict of interests to eventually have control over social change.

The social determinants may be made of groups of people who may be organised or not, may be associations or businessmen, a political party, a trade union or a religious body. The change agent must therefore be careful not to omit the influence of individuals while focusing on the social determinants of change, this is because, the influence of men and women of higher social status may be fast or slow according to the rate of acceptance and spread of their ideas.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt in this unit that about values and beliefs and their foundation and on how that influence change. You have also been acquainted with how power and influence affect change. It was also stressed that power and influence in a community can be identified by using such methods as reputational method, positional method and

decision method. You must also remember that there was emphasis in the unit on social stratification and organisations and social forces as they influence social change.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:

- values and beliefs influence social change
- power and influence affect the rate of occurrence of social change
- power and influence are identified by reputational, positional and decision methods.
- Social stratification and organisation affect social change
- Social forces are attempt to bring about a change in a society by members of the society.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are social values and beliefs?
2. Discuss power and influence and explain the methods of their identification
3. Explain the bases of stratification in a society.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 4 GROUP DYNAMICS AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Unit 1	Group Dynamics and Communication Pattern
Unit 2	Factors Affecting Dynamics among Group
Unit 3	Factors Affecting Group Participation
Unit 4	Roles of Members in Group Communication

UNIT 1 GROUP DYNAMICS AND COMMUNICATION PATTERN

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 6.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Concept of Group
 - 3.1.1 Advantages of Using Groups
 - 3.2 Properties of Groups
 - 3.3 Group Methods and Techniques for Social Change
 - 3.4 Communication Pattern and Interaction among Group
 - 3.4.1 Hierarchical Communication Pattern
 - 3.4.2 Com-Com Communication Pattern
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

For effective social change to take place among the people, the people must be aware of the change targeted at them. The ratio of change agents or extension agents to the target audience is very low, for example, it ranges from 1:1,500 in Niger state and 1:5,800 in Lagos with a national average of 1:1,968 as against the ratio of 1:500 recommended by Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) of the United Nations (AESON, 2005). The most seemingly possible approach of reaching the people, therefore, is the group approach rather than the extension agent meeting the individual farmers. In this unit therefore, you will learn about what a group is, their properties, their techniques and methods, their communication pattern and interaction.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain what a group is
- state the properties of a group
- discuss the techniques and methods of social change
- explain group's communication pattern and interaction.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

By utilising group techniques, an extension worker can reach more people than is possible by following individual methods. This is an important factor when time and staff are limited. Group methods are especially effective in persuading extension's clientele to try a new idea or practice. A group decision to try a new practice, for example, is likely to carry more weight in an area than a similar decision made by an individual (Kang & Song 1984).

3.1 Concept of Group

Group could be regarded as individuals who have some features in common and coming together to achieve certain objectives through the processing of interaction or discussion. Homan (1950) defines a group as a number of persons who communicate with one another often over a span of time and who are few enough so that each person is able to communicate with all the other, not as second hand through other people, but face to face. A group can also be defined as a collection of individuals among whom a set of interdependent relationships exist (that is, each individual influence the other), or a collection of people interacting with one another towards achieving a common goal (Windapo and Afolayan 2005).

The individual belongs to one group or the other. Some are forced to be member of a group, some become members by accident while some are born into groups. Groups could be in the form of business, clubs, community association, profession, family, cooperatives or common commodity producer (e.g. rice producer). For the purpose of this course, the group of interest relates to groups with learning/teaching situation in extension and that possesses peculiar characteristics not often found in other types of groups.

3.1.1 Advantages of Using Groups

Given the low ratio of extension agents to number of farmers, using groups is preferred above the individual method in the following ways as buttressed by Ladele (1995) and reported by Windapo et. Al. (2005).

- More people are covered with a farming community with extension messages in agricultural innovations
- With group approach, more time is saved while at the same time reducing cost required for reaching several individuals with extension information
- More people are involved and this enhances participation due to enhanced interest for working as a group
- Results in self improvement due to skill acquisition and educational opportunities offered through adult education and literacy programmes
- It is an effective means for identifying local production constraints and development priorities (Baxter, 1987).

3.2 Properties of Group

For a group to have effective and efficient operation it must have certain properties. These properties as possessed are that group:

- Must have motivational base, that is, must share the same goal and objectives as this will enable them to act in concert
- Must be organised, that is, must have well organised structure, particularly, the leadership style must be well defined, for example, having a chairman, supervisor et cetera
- Must have group norms by which all the group members are bound
- Must be cohesive; cohesiveness provides for effective joint efforts and decisions without bickering
- Has spontaneous cooperation resulting from the similar needs
- Must have discipline as this will enable the group to respect the structure and be committed to group objectives
- Has sense of belonging to the group goals
- Has protection for their operations from internal and external interference
- Has participatory roles in all the group activities by members
- Have influence in the area of their operation and even in securing benefits from government since group has status and organised structure
- Has decision-making procedures which are acceptable to members.

3.3 Group Methods of Techniques for Social Change

Groups may differ in their goals and objectives, therefore, the methods and techniques of operation that are most appropriate for the circumstance is usually selected. There is a pool of methods and techniques from which an extension worker can choose to operate among groups. This pool of methods and techniques include:

1. Meetings

Meetings with group is the most common methods in participatory approach for finding out the problems and needs of the group. Meetings can be in the form of organisation meetings, planning meetings, training meetings, community meetings or special interest meetings. Meetings enhance interaction among group members and there is also immediate feedback from members to the extension worker working with the group.

2. Symposium and Seminars

A symposium is a meeting in which two to five resource persons give short, prepared papers on a given topic while a seminar comprises a small group of trainees engaged in specialised study under the leadership of an expert. In seminar, the leader give a brief, opening presentation, often on provocative issues, and guide general discussion (Kang and Song, 1984).

In symposium, interaction with the audience is not expected but used primarily for information gathering at the professional level while seminar is normally reserved for advanced study and provides an opportunity for indepth study of an issue with an expert.

3. Lecture

The lecture is a formal, verbal presentation by a single speaker to a group of listeners. The purpose of the lecture being to provide a body of organised information to an audience. Questions or feedback may be permitted at the end of the lectures, so also, the lecture may be supported with visual aids.

4. Panel

In panel presentation, a limited number of experts or specialists given short presentations on the same subject. The subject is ideally approached by the panelists from different area of discipline. A panel is guided by a moderator while the audiences have the opportunity to ask questions.

5. Demonstration

In demonstration, a group is shown how something is done. Demonstration can be in the form of method demonstration whereby a process of doing something is shown step-by-step, or in result demonstration which teaches how a practice or input should be adopted by physically showing how a new or different practice compares with a commonly-used local practice.

6. Excursion and Field Trips

Excursion refers to a journey made by a group to visit a place of interest that has contributions to make towards the group goals while in field trip a group travels to another location to observe agricultural practices, projects or demonstrations not available locally. The purpose of the field trip excursion is to provide first-hand observation of some practice that might benefit the group.

7. Agricultural Shows or Field Day

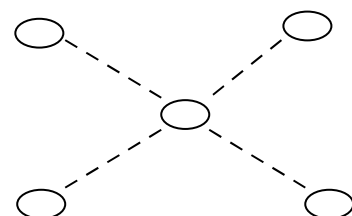
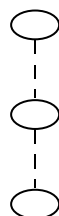
Agricultural shows or field day refers to exhibition of farm products and farm tools which is open to visits by people. The purpose of agricultural shows or field day is to permit extension clientele to observe personally and ask questions on successful farming practices, and to create a situation in which informal contacts and learning can take place.

3.4 Communication Pattern and Interaction among Group

Group activities are interactive, the interaction may be between the leader and the group members and between members themselves. The tool of group interaction is communication. The norm of communication among group is for each group member to talk whenever he or she wishes, in order to let what others have to say be out of share courtesy, members of the group take turn in talking. There are two patterns of communication among groups namely; hierarchical and com-com communication patterns.

3.4.1 Hierarchical Communication Pattern

In this pattern, it is in a way whereby a superior communicates with subordinates just as it is in the case in chain process. Somewhat reticent members of the group may have less opportunity to participate in the discussion, however, in some cases a group find it easier to function more effectively by channeling comments through a centralised dominant member of the group. A chain process is as in the figure 1 below.



(i) (ii)

Figure 3: Chain Process of Hierarchical Communication Pattern

In Figure 1, (i) and (ii) are three and five people talking respectively but one person at the centre is dominant at talk in the group. In (i), the topmost person could also be the superior passing information through the lesser superior to the subordinate or vice versa. While in (ii) every member of the group communicates directly with the superior and the superior also does the same to every group member.

3.4.2 Com-Com Communication Pattern

In this pattern, every member of the group makes a significant contribution to the accomplishment of the group task. They all have the freedom to speak and so interact regularly with each group member. The cohesiveness and flexibility of the group increase because the members have the feeling of influence on the group. With this pattern, status, power influence and control discrepancies are minimised, team work improves and members feel a sense of belonging.

Features of desirable communication pattern in group dynamics include:

- frankness in downward communication that is, people at the top being frank to those below
- openness in upward communication
- supportiveness in interpersonal relationship
- trusting among group members
- frequent use of participatory decision making methods such as buzz and brainstorming sessions.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we have learnt that working with group makes the work of extension worker easier, we have defined a group as individuals who have some features in common. Working with groups therefore affords us to cover farming communities with extension innovation with a save in time and cost and with the people fully participating. Group must have motivational base and must be organised. We have also learnt that,

the techniques used in reaching the group include: meetings, symposium, lecture, panel, and field trips among others.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- group is a number of persons who communicate with one another over time span
- with group approach, more time is saved while at the same time reducing cost required for reaching several individuals
- group properties include cohesiveness, goals, discipline, spontaneous cooperation, belonging, participation to mention but a few
- group techniques are meetings, lecture, symposium, field trips, panel, agricultural shows and field day
- communication patterns among group are hierarchical and com-com pattern.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define group and state the advantages of using group approach.
2. Discuss four techniques of operation among group.
3. Explain communication patterns among group.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 FACTORS AFFECTING DYNAMICS AMONG GROUP

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Concept of Group Dynamics
 - 3.2 Strategies for Involving Groups in Extension Work
 - 3.3 Factors Affecting Dynamics among Groups
 - 3.4 Fostering Participation of Groups
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we dealt with what group is, its advantages and properties. We also stressed in that unit, the techniques used in reaching the group. In this unit, you will be learning about the concept of group dynamics, the strategies for involving groups in extension work, about factors affecting dynamics among groups and about the conditions conducive to social changes in groups.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the concept of group dynamics
- explain the strategies for involving groups in extension work
- state the factors affecting dynamics among groups
- state the conditions conducive to social change in groups.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Concept of Group Dynamics

Dynamics means changing. Group dynamics therefore means the changes in behaviour through group's interaction. Interaction among group yields changes, and by human nature, behaviour is not static. Group dynamics refers to certain processes that take place among members of a group in the process of executing its task (Windapo et. Al. 2005). The task refers to the goal, the aspiration, the target upon which the activities of the group places its focus within an environment. The elements of group dynamics include the group goals, the group activities

and the environment in which the activities are taking place. If the group activities must have an effect on the group members behaviour, these elements must come to play. Each of these elements is affected by certain factors that cause it to change, hence we have; dynamics of the group, dynamics of the goal, dynamics of path of the goal, dynamics of the environment and the inter-group dynamics.

