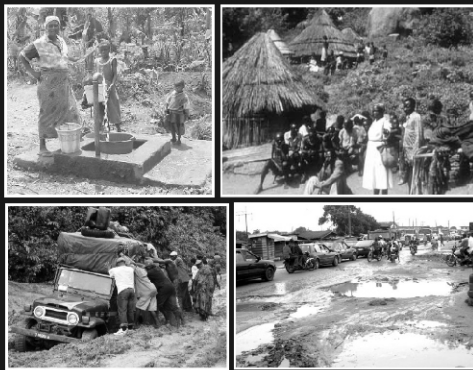


# UNDERSTANDING RURAL DEVELOPMENT

*Concepts, Theories and Strategies*



□ BASSEY ANAM



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## DEDICATION

To Associates, Members and Research Fellows of the  
International Institute for Policy Review and Development  
Strategies

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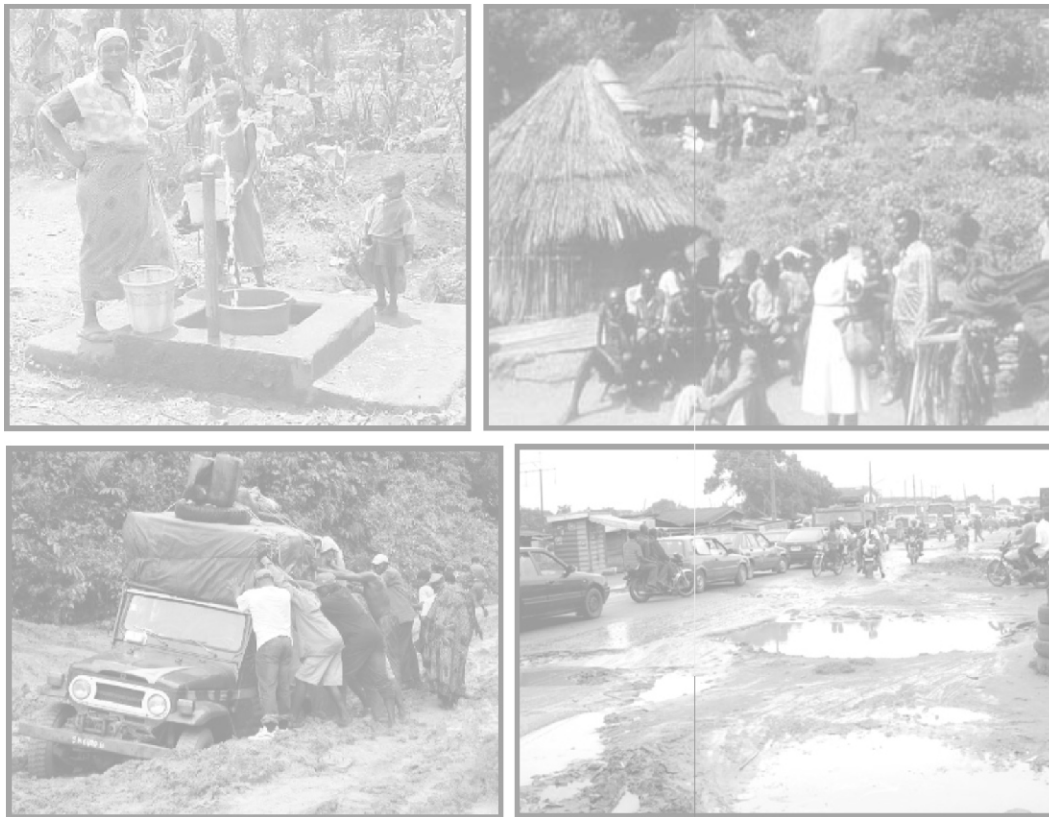
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# PART I GENERAL DESCRIPTION AND CLARIFICATION OF TERMS



# 1 UNDERSTANDING RURAL AREA

## CHAPTER OUTLINE

- *Meaning Of Rural Areas*
- *Characteristics Of Rural Areas*
- *Differentiating Rural, Urban And Metropolitan Areas*
- *Urban And Rural Living*
- *The Concept Of Rural Economy*

## MEANING OF RURAL AREAS

Several definitions of “rural area” are available. Each definition emphasizes different criteria (population size, density and context) been used and the associated thresholds. The size of the territorial units (building blocks) from which each definition is constructed also varies, as well as an analyst's choice of “rural” definition. Different definitions generate a different number of “rural” people, even if the number of “rural” people is the same, different people will be classified as “rural” within each definition. In general, each definition provides a similar analytical conclusion (e.g., rural people have lower employment rates and lower incomes) but the level of each characteristic differs from each definition of rural.

It will be recommended, therefore, that analysts consider the scale of a “rural” issue whether it is local, community or regional before selecting a definition. This will influence the type of territorial unit upon which to focus the analysis and the appropriate definition to use. Again, analysts should consider which geographical dimensions are most relevant to the issue at hand population size, population density, labour market or settlement context and then choose a definition that incorporates these dimensions, rather than using one of the existing definitions, one option available to the analyst is to assign one (or more) “degree of rurality” to each territorial unit. This may be specific to a policy debate or sub-national issue. Another option is, to cross-classify two definitions of rural in order to focus on a specific sub-sector of the rural population.

## DEFINITIONS OF RURAL AREAS

1. According to Ebong (2000) rural areas constitute areas characterized with poor infrastructural facilities; poor access roads, poorly equipped health centers, inadequate employment opportunities, inadequate physical assets such as land/capital, and reduced access by the poor to credit even on a small scale and insufficient access to market where the poor can sell goods and services.
2. Sule (2007) maintained that rural areas are noted for their degree of poverty. At the lowest level are street children and those living in poor houses and asylums, people living under bridges and near gutters or in slums. In most countries the greatest proportion of poor people are found in rural areas. There are now many countries in which urban slum dwellers constitute an increasing problem, as the “mega-cities” of the world rapidly increase in size.
3. According to UNDP (2004) report, rural area constitutes an area of the most vulnerable groups. There are those who have remained poor as part of social stratification or immigration. These include ethnic minorities, the disabled, rural villagers and disproportionately, women and children. In the meantime, “new poor” groups are being created through wars, socio-political changes and unemployment. The report added that, there are now approximately 25 million refugees and 30 million displaced persons living in the world. Millions of poor children in rural areas do not attend school: participation and retention rates vary greatly both between and within countries.
4. Sociologists define "rural area" as those areas which are not urban in nature. The line between urban and rural is quite arbitrary, although rural sociologists in America often use the U.S. Census Bureau's definition of rural as being an area of fewer than 1000 people per square mile. The 2000 Census reported that rural America was home to nearly 21% of the U.S. population (59,274,000 people) (Griffiths, 2010).

**Rural area** (or the **countryside, as it is referred to in most countries**) is an area that is not urbanized, lacking basic facilities of modernization. They have a low population density, and typically much of the land is devoted to agriculture. There is a significant level of low per capita income.

Rural areas are settled places outside towns and cities. They can have an agricultural character, though many rural areas are based on natural gas, petroleum, etc; rural areas are less modern and open than urban areas. People there are probably more attached to there traditions and beliefs.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF RURAL AREAS

Rural areas throughout the world tend to have similar characteristics. Some of the major ones are,

1. **Population is spatially dispersed:** the rural population is often dispersed and this spatial dispersion of rural populations often increases the cost and difficulty of providing rural goods and services effectively. The specific economic conditions in rural

areas result in fewer opportunities than in non- rural locations. Consequently, the tax base is limited, so rural areas are rarely able to mobilise sufficient resources to finance their own development programmes, leaving them dependent on transfers from the centre. Factor markets in rural areas often operate imperfectly, rendering the search for efficient outcomes an extremely challenging one.

2. **Agriculture is the major economic activity:** agriculture in its various forms (cultivation of crops, rearing of animals, fish farming, etc) is often the dominant, and sometimes the exclusive economic sector and opportunities for resource mobilisation are limited. These characteristics mean that people living in rural areas face a set of factors that pose major challenges to development.

3. **Inadequate basic needs of life:** among the rural population, most people living in abject poverty are usually illiterate. They have little or no access to goods and services and, for the most part, they are excluded from shaping the political environment which determines their fate. In general, they usually have poor health, nutrition and sanitation. Housing is inadequate and there is little opportunity to change conditions. They have little or no income, are socially discriminated against and have no channels through which to voice their concerns. The positive values and experiences of the poor are not necessarily those which are promoted in the education system or the wider society. The children of poor families tend to remain in conditions of poverty, and unless there is a force that counteracts this behaviour, poverty are passed on from one generation to the next.

4. **Attachment to land: there is attachment to land in rural areas, as an abode of ancestry and as a means of living.** Human activities, such as farming, mining, ranching, recreation, social events, commerce, or industry, have left an imprint on the landscape. An examination of changing and continuing land uses may lead to a general understanding of how people have interacted with their environment and provide clues about the kinds of physical features and historic properties that should be present.

Topographic variations, availability of transportation, the abundance or scarcity of natural resources (especially water), cultural traditions, and economic factors influence the ways people use the land. Changing land uses may have resulted from improved technology, exhausted soils or mineral deposits, climatic changes, and new economic conditions, as well as previous successes or failures. Activities visible today may reflect traditional practices or be innovative, yet compatible, adaptations of historic ones.

5. **Patterns of spatial organization:** The organization of land on a large scale depends on the relationship among major physical components, predominant landforms, and natural features. Politics, economics, and technology, as well as the natural environment, have influenced the organization of communities by determining settlement patterns, proximity to markets, and the availability of transportation. Organization is reflected in road systems, field patterns, distance between farmsteads, proximity to water sources, and orientation of structures to sun and wind.

7. **Response to the natural environment:** major natural features, such as mountains, prairies, rivers, lakes, forests, and grasslands, influence both the location and organization of rural communities. Climate, similarly, influenced the siting of buildings,



construction materials, and the location of clusters of buildings and structures. Traditions in land use, construction methods, and social customs commonly evolved as people responded to the physiography and ecological systems of the area where they settled.

Early settlements frequently depended upon available natural resources, such as water for transportation, irrigation, or mechanical power. Mineral or soil deposits, likewise, determined the suitability of a region for particular activities. Available materials, such as stone or wood, commonly influenced the construction of houses, barns, fences, bridges, roads, and community buildings.

**8. Cultural traditions:** cultural traditions affect the ways that land is used, occupied, and shaped. Religious beliefs, social customs, ethnic identity, and trades and skills may be evident today in both physical features and uses of the land. Ethnic customs, predating the origins of a community, were often transmitted by early settlers and perpetuated by successive generations. Others originated during a community's early development and evolution. Cultural groups have interacted with the natural environment, manipulating and perhaps altering it, and sometimes modifying their traditions in response to it.

Cultural traditions determined the structure of communities by influencing the diversity of buildings, location of roads and village centers, and ways the land was worked. Social customs dictated the crops planted or livestock raised. Traditional building forms, methods of construction, stylistic finishes, and functional solutions evolved in the work of local artisans.

**9. Circulation networks:** circulation networks are systems for transporting people, goods, and raw materials from one point to another. They range in scale from livestock trails and footpaths, to roads, canals, major highways, and even airstrips. Some, such as farm or lumbering roads, internally served a rural community, while others, such as railroads and waterways, connected it to the surrounding region.

**10. Boundary demarcations:** boundary demarcations delineate areas of ownership and land use, such as an entire farmstead or open range. They also separate smaller areas having special functions, such as a fenced field or enclosed corral. Fences, walls, tree lines, hedge rows, drainage or irrigation ditches, roadways, creeks, and rivers commonly marked historic boundaries.

**11. Pattern of buildings, structures and objects:** various types of buildings, structures, and objects serve human needs related to the occupation and use of the land. Their function, materials, date, condition, construction methods, and location reflect the historic activities, customs, tastes, and skills of the people who built and used them. Buildings--designed to shelter human activity--include residences, schools, churches, outbuildings, barns, stores, community halls, and train depots. Structures--designed for functions other than shelter--include dams, canals, systems of fencing, systems of irrigation, tunnels, mining shafts, grain elevators, silos, bridges, earthworks, ships, and highways. Objects--relatively small but important stationary or movable constructions--include markers and monuments, small boats, machinery, and equipment.

Rural buildings and structures often exhibit patterns of vernacular design that may be common in their region or unique to their community. Residences may suggest family size and relationships, population densities, and economic fluctuations. The repeated use of methods, forms, and materials of construction may indicate successful solutions to building needs or demonstrate the unique skills, workmanship, or talent of a local artisan.

**12. Clusters:** groupings of buildings, fences, and other features, as seen in a farmstead, ranch, or mining complex, result from function, social tradition, climate, or other influences, cultural or natural. The arrangement of clusters may reveal information about historical and continuing activities, as well as the impact of varying technologies and the preferences of particular generations. The repetition of similar clusters throughout a landscape may indicate vernacular patterns of siting, spatial organization, and land use. Also, the location of clusters, such as the market towns that emerged at the crossroads of early highways, may reflect broad patterns of a region's cultural geography.

**13. Archeological sites:** the sites of prehistoric or historic activities or occupation may be marked by foundations, ruins, changes in vegetation, and surface remains. They may provide valuable information about the ways the land has been used, patterns of social history, or the methods and extent of activities such as shipping, milling, lumbering, or quarrying. The ruins of mills, charcoal kilns, canals, outbuildings, piers, quarries, and mines commonly indicate previous uses of the land. Changes in vegetation may indicate abandoned roadways, homesites, and fields. The spatial distribution of features, surface disturbances, subsurface remains, patterns of soil erosion and deposition, and soil composition may also yield information about the evolution and past uses of the land.

**14. Small-scale elements:** Small-scale elements, such as a foot bridge or road sign, add to the historic setting of a rural landscape. These features may be characteristic of a region and occur repeatedly throughout an area, such as limestone fence posts in Kansas or cattle gates in the Buffalo River Valley of Arkansas. While most small-scale elements are long-lasting, some, such as bales of hay, are temporal or seasonal. Collectively, they often form larger components, such as circulation networks or boundary demarcations. Small-scale elements also include minor remnants--such as canal stones, road traces, mill stones, individual fruit trees, abandoned machinery, or fence posts--that mark the location of historic activities, but lack significance or integrity as archeological sites.

**15. Homogeneity in social status:** most people in rural areas are socially homogenous in the sense that they share similar family ties, language, food and even clothing makes them know each other very well.

## DIFFERENTIATING RURAL, URBAN AND METROPOLITAN AREAS

Human settlements are classified as rural or urban depending on the density of human-created structures and resident people in a particular area. **Rural areas** are areas that are not urbanized, though when large areas are described country towns and smaller cities will be included. They have a low population density, and typically much of the

land is devoted to agriculture. Urban areas have are large areas characterized with modern economic activities and basic infrastructures.

**Urban areas** are of two types **urbanized areas** and **urban clusters** identical in the criteria used to delineate them but different in size. The Census Bureau defines an urbanized area wherever it finds an urban nucleus of 50,000 or more people. They may or may not contain any individual cities of 50,000 or more (152 currently do not). In general, they must have a core with a population density of 1,000 persons per square mile and may contain adjoining territory with at least 500 persons per square mile. Urbanized areas have been delineated using the same basic threshold (50,000 populations) for each decennial census since 1950, but procedures for delineating the urban fringe are more liberal today. In 2000, 68 percent of Americans lived in 452 urbanized areas (Sule, 2007).

**Metropolitan areas** includes not only the urban area, but also satellite cities plus intervening rural land that is socio-economically connected to the urban core city, typically by employment ties through commuting, with the urban core city being the primary labour market. In fact, urbanized areas agglomerate and grow as the core population/economic activity center within a larger metropolitan area. People living there are open, they choose their cultures and there beliefs and share them and that's what make them a very modern society. They care most about technology, communication, economy, etc and always look forward to develop and extend markets, diversify products.

It should however be noted that what a rural place is depends on the criteria being used by the country or region.

Some major differences between urban and rural areas,

- 1) Urban areas can include town and cities WHILE rural areas include villages and hamlets.
- 2) Rural areas may develop randomly on the basis of natural vegetation and fauna available in a region, WHEREAS urban settlements are proper, planned settlements built up according to a process called urbanization.
- 3) A urban area is an area with an increased density of human-created structures in comparison to the areas surrounding it. Urban areas may be cities, towns or conurbations.
- 4) Urban settlements are defined by their advanced civic amenities, opportunities for education, facilities for transport, business and social interaction and overall better standard of living. Socio-cultural statistics are usually based on an urban population. WHILE rural areas on the contrary depend heavily on developed agencies and developed urban areas for improvement in various fields such as amenities, education, medical assistance and water supply. They depend upon government schemes also to make advancement in these fields.

- 5) According to official U.S. Census Bureau definitions, rural areas comprise open country and settlements with fewer than 2,500 residents. Urban areas comprise larger places and densely settled areas around them. Urban areas do not necessarily follow municipal boundaries. They are essentially densely settled territory as it might appear from the air. Most counties, whether metropolitan or non metropolitan, contain a combination of urban and rural populations.
- 6) It is important to note that rural areas are totally dependent on natural resources only. Urban areas are not totally dependent on natural resources. In fact, they make full use of the natural resources available. If natural resources are not available, then they rely on human findings and inventions in the areas of science and technology for development.
- 7) The big advantage of a rural area is that it is not characterized by environmental perils such as pollution and traffic. Urban areas on the contrary are troubled by pollution and traffic related problems.

## URBAN AND RURAL LIVING

Urban areas are equipped with all the modern amenities. The modern-day facilities like the Internet, telephone, television and satellite communication facilities are widely available in the urban areas. A majority of the households of the urban areas are blessed with these technological advancements. The newly developing shopping complexes, theatres, food malls and restaurants are a commonplace in urban cities. Huge constructions, large housing complexes, skyscrapers are found in most of the urban metropolitan cities. Elevators, escalators, storeyed parking areas and towering constructions add to the magnificence of the urban cities.

Due to a greater availability of all the modern facilities along with an increase in the number of educational facilities and career opportunities, people of the urban areas live an economically more stable and a luxurious life. The increasing attraction of the people towards the urban parts of the world has resulted in crowding of urban areas. This increasing population, majority of which prefers settling in urban cities, has led to an imbalance in the density of human population. Excessive industrialization has invited environmental problems like pollution.

However, the rise in economic growth that has resulted in self-sufficiency in the common masses has resulted in a self-centered nature of society. While technological advancement has brought the world closer, human beings have gone far apart from each other. Buildings that touch the skies have built walls between people. The rise in prosperity has eclipsed the reign of peace.

## RURAL LIVING

Rural areas are not crowded with concrete constructions all over. Houses are rather widely spaced with ample room for fields and gardens. Rural areas are fortunate to house the canopies of greens. People in rural areas live in close proximity of nature.



Apart from people, there is room for pets and grazing animals that help maintain equilibrium in nature.

Due to a relatively lesser number of people inhabiting the rural areas, the rural parts are not overcrowded by people. These areas are blessed to have least amounts of pollution. Due to afforestation and ample space for plantations, rural areas have managed to maintain an environmental balance. Pollution is less also on accounts of very less number of industries in rural areas.

The stress that results from a fast life in the urban areas is not a part of the peaceful and relatively slow paced life of the rural regions. The life may not be as lavishly led as that in the urban areas, but the people there are generous and their hearts have rooms for emotions.

**THE CONCEPT OF RURAL ECONOMY**

Rural economy deals with the rural economic activities that yield income to the rural investors. Rural economy focuses on optimal harnessing of rural resources for enhancement of the living conditions of the rural dwellers. It therefore deals with agriculture, other enterprises and rural life as factors in nation building (Olayide (1981). Rural economy, to a reasonable extent, sustains both the urban and national economy; hence the two major economic products come from the rural areas of Nigeria (oil and agricultural products). In fact the abundant natural resources in the areas, serve as sources of cheap labour for enhancement of natural economy.

**REVIEW QUESTIONS**

1. Describe a rural area
2. Mention and explain the distinguishing characteristics of rural areas
3. Attempt a clear differentiation between rural, urban and metropolitan areas.
4. Differentiate between rural and urban living

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# 2 UNDERSTANDING RURAL POVERTY

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- *Definition and meaning of poverty*
- *Conceptualization of poverty*
- *The Who and Why of Poverty*
- *What Do the Poor Own?*
- *The concept of rural poverty*
- *Typology of poverty*
- *Categorization of Poverty*
- *The Consequences of poverty*
- *Poverty: a theoretical context*
- *Measures of reduction of poverty: economic growth and income distribution strategy*



To understand poverty, it is essential to examine the economic and social context, including institutions of the state, markets, communities, and households. Poverty differences cut across gender, ethnicity, age, location (rural versus urban), and income sources. In the community, minority ethnic groups suffer more than majority groups and the rural poor more than the urban poor; among the rural poor, landless wage workers suffer more than small landowners or tenants. These differences among the poor reflect highly complex interactions of cultures, markets, and public policies.

However, within a general context, scholars have come to terms with the reality that poverty is a plague affecting people all over the world. It is dehumanizing, since by its very nature, a condition that denies individuals the right to exercise their full potential.

DEFINITION AND MEANING OF POVERTY

In examining the meaning of poverty, the United Nation uses such indices as life expectancy, infant mortality rate, primary school enrolment ratios and number of persons per physician. The emphasized that poverty must be conceived, defined and measured in absolute quantitative ways that are relevant and valid for analysis and policy making in that given time and space. Poverty specifications should become relative, once circumstances in the country change. Let's examine some views by scholars,

1. The most common definition of poverty is the one given by World Bank in 1990; as a condition where people are below a specified minimum level of income; that is, an imaginary international poverty line. It is determined by their ability to afford an adequate diet and other minimal necessities. The poverty line knows no national boundary. It exists readily in New York City as it does in Lagos, Calcutta, Cairo or Jakarta, although its magnitude is likely to vary with certain factors.
2. According to Ravallion and Bidani (2004) poverty is seen as the lack of basic needs. It further implies a lack of command over basic consumption needs, which means, in other words, that there is an inadequate level of consumption, giving rise to insufficient food, clothing and/or shelter.
3. Sen (1987) defined poverty as the lack of certain capabilities, such as being able to participate with dignity in society.
4. Poverty has also been defined as the inability to attain a minimum standard of living (World Development Report, 1990). The report constructed two indices based on a minimum level of consumption in order to show the practice aspect of the concept. While the first index was a country-specific poverty line, the second was global, allowing cross-country-specific poverty line; the second was global, allowing cross-country comparisons (Walton, 1990).
5. For Walton (1990), poverty has many dimensions, such as inadequate income, malnutrition, lack of access to social services, and lack of social and political status. Though the poor are heterogeneous, across and within countries, some generalization can still be made on the extent and nature of poverty. The poor can be generally identified as:
  - a. Those whose abilities to contribute to the productive process is insufficient. That is, those who unable to contribute adequately to the productive process to warrant an income that would raise them above the poverty line.
  - b. Those for which the economy has failed to provide jobs, that is, those who are willing and capable of adequate income if only jobs were available.
  - c. Those whose opportunities to participate in the productive process are restricted by discrimination of various kinds: sex, age, race, etc. (Aluko, 2005: Edozien, 2006).
6. Aboyade (2006) stated that *people are poverty- stricken when their incomes, even if*

*adequate for survival, fall radically behind that of the community ... they are degraded, for in the literal sense, they live outside the grade or categories which the community regards as acceptable.*

People affected by poverty are unable 'to live a decent life' and hence 'poverty means not having enough to eat, lack of ability to save, lack of opportunity for productive employment, a high rate of infant mortality, a low life expectancy, low educational opportunities, poor drinking water, inadequate health care, unfit housing and a lack of active participation in the decision-making processes.

Poverty means to lack basic needs of life. These basic needs consist of primary and secondary needs. The former comprises food (including water and clothing) and shelter; and the later consists of economic, social and cultural rights, liberty, freedom of expression and religion, individual rights to own property, access to productive employment, credit, etc. primary and secondary basic needs are met through one's own resources, family, community and/or through a combination of these. The lack of these resources leads to a state of powerlessness, helplessness and despair, and thus the inability to protect oneself against economic, social, cultural and political discrimination, deprivation and marginalization. These constitute a state of poverty. This predicament leads to desperation and hopelessness if the community/society is indifferent to the plight of its poor. These could in turn produce violence, theft, thuggery and other deviant behaviours.

### CONCEPTUALIZATION OF POVERTY

It is important to conceptualize poverty. This is predicated on the premise that poverty takes several forms, can be induced by several factors and exist in different measures; poverty affects many aspects of the human conditions, including physical, moral, and psychological, a concise and universally accepted definition of poverty is elusive. Different criteria have been used to conceptualize poverty. Most analysts follow the conventional view of poverty as a result of insufficient income for securing basic goods and service. The concern here is with the individual's ability to subsist and to reproduces himself as well as the individual's ability to command resources to achieve this (Sen, 1981; Amis and Rakodi, 1994). Let's examine the following forms of conceptualization;

### HISTORICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION

Historically, this involves a transition from a situation where subsistence depends upon wages with which to purchase food. Many other experts have conceptualized the poor as that portion of the population that is unable to meet basic nutritional needs (Ojha, 1970; Reutlinger and Selowsky, 1976). Others view poverty, in part, as a function of education, health, life expectancy, child mortality, etc. Musgrove and Ferber (1976) identify the poor, using the criteria of the levels of consumption and expenditure. Poverty is also related to 'entitlements' (Sen, 1983), which are taken to be the various in bundles of goods and services over which one has a command, taking into

cognizance the means by which such goods are acquired (e.g., money, coupon etc) and the availability of the needed goods. Yet, other experts see poverty in very broad terms, such as being unable to meet 'basic needs' physical (food, health care, education, shelter, etc) and non-physical (participation, identity, etc.) requirements of a 'meaningful life' (Streeten, 1979; Blackwood and Lynch, 1994).

### ENVIRONMENTAL, HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL FACTORS OF POVERTY

The crisis of poverty and misery has also been compounded by natural disasters and environmental changes. The documented reduction in rainfall amounts to a significant climatological change (Brown and Tiffen, 1992). Generally, the changing climate has affected the economic situation of the region south of the Sahara desert which is moving inexorably southward.

Closely related to this, the scarcity of alternative energy sources and where it is available, the high cost of fuel, have led the poor to resort to cutting down trees for firewood and charcoal. This has led to serious soil erosion and severe flooding which has further reduced soil fertility, thus reducing the prospect for increased yield and hastening the spectre of the creeping desert (Rweyemamu, 1992). Similarly, the profligate use of the country's generous but limited resources by industries, and industrial pollution from improper waste disposal has further escalated the plight of the poor. It is extreme poverty that leads to the economic necessity of bringing into the world large families. The population explosion comes under control only when extreme poverty diminishes.

Historically, colonial Africa did not experience any significant change in its pattern of food production relative to its pre-colonial state. The colonial period of production was external in outlook, which carried over into the post-colonial era. This development received its single major impetus from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and The World Bank which opined that there is only one option for African economies to follow and that is to build their future on exploiting and exporting the rich mineral and agricultural resources the continent is endowed with. The basis of this argument is the hypothesis that economic growth can be achieved through exports within the framework of free trade. However, a Japanese vice-president of the Ministry to Trade and Industry was quoted as saying:

*If the Japanese economy had adopted the simple doctrine of free trade, It would almost permanently have been unable to break away from the Asia pattern of stagnation and poverty (Brown and Tiffen, 1992)*

The notion that free trade is the main engine for development has not been proved right, at least in this part of the world, as successful export-led growth occurs only when a country achieves a comparative advantage based upon higher labour productivity and success in concentrating exports on sectors with a high rate of growth (Batchelor, Major and Morgan, 1980). World trade has mostly had harmful effects on poor countries, because of little prospects of exporting their primary commodities.



Further, it introduced a peasant farming cash crop commodity economy and this has suppressed the growth of the native economy and undermined the entire rural economy.

African trade relations with the industrial world have been based on an unequal exchange which has led to the transfer of surplus generated from within the industrial countries. To maintain this status quo, some regimes have been extraordinarily brutal (Rweyemanmu, 2002). Some have regarded their dominance of the country simply as the occasion for an extended pillaging of its wealth, routinely using torture and massacre to stay in power. When rejected, their successors have not often been much more respectful of human rights, democratic values or social justice. Similarly, the artificial nature of the state structure which colonialism first imposed on our societies and then bequeathed to its new rulers, as well as the boundaries drawn by the colonial rulers were for imperial convenience. The attempt to construct nation states within these borders was destined to cut across the loyalties of tribe and kinship, which are both much deeper and more immediate than national loyalties. This led to skirmishes and war and the resultant impoverishment.

Ethnicity has become a decisive factor in the politics, bureaucracy and business of Nigeria. Political struggle has often meant taking political office and changing the rules of the game to favour the incumbent group. This has led to contradictions and conflicts among social groups and the central government. In fact, what we have all long experienced is a contradiction between intention and actuality.

### 3. Poverty as a consequence of deprivation

Poverty is seen as a result of deprivation and lack of rights, based on the relative deprivation, earning capacity and entitlement approaches and measured by income from various sources, rights to and control of resources, cost of producing resources, social security claims, etc.

### 4. Poverty as a consequence of social and economic exclusion mechanism

Poverty is also a consequence of social and economic exclusion mechanisms, which in turn has three paradigms: solidarity paradigm, specialization paradigm, and monopoly paradigm.

i.) In the solidarity paradigm, exclusion mechanisms are attributed to troubled relationships between the community and specific groups of individuals, the community being defined in terms of a package of common values, rights and institutions and a social order ensuring therefrom.

ii.) In the specialization paradigm, exclusion is seen as the result of the conduct of the individual which is gain dependent on his interests and capabilities, so that the social structure is based on a specific form of division of labour which essentially plays a part in determining how and to what extent the individual and society interact. Exclusion therefore appears in terms of discrimination, market refusal or unenforceable rights and voluntary conduct.

iii.) In the monopolization paradigm, various interest groups exert control

over the input of available resources, and as insiders determine access to resources and establish barriers to access, for example on goods and labour markets, at the same time fostering solidarity within the respective interest groups. Therefore, the rules limiting membership of the groups represent exclusion mechanisms, which may be of a nature (von Hauff and Kruse, 1994).