3.2 Strategies for Involving Groups in Extension Work

Group dynamics becomes imperative in carrying out extension delivery among farmers. This is because, the knowledge of the internal and external factors of the group, could be used to the advantage of the extension workers. For example, making the societal goals compatible with the extension goals, ensures greater adoption of the innovation, while the identification of some individuals within the group, eases the use of different styles to achieve extension goals.

The strategies for involving groups in extension work include the following:

- i. **The use of Cooperative Groups:** Cooperative groups such as “Esusu”, “Egbe aro” (labour cooperatives group), cocoa buyers cooperatives, and other forms of farmers cooperative groups who are bound by cooperative laws and regulation can be used as a medium of reaching the members with extension information.
- ii. **Gradual Build-up Strategy:** With this method, when the change agent has contact with an individual ab-initio, he asks him to come along with a friend of his for the next meeting. Subsequently friend to friend, or neighbour to neighbour innovation results to group formation for the purpose of extension delivery.
- iii. **Ad hoc Group Strategy:** This strategy uses temporary groups to advice extension purpose and such groups are disbanded as soon as the purpose is achieved.
- iv. **Use of Traditional Groups:** Traditional groups are formed through solidarity with one another by means of face-to-face contact and are tied together through common interests. In rural Nigeria, we have age grade groups, which are formed to render mutual assistance to members, sex grade groups or even community development associations. These groups outlive the individual members, then strength lies in their cohesiveness, small size, homogeneity and face-to-face contact. Extension delivery can therefore be channeled through such groups.

- v. **Focused Group Technique:** This strategy entails the use of a group with similar interest, similar background experiences for extension work. Discussions are held with such a group on a particular practice or information, where members are permitted to discuss and interact freely in a lively atmosphere. In this situation, the extension agent functions as the moderator for the discussion.
- vi. **Gender Disaggregated Strategy:** This refers to the use of “men only” or “women only” group meetings. Invited members discuss freely on their needs and constraints. From such discussion with the extension agent serving as the moderator, the way-forward for development programmes can be arrived at.

3.3 Factors Affecting Dynamics among Groups

Effective use of groups for extension delivery can be achieved if these factors to be discussed are considered and well taken care of:

- (i) **Age Distribution:** It should be realized that if the group is made up of different age groups, as they grow older they will be distinct in their attitude with respect to level of maturity.
- (ii) **Level of Education:** Those who are educated are more exposed and could therefore accept some ideas easily than other members and this may affect their skill and attitude.
- (iii) **Social Status:** Membership of a group could be made up of individuals with varying social status, this to an extent could affect the group interaction as the free flow of discussion could be hampered by the level of complex that may result.
- (iv) **Exposure to External Influence:** External influence can have effect on the behaviour of members, hence their level of interaction. Some members can be more externally exposed than some others.
- (v) **Similarity or not in Farm Enterprise:** Farmers with similar farm enterprise have more common interests than those who are not and are more likely to interact more at common level than those who have different farm enterprises.
- (vi) **Variety of Programmes:** If programmes are made up of varieties, it checkmates boredom and monotony. Therefore, programmes that are varied from night meetings to day trips and to field days, attract more interest and participation from the members.

- (vii) **Benefit of the Group:** If the benefits or purpose of group meetings are visible and continuous, the interest of the group is sustained.
- (viii) **Single Geographical Stretch:** Group formed within a single geographical area encourages common interest and the members getting more acquainted. Members are expected to be well acquainted.
- (ix) **Fear:** Group members have tendency to believe that everyone else is smarter and more knowledgeable than he is. He fears his ignorance will be revealed if he talks. He may therefore decide to be on his own rather than being cheated.
- (x) **Insecurity:** Lack of experience, unfavourable past experiences, or a negative self-attitude may render a member insecure. It is important to create atmosphere of absolute security for all members and make them optimistic.
- (xi) **Time Commitments:** The individual may feel that he is already very busy and thinks that the group will demand too much of his time. He gives in for reasons other than participation.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain five factors that may affect dynamics among a group.

3.4 Fostering Participation of Groups

Group should be used in all series of programmes identification, planning, implementation and evaluation. This process has been divided into three for the convenience of discussion.

1. **Self Analysis:** It should be carried out by the farmer group themselves through one by one discussion with extension agents and scientist of their problem. This could be followed by field observation of farm work to check on aspects brought forward by the farmers. Although this process is time consuming, it provides a surer basis for development.
2. **Self Programming:** With this, solutions to farmers' problems are provided in a consistent overall strategy. The group then decides on who will make the first test of the new techniques recommended and in what order. The group should be encouraged to select their representatives to carry out the trial so as to make them confident in reviewing their experiences rather

than the extension staff selecting key innovators or pilot contact farmers who the villages may not feel they can emulate.

3. **Self Evaluation:** This phase is the time when farmer's representative report and discuss with their group; scientist and extension workers their experiences and if the new techniques are more effective, the adoption strategies can then be discussed. This self-evaluation could also lead to further self-programming. The methodology discussed here could be a very viable one for ensuring stronger farmer participation as well as ensuring that recommendations are relevant to farmer's circumstances.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have learnt that dynamics means changing, thus, group dynamics refers to the change processes in a group. Group dynamics is imperative in carrying out extension work among a group but it involves using the appropriate strategies for involving the people. Also, we learnt that certain factors affect dynamics among groups but participation of people in group activities can be fostered through self analysis, self programming and self evaluation.

5.0 SUMMARY

Having gone through this unit, you should be acquainted with the following:

- Group dynamics means changes in behaviour through group interaction.
- There are strategies for involving groups in extension delivery.
- There are factors that affect group dynamics namely, age distribution, level of education and social status to mention but a few.
- Participation among group members can be fostered through self analysis, self programming and self-evaluation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain Group dynamics
2. Explain five factors that affect group dynamics
3. How can you foster participation among groups?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Kang, J.T. and Song H.K. (1984). Individual and Group Extension Teaching Methods. In Swanson B.E. (Ed.). *Agricultural Extension: A Reference Manual*, FAO, Rome pp. 133-142.
- Windapo, O. and Afolayan S.O. (2005). Group Dynamics and Leadership in Agricultural Extension. In Adedoyin S.F. (Ed.). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*, AESON, pp. 134-138.

UNIT 3 FACTORS AFFECTING GROUP PARTICIPATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Factors Affecting the Effectiveness of Farmers Cooperatives
 - 3.2 Reasons for Non-Participation in Group Activities
 - 3.3 Problems of Leadership among Group
 - 3.4 Frustration among Group Members
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We have learnt in the previous units that group dynamics is very pertinent to extension delivery. Not only that extension focus on group increases coverage of farming community leading to improved dissemination of extension messages and agricultural innovations among farmers but allows for participation of more people. However, there are some particular factors that may affect group participation in extension work. In this unit therefore, efforts will be made to identify the effectiveness of farmer's cooperatives, reasons for non-participation in group activities, problems of leadership among group and frustration among group members.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- identify the factors affecting the effectiveness of farmers cooperatives
- explain the reasons for non-participation in group activities
- discuss the problems of leadership among group
- explain frustration among group members.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Factors Affecting the Effectiveness of Farmers Cooperatives

One of the important organs of reaching the farmers with extension message is through the cooperatives owned and managed by the farmers themselves. The farmers see the cooperatives as their own thing” and it also assists them in the funding of their agricultural activities. Therefore, a functional and effective cooperatives among group members is a sustainable opportunity through which farmers can embrace extension information and funding the extension activities. Problems arise however, where the cooperatives are not achieving their purpose because they are not effectively run.

The Factors militating against the effectiveness of farmers cooperatives in extension service delivery include:

- i. **Poor Membership Participation:** Members if not adequately persuaded on the benefits they stand to gain from their membership of cooperatives, particularly if the benefits are not visible or available, members of a group may not effectively participate.
- ii. **Over dependence of Government:** Where the organisation of cooperatives largely depends on government patronage and overtures, cooperatives may not be effective since, it may collapse where patronage from government or its agencies is not forth-coming.
- iii. **Negative Government Interventions:** Though government patronage to cooperatives boosts the body’s functionality and sustainability, unwarranted interventions into the activities of cooperatives hampers its effectiveness. There could be undue interventions particularly from political groups who may overbearingly be politicizing the cooperatives efforts.
- iv. **Unfulfilled Expectations, Mismanagement and Fraud:** Where there is lack of trust in the leaders of cooperatives due to unfulfilled expectations, mismanagement of funds and fraudulent practices, members may become discouraged hence exhibiting apathy towards the affairs of cooperatives.
- v. **Lack of Education:** Lack of education among the rank and file of membership, as most members are illiterates, could impair effectiveness since members may find it difficult to interpret the goals and objectives of the association. Effectiveness of cooperatives or any other group focused organ, is determined by

the ability of the members being able to comprehend the design of that organ and what they stand to benefit from it.

3.2 Reason for Non-Participation in Group Activities

As an extension personnel, it is important to find out why members do not want to be members of particular groups or find out why members of a group experience problems that may affect communication. It is therefore necessary to identify the barriers to effective participation and eliminate them. The reasons for non-participation may therefore include;

- **Fear:** Group members have tendency to believe that everyone else is smarter and more knowledgeable than he is. He fears that his ignorance may be revealed if he talks. He may therefore decide to be on his own rather than being cheated. In such a situation, the group leader has to be sensitive so as to encourage others and consistently assure them of the sincerity of the group to treat everybody equally.
- **Insecurity:** Lack of experience, unfavourable past experience, or a negative self-attitude may render a member insecure. It is therefore very important to create an atmosphere of absolute security for all members and make them to be optimistic.
- **Value Rejection:** It does occur that members of a group cannot agree with the group objectives the same way, and may tend to perceive them from different perspectives. With that, a member may by the disagreement not participate. Given the circumstance, the methods used to gain the objectives or the priorities of efforts should therefore be well understood.
- **Time Commitments:** The individual may feel that he is already very busy and has the notion that the group activities will demand too much of his time schedules. In this situation, rather than participating, he gives in for reasons. The group leader must therefore be time conscious and time considerate and he should adequately educate members about the objectives of the group and the need for all to be involved.
- **Vested Interest:** When a group member feels that the objectives of a group are more likely to benefit some people than others, he may not participate, particularly, if the group objectives has link with a political party, or religious beliefs other than his own, he may not get involved. Group must therefore avoid emphasis on the source of the group objectives, on religious and political inclinations.

- **Nature of Behaviour:** The personality of an individual may sometimes not make him to associate with other individuals. For example an introvert has the nature of keeping to self, not sociable and reserved. These qualities may not allow him to participate in group activities.

3.3 Problems of Leadership among Groups

Leadership is very important in group dynamics. A leader among a group performs the task functions of initiating activity, information seeking, information giving, opinion giving, elaborate coordinating, summarising, testing feasibility, evaluating and diagnosing.

In a situation where a leader cannot effectively perform the above functions, problems may arise. Such problems are often to the disadvantage of the group and infect the group activities. The reasons why the leader may not be able to perform this task functions may be due to lack of in-depth knowledge of the objectives and content of the group activities, he may not be sociable so as to attract and mobilise members or he may have some psychological problems which can inhibit his performance.

Defective performance by the leader can make the group members to loose confidence in him, they may not trust him and so becomes difficult to be mobilised or controlled by such leader.

3.4 Frustration among Group Members

Some individuals may or may not know why he is unable to communicate in a group environment his actions often provide clues to his reasons and frustration. In such cases the individual may decide to adjust his behaviour in one or more of the following ways:

1. **Aggression:** He overcompensate for feelings of fear and insecurity by vigorously striking back everyone. He may even jettison the idea only to attack the motive or he may even withdraw and keep his peace during the meeting.
2. **Compensation:** the individual when frustrated begins to do some other things such as setting the table or arranging the chairs in place of actually participating in the group discussion.
3. **Projection:** He finds a cause that are external for his lack of participation. He may say "I can read books and understand what are discussing" or "the government is going to tell everyone how to do this anyway, so what difference does this group make"?

4. **Identification:** He identifies his opinion with some other members of the group, that is, someone else who holds the same opinion with him, and he consoles himself by resting his efforts. He may say to the speaker who holds the same opinion with him “come on”, “speak for me”, “you’ve got it”, “that is it”. All these sayings are meant to “save his face” from frustration.
5. **Rationalisation:** He condemns the objectives of the group by saying “it is foolish, why bother”.
6. **Regression:** He is an agreeable fellow, he refuses to hold a different opinion from others and so he goes along with the crowd.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learnt that group participation may be affected by certain factors. Reasons for non-participation were equally discussed to include fear, insecurity, value rejection and time commitments. Other reasons for non-participation were given as vested interest and the nature of individual’s behaviour. Non involvement in group activities we learnt could exhibit certain behaviour to checkmate the frustration. These behaviours have been identified as projection, regression, aggression, identification, compensation and rationalisation.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:

- certain factors militate against the effectiveness of farmers cooperatives in extension service
- there are reasons for non-participation in group activities by individuals
- problems of leadership can cause non-participation by members
- when a member is frustrated about group discussions, he exhibits some kind of behaviour to checkmate the frustration.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss five reasons why individuals may not participate in group discussion.

2. Explain five ways by which individuals react to frustration among group.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Windapo, O. and Afolayan S.O. (2005). Group Dynamics and Leadership in Agricultural Extension. In Adedoyin S.F. (Eds). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*, AESON, 134-138.

UNIT 4 ROLES OF MEMBERS IN GROUP COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Positive Roles of Members
 - 3.2 Negative Roles of Members
 - 3.3 Leadership Roles
 - 3.4 Improving Group Communication
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Do not forget that a group is made up of individuals who come together for a common interest and goals. Among a group therefore, individuals play different roles as to the sustenance of the group goals. In this unit therefore, you will learn about the positive and negative roles of members and also about the leadership roles.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the negative roles of members of a group
- explain the positive roles of members of a group
- discuss the leadership roles in group assignments
- explain ways of improving group communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Positive Roles of Members in Group Communication

The group members play a variety of roles in the continuing process of communication. The positive roles are:

1. **The Initiator:** The group leader or the elected chairman often suggests or proposes new ideas or a changed way to consider the problem at hand or proposes alternative for action.
2. **The Information Giver:** He knows the answer to the question being discussed or he may know where the answer can be found. He may be an authority or an expert in the relevant field corresponding to the discussion.

3. **The Information Seeker:** He asks for more explanation to clarify the discussion points in terms of this factual adequacy.
4. **The Elaborator:** He relates the given factor and the opinion expressed by others in the group. He may give an idea or a suggestion on a project and to consider how it would work if adopted.
5. **The Opinion Seeker:** He asks for the clarification of values related to goals or proposes alternatives for action.
6. **The Orientor:** He raises point of order on the direction of the meeting. He points out how discussion is straying from the agreed purpose and so reminds members to stick to the acceptable pattern of group discussion.
7. **The Evaluator:** He measures the group's actions, achievement or progress against some set standards.
8. **The Energizer:** He urges the group toward action or decision. He says "progress". He will say "we have talk about this long enough, let's take decision.
9. **The Technician:** He attends to the environmental needs featuring seat arrangement, ensuring ventilation of the venue of the meeting, preparation of coffee breaks and the electronic systems such Public Address System (PAS).
10. **The Recorder:** He serves as the groups "memory" by keeping track of suggestions.
11. **An Encourager:** He praises, agrees with and accepts the contribution of others. His mode of doing that maybe verbal or non-verbal.
12. **The Harmoniser:** He mediates differences among members. He is a go-between who offers and points out the merits of both sides of an argument.
13. **The Compromiser:** He does his own harmonising when there is a conflict with his idea or opinion. He may compromise by admitting his errors.
14. **The Expeditor:** He attempts to keep all communication channels open by encouraging the participation of all members. He may say for instance, "I would be interested to hear what Ojo has to

say about this”. He may even try to set a time limit that will enable all members to participate in the discussions.

Those roles help to eliminate noise from the communication process. An individual can assume one or more of those roles at the same meeting.

3.2 Negative Roles of Members in Group Communication

Negative roles are resorted to when an individual wants to satisfy a selfish-want, or need which may interfere with intended communication. These thereby produce noise in the communication channel that blocks the reception of messages. These roles include:

1. **The Aggressor:** His intent is always negative rather than positive. He produces noise by humiliating others, by expressing disapproval of the values, opinion or acts of fellow members. He jokes aggressively or tries to take credit for another’s contribution.
2. **The Blocker:** He maintains a stubbornly negative attitude towards everyone and every idea. He disagrees or opposes without genuine reason and will attempt to revive issues that have been rejected or by-passed.
3. **The Recognition Seeker:** He calls attention to himself. He boasts, reports personal achievements and is constantly worried about being placed in an inferior position.
4. **The Play boy:** He is also a recognition seeker, cynical and displays non-challant attitude. He carries on his private conversation with the fellow beside him regardless of the discussion in progress.
5. **The Dominator:** He attempts to assert authority or to demonstrate superiority by manipulating the group or certain members of the group. He places himself in the leadership role.
6. **The Special-Interest Pleader:** He tries to concede his own prejudices or biases in the “cause” of some other group or interest.

These roles have negative consequences on group communication by constituting nuisance and distraction to the aspiration of the group.

3.3 Leadership role in Group Communication

Leadership roles played by extension professionals in group communication are very pertinent to the success and achievement of the group. A group without a leader could be analogous to a herd of sheep without a shepherd. Some of these roles are obviously:

1. **A Specialist:** As a professional in the field of extension services, he has the in-depth knowledge of the philosophy of agricultural extension, rural sociology and extension strategies. He has a link with research based institutions from where he obtains new technology or agricultural practices to be communicated to the group. He is capable of dowsing the doubts of the group members and clarifies knotty issues.
2. **A Planner:** He is the initiator and the convener of the group. He plans what should be the composition of membership and states the objectives and goals in a realistic, realisable and attainable ways. He makes the required facilities available for the group and so plans time and activity schedules.
3. **An Administrator:** He is the boss, so to say, in group communication. He sees to the smooth running of the group discussion. He directs the affairs of the meetings. He is the link between the group and the agency responsible for ingredients and contents of the group communication.
4. **A Superior:** After he gives instructions on how to carry out an activity he sees to it that the discussion of the group is tailored towards achieving the goal of the given instruction.
5. **A Teacher:** Among a group the leader is seen as “all in al” in whom all attention is directed for knowledge. He teaches the group member the know-how of certain ideas and practices. In this regard, an extension personnel while serving as the group leader, teaches the group on the objectives and know-how of a particular innovation.
6. **An Agent of Change:** The leader, while representing a particular change agency or institution, such as an extension agent representing the Agricultural Development Projects (ADP) becomes a change agent, who the agency uses to actualise their objectives.
7. **A Professional Leader:** A group leader is a professional in his own field and so expected to give professional guidance to the group.

3.4 Improving Group Communication

For the purpose of achieving the goals of the group, the group discussion or communication must be effective. The following measures should be considered in an attempt to improving communication among the members of a group.

1. When structuring a group for a specific purpose, members whose personal interests, ambitions and goals are compatible with those of most or all other members of the group. For example, a group of cocoa producers or groundnut producer or cassava growers have common interests and any discussion in the respective commodity produced would be to the interest of the members.
2. Communication would be most effective when the goals of the group are the same or similar to the individual goals of the members. This is because, the set objectives and the strategies for achieving them takes a generally acceptable direction by members and so participation could be enhanced.
3. Every member of a group should try to understand his own communication behaviour by so doing, it can be more effective in helping others overcome communication barriers.
4. Identification and reduction of the cause of noise in the communication system is another sure way of improving communication. The cause of noise in communication can be human, (the group leader or members) or channel of the communication or even the content of the discussion particularly, if ambiguously or arbitrarily presented.
5. Effective communication can also be improved upon by providing a permissive congenial group atmosphere for communication. In this instance members are allowed to freely express their views without fear or complex.
6. Where groups are large much of effective communication may not be achieved because of the likely rowdiness. Large groups should therefore be splitted into small ones. Say not more than eight to ten-member group, so that all members have an opportunity to participate.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have learnt about the roles of members and leaders of a group in group communication. It was found that, some members play positive roles to sustain group communication while some others play

negative roles. Negative roles have adverse consequences on group communication. We were also acquainted with the fact, that leadership roles in group communication portrays the leader as a professional, a teacher, a supervisor, an administrator, a change agent, a planner and a specialist.