### 5. Poverty as a consequence of vulnerability

When individuals lack basic amenities which should make their life meaningful, they become vulnerable to unfavorable conditions of living. This further leads to exclusion from other members of the social group or society. In this case, the poor is defenseless, insecure, and exposure to risk, shocks and stress.

### 6. Poverty as the outcome of the inefficient use of common resources

This applies to both the rural and urban poor. Productive resources, e.g., land and human capital, can only yield income if such resources are productively exploited. Government, however, could contain restrictions, which limit the productive exploitation of available resources. For example,

a. When the right to exploit or make use of productive resources are banned or restricted by the government. This occurs when the government restricts agricultural exploitation of certain areas, or the practice of certain economic activities, etc.

b. Administrative obstacles may limit the business activities of the poor, such as when entrepreneurial activities in the urban informal sector require permits, licenses and registration. Illegal activities of criminal groups in poor urban districts may also limit the economic activities of poor individuals.

c. In the urban areas, transport facilities, water, electricity, housing and sewerage, etc., are in short supply in the poorer sections. Since the poor cannot self-finance these facilities, their economic activities face severe handicaps, resulting in incalculable losses in income.

The rural and urban poor have little or no access at all to the formal financial systems. Given their low income and low savings, their limited access to institutional borrowing means that the potential to expand their productive capacities and escape from the 'poverty trap' is rather limited. A corollary to this result is that the ability to save on the part of the poor, limited as it is, is not fully exploited. Instead, their pronounced tendency to exhibit a high marginal propensity to consume is reinforced.

Finally, rural and urban poverty is often reinforced by insufficient possession of human capital or the insufficient knowledge of the productive deployment of available resources. In other words, the low-level of human capital among the poor and inadequate exploitation of available resources tend to be interrelated. In rural agriculture, for instance, the available technologies in high yielding varieties, chemical fertilizers, crop protection, etc., hardly get adopted by the bulk of poor farmers for reasons ranging from the lack of adequate knowledge on how to apply them, and the lack of resources to purchase them, to ignorance of the opportunities provided by such technologies.

Poverty therefore is often the result of a number of interactive and mutually reinforcing socio-economic restrictions in which the poor are trapped (Von Hauff and Kruse, 1994). This perspective offers a more dynamic view of poverty by exposing the 'social hierarchies' which underpin it; it separates out the structural causes of poverty, and implies that individuals are trapped in poverty by virtue of those structural features over which they have little control.

## 7. Poverty as a result of exclusive mechanisms

Poverty can result when certain groups use mechanisms in the system to exclude 'problem groups' from participating in economic development; including the democratic process. An often cited example here is long-term unemployment which, in many industrialized economies particularly, is creating what has come to be termed the 'new poor'. In South Africa, the agricultural sector was exploited through direct and indirect taxation throughout the colonial and postcolonial decades. This has contributed to the poor growth performance of the sector and encouraged rural-urban migration which has in turn exacerbated the employment crisis in urban South Africa.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) has for long regarded this perspective on poverty as a particularly serious form of social economic exclusion. It seeks to identify and analyze who-and for what reasons-are excluded from participating in socio-economic development and what strategies must be evolved to integrate the excluded groups into the development process.

Following the above conceptualization, therefore, we categorize the following as poor, especially in the Nigerian context:

- i. Those households or individuals below the poverty and the income are insufficient to provide for their basic needs
- ii. Households or individuals lacking access to basic services, political contacts and other forms of support, including the urban squatters and 'street' children
- iii. People in isolated rural areas who lack essential infrastructures
- iv. Female-headed households (especially with pregnant women and mothers who are breastfeeding, and infants) whose nutritional needs are not being met adequately
- v. Persons who have lost their jobs and those who are unable to find employment (such as school leaver and tertiary education graduates) as programmes (SAPs), and those who are in danger of becoming the 'new poor'
- vi. Ethnic minorities who are marginalized, deprived and persecuted economically, socially, culturally and politically

## THE WHO AND WHY OF POVERTY

### THE WHO OF POVERTY

The most pathetic feature of our society today is that a majority of its members are living in a state of destitution, while the remaining relatively insignificant minorities are wallowing in affluence. These skewed economic relations do not reflect the geographical spread of resources endowment; rather, it is a product of classic greed, injustice and selfishness which is beyond any economic principle. It is true that where one comes from can also be a strong determinant of one's economic status, since place of origin can provide different opportunities and constraints. For example, access to education, health care, markets, electricity potable water and fuel depends very much on physical location.

### Women & Children in Poverty

Badham (1995) maintains that the past two decades of research have brought into focus the problem of vulnerable groups, such as women, for whom escape from poverty is particularly difficult. Bruce et al. (1988) studied Third World women and observed that virtually everywhere, women and children suffer the harshest deprivation. Another study by Moshen (1991) stated that women and children are more likely to be poor and malnourished in Third World countries. Women face special social and economic constraints in acquiring and using human capital, as evidence on education shows. In Africa and in southern Asia, more than 70 per cent of women of 25 years of age and above are illiterate. Even for girls in the 6-11 age group, the proportion out of school is above 25 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa and above 15 per cent in southern Asia (Thirlwall, 1994).

It has also been observed that the lack of child-care facilities often forces young daughters of poor working women to drop out of school to take care of their siblings, perpetuating the cycle of low education and low paid jobs for women from one generation to the next (Bardham, 1995). An aspect which further compounds this problem are the legal and cultural barriers (as exemplified) by recent developments in Afghanistan) to entering the labour market. Even if they manage to get a job, they are often segregated in casual and low-paying jobs. Overburdened by domestic responsibilities and with culturally induced low self-esteem, women have been placed at serious disadvantages with respect to access to credit programmes, as most women cannot provide collateral. In addition, many poor women are at a higher risk of violent confrontations from their spouses, which is tolerated culturally and further limits their economic activities and autonomy. All these gender biases exist in Nigeria and the consequence is that they increase women's poverty.

### THE WHY OF POVERTY

The why of poverty can be answered from two perspective-external and internal.



**A. External perspective**

The external relations between countries has its own share in the poverty of some countries and its perpetuation process, which has given rise to the structuralism and dependency theories of underdevelopment (Myrdal, 1983), Singh (1979) and Chenery (1979). What seems to be the order of the day is that once one set of countries gains an economic advantage from a situation, the advantage has to be sustained through a process which works through a media of factors mobility and trade (Thirlwall, 1994). Myrdal (1957) called this process 'circular and cumulative causation'. It is clear that the current indebtedness of the less developed countries the increasing price that poor countries have to pay for development inputs, relative to the price they receive for their exports, and the growing number of poor people, are manifestations of this perpetuation.

**b. Internal or Domestic perspective**

On the domestic front, a large segment of this society is chronically affected by food shortages. Food insecurity is generally associated with shortfalls in food production and our analysis will be deficient in understanding the 'why' of rising chronic poverty and under nutrition unless we get a proper grasp of what could be responsible for the disappointing growth records of local food production in the last two decades.

It has been observed that the state of agriculture in any meaningful development is of foremost importance (Lewis, 1955 and 1966; Musa, 1982). It was, after all, settled agriculture that laid the basis for the great civilization in the past and it was the increase in agricultural productivity in England in the 18<sup>th</sup> century that laid the foundation for and sustained the first Industrial Revolution. Thus, if there is an overriding single factor which explains why some countries developed before others, and why some countries are still backward, it lies in the condition of the agricultural sector which, in the early stages of development, must provide the purchasing power over industrial goods.

The agricultural sector has not been helped by what Lipton (1997) has called 'urban bias' which has starved agriculture of resources-both human and capital. This has happened because the ruling elites identify with a non-rural environment, and because policy makers are led astray both by the empirical evidence which shows a high correlation between levels of development and industrialization, and by early development models which stressed investment industry with little attention to agriculture

**WHAT DO THE POOR OWN?**

To understand poverty creation in rural areas and its effects on different groups, we need to look at the assets that the poor own or to which they have access, and their links to the economy. The economic conditions faced by the rural poor are affected by a variety of assets (and the returns on them) held at the household, community, and supra-community levels. The poor's *physical assets* include natural capital (private and common

property rights in land, pastures, forest, and water), machines and tools and structures, stocks of domestic animals and food, and financial capital (jewelry, insurance, savings, and access to credit).

Their *human assets* are the labour pools comprising workers of varying ages, genders, skills, and health in the households and communities. Their *infrastructural assets* are publicly and privately provided transport and communications, access to schools and health centers, storage, potable water, and sanitation. Their *institutional assets* include their legally protected rights and freedoms and the extent of their participation in decision making in households and communities, as well as at the supra-community level. The first two categories of assets are largely regulated through formal and informal networks among individuals and communities. Most rural people, particularly women and those in landless households, are greatly handicapped by inadequate assets and the low and volatile returns on them.

The differences among the rural poor are more clearly reflected in their links to the economy, which determine how they use their assets and participate in production. The rural poor are engaged in the production of both tradable and nontradable goods and services. Artisans and unskilled workers provide many nontradable services and some nontradable products (such as staple foods) that small cultivators also produce. Only cultivators, however, have access to small parcels of land through ownership or (sharecropping) tenancy. They are also the only groups of poor people who own or rent physical capital such as tools, implements, and machinery. Artisans and small-scale farmers have only limited amount of physical capital. They have only limited access to financial capital and acquire it largely through informal agents or institutions, except for tenants, who can use their landlords as conduits to formal credit. Borrowed capital is often costly and is used to maintain consumption during hard times or to buy supplies and equipment needed for farming. Households' labour is used both within the family for work done by unpaid family members and to earn the wages paid to landless, unskilled workers in farm and nonfarm activities.

All groups of the rural poor are vulnerable to serious risk owing to changes in weather, health, markets, investment, and public policy. The resulting fluctuations in the prices and quantities of their assets and their products can either deepen their poverty or give them opportunities to escape from it. The main reason is that the rural poor have a very low capacity to absorb abrupt financial shocks. In addition, economic crises and natural disasters can bring about sharp increases in poverty and make it more difficult for the poor to escape it.

- a. political instability and civil strife;
- b. systemic discrimination on the basis of gender, race, ethnicity, religion, or caste;
- c. ill-defined property rights or unfair enforcement of rights to agricultural land and other natural resources;



- d. high concentration of land ownership and asymmetrical tenancy arrangements;
- e. corrupt politicians and rent-seeking public bureaucracies;
- f. economic policies that discriminate against or exclude the rural poor from the development process and accentuate the effects of other poverty-creating processes;
- g. large and rapidly growing families with high dependency ratios;
- h. market imperfections owing to high concentration of land and other assets and distortionary public policies; and
- i. external shocks owing to changes in the state of nature (for example, climatic changes) and conditions in the international economy.
- j. Biases in national economic and social policies can contribute to rural poverty by excluding the rural poor from the benefits of development and accentuating the effects of other poverty-creating processes. Policy biases that generally work against the rural poor include:
  - k. urban bias in public investment for infrastructure and provision of safety nets;
  - l. implicit taxation of agricultural products through so-called support prices and an overvalued exchange rate;
  - m. direct taxation of agricultural exports and import subsidies;
  - n. subsidies for capital-intensive technologies;
  - o. favoring export crops over food crops; and
  - p. bias in favor of large landowners and commercial producers with respect to rights of land ownership and tenancy, publicly provided extension services, and access to (subsidized) credit.

THE CONCEPT OF RURAL POVERTY

**Rural poverty** refers to poverty found in rural areas, but more important, to factors of rural society, rural economy and rural political systems that give rise to the poverty found there. A widely shared assumption is that rural poverty in the modern era operates on somewhat different dynamics than class-based urban poverty, although social science analyses since the 'rediscovery' of poverty in the 1960s have often tended to conflate the two. Marxism, unlike other contemporary theories of poverty, tends to write off the rural problem without further examination. (Marx referred to "the idiocy of rural life.") he causes of rural poverty are complex and multidimensional. They involve, among other things, culture, climate, gender, markets, and public policy. Likewise, the rural poor are quite diverse both in the problems they face and the possible solutions to these problems. This book examines how rural poverty develops, what accounts for its persistence, and what specific measures can be taken to eliminate or reduce it.

Broad economic stability, competitive markets, and public investment in physical and social infrastructure are widely recognized as important requirements for achieving sustained economic growth and a reduction in rural poverty. In addition, because the rural poor links to the economy vary considerably, public policy should focus on issues such as access to land and credit, education and health care, support services, and entitlements to food through well-designed public works programs and other transfer mechanisms.

About one-fifth of the world's population is afflicted by povertythese people live on less than \$1 a day. Poverty is not only a state of existence but also a process with many dimensions and complexities. Poverty can be persistent (chronic) or transient, but transient poverty, if acute, can trap succeeding generations. The poor adopt all kinds of strategies to mitigate and cope with poverty.

Rural poverty accounts for nearly 63 percent of poverty worldwide, reaching 90 percent in some countries like Bangladesh and between 65 and 90 percent in sub-Saharan Africa. (Exceptions to this pattern are several Latin American countries in which poverty is concentrated in urban areas.) In almost all countries, the conditionsin terms of personal consumption and access to education, health care, potable water and sanitation, housing, transport, and communicationsfaced by the rural poor are far worse than those faced by the urban poor. Persistently high levels of rural poverty, with or without overall economic growth, have contributed to rapid population growth and migration to urban areas. In fact, much urban poverty is created by the rural poor's efforts to get out of poverty by moving to cities. Distorted government policies, such as penalizing the agriculture sector and neglecting rural (social and physical) infrastructure, have been major contributors to both rural and urban poverty.

CLASSIFICATION OF RURAL POVERTY

The rural poor depend largely on agriculture, fishing, forestry, and related small-scale industries and services. To understand how poverty affects these individuals and households, and to delineate the policy options for poverty reduction, we first need to know who the rural poor are.

The rural poor are not a homogeneous group. One important way to classify the rural poor is according to their access to agricultural land: *cultivators* have access to land as small landowners and tenants, and *noncultivators* are landless, unskilled workers. There is, however, much functional overlap between these groups, reflecting the poverty-mitigating strategies of the poor in response to changes in the economy and society.

**i. Cultivators**, who form the bulk of the rural poor in developing countries, are directly engaged in producing and managing crops and livestock. Since these households cannot sustain themselves on the small parcels of land they own or cultivate, they provide labor to others for both farm and nonfarm activities inside and outside their villages. Some members of these households migrate to towns or cities on

either a rotational or a long-term basis. In many countries, both small landowners and tenants are under increasing pressure to get out of the agriculture sector altogether. Underlying this process of "depeasantization" are market forces and policies affecting landholdings, rents, prices, credit, inputs, and public investment in social and physical infrastructure.

ii. **Noncultivators** are perhaps the poorest among the rural poor. Their numbers have been rising rapidly because of the natural increase in population and depeasantization. These workers depend on seasonal demand for labour in agriculture and in rural informal, small-scale industries and services. The landless rural workers are vulnerable to fluctuations in the demand for labour, wage rates, and food prices. They find it even more difficult than small landowners and tenants to gain access to public infrastructure and services. In addition, unlike their counterparts in urban areas, they are often excluded from public sector safety nets (food rations, for example).

**Rural women** tend to suffer far more than rural men. Their poverty and low social status in most societies is a major contributor to chronic poverty. Substantial evidence from many countries shows that focusing on the needs and empowerment of women is one of the keys to human development.

What we see in Nigeria are two areas each with its pool of desperately poor people and a sprinkling of rich ones. Though the incidence of poverty is much higher in the rural areas than in the urban centres, the urban slum-dwellers form one of the more deprived groups.

Those who do not own enough land to grow food for family consumption. They are poor because of unequal distribution of cultivable land, which may be exacerbated by population pressure. Farmers who do not have sufficient land often have their problems compounded by inadequate access to complementary inputs such as fertilizer and credit.

ii. The second category includes landless agricultural labourers and other non-agricultural groups who rely on employment opportunities in the countryside. The poverty of the landless consists not just of low agricultural wages, but also in the shortage of employment opportunities during the year (Lipton, 1983). A few of them may engage in petty trading and various forms of self-employment.

## TYPOLOGY OF POVERTY

There is the absolute and relative type of poverty.

### a. Absolute Poverty

According to Hemmer (1994), absolute poverty refers to the lack of the minimum physical requirements of a person or household for existence, and is so extreme that those affected are no longer in a position to lead a 'life worthy of human dignity'. Schubert (1994) refers to absolute poverty exclusively as the situation of particular individuals without any comparison being made between them and others. It

exists when the lives of those concerned are impaired by physical or socio-cultural deficiencies. Such an absolute classification requires defining a minimum or basic datum level, below which an individual or household can be considered to be in this condition.

Absolute poverty involves minimum consumption norms, usually with some nutritional criteria, which are translated into food requirements and then into a required income. This line is then used in a head counting exercise to determine how many individuals and what proportion of the population are below the line. Two types of poverty are identified, primary (absolute) poverty and secondary (absolute) poverty. If physical human subsistence (expressed in terms of nutrition, clothing and housing) is not guaranteed, this is referred to as primary (absolute) poverty. On the other hand, exclusion from participation in a normal relative poverty refers to a person or household whose provision with goods lower than that of other persons or households.

Absolute and relative poverty can also be seen as microeconomic and macroeconomic. In microeconomic terms, poverty refers to a situation in which individual persons or households are not able to satisfy their basic needs, or can satisfy them only to an inadequate degree. From a macroeconomic perspective, poverty exists when the 'average inhabitants' of a country live below the minimum subsistence level or not far enough above it. Thus, the macroeconomic is concerned with particular individuals or households,

Location ally and shanties are usually characterized by environmental slums, ghettos and shanties are usually characterized by environmental degradation, inadequate welfare services and social deprivation, low capita per income, overcrowded accommodation, low level of education, low level of capital resources, and non-formal sources of capital for business. Rural poverty is characterized by poor material conditions, low level of education or a high rate of illiteracy, lack of infrastructures, expensive technology, low levels of investment, high population growth rates, high level of unemployment and investment, high population growth rates, high level of unemployment and underemployment, poor health, and high out-migration (Rogers et al., 1988).

### b. Relative Poverty

Relative poverty does not necessarily mean that the persons concerned cannot live a life that is worthy of human dignity. It merely states that, because of the distribution structures in a society, certain economic subjects are disadvantaged to an unacceptable extent. Thus, relative poverty exists when the subjects under consideration are 'poor' in relation to 'other' who needs to be more closely specified. Relative classification attempts to define poverty in relation to either average levels or societal norms. Relative poverty can be objective or subjective.

Difference in the (individual) satisfaction of basic needs or in (individual) income values which can be objectively determined and which are described by value judgment as 'excessive', are expressions of objective relative poverty, irrespective of particular individual perceptions. If, however, such differences are perceived as being 'excessive' irrespective of whether this is objectively measureable, there is a case of subjective relative poverty (Goedhart, 1977).



### c. **Conjunctural and Structural Poverty**

Based on individual circumstances, Hiffe (1987) distinguished between conjunctural poverty and structural poverty. Conjunctural poverty is a temporary phenomenon into which normally caused by individuals are thrown in a crisis. Structural poverty is long-term and normally caused by individual circumstances. A distinction exists between structural poverty among the land-rich and the land-scarce societies. In land-rich societies households are in poverty as a result of lack labour power or injury. In land-scarce societies the same groups are in poverty but, in addition, they lack access to land, employment, or employment at a sufficient level to provide for basic subsistence.

Structural poverty is said to arise from the structural poverty and transitory poverty. Structural poverty is said to arise from the structural characteristics of poor households: low education, incidence of single-headed families (especially female heads), income fluctuations due to overwhelming incidence of primary-production agriculture (which depends much more on the vagaries of the weather, fluctuating crop diseases and other uncontrollable natural factors), and poorly developed financial institutions.

### d. **Chronic and Transitory Poverty**

Poverty is often categorized as either chronic or transitory. A chronically poor household is poor through the sample period, and if it is poor only some of the time. Transitory poverty is taken as stochastic poverty in low-income countries due to failure in finding protection against stochastic elements in the economic environment.

Galbraith (1958) classified poverty into Island poverty and case poverty. Generalized poverty refers to pervasive poverty-that which is common. Island poverty is that which exists in the midst of plenty such as Nigeria's, which the World Bank (1996) considers a paradox. Case poverty, which is associated with affluent societies, is caused by peculiar circumstances of individuals or families, such as ill-health or disability.

## **CATEGORIZATION OF POVERTY**

Poverty may be categorized along five dimensions of deprivation.

- i. **Personal and physical deprivation:** Deprivation can be experienced in health, nutrition, literacy, educational disability and lack of confidence.
- ii. **Economic deprivation:** These include lack of access to property, income, assets, factors of production and finance. One of the most important and most common manifestations of poverty is the denial of accessibility to the basic necessities of human existence.
- iii. **Social deprivation:** This involves the barriers to full-participation in social, political and economic life. People may be deprived of their human rights because of personal and economic deprivations. Nigeria is a signatory to the 1989 UN convention on the elimination of all form of discrimination against women, children and adolescents. But women still have a low status and lack full access to basic needs and other right necessary for their well-being and survival (UNICEF, 1994).

iv. **Cultural deprivation:** People are deprived in terms of values, beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, information, and orientation. Consequently, they are not able to take advantage of economic and political opportunities. The lack of access to values, beliefs, knowledge, information and attitudes deprives them of control of their own destinies. Our foreign partners should appreciate the peculiarity of our local culture, which provides the security and other benefits, and that their disruption may cause considerable distress.

v. **Political deprivation:** Ignorance is a fundamental deterrent to the elimination of poverty because it complements conditions of exploitation, domination and deprivation. Studies have shown that economic constraints, illiteracy and ignorance undermine access to legal institutions. It is the poor who lacks political voice. Those who are politically deprived occupy lowly positions and are subjected to coercion through physical or economic threat.

## **THE CONSEQUENCES OF POVERTY**

The inability of the system to provides the basic necessities of life to its members have been consequential in myriads of ways.

### i. **General loss of confidence by the poor**

Specifically, in a society where the majority of its members are poverty-stricken, there is a general loss of confidence in the constituted authority, thereby generating disrespect and rendering government policies ineffective. So long as people feel uncatered for, and their loyalty to the system is not being reciprocated, the expected to facilitate the success of a programme, would in this case incapacitate the success of policies has been the case in our society-take the case of the Green peoples and community banks and the mother of real economic decline in the 'Third World, the structural adjustment programmes (SAP). Poverty is also consequential in building political apathy among contending forces and, for the majority, political ineptitude, as can be seen in the current lukewarm response towards voters' registration exercises. It increases the fragility and vulnerability of members of the society to external influence as the case had been in Liberia, Rwanda, Burundi and Zaire.

### ii. **Causes social disillusionment**

Furthermore, poverty has the consequence of breeding social disillusionment with respect to what the societal objectives are and members' responsibilities towards the attainment of these objectives. Just as ignorance maintains poverty, so also can poverty perpetuate ignorance since the victims cannot think and plan beyond where the next meal is coming from. It is a vicious circle, reproducing itself in perpetuity.

Corruption, nepotism, crimes and other social vices are, to some extent, by products of poverty. So long as making ends meet remains difficult, the propensity to explore other avenues, such stealing, is high. Suffice it to say here that unmitigated corruption in high places breeds corruption lower down, since the desire to amass wealth

by those with the responsibility of leadership can only be satisfied through the appropriation of that which is meant for the majority. In so doing, the majority is compelled to fend for itself 'by any means available'.

People will want their own person to occupy a given position without any consideration for merit, because opportunities are limited. Similarly, the magnitude and/or frequency of robbery cases cannot be totally devoid of the compulsion in some perpetrators of such acts to transform dissatisfaction into satisfaction. Bribes are given and received because the giver's assessment is founded on a conception that the economic condition of the receiver may not be an exception from the visible condition of the majority; a condition which also makes the receiver prone to not objecting the offer. Generally, poverty breeds ungodliness as people tend to use religion like a drug to escape from their dire circumstances, praying that God will give them what they need since the government cannot or will not.

### iii. Low/Capital formation & largely subsistent labour

In the economic sphere, because people are poor and cannot afford the capital needed to expand production, production itself remains largely subsistence labour is therefore intensive and the margin of productivity is low. Even subsistence production is not fully utilized because of poor processing and storage techniques, the effect of changing weather conditions, and damage caused by pest and diseases. The intensification of agricultural production resulting from increasing population, and the lack of finance capital and equipment has brought into the fore evidence of an increasingly overworked soil. The ensuring drought in northern Nigeria and soil erosion in eastern Nigeria has led to the extension of farming on marginal locations which further damage the eco-system and the natural resources base of the country (Nunnenkamp, 1991).

### iv. Migration and its attending challenges in urban centres

The lack of jobs and economic opportunities in villages drives millions of people to migrate from villages into over-crowded cities. The continuing migration causes immense social and environmental problems in the major cities of poor countries. Some of these challenges include urban congestions, housing problems, increase in crime rates, like prostitution, robbery, etc just to secure means of livelihood.

## SOME THEORIES OF POVERTY

According to Akeredolu-Ale (1975) a theory of poverty must identify the forces which govern and determine the pattern of ownership of the factors of production, since it is that pattern that eventually determines the structure of inter-personal and inter-group differentials in wealth and income in the society. Consequently, he has identified four theories, such as the necessity theory and the individual theory. Some of these theories, such as the necessity theory and the individual attribute theory, with the phenomenon of economic inequality.

### i. The Necessity Theory:

advanced by McClelland (1961), the necessity theory has three variants. These are the functionalist variants, the evolutionist variant and that which has been developed in relation to capitalist entrepreneurial theory. The functionalist theory argues that specialization leads to efficiency and that since different roles are differently evaluated, certain role are given better rewards than others. Consequently, those who play such role are placed high in the economic and social hierarchy in the society. This is also how the poor are seen to form or emerge. In this theory, the emergence of the poor is almost spontaneous.

Some of the questions that readily come to mind which are yet to be answered are: Who does the valuation of roles? Is it the society in general or the powerful few? What determines the lowest or the highest reward given to roles in the society? According to Akeredolu Ale (1975), what seems undisputable is that the emergence of inequalities and of the poor class is not as spontaneous as claimed by the functionalist theory of stratification. The second variant, evolutionist theory, equally holds the view that the second variant, which is the evolutionist with inequality and poverty acting as eliminators of the least fit. The third variant which is derived from the economic history of capitalist (free-enterprise) economics does not support the notion of spontaneity. This variant argues that crude exploitation constitutes a major factor in the emergence of the poor class in the society. In this theory, the crude exploitation can give rise to an increase in savings and aggression entrepreneurship that will result in industrialization. Though this theory has a valid historical basis in terms of the industrial revolutions that took place in Western countries, it can equally be argued that economic growth will, to a large extent, also depend on growing income-equality. In fact, high income/consumption inequality tends to lower the marginal efficiency of capital in mass production, and consequently regards investment.

ii. **The Individual-Attributes Theory:** according to Akeredolu-Ale (1975), this theory holds the view that the poor in the society are the architects of their own misfortune. The argument of this theory is that the position of an individual in the society's hierarchy of income and wealth is assumed to be determined mainly by that individual's motivations, aptitudes, and ability. While we share the view that an individual's attributes can be instrumental to his location in the society's status-hierarchy, we equally assert that these attributes operate only within a structure of possibilities and limits set and defined by forces outside the scope of the individual. These forces are usually determined by the prevailing system of property, class relations and power (Akeredolu-Ale, 1975).

iii. **The Natural-Circumstantial Theories:** are generally more directly concerned with the issue of poverty. Harry (1966) maintained that the focus of these theories is the identification of certain important explanatory variables responsible for poverty. Among these are geographical location and the natural endowment of the individual's environment, unemployment, old age, etc. A major advantage of these theories is that they have a more immediate bearing on policy than the other theories. These theories hold the view that poverty reduction can be attained without substantial changes in the larger economic, social and political environment.



iv. **The Power Theory:** the central argument of the Power Theory seems to be that the structure of political power in society determines the extent and distribution of poverty among the population. In other words, poverty is a characteristic feature of a situation in which the few that possess the political power organize the economic system to suit their own selfish interest. The extent of the success of the exploiting class will depend on the revolutionary consciousness of the subject or oppressed class; on their organizational capacity to resist exploitation and overthrow the oppressive property system (Akeredolu-Ale, 1975). The power theory or the countries, where clearly explains what has been happening the developing countries, where conditions such as low political consciousness on the part of the masses, and a high degree of centralization of natural resources, which the ruling class could exploit, co-exist (Johnson, 1968). A major implication of this theory for policy is that the attainment of a poverty free society requires the radical altering of the envisaged implementation difficulty. Even if it is assumed that the revolutionary solution would emerge in the long run, the question as to what can be done now is not answered.

#### FOCUS ON NIGERIA/AFRICA/THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

Poverty exists in Nigeria. The evidence lies in the persistence of rural poverty, resulting from a break down in agriculture, which is considered to be the engine through which rural economic activities runs. Poverty is not only widespread in rural areas, but most poverty is rural, at least for now. Yet this core problem appears neglected.

To address this problem, the Nigeria economy itself has over the years traversed through a series of reforms that aim at improving the health of the economy. The economy, however, remains toddler, struggling to find a sense of direction. The economy has been a victim of a wasteful diversion of resources that could have been used to foster a virile and viable development process. As a result, the economy, for several years, has remained import-dependent. Obadan (1996) posited that Nigeria earned a total of \$67.047 million export revenue from 1981 to 1985 but its imports for the same period totaled \$64.078 million. This excessive importation which was part of government policy has been viewed as being responsible for the economy's debt entrapment; the consequences of which have pauperized the citizenry. This encapsulation of the economy by the praxis of globalization has had inimical consequences.

The level of poverty has increased in Africa and in Nigeria since the implementation of the structural adjustment programme in the '80s (UNDP Nigeria, 1998; World Bank, 1999 & FOS, 2001). Data from the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) on poverty profile in Nigeria (1999) showed that the incidence of poverty increased from 28.1 % in 1980 to 43.6 % in 1985 but declined to 42.7 % in 1992 and rose again to 65.6 % in 1996. Since 1990, the country has been classified as a poor nation. The UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) for 2000 ranked Nigeria as the 142nd with HDI of 0.40 among the poorest countries. For the period 1980 to 1996, the population of poor Nigerians increased fourfold in absolute terms. The percentage of the core poor increased from 62 % in 1980 to 93 % in 1996, whereas the moderately poor only rose from 28.9 % in 1992 to 36.3 % in 1996. The proportion of total income spent on food by

the core poor and moderately poor was approximately 75 % and 73 %, while the non-poor category spent about 53 % of their total income on food (FOS, 2001).