Furthermore you learnt that group communication can be improved upon when a group is made of members that have common interests and goals and that a large group should be broken down into smaller ones among other ways of improving communication among groups.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:

- some members play positive roles in group communication
- some members play negative roles in group communication
- leadership roles include being a specialist, a planner, a professional, a teacher, a change agent, an administrator and a supervisor.
- that communication among group can be improved.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain ten positive roles of group members
2. Discuss three leadership roles
3. Explain three ways of improving communication.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S.F. (ed.) (2005). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Agricultural Extension Society of Nigeria (AESON) 137p.

MODULE 5 INTRODUCING CHANGE

Unit 1	Strategies for Introducing Change I
Unit 2	Strategies for Introducing Change II
Unit 3	Resistance to Change
Unit 4	Hindrances to Agricultural Change

UNIT 1 STRATEGIES FOR INTRODUCING CHANGE I

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
7.0	Main Content
3.1	Changing Attitudes, Beliefs and Values
3.2	Education/Literacy Training
3.3	Demonstrations
3.4	Information Dissemination
3.5	Forced Compliance/Coercion
3.6	Skills Training
3.7	Exhortation/Appeals
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading
1.0	INTRODUCTION

Farmers may not be aware of change or innovation until such a change is introduced to them. By introduction to farmers, it means that the awareness of such a change is created in them. They are made to understand the works of that change and what they stand to benefit. The more the farmers realise what they stand to benefit from the change, the more likely they will accept it. There are however strategies by which information on the change is communicated.

In this unit therefore, you will learn the strategies used in introducing change to a target audience.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain how attitudes, beliefs and values of a target audience can be changed
- explain literacy training
- discuss demonstrations as a strategy
- explain forced compliance or coercion
- discuss skills training.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Changing Attitudes, Beliefs and Values

If change is to occur, it must be focused on the individuals as the target group of extension information and at those cultural aspects that are regarded as obstacles. For example, attitudes, beliefs and values may have to be changed so that farmers will perceive certain conditions as problems and in the process develop a greater aspiration for improved income for themselves and their families. It is generally believed that rural dwellers are highly traditional and so do not give up easily their long-held beliefs about a particular concept. In this regard therefore, efforts must be made to persuade the individuals to let go such beliefs so that they can embrace a better practice, an idea or a change.

3.2 Education/Literacy Training

The strategy of education or literary training entails assisting the target group to be able to read and write. Educated individuals have been found to adopt more change than the non-literate individuals (Okunlola and Alfred 1998). Educated individuals could more easily comprehend the intricacies and technicalities that may be inherent in changes than the non-educated. Just as they are equally more likely to perceive the benefits in change than their counterparts. Educative strategy attempts to induce desired behaviour through the internalisation, new beliefs or values.

3.3 Demonstration

Demonstration as a strategy is in two ways, namely method demonstration and result demonstration. While the method demonstration shows a group or class how something is done step-by-step for the purpose of teaching new techniques and practices to extension clientele, such as, how to use a tool, prevent erosion or how to cook a particular diet, result demonstration teaches why a practice or input should be adopted by physically showing how a new or different practice compares with a commonly-used local practice. The main purpose of using the result demonstration is to prove that the new practice is superior to the one currently being used, so as to persuade the target audience to try the new practice.

An example of result demonstration is the comparison of two plots of a crop, with one treated with a particular chemical while the other is not.

3.4 Information Dissemination

Information on a particular change or practice can be disseminated to the clientele using the appropriate channel. To the individual, information

can be disseminated through farm or home visits, office calls, informed contacts, the field flag and the model farmer. The group can be reached with extension information through contacts, the field trip, the field day, lecture, panel of discussants, workshop and buzz session. Channels, such as television, radio and printed materials can also be used to disseminate information to the clientele.

Change agents must select the most effective channels for reaching their change targets. Extension agent as a change agent is the most important source of information in improved practices, he must therefore be cognizant of the need and interest of the farmers around what particular message or messages that would be most useful to them. The change agent must be capable of interpreting research findings to accomplish his assignments.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain what you understand by buzz session, lecture and workshop as means of information dissemination.

3.5 Forced Compliance/Coercion

Using this strategy, the clientele are forced to accept change through pressure, threats and coercion. Coercion may occur through denying those who refuse to accept change some important benefits such as access to credits and chemicals such as fertilizers, herbicides and some other inputs such as farm tools. By this method, the clientele would have no option than to accept the change as agent controlled sanctions may also include force, authority, payment of bribes or blackmail.

3.6 Skills Training

In order to make change possible, the clientele are trained in some particular skills that would make it easier for them to accept the change after the mastery of the skill. Complexity of some changes makes acceptance difficult, therefore, as the target group becomes trained and they can manage the complexity, accepting the change becomes more easily.

While these individual-focused change strategies could be said to be fairly widespread, there is a general feeling that they are not very effective for purposes of changing individuals. Where they seem to have been effective, it was only for a short period of time, if they had

not been accompanied with other complementary changes such as credit or provision of new technologies (Sofranko, 1984).

3.7 Exhortation/Appeals/Persuasion

With this strategy, the target individual is persuaded to embrace change. This is done through ideological and charismatic appeals and exhortation, to enable the individual see the reason why the change is expedient. Individuals may accept change having found that they could increase their income and improve their standard of living through the acceptance of the change.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we have learnt that, for change to take place, the behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of the individuals or the target group must be changed from their long-held perspective of doing things. Other strategies that are individual oriented, that we have learnt about, included education and literacy training, demonstration and information dissemination, they also included coercion, skills training and appeals. However, it was suggested that for the strategies to be effective, they have to be coupled with access to credit and supply of other relevant inputs.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of individuals must be changed to enable them accept change
- the individual must be educated or literacy trained to ease their acceptance of change
- demonstration of the method and the result of a practice before the individuals can make them to accept change
- information on a practice or idea can be disseminated through the electronic and print media
- other strategies of enhancing acceptance of change include skills training, coercion of ideological appeals and exhortation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

22. Explain demonstration as a strategy for introducing change.
23. Discuss the role of skill training in a social change process.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Sofranko, A.J. (1984). *Introducing Technological Change: The Social Setting*, FAO, Rome. Pp. 68-69.

UNIT 2 STRATEGIES FOR INTRODUCING CHANGE II

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Introduction of New Forms of Social Organisation
 - 3.2 Infrastructural Provisions
 - 3.3 Availability of New Technologies
 - 3.4 Legal Changes in a Change Process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary

- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This second broad change strategy emphasised changes in the social environment or the agricultural system in which farmers work. In this unit therefore, you will learn how change can be introduced using the strategies that focus on the social and physical environment of the target audience.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain new forms of social organisation as a strategy for introducing change
- state infra-structural provisions for change to take place
- discuss how availability of new/or complementary technologies enhances acceptance of change
- explain legal changes in change process.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The assumption implicit in the strategies that focus on the social environment and the agricultural system in which the farmers practice is that, if the material conditions of setting changes, then individuals will also change (Coleman, 1970). It has been severally believed that if farmers have resources to purchase new technologies, have access to credits and good markets, or have security against crop failure and other appropriate inputs, they would adopt new practices.

The vital element of this belief is that, if only the opportunities or incentives were available, farmers would take advantage of them (Sofranko 1984). This brings about the devise of strategies for removing the constraints in the general farming environment.

3.1 Introduction of New Forms of Social Organisation

The term social organisation could be interchangeably used and as explained by Jibowo (1998), it is concerned with the arrangement of relationships between the various individuals and groups in a community or their institutions in order for that community to function property or attain its objectives. Social organisation therefore has to do with the problems of accommodation and social adjustments and with inter-relationship of groups within the community. It has also to do with

the integration and coordination of the groups and their institutions for the purpose of efficiency and group action.

Social organisations could be in the form of farmers' cooperative societies such as credit, thrift and consumer cooperative, group farm cooperative, produce buyer and marketing association at village or community level. If these new forms of social organisation are introduced into a community, they are capable of developing agriculture and eventually remove the ugly socio-economic situations that result in weak agriculture inspite of abundant resources in Nigeria (Akinloye et. al., 2005).

3.2 Infrastructural Provisions

This strategy is concerned with the provision of infrastructure which are germane to community development and improved living standard of the change target. Provision of infra-structure such as irrigation and public water, markets, transport, storage facilities, processing facilities, credit, insurance, extension research and price incentives goes a long way in motivating the target group to accept change. This assertion maybe associated with the fact that, the change targets constraints in moving the produce from the farm to the market coupled with favourable price incentives are reduced drastically. Lack of such facilities has been the barrier to change.

3.3 Availability of New and/or Complementary Technologies

Availability of new or complementary technologies is another strategy of promoting acceptance of change. Such introduced technologies must however be found to be better than the ones the target audience is used to. Where new technological inputs may be available to the change target, but for reasons of ignorance, or lack of resources they may not be utilizing them, the change agent's role in this case would be to first educate them to the availability and use of resources, and secondly to put farmers into contact with the input sources (suppliers).

The role of the change agent, being to bring new ideas and practices to farmers, explain their use, supervise their introduction, put farmers into contact with the institutions serving the farmers, and seek answers to farmers' problems involves using a combination of strategies (Sofranko 1984).

3.4 Availability of Additional Resources to Farmers

The strategy of making additional resources available to farmers becomes pertinent where there are obvious inequalities and differential

access to resources among farmers premised on the high costs of complementary inputs, fertilizer and water even though the costs of improved seeds are minimal. The fact remains that farmers on small subsistence holdings have only few savings and have no access to credit and so unable to take advantage of the opportunities presented by new technologies. In this circumstance, there are the additional requirements of reducing bottlenecks in the distribution system to the farmers so that farmers will get the inputs at the exact time they are required.

3.5 Legal Changes in a Change Process

The strategy of legal changes as a means of introducing change has to do with a deliberate effort in altering some existing laws and regulations in favour of the anticipated change. A typical example in Nigeria was the 1978 Land Use Decree which put the use of land under the state's governments and whoever requires the use of such land applies for the Certificate of Occupancy. The Decree was not in place to checkmate the situation whereby some landlords deny the intending users of the use. So also, was the establishment of the National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) which was meant to assist the farmers in land preparation so that the farmers could embrace new agricultural practices that were been introduced to them.