The analysis of the depth and severity of poverty in Nigeria showed that rural areas were the most affected. Several reasons accounted for this situation; the large concentration of the populace in the rural area, many years of neglect of the rural areas in terms of infrastructural development, and lack of information on the way government is being run. The CBN/World Bank study on Poverty Assessment and Alleviation in Nigeria (1999) attested to the fact that the living and environmental conditions of those living in the rural areas have worsened. Urban poverty is also on the increase in the country. This has been attributed to the under provision of facilities and amenities which are inadequate to match the growing demand of the urban populace as well as the rural urban movement which has caused serious pressure on the existing infrastructural facilities (Oyesanmin, Eboiyehi & Adereti, 2003).

Concern about the problem as well as efforts made to reduce it cannot be said to be new. However, while major reductions in poverty level have been in the developed countries, the same cannot be said regarding the undeveloped countries of the world. Indeed sub Saharan Africa has been characterized as being among the poorest regions of the world. Poverty in the region has increased due to global economic policies, political instability, civil wars and structural adjustment programme (SAP) among others. About 250 million Africans (about 45 percent) of the population are poor (World Bank, 1996). In rural areas, where most Africans live, the situation is worse. The high poverty level in sub Saharan Africa has been attended by the decline in per capita income, wages and employment in the surroundings of the population pressure, fragile national resources and weak institutional financial structure (Aliu, 2001).

The incidence of poverty in Nigeria in the year 1997 was put at 70 percent. In the same year, the Vision 2010 Committee established for Nigeria a poverty line of N3, 290 per capita per month at 1997 prices. An examination of the distribution pattern exposed an uneven distribution, with rural Nigeria accounting for 73% of the poor and 95% of the "extremely poor" in 1992 (Vision 2010 Report, 1997:2). There are poor people in the urban areas; however, poverty wears a predominantly rural look in Nigeria. The National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy observed that:

*Though revenues from crude oil have been increasing over the past decades, our people have been falling deeper into poverty. In 1980, an estimated 27 percent of Nigerians lived in poverty. By 1999, about 70 percent of the population had income of less than \$1 a day- and the figure has risen since then (Tell, August 22, 2005:25).*

A mind- staggering puzzle concerning increases in the prices of crude oil is that while the country boasts of increases in the prices of crude oil and external reserves,, members of the civil society are driven to lower and more excruciating levels of poverty by unabating run-away inflation. This further depletes the per capita income of Nigerians and subjects them to ruinous poverty.

*In countries like Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Indonesia, United Arab Emirates and Kuwait, which are all members of Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries OPEC, per capita income averages \$2,000 and more. Nigeria's \$250 per capita income not only seems odd, it is also worrisome to both local and international development analysts (Tell August 22, 2005:25).*

Poverty humiliates and dehumanises its victim. As Obadan (1996: 23) rightly noted:  
*...poverty has earned recognition in the extent of its ravaging society and the affairs of humanity at the international, national and local levels...the need exists now for urgent actions towards its eradication and control...indeed, poverty is a snare. It is dehumanising...It must be eradicated...*

There is no doubt that poverty has become an accepted reality of living in Nigeria. The poverty here is absolute because there is no form of social security in place. There is no safety net of any sort. Thus there is no level of poverty beyond which any Nigerian cannot degenerate. Worse still, there is no form of health insurance that is available to the poor. Nigeria compares unfavorably to many African countries that do not have half of her natural resources in terms of poverty (Ifeanacho, Nte & Nwagwu, 2009). We have already noted that most of those who live below the poverty line live in rural Nigeria. This is why according to Moro (2008); rural poverty has remained one of the pressing economic and social problems in Nigeria. Moro further states that rural sector is the most backward in terms of economic activity. Yet the peasants who produce the bulk of the food that feeds Nigeria live in these rural areas.

For many Nigerians, rural poverty makes economic sense. Food is procured cheaply in the rural areas to feed the urban population. Thus the rural dwellers have either been neglected or exposed to policies which rationalize low development rates. It is hardly reasoned that there is a critical relationship between poverty and reduced food production as proposed in the conceptual model of rural poverty.

Moro (2008) has put forward the argument that, the poor conditions of life in the rural areas are generally the result of wrong policies, poor planning and misallocation of resources and a tale of unbelievable waste of huge chunk of the country's human resources. The marginalization of the peasants through ineffective policies and the failure to modernize agriculture by the Nigerian state are the critical factors that power food insecurity in the nation (Ifeanacho, Nte & Nwagwu, 2009).

In its report 2005, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) identifies factors such as neglect, disease and non-involvement in decision making as being responsible for the poverty situation in Nigeria. For instance, it says that the rural poor have little or no voice in many decisions affecting their livelihood, meaning that they rarely make an input in policy issues and investment decisions that affect them.

IFAD also notes that various administrations had for long neglected the hinterland, while concentrating the provision of infrastructure in urban areas. Furthermore, it says that conflict and the incidence of HIV and AIDS constitute a major threat to the rural poor, increasing their vulnerability and putting at risk the entire asset base of affected households. These factors, analysts say, have resulted in the lack of access to education, health facilities, potable water, electricity and roads. The consequences, they say, are low literacy level and poor health standards due to undernourishment and diseases as well as low economic productivity.

As cited by Antai (2007), the report of the Global Development Watchdog Organisations (GDWO) (2007), disclosed that these are generally acceptable poverty indicators. IFAD's findings show that poverty is evident in all rural communities in Nigeria, but it is not evenly distributed, as some geographical zones appear to be worse than others. For instance, IFAD notes that poverty is more pervasive in the arid North and the South-South zones where desertification and oil spills have respectively damaged the environment. Edame (2007) added that soils in these areas have largely been rendered unproductive to agricultural activities, even as other forms of land degradation, including gully erosion and flooding, are plaguing many parts of the country. All of these, they say, have aggravated the poverty situation in Nigeria, resulting in the migration of rural populace to urban areas. Migration to urban areas is a fallout from the long neglect of the hinterland. Many of those who are currently squatting and suffering in urban slums will gladly return to their villages if there is anything worth going back to other than poverty.

**TABLE 2.1**  
Poverty level in Nigeria rural areas 1980-1997

Year	Estimated total population (Millions)	Population in poverty (Millions)	Poverty level %
2000	65	17.7	27.2
2002	75	34.7	46.3
2006	91.5	39.2	42.9
2008	102.3	67.1	65.6

Source: Antai, 2009



TABLE 2.2  
The poor and core poor in Nigeria rural areas

Year	Non Poor %	Moderately Poor %	Core Poor %
2000	72.8	21.0	6.2
2002	53.7	34.2	12.1
2006	57.2	28.9	13.9
2008	34.4	36.3	29.3

Source: Antai, 2009

From Table 3.1, a poor person is considered as one without job, who cannot help himself or cater for his family, who has no money, farm or business. Adolescent males and females are poor if they have no parents, no education, no good food, clothes and health. A poor person is described as one who is undernourished and ageing fast, one without self confidence, looks dirty and lives in filthy environment, one who cannot cater for his family, train his children in the school and unable to pay medical bills (The World Bank, 2009). The core poor are poverty at its absolute level; standard of living of the poor. It is the inability to attain a minimal standard of living. Poverty which could be structural or transitional, whatever the category is measured by low income, is found to be at its worst in rural areas. Besides, malnutrition, lack of education, low life expectancy and substandard housing are also more severe in rural areas (World Bank, 2009).

It becomes therefore imperative to admit that there is need to establish for rural areas a foundation that would support greater earning and spending power. This he believes will alleviate poverty and promote a stronger rural economy that can create more opportunities for wage, self-employment and sustained economic development.

CHARACTERISTICS OF RURAL POVERTY

Ering (2000) and Oluwosola (2000) argued that, rural areas in Nigeria suffer serious neglects, lacking in basic amenities like pipe-borne water, electricity, hospitals and medicare, primary education, recreational facilities, absence of motorable roads. Oluwasola (2000) pointed out that in addition to the lacks identified above, the rural areas are characterized by high population 'growth rates, high infant and maternal mortality; low life expectancy rates and a peasant population that lacks modern equipment to exploit the natural resources on which they live. These have translated into a number of problems which include high unemployment levels and visible underemployment, low productivity, low per capita income and low standards of living (Ering, 2000).

Edame (2007) added that the characteristics of the rural dwellers in Nigeria that make up over 70 per cent of the population is crusting poverty, ignorance, disease, high rates of illiteracy, lack of basic infrastructures like good roads, electricity, higher institutions of learning, industries, potable water supply etc. The result of these problems is that the rural dwellers in Nigeria have developed a culture of silence, resignation and docility.

It is pertinent to state that the rural dwellers in Nigeria are not inherently poor, nor are they doomed to ignorance and disease, rather they are blessed with massive fertile land and mineral resources and also a huge and virile labour force, which can be transformed into goods and services. The missing link, however, has been the absence of an effective mechanism for mobilizing and stimulating them into action with a view to addressing their problems. The prevalence of rural poverty provides major challenges to governments, organisations of civil society and developmental agencies. The failure of many rural development projects during the last three decades has rather manifested in a declining socio-economic condition of those these projects were designed for. The wealthiest 20% of the world accounted 76.6% of total private consumption. The poorest, who are mostly rural accounted for a negligible percentage of 1.5 (Ayagba, 2009).

Therefore, McNeil (2003) and Ayagba, (2009) argued that the development of the rural economy will involve, among other things, enhancing an effective rural capacity, which will reduce rural dependence. Complementary to this, the role of infrastructural facilities in rural development and poverty reduction cannot be over-emphasised whether in urban or rural environments. Adequate infrastructure reduces the costs of production, which affects profitability, levels of output, and employment; when infrastructure works, productivity and labour increase. When it does not work, citizens suffer, particularly the poor. Thus, economic renewal and societal welfare become postponed or halted (McNeil, 2003).

POVERTY DETERMINANTS

1. Rise in the costs of living make poor people less able to afford items.

Poor people spend a greater portion of their budgets on food than richer people. As a result poor households and those near the poverty threshold can be particularly vulnerable to increases in food prices. For example in late 2007 increases in the price of grains led to food riots in some countries. The World Bank warned that 100 million people were at risk of sinking deeper into poverty (Brautigam, 2008). Threats to the supply of food may also be caused by drought and the water crisis. Intensive farming often leads to a vicious cycle of exhaustion of soil fertility and decline of agricultural yields. Approximately 40% of the world's agricultural land is seriously degraded. In Nigeria, if current trends of soil degradation continue the country might be able to feed just 25% of its population by 2025 (UNDP, 2008).

## 2. **Poor health conditions resulting from poor access to portable water**

Another determining characteristic of the rural poor in Nigeria is poor health conditions resulting from poor access to portable water. Access to potable water is significant in the development and sustenance of any rural economy. Antai (2004) pointed out that a responsible government provides basic facilities for the improvement of her rural population, especially, the provision of potable water to reduce their vulnerability to disease, thereby improving their health status. The common source of water for rural dwellers is water gotten from streams and wells, and these sources, the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) condemns, attributing it to the causes of waterborne diseases among the rural population. Since portable water is a determinant of rural health, Dele (2006) called on the government to ensure it's accessible to his citizens if rural health must be enhanced and sustained.

## 3. **Decreasing level of agricultural production**

More than 70 per cent of the Nigeria's poor population live in rural areas and depend on agriculture for food and livelihood, yet development assistance to agriculture is decreasing. This is owed to lack of access to improve farming implements and other basic farming needs like fertilizers, insecticides, access to loan facilities to expand production base, the challenge of land fragmentation, etc. thus, poor farm yield and gradual return to subsistence instead of commercial production.

## 4. **Lack of basic infrastructures**

Rural areas in Nigeria lack basic infrastructures like good roads, electricity, pipe-born water, primary health facilities, and so on. These deprivations lack their social, moral and psychological abilities to compete favourable within an economical stiffen environment like their urban counterparts who have access to these basic facilities.

## 5. **High level of illiteracy**

The rural class is mostly illiterate. They lack basic education and education, is the life wire of any society. This leads to ignorance to even participate in development programmes initiated by the government to improve their socio-economic wellbeing. Illiteracy makes the society grow backward and this is the case with most rural communities in Nigeria. This is further marked by continuing stagnation, poor production, low incomes and the rising vulnerability of poor people. The rural population is poorly organized and often isolated, beyond the reach of social safety nets and poverty programmes.

## 6. **Vulnerability to disease**

Poor access to health care services makes rural dwellers vulnerable to disease. This explains the increasing rate of mortality in the country. The Primary Health Care (PHC) delivery system is yet to reach its full implementation capacity as most rural health centres do not have the facilities and even adequate personnel to implement the programme. Poor funding of the programme is another limiting factor in this respect.

## 7. **Poor access to economic markets**

This is another major determinant that classifies the Nigerian rural society as

being poor. After production, access to market to sale off farm produces is not always readily available, sometimes due to poor access to the farm land by the buyers and at other times due to poor ability of the farmers to convey farm produce to the market where the are needed. This leads to waste as most produce, especially vegetables gets bad in the produce. Hunger is increased and the savings capability of the rural farmer is reduced.

## MEASURES TOWARDS POVERTY ALLEVIATION

Poverty alleviation is an attempt by the government to reduce the sufferings of the rural populace. This conscious policy effort began years ago, when efforts was shifted from dealing with income inequality to the task of reducing poverty. Three arguments were advanced to support the need for poverty alleviation;

- a. The first of these was that, most of those who are poor are not producers themselves. This group of people form part of the dependent population because they have no direct earnings of the typically evaluated in distribution studies.
- b. Secondly, there is no guarantee that an increased income would be spent on essential services. In other words, better medical care, safe drinking water housing may not be available. In such a situation, people may be better off nominally but worse off on the basis of any permanent improvement.
- c. Lastly, the ability of households to spend wisely and effectively vary. Certain households may irrationally prefer consumption goods, which contribute less to welfare, to other goods that could act as inputs for higher productivity (Obadan, 1996).

Many countries have adopted different approaches for assisting the poor under structural adjustment. Some of these approaches as discussed by Demery and Addisson (1987) are examined below. With the adoption of the structural adjustment policy by the government of Thailand in 1980, attempts were made to reorient industrial growth towards the export sector and to reduce energy price distortions.

1. **Thailand:** One of the major features of the Thailand adjustment were agricultural policy reforms which involved compensation to poor farmers for the adverse effects of the structural adjustment on their standard of living through granting them increased access to cultivable land. The government, rather than redistributing land from one social group to another, which is a more fundamental and difficult task, strengthened the property rights of the squatter farmers. The reform illustrated how the objective of increasing output under adjustment can also help to alleviate poverty.
2. **Philippines:** A similar policy is currently being considered in the Philippines, which has been revitalizing its land reform programme. It is important, however, to mention that land reform has serious political implications that may call into question its possible inclusion as an element in structural adjustment.
3. **Cote d'Ivoire:** In Cote d'Ivoire, the adjustment measures cushioned farmers from the harsh economic realities by improving agricultural prices and raising rural



incomes. The restoration of agricultural incentives by the government, resulted in improved rural-urban terms of trade, reduced rural-urban income inequalities and paved the way for long-term recovery.

4. **Indonesia:** in 1983, the adjustment effort of the government increased agricultural output undoubtedly improved rural incomes and employment and consequently the living standard of Indonesia's rural poor.

5. **Zimbabwe:** in the case of Zimbabwe, the targeting of assistance to poor farmers has been seen as one of the ways through which available resources could be efficiently utilized. Consequently, attempts have been directed towards increasing agricultural extension services in poorer areas to increase the rate of return on assets held by the rural poor. However, these measures have been handicapped by the difficulty in reaching these farmers because of the small and geographically dispersed nature of the farms.

6. **Chile:** the reduction of public employment is frequently argued to be necessary to control public expenditure, and consequently raise efficiency. This has become very important in countries where structural adjustment measures include sector, assistance to the retrenched public employees takes different forms. In the case of Chile, emergency employment programmes were introduced. The schemes introduced concentrated on the shortcomings of these work programmes, has been taking further steps to improve the efficiency of the schemes.

In addition, a national nutrition programme which involves the distribution of enriched food to pregnant women, mothers, and young children through health clinics, by the Ministry of Health was introduced in Chile (The World Bank, 1986).

7. **Gambia:** a major component of the adjustment programme of the government of Gambia which was launched in 1985 has been the rationalization of public employment. Many of the retrenched workers with low grade skills lack resources. This has compelled the government to render assistance. Since the government of Gambia was operating under severe constraints, the retrenched workers were provided with self-employment in private sector, through an Indigenous Business Advisory Service (IBAS). The IBAS assists by providing credit and training facilities to selected former public service employees to help them establish viable enterprise, but the collateral requirements of the organization has greatly limited the assistance to such people through the establishment of projects aided by the International Labor Organization (ILO) (Demery and Addison, 2007).

It is important to bear in mind that while programmes that expand employment and self-employment in the private sector may be necessary during the adjustment period, it should also be recognized that recipients of employment assistance such as retrenched public workers, may not be among the poorest in the community. The very poor, who are relatively worse-off, are predominant in the rural areas, consequently, governments should consider the trade-off involved in the allocation of resources among competing social groups.

8. **Indonesia:** regarding the issue of poverty alleviation, the most important aspect of the 1983-1985 adjustment programme of Indonesia was the increase in social expenditure. There was a considerable shift in investment priorities in favour of the

social sector with housing, education and health receiving substantial increases. In some countries, targeted food assistance programmes were launched.

9. **Nigeria:** In Nigeria, most measures at poverty alleviation has been geared towards improving the utilization capacity of local resources and human resources development, and consequently poverty reduction, had been introduced before the inception of the adjustment programme. This action on the part of the government has sequel to the recognition of the role of human resources development in economic development. Along with the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme additional efforts have been made by the government towards human resources development. This is evident from the examination of the country's education and health priorities since independence, and lately, priorities for population growth, rural infrastructural development, employment generation and banking schemes.

Even though it is difficult to say categorically that the measures adopted by these countries have actually improved the lot of the poor, they have, however, emphasized the fact that such an approach minimizes the potential conflict between poverty alleviation and adjustment and maximizes the potential benefit of transfer payments by enabling them to be devoted to the most vulnerable of the poor.

## CHALLENGES AND KEY POLICY COMPONENTS

Poverty alleviation differs from income inequality. Much attention has been focused on poverty alleviation in recent times and that have spiraled a shift from income inequality. Four broad implications associated with this fundamental shift are;

- i. first, such as the core poor.
- ii. secondly, it means directing attention to the rural areas where the poverty burden is larger.
- iii. thirdly, it means that there should be grassroots consideration of policy focus, and
- iv. fourthly, it tends to reduce the tension between the simultaneous objectives of improving the distribution of income and accelerating growth (Obadan, 1996).

The initial efforts at poverty alleviation have fundamentally centred on the 'basic needs' approach developed in the 1970s and supported by The World Bank. This approach emphasizes the importance of separating generalized increases in income from the more significant attainment of the requirements for a permanent reduction of poverty through the provision of health services, education, housing, sanitation, water supply and adequate nutrition. The rationale of the approach was that the direct provision of such goods services is likely to relieve absolute poverty more immediately than alternative strategies, since growth strategies usually fail to benefit the intended target and the productivity and income of the poor depend in the first place on the direct provision of health and education facilities. Similarly, there is no guarantee that increased income will be spent on essential services, since households vary in their ability

to spend wisely and effectively. They may irrationally prefer 'better' consumption goods that contributes less to family welfare than other goods that might serve as inputs to higher productivity

On the other hand, vast sections of the population may experience food shortages, not because food has become scarce, but because they cannot afford to tackle malnutrition caused by the lack of access to food which does not only depend on the availability of food, but on people's entitlement to food. Sen (1984), thus, argued that to understand poverty and starvation, or the malnutrition associated with it, it is necessary to understand both ownership patterns and exchange entitlement, which turn require understanding of modes of production and the class structure.

Poverty in Nigeria is explained by the combined factors of inadequate food supply and limited entitlement to food. Since independence, the Nigerian policy makers have always conceived poverty as a by-product of stagnation and decline in economic growth and have therefore continued to emphasize growth as a mechanism through which the problem of poverty can be alleviated. This also defines the context within which the Structural Adjustment Programme was conceived and introduced.

It is not enough to simply focus on raising growth rates of GDP in the expectation that this will 'trickle down' to improve levels of living for the poor. It is not enough to say a nation is making billions or trillions of naira. It is important to know who gets the money and what the money does to the people's lives. Policies aimed at reducing poverty; need to identify which groups of people are poor, vulnerable and what their circumstances and strategies actually are so that policy makers can be identified. Research studies on the impact of SAP in Nigeria abound to prove that the poor did not benefit from SAP; instead, income inequalities widened after the introduction of SAP (World Bank, 1996). For long term growth to be effective in poverty reduction, two conditions must be met:

- i. The economic growth itself must be labour-intensive and generate income opportunities for the poor (Brown and Tiffen, 1994).
- ii. The poor must have the basic means of acquiring human capital; primarily, access to adequate education and health services, to enable them to respond to these opportunities (World Bank, 1990).

In view of the disproportionately large numbers of the poor who reside in rural areas, any policy designed to alleviate poverty must necessarily be directed, to a large extent, toward rural development. There is an urgent need to provide the rural poor with all the basic amenities that would alleviate their socio-economic problems and ensure their continuous contribution to the growth of the nation.

Industrially, we can borrow a leaf from Japan, Korea and Malaysia. While for now, we do not have a choice between labour-intensive manufacturing and primary production and the processing of primary products. It was a similar choice these nations had at the early stages of their development. Japan restricted importation, introduced import substitution, introduced selective nationalization, strict control over access to foreign exchange and positive discrimination against firms and industries capable of employing advanced technology (Brown and Tiffen, 1992). Korea, on the other hand,

promoted labour-intensive import lines would not only eliminate restrictions on income generation among the poor and narrow its disparity, but would also create employment opportunities necessary for the improvement of their welfare.

Women and children remain the most economically vulnerable group in developing countries and, as we have said, Nigeria is no exception. Until the introduction of the Better Life for Rural Women Programme in the late 1980s when an attempt was made to address the problem of poverty from the gender perspective, and the current Family Support Programme (ESP), government programmes to alleviate poverty worked almost exclusively with men and tended to exacerbate inequalities between the sexes. The formal sector of the economy is generally dominated by men and the agricultural extension programmes tend to interact with male farmers, frequently at the expense of women farmers. Development policies that increase the productivity differentials between men and women are likely to worsen earning disparities and further erode women's economic status within the household.

To improve their living conditions, women must be drawn into the economic mainstream. This would entail increasing women's participation in educational and training programmes, formal sector employment and agricultural extension programmes. To effectively target gender in policy, and programmes must ensure that women have equal access to government resources provided through schooling, services and employment. Similarly, gender equity and efficiency are likely to go together, since better education for women is often associated with better education, nutrition and the health of children. Better opportunities for work for young women can lead to more socially beneficial fertility behavior through family planning and raising the age of marriage.

The unhealthy competition among various ethnic and other interest groups to control resources which are concentrated at the federal government level had continued to be a threat to the political stability of Nigeria. Decentralization of resources and prudent management should curtail this competition and reduce the salience of ethnic politics. Government attention needs to be drawn to the potential effects on political stability if a section of the country is allowed to lag further behind the rest; while political instability causes poverty the unequal distribution of poverty also can cause political instability.

Other policy components for national strategies involving the government, the private (for-profit) sector, and civil society to reduce rural poverty can include:

1. **Information gathering.** The rural poor face different problems and are not a homogeneous group. Therefore, a sustained effort must be made to gather information about the problems they face so that they can be adequately addressed.
2. **Focus on building assets.** The government should assess what assets the poor need most to help them earn more. This could be agricultural land or other resources, access to credit, or improvements in health and education. Dependence on raw labor, without a focus on building other assets, is the single most important source of persistent poverty.
3. **The right to adequate land and water.** A broad-based land reform program



including land titling, land redistribution, and fair and enforceable tenancy contracts is critical for reducing rural poverty. It can make small (marginal) landowners and tenants more efficient producers and raise their standards of living.

4. **Basic health care and literacy.** The rural poor need to build and strengthen their human capital so they can get out of poverty and contribute more to the economy and society. Basic health care (immunization, provision of clean water, and family planning) and education (literacy, schooling, and technical training) particularly for women and children are essential building blocks and should be accessible at reasonable cost.

5. **Local involvement.** The infrastructure and services associated with health and education can be funded and maintained best if the target groups are involved in making decisions about the design, implementation, monitoring, and accountability.

6. **Providing infrastructure.** The rural poor cannot make the best use of their resources, including human capital, if the quality of some of the country's physical infrastructure (irrigation, transport, and communications) and support services (research and extension) is inadequate. The social and physical infrastructure and services can be funded and maintained best that is, they will be cost-effective and of reasonable quality if the target groups involved in designing, implementing, and monitoring them, as well as in ensuring accountability of the government officials responsible for them must be checked.

7. **Targeted credit.** Informal and formal sources of credit often are too costly for, or unavailable to, the rural poor. Targeted public sector rural credit programs, especially if they are subsidized, benefit the nonpoor far more than the poor. The poor want credit that is available on acceptable terms and when they need it. Recent experiments with community-based credit programs, in which the poor actively participate in the making of lending decisions that are subject to peer accountability, have been successful in reaching target groups at reasonable cost.

8. **Public works.** A large and increasing proportion of the rural poor depend on wage labor, because they have either no asset other than raw labor or very few assets: limited quantities of land and domestic animals. A flexible public works program can greatly help the near landless and the landless smooth out household consumption and avoid transient poverty. If it is used on a sustained basis, it can also strengthen the bargaining power of the poor in rural areas.

9. **Decentralized food programs.** Some of the rural poor, both individuals and households, suffer from inadequate nutrition most of the time. They need different kinds of support, depending on their circumstances. These may include food supplement programs; food assistance provided through schools, health care clinics, and community centers; and cash transfers. Decentralized and targeted programs seem to work best.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Using the United Nation indices of life expectancy, infant mortality rate, primary school enrolment ratios and number of persons per physician, describe poverty.
2. Attempt an historical conceptualization of poverty with particular reference to Nigeria.
3. Describe the Internal and External perspectives of poverty
4. What do the poor own?
5. Many countries have adopted different approaches for assisting the poor under structural adjustment. Mention and explain at least 3 countries.
6. Mention key policy components needed for effective poverty alleviation.

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# 3 UNDERSTANDING RURAL DEVELOPMENT

## CHAPTER OUTLINE

- What aggravated the level of poverty incidence in Nigeria?
- Characteristics of the rural poverty in Nigeria
- Poverty determinants in rural Nigeria
- Poverty alleviation strategies: cross National assessment
- Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria: challenges and key policy components



**R**ural development is an approach designed to raise or even change social and economic conditions of rural dwellers. The targeted group is primarily the rural poor who live in abject or absolute poverty. Hence, the basic objectives of rural development strategy are to improve economic and social conditions of rural communities, in an integrated approach, with a view to eradicating poverty. That is why economic policy in the 1970s was generally described as more beneficial to the urban few with intrinsic and swelling economic frustration of large rural masses. The basic objectives of rural development, based on Chinese experience, are to organize, develop and utilize the available resources of land, water and manpower in such a manner that the entire rural population depended on these resources has an equal (or at least equitable) opportunity to meet, as a minimum, their basic needs of food, clothing and shelter with reasonable facilities for education and health and can live together in a positive and healthy social environment

## RURAL DEVELOPMENT: CONCEPT AND MEANING

To appreciate and understand the term 'rural development', it is important we establish the meaning of development.



I. Hornby (2000) defines development as the gradual growth of something so that it becomes more advanced, stronger, etc; the process of producing or creating something new. This definition implies that development involves a gradual or advancement through progressive changes.

ii. Umebali (2006) sees the changes to be multi-dimensional involving changes in structures, attitude and institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth; the reduction of inequality and eradication of absolute poverty. He asserts that development involves economic growth component, equality or social justice component, and socio-economic transformational component which are all on a self sustaining basis.

iii. Simon (2004) sees development as an improvement in quality of life (not just material standard of living) in both quantitative terms. He opines that development must be seen as actually and temporally relative, needing to be appropriate to time, space, society, and culture.

From our understanding of what constitute a rural area, and our background to what development is, we can then infer that rural development is a gradual and progressive towards perfection having a set standard in mind.

i. Olayide (1981) sees rural development as a process whereby concerted efforts are made in order to facilitate significant increase in rural resources productivity with the central objective of enhancing rural income and creating employment opportunity in rural communities for rural dwellers to remain in the area.

i. It is also an integrated approach to food production, provision of physical, social and institutional infrastructures with an ultimate goal of bringing about good healthcare delivery system, affordable and quality education, improved and sustainable agriculture etc. As it is today, rural development need not be given priority attention. Several reasons for such urgency include high and unacceptable rate of poverty, poor access to social and economic infrastructure and services such as access to safe drinking water supply and sanitation, higher rate of health indicator such as infant mortality rate, malnutrition and disease prevalence and lower enrolment of children in school.

iii. Rural development also involves effecting improvement in living standards of farmers and the rural populace in general. It involves any package designed to assist the rural people move forward. It is an integrated approach to food production, provision of physical, social and institutional infrastructures with an ultimate goal of bringing about qualitative changes which culminate in improved standard of living of rural population.

iv. The main concern in rural development is to bring about the modernisation of rural society through a transition from traditional isolation to integration with the nation. It constitutes a process of planned change for which the one approach or the other is adopted for improvement and or transformation of the lot of the rural populace. It is concerned with the improvement of the living in the rural areas on a self-sustaining basis through transforming the socio-spatial structures of their productive activities.

v. According to Obinne (1991), it also involves creating and widening opportunities for individuals to realise full potential through education and share in the decision and action which affects their lives. An effort to increase rural output creates employment opportunities and root out fundamental cases of poverty, diseases and ignorance.

vi. Rural development is defined as improving living standards of the of the low income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self sustaining. This simple definition has three important features with substantial implications for how rural development programs are designed and implemented:

a. Improving the living standards of the subsistence population involves mobilization and allocation of resources so as to reach a desirable balance over time between the welfare and productive services available to the subsistence rural sector.

b. Mass participation requires that resources be allocated to low income regions and classes and that the productive and social services actually reach them.

c. Making the process self-sustaining requires development of the appropriate skills and implementing capacity and the presence of institutions at the local, regional and national levels to ensure the effective use of existing resources and to foster the mobilization of additional financial and human resources for continued development of the subsistence sector. Self sustenance thus means involving, as distinct from simply reaching, the subsistence populations through development programs.