Some legal changes involve sanctions to the erring farmers on certain practices, such as the law of non-use of poisonous or explosive substances for harvesting fishes from rivers to protect the biodiversity or aquatic ecosystem. Therefore, the goal of legal changes is to make the target audience embrace change in their production practices.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt that, apart from the individual-oriented strategies for introducing change, those strategies that are environment-focused are important in introducing change. We have therefore, learnt that, introduction of new forms of social organisation, infra-structural provisions, availability of new technologies and additional resources including legal changes are strategies that focus on the social environment and agricultural system in which the farmers work.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that, to introduce change, the strategies that focus on the social environment of the farmers include:

- introduction of new forms of social organisation
- infrastructural provisions
- availability of new technologies
- availability of additional resources to farmers
- legal changes in a change process

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain infrastructural provisions as a strategy for introducing change.
2. Discuss typical examples in Nigeria where legal changes had been used as a strategy for introducing change.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Coleman J.S. (1970). *Conflicting Theories of Social Change: American Behavioural Scientist*, 14, 633-650.

Farinde A.J. and Adisa B.O. (2005). Role of Community Based Organisations, Commodity Associations and Non-Governmental Activities in Nigeria. In Adedoyin S.F. (Ed.) *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Agricultural Extension Society of Nigeria, 208-219.

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UNIT 3 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Reasons for Resistance
 - 3.1.1 The Fear of the Unknown
 - 3.1.2 Reluctance on the Part of the People
 - 3.1.3 Conflicts with Existing Practice or Traditions
 - 3.1.4 Direct Consequence of the Change Being Promoted
 - 3.1.5 Lack of Interest or Apathy
 - 3.1.6 The Role of the Change Agent
 - 3.2 Reducing Resistance to Change

3.3	Improving Participation by Farmers
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

No matter how seemingly or provenly beneficial a change is, not all the people it is designed for will accept it. In this unit therefore, we are going to learn why change may not be accepted, what conditions are favourable to reduction in resistance and how can farmers participation in change be improved.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- state the reasons why people resist change
- discuss the conditions that reduce resistance to change
- explain how the participation by the target group can be improved.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

We shall examine those reasons why people reject innovation and we shall also consider those characteristics of innovation that influence the acceptance or rejection of the innovation.

3.1 Reasons for Resistance

Whenever individuals are asked to change their decision making habits, either by incorporating new information or excluding some traditionally used criteria, it is likely that resistance will occur (Sofranko, 1989). Reasons why resistance occurs can be as a result of the following:

3.1.1 The Fear of the Unknown

Some people innately fear change and are persistently suspicious of the intentions of the change agents. A change from what the people already knew and practiced is viewed with some elements of anxiety since their survival and the position they occupy is determined by the success or not of the designed change. People will constantly want to avoid taking risks, since the consequences of such decision can spell disaster if not

successful, particularly, among the small holding individuals who have no alternative for survival.

3.1.2 Reluctance on the Part of the People

People may become reluctant to change for not wanting to learn new behaviour, especially when change involves risk. Change may therefore be resisted simply by human inactivity or lethargy. According to Ekong (1988), people have to desire change or feel a need for it. In many cases however, people who have lived for a long time with a particular practice and have become used to it find it difficult to change.

3.1.3 Conflicts with Existing Practice or Traditions

This describes the extent to which a change is inconsistent with the existing practice and traditions. A change is more readily accepted when it is compatible with existing cultural values, norms, and past experiences of the target individuals. A change may call for more demands than the clientele is used to, such as demands for more labour or to carry out various cultural practices at specific times and within stipulated precision margins. Such extra demands on the clientele which is a deviation from their traditional practice may make them to reject the change. Particularly too, if the change being promoted violates some aspects of religious tenets, such as a nutritionist promoting pork consumption as a source of protein to a Muslim community or audience, the change is prone to rejection.

3.1.4 Direct Consequence of the Change Being Promoted

Resistance may also be as a direct consequence of the change or technology being promoted. For instance among a resource – poor clientele, the cost of the change, if it is beyond the reach of their income they may reject it. Also, questions such as; how easy is the change to practice? Does the change require extra labour above what the clientele employs? Is the change perceived to have improvement over the existing practice? To a large extent determine the level of rejection or acceptance of such a change.

3.1.5 Lack of Interest or Apathy

Resistance to change may arise out of lack of interest in the change by the clientele. If the improvement of the change over the existing

practice is marginal or negligible, the clientele may not be enthusiastic about embracing it, so also, when the objectives of the change do not address adequately the need of the clientele. Apathy also may be borne out of past failed experiences which simply makes the clientele to reject the being promoted change to avoid a repeat. However, lack of interest or apathy may be a result of inadequate information or of a poorly designed technology or of a perceived threats to a person's or group's status or security. Given this situation, resistance may be overcome by providing more information, or through modification of the change.

3.1.6 The Role of the Change Agent

The nature of the change agent affects the acceptability of a change. If the change agent is technically competent, commands respect, attention and trust of his target audience or he commands a lot of credibility and belongs to a well recognised organisation, the change he promotes is much likely to be accepted.

3.2 Reducing Resistance to Change

Despite the reasons given above on why people resist change, resistance is not a consistent element in most cultures but emanate from inadequate understanding, misperceptions, unrealistic expectations, supposed threats to farmers' security and poor relations between the change agent and the target audience. By implication therefore, resistance can be reduced by deliberate efforts. Resistance to change can be reduced through the following efforts.

- 1. Making the Change Compatible to Existing Practice:** As much as possible the change being promoted must be made consistent with the existing practice or tradition. This is achieved by making sure that the offending aspects of the change is grossly de-emphasised. Compatibility of change should not be only with the existing culture but with the prevailing environment and the agricultural system in which the farmers work.
- 2. Simplifying the Complexity of the Change:** Complexity refers to the degree to which an innovation is relatively difficult to understand or use (Ekong 1988). Changes that are relatively simple to understand and use tend to be more accepted than those that are complex. The complex nature of the change can be simplified to the level at which the clientele can comprehend and

practice, this can be enhanced through demonstrations and trying the change in parts or on a limited scale.

3. **Involving Local Leaders:** If there is support from influential people and leaders in the community, people are likely to accept the change due to the high regard and respect that people have towards their leaders. The change agent must therefore involve the local leaders so as to ensure legitimacy of such program.
4. **Relative Advantage of the Change:** This refers to the degree to which a change is superior to the one it is meant to replace. If participants see that the proposed changes are reducing their burdens rather than increasing it, or materially improving their lifestyle, and generally having some practical benefits, they are more likely to accept.
5. **Involving the Participants at the Planning Stage:** Resistance to change is reduced if participants have helped in diagnosing prevailing conditions and the program reflects their demonstrated needs. In this case, they are made to feel that the activity is at least partly their own and not the one devised and operated solely by outsiders. The participants develop sense of belonging.

3.3 Improving Participation in Change Process

One of the barriers faced in extension services, as consistently expressed by extension or change agents, is non-participation by those the change is designed. Because it is so difficult getting and expanding participation in extension efforts, participation requires more attention. It is often misconceived that the intended change possesses attractive traits and so, the intended participants would willingly participate which is not always the case. Many people do not become involved because they feel that their participation is not wanted, therefore, participation must be solicited for and mobilised. Some ways of encouraging participation are given below:

1. A quick assessment of the people's needs should be carried out to determine their felt needs. People are more willing to participate in activities which meet their needs. People whose priority is how to convey their produce to the market for example, may not be interested in a technology that centres on weed control.
2. When people perceive that the actual benefits of the change are tied to their participation, they are more likely to be involved.

3. People invest their participation in activities they believe will benefit them (Johnston and Clark, 1982). Therefore, farmers, especially the low income group, are more likely to participate in a development effort if the benefits are material, direct and immediate (Sofranko, 1984). In promoting a change particularly, among the uneducated, benefits have to be visible and substantial. To achieve this, the use of trials and demonstrations to convince the people becomes imperative.
4. People get frustrated if after being exposed to a change, the input for the continuous development are not within their reach, and so, to sustain their participation becomes difficult. In such a circumstance, the people should be linked up with the source of input so as to retain their interest and involvement.
5. Action does not occur if not motivated. If people must participate in a change process, they need to be motivated. Motivation could either be of physical or psychological. Physical if it is in form of material reward and psychological if it is in form of praise, recognition, affection or assistance in goal achievement. The change agent should however, use both forms sparingly to avoid their abuse.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

The role of change agent is vital in the acceptance of change. How will you make yourself relevant as a change agent?

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this unit that there are reasons why people resist change and that such resistance can be reduced. We also learnt participation by farmers in a change process can be improved.

5.0 SUMMARY

Having gone through this unit, you should be able to state that:

- people don't just resist a change, there are reasons why they do.
- Though resistance to change is not a welcomed development it can however be reduced
- Participation in a change process by people, it can be improved upon, particularly, by making the benefits obvious and tangible.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain three reasons why people resist change.

2. Discuss two ways by which participation can be improved.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 HINDRANCES TO AGRICULTURAL CHANGE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Socio-Cultural Hindrances
 - 3.2 Economic Hindrances
 - 3.3 Low Level of Technology
 - 3.4 Low Level of Education
 - 3.5 Solution to the Hindrances
 - 3.5.1 Solutions to Socio-Cultural Hindrances

- 3.5.2 Solution to Economic Hindrances
- 3.5.3 Solutions to the Problems of Low Technology
- 3.5.4 Solutions to Low Level of Education
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall be learning about the hindrances to agricultural change but before then, we find it useful to understand what agricultural change or agricultural development is. Agricultural change/development refers to the process of making farmers increase their production above what their households consumed, persuading to produce crops that are of higher demands for consumption and for exports. The emphasis of the extension workers has therefore been on the dissemination of information on improved technologies and other inputs that would enable them achieve the objectives of agricultural development.