Some scholars look at rural development from the aspect of education/training.

vii. Obinne (1991) perceived rural development to involve creating and widening opportunities for (rural) individuals to realize full potential through education and share in decision and action which affect their lives. He views efforts to increase rural output and create employment opportunities and root out fundamental (or extreme) cases of poverty, diseases and ignorance.

viii. Others like Olayide, Ogunfowora, Essang and Idachaba (1981) view rural development as means for the provision of basic amenities, infrastructure, improved agriculture productivity and extension services and employment generation for rural dwellers.

ix. Obot (1987) suggests that rural development achievement could be measured in the areas of roads, water supply, housing, electricity, building of model communities, access to quality education, improved health care delivery and availability of food and agricultural products for the rural settlers. The objective of the National Policy on Rural Development as outlined by Ogbazi (1992) shows an ideal situation of an acceptable level of development in the rural area. These objectives include:

a. Promotion of the social, cultural, educational and economic well being of the rural population

- b. promotion of sustained and orderly development of the vast resources in the rural areas for the benefit of the rural people,
- c. increase in and diversification of job opportunities and improvement of income in the rural areas,
- D. mobilization of the rural population for self-help and self-sustaining programme of development, and
- e. up-lifting of the technological based industries in the rural area.
- x. Adelemo (1987) sees the concept of rural development to include resettling displaced communities or adopting new types of housing unit. He continues that rural development should include alongside land-use development, economic factors such as land carrying capacity for each area it farm land, irrigation, improved farming method and finance. From the above, it is obvious that scholars tilt the concept of rural development toward their area of specialization and perhaps, interest hence the assession that the concept lacks a unified definition.
- xi. Rogers and Whiting (1976) have defined rural development not only as providing jobs and increased incomes to rural people but also improving the quality of rural living through increased and improved community services.

Indeed, the ambit of rural development is very wide. It connotes efforts to increase production, and to root out fundamental causes of poverty, disease and ignorance. The paramount objective of rural development is to ensure improved conditions of life and opportunity to remain there.

OBJECTIVES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The goals/objectives pursued through rural development programmes can be itemised as follows:

- a. enhanced incomes of rural people engaged in agriculture and rural non-farm activities, including agro-based industries;
- b. a reduction in the level of rural poverty and rural unemployment;
- c. a reduction in qualities in the distribution of wealth and personal income including a more even distribution of resources;
- d. increase in rural value added products;
- e. enhanced good health for rural people and the reduction of ignorance through mass literacy and education;
- f. enhanced quality of life by provision of potable water, electricity and other basic needs; and
- g. integration of rural people into the nation's political and economic process through enhanced political awareness and consciousness and the recognition of the rural resident first and foremost as an individual citizen is entitled, like his urban counterparts, to all good things of life.

However, if the opinion of Simon (2004) about development is upheld, it means there is the possibility for the level of rural development to be reversible as poverty levels, life expectancy and educational attainment etc. can all decline as a result of inappropriate policies, corruption and bad governance, natural disaster or human-induced disasters, war and civil conflicts in the rural area.

There are several approaches to rural development and this varies between countries. This is predicated on the assumption that the rural poor are a varied group. It is important to note that rural development approaches are often outcome of basic theories. This latter classification will clearly examined be as theories of rural development in Part 2.

However, it is therefore imperative to understand how macroeconomic changes and policies can affect them. The three major ways in which policies affect the rural poor are through *markets*, *infrastructure* (including public services), and *transfers*.

- i. The **markets** in which the rural poor participate are those for products, inputs (labor and nonlabor), and finance (from formal and informal sources). Several important features of these markets can affect conditions in rural areas.
- ii. The **infrastructure** that directly affects the rural sector's productivity and the rural poor's quality of life includes the economic (transport, communications, extension services, and irrigation) and the social (education, health care, water, and sanitation). Given that most elements of a country's infrastructure are provided through public funding, the level of spending, cost effectiveness, quality of service, and access of the rural poor to infrastructure and public services have important effects on human capital and productivity in rural areas.
- iii. **Transfers**, which are both private and public, provide some insurance against anticipated and unanticipated economic shocks. Most of the rural poor depend on private transfers among households, extended families, and other kinship groups. Public transfers can take the form of redistribution of such assets as land, employment on public works projects, and targeted subsidies for inputs and some consumer products. These transfers supplement or displace private transfers, depending on the policy instrument and how it is used. But these channelsmarkets, infrastructure, and transfersdo not work in the same way for all of the rural poor because each group has quite different links to the economy.

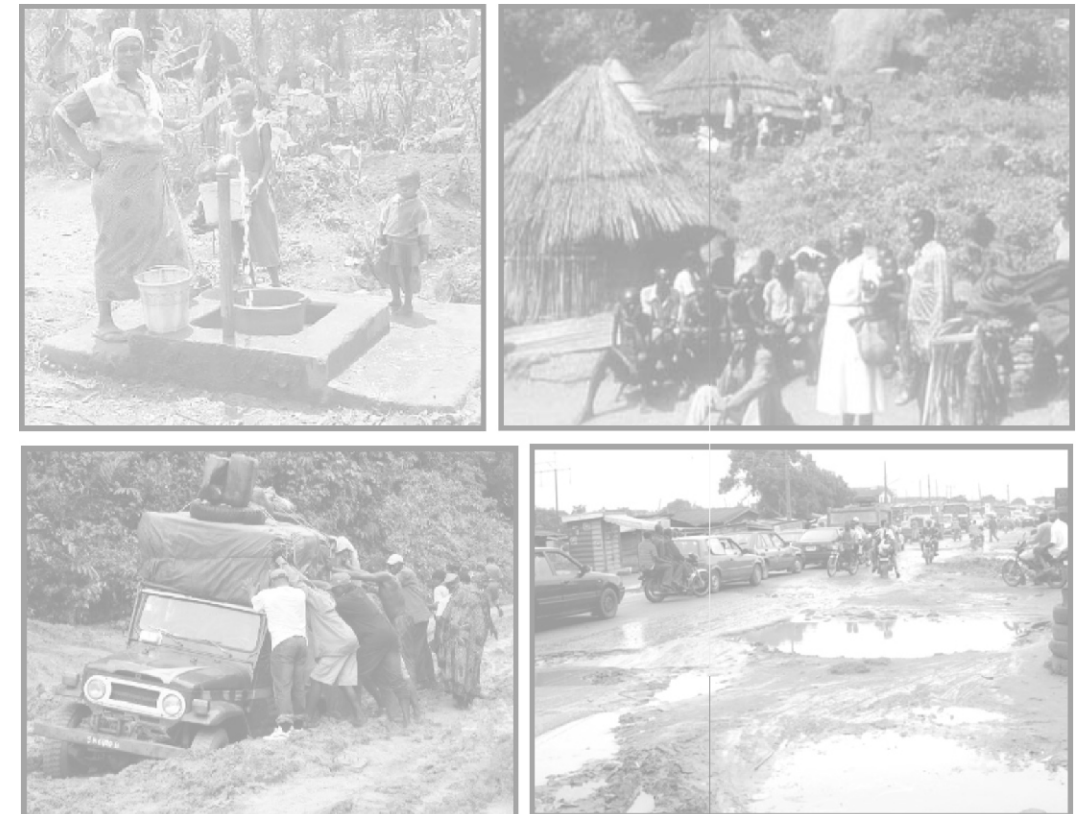
REVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1. Attempt a simple definition of rural development
- 2. Identify basic indicators used in the explanation of rural development.
- 3. What are the objectives of rural development

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## PART 2 RURAL DEVELOPMENT: CONCEPT, MODELS & POLICY STRATEGIES





# 4

## COMPETING THEORIES IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- Rural Development: Concept And Meaning
- Objectives Of Rural Development
- Rural Development Approaches
- Models/theories Of Rural Development



Many theories are used in rural development. These theories are often grouped in paradigms; Bourgeois, Marxists and the Neo Marxism (Mezirow, 1963). From their classifications, range of theories has emerged spanning from symbolic interactionism (Foote and Cottrell, 1955) to cybernetics (Parsegian, 1973). Each provides some understanding or guides action regarding a particular capacity of people or structures expected to have strategic value in improving capacities of community systems. None is thought to be sufficient to cover more than a limited part or aspect. None is considered operationally complete to effectively guide the entire development process.

Characterized with certain measures of limitations, the have in many respects been instrumental in the development of areas they've been applied. The following theories will be examined,

STRUCTURAL MODEL

The structural approach is associated with Claessens & David (1993). They maintained that, among other things, the development of the rural economy is hinged on the development of viable structural and institutional framework. The prime focus is on the transformation of major institutions and structures of the society. It is believed

that if these structures are transformed in line with modern or western democratic ideals, the society will develop. In terms of rural development, it is to restructure and improve upon the existing economic, social, educational, and other institutional structures of the rural society to meet the needs of the people and help transform their lives for the better.

For instance, improving the infrastructures of the rural educational sub sector is significant in improving the lives of the rural dwellers. Evidence lies in developed nations, that developing educational structures can be effective in improving the overall performance of other sub sector of the rural economy. Hallet (1996) commended the approach as being instrumental in the raid transformation of the nation's sub rural economy. He argued that, improving the structural level of the educational sub sector, through the provision of adequate learning facilities is important in developing effective human capacities, which do not compliment development efforts, but can stem development initiatives and further implement it to the betterment of the rural sector.

More so, Ering (2000) argued that the structural approach has elements of liberation. For example, the major concern of the feminist and women liberation movement is the restructuring of the family and the entire society especially the African society. That is, restructuring those major institutions that have kept women in bondage from contributing their quota to general development of the society. This has been the major argument of the feminist and women's liberation movements in the society. Equally, an assessment of the Nigerian society shows that a number of rural development policies were aimed at changing the well being of women in the rural areas. The "Better Life Programme" of Marian Babangida and later the "Family Support Programme" of Marian Abacha were specifically aimed at addressing the fortunes of women in terms of supplying facilities, accessibility to credit facilities and others.

Limitations

Not withstanding its good objectives, the implementation of the programme was hijacked by the wives of privileged few in the urban centres. Further implementation of the programmes was used for selfish ends. In areas where the programme had structures constructed and facilities put in place, these had no meaning and relevance to the people's needs and aspirations, thus defeating the aims and objectives of the programme (Ering, 2000). Also, recent researchers have provided evidence to show that mere manipulation of spatial structures may not lead to efficient redistribution of wealth and improvement in the level of welfare. In some instances, such manipulation has been known to worsen the existing inequalities and bring about more undesirable structures and further exacerbate socio-economic conflicts.

Equally, the problems causing rural setback is more than just the structure, as the theory believes. Antai (2004) noted that rural transformation is a complex and integrating process, also involving a functional interaction between agriculture and industry in agro-urban communities. There should be committed effort to create a dual economy by encouraging industrialization and increasing industrial output. The Japanese example provides a clue to what might be done to evolve a dual or space

economy which breaks the tradition of subsistence that characterizes most rural economy. Not just the improvement of its sectoral structures, but the expansion of basic economic base agriculture and small-scale industries built on traditional foundations.

### SECTORAL MODEL

The sectoral approach is one of the oldest approaches to rural development. Ntukidem (1991) has advanced the arguments for the propositions of the approach. According to him, the approach involves annual budgets and plans drawn up in sectoral terms on the basis of ministerial and departmental reports and projects. This takes into account government policies, strategies and programmes, and in each case the designers are careful to embrace all the constitutional functions assigned the sectors. The sectoral approach entails a comprehensive plan broken down into a workable timetable. Targets are set and financial provisions made or expected to be made according to schedules. The plan is seen in sectors - agriculture, industry, transport, education, health, administrative and services sectors (Ntukidem, 1991).

Ering (2000) argued that, in Nigeria, since independence, there have been conscious and unconscious efforts to adopt the sectoral approach to development. This is in terms of yearly budgetary allocations and development plans that are periodically drawn. In-built in these budgets and development plans are provisions that are made for development of rural areas and the people. For instance, in the development plans of 1946-56, government had hoped to achieve rural and regional development through the provision of portable water, road construction, provision of dispensaries etc. along with simultaneous organization of layout for the reconstruction of villages and towns.

To improve the lots of rural economy, in the first and second National Development Plans (1962-68 and 1970-74) period, attention was concentrated on agricultural development and the encouragement and sustenance of community self-help efforts to achieve rural development. For example, 1970-74 development plan period it was stated that the: Growth of the rural sector in Nigeria is more a process of mobilising under-utilised and non-utilised land and labour. With better commodity price incentives, the peasant farmers respond with higher production through increased labour inputs. The role of the rural sector in the development process is particularly remarkable in the use of agricultural surplus which it generates, (Miller, 2000).

More significant is the Third Development Plan, which recognised the fact that rural development is more than agricultural development. The plan policy was dominated by the high input pay-off model which attributes improved productive capacity to a package of high yielding and profitable new inputs on which farmers can invest, (Schultz, 1964). The Fourth Plan period (1981-85) maintained that isolated emphasis on agricultural development was not enough. It therefore set as its objective that of providing employment opportunities, self reliance in basic food production, higher per capital real income, foreign exchange earnings and the provision of raw materials as basic benefits for the development of the agricultural sector (Ering, 2000).

He further argued that, these policy allocations as shown in the development plans above were intended to improve the lives of rural areas across the country. But, the distance between policy and practice as Nigeria experiences have shown is great. They have never been implemented. Instead, budgetary allocations made have gone a long way in developing the pockets of individuals. Apart from the first plan that ran into problems because of the civil war, others had peculiar problems. Since most of our leaders were military dictators some of the plans could not be implemented because they were truncated by counter-coups d'états. Sometimes funds meant for specific projects were diverted and used in organizing fraudulent elections.

### Limitations

Yearly budgetary allocation suffers the fate of no allocation to the required sectors, and this affects programme implementation. At other time, implementation process is not completed. The shoddy way these plans were implemented did not allow us to gain the benefits of sectoral analysis. For instance, the sectoral analysis enabled us to know the growth and laggard areas or sectors of the economy. Also, it helps to identify and know the contributions of each sector to the economy, and consequently sustainable development.

### INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT (IRD) MODEL

Hallet (1996) is the proponent of the integrated rural development approach. He maintained that development is concerned with everyday thing, including the crops sown by the farmer, the goods sold and the road along which it is transported to the market by the trader, the school attended by children and the disease affecting a baby. The integrated rural development approach, therefore seeks to understand these linkages and to make appropriate provisions for the resultant effects of alteration in one or a few elements on the others.

The approach considers development to be a comprehensive and holistic strategy, involving the improvement of the entire rural economy. Also, the strategy emphasizes the fact that the economic base in the rural areas has to be broadened through efforts to mobilize and better utilize human and natural resources by providing services: by creating motivation and purchasing power through better distribution of income and employment opportunities: by establishing closer links between the agricultural, industrial and service sector in the rural areas; and by improving the conditions of living regarding housing, water supply, roads, etc., through assistance to self-help actions.

Emphasis is placed on Integrated Rural Development as a result of its ability to improve services to rural entrepreneurs in the form of integrated packages which would ensure the evolution of appropriate infrastructural institution and administrative apparatus to facilitate rapid development of the country's agriculture potential. The aim is to significantly uplift the well being of rural people to such a level that there was a general enhancement in the quality of the majority. The element of the integrated rural development includes rural incomes, reduction in rural poverty and unemployment, a



more even distribution of rural wealth and incomes provision of basic needs and the integration of rural people into the nation's political process. IRD combines activities of an efficient institution and administrative facilities supplying effective communication at all levels.

This approach appears to be holistic in explaining the peculiar rural needs examined in this study; water supply, roads and educational facilities. It advocates that developmental strategy must be multi-dimensional, covering improved provision of services, enhanced opportunities for income generation through opening access roads, improving physical infrastructure, especially, educational infrastructures, improving the health status of the rural population through access to portable water and other institutional framework necessary to improve rural lives. Rural capacity development in this context is thus much broader than poverty alleviation, the focus is on facilitating change in rural environments to help the rural vulnerable improve their capacity, to earn more, invest in themselves and their communities, contribute toward maintenance of the infrastructure key to their livelihoods; in short, to identify opportunities and to act on them.

#### **Limitations**

The major weakness of adopting and implementing the integrated approach to rural development is the despairing poverty of the developing nations, of which Nigeria is part. The adoption and implementation of the integrated approach requires a lot of huge capital outlay as well as qualified personnel which most of the developing countries, are already heavily indebted to several international monetary organizations and are either unwilling to increase the debt or are having their request for more funds turned down by these agencies. Integrated rural development approach to rural development is capitally intensive, and as such the advantage of a multi development approach it predicts is an illusion for now.

#### **CLASSICAL AND NEO CLASSICAL MODEL**

According to classical model, the growth of any economy whether rural or non-rural is a function of capital investment and employment of labour (Olayide, 1981). However, capital tends to flow into sectors characterised by high rate of return and high marginal productivity to promote economic growth in the rural areas. It is necessary to undertake measures, which will raise the rate of the return without regulation and with no thought of conservation a situation which intensifies the operation of diminishing returns. Another limitation is its abstraction from technological change.

In practice, the role of natural resources in promoting development is a function of technological change, for instance, the impact of agricultural technology. In such an economy, capital accumulation plays the classic role of being the engine of growth but for steady growth, agriculture must be commercial, a process which requires considerable investment by the government in the agricultural sector as in Nigeria. It implies that resources concentrated in the dynamic, commercial modern sector and withdrawing resources from the substance sector for this purpose. This model does not give an accurate representation of the structure and performance of a typical

underdeveloped country. It was believed that this strategy would guarantee cumulative growth of incomes, employment and rapid structural transformation of underdeveloped economies (NOUN, 2007).

#### **Limitations**

One of the inherent weaknesses to this approach is that it requires a lot of skilled manpower to harness resources, and this is often not readily available in rural areas. Equally, it does not sufficiently emphasize the operation of diminishing returns to labour or capital in the face of rapid population growth and essentially static population and technology. Also, the level of technology in rural areas is low, one can be certain that it may not be effectively functional.

#### **4.5 Internal Combustion Model**

Internal combustion theory attributes economic growth and development to forces within the region of country (Lele, 1975). The internal sources of growth include: technology, specialisation, economies of scale and the existence of growth stimulating institutional, political and administrative arrangements. These can be deliberately created or modified.

#### **Limitations**

First, it ignores the importance of improved quality of labour as a factor in economic development. It ignores the role of community service and infrastructure, which by generating external economies account for high rate of return to capital investments. It places an exaggerated emphasis on factor and input prices as a determinant of investment and growth thereby ignoring the role of institutional and organisational arrangements. Finally, it ignores the crucial role of technology, which, by shifting the production function to the right tends to reduce cost and increase the rate of return to capital investments.

#### **BASIC RESOURCE THEORY**

This is one of the often adopted approaches to rural development by scholars and development experts. Ijere (1992) who is one of the advocates to this theory disclosed that the theory states that economic growth depends on the presence, availability, good and reliable, magnitude of basic natural resources within a particular area or economic regions. The development resources attract investment capital to these, areas, and increase income and employment. The mere availability of resources in rural areas does not mean economic development, only when there is high technical manpower to harness them. It argues that the development of these resources attracts investment capital to these areas and increases income and enhances employment. It would be wrong to assume that the mere availability of basic natural resources in an area is a sufficient guarantee of repaid development (NOUN, 2007).



**Limitation**

However sound, there are inherent weaknesses; it does not sufficiently emphasise the operation of diminishing returns. Most natural resources are characterised by diminishing returns to labour or capital in face of rapid population growth and essentially static production technology. Besides, in many countries, the exploitation of basic resources fully encounters a bottles-neck by way of labour scarcity and higher wages. To break this bottleneck will be by way of labour saving technology.

**DUAL ECONOMY MODEL**

Advanced by economists (William, 1978; Olayide, 1981), this model distinguishes between modern and rural sectors. In rural sector, there is absence of savings and capital formation, no technology, use of family labour, produces for family consumption. The modern sector is market oriented and uses capital equipment and only technology. Based on the foregoing, therefore, resources are concentrated on the dynamic commercial sector for this purpose. However, the implication is that all resources should be channeled to the modern sector.

**Limitation**

Here, there are no savings and capital information. The idea that resources should be concentrated in already developed areas does not lead to development. Again, it assigns very restrictive role to agriculture.

**EXPORT-LED MODEL**

Still a position of the economic class (Ikwuechegh, 1987), this explains rural development in term of emergence and expansion of markets for export production. This achieves cumulative growth in income, employment, etc. The opening of market in other parts of the world expanded the demand for export of which production was intensive in the use of the abundant land and labour resources of the less developed economies. This led to a fuller utilisation of previously under-utilised land and labour. The expansion of exports also increased investment in infrastructural facilities.

**Limitation**

The model assumes a perfectly elastic export demand for agricultural exports; the model ignores the crucial question of demand and market access for the agricultural exports of less developed countries. There is no mention as to strategy for promoting agricultural production. This model has not offered guide in an increasingly industrialized economy where there is competition for agricultural raw material between export market and domestic agro-allied industries.

**DIFFUSION MODEL**

This is developed from the sociological class. Charles (2004) maintained that improvement in agricultural production is a direct consequence of injection of modern

farming techniques into the system. This explains why the substantial productivity difference among farmers in the same economic and geographical areas. Such differences are because of the differences in farmer's adoption of new varieties of seeds and mechanical and chemical inputs.

Apart from agriculture, the role of modern technology is equally significant. When a society welcomes new technology, then there will be improvement in the overall wellbeing of her citizens.

**Limitations**

When there is no access to the modern technique, which should be diffused, then the thesis becomes unattainable. With increasing trend of poverty and unequal access to these modern techniques and opportunities, the model becomes vague.

**INDUCED MODEL**

This is contemporary and Antai (2007) noted that problems arise in the course of planning and implementing rural development strategy. The ability for the government and development partners to indentify the problems and induce measures suitable for transformation is the argument of the Induced thesis. The contribution of models include: identifying relevant, variables and carrying out research. They are also part of the government policy. The growth models explain ways and means of developing the rural areas.

**Limitations**

Enhancing effective research is expensive and as much the process is either ignored, abandoned in the middle or sometimes the findings and policy recommendation emerging from such research efforts or abandoned. These are owed to huge capital needed to research and implement research findings.

**PARTICIPATORY MODEL**

With inconsistency observed in rural development models, the participatory approach or model is seen as an alternative approach to help explain and address the problems of rural areas in Nigeria. Advanced in the works of Fiorino and Bowles (2001), the approach is a comprehensive and well strategized activity requiring the role of rural dwellers. Participation must start from the planning stage; at planning or project initiation, the people for which the project is planned for must be the drivers and part of the decision making process, to help identify areas of felt needs. Equally, proper human training (i.e. the rural dwellers) must be completed; especially in technical areas were such skills will be required in project implementation and maintenance.

Ering (2000) argued that the failure of the "top-down" development approach to rural development necessitates the "the participatory model" to socio-economic development. The model emphasizes -the participation of the beneficiaries and the role

of communities as major actors" It is a model that involves "putting the last first" or the "farmer first" (Ering, 2000), and is fundamental to', the entire development process which is linked with poverty alleviation' and rural development. The approach or model focuses on sustainable quality of life; and attempts to put people rather than materials/funds at the centre of development.

Equally, the model advocates for a support system, ensuring that rural dwellers get involve, accept and support rural projects. Individual participation in rural development initiatives is generally supported for its potential to provide low-cost sources materials like sand, water, timbers, gravels, and other local resources to government agencies. This increases acceptance of projects and confidence in government decisions (Miller, 2000). There is therefore need to achieve a balance in both policies and strategies directed at poverty reduction and rural development. Granted a comprehensive approach with rural participation, the objective of improving rural lives can be objectively attained.

The contention is that the development of rural Nigeria should be a function of the "rural man" themselves that have to take their destinies in their hands in order to improve their socio-economic conditions (Ering, 2000). The policies and programmes for rural development must elicit the participation of the people whom the policies and programme are planned for. In other words development must be "woven around people, not people around development. The participatory model is dynamic in the sense that it makes the local rural people to control the economic, social, political and cultural processes that affect their lives. It provides better understanding of community problems and new solutions. Hence, it's the key to, the learning process and capacity building, and that people's empowerment is, a process of sustainable human development.

### THE THUNEN MODEL AS A PARADIGM FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

In the late twentieth century rural economies around the world are in a state of transition. Historically, rural places depended upon one of more of the primary industries for their economic bases. Although there has been an outflow of people from rural to urban places for at least a thousand years, these primary industries required, until the last half of the present century, that large amounts of labor remain available in rural areas. But the technological change of the last hundred years has drastically reduced the need for labor in primary industries and left more and more rural residents without a source of livelihood. A huge rural-to-urban migration, beginning first in the United States after World War II, but now evident in much of the world, has spawned urban congestion and concomitant socio-political problems.

Even if there were no concern with the well-being of people in rural places, rural-to-urban migration means that the well-being or urban peoples requires an understanding of the essential workings of rural economies. A scientific interest in the economics of rural development exists, particularly within agricultural economics, and it has given rise to scholarship that provides some useful insights, but that scholarship is plagued by a certain fuzziness and inconsistency in definitions that are symptoms of a serious underlying epistemological deficiency [Nelson, 1984; Deaton and Weber, 1988;

Deaton and Nelson, 1992]. Much of that deficiency, in turn, can perhaps be laid to economists' (at least those in the Anglo-American tradition) lack of concern with space.

Yet being rural, first and essentially, has to do with geography, i.e, with location of particular regions in space. Once that self evident fact is recognized, the work of Thunen becomes of interest as a possible source of the much needed paradigm for rural development scholarship. If modern economics began with Adam Smith, then modern location economics began with Thunen, and it is Thunen we first look for the most basic analytical model of the interplay between markets, production, and geography.

Of course, there are other location theorists who came after Thunen and contributed important elements to our modern understanding of spatial economics (an understanding that still seems incomplete). We look to Thunen for a possible paradigm for rural economies because:

- 1) all those who came after him owe an enormous intellectual debt for what they borrowed from him, and
- 2) this model is, in an important sense, a comprehensive economic model, as general and comprehensive, in its own way, as the spaceless general equilibrium model of Walras (although not inconsistent with the latter). As Samuelson [1983, p. 1481] has shown, it does not require much intellectual reach to shape Thunen's basic framework into a comprehensive model of an economy that is compatible with Ricardo's theories of rent and comparative advantage, the Heckscher-Ohlin and Stolper-Samuelson theories of pricing, and the Leontief-Straffa input-output models of production.

### RURAL AS BEING REMOTE: THUNE'S PERSPECTIVE

The most fundamental definitional problem in rural development scholarship concerns what it means to be rural. As was noted above, it is apparent that being rural has something to do with geography. When one speaks of being rural, it means associated with some place, or set of places. For most of human history, that which was rural was the countryside, and it is with reference to the countryside that most dictionaries still define rural. Yet that is a definition that has been out-molded by the automobile. The automobile, and perhaps to a lesser degree, the airplane, gave rise to a new urban geography that disperses cities horizontally. This new urban form breaks up the countryside and surrounds it. Traditional rural land uses like farming exist side-by-side and interspersed with traditional urban land uses like residential sub-divisions and manufacturing. If the countryside is what is rural, it is a different countryside than that which has traditionally been associated with being rural.

On a deeper level, a rural place, or region, is one that is not urban. Indeed, rural can have no meaning without reference to urban. We do not even need the word, rural, if there are no urban places. Rural areas come into existence in any meaningful way only when there are towns and cities that can be defined as urban. Rural must be defined by what it is not. What is rural is the residual space that is not urban [see Guttenberg, 1988]. Thus the most basic understanding of a rural economy is to be found in a simple model of a single urban center and its rural hinterland.



And thus we come to Thunen. It would seem to make sense to construe as rural such places as are remote from the single city on Thunen's isolated plain. Rurality is synonymous with Thunen remoteness and is, at least potentially, measurable along some vector of economic distance. If such a definition be accepted, however, it must follow that since some places are more remote than others, some places are also more rural than others. However measured, there are degrees of remoteness and degree of rurality. Since economic distance refers to the costs of overcoming the friction of space, being rural means operating under the economic disadvantage of having to overcome costs that are lower in other places that are less rural. And since the costs of overcoming distance are not forever fixed, and indeed, are radically altered by innovations in transport and communications, the degree of remoteness --- i.e., rurality --- shifts through time in ways that dictate the economic opportunity set of places on Thunen plain.

### PROTOTYPICAL THUNEN ECONOMY

What are the characteristics of a rural economy? Deaver [1992] identifies three defining characteristics of rural economies, one of which is remoteness. The other two -- small-scale, low-density human settlements, and a high degree of specialization --- can be shown, with the help of the Thunen model, to be logical implications of remoteness itself.

Consider, first, the observation that rural economies are characterized by small-scale, low-density human settlements. The Thunen model explains quite well why the intensity of land use on a homogeneous plain declines as distance from the single city increases. The realized (i.e., shipping-point, or net-back) price declines with remoteness from the city market, and hence the marginal revenue from working a site declines with remoteness as well. Similarly, to the extent that inputs must be purchased in the central city and carried by some means to the work site, input costs rise with distance, or remoteness.

The familiar marginal cost-marginal revenue calculus of neoclassical economics would predict lower density settlements as remoteness increases because the optimum output per unit of land areas declines with remoteness. Remote places can support population densities equal to that of non-remote places only if the per residents of the remote places are willing to accept lower real per capita incomes.