However, certain hindrances limit the level of accomplishment of the extension workers in this regard. These hindrances have been classified as socio-cultural and economic hindrances. We shall also learn about the efforts at providing solutions to these obstacles.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain how socio-cultural factors affect agricultural change
- discuss economic hindrances in agricultural change
- state solutions to the hindrances.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Socio-Cultural Hindrances

Socio-cultural hindrances refer to those hindrances that reside within farmers themselves and their immediate cultures, namely; their traditional value and beliefs, their level of literacy, their lack of motivation for achievement, poor resource, low-level skills, apathy, lethargy and inertia (Sofranko 1984). These attributes to a large extent make the farmers to feel unconcerned with improvement, unwilling to take risks and so unable to utilise the opportunities at their disposal for increasing their production. Ekong (1988) opined that, when specific

traits become tightly inter-woven with others in a mutually interdependent manner, change in that direction becomes almost impossible for example, to the Cow Fulani, the cattle is not only an economic asset but a cultural object. This is because, his entire life structure, survival, marriage and prestige depends on the size of his herd. This he cannot compromise for any exchange.

Therefore; when an agricultural change conflicts with the existing behaviour, it can be rejected outright except if the existing values have to be adjusted to accommodate the change.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What can you do as an Agricultural Extension Agent to reduce socio-cultural hindrances among farmers?

3.2 Economic Hindrances

Economic hindrances centres on the farmers' farm environment and not on the farmers themselves. Economic hindrances bother on lack of inputs and inadequate financial incentives. Economic hindrances limit the production capacity of farmers as it manifests in:

- lack of technological inputs such as fertilizers and chemicals
- lack of new seed varieties
- inavailability of tools and machines
- poor transportation
- poor marketing and distribution systems
- poor storage facilities
- limited extension activity
- poor research facilities
- land fragmentation
- lack of irrigation, and
- poor erosion control

These inexhaustive consequences of economic hindrances become more pronounced where credits are not made available to the farmers, and where it is made available, farmers cannot access it because of high interest.

3.3 Low Level of Technology

Low level of technology as a hindrance to agricultural change implies that the availability and the use of technology that can ensure a turning around from the traditional subsistence level of farming is still very low. This may be attributed to the high cost and sometimes the complexity which makes it difficult for the resource poor and illiterate farmers to

afford. The fragmented nature of the farm plots and the smallness of the holdings are also some of the factors that inhibit the free-flow use of technology among farmers.

3.4 Low Level of Education

Modern agriculture demands that fertilizers, chemicals and other farm inputs are used to specification, and that market distribution and information gathering are well understood by the farmers. All these are made easier through the ability of the farmers to read and interpret instruction on such demands, hence, the need for literacy. However, a large percentage of the farmers still remain illiterate and this constitutes a hindrance to agricultural change.

3.5 Solutions to the Hindrances

Having identified the hindrances to agricultural change, the emphasis of extension agents should be on how to find solution to them.

3.5.1 Solutions to Socio-Cultural Hindrances

Having ascertained that, traditional socio-cultural milieu, consisting of beliefs and values, traditional explanations of natural phenomena, family and village dependencies and traditional agricultural practices, is inconsistent with the requirements of modern agriculture, it becomes a centre of focus for drastic solution. It becomes pertinent therefore, that the necessary ingredients for agricultural change is a general reorientation of farmers' beliefs, values and behaviour through education, training, exposure to information through mass media or training through demonstrations of all kinds.

3.5.2 Solution to Economic Hindrances

Solutions to economic problems should include, making available, in a timely manner, low-interest credits improved transportation, marketing and distribution systems, storage facilities and improved extension activity and research facilities. Farmers can also be grouped for "ajo" and "esusu" (informal cooperative societies) which will enable them to pool their resources for agricultural funding.

3.5.3 Solutions to the Problems of Low Technology

The obstacles of low technology can be reduced through the provision new technological inputs, such as fertilizers and other chemicals, new seed varieties, tools and machines. Local black smiths can also be encouraged or trained to fabricate local simple tools to supplement the use of machines particularly where, those machines are not readily within the reach of the farmers.

Through the cooperative societies which the farmers belong to, they can receive the patronage or the assistance of the government and other donor agencies in the acquisition of relevant technologies in a timely manner.

3.5.4 Solutions to Low Level of Education

As important as education is to agricultural change, literacy may not have to precede agricultural change, nor should education necessarily be a prerequisite for being able to absorb new agricultural information. However, information dissemination should be at the level of comprehension of the farmers. This can be enhanced through demonstrations of the designed message and skills.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt that certain hindrances affect agricultural change and we classify them to be socio-cultural, economic, technological and educational. Appropriate solutions to the hindrances were also stated.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- socio-cultural hindrances that affect agricultural change include; the beliefs and values of the farmers and these are residing within the farmers
- Economic hindrances limit the farmers' access to productive resources
- Low technology as a hindrance refers to non-availability of technology which could turn agricultural production around for improvement
- Low level of education among farmers limits the level of comprehension of the technicalities involved in certain instructions on inputs for production in agriculture, and
- The emphasis of the extension agents should be on how to find solutions to the hindrances.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain economic hindrances in agricultural change.
2. As an extension agent, how will you solve the socio-cultural problems in agricultural change?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Ekong, E.E. (1988). *An Introduction to Rural Sociology*. Ibadan: Jumak Publishers Ltd. 335-342.
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MODULE 6 EXTENSION COMMUNICATION AND ADOPTION PROCESS

- | | |
|--------|--|
| Unit 1 | The Concept of Extension Communication |
| Unit 2 | Basic Communication Process |
| Unit 3 | The Adoption Process |

UNIT 1 THE CONCEPT OF AGRICULTURAL COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 8.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning and Types of Communication
 - 3.1.1 Types of Communication
 - 3.2 Principles of Communication
 - 3.3 Characteristics of Extension Communication
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading
- 1.0 INTRODUCTION**

One of the functional requirements for the survival of every society is a system of communication through which people could exchange symbols and therefore learn from each other or pass idea to each other. Exchange of ideas is required in a system of production such as agriculture which requires information flow from producers to consumers and from research/extension agents to farmers. In this unit therefore, we shall learn about what communication is, its principles and characteristics.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define communication
- explain types of communication
- state the principles of communication
- discuss the characteristics of communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Communication

Communication has been conceptualised as a process of information flow by which ideas are transferred from a source to a receiver with the intent to change his/her knowledge, attitude and/or skill (Adebayo 1997). For each act of communication therefore, according to Lasswell (1948) and as reported by Adebayo (1997), we must attempt to seek answers to the following questions.

- a. who? (sender, communicator, source, encoder, etc.)
- b. says what? (message, content)

- c. in which channel? (medium, method)
- d. to whom? (receiver, communicate, destination, decoder)
- e. to what effect?

Williams's *et.al* (1984), defined communication as a conscious attempt to share information and ideas with others. To a large extent therefore, the success of an extension worker is determined by his ability to communicate useful ideas to others. Further still, Olowu (1992), defined communication as the process by which an idea is transferred from a source to one or more receivers with the intent to change their behaviour. This definition assumes that the purpose of communication is to bring about certain desired effects such as alteration of knowledge, change in attitude or change in overt behaviour of the receiver. Common to all these definitions are the four parties involved; the communicator, the communicant, the content of the message and the effects achieved by the communication. The concepts of interaction and effect are implicit in the definitions. Communication can be given a broad and inclusive or a restrictive definition. Communication can be seen as being linked to intention and judgement. So communication, according to Adebayo (1997), can be defined as:

- the means of sending messages
- the transmission of information
- that situation in which source transmits a message to the receiver with conscious intent to affect the latter's behaviours
- the verbal interchange of thought or ideas
- the process that links discontinuous parts of the living world together
- a process that makes common to two or several what was the monopoly of one or some.

The ultimate aim of communication in agriculture is that information designed to meet the needs of the farmers with the essence of increasing production through the adoption of technologies and improved practices are transmitted to the farmers in a comprehensive and utilisable manner.

3.1.1 Types of Communication

Two categories of communication are vertical and horizontal communication.

Vertical Communication

This refers to the flow of information between two or more persons that do not belong to the same stratum (across the strata). The flow is between a source and receiver which can take the form of top-bottom or

bottom-top communication system. This for example, can be between a researcher and an extension agent, a researcher and subject matter specialist (SMS) or between an extension agent and a farmer.

Horizontal Communication

This refers to the information flow between a source and receiver pair perceived to belong to the same stratum in a hierarchy. This may be between the farmers, extension agents, researchers or learners. Horizontal communication is more adapted when those involved in the communication system, speak the same language, have common interest and attitude or operate in the same context and have similar standard for encoding as well as decoding messages.

Communication can also be classified on the premise of the number of the people involved in the communication system. Based on this mode of classification, we have intra-personal communication, inter-personal communication, extra-personal communication and mass communication.

Intra-Personal Communication

This class of communication is the one in which an individual commune within himself. Intra-personal communication is employed at the evaluation stage of the stages of adoption during which he weighs the advantages and disadvantages of an innovation. Doing this he goes through a mental evaluation by asking questions such as “is it worth it?”, “can I do it?”, “Do I have enough resources?” “Is it beneficial to me and my family?”

Inter-Personal Communication

Inter-personal communication refers to the flow of information between two or more people usually in a face-to-face manner, or by telephone, letter, telex to mention but a few. Inter-personal communication is typified by the interaction between the extension agent and a group of farmers, or at a training session and in most form of communication.

Extra-Personal Communication

Extra-personal communication, according to Adebayo (1997), refers to communication between a person and others who may not be physically present or seen. Extra-personal communication involves some supernatural or extra-natural connotative powers. This may take the forms of dreams, telepathy, or by inspiration.

Mass Communication

Mass communication is the information flow between a source and a very large number of receivers or mass audience. This is characteristic by the use of mass methods such as radio, newspapers, magazine, television, motion pictures, slide shows, exhibits and printed materials to reach large number of people quickly. These methods are particularly useful in making large numbers of people aware of new ideas and practices (FAO 1984). This class of communication is useful also, in stimulating awareness of an idea, and as soon as the people become aware, the follow-up by the extension agent will further persuade them to adopt, since their questions and doubts can be clarified with the extension agent.

3.2 Principles of Extension Communication

In developing extension communication, there are peculiar factors that are usually put into consideration. These factors include:

- Extension message should have a source and a receiver. Which means that, extension communication must be a two-way system. The source stands in for the sender while the receiver is the listener for whom the message was designed.
- Extension Communication should communicate useful ideas. The influence that is being intended on the receiver should be one that will be beneficial to him. In extension communication, only the idea that will change the income, standard of living and the orientation of the communicatee should be communicated.
- Extension communication should use a combination of channels to impart knowledge, ideas and information. This is because different channels appeal to different senses. For instance, in addition to the use of verbal instruction which appeals only to hearing, visual-aids which appeal to the eyes should be used? Hearing and seeing at the same time is a strong approach for enhancing comprehension and memory.
- Material to be presented should be carefully arranged so as to be cohesive, proceeds step by step and in a logical sequence.
- Receiver must cooperate in communications. Some of the ways they can cooperate are by listening, by watching, by responding and by coming to extension meetings.