Now consider the matter of specialization of rural economies. It might be argued that scale economy problems inherent in remoteness are what give rise to cities, and that cities are a social innovation for realizing more of the economies of scale (both internal and external). Those industries that do not realize minimum long-run average total costs at output levels which can be absorbed by purely local demand have strong incentives to seek out that site which will minimize remoteness from the smallest population required to absorb such output levels. And to the extent that there are external scale economies, they will have incentives to agglomerate together at a single site like Thunen's city. Other places will lack these possibilities of internal and scale

economies, and the more remote those places on the Thunen plain, the more the lacking. Thus, because of scale economy problems, remote places with sparse populations cannot support an economy of many sectors. That, too is evident from study of the Thunen model, albeit by borrowing some insights from Losch.

There is another, very important, implication of the Thunen model for rural economies, and one not noted by Deaver: Rural economies are high risk economies. These high risks are perhaps most dramatically illustrated if we focus upon the economic frontiers that occur on the Thunen plain. These frontiers divide zones where rents are maximized by different types of economic activities. But they are not static. Either changes in market prices in the center city or changes in the costs of overcoming distance cause these frontiers to shift. And since change is commonplace in markets, the frontiers are always in some state of flux.

At the remote places within any given Thunen zone, there is considerable risk that specialized assets will be rendered reduced in value because of a shift in the Thunen frontier that throws such places into the next most remote zone where they are sub-optimal for that activity which maximizes rents.

As a general rule, these risks can be managed, and rational expectations models allow for them to be discounted in the investments decisions for specialized assets installed in any given place on the Thunen plain. Yet that does not negate the fact that such risks exists, nor that they are relatively higher the more remote a location is within a given Thunen zone, and the more remote a zone is on the Thunen plain.

Just as importantly, however, these risks increase almost to levels of Knightian uncertainty if markets are perturbed by profound Schumpeterian innovations. A producer near the Thunen frontier between production zones for A and B can usually bet that if the frontier moves unfavorably to his assets, it will be only a matter of time until it swings back in a favorable direction. But if the old market equilibrium is destroyed by Schumpeterian innovation, all the frontiers are wiped out and, after what may be a rather chaotic period, a new set of frontiers emerge that need not have any resemblance to that which previously existed.

Shumpeterian innovation does, in fact, occur in a capitalist economy. That means there is some risk (should I say uncertainty?) that specialized assets, particularly relatively immobile ones, installed at a particular remote place will be heavily depreciated in use value by such innovations. Moreover, because of the small-scale nature of remote settlements and the specialized nature of production, there will be a thin local salvage market for such assets. To the extent the risks are understood, they can be expected, as recently shown by Chavas [1994], to inhibit investment of either equity or debt capital in remote ---i.e., rural --- places.

The condition that exists when the use value of an asset is less than its acquisition cost but greater than its salvage value has been defined as "asset fixity", a subject that has been of considerable interest to agricultural economists needing to



explain persistent over-production problems in agriculture [Galbraith and Black, 1938; Johnson, 1958; Edwards, 1959; Johnson and Quance, 1972]. A conceptually similar condition in non-farm industries has been labeled "asset specificity" by Williamson [1989], who relates it to transaction costs. Both have the same effect in that they inhibit rapid adjustments to changing market signals. When these concepts are imposed on the Thunen model, it becomes clear that asset fixity problems are likely to intensify with remoteness on the Thunen plain and cause the remote places to adjust more slowly to innovations than less remote places. Put in Marshallian terms, it implies that the short run is longer in remote, or rural places, than in less remote places.

Suffice it to say that the Thunen model, even in its simplest form, used in conjunction with familiar instruments in the economists' analytical tool box, leads us to some very general hypotheses about rural economies that, if accepted, have profound implications for the rural development. Testing these hypotheses is difficult because the real world from which empirical observations must be drawn is much more complicated than the simple world of the isolated plain postulated by Thunen. The trick is to deduce hypothesis that are testable with available data, and while such tests are unlikely to be straightforward, devising them should not be beyond human cleverness. Critical Assessment

Much of what we observe empirically in rural economies is explainable by a simple version of the Thunen model. The economies of rural places tend to resemble the economies that we can deduce for remote places on the Thunen plain. They are: a) specialized, b) either low-density in population or relatively poor, and c) conservative (i.e., relatively slow to adjust to changing market signals). Only if the place is so remote as to be beyond the zones of commercial production for the single city market are we likely to find any exceptions to these characteristics, and that only in the case of less specialization in order to meet the needs of a subsistence existence. Generally, allowances made for differences in resource endowments and a multi-centered system of urban places, these are, indeed, the familiar characteristics of economies in real world rural places. Hence, the Thunen model becomes even more promising as a potential paradigm for rural development analysis.

The chief problem with using the Thunen model in rural development scholarship is hinted at in the discussion above: The real world is a much more complicated place than that postulated by Thunen. Moreover, Schumpeterian innovations mean that the real world is always in a state of flux in which Thunen's neat concentric circles are continuously being disturbed, erased, and redrawn. Rural development is about a process of change in time and the Thunen model, taken by itself, offers only limited insight into the dynamics of change in remote economies.

That does not mean, however, that we are lacking in the theoretical mechanisms to set up a dynamic process for the Thunen plan. One obvious source for such a dynamic is in Schumpeter's theory of economic development. The need is to synthesize Schumpeter theory and the Thunen model and elaborate upon it. What follows, in broadstroke form, is one possible way such an elaboration might be constructed.

Consider a system of central places, as theorized by Christaller and Losch, upon a Thunen plan each urban place with its own hinterland of remote sites, but most places within the hinterland of a large urban center. Consider that the system is in some steady-state equilibrium, and real per capita incomes across zones on the plain have converged. Then postulate the introduction of a major Schumpeterian innovation that undermines the old equilibrium and begins the well-known process of creative destruction.

The precise nature and ramifications of the innovations will not be immediately known. But the underlying structure of either supply or demand (or both) will have been changed and the search for the new equilibrium will occur within the constraints of Simon's bounded rationality [Simon, 1957]. There will be over-reaction in markets and there will be resistances to change. By a process of trial and error such as that postulated by Mises and his Austrian colleagues, information will be generated and a new rationalization of economic geography will eventually emerge.

But the process may take a while, and if our hypothesis about remoteness and asset fixity, discussed above, is correct, it will take longer in the more remote --- i.e., more rural --- parts of the Thunen plain than in the less remote places. In this time of chaos, enterprise and input mixes in the remote places disadvantaged by asset fixity will depart from optimal by more than in the less remote places, hence per capita incomes in those places are likely to fall relatively to the less disadvantaged urban places, and a divergence in interregional real per capita incomes could be expected.

There has been a small cottage industry recently examining convergence and divergence in interregional per capita incomes, both in the United States and elsewhere [Amos, 1989; Coughlin and Mandelbaum, 1989; Garnick, 1990; Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 1991; Maxwell and Hite, 1992]. The long and the short of these studies is that while convergence is the empirical norm, as can be predicted from neoclassical theory, there have been significant periods of divergence, most recently in the late 1970s and 1980s, a time of major innovation in economic activities. Moreover, there is at least superficial evidence that the divergence is associated with lagging incomes in remote places [Rowley, Redman, and Angle, 1992, Maxwell and Hite, 1992].

The evidence is superficial because the exact meaning of remoteness in the real world is not clear. Thunen's model is too reductionist to be of much help in clarifying its meaning. On-going work by Webb, Warner, Hite and Ward [1994] suggests that in so far as asset fixity is concerned remoteness refers to distance from the geography center of production of a particular kind (or industry). Yet remoteness must surely also have something to do with economic distance from the geographic centers of consumption. It may well be that some formulation of potential models [see Carrothers, 1956] might be suitable to estimate remoteness. Even so, the theoretical explanation for why this would be so is not readily apparent from Thunen, and only hinted, in the very broadest terms, by Christaller and Losch.

Limitations

Short of an operational theory of remoteness, the Thunen model leaves rural development scholarship in a lurch. Using the Thunen model, rural development scholars can explain why rural economies, generally considered, are as they are, and they can predict that significant Schumpeterian innovations will disrupt rural economies relatively more and relatively longer than those of urban places. But they will be unable to speak in anything other than generic terms and therefore are forced to remain silent regarding the specific geographic places that are likely to prosper or decline through time. That is a rather serious limitation if one objective of rural development scholarship is to instruct actual behavior of economic agents in particular rural or remote places. It is also a serious problem if the objective is to advise policymakers on the (perhaps unintended) consequences for rural places of various public policy options.

Yet having such a limitation is less of a problem than not have any paradigm at all. One can at least conceive of theoretical advances that eliminate the limitation once the deficiency is recognized as critically important. For instance, remoteness might be defined as the summation of the economic penalties on both the product and input sides that a place suffers because of its location when that place produces according to its greatest comparative advantage or least comparative disadvantage. If that were the case, remoteness would increase with increases in the ratio of the local prices of capital to labor, and hence, be inversely correlated with site rents. With a little ingenuity in searching for data and in econometric analysis, it ought to be possible to model remoteness over both time and space.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1. Mention and explain 5 models of rural development. Identify their strengths and weaknesses.
- 2. Attempt a critique of the Thunen model of rural development

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## PART 3 EMERGING CHALLENGES IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT





5

THE NEED TO  
DEVELOP RURAL  
INFRASTRUCTURES

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- *Meaning of rural infrastructures*
- *Categories of infrastructural facilities*
- *Need for Rural Infrastructures*
- *Development plans and provision of rural infrastructures*
- *Distribution of rural infrastructures*



Within the purview of rural development, infrastructures/facilities are basic for any sustainable rural development strategy. Some of the areas where these infrastructural facilities are needed include, health, water supply, education, transport, environment, agriculture productivity, rural credit schemes, electricity etc.

MEANING OF RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES

Rural infrastructures can be defined to include the system of physical, human and institutional forms of capital which enable rural residents to better perform their production, processing and distribution activities as well as helping to improve the overall quality of rural life (Ekong, 1998).

CATEGORIES OF INFRASTRUCTURAL FACILITIES

Isah (2007) stated that infrastructural facilities consist of three major categories or classes. These categories of infrastructures are physical, social and institutional.

- a. The physical infrastructures are composed of transformation facilities consisting of roads, bridges and railways stage facilities made up of warehouse and silos; irrigation and water resources development facilities composed of dams, irrigation, water facilities, drainage etc. soiled conservation facilities and other forms of processing facilities.
- ii. The social infrastructures are also divided into different segment, which include health and medical facilities. These consist of hospitals, dispensaries, maternity and health centers. Educational components of infra-structural facilities constitute of primary, secondary and technical schools, vocational and adult educational facilities while rural utilities consist of a wide range of welfare facilities such as water supply, electricity etc.
- iii. The components of institutional infrastructures include cooperative societies, farmers' unions , community development programmes/ projects through self help efforts, financial institutions like banks, post offices, agricultural research facilities made up of research sub stations, experimental farms, demonstration plants, agricultural extension and training services, marketing crop and animal protection services; post and telecommunication facilities.

It should be noted that the improvement of the status of rural residents is greatly influenced by the type, quality and quantity of infrastructures placed there and with regular maintenance. For example, sources of drinking water, condition of personal hygiene, nature of environmental sanitation, nutritional status, literacy levels and the overall socio-economic condition of the community must be the focus of attention and therefore sustained for a viable rural development.

Thus the reasons why many rural development policies and strategies have failed to achieve their stated objective are largely due to the non recognition and non provision as well as non maintenance of the necessary or appropriate infrastructural facilities that need to be put in place overtime and space. Without the appropriate provision, operation and maintenance of basic infrastructures therefore, no rural development policy or strategy can stand the test of time (Isah, 2007). Rural infrastructures are therefore the fundamental ingredients capable of preventing or at least reducing the phenomenal rural urban drift, which is always accompanied with swelling socio economic and political problems

NEED FOR RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES

Ugal (2007) stated that the provision of infrastructural facilities is necessary because it will help in achieving the following goals/objectives:

1. significantly increases living conditions of the rural people healthcare delivery;
2. restrains the growth of unplanned squatter settlement;
3. significantly improve employment opportunities and training of the rural inhabitants and brings to rural areas entertainment.
4. enlightenment and communication facilities, thereby restraining migration into the already crowded urban centres;

- 5. ensures and maintains a continuing improvement in the rural environment;
- 6. broadens the mix of industrial establishment and commercial activities in the rural Nigeria;
- 7. increases the agricultural establishments and commercial activities in the rural Nigeria;
- 8. increases agricultural productivity by means of adequate irrigation and easy mechanisations; and
- 9. encourages processing of agricultural products and storage and preservation of primary crops.

**DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND PROVISION OF RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES**

In 1946, the colonial government drew up what it refereed to as the Ten Year Plan of development and welfare for Nigeria. The efforts were in response to a colonial office request to all British colonies to complete development plans for the disbursement of colonial development and welfare funds. The drawn-up-ten year plan was oriented on how the funds would be allocated to education, health water supplies and transport and communication sectors as well as the schematic approach to expand services and facilities, but before the expiration of the plan period, the colonial government launch a Revised Plan of development and welfare scheme had no bearing with the Nigerian rural communities (Larry, 2000).

Planning and provision of infrastructures before the 1960s were never oriented towards fulfilling the needs of Nigerians but to attain the objectives of colonialism. Thus, the colonial planning efforts and the provision of infrastructures had their limitations and weaknesses as exhibited in the 1962 68 plan document in the following words:

These were not 'plans' in the true sense of the word. More accurately, they constituted a series of projects, which had not been coordinated or related to any overall economic target. Many of the individual schemes were proposed no more than an expansion of existing normal departmental activities and in large measure, the schemes aimed at building up social as much as the economic services...little provisions was made for agricultural development whilst in the agricultural sector, attention was concentrated on a limited range of export crops (Gerald, 2001).

Rural development polices or programmes during the 1962-68 period were directly linked with agriculture. Agriculture, during that period, was considered as the major sector of the economy and main foreign exchange earner. At the time of Nigeria's attainment of political independence in 1960; and indeed up to 1963, a tripartite regional structure with a federal capital territory of Lagos existed. Until 1963, when

mid west region was curved out from the western region, the federal structure remained same ill the 1967 plan period, government promoted agricultural activities by providing necessary incentives and farmers are motivated to produce both food consumption and cash crops for exports. However, government provided improved varieties of crops and other farm inputs at subsidized rates.

During the second development plan period 1970 74 there was a preponderant high level of unemployment and under employment in the countryside. However, the poverty and poor condition of rural dwellers were equally recognized by the plan document. According to **Isah** (2007), all these culminated in the formulation of policies with an attempt to

- (a) Ensure adequate food supply to meet quality and quantity standards for the increasing rural population.
- (b) Produce of agricultural raw materials for exports and for domestic agro-based industrial manufacturing.
- (c) Create rural employment opportunities to reduce rural to urban migration.

To achieve the stated objectives, government mounted a number of strategies, which included a reform in land tenure system, construction of irrigation and soil conservation projects and agricultural research. There were the introduction of improved production techniques, establishment of seeds multiplication schemes and fertilizer procurement,, supply and subsidy.

The first official federal government pronouncement on rural development planning began during the third plan period 1975 80 which declared that

The main objectives of rural development are to increase rural productivity and income, diversify rural economy and generally enhance the quality of life in rural areas. Since agriculture constitutes the predominant form of activity in rural areas, the most important instruments for achieving these objectives are the agricultural programmes of both the Federal and the State governments.

Because of the seriousness in rural urban disparities in the distribution of infrastructural facilities, the plan stated concerted efforts would be made to raise quality of life by providing basic social amenities. Thus, the total federal expenditure during the period for the provision of rural infrastructures was N428,826m. However, when state' expenditures for rural infrastructures were added together, the figure jumped to N707.878m. Furthermore, the federal government encouraged the promotion of rural employment programmes and supported rural self-help development projects. Consequently, the sum of N93.29m was earmarked for financial assistance for self-help projects with a view to raising quality of life in the countryside (Gerald, 2001). The dualism of Nigeria's development processes has therefore shown a great yawning gap between rural and urban areas. The third National Development Plan further state that



Another aspect of balance development is the relative development of the rural and urban areas have lagged behind the urban areas in development, resulting in increasing disparity between standard of living in the rural and urban areas and the mass migration of population from the former to the latter.

In retrospect, it should be recalled that the first and second plan documents succinctly describe previous efforts at planning as well as implementing (rural) development programmes as dismal failures. This led the federal government, particularly during the 1970-74 period, to establish a Ministry of Urban and Regional Planning for the implementation among others, urban development policies. This arose out of the need to plan and manage the phenomenal of urbanization process and the uneven development of the rural areas.

The Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85 proposed the integration approach to rural development so as to evolve appropriate types of infrastructural facilities for the development of rural potentials. Thus the plan declared the rural dwellers as constituting the 'centre piece' of rural development strategy with the intention. Notwithstanding the aphorism of 'a just egalitarian society' 14 of the 1970-74 plan, the government could still not maintain an equitable and consistent approach to in addition to other things, fiscal policy in relations to rural development strategies. Therefore, the gulf of inequality between the rural and urban areas has continued to widen in all ramifications. The urban bias in development patterns is thus characterized by imbalanced investments in favour of urban nexus resulting in rural labour drain.

It should be noted however that under the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1979, most of the components of rural infrastructures are under the concurrent legislative list. With such provision, it becomes the responsibility of both the federal and state government to jointly provide and even maintain rural infrastructures. But under the 1979 guidelines for local government reforms, there are specified infrastructural facilities, which fall within the orbit of the exclusive local government responsibilities. These items include motor parks, markets, recreational centers, cemeteries, community centers etc. other responsibilities, though not the primary responsibilities of local government, are jointly shared especially in situation where local governments or other bodies. This category includes health centers, maternity, dispensaries, nursery, primary and adult education, agricultural and veterinary extensions, road and street lightening, drainages etc. more often than not, the state governments unilaterally left these functions to local governments to dabble with.

The Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85 proposed integration approach to rural development so as to evolve appropriate types of infrastructural facilities for the development of rural potentials. Thus the plan declared the rural dwellers as constituting the 'centre-piece' of rural development strategy with the intention to realize new income opportunities through orienting rural communities to

produce for markets. It was also the intention of the plan to rescue rural dweller, through appropriate devices, from the ravages of diseases, malnutrition and ignorance. Furthermore, the plan declared that balanced development would receive a new boost or emphasis.

...the policy of promoting a more rapid development of the rural areas through sustained efforts to raise productivity and provide basic human needs such as hygienic water supply, health facilities, access roads electricity etc will continue. This strategy will help to provide a basis for more even geographic spread of physical development throughout the country and help to counter balance the strong trend towards rural urban migration (Isah, 2007).

During the plan period, 12,065km of feeder roads, 2,650 bore holes, 2,280 well, 429 farm service centers and 1,249 earth dams were expected to be established. However, rural communities were also expected to benefit from improved farming technology and water supply, health and education facilities, electricity and cottage industries as well as other agricultural schemes. For instance, the federal government fiscal allocation to the Agricultural Development Projects was N637.6m. While the combined state government's allocations to the integrated rural development programmes rose to N1.3b.18 (Isah, 2007).

The plan document noted the problems associated with the transformation of agriculture due to the aroused expectations of the sector to provide "employment opportunities, self reliance in basic food production, higher per capita real income foreign exchange and the provision of industrial raw materials". Unfortunately these expectations could not be met largely as a result of inflationary trends in the economy, food importation due to the decline of food, which resulted in the rural urban drain.

Within the inflationary pressures in the economy, development plans, more often than not, take care of the urban proletarians by periodically reviewing their wages and salaries so as to compensate any loss they may incur in their purchasing power. But rural dwellers are always left to take care of themselves. As the rural-urban distribution of the welfare materials remain incomparable, the ratio of urban rural per capita income has lamentably remained unameliorated as poor system of distribution of infrastructures has continued to worsen the already differentiated conditions of life.

To buttress its urban bias, the federal government established a ministry of Urban and Regional Planning in 1974 to achieve the aim of the National policy on urban and regional development. The second development plan provided a total capital expenditure of 38 million Nigerian Pounds to country and planning. Moreover, the benefits of increased prices of commodities did not go to the rural produce as "the marketing of food crops at present gives neither a fair return to the producers nor a fair price to the consumer".

Hence, the deplorable conditions in the countryside, notwithstanding the acclamation contained in development plans, have remained more problematic and insurmountable. Rural Nigeria can not, for example, find good drinking water, basic health and educational services, electricity and accessible roads in the between their localities. The failure to implement the development plans was not only because the



government paid more attention to urban areas but also more importantly the political class to cushion their vested interest squandered the petro-naria, which occurred during the phenomena oil boom era.

### DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES

Rural infrastructures are sine quanon for any rural development programme to succeed. The distribution, operation and maintenance are other fundamental prerequisites for a successful rural development. Therefore rural infrastructures constitute the necessary components or ingredients for motivating rural residents to be more productive and achieve relative self-reliance. They also aid and enhance the realization of improved rural life. It is quite noticeable that the distribution of rural infrastructures, over time, has not been equitable and spectacular. The gross disparities and total lack of infrastructures in the rural Nigeria are not therefore unusual features.

This situation in Nigeria is paradoxical and diabolical. Paradoxically, within the midst of abundant resources, poverty reigns high and is on the increase with widening gulf of inequality accompanied by drastic falling standard of living. Consequently, a great number of young, agile and productive rural dwellers, used in an attenuated form, have been transformed and reduced to lumpen proletarians with diabolical undertones. Rural dwellers and migrants to urban areas have borne the brunt of these sufferings inappropriately and are constantly being denied social welfare and other essential infrastructures of all categories.

It must be emphasized that rural communities have remained poor and continued to suffer from inadequate standard of living. Thus, the poverty and deteriorating conditions in the countryside are entirely attributed to the neglect and lack of on the part of the government. The popular assumption stressed that for a reversal of a self-sustaining rural development, the policies and strategies must be matched with sufficient capital investment.

Rural infrastructures are multi-dimensional and multi-sectoral. In this regard, to attain a high and consistent effort of effectively eliminating factors responsible for perpetual rural poverty and living conditions, all factors of interrelated rural conditions must be taken into their holistic perspectives with an attempt to 'spread-out' resources thinly or thickly into the countryside.

But since agriculture constitutes the main stay of rural life, agricultural infrastructures must form the basic and of the only condition for rural development. It is pertinent to realize that the proportion between 70-80% of Nigerians the total population lives in the rural areas notwithstanding the rate of rural depletion which has been incessant over time and largely due to lack of infrastructures. The efforts to stem the tide of scuttling rural migration have not been plausible especially in

- (a) improving rural income levels and employment opportunities
- (b) providing necessary infrastructural facilities and community services, and
- (c) initiated actions geared towards responsible use of rural resources to preserve the environment and improve the quality of rural life.

It should be noted that the Nigeria's failure to achieve a minimum level of income above the 'poverty level' for its citizens has its other corresponding failures in providing minimum health, education etc. to the rural communities. According to the World Bank, the failure in providing basic needs or infrastructures has kept 40% of the people in the Third World countries in "the condition of 'absolute poverty'- a condition of life so degraded by diseases, illiteracy, malnutrition and squalor as to deny its victims basic human necessities.

Disparities in the distribution of infrastructure between rural and urban areas are palpable. For instance, the distribution of public utilities such as water supplies has been problematic even in urban areas let alone rural. The type and source of water supply in the rural area are deplorable and pathetic. This problem has been well expressed in the second national development plan.

In the rural areas, where inadequate or absence of good water supply has been found to have a direct bearing on the spread of water-borne diseases, the strategy also would be improve the quality and source of water supplies in these areas in order to reduce the incidence of such diseases.

Both the third national development plan and the guidelines for the forth-national development plan made a number of references on deteriorating rural water supplies under the integrated rural development programme. All these references were made with a view to exhibiting government concern to the problem without necessarily translating them into reality.

Since good water sustains life, its adequacy and sources are crucial for any community especially in the realization of viable rural development strategy. It is well known that the main sources of water supply for the rural people are the rivers, ponds, streams, shallow wells and the likes, which are highly vulnerable to all sorts of epidemics. Only in very few rural areas are concrete wells found. Pipe borne and boreholes are a rarity in rural communities. It should be noted that poor water supply is more acute than the provision of schools, health centers or hospitals. The provision of schools, health centers or hospitals in rural areas.

It should be recalled that the federal government launched the National borehole programme in 1981 with the objective of providing portable water to most rural people in the country. Ironically, the rural populace was not involved in the programme. The entire effort was inadvertently transformed as an exercise in futility. For instance, the operation and maintenance of water pumping machines, fuel etc. where they were provided, could not continue to be sustained. Hence, the noninvolvement of the people in the communities led to the collapse of the entire programme. Politics however, contributed part of its initial failures.

Scarcity and total absence of commercial forms of energy-electricity in the rural areas have also constituted other dimensions of the problems of public utilities confronting rural communities. Rural energy problems must therefore be tackled industrialization, employment and indeed equity.

A fundamental success in these efforts would curtail, in great degrees, the phenomenal rural-urban drain. Since the important role of rural electricity would be “to bridge the social and economic gap between the rural and the urban areas and to ensure more effective utilization of installed capacity”, the authors of the third nations development further recognized that:

...very limited progress has so far been made with respect to the Federal rural electrification programme as the end of Second National Development Plan as against the planned total of two hundred and twenty five may have supplied only fourteen towns with power.

In order to achieve the objectives of integrated rural energy programmes, as continued in the NEPA's policy guidelines on rural electrification, where the rural economy could be vibrated, diversified and transformed, more efforts are, among others, required to:

- (a) increase agricultural productivity by means of adequate irrigation and easy mechanization
- (b) make the processing of agricultural products easy e.g. storage and preservation of primary crops.
- (c) Promote rural industries which will generally assist in raising the standard of living of rural community: and
- (d) Reduce migration from rural to urban areas.

In addition, the guidelines for the fourth national development plan further stressed that any national policy on rural electrification must reflect a mixture of both economic and social objectives in combating rural urban drift as well as improving rural conditions of living. On the economic angel, small-scale industries need to spring up with the objective of raising rural productivity and incomes, new employment and improved conditions of living. With self-propelling growth mechanisms therefore, self-centred philosophy for a sustainable rural development could be realized.

Hence, the responsibilities of both the federal and state governments in the rural electrification programme would be through extension of grid and installations of plants respectively. The fourth plan document further stated that during the next plan period, rural development.

These plans have not faired well, as evidence lie in increasing level of rural infrastructural decay. It becomes therefore imperative that government double efforts in the provision of basic infrastructural facilities in rural communities across the country. Some areas of concern include:

- a. Providing access to potable water; well installed and maintained
- b. Constructing and maintaining rural roads to help farmers convey food products to the farmers
- c. Building small scale industries, e.g. processing plants for agricultural products.

- This will help in storage and preservation of primary crops
- d. Ensuring access to free health care services; well built health care centre with modern facilities and competent health workers, etc.
  - e. Providing and monitoring that there is access to free and compulsory education; with modern school building, laboratory equipments, textbooks in the library and internet connectivity
  - f. Recreational facilities such s parks, spot centers, T.V. viewing centers etc.
  - g. Providing centres for skills acquisition with up to date facilities and trainees
  - h. Encouraging rural farmers through access to loan and other financial aid
  - i. Ensuring constant access to electricity, to encourage the growth of small scale industries in the area, etc.

Of emphasis electricity, though very significant in the development of the rural economy is seriously a misplaced priority. The provision of electricity ultimately transforms the social and economic life of a community and thus uplifts the entire activities in the area so provided. As it permeates all facets of human endeavors, its provision and optimal utilization is therefore all encompassing. Access to constant power is the bedrock for rural diversification and industrial growth.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1. What are rural infrastructures?
- 2. Attempt a categorization of rural infrastructures
- 3. Mention some basic infrastructures necessary for rural development
- 4. Identify the various development plans in Nigeria and examine the provision of rural infrastructures within each plan
- 5. Explain basic criterion for distributing rural infrastructures

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# 6 AGRICULTURE AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RURAL ECONOMY

## CHAPTER OUTLINE

- *Rural Education Defined*
- *Functions of rural education*
- *Education in rural areas*
- *Features of rural education*
- *Implication for rural development*
- *Education for manpower development*



Agriculture is one of the core economic activities in rural areas. Its significance in the development of the rural economy cannot be overstressed. The vast majority of these immensely large groups of undernourished people depend primarily on agriculture to provide most of their own food supplies and any cash income needed to purchase goods and services. Even with dramatic increases in non-farm economic activity, agriculture will remain central to secure livelihoods (Peter, 2004).

Arising from fundamental challenges, agricultural production has not brought the needed transformation in rural areas. Several factors contributes to this, but basically, this rural underclass practice agriculture in,

- i. conditions of poor soils,
- ii. hillside slopes,
- iii. arid dry lands,
- iv. erratic rainfall,
- v. periodic drought, and
- vi. menacing pest complexes.

Annual crop production is more risky and less productive. Their land is ecologically fragile, highly vulnerable to erosion, degradation, floods, and landslides. Most of the extreme rural poor live in remote areas with limited access to roads, markets, inputs, irrigation, technical support, and social services. They are generally excluded from the key arenas of power and policy-making, despite the rhetoric of 'pro-poor' development strategies. The marginalization of such a huge mass of people is an affront to the expectations of sustainable rural development, as well as the UN Millennium goals. For those remote rural areas, far from markets, off-farm employment will be less important than agricultural development strategies to raise food production and increase its diversity and stability. If global economic growth continues, such areas are likely to fall further behind, concentrating poverty and environmental degradation where rural populations are rapidly growing.

Agriculture is still dominated by traditional small holders raising subsistence crops such as sorghum, maize, cassava, yams, millet, rice and increasing quantities of wheat (up to 70% of which is for their own consumption).

Rural population decline often stems from a lack of amenities. More forward-looking and comprehensive strategies recognize that rural economic growth is further affected by many factors, including education, access to highways and airports, attractiveness of the community to retirees, industrial mix, and demographic characteristics. This decline in population tends to affect the production capacity of these areas. Effect, agricultural output being the hall of rural economy is aversely affected.