- Communicator must assume some social responsibility. Ideas communicated may have unexpected harmful effects and so the agent must make the people know how to handle such.

3.3 Characteristics of Extension Communication

Extension communication possesses certain characteristics which engender its acceptability or rejection. These characteristics are: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, triability/divisibility, observability and risk-level.

1. **Relative Advantage:** Extension communication to be acceptable to the target audience must not only appear to be better than the existing practice but must be proveably better in terms of increase in quantity and quality. People embrace what could give them higher income and better standard of living. So, an extension message that would offer them those advantages are more likely to be accepted.
2. **Compatibility:** Tradition and existing practices of the people are important in their decision to accept a change or not. Any extension message that vary greatly or not compatible with the culture, values or existing practices of the people is more likely to face rejection than the one that does.
3. **Complexity:** The lesser the complexity of an extension message, in terms of comprehension and practicability, the more it is receptive to the farmers. Communication must always be at the level of comprehension of the people in terms of language used and technicalities involved.
4. **Triability/Divisibility:** Extension message must be one that can be tried in parts. This is the principles behind small plot adoption technique (SPAT), a situation where a farmer can put an extension message into trial at minimal level to averse risk. The more an extension message can be tried in parts or in stages the more it appeals to the audience for adoption.
5. **Observability:** This implies the degree to which the result of an innovation or message content are visible to others. Usually, an innovation on which the procedural steps is merely instructional possesses less observability than the one in which the procedure is demonstrated physically for people to see and practice on their own. Extension message therefore, must be able to back up instructional approach with demonstration. What people see, handle or practice is more comprehended and retained than the one they are merely told or verbalised.

6. **Risk-Level:** This refers to the degree to which an innovation is perceived as risky. People are not usually excited about a practice they are not very convinced that it has no risk. Therefore the more an innovation is perceived to be risky the less it is receptive to the people.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention some tradition and existing practices that an innovation needs to be compatible with in your locality.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this unit that communication refers to the transmission of idea from the source, to the user. We also learnt that communication can be categorised as vertical or horizontal while forms of communication include intra-personal, inter-personal, extra-personal and mass communication. Communication, we learnt, becomes effective when some peculiar principles are adhered to just as it also possesses certain characteristics.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

- define communication as the process by which one transmits an idea or ideas to influence the other
- categorise communication into vertical or horizontal communication
- classify the forms of communication into intra-personal, inter-personal, extra-personal and mass communication
- state the principles of communication to include, the communication of useful ideas, be a two-way system among others
- State the characteristics of communication to include relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, triability, observability and risk-burden.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain four principles of extension communication.
2. Explain the characteristics of extension communication.

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UNIT 2 BASIC COMMUNICATION PROCESS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Sender
 - 3.2 Message
 - 3.3 Channels
 - 3.4 Receiver
 - 3.5 Feedback
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we shall learn about the elements that are involved in communication process. You will also be acquainted with what happens to information from the source until it is received by the receiver.

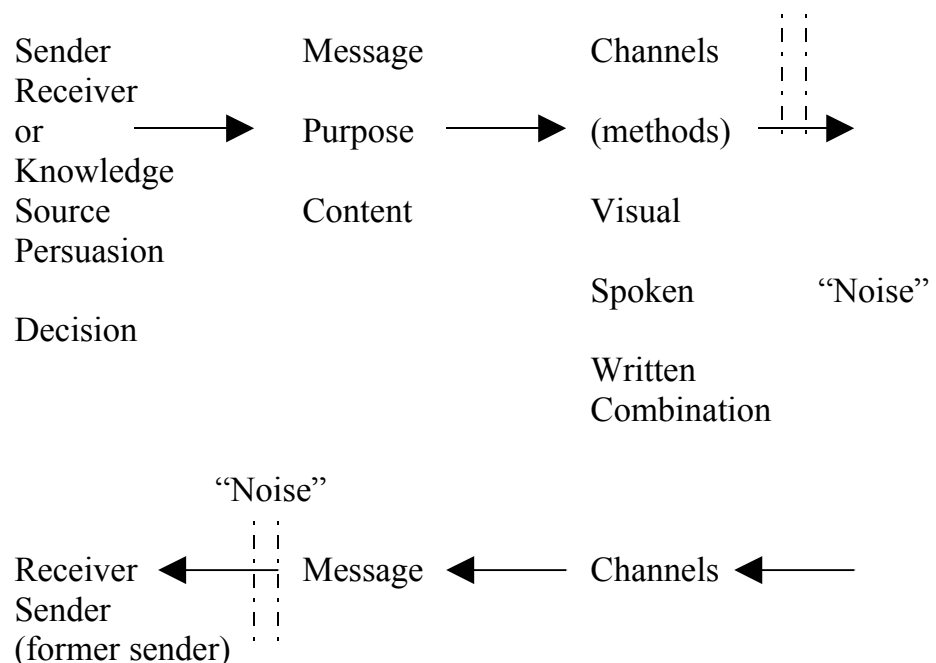
2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the source of communication process
- discuss the message of communication process
- explain channels of communication
- explain the position of the receiver in communication process
- discuss the element of feedback.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The concept of communication process will be discussed from the view point of S-M-C-R model (Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver). The S-M-C-R model is as depicted below.



(Feedback)

Figure 4: Elements of the Communication Process

Source: Agricultural Extension: A Reference Manual, Mander (1973), Rome, FAO.

3.1 Sender (Source)

For the purpose of this course, we can use the extension worker as an example of a sender, the source of some communications. The sender is responsible for initiating communication and ensuring that the objectives of the exercise are clearly defined and achieved. The extension worker as a teacher must know his or her audience particularly, their felt needs and must rely on others for information to initiate communication with a farm audience. In addition, the sender must strive to update his knowledge through training, subject matter wise, as well as in the methodologies of communication itself.

3.2 The Message (Content)

The message is the purpose of the communication process. Without the message communication process is irrelevant. Messages must be clear, useful to the audience, relevant to the environment and timely with respect to their livelihood activities. In addition, the treatment of the message must be such as to be intelligible to the intended audience. Preparation of a message which can be understood by an audience requires a considerable depth of understanding of the content of the messages. Such depth of understanding ideally includes practical experience with the implementation of ideas involved in the message, and also assumes considerable knowledge of how particular message elements fit into the aggregate agricultural production process of farmer clients (FAO, 1984).

3.3 Channels (Methods)

Channels of communication are the various methods available to any communicator in reaching an audience with a message. The human senses (sight, hearing, touch, taste and feeling) make up the most common means of exchanging ideas. The more senses are employed in the communication process, the greater the chance that it is understood (Adedoyin and Adebayo 2005). Extension workers use more of face-to-face to reach their audience. In the situation where an extension worker is to reach a large audience, face-to-face approach becomes expensive. In that circumstance, the mass media methods, such as,

radio, television, have come into increasingly wider use to reach audience with the spoken word. Visual means of communication include slides, films and television (FAO 1984). To be effective in the use channels, result demonstrations require the use of both visual and spoken communication, and can easily benefit from the use of written material, as well; a combination of methods, in other words is ideal (FAO, 1984).

3.4 The Receiver (The Farmer)

The receiver is the target or audience of communication. Effective communication process evokes in the farmers knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation and confirmation. The receiver of extension communication process must be well defined so that the objectives of the communication process can be well directed. If the receiver perceives that the message is not meeting his needs he may show resistance. Message must therefore, be presented in the way that it will interest the receiver as well as meeting his farm needs. From the communicator's point of view, it is clear that confirmation of the farmer's decision is the desired goal. Communication effect is the change in the receivers' behaviour (knowledge, attitude and skills) that occur as a result of the message received. Therefore, communication can be considered effective, if it results in intended behaviour of the receiver; audience or target group.

3.5 Feedback

Feedback is a response from the receiver to the source of the message. Feedback is a control device and an important indicator of the success of communication as well as areas requiring modification and further enquiry. Feedback, ideally at least, makes the communications' process two-way rather than one-way. If the farmer is viewed as the receiver, he or she must also be given the opportunity to function as sender, with the extension worker, in this case, as receiver. Without any reactions from the farmer, it is virtually impossible to gauge the appropriateness of the message content, or channel selection. It is important to stress that information feedback from farmers to extension workers is only part of the process. The designers of the specific technology, agricultural scientists, must also be involved in the flow of information, both as senders and receivers.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this unit that, communication process has as its basic elements, the sender, the message, the channel and the receiver. While the sender is the source of the information to be disseminated, the receiver is the target for which the message has been designed. We have

equally learnt that the sender in a communication process may in turn become the receiver through the process of feedback from the previous receiver.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have learnt in this unit that:

- the sender is the source of information to be communicated
- the message is the content or the reason for the communication process
- the channel is the method for transferring the message from the source to the receiver
- the receiver is the end user of the information disseminated
- feedback is necessary to feel the impulse of the effect of the message on the receiver.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the source of communication process.
2. Diagrammatically explain the communication process.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adedoyin, S.F. (ed.) (2005). *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*. Agricultural Extension Society of Nigeria (AESON): 21-28.

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UNIT 3 THE ADOPTION PROCESS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Elements of Adoption Process
 - 3.1.1 An Innovation
 - 3.1.2 Time
 - 3.2 Stages of Adoption
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 - 3.4 Factors Affecting Adoption of New Technologies
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In unit 2 (the last unit), you learnt on how information is initiated by the sender and sent through the appropriate channel to the receiver upon which the receiver makes a response as feedback. You must not forget that the ultimate aim of the extension communication process is to get the farmers to accept a change in practice or use a particular technology which until that moment he is not aware of. In this unit you will learn what happens to the farmer until he eventually accept to continue to use the technology or practice disseminated to him which is referred to as the adoption process.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain an innovation
- explain stages of adoption
- discuss the adopter categories
- explain the factors affecting the adoption of new technology.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

With the consciousness of the fact that the world population is increasing at an alarming rate with a corresponding decline in food production, research activities have received a boost in most parts of the world. These efforts yield greatly in terms of research findings consequent of improved varieties of crops and breeds of animals. No matter how seemingly or proven beneficial the findings are, except the end users are aware of them and use them, they will be as useless as if they have not been discovered. That is the whole episode of adoption and the adoption process.