## ISSUES OF NEGLECT OF THE AGRICULTURAL SECTOR BY THE GOVERNMENT

In Nigeria, the agricultural sector has suffered from institutional neglect. The neglect began with the discovery of crude oil in the 1970s and its dominance as a major contributor to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the nation's economy. However, with the wind fall in the price of Oil in the International market and its effect on the economy, there was and been attempt to revitalize the sector. Attempts to revive agriculture have been largely unsuccessful. Although Nigeria previously had a strong export sector, the range and quantity of products has declined sharply: in the early 1990s only cocoa and some rubber and palm products were being exported. Cash crops include cocoa, rubber (nearly all exported), coffee, cotton and palm kernels. The palm oil sector, which was a foreign exchange earner in the 1970s, is being redeveloped

Arable potential has been put at 25% of total area, of which about 12% is cultivated. Plantations, sometimes owned by, or in partnership with, multinational corporations, are gaining ground in producing raw materials for company use (e.g. grain for breweries). Irrigation schemes, higher producer prices, the expansion of credit and improvements in the rural infrastructure are beginning to show results. Livestock farming is important, and poultry farming is rapidly increasing. This has not really gained much support.

Considerable response has however been made by the government on improving the agricultural sector. In a report published by the Nigerian Federal Ministry of



Agriculture & Rural Development (2004), since after independence, agricultural policy has been designed to stimulate growth and development of agriculture so as to positively impact on the overall growth of the Nigerian economy. The response of the sector to the various policy measures has been mixed. Between 1970-1982 agricultural growth rate stagnated at less than 1% with sharp decline in the production of export crop. Per capita calorific food supply declined from surpluses in the 1960s to a deficit of 38% in 1982, while Nigeria turned a net importer of vegetable oil, meat, dairy products, fish and grains, notably rice wheat and maize with the food import bills rising astronomically. Some factors at work included increasing rate of urbanization, high population growth rate, impact of the civil war and unfavourable external environment.

The performance of the sector was undermined by disincentives created by the macro economic environment. The Economic Stabilization Act enacted in 1982 affected expenditures on agriculture and restricted imports of agricultural products and inputs. The trade policies which placed bans on imports of some foods and the provision of some other incentives induced marginal improvement in the performance of the sector. The minimum administrative control of economic activities and the wide scope for free market forces in the economy attendant on the 1986-88 Structural Adjustment Programme(SAP) led to policy shifts relating to agricultural pricing, trade, investment, production, extension and technology transfer as well as credit. It was in this period that the first formal and deliberate agricultural policy was formulated and launched in 1988 with the strategies for its implementation.

Under SAP, the tariff structure was adjusted to encourage local production and to protect agricultural and local industries from unfair international competition. The Marketing Boards for scheduled crops were abolished. Bans were placed on the importation of a number of food items including most livestock products, rice, maize, wheat and vegetable oils. Agricultural input subsidies were phased out. A number of new institutions were created for agricultural and rural development namely; the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) and the National Directorate of Employment (NDE). Some existing institutions were also reorganised (e.g. the River Basin Development Authorities), while most public-owned agricultural enterprises were privatised or commercialized. These SAP measures to some extent had positive impact on the agricultural sector due mainly to price increase as a result of devaluation of the currency and ban on importation of wheat, rice and maize.

The ban placed on the importation of some food items increased the output of local production, especially rice. However poultry and fishery production became less profitable because of the resultant exorbitant costs of imported inputs attendant on SAP. Sharp rises in imported inputs such as fertilizer; agro-chemicals etc. were also witnessed while the cost of providing large scale irrigation rose because of the high cost of foreign components. The increase in the cost of the import component of equipment for research and technology development stultified their further growth. Although SAP substantially addressed problems of price distortions to farmers, new problems were created by the effects of the changes in macro-economic policies. Implementation bottlenecks arising from scarcity of basic farm inputs and slower rate of adoption of new

technologies also contributed their quota in impeding achievement of policy objectives. These reduced the expected benefits of yield increases accruable from the adoption and use of modern farm inputs such as improved variety of seeds. The withdrawal of subsidies which increased production costs substantially reduced the profitability of agricultural activities leading to reduction in size of farm holdings and enterprises. The problem of inefficient marketing persisted as a result of existence of imperfection in the markets, dwindling marketing infrastructures and limited availability of storage facilities.

### WHAT HAS THE GOVERNMENT DONE?

There have been several policy responses by the government to revitalize the agricultural sector in the country. The most current efforts in this direction are,

- i. establishing the Land Resources Policy which will guide sustainable use of agricultural lands,
- ii. National Agricultural Mechanisation Policy, geared towards improving mechanization in the sector,
- iii. National Cooperative Development Policy and the National Seed Policy which assigns primary responsibility for commercial seed supply to the private sector while Government shall be responsible for foundation and breeder seed development, seed certification and quality control and certification and providing the enabling environment for the seed industry development.
- iv. The National Policy on Integrated Rural Development will integrate the rural economy into the mainstream of national development process to ensure its effective coordination and management and make the rural areas more in tune with the urban areas so as to moderate the rural-urban drift, redress the past neglect through provision of critical rural infrastructure and empowerment of the rural population to create wealth and eradicate rural poverty. These are prelude to the general review of the entire body of the national agricultural and rural development policy which is now due.

Institutional arrangements have been adopted for realising sector objectives in view of the fact that agricultural and rural development are *sine qua non* for generating economic growth. These include,

- i. the relocation of the Department of Cooperatives of the Ministry of Labour and its merger with the Agricultural Cooperatives Division of the Ministry of Agriculture,
- ii. the transfer of the Department of Rural Development from the Ministry of Water Resources to the Ministry of Agriculture; the scrapping of the erstwhile National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) and, the merging of its functions with the Rural Development Department;
- iii. Scrapping of the Federal Agricultural Coordinating Unit (FACU) and the

Agricultural Projects Monitoring and Evaluation Unit (APMEU) and the setting up of Projects Coordinating Unit (PCU) and streamlining of institutions for agricultural credit delivery with the emergence of the Nigerian Agricultural, Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB) from the erstwhile Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB) and the Peoples Bank and the assets of the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP). New institutions are also evolving to enable the Nigerian agricultural sector respond to the imperatives of the emerging global economic order (NFMARD, 2004).

ISSUES THAT MUST BE ADDRESSED

Not withstanding the strategic institutional framework setup, there are still areas of concern which must be addressed if the prospects must be certain. These problems included:

- i. un conducive enabling environment where macro-economic policies and the agricultural policy are in disharmony thus resulting in escalating costs of production and reduced purchasing power of farmers;
- ii. Inconsistency and instability in macro-economic policies which do not engender confidence in the economy and tend to discourage medium and long term investments in agriculture;
- iii. Poor harnessing and conservation of natural resources especially land, forestry, fisheries and water resources;
- iv. Poor state of rural infrastructure which makes the rural environment unattractive to the younger generation;
- v. Poor funding of agricultural developmental activities both in quantum and release pattern;
- vi. Lack of appropriate technology to reduce the drudgery in agricultural production and processing activities;
- vii. Inadequate availability of inputs especially improved seeds, seedlings broodstock, fingerlings, etc, credit, fertilizers, agro-chemicals and farm machinery; Poor targeting of beneficiaries resulting in the capture of government-provided production incentives by unintended beneficiaries;
- viii. Inadequate technology;
- ix. Weak agricultural extension delivery service resulting in ineffective dissemination of modern farming technologies and poor feedback mechanism for research to respond to farmers needs;
- x. Low capacity of the organized farmer groups in service delivery; Ineffective control of pests and diseases;
- xi. Inadequate database for policy formulation, monitoring and evaluation as well as impact assessment, etc.

MEASURES FOR IMPROVING AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Rural development is more than agricultural development, but critical to it development is enhancing an effective agricultural base. It is therefore important to identify useful measures that can help the government improve the sector. Some of these are,

- 1. Primary is improving agricultural research; this will help the development of useful methodologies in tackling present and up coming constraints. Findings on areas like the control of water, the use of good seeds and modern inputs, improvements in crops that are drought resistant and the development of diversified farming systems that can cope with insufficient and irregular rainfall as well as better management systems in food production will complement policy initiatives;
- 2. promoting and implementing agricultural and rural development schemes targeted at increasing on-farm and off-farm employment, and infrastructure for improved services and marketing;
- 3. Devise financial and participatory mechanisms for maintenance and repair of existing rural physical infrastructure as well develop more to make rural life meaningful;
- 4. Improve the land tenure and other property security of farmers and producers, especially that of poor farmers and women farmers, not only for social equity but also as incentives for better productivity and towards the sustainable management of the natural resources;
- 5. Enhance self-reliant participation of farmers in the planning and implementation of development activities at the local community level, by promoting participatory organizations of farmers and producers, particularly smallholders and women farmers;
- 6. Facilitate better mobilization of local human, social and financial capital. With appropriate support to build such local assets, farmers will be able to diversify local diets, create conditions for high return on inputs, reduce risks, and restore critical watersheds. This will led to long-term and sustainable increases in productivity;
- 7. Intensified and diversified local production and establishing systems for marketing and setting prices. Individual farmers or farmers' communities must take the initiative for the former, while governments must take responsibility for developing and maintaining total networks. Market prices are crucial for

creating the incentives that will encourage local farmers to increase production. Although prices are partly affected by external factors, governments still play a decisive role in fixing prices and, ultimately, in directly supporting national agricultural production;

8. Farmer-driven and Community based innovation and extension. Farmer participation in all stages of technology development and extension is a key factor of success. Case studies showed that agricultural and pastoral productivity is as much a function of human ingenuity and capacity as it is of biological and physical processes. Strengthened farmer capacity for technology development will be achieved by promoting farmer learning networks, in which farmer leaders can exchange experiences and lessons in developing local technologies;
9. Integrate agriculture with regeneration of the natural resource base. This is important because ecosystem functions are essential to ensure continuing food production, watershed management, predator-pest relationships. Successful farming systems meet both food production needs and also protect critical ecosystems, forests and ecological services.
10. Enhancing an effective mechanism for disease control, especially in livestock farming. Livestock production, though significant in contributing to food security and alleviating the problems of food variability and availability in Africa, it's hampered by diseases. Epidemics with high potential for transboundary spread regularly ravage livestock throughout Africa. Rinderpest is the most devastating, despite recent progress in controlling it. The tse-tse flies, through the cyclical transmission of trypanosomiasis to both humans and domestic animals, are another major constraint to livestock production, natural resource utilization and the pattern of settlement throughout large areas of Africa. The effective prevention of diseases is, however, possible through enhanced early warning, early and coordinated reaction and applied research.
11. Monitor and review the environmental effects of agricultural and rural development, and incorporate lessons learnt in developing appropriate strategies and programmes.

In conclusion, given the extensive nature of food insecurity and the severe resource constraints in many areas, it is necessary to complement actions aimed directly at improving agricultural production with efforts at more broad-based sustainable and participatory rural development. Increased participation in the decision making process to plan and design programmes intended to affect their production activities, enables farmers to grow more food, which translates into better diets and, under market conditions that offer a level playing field, into higher farm incomes. With more money, farmers are more likely to diversify production and grow higher-value crops, benefiting

not only themselves but the economy as a whole. With the right policies and implementation, Nigeria and Africa as a whole is capable of tripling its agricultural output, thus accelerating effective rural development.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Justify the assumption that agriculture is significant in rural development
2. Identify and discuss 5 issues of neglect of the agricultural sector in Nigeria
3. What have been the efforts of government to resuscitate the agricultural sector in Nigeria?
4. What are the issues that need urgent attention if agriculture must be improved in Nigeria?
5. Identify and explain 3 measures of improving agricultural production in Nigeria

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# 7 DEVELOPING RURAL EDUCATION

## CHAPTER OUTLINE

- Meaning of Rural Education
- Functions of Rural Education
- Education in Rural Area
- Features of Rural Education



The importance of education, especially in improving rural lives cannot be over stated. Education is a powerful instrument for the development of man and the society; it is the key to increasing economic efficiency in the rural economy and promoting social consistency. By increasing the value and efficiency of rural labor, it helps to raise the poor from poverty. It increases the overall productivity and intellectual flexibility of the labor force; ensures that a country is competitive in world markets now characterized by changing technologies and production methods. No country can achieve proper rural development without substantial investment in human capital of her rural dwellers. Education raises the people's productivity and creativity level, and further act as an instrument for securing economic and social progress.

Education creates improved citizens and helps to upgrade the general standard of living in a society. Therefore, positive social change is likely to be associated with the production of qualitative citizenry. It would seem to follow naturally that if more individuals are educated, the wealth of nation would rise, since more education attracts higher wages and aggregate higher national income. And if there are positive externalities of education, national income should increase by even more than the sum of the individual benefits. This increasing faith in education as an agent of change in

many developing countries including Nigeria has led to a heavy investment in it. Generally, this goes with the belief that expanding access to qualitative education promotes the economic growth of the rural activities.

## MEANING OF RURAL EDUCATION

Education defined as the aggregate of all the processes in which a child or young adult develops abilities, attitudes and other forms of behaviour which are of positive values to the society in which he lives, has been relegated as being needful more to the male child at the detriment of the female. In other words, the life-long process, which individuals acquire the relevant knowledge, which enables them, fit in into not just the society but become useful to themselves and the society at large, is considered relevant to the male child. Rural education is education at the rural area, either formal or informal.

Olayiwole (1981) said, education, like other social institutions, can be seen as a system of social practices revolves around a valued function of the society, in which those who participate, the patterns of interaction, the means adopted and the manifest ends are all culturally specified and sanctioned. Education as an activity is the process of transmitting and acquiring the socially approved aspects of cultural heritage. The school is the social organisation where culture learning actually takes place. The process of socialisation or culture learning actually starts informally in the family, in churches and mosques, the community and then formally in schools.

Education in the formal sense has come to mean systematic training by specialists within the formal organisation of the school. It differs from socialisation per say in that (a) education is formal, direct and less generalized than socialisation, (b) it does not only continue knowledge but stimulate discovery and extension of knowledge, (c) it is more attuned to change and directs research into new areas, (d) it is the single most important element in social mobility whereas socialisation merely fits the individual into the status quo.

## FUNCTIONS OF RURAL EDUCATION

The functions of the educational institution can be discerned. These are:

- The transmission of culture from one generation to another**  
This is the normal socialization function which entails the teaching of societal values, norms, taboos, roles, folklore etc to the new entrants into the society. This function can be carried out within the family, by peer groups and other primary groups in a community.
- The training of people for specialized adult roles**  
This involves learning of new skills through apprenticeship, acquisition of knowledge through tutorship or indoctrination, or by formal educational institutions. Most of this level of education is often obtained the in family and in formal school settings with expert teachers.

### iii. Social change

This involves bringing about social change through the modification of cultural heritage and development of new knowledge, skills, arts and artifacts. Education should create a personality which, with contact with the outside world, will assimilate critically the ideas and experience of other cultures and thereby shift the relevant ones to be adapted for the modification of his own environment. The extent to which a people is ready to modify its cultural heritage through seeking and adaptation of new ideas determine the rate of advancement of the society. New knowledge is acquired through research and current experience has shown that technologically advanced nations invest more on research than developing nations.

Schubert (1994) added that education also serves other functions in the society. These functions are merely consequential. Among these are:

#### a. Differentiation of people in the society and validation of their social strata

In most contemporary societies, the acquisition of formal education and possession of some certificates ensure the individual entry into prestigious jobs. The higher the certificate, the more highly placed the individual within the profession. Thus, the proliferation of professions and skills and the gradation of diplomas help to slot people into different categories. Education has therefore become a source of class formation as well as social mobility.

#### b. Provision of a setting for social interaction

The school brings persons from diverse back-grounds into constant interaction thereby fostering the formation of peer groups and associations which help in moulding the character and future of the individuals involved. In this sense it is a potent instrument of societal interaction.

### EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS

There are various forms of formal educational facilities in rural Nigeria. These include,

i. informal out-of-school education offered to rural families by experts in agriculture, home economics, health, small scale industries, etc. This type of education is often known as *extension education*.

ii. semi-formal literacy education organised for adults who had no opportunity to acquire formal education at earlier age. This is known as *adult education*.

iii. formal education offered at the primary and secondary levels to rural children and adolescents. At the primary level, two main types of education can be identified in Nigeria. These are the Western type of education and the Koranic type of education with the latter being more prevalent in the Moslem areas of the country.

### FEATURES OF RURAL EDUCATION

#### EDUCATION IN THE RURAL AREA TAKES THE FOLLOWING FORMS,

##### i. Extension education

This is an informal non-school based education. It is often directed to rural people with the aim of upgrading their competence or skills in specific areas such as agriculture, health or home management. In Nigeria, the Ministry of Agriculture hires and trains agricultural extension agents to carry out agricultural extension work with farmers. Ideally, it is expected that farmer-extension agents work with farmers. Ideally, it is expected that farmer-extension work agent's ratio in the country should be 750 farm families or less to 1 full-time extension agent. However, this ratio remained at an average of 2500:1 as at 1980 (Ugal, 2007).

This compares unfavourably with 200:1 in India or 250:1 in Kenya. As a result of this insufficiency of extension education in rural Nigeria, the country does not have a continuously sustained programme which could have generally upgraded farmers' knowledge, skills and productivity. Studies, in fact, reveal that the extension agents tend to render more services to farmers rather than educate the farmers during their few and sporadic contacts.

Other forms of extension education are in the areas of health care, home management and the establishment and management of small-scale industries are faced with the same problems of insufficiency of specialist staff, sporadic contact and emphasis on rendering specific services rather than on general education.

##### iv. Adult education

What is sometimes known as 'adult literacy' is often a programme based in the Adult Education Division in the various states of the country. Although some Nigerian universities do run continuing and adult education programmes; these are often directed at urban dwellers who are already literate but who may need the opportunity to acquire higher education. It is, therefore, only the adult literacy programme of the Ministry of Education that is directed towards rural dwellers (Rowat, 2000). The aim of this programme is to teach rural people how to read and write. In some cases, the curriculum may include basic arithmetic. While some State ministries of education have established permanent centres in local government headquarters for this programme, others conduct it on an adhoc basis in mutually agreed locations including open spaces under trees, while some do not in fact have an operational programme for adult education yet as a result of lack of facilities and personnel. The programme generally attracts very negligible proportion of the rural population.

### IMPLICATION FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

i. There is tremendous, popular demand for education particularly for schooling, in virtually all countries, developing and developed alike. Often in Less Developed

Countries (LDCS), the number of people seeking admission to schools far exceeds the number of places available. Obviously, people everywhere believe that education is beneficial to them and their children.

ii. A second reason for believing that education is important is the frequently observed correlations between education and income at both the individual and societal level. Obviously, when there is a change or increase in one's income, other aspects of life changes too. Aspects such as technological change, political change, social change and behavioural change will collectively enhance the living standard of the individual.

iii. Education has also been promoted because it can socialise people.

iv. Finally, education is also taught to confer civic benefits. Some political scientists believe that at least a minimal level of schooling is prerequisite for political democracy.

Rural education is targeted at the adult rural investors, who contribute their quotas towards rural development. They are expected to utilise the services of the extension agents who expose them to new methods and ideas, deemed efficient to enhance both output and income. This will go a long way in enhancing their well being and ultimately disposed to contribute meaningfully to rural development.

### EDUCATION FOR MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

Human resources development entails investing in people's education health and nutrition. Human capital development is one of the keys to economic growth and social progress. It creates knowledge, broadens skills, and improves health and thereby constitutes a key to sustaining economic growth, raising living standard and enriching people's lives. As the United Nation's handbook produced for the World Summit for Social Development in 1995 stressed.

The most permanent and deepest aim of social policies is to develop and invest in human beings themselves. This is the only way to break the vicious circle of poverty.

Education is crucial to the elimination of poverty to the extent that it provides skills and abilities which allow the poor to secure productive and well-paying jobs. Improving the quality and effectiveness of social services, which arm at developing human potential can replace the vicious circle of poverty with virtuous circle of wealth generation. To compete in a rapidly changing economy, all countries must make significant investments, in health, education, job training, and technical training for their populations. A recent World Bank study, *The East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy*, shows that the single most important factor in launching the East Asian countries on a path of rapid, sustained economic growth was investment by human capital. This gave these countries crucial advantages over other countries.

Both individuals and society gain from investment in human capital. Widespread literacy, for example, strengthens the institutions of the civil society and governance (World Bank, 1995). Education expands the capacity of people to develop technology and make better use of technology and inputs, exploit new information and adapt more effectively to change. On-the-job training is crucial for productivity

improvement. Formal schooling and short courses create the potential for increased internal participation of the worker. Investment in the education of women produces an extraordinarily high return in increased productivity and wealth generation.

Substantial economic and social benefits can also be obtained from improving people's health and nutrition. Healthier and better nourished people lose fewer days of work, are more productive on the job, and enjoy longer working lives. People are able to organize economic activities more productively. Through their effects on children's physical and intellectual development, which affects their subsequent productivity as adults, better health and nutrition produce benefits in the next generation. Nutrition programmes take on added importance in primary health care facilities and treatment, when targeted at extremely poor women and children. Health education programmes are also inputs into helping to prevent illness and encouraging health-compatible life styles.

### EDUCATION FOR BRIDGING INFORMATION GAP IN RURAL AREAS

The rapid advances in Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) have stimulated far-reaching effects on the formulation and implementation of rural initiatives. Developers of models for improved rural sector need to have access to adequate information to enhance productivity and facilitate market access. However, in most developing countries, there is inadequate access, to information, and the cases of few access is slow, cumbersome to access, limited in scope and not provided in an integrated manner. This situation and its official recognition in Africa can hardly escape the attention of information specialists. Stone (1993) has called this the "apparent dilemma of information" being a powerful catalyst to transform society, yet the apparent weakness of the linkage between information investments and the achievement of specific development goals.

The Internet and other ICTs are affecting all human activities that depend on information, including rural development and food security. O'Farrell, et al. (1999) state that a better understanding of existing information practices and socio-technical processes is necessary in rural areas if ICT-based projects are to be more effective. Accascina (2000) identifies how ICTs directly and indirectly affect poverty alleviation, notably in relation to rural development and food security. Examples include the delivery of market or employment information, or the creation of well-paid jobs that eventually "trickle down" to poor communities.

Adimorah (1990) stresses that, "our information services are still elitist, serving only 20% of the educated elite group while the 80% illiterate rural dwellers wallow in information deprivation." The present administration in Nigeria does not want to be left out of this global system. According to Okeh (2002), the literature has stressed that the quality of life of rural dwellers can be highly improved by effective provision of relevant information to rural communities.



**IMPORTANCE OF INFORMATION TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROCESS**

- i. Information is raw material for development for both urban and rural dwellers.
- ii. Prosperity, progress, and development of any rural area depend upon several things but critically, upon the people's ability to acquire, produce, access, and use pertinent information.
- iii. Access to information is a key resource for local people in maintaining active and independent lives.
- Iv. It is also critical to letting people know government programmes, their roles and sources of support and benefit to be derived from such programmes and further overcome social exclusion, which often bewail rural dwellers.
- v. Information is the lifeblood of any society and vital to the activities of both the government and private sectors.
- vi. Access to information help creates innovation and change, places a high premium on the ability of (developing countries) nations to access and use information to create advance in society. The challenges of rural development cannot be achieved without the development of an effective information base in the rural communities. This is because 75 to 80 percent of the people in developing countries live in the rural areas and as need positive, relevant and prompts attention in their daily activities.

Therefore, promoting rural transformation is the basis for economic development and information is an important ingredient in the development process. People in rural areas whether literate or not need access to any kind of information which will help them become capable and productive in their social, economic and political obligations, to become better informed citizens generally. Information therefore becomes a matter of policy, a basic resource for development if durable structures are to be provided for effective access and utilization, which entails information capturing coordination, processing, and dissemination.

In the Nigerian context, accessibility to information by both urban and rural communities is stated in its development plans, but with emphasis to the support of government policies and many programmes that are not fully relevant to the development of rural communities.

Harande (2006) observed that the information received by the rural dwellers is either not reliable or distorted in the process of transmission. This unhealthy situation constitutes a major impediment, which keeps the rural communities in Nigeria and other developing countries far away from development indicators. The developed countries undertake rural projects to reduce the gap between the urban and the rural communities to the barest level. A report on a rural project (2007) outlined that, "access to and the ability to use information and knowledge are not equally distributed (between urban and rural communities). Affluent families are far more likely to be able to give their children access to books, computers, and the internet than poorer families. Were this is not guided against, the economic returns from knowledge and skills will go disproportionately to those and place that are already rich in both.

**AREAS OF INFORMATION NEED**

No true and meaningful rural projects in developing countries can be executed without the fundamental conditions of the establishment of a literate and numerate (rural) society, and a system for continuous provision of exchange of ideas, thought and knowledge on which the (rural) society, can feed and use with suitable modifications to construct. Their cultural and industrial destiny rural dwellers need relevant, efficient, and current information. Information is needed in such areas like water supply, electricity supply, environmental sanitation, refuse disposal, road maintenance and drought. Information is required to help develop individual's interests to appreciate areas of need, calls government attention, support and compliment ongoing effort to alleviate the problem. Some critical areas on which the rural population should be oriented are identified to include,

- i. Health information on how individuals can, prevent different diseases that affect them, and awareness of available health care delivery, especially primary health care and what it costs.
- ii. Another significant area of information needs by rural Nigerians is in Agriculture and Allied occupations. Information is needed in areas of learning best form of farming practices such as, planting, treated seeds, soil conservation, prevention of plants and animal disease, fertilizer application, farm machineries, recommended thinning practices, proper storage of farm products, marketing techniques, cooperative activities and other agricultural activities.
- iii. Housing rural public need information about where they can obtain loans to build houses and the type of materials to be use and where they can be easily obtained.
- iv. Rural communities need information on employment opportunities, skills and entrepreneurial development, taxation, investment opportunities, banking and other financial activities.
- v. They need information on the cost of bicycles, motorcycles and vehicles and where to obtain them. They need information about road construction and maintenance.
- vi. Information is required on region, our affairs, recreations and cultural activities. This promotes social and cultural activities needed to improve social well-being.
- vii. Equally enlightenment is needed in issues of welfare and family matters. This will help address the problems of marriage, childcares, juvenile delinquency etc. properly informed rural population will help reduce social problems associated with ignorance, broken marriages, child abuse, etc.
- viii. Local matters information is needed on legislations that affect the rural dwellers. Such as land acquisition marital laws etc.
- ix. Information is required on how to prevent crime, report crime, role of the law enforcement agents etc.
- x. Policies and government: information is needed on political rights of the people and how they can exercise such rights.

## MEASURES TO IMPROVE ACCESS TO INFORMATION

With the challenges of improving access to information for rural transformation, the following measures are highlighted. There are:

I. The success of rural information programmes rest squarely on the availability of educational programmes, either formal or informal and rural development workers. Enhancement of services will form a solid base for development of the entire rural setting in Nigeria. Enhanced and effective information service needs a rural information policy. The Nigeria government must implement its rural development policies. Distortions in existing development plans, in which information service are divided into two categories: information services provided by such agencies as libraries, documentation and information centers, archives, and agriculture and health extension services. Emphasis is on the first category, in financial allocation, projects, and policies.

ii. Investment in promoting rural literacy is at present a critical challenge for the government, especially in developing nations where there is a growing rural population. To create literate environments, government need to set up a viable and functional educational programme, either formal or informal where people can be surrounded by accessible written information, for learning, research, skills development, leisure or immediate practical purposes. Strong literate environments are underpinned by thriving local publishing, bookselling and media industries, which help to ensure people can get hold locally relevant materials, including local languages, and local information that reflects local culture, traditions and needs. For people living in poverty, it is crucial to have access to such materials and this is where public libraries have an important role to play, with their mandate of free and universal access.

iii. It is important to provide a coordinating role for the information environment. Governments should foster links and partnerships between the public sector, private sector and civil society organizations to enable co-ordination of the information environment. Government leadership in this area would help to enhance awareness and cooperation between the wide variety of projects involved in production and dissemination of development information. An important part of this is for governments provide a policy framework that nurtures the local book trade. Encouraging publishing and bookselling in a wide range of subjects to meet readers' varied needs.

iv. Both public libraries and school libraries have vital function in supporting learners at the rural level to acquire, maintain and develop their literacy. Yet most poor communities in Africa do not have access to a library and those that do exist are almost always poorly stocked. This damages educational outcomes for many. The report on the availability of books and learning materials in Africa produced for the 2000 'Education For All' assessment commented that, "as the decade came to a close, school libraries were said to have the lowest of priorities in educational spending. The majority of schools possessed no library. Where some semblance of a school library did exist, it was

often no more than a few shelves of outdated and worn out material, inadequately staffed" (Montagnes, 2001).

v. Poor quality education and shortages of reading materials condemn many children of finishing basic education with very limited literacy skills. A 2000-2003 study by the Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) measured primary school students' reading literacy against standards established by national reading experts and sixth grade teachers. In four out of seven countries, fewer than half the sixth graders achieved minimum competence in reading. The study was compared with another by SACMEQ two years later which saw literacy scores falling even further in five out of six countries (UNESCO 2005). Effectively, this means that a significant number of children are completing school to all intents and purposes functionally illiterate. The challenge is more than promoting quality education; it is a function of enhancing access to educational facilities, one of which is enhancing a well equipped school library.

Improving traditional media system and further advances in ICTs techniques will play a major role in diffusing information to rural communities. There is need to connect rural communities, research and extension networks and provides access to the much needed knowledge, technology and services. Studies on information systems serving rural communities have focused on specific sectors such as agriculture or health, instead of covering the rural community needs in a holistic manner. Rural information systems must involve rural communities and local content must be of prime importance.

Traditional media have been used very successfully in developing countries, and rural radio in particular has played a major role in delivering agricultural messages. Print, video, television, films, slides, pictures, drama, dance, folklore, group discussions, meetings, exhibitions and demonstrations have also been used to speed up the flow of information. This will to a large help reduce rural illiteracy in the country.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define education with specific focus on the reduction of rural illiteracy.
2. What are the functions of rural education?
3. Mention specific features of rural education
4. What is the implication of education to rural development?
5. Clearly explain the role of education in manpower development
6. Identify areas of information need in rural development process
7. How does the information environment affect information dissemination in rural areas?
8. Discuss the measures necessary in improving access to information by rural dwellers.

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# 8 ACCESS TO POTABLE WATER

## CHAPTER OUTLINE

- Water need and inadequacy
- Efforts to provide accessibility to potable water in Nigeria
- Challenges of rural access to potable water
- Improvement measures to potable water accessibility in rural communities



**W**ater, potable water is a basic necessity of life. Water is needed in all human activities. Its importance in enhancing the wellbeing of the rural class cannot be overstressed. It is a source of life and a means of livelihood. On World Water Day 2010, with the theme 'Clean Water for a Healthy World,' we are reminded of the critical importance of water to the lives of farmers. Farmers' lives depend on using water sustainably, for their own health, the health of their farms and the ecosystems they depend on. Water quality is a prerequisite for sustainable development. Farmers employ diverse measures to protect water quality, such as recycling wastewater with innovative systems, minimizing the use of fertilizers by monitoring crop growth cycles, using leguminous crops in rotation or adopting organic agricultural practices, which build up the soil's potential to retain soil moisture.

Notwithstanding, contemporary research have revealed that there is acute shortage of safe water available for the rural communities. Community members mainly collect water from rainfalls, burrow pits, and little streams, which are usually far away from their households. These sources of water are not hygienic for domestic use, as they are sometimes messed up by cattle and other animals that also come there to graze and drink water. These water sources also easily dry up during the dry season. This has several effects, especially vulnerability to disease, and of course a community that is sick cannot compete favorably in contemporary socio-economic environment.



## WATER NEED INADEQUACY

Water demand is increasing three times as fast as the world's population growth rate. Some 1.2 billion people lack safe water supply and 2.4 billion live without secure sanitation, according to Water Forum official figures. At least **five million people die yearly from water related diseases**, including 2.2 million children under the age of five. An estimated one half of people in developing countries are suffering from diseases caused either directly by infection through the consumption of contaminated water or food, or indirectly by disease carrying organisms, such as mosquitoes, that breed in water (Ayanniyi, 2006). The implication is more deaths, more suffering for the people.

In Nigeria, only 60 per cent of households have access to improved drinking water sources, while access to adequate sanitation facilities remains low (UNDP, 2007). Tinubu (2007) added that, in Nigeria, more than half the populations have no access to clean water, and many women and children walk for hours a day to fetch it and the country is one of the world water flashpoints. This is blamed the budgetary allocation of the country. The water sector budgetary allocation by the Federal Government between 1999 and 2007 is over N357.86 billion to provide safe drinking water, yet there appears to be no solution in sight. He noted that, the billions appear to have dried up in the pipes instead of water flowing there. The over 120 million people have been left to continue drinking water containing all sorts of bacteria, germs capable of causing diseases.

Essien (2008) in his study to examine the rural access to potable water in Southern Nigeria disclosed that the rural water supply coverage is estimated at about 35%. Only about 50% of the urban and 20% of the semi-urban populations have access to reliable water supply of acceptable quality. This is quite small compared to other West African countries. Only 14% of rural and 15% of urban water sources in Nigeria is safe. However, most Nigerians depend on surface water and which is not safe because of the heavy presence of both natural and man-made contaminants. Majority of the wells are traditional and non-protected, and water sourced from tankers and vendors are mostly contaminated and not safely handled to avoid contamination.

The poor situation with respect to water and sanitation contributes to high morbidity and mortality among children. The lack of adequate water and sanitation in schools discourage enrolment; pupils often have to make do with poor facilities. In the average primary school, there is only one toilet for every 600 pupils (UNICEF, 2008).

## EFFORTS TO PROVIDE ACCESSIBILITY TO POTABLE WATER IN NIGERIA

In recent time, there has been effort to provide access to potable water to rural communities in the country. This challenge has been taken up by the government both at the Federal and State level, with the assistance of International Donor Agencies.

Since 2002, UNICEF's Integrated Growth and Development Programme in Nigeria has created about 4,000 new safe water resources across the country, providing safe water for more than 1 million people. The Programme was implemented in collaboration with the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Agencies. Cross River State

has been a key benefactor of this programme, as the agency, in collaboration with the State Water Board Agency has been able to provide portable water and ensured sanitary activities across the state. However, the impact of its activities is felt more in the urban centers. Almost every home in the state capital has access to portable water, yet with an estimated population of 125 million people, mostly clustered in rural communities, Nigeria still needs more support.

In 2005, a donation of €33.3 million (about \$41.4 million) from the European Commission for a UNICEF water and sanitation project was made to help provide safe drinking water for 2.1 million people across 1,400 rural communities in Nigeria. The funds, which were made available over four years, amount to the largest donation ever from the EU to a UNICEF-assisted development programme. Communities which benefited are located in the states of Abia, Cross River, Gombe, Kebbi, Osun and Plateau. The project also supported hygiene education, improved sanitation and safe water supply in 120 schools, and aims to eradicate Guinea Worm disease in Nigeria (UNICEF, 2005). The trend has continued in most States of the federation. State governments have embarked on water projects to salvage the sufferings of their rural population. Notwithstanding, certain problems hinders the process, thus inadequate and sustained access of water to a greater population of the rural class.

A study conducted by the University of Edinburgh, UK, together with the Federal Polytechnic in Bauchi, Nigeria, to examine the level of rural access to potable water by people living in rural communities in Taraba State, Eastern Nigeria shows a disproportionate result. The study disclosed that 76% of the rural poor in communities within Taraba State lack access to potable water. This population the study adds try to provide for themselves, but considering the cost involve and their low level of income, they find it more challenging. They also lack the skills needed to maintain the water source (Adebayo, 2008).

In a survey research conducted by the author on the state of rural water supply across Cross River State, the following were observed,

1. Few safe sources of water, such as deep bore holes, have been developed in rural areas in the state.
2. Water is in short supply. Approximately 80% of households have less than 30 litres of water per person per day.
3. The shortage of water for daily hygiene, together with the lack of clean drinking water, is the cause of a high level of water-related diseases in rural communities in the state.
4. Water-related diseases suffered by villagers include malaria, diarrhoea, typhoid and dysentery.
5. 27% of the households need less than 30 minutes (per journey) to fetch their water during the wet season and 17% during the dry season (Anam, 2010).

The study further observed that diseases that are otherwise preventable are now common place among the people. There is indiscriminate sinking of boreholes without proper geophysical survey. Some of which are close to septic tanks, unlined pit latrine and waste dump sites. The resultant effect of this is the outbreak of waterborne diseases.

According to World Health Organization (2008), waterborne diseases are caused by pathogenic micro-organisms which are directly transmitted when contaminated drinking water is consumed. Contaminated drinking water, used in the preparation of food, can be the source of food borne disease through consumption of the same microorganisms. The survey further disclosed that diarrhea disease accounts for an estimated 4.1% of the total daily global burden of disease and is responsible for the deaths of 1.8 million people every year. It was estimated that 88% of that burden is attributable to unsafe water supply, sanitation and hygiene, and is mostly concentrated in children in developing countries. Waterborne disease can be caused by protozoa, viruses, bacteria and intestinal parasites.

### CHALLENGES OF RURAL ACCESS TO POTABLE WATER

The Government is mainly responsible for providing water for communities in Nigeria. The government-sponsored water supply projects have suffered great setbacks,

- i. Federal government allocations to the state and local governments are inadequate, while state governments release only insufficient proportions of their budgeted expenses to water supply.
- ii. non-implementation to abandonment of water projects.
- iii. no sufficient funds to procure the essential inputs like pumps, generators and tanks.
- iv. faulty installation or lack of maintenance and rehabilitation.
- v. there is also lack of sustained effective political commitment on the part of successive governments to improve rural water supply, especially in the absence of change in government.

The above problems have left the responsibility of providing water to individual house owners, who have to dig wells or boreholes in private residences at exorbitant costs that are not within the reach of the average citizen. The rural dwellers (about 70% of Nigeria's population) are worst affected because of the extreme level of poverty. The low service level of water in the rural areas has left rural dwellers at the risk of high prevalence of water -borne diseases such as cholera, typhoid, diarrhea, schistosomiasis, dracunculiasis, malaria and onchocerciasis (Oscar, 2007). And this has made water -borne diseases an important public health concern and unconquerable monster for many years in Nigeria (Offem, 2008).

Oscar added that, women and girls, who fetch water from sources far away from the household are greatly threatened by:

- i. exposure to water -borne diseases at or near the source and through the vectors;
- ii. exposure to accidents, drowning, attack, and assault at and on the way to and from the water source; and
- iii. skeletal injuries caused by carrying heavy loads repeatedly over long periods. Improved access to domestic water supplies can produce huge health benefits, because better access to water will improve hygiene behavior among rural dwellers.

### IMPROVEMENT MEASURES FOR POTABLE WATER ACCESSIBILITY IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

Commendably, the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) is embarking on water projects across the country. According to the official document, the programme is intended to create 8800 safe water sources by the end of 2007, including 1200 sources in schools and learning areas. The programme combines the installation of new water points with the upgrading and renovation of existing facilities. UNICEF supports the installation of sanitary facilities in communities and schools and the programme would have benefited at least 4000 communities by the end of 2007 (Moses, 2008).

Since improving access to water supply and hygienic conditions in rural communities remains a major determinants to developing the rural economy, more concerted efforts must be made to improve its access, and reduce the level of diarrhoeal, guinea worm etc diseases, which continue to have a very high prevalence rate in the country. To compliment on going effort, the under listed strategies are considered,

1. International agencies should take advantage of the willingness of village communities to be involved and provide them with the basic low-cost training they need so that they are able look after themselves, more bore holes must be drilled to provide clean water
2. Springs could be used as an additional low cost water supply
3. Low cost technology such as constructed wetlands should be introduced to treat polluted river and wastewater in order to reduce the number of waterborne diseases
4. An analysis of the geographical water distribution will help to reduce sampling costs and effort. This calls for partnership with experts before sinking boreholes.
5. Nigerian government agencies should provide extension services, through professionals to educate rural dwellers on how to maintain rural water sources, like boreholes and so on.
6. Curriculum planners in school should take into cognizance the importance of introducing health, hygienic and sanitation education into the school system. Training and hygiene education activities in primary and secondary schools will help promote safe health habits.

Water and hygienic sanitation not only ensure optimal child health and survival but also provide a major boost to school attendance rates especially for girls. Providing safe water sources is vital for community development as a whole, shortening the amount of time that women spend walking every day to fetch and carry water.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Water is needed in all human activities. *Explain*
2. Though significant, water supply has been inadequate in Nigeria. *Justify*
3. What have been the efforts of the Nigerian government in proving access to potable water?
4. What are the challenges of rural access to potable water in Nigeria
5. Identify useful measures for potable water accessibility in rural communities in Nigeria

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9 PROVIDING EFFECTIVE HEALTH CARE DELIVERY SYSTEM

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- *Health Care Delivery System: Issues of concern*
- *Harmful cultural practices and health care delivery in Nigeria*
- *Meaning and Rationale for Primary Health Care (PHC)*
- *Factors militating against effective Primary Healthy Care Delivery System*
- *Measures to improve Primary Health Care Delivery System*

The overriding importance of an effective health care delivery system is understood, as it represents one of the drivers of rapid economic and socio-political development in the rural economy. Sound health of the citizenry ensures greater human development. The wealth of any nation can be measured by the health status of its citizens, in true confirmation of the popular adage which posits that “health is wealth”.

The general health of a member of any society can be seen as part of an interrelated set of conditions, which have to do with his capacity to adjust to his immediate environment and to utilize it to his optimum advantage. Likewise, health may be considered as the state of complete physical, mental and social well being of an individual, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. Globally, health services are known to be provided at different levels by different agencies and specialists. In Nigeria for example, health services are taken care of by the three tiers of government, namely: The Federal, State and Local governments. These are also supported by organizations and the private individuals who establish and run private medical



services. Traditional medical practitioners who serve the majority of the rural populace also belong to this privatized category (Ekwuruke, 2007).

### HEALTH CARE DELIVERY SYSTEM: ISSUES OF CONCERN

The affirmation by the Alma-Ata declaration of 1978 stated that access to basic healthcare services is a fundamental human right. However, after 32 year, the reality is that many people particularly in the areas with lack of resources are still not having equitable access to basic healthcare services. The challenges facing the delivery of affordable healthcare services are debatably one of the most essential problems to sustainable global development. The larger percentage of the illnesses and diseases putting burden on the global community is found in the developing countries.

Additionally, inadequate access to good healthcare services in developing countries particularly in the rural villages has higher contribution to the increase in mortality rate amongst the children and the pregnant women. United Nations 2008 report shows that there is higher probability for child born in a developing country to dies within their early age (mostly before age five of their life) than those born in the developed country even though the diseases leading to these deaths are preventable through vaccinations and basic healthcare services.

Infact, UNDP (2003) report confirmed that over 30 000 children die each day from diseases that are preventable, more than 500 000 women die during childbirth and complications in pregnancy, over 1 million under 5 years old children die of malaria every year, approximately 20 million people have died of HIV/AIDS while over 38 million are living with the disease, 8 million people develop active tuberculosis each year out of which 2 million die of it (Bushy, 2008).

**Maternal Mortality:** Maternal and Child health records have emerged as the most important indices in determining global and national well-being of individuals. The Millennium Development Goals (MDG), as adopted by member states of the UN and international organizations in September 2000, include a target reduction by two-thirds in the maternal mortality rate (MMR) and by two-thirds in the under-five mortality rate (U5MR) by the year 2015. Experts believe that Nigeria's statistics for maternal and child health has not improved much or stagnated since 2000. According to a recent estimate developed by the WHO, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the World Bank, about 358 000 maternal deaths occurred worldwide in 2008 out of which 50,000 occurred in Nigeria. This is an equivalent of a plane carrying 140 women crashing every single day. It also means that even though Nigeria is only 2% of the world's population, the country accounts for as much as 14% of the world's maternal deaths in childbirth. The report, however, notes that the MMR (deaths per 100 000 live births) for Nigeria declined from 980 in 2000 to 840 in 2008 which is described as "insufficient progress" (WHO, 2010).

The *World Health Statistics* of 2010 also reported an increase in Nigeria's MMR to 1100 in 2008. The wide disparity in MMR of different regions of Nigeria is also

noteworthy. According to the Society of Gynecology and Obstetrics of Nigeria (SOGON) in 2005, the MMR in Kano state (North-West) was 7523 per 100,000 compared to 783 per 100,000 in Enugu state (South-East) (Omo-Aghoja, Aisien, Akuse, Bergstrom & Okonofua, . 2010). This puts the risk of a woman dying in childbirth in some parts of Nigeria at 1 in 18 compared to an average of 1 in 61 for other developing countries and 1 in 29,800 in Sweden. An additional 1,080,000 to 1,620,000 Nigerian women and girls are reported to suffer from disabilities caused by complications during pregnancy and childbirth each year based on estimates by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (USAID, 2010)

**Infant Mortality:** The nation's performance in health care is even worse if we look at the health of a Nigerian child. According to the *2009 State of the World's Children* report by the UNICEF, Nigeria ranked 9<sup>th</sup> out of 193 countries in under- 5 mortality rate (U5MR) with a record of about 1,077,000 under-5 children dying every year. Figures from the Federal Ministry of Health (FMH) in 2008 showed that about 2,300 under-five children die every day in Nigeria. According to the UNICEF's report, Malaria accounts for 18% of deaths among children aged <5 years in Nigeria yet only 6% under 5yr old children sleep under insecticide-treated nets compared to 28% and 56% reported for Sierra Leone and Rwanda respectively, which are countries that have recently experienced significant internal conflict [2, 6]. Nigeria has been widely reported to have one of the worst records in child immunization coverage globally. Only 13% of children aged 1223 months are fully immunized (BCG, measles and 3 doses of DPT and polio) in Nigeria. Poliomyelitis mainly affects children under five years of age. According to the WHO Global Polio Eradication Initiative in November 2010, Nigeria is one of only four countries in the world where poliomyelitis is endemic, the remaining being Afghanistan, India, and Pakistan. Out of a total of 841poliomyelitis cases that were reported in Africa in 2009, 534 cases (63%) occurred in Nigeria (UNICEF, 2009).

There are numerous hindrances encountered by healthcare systems of developing nations, particularly in Nigeria such high burden of disease prevalence, low health care professional as a result of brain drain and large numbers of rural inhabitants.

### HARMFUL CULTURAL PRACTICES AND HEALTH CARE DELIVERY IN NIGERIA

The role of some cultural practices that adversely affect the health of Nigerian women and children is also worthy of note. Such unhealthy practices include female genital mutilation, early marriage, and food restrictions and taboos. Female genital mutilation (FGM), also known as female circumcision or cutting, is a widespread cultural practice in Nigeria and varies from one region to another. In most cultures, it is carried out in childhood and believed to reduce promiscuity later in life. The UNICEF estimates that about 130 million women are circumcised globally out of which 25% occur in Nigeria (National Population Census, 2004).

Studies show that FGM is more common in Southern Nigeria than in the North, although the most extreme form known as infibulation is more common in the North.

According to a study by the WHO, women who have had FGM are significantly more likely to experience difficulties during childbirth and that their babies are more likely to die as a result of the practice (WHO, 2007). Other complications of FGM include bleeding, painful intercourse, and operative deliveries. Early marriage is another common practice that affects the health of Nigerian women. In some parts of Nigeria for example, a girl could be given out in marriage as early as 10-15 years resulting in complications during childbirth especially vesico-vaginal fistula (VVF) (Chukuezi, 2010). VVF is an opening in the birth canal that results in leakage of urine or stool into the vagina due to early childbirth.

The UNFPA estimates that 2 million women suffer VVF globally and 40% of these (80,000) are in Nigeria (UNFPA, 2003). Food restrictions and taboos are yet another cultural practice that contributes to malnutrition in Nigerian women and children. Nigeria is the 3<sup>rd</sup> leading country (after India and China) globally in malnutrition. More than 60 per cent of maternal and infant deaths have been attributed to malnutrition (Onimawo, Ukegbu, Asumugha, Anyika, Okudu, Echendu, Nkwoala & Emebu, 2010); with 41% of under-five-year-old children classified as chronically malnourished and some of these are due to food restrictions. For example, young children are not given eggs and some certain meats in some parts of Nigeria due to the belief that such foods will predispose them to stealing. This contributes significantly to protein energy malnutrition in Nigeria.

### MEANING AND RATIONALE FOR PRIMARY HEALTH CARE (PHC)

Primary Health Care is essential health care based on practical, scientifically sound and socially to individuals and families in the community through their full participation and at a cost the community and the country can afford to maintain at every stage of their development, in the spirit of self-determination.

It was a new approach to health care that came into existence following the International Conference in Alma Ata in 1978 organized by the World Health Organization and the UNICEF. PHC was accepted by the member countries of the World Health Organization (WHO) as the key to achieving that goal. These included.

1. Reducing exclusion and social disparities in health (universal coverage reforms);
2. organizing health services around people's needs and expectations (service delivery reforms);
3. integrating health into all sectors (public policy reforms);
4. Pursuing collaborative models of policy dialogue (leader reforms); and increasing stakeholder participation.

Faced with serious political institutional and implementation challenges, lot of people world over all becoming more and more frustrated at the inability of today's health systems and services to meet their needs. Demand for a renewal of primary health care and health for all, is increasing.

In response to health need, the Comprehensive Reform Policy of the Nigerian government, as encapsulated in the 7-point Agenda of this administration, has clearly

identified the health sector as one of the prime areas of focus. Before now, previous governments had taken steps to enhance the quality of health of Nigerians. significant among them are the establishment of the National Action committee on Aids (NACA) to combat the HIV/AIDS scourge, the national Foods and Drugs Administration Commission (NAFDAC) which has brought international recognitions to Nigeria. The government has equally set up the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) which is designed to make health-care affordable for all citizens by making everyone contribute to the healthcare system, instead of putting the whole burden on Government, as it is the case currently.

Furthermore, three out of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are directly targeted at healthcare delivery. For Nigeria, current indicators points to the fact that Nigeria is seriously lagging behind, particularly on the MGDs health components of maternal and child health. This is quite aside from the ravaging pandemics of HIV/AIDS, malaria, Tuberculosis and other life threatening diseases. We are informed by the Mid-Term Assessment of the MDDs has indicated that both Africa and Nigeria face serious challenges in achieving the goals by the year 2015. It has, therefore, become quite clear that much more still needs to be done in terms of new initiatives and implementation strategies.

### FACTORS MILITATING AGAINST EFFECTIVE PRIMARY HEALTHY CARE DELIVERY SERVICES

Some of the problems include,

1. Lack of facilities: This is a major problem in the health care delivery system. Most health centres do not have basic facilities like ECG, a clinic with ancient sphygmomanometers, miserable thermometers, ancient dental tools, poor electricity, inadequate water supply, degraded laboratory tools, miserable surgical room with no difference from a carpenter's workshop.

The primary health centers (PHC) are located at the local government areas where they provide general health services including programs aimed at disease prevention and management of minor ailments as well as referral of complicated cases to secondary and tertiary centers. The secondary health facilities include the general and specialist hospitals managed by the state governments whereas the tertiary health centers include teaching hospitals, federal medical centers, and other specialized hospitals that receive referrals from the primary and secondary centers. According to the FMH, Nigeria has 29 tertiary facilities, 3,275 secondary facilities, and 18,258 primary healthcare facilities to serve a population of over 140 million (WHO, 2007).

Ironically, the PHCs which are closest to the population are mostly non-functional structures devoid of essential drugs or medical equipment. It is on record that despite the 15% minimum recommended by the WHO, the Nigerian government at all levels spends a meager 7% of its total expenditure on the health sector compared to over 18% health expenditure by the USA (WHO, 2010). The result is that most of the PHCs are dilapidated structures decorated with cob webs and inhabited by snakes and lizards.



The few functional facilities are lacking in skilled human resources and basic equipment such as thermometer, sphygmomanometer, or weighing scale.

2. **Inaccessibility** - in terms of distance to communities and bad road leading to the centre where you have pregnant women climbing donkeys to access services, imagine that you are in labour and have to climb a donkey to get to the centre.

3. **Unaffordability** - in terms of drugs and services LGA are suppose to collaborate with the community for drug revolving scheme which is never done leaving the Health worker with the choice of buying the drugs and selling for their profits. Many believe the crux of the deterioration in the nation's health care system is poor funding and lack of infrastructure due to chronic neglect by successive governments at different levels, especially at the primary health care level.

4. **Counterfeit Drugs:** counterfeit drugs. Counterfeit drugs, which include fake, substandard, adulterated, and mislabeled pharmaceuticals, have plagued the Nigeria's health care for many years leading to the establishment of the National Agency for Food and Drug Administration (NAFDAC) in 1993. It was initially reported that 70% (currently estimated at 16%) of drugs in Nigeria were fake or substandard (WHO, 2006).

These include drugs with no active ingredient(s) or drugs with insufficient active ingredients such as Chloroquine tablets (anti-malarial) containing 41mg of the active ingredient instead of 200mg, or 50mg of active ingredient in Ampicillin (antibiotic) instead of 250mg. Others include expired drugs that were re-packaged and contaminated infusions and injectables. Counterfeit drugs have contributed to the increasing drug-resistance of diseases such as malaria, HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis as well as death of an unimaginable number of Nigerians. In one incident in 1990, 47 children developed renal failure and died in the Jos University teaching hospital as a result of paracetamol syrup containing diethylene glycol. Even though NAFDAC had embarked on a remarkably fruitful campaign which significantly reduced the burden of counterfeit drugs in Nigeria, the problem still persists. In 2009, My Pikin syrup, a counterfeit teething mixture for children, was reported to have caused the death of about 84 children in Nigeria. NAFDAC also recently intercepted some fake Lonart anti-malaria tablets made of corn mill and corn starch even when malaria is a leading killer of pregnant women and children under-five years in Nigeria. The nation's pharmaceutical challenge is made worse by the lack of essential drugs in government owned health facilities otherwise known as 'out-of-stock' syndrome. Little wonder why patients resort to patronizing quacks and traditional healers in search of health or even buying drugs in every nook and cranny of the country as well as on public buses.

5. **Lack of trained personnel**- this can be in terms of trained personnel and facilities. This could be blamed on brain drain from Africa of medical personnel to the Western Nations. Lack of training for the Doctors (for update) further affects the success of the system.

6. **Brain drain Syndrome:** Given the criminal indifference to health care by successive governments at various levels, it is not surprising that skilled Nigerian medical professionals leave the country in droves every year resulting in the 'brain drain syndrome'. Nigeria is one of the main countries from whence health workers are exported globally to countries with more attractive health care systems. For instance, out of about 2000 nurses that were reported to have legally emigrated from Africa to Britain alone between April 2001 and March 2002, more than 20% were Nigerian nurses. The International Development Research Center had reported in 2004 that over 21,000 Nigerian doctors were practicing in the US yet the doctor-patient ration for Nigeria is one of the worst in the world Uneke, Ogbonna, Ezeoha, Oyibo, Onwe, & Ngwu, 2008).

The number of health workers emigrating from Nigeria in search of greener pastures abroad is most likely under-reported given that many of them do so under different categories. The wide disparity in purchasing power between a Nigerian-based health worker and foreign-based one does not help matters either. A physician practicing in Nigeria is said to earn about 25% less than his contemporaries in North America, Europe, or even Middle East. The result is an acute shortage of doctors and nurses in an already asphyxiated health care system locally. Ironically, many hospitals in the USA have at least one Nigerian in their payroll whereas 37% of all PHCs that provide antenatal and delivery services in Nigeria do not have any qualified midwife or doctor (WHO, 2010). There is also a human resource drift from rural areas to urban centers due to insecurity and lack of basic amenities in the rural areas.

7. **Lack of enough publicity** as most people don't know these healthcare centers are there. This limits their patronage.

8. **Lack of electricity** is another problem affecting delivery of medical services. No effective medical services can be delivered when there is no power supply. Electricity is unavailable or epileptic in most facilities leading to damage of sensitive equipment and refrigerated samples. In some instances, delivery of babies or even a surgical procedure is conducted with torch lights and lanterns. Most health workers in Nigeria are underpaid, over-worked, de-motivated, and lacking an enabling environment for career advancement

## MEASURES TO IMPROVE PRIMARY HEALTH CARE DELIVERY SERVICES

Health care delivery system is undergoing a lot of transformation. There have been a lot of reforms in the country. To compliment existing effort, the following measures are highlighted. The include,

1. Policies on health care delivery should be accessible and affordable, through various agencies. The government should try to assist the rural areas in providing health care delivery systems that can be done or carried out through Primary Health Care Services (PHC), where by the rural dwellers will have easy access to health services at a cheaper rate, while considering the efficient and effectiveness of the health services rendered.



2. There is need to increase public health funding the core functions of public health are to prevent epidemics, to protect the environment, the workplace and to ensure safe housing food and water. To further promote healthy behaviour, to monitor the health of the states and the country, to help mobilize communities for action on health related issues to respond to disaster, to target outreach communities for health services, to train employees for the investigation and prevention of disease, and to protect the health of the environment and the people.

3. the place of environmental sanitation cannot be misplaced: most of the causes of infant and maternal deaths are preventable infectious diseases that can be reduce by providing sanitary environments, such as provision of portable water, sewage, sewage control and refuse management and reduction of overcrowding.

4. Free pre-natal and neo-natal care: Cross River State Government has already taken the lead here. The care of women when they are pregnant is paramount. Every pregnant woman should have access to quality and free medical care throughout their term of pregnancy and delivery. Trained public health nurses and community health aids should visit mothers at home until when their children are three years old and the vaccination of children against deadly communicable diseases.

5. Enlightenment campaign and health education is needful to help change the behaviour of the people, especially rural dwellers to appreciate government efforts. Enlightenment programmes should involves areas of diet, smoking sanitation, exercise, sexually transmitted diseases and other behaviours that may impact negatively on the health of the citizenry.

6. Nutrition: the government should ensure that every child from age 6 yrs till 13 years eats quality breakfast and lunch (provision of school mid day meal and lunch by the government).

7. Improved infrastructure like roads to allow farmers to move their products with ease from the farmlands to the markets, and easy transfer of emergency cases to the hospital for medical care. One must commend senator Imoke in this regard. The rural8. Provision, improvement and proper staffing of community health hospital personnel.

8. Improvement of morbidity and mortality data collection and managements to enable the policy makers to plan and implement effective healthcare strategies.

9. Tobacco regulation: Tabacco and its products has been associated as the leading cause of most non-communicable diseases like cancer, heart disease, diabetes, stroke et certera. A government policy on the control of this product is very essential in order to improve the country health status indicators.

Conclusively, complimentary to the above strategies is the need to increase and encourage support from international agencies through an established Partners' Committee. The objectives of the partners' Committee are; to encourage stakeholders provide support agencies, universities and non-governmental organizations (NGDOs) and to provide technical, financial and material assistance to local councils. On this path, developing nations will be heading towards improving, not just the health status of her citizenry, but improving her manpower towards effective socio-economic development.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Argue for or against the claim that the wealth of any nation can be measured by the health status of it citizens.
2. Identify certain issues of concern in health care delivery services in Nigeria
3. How has harmful cultural practices affected health care delivery in Nigeria?
4. What is Primary Health Care (PHC)
5. Examine the extent of success of PHC in Nigeria

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# 10 IMPROVING RURAL FINANCIAL SYSTEM

## CHAPTER OUTLINE

- *Nature of Rural Finance*
- *Functions of rural financial system*
- *Meaning of Rural Banking*
- *Objectives of Rural Banking*
- *Financing Rural Development*
- *Rural Banking Programme*
- *Challenges of rural banking*



**F**inance is an important factor of production. Rural development cannot progress; particularly the programmes and strategies cannot be implemented in the absence of finance. Given the poverty level of the rural dwellers the need then arises for finance/capital to be mobilised to achieve rural development. The rural dwellers, including the various rural organisations and the government, should be involved in financing rural projects (Oscar, 2002). Rural finances can be obtained from both informal/non-institutional and formal institutional sources.

## NATURE OF RURAL FINANCE

Most third world countries have suffered repeated set-back in their efforts to induce sustained economic development. Since 1974, they have experienced a seemingly endless series economic shock, emanating primarily from world markets. In the light of the debt problem the total debts of developing countries amounted to more than 1,000 billion U.S. dollars in 1986. It is unlikely the attempts to maintain economic growth, especially

urban areas, through the external financing of industrialisation and of the imports required for industrialisation will succeed. Corrections in the economic policies of many Third World nations are inevitable (Oluwasola, 2000).