Adoption has been defined as a decision to continue full use of an innovation while adoption process is the mental process through which an individual passes from first hearing about an innovation to the final adoption (Ekong, 1988).

In discussing the adoption process, focus will be on to explain some elements involved, namely, an innovation, communication and time, stages of adoption, adopter categories and factors affecting adoption of innovation.

3.1 Elements of Adoption Process

3.1.1 An Innovation

An innovation is an idea, practice or product that is perceived as new by the potential users or adopters. Examples of innovations include improved seed varieties, agro-chemicals and fertilizers and other forms of technology. By technology, it means the application of knowledge for practical purpose which is generally used to improve the condition of human and natural environment and carry out some other socio-economic activities (Swanson, 1996).

According to Adekoya *et. al.* (2005), there are two types of technology/innovation namely, material and knowledge-based technology. The material technology also known as hardware components, is said to be the knowledge embodied into a technological product such as seeds, tools, agro-chemicals and improved breeds of animals. Knowledge-based technology refers to the technical knowledge and management skills as planting dates and other information that can help the farmers to utilise the innovation to increase production.

Innovation is the main substance of communication process. Without innovation, communication process lacks content. It is the innovation that farmers react to. Farmer's reaction may be positive or negative. A farmer who is confronted with an innovation is at once curious and suspicious. He is curious to compare the innovation with the existing practice, the uncertainty and risk involved in accepting the innovation make him suspicious.

3.1.2 Time

Time is an important factor in adoption process. It refers to the period it takes a potential user of technology to adopt from the time he becomes aware of it. In some instances, it takes a short time for people to adopt whereas it can be longer in some others. The degree to which an individual is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than the other members of his social system is referred to as innovativeness, while the classification of members of a social system, on the basis of innovativeness is known as adopter categories (Ekong, op.cit).

3.2 Stages of Adoption

When a farmer becomes aware of an innovation, till the time he accepts to continue to use it, he undergoes some period of mental process giving a period of passing through some stages. These stages, five in all, were acclaimed by research studies (North Central Rural Sociology

Committee, 1955, Vanden Ban and Hawkins, 1996, Rogers 1995, Alao 1980) and are Awareness Stage, Interest Stage, Evaluation Stage, Trial Stage and Adoption Stage given an acronym of “AIETA”.

1. **Awareness Stage:** This refers to the first stage and involves the individual learning for the first time, the existence of an innovation. At this stage however, the individual lacks details concerning the way it works, how to use it and also the costs and benefits of the innovation. The extension worker can be effective at this stage by using educational approaches which may include the use of visual aids, demonstrations, lectures, campaigns, radio, television and print materials such as posters, hand bills and leaflets to create the awareness of the technology.
2. **Interest Stage:** This is the second stage during which the individual seeks more information about the innovation such as how it works and what its potentials are: At this stage all questions raised by the individuals should be adequately answered to remove every doubt and to clarify every issue. Any disappointment by the individual at this state can be very disastrous to the adoption of that innovation.
3. **Evaluation Stage:** At this stage the individual weighs the advantages and disadvantages. He under goes a mental process asking such questions as “can I afford it”, “how is it better than the one I am already practicing”, “how will I get the input supply”, “will there be a market for the product”, will it employ more labour than the one before”, “is the land suitable”. The evaluation stage is terminated when an individual make a decision on whether to accept or reject the innovation.
4. **Trial Stage:** At trial stage, the individual practices the innovation on a small scale to determine the relevance and usefulness of the innovation. This is what gives rise to small plot adoption technique (SPAT). The result at this stage is to answer the questions raised at the trial stage. The result at this stage determines the next stage.
5. **Adoption Stage:** This is the final stage when the individual apply the innovation on a large scale and continue to use in preference to old methods. The decision to further continue to use until a better innovation emerges however depends on when the adopted innovation has worked for some time and proved itself.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What should be your role as an extension agent at this stage of “interest”?

3.3 Adopter Categories

We have earlier defined innovativeness as the degree with which an individual is relatively earlier in adopting innovation than ideas. This implies that the potential adopters do not adopt all at the same time. Therefore the earliness and lateness of adoption by the adopters results in the categorisation of adopters into five categories as represented in the figure below (figure 5).

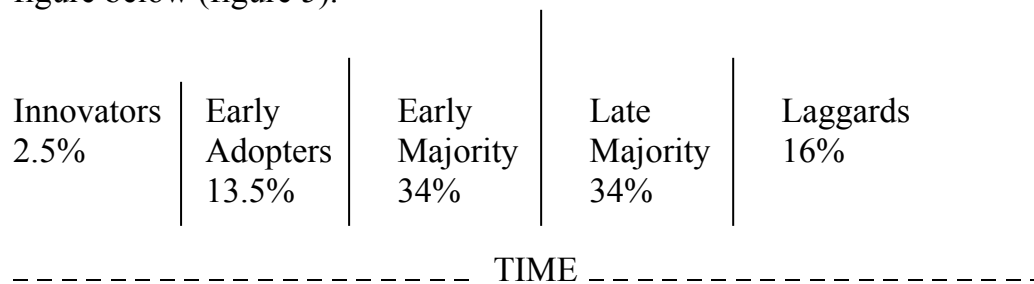


Figure 5: Adopters Categories on the Basis of earliness or lateness in Adoption

Source: Diffusion of Innovations (Rogers, 1983).

1. **The Innovators:** The innovators belong to about 2.5 percent of the population. They are innovation prone people. They are those individuals who are the first to experiment with and adopt new practices. They do not wait for an innovation to be tried but go out to try the innovations. They are usually younger, more highly educated, more widely traveled, comparatively more well-to-do, of higher social class and operate larger farms than others in the community.
2. **The Early Adopters:** Early adopters are often localites comprising of about 13.5% of the population. They serve to anchor innovation in a social system by influencing others to follow their actions. They are not as venturesome as the innovators but are among the first to adopt tried ideas and practices. They are usually opinion leaders, so potential adopters look up to them for advice and information about innovations. They have high levels of education and participate in quite a number of formal organisations.
3. **The Early Majority:** They are usually innovation prone but delay a bit because they engage longer decision making process. They delay action until the potency of the innovation becomes clearer after having observed early adopters and innovators.

They serve as an important link in the process of legitimising innovations. They constitute 34 percent of the population.

4. **The Late Majority:** These are individuals who are usually skeptical about innovations and only adopt when the average members of the society have adopted. The delay is to be absolutely sure that the innovation works. They are generally poorly educated, relatively order and poorer than the average. They constitute 34 percent of the population.
5. **The Laggards:** They are mostly localites who are very much oriented to their social system. They detest change and do not encourage any adoption. They are usually the very last to adopt an innovation. They have no opinion leadership; are isolated and suspicious of others. Other characteristics of the laggards are that they are:
 - traditional
 - conservative
 - poorly educated or not formally educated
 - not widely traveled
 - have little specialisation
 - very poor, and
 - very old

The Laggards constitute 16 percent of the population.

3.4 Factors Affecting Adoption of Innovation

Earlier in this course we have learnt about the reasons why people resist change. Here we shall learn about those factors that influence the rejection or acceptance and continued use of an innovation. Some factors that have been found through to influence adoption are:

- level of education
 - level of income
 - farm size
 - extension contacts
 - level of social participation
 - social status
 - nature of innovation
 - media exposure.
1. **Level of Education:** Education is required in the understanding of instruction and in the interpretation of data. The educated farmers are more likely to avoid inherent accidents of innovation

than the non-educated ones. Studies (Clark and Akinbode 1968) have shown a significant relationship (association) between adoption of innovation and formal schooling.

2. **Level of Income:** Funding is required in the use of innovation in terms of employing labour, purchasing of the improved technology and other appropriate tools. Richer farmers are therefore more likely to adopt innovation than the poorer ones.
3. **Farm Size:** Individuals with larger farms are said to have greater propensity to maintain the status quo hence the need to employ improved practices. Farmers with larger farms are therefore expected to adopt more innovations than those with smaller holdings.
4. **Extension Contacts:** Agricultural extension agents have been widely identified as the most important source of information to farmers on agricultural innovations. Thus, the more the farmers have contact with extension the more they are likely to adopt innovation.
5. **Levels of Social Participation:** Nigerian farmers have been found to belong to a number of formal and informal organisations. It has also been found that a positive correlation exists between the farmer's level of participation in community life and adoption of agricultural innovations (Ekong 1988).
6. **Farmers' Social Status:** Social status refers to the position occupied by an individual in relation to others in a community. Some individuals occupy leadership positions in the family, clan or community. The positions engenders others give respect to them. To show examples to others, it has been found that those who are of higher social status adopt innovation before others in the community with lower social status.
7. **The Nature of Innovation:** An innovation that is simple to understand and tried, compatible to the existing culture, affordable in terms of cost, available, better than the existing practice, observable and tried in parts, is more likely to be adopted than the one that possess the reversed attributes.
8. **Media Exposure:** Mass media such as radio, television, agricultural newsletter, and newspapers are important sources of information. Studies have identified a positive relationship between mass media exposure and adoption of agricultural innovations by Nigerian farmers. This implies that, farmers who

have access to the mass media are more likely to adopt innovation than those who do not.

4.0 CONCLUSION

What we discussed in this unit has been on adoption process. We discussed that some basic elements in adoption process are innovation, communication and time while the stages of adoption are awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption. Potential adopters don't adopt all at the same time, but based on the level of their innovativeness which necessitates their categorisation to the innovators, the early adopters, the early majority, the late majority and the Laggards. You also learnt that certain factors have been found to influence the level of rejection or adoption of an innovation which include level of education, level of income, farm size, extension contact and level of social participation. Other factors that affect adoption are the nature of innovation and media exposure.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- innovation, communication and time and elements of adoption process
- stages of adoption have the acronym "AIETA"
- adopter categories are the innovators, the early adopters, the early majority, the late majority and the laggards
- adoption is affected by level of education, level of income, farm size, extension contacts, level of social participation, social status, the nature of innovation and media exposure.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the adopter categories.
2. What are the factors that may affect the adoption of an innovation?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adekoya, A.E. and Tologbonse E.B. (2005). Adoption and Diffusion of Innovation. In Adedoyin, S.F. (ed.), *Agricultural Extension in Nigeria*, AESON: 287-37.

Clark, R.C. and Akinbode I.A. (1968). *Factors Associated with the Adoption of Three Farm Practices in Western Nigeria*.
University of Ife, Faculty of Agriculture Research Bulletin No. 1.

Ekong, E.E. op. cit.