In this situation, these nations must rely on their own resources and potentials to further their development. This is particularly true of rural regions. The mobilisation of local resources and their efficient use through a strategy of “bottom development” has become the central problem. Self-sustaining economic and social development require a renewed emphasis on and reinforcement of labour intensive traditional economic sectors. This applies especially to agriculture and small scale enterprise, the integrative element of regional rural development. Only a strategy that proceeds from the rural economic base ultimately secure the supply of food stuffs, ensure that basic needs will be met over the long term, and prevent further impoverishment of the population.

The factors in the context must be the initiative of the inhabitants of rural areas, their organisations and their institutions. The contribution of the local population in the form of labour and monetary inputs must replace the over used practice of “spoon feeding” with loans from government agencies, which has stifled grassroots initiative and induced a “charity mentality”. For the advancement of their own initiative and for the utilisation and expansion of their resources and potentials, the small scale farmers and entrepreneurs in the rural population, including their self-help groups and the municipalities must be provided with the basic prerequisites for economic independence and flexibility.

In addition, a rural financial infrastructure must be created, that is, suited to their needs and to the local situation. In ways similar to those of rural cooperative banks and savings and loans association in Europe, this infrastructure must:

### FUNCTIONS OF RURAL FINANCIAL SYSTEM

Access to finance, especially by the poor and vulnerable groups, is an essential requisite for employment, economic growth, poverty alleviation and social upliftment. Further, financial inclusion will enable the poor and the rustics of our country to open a bank account to save and invest, to borrow and to repay, to insure and to take part in the credit. This will enable them to break the chain of poverty. The following functions are identified,

1. Mobilise the financial resources in their economic region and reserve these funds for the provision of credit to the enterprise in their various sectors of their regions economy, such as agriculture, village craftsmen, the processing of raw materials, transportation, etc.
2. Contribute to the creation and expansion of local financial and product markets, e.g., an increase in demand and employment and to an improvement in the supply of goods available in the local areas.
3. Provide the owners of the mobilised funds with additional income in the form of interest earning.

4. Link saving with the supply of credit and make both subject to the social control of savers and borrowers.

5. Rural financial institutions that perform these functions and whose programmes focus on the poor target group, private business, self-help organisation struggling for economic survival provide basic prerequisites, and thus crucial instruments, for the necessary “bottom p development” (Oscar, 2002).

### MEANING OF RURAL BANKING

These are government-sponsored or assisted banks (which are privately engaged and largely privately-owned) that provide credit facilities on reasonable terms to farmers and merchants, or to cooperatives of farmers and merchants, or in general, to the people of the rural community. They are classified into those with and without authority to accept demand deposits.

Rural banking is different because operating branches in rural areas is not cost-effective for the Banks. Osaloye (2008) maintained that they often cater to the local population by reducing the service levels. They may open sub-branches for example one day a week, or even just two mornings per week. In some even more remote areas they may have a van that they drive around to service the customers. Often if a customer has a more complex requirement they will need to travel to the nearest main branch as the staff at the sub branch or in the van is insufficiently experienced in all aspects of banking.

### OBJECTIVES OF RURAL BANKING

The rural banking programme aims at:

- 1) Encouraging banking habits among the rural population. To provide services such as the use of cheques as instrument for payment, opening of letters of credit, money transfers advisory services, issue of draft and collection of bills will help directly in fostering productivity, by offering borrowers a variety of technical services. These might include financial advise, assistance with the formulation of loan proposals, guidance in setting up a system of accounts, help in the supply of equipment, and help in the establishment of marketing facilities, and increase the banking density in the country.
- 2) Mobilising saving from the rural areas for the purpose of channeling some to profitable ventures.
- 3) Creating credit by way of equity and loans for small-scale industries.
- 4) Developing agriculture and agro-allied industries in the rural areas with a view to achieving the national objective of self-sufficiency in food production.
- 5) Reducing, to comfortable extent, the drift of young men and women from the rural areas to the urban areas.



FINANCING RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Rural development (sector) can be financed through the following ways:

- i. Establishment of Rural Development Bank. This will be a specialized bank targeted at rural projects.
- ii. The rural development financing policies for commercial banks. These are policies that will direct the commercial banks to disburse fund to the
- iii. The rural development financing policies for other banks, directing them to finance rural investments
- iv. Intensification of government efforts in rural project financing
- v. Private sector financing (informal). This is by individuals initiating and sponsoring programmes geared towards improving the wellbeing of the entire community.
- vi. Foreign investment in rural areas. This comes in the form of donors agencies, either working alone or partnering with the government at the Federal or State level.
- vii. Rural community cooperation. Entire community members can together, contribute money to carry out specific projects which will be to the benefit of the entire community. The communities organise various programmes to raise fund. It is however, more convenient for the communities to raise fund from informal sources given the difficulties in obtaining fund from the formal sources.

RURAL BANKING PROGRAMME

In July 1977 rural banking scheme was launched by the Federal Military Government through the Central Bank of Nigeria. The programme was also aimed at embracing the people in the rural area by:

- i. encouraging banking habits among the rural population;
- ii. mobilising savings from the rural areas for the purpose of channeling same to profitable ventures;
- iii. creating credit by way of equity and loans for small scale industries;
- iv. developing agriculture and agro-allied industries in the rural area with the aim of achieving the national objective of selfsufficiency in food production; and
- v. reducing to a large extent, the drift of young men and women from the rural areas to the urban areas.

CHALLENGES OF RURAL BANKING

Since after the establishment of the Rural Banking Scheme (RBS) in Nigeria, there are clear indications that the problems and issues which led to the scheme are still prevalent. These include a low level of rural savings mobilization, inadequate use of banking services, and lack of credit for rural people. The central assumptions of the scheme were that increasing the physical proximity of banks to rural people enhances

rural savings mobilization and, in turn, increases the flow of funds to the rural sector. Consequently, Nigeria established a quasi-commercial bank type of rural banking system, by means of legislation requiring commercial banks to open branches in rural areas (Oscar, 2002).

By and large, the importance of rural banking is significant to the development of the rural economy. The government must therefore set up policy measures to address issues militating against its success. The existence and effective rural banking system will encourage savings and this will go along way to encourage investment especially in commercial production and other economic activities that will benefit the lots of the rural class and the nation at large.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1. Explain the role of financial institutions in rural development
- 2. What are the functions of rural financial system
- 3. Explain the term Rural Banking
- 4. Mention the objectives of Rural Banking
- 5. Using Nigeria rural areas, identify the **challenges of rural banking**

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11

NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS & RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- Meaning of Non Governmental Organisations
- Role of NGOs in Development Cooperation
- United Nations Development Project and Development Projects in Nigeria
- The Millennium Villages project
- Challenges faced by NGOs
- Measures to strengthen the activities of NGOs



**N**on Governmental Organizations (NGOs) play an increasingly important role in the development cooperation, especially the development of rural communities. They can bridge the gap between government and the community. Community-based organizations (CBOs) are essential in organizing poor people, taking collective action, fighting for their rights, and representing the interests of their members in dialogue with NGOs and government. NGOs, on the other hand, are better at facilitating the supply of inputs into the management process, mediating between people and the wider political party, networking, information dissemination and policy reform

By creating an enabling framework of laws, economic and political conditions, the State can play a fundamental role in helping NGOs and CBOs to play their roles more effectively and as a result increase the access to infrastructural services for the urban poor. Partnerships between all groups should be achieved without ignoring each others strengths but make use of each others comparative advantage. The strength of NGOs, particularly those operating at the field level, is their ability to form close linkages to local communities, and to engender community ownership and

participation in development efforts. NGOs often can respond quickly to new circumstances and can experiment with innovative approaches. NGOs can identify emerging issues, and through their consultative and participatory approaches can identify and express beneficiary views that otherwise might not here been heard.

Over the years, NGOs have played critical role in the development of rural communities in the country, especially in the provision of basic infrastructures. They have increasingly become successful intermediaries between actors in the infrastructural development arena, building bridges between people and communities on one side, and governments, development institutions, and donors and development agencies on the other. In an advocacy role, NGOs frequently represent issues and views important in the dynamics of the development process.

However, the activities of NGOs in enhancing sustainable development, especially in rural areas were their activities are most significant have had varying degree of successes and limitations. In several degrees, the United Nations Development Projects (UNDP) has played an intervening role in enhancing development projects in the country. An assessment of their impact and challenges draws the attention of the researcher.

MEANING OF NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOS)

According to the World Bank report (2005), NGOs are simple defined to include many groups and institutions that are entirely or largely independent of government and that have primarily humanitarian or cooperative rather than commercial objectives. They are private agencies in industrial countries that support international development; indigenous groups organized regionally or nationally; and member-groups in villages. NGOs include charitable and religious associations that mobilize private funds for development, distribute food, family planning services and promote community organization. They also include independent cooperatives, community associations, water-user societies, women groups and pastoral associations. Citizen groups that raise awareness and influence policy are also NGOs.

UNDP report (2005) categories them as non-profit making, voluntary, service-oriented/development oriented organization, either for the benefit of members (a grassroots organization) or of other members of the population (an agency). The report further disclosed that,

- It is an organization of private individuals who believe in certain basic social principles and who structure their activities to bring about development to communities that they are servicing.
- Social development organization assisting in empowerment of people.
- An organization or group of people working independent of any external control with specific objectives and aims to fulfill tasks that are oriented to bring about desirable change in a given community or area or situation.
- An organization not affiliated to political parties, generally engaged in working for aid, development and welfare of the community.

- e) Organization committed to the root causes of the problems trying to better the quality of life especially for the poor, the oppressed, the marginalized in urban and rural areas.
- f) Organizations established by and for the community without or with little intervention from the government; they are not only a charity organization, but work on socio-economic-cultural activities.
- g) An organization that is flexible and democratic in its organization and attempts to serve the people without profit for itself.

NGOs nationally and internationally indeed have a crucial role in helping and encouraging governments into taking the actions to which they have given endorsement in international fora. Increasingly, NGOs are able to push around even the largest governments. NGOs are now essentially important actors before, during, and increasingly after, governmental decision-making sessions. The UN Secretary-General in 1995 said: NGOs are a basic element in the representation of the modern world, and their participation in international organizations is in a way a guarantee of the latter political legitimacy (Hague, 2007). On all continents non-governmental organizations are today continually increasing in number. And this development is inseparable from the aspiration to freedom and democracy which today animates international society... From the standpoint of global democratization, we need the participation of international public opinion and the mobilizing powers of non-governmental organizations.

## ROLE OF NGOS IN DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

The role of NGOs in development cooperation is as follows,

**i. NGOs are established, primarily to provide basic services to those who need them.** Many NGOs have demonstrated an ability to reach poor people, work in inaccessible areas, innovate, or in other ways achieve things better than by official agencies. Many NGOs have close links with poor communities. Some are membership organizations of poor or vulnerable people; others are skilled at participatory approaches. Their resources are largely additional; they complement the development effort of others, and they can help to make the development process more **accountable, transparent and participatory**. They not only "fill in the gaps" but they also act as a response to failures in the public and private sectors in providing basic services.

**ii. Most NGOs operate with support from donor agencies.** The common ground between donors and NGOs can be expected to grow, especially as donors seek to make more explicit their stated objectives of enhancing democratic processes and strengthening marginal groups in civil society. However, and in spite of a likely expansion and deepening of the reverse agenda, NGOs are likely to maintain their wariness of too close and extensive an alignment with donors. NGOs vary greatly in the

extent to which they ensure beneficiary participation within their own programs. At one extreme are NGOs whose orientation and competence are very similar to the private sector firms with whom they compete for contracts in project implementation or service delivery. The nonprofit sector as a whole competes with the for-profit sector for skilled labor, sales, and reduced cost services provision. Such NGOs may be very efficient (and in strong demand) as service deliverers but are oriented to meeting the requirements of bureaucratic funding agencies and are unlikely to use participatory processes.

**iii. NGOs are enablers and capacity builders.** Most NGOs see themselves exclusively as enablers and capacity builders and refuse to compromise their objectives or independence by collaborating in official programs. These NGOs usually do not interact much with the formal private sector. There is a lot of mutual distrust and misunderstandings between these two sectors. Often they both see only negative sides of another party existence. The formal private sector considers NGOs shallow and irresponsible, while the informal private sector often looks at for-profit organizations as greedy and selfish entities.

**iv. NGOs have played a critical role in integrating interest.** As it is mentioned already, one of the fundamental reasons that NGOs have received so much attention of late is that they are perceived to be able to do something that national governments cannot or will not do. However, it is important to recognize that relations between NGOs and governments vary drastically from region to region and country to country. For example, NGOs in India derive much support and encouragement from their government and tend to work in close collaboration with it. NGOs from Africa also acknowledged the frequent need to work closely with their government or at least avoid antagonizing the authorities. Most NGOs from Latin America offered a much different perspective: NGOs and other grassroots organizations as an opposition to government.

**v. Development of human resources.** The role played by the NGOs in the development of human resources is essential. Unfortunately, as a matter of tradition, the universities only train professionals to manage profit-making enterprises in the industrial, commercial or service areas. Non-profit organizations operate differently, even if with a great deal of heart and little money. Nevertheless, money is very important, and executives must be trained to manage it. Similarly, training in the technical area is also essential. Regardless of the field in which the work is performed, it must always be of the best possible quality and carried out in a responsible manner so that more and better services can be offered at the lowest cost. The exchange of experience and access to information about what other organizations are doing will make it possible to gain ground without having to wear oneself out in the effort or make the same mistakes that others have already committed.

Among developing economies, the difficult economic situation may force governments to yield to pressure from multilateral agencies to give money to NGOs. In these cases, the governments act as conduits of funds but are some cases try to maintain control over these NGOs precisely because of their access to funds. However, it was also



recognized that through the multilateral donors, NGO cooperation and solidarity can influence policy at the national levels. Multilateral donors may serve as a kind of "buffer" between government and NGOs in order to avoid unnecessary current tensions and to promote coherent national development strategies.

A healthy relationship is only conceivable when both parties share common objectives. If the government's commitment to improving of the provision of urban services is weak, NGOs will find dialogue and collaboration frustrating or even counter-productive. Likewise, repressive governments will be wary of NGOs which represent the poor or victimized. Where government has a positive social agenda (or even where individual ministries do) and where NGOs are effective, there is the potential for a strong, collaborative relationship. This does not mean the sub-contracting of placid NGOs, but a "genuine partnership between NGOs and the government to work on a problem facing the country or a region... based on mutual respect, acceptance of autonomy, independence, and pluralism of NGO opinions and positions."

However, such relations are rare, even when the conditions are met. The mutual distrust and jealousy appears to be deep-rooted. Governments fear that NGOs erode their political power or even threaten national security. And NGOs mistrust the motivation of the government and its officials. Though controversial and risky, many of the more strategic NGOs are overcoming their inhibitions and are seeking closer collaboration with governments. However, with closer collaboration comes increased risk of corruption, reduced independence, and financial dependency.

During the last decade, Governments have had to face up to a new concept of development and the quest for well-being. The increasing demand for services by the community and the inability of Governments to respond to these requirements, along with the cost burden confronting the developing countries in the form of repayments on international loans and an external debt beyond their ability to pay, are among the reasons that have led governments and donor or credit agencies to consider a different approach to social development co-operation involving the ascription of greater importance to the mobilization of community resources in both the financial and other areas.

The approach that donors are now tending to adopt as far as their principal function is concerned is that of providing goods and services rather than of financing them. This implies the need to train human resources, to disseminate and exchange information, and to offer technical assistance (including assistance in the area of management). Similarly, the Governments and donor agencies will be called upon to make genuine and effective contributions towards the elimination of the barriers inhibiting the self-development of the least advantaged groups.

NGOs are gradually coming to realize that attitudes of imposition, paternalism or assistance are not good alternatives to development; that the developing countries have much equipment, most of it of a highly sophisticated nature but of obsolete

technology, which either they do not know how to use or which would be too expensive to restore to operational condition; and that the entrepreneurs prefer to leave the equipment as it is and to use their money for other things. They have learned that the solution to the problems of shortages and shortcomings does not lie in making donations in kind, in addition to which they are fearful of making monetary donations, given the past instances of funds being misappropriated by certain beneficiaries.

### UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROJECT AND OTHER DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS IN NIGERIA

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the United Nations' global development network; it advocates for change and connects countries to knowledge, experience and resources to help people build a better life. UNDP operates in 166 countries, working with nations on their own solutions to global and national development challenges. As they develop local capacity, they draw on the people of UNDP and its wide range of partners.

UNDP is an executive board within the United Nations General Assembly. The UNDP Administrator is the third highest ranking official of the United Nations after the United Nations Secretary-General and Deputy Secretary-General. Headquartered in New York City, the UNDP is funded entirely by voluntary contributions from member nations. The organization has country offices in 166 countries, where it works with local governments to meet development challenges and develop local capacity. Additionally, the UNDP works internationally to help countries achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). More so,

- I. UNDP provides expert advice, training, and grant support to developing countries, with increasing emphasis on assistance to the least developed countries.
- ii. To accomplish the MDGs and encourage global development, UNDP focuses on poverty reduction, HIV/AIDS, democratic governance, energy and environment, social development, and crisis prevention and recovery.
- iii. UNDP also encourages the protection of human rights and the empowerment of women in all of its programs.
- iv. Furthermore, UNDP publishes an annual Human Development Report to measure and analyze developmental progress. In addition to a global Report, UNDP publishes regional, national, and local Human Development Reports.

### THE MILLENNIUM VILLAGE PROJECT

One of the major projects of the agency is the Millennium Villages project. This project offers a bold, innovative model for helping rural African communities lift themselves out of extreme poverty. The Millennium Villages are proving that by fighting

poverty at the village level through community led development, rural Africa can achieve the Millennium Development Goals. The MVP has the objective to make sure the project is integrated into the existing state and local government structures. Thus, once the project assistance from donors draws to a close, the project principles, systems and investments will more likely be sustained in the long run. The government and communities know that the project assistance is reduced over the 5 year life span and that they must take over full ownership afterwards.

The results thus far, at both sites, are truly remarkable. Through the MVP concept rural villagers' lives have been drastically transformed in a very short period of time as a result of effective collaboration, science based interventions in all sectors, knowledge sharing and increased funding. Local institutions have been strengthened due to the technical training provided and increase in resources available to provide services, the local Government, communities and project staff are effectively working together due to a strong partnership built among them, malaria is down due to the use of bed nets, schools have higher attendance rates due to the school feeding program and the construction of additional classrooms, clinics are teeming with people because of the availability of medicine and more health care workers, and subsistence farming is quickly turning into commercial farming due to the availability of improved farming techniques, fertilizer and seeds. The challenge now is how to provide these services to reach the millions of Nigerians living in rural communities that urgently need similar assistance and therefore scale-up the Millennium Villages concept.

**CHALLENGES FACED BY NGOS**

Ding to Odigbo & Adediran (2004) NGOs are facing a challenge to organize themselves to work in more global and strategic ways in the future. Some of these include, access to development areas, manpower to implement initiatives, having the acceptance and participation of the people for which programmes are designed to benefit, health hazards in most remotes areas, and so on. They must build outwards from concrete innovations at grassroots level to connect with the forces that influence patterns of poverty, prejudice and violence: exclusionary economics, discriminatory politics, selfish and violent personal behavior, and the capture of the world of knowledge and ideas by elites. In a sense this is what NGOs are already doing, by integrating micro and macro-level action in their project and advocacy activities. Moving from development as delivery to development as leverage is the fundamental change that characterizes this shift, and it has major implications for the ways in which NGOs organize themselves, raise and spend their resources, and relate to others.

**MEASURES TO STRENGTHEN THE ACTIVITIES OF NGOS**

The number of NGOs is growing, and they are expanding in terms of geographical representation and functional scope. Whilst the NGOs, directly or through their members, constitute an extremely useful group of actors in some respects, their full contribution to the global social processes can only be achieved if the development of the NGO network is stimulated along certain lines to correct for imbalance, side-effects and inadequate utilization. These challenges and recommendations to include,

1. The degree of organizational interlinkage would seem to preclude simplistic analysis of organizations as isolated entities. Furthermore, the network of NGOs is constantly evolving in response to new insights, possibilities, and problems. It is therefore less the pattern at any one moment which should be the focus of concern and much more the pattern-forming potential of organizational sub units and active individuals.
2. To handle the problems associated with the catchall category of NGOs, the goal should be to map organization in its broadest sense, namely as composed of relatively invariant entities. The entity is in fact a pattern of relationships, subject to change, but recognizably extended in time. The cut-off point, below which the duration of a pattern is considered too ephemeral, should be dependent upon data collection ability rather than preconceived models. This way 'of regarding the objects of attention in society helps to resolve the dichotomy between the individual and society and many other pseudo-problems resulting from the tendency, built into language, to regard entities as “things” rather than systematically related sequences of events.

This “loose” approach can be achieved by handling the entities and relationships as networks which can be processed and represented using graph theory techniques. In effect, a non quantitative topological structure of the psycho-social system is built up, to which dynamic and quantitative significance can be added as and when appropriate data becomes available.

3. Greater effort should be made to map out transnational networks (possibly by a succession of overlapping surveys) so that organizations can see their direct and indirect relationships to one another, -- and also such that second and higher order patterns of dominance can be detected. (Interorganizational maps should have the same status and accessibility as road maps in order that people can navigate more effectively through the social system.)
4. The degree of possible functional substitution between different styles of organization suggests that great care is required when establishing categories for the purposes of analysis, program elaboration or legislation. There is in fact a need for greater understanding of organizational networks as ecosystems, such that the function of a significant, but seemingly insignificant, body in a communication web can be made apparent.

A greater tolerance of the variety of organizational species is required and of the manner in which particular types are more appropriate under given conditions. (It is perhaps appropriate to note that botanists and zoologists recognize around one million plants and animals respectively whereas a sociologist might be said to recognize around one hundred types of collectivity.) A taxonomy and a new “Origin of Species” is required to knot together this variety into an evolving psycho-social system.



5. Greater stress should be placed on the network of nongovernmental nonprofit bodies as a social phenomenon rather than as an administrative or political problem for government. The degree of organization of a society is one measure of its social development. The number and variety of organizations or office-holders per capita is a measure of the participative opportunity or socializing potential of that society. Data on NGOs and their national counterparts could therefore constitute an important social indicator for development policy-making and should have a status equivalent to that of economic units of society. (As things stand, no systematic data collection on organizations between the national and local level is carried out).
6. Non-governmental, non- profit bodies pose a special problem for countries in the early stages of social development, since, as with the two-party system, they appear to constitute a threat to the stability of the government in power and are therefore the subject of suspicion if permitted to exist. Further study is required of the areas in which the different styles of NGOs can usefully function, at different stages of development, without constituting a rallying point for premature dissent. This should help to determine at what stage, and under what conditions, the (more suspect) link to an NGO becomes appropriate.
7. Besides the functions performed for their special constituencies, NGOs in a network perform functions for one another. Further study is required of the manner in which control information should be elaborated and circulated to govern the action of a network of organizations in the absence of any prime controller (due to the continuing emergence of new problems configurations) any single permanent objective.
8. The degree of interconnectedness and direct or indirect interdependence of organizations suggests that, where two organizational systems have common objectives or concerns, it is short-sighted and possible counter productive for the first system to request the second for assistance in the accomplishment of its own system objectives and to ignore or disassociate itself from the second when it pursues the same objectives in a different manner Both systems should rather seek to improve their functioning as interdependent systems and ensure that their operations mesh effectively.
9. Any successful attempt by a particular organization to mobilize all others in unquestioning support of its own programmes reduces the overall ability of the network of organizations to respond effectively to unforeseen problems. Recommendations to “regroup”, “reduce proliferation”, or “increase coordination”, should be assessed against the need for variety. The degree of fragmentation of organizational systems (whether governmental or nongovernmental) in part reflects the need for sufficient organizational frameworks through which active individuals can meaningfully participate in the social process. The interlocking complexity of the nongovernmental sector

may be considered a major insurance against undetected manipulation of social processes by elite groups provided such bodies have sufficient freedom of action to fulfill their responsibility.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the meaning of Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs)
2. Identify the **role of NGOs in development cooperation in development cooperation**
3. List **United Nations Development Programmes in Nigeria**
4. Explain the concept, The Millennium Village Project
5. Discuss the measures to strengthen the activities of NGOs

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12

**RURAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES AND THEIR  
IMPACT ON THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC LIVES  
OF RURAL DWELLERS:  
AN EXAMINATION OF CROSS RIVER STATE  
RURAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY,CALABAR**

**CHAPTER OUTLINE**

- Background of the study
- Objectives of the study
- Significance of the study
- Research questions
- Research hypotheses
- Scope of the study
- Research design
- Area of study
- Sample population
- Sampling technique
- Sample
- Instrumentation
- Validation of instrument
- Reliability of instrument
- Method of data analysis
- General description of data
- Test of hypotheses
- Discussion of findings
- Policy Recommendations



**BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

The problems of rural Nigeria have been of concern to scholars and policy makers since the 60s. The challenges of rural Nigeria to include, lack of basic infrastructures; poor access roads, a dirge of educational facilities, lack of pipe

borne water, inequality, low per capita income, high unemployment, and what have you. Esema (2007) added that they are usually characterized by poor health, lack basic nutrition, inadequate housing, are socially discriminated against and have no channels through which to voice their concerns. The argument is that there can be no true national development if the vast rural areas of Nigeria remain underdeveloped. Genuine national development must to some extent take care of the many rural areas in terms of providing the needed infrastructure to the rural areas that promote the well being of rural people.

In order to deal with these problems and transform the vast rural areas of Nigeria, into the mainstream of national development governments at various levels (federal, state and local) have come up with a number of policies and programmes. Some of these programmes are Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) 1976, the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) 1976, Green Revolution (GR), 1980 and the Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) 1985, Better Life Programme (BLP) 1986, People's Bank of Nigeria (PBN) 1986, Family Support Programme (FSP) 1987, Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) 1988, etc. The Babangida administration introduced the Directorate for Food Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI). DFRRI was an integrated approach to rural development planning. It was a comprehensive and co-ordinated approach of all stakeholders (persons and agencies) concerned, aimed at involving rural people in determining policies, planning and implementing programmes that are designed to improve their economic, social and cultural conditions and enable them to make a positive contribution to national development. In 1999 Obasanjo administration instituted a new programme tagged National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP).

In spite of the above policies and programmes the poverty level has remained unchanged, particularly in the rural areas. In Cross River State, investigation shows most rural communities lack basic social and economic amenities which, impact negatively on the well being of the people. In an attempt to address the problems of rural poverty, the Senator Liyel Imoke led administration, in 2007 instituted an agency called the Rural Development Agency. The agency was established with the aim of providing infrastructure needed for the socio-economic advancement of the rural areas vis a vis the development of the state. Since its establishment, the questions that readily come to mind here are what are the activities of Rural Development Agency in the State? What are the impacts of the activities of the Agency on the socio-economic lives of the rural people? What are the problems hindering the smooth operation of the Agency? What are the strategies for the effective performance of the Agency? These questions and others are the concern of this study.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

Generally, the study examines rural development policies and their impact on the socio-economic lives of rural dwellers. Specifically, the study seeks to achieve the following,

1. Examine the activities of the Cross River State Rural Development Agency (RUDA).
2. Assess the impact of these activities on the socio-economic lives of the people (education, health, income, access roads, etc).
3. Find out the major problems hindering the operations of the Agency.
4. Provide strategies for the effective performance of the Agency and the development of the state.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings generated from this study will help the government identify factors which hindered successive approaches to improving the lives of rural dwellers. Findings from the study will further help the government identify, define and apply the most suitable measures of addressing the problems of rural dwellers. It will further assist them to establish a policy framework that maximizes the incomes of the working rural dwellers through policies to promote rural self-employment and reliability.

Also, the study will help policy makers develop strategies to sustain on going rural development programmes and adopt new once to improve the economic conditions of rural dwellers. To rural dwellers, the study will help them appreciate the on going effort of the government towards rural poverty. Investigations from the study will further help rural dwellers identify their complimentary role in sustaining the programmes of government.

Further researchers will find the researcher findings useful formulating research questions and hypothesis to guide their study. Literature generated in the study, will also help them develop appropriate framework and theoretical framework for their study.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- The study will be guided by specific research questions to guide the empirical investigation. These are,
1. What are the activities of the Rural Development Agency in the state?
  2. What are the impacts of these activities on the socio-economic lives of the rural people?
  3. What are the major problems hindering the operations of the agency?
  4. What useful strategies can be useful for the effective performance of the agency?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The study will be guided by three (3) basic assumptions. These are,

1. The provision of portable water by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has not improved the health status of the people in rural lives.
2. The provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by the Cross River

- State Rural Development Agency has not improved the educational level of the rural people.
3. The provision of basic road network in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has not improved the income level of the rural dwellers.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

**The study is conducted in Cross River State.** Three local government areas (LGAs) were carefully selected from the three senatorial District of the State. In the Northern Senatorial District was Ogoja, in the Central, Ikom and in the South, Odukpani local government area was chosen. This selection was intended to help represent the entire State. The researcher examines RUDA and its impact on the socio-economic lives of the rural people.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The descriptive nature of the study as well as the descriptive characteristics of the respondents justifies the use of the descriptive research design. The design does not only allow for easier tabulation of data derived but makes for meaningful analyses which permit generalizations that may advance knowledge. The method further supports the use of large and small populations, which this study adopts. This is done by selecting and studying samples chosen from the populations to discover the relative incidence, distribution and interrelationship among variables.

Under this design, extensive use of survey method is employed. Osuala (1993) had contended that survey method is versatile and practical in discovering the relative incidence, distribution and interaction of both sociological and psychological variables in a chosen population. Survey method is a form of descriptive design, which is aimed at collecting small and large samples from population in order to examine the distribution incidence and interaction that exist between them. It is equally oriented towards the determination of the status of the research phenomenon or subject. In this study, the researcher is concerned with the characteristics of the whole population, achieved through a determined sample size, which results, is given a generalization. The researcher selected three local government areas within the three geographical zone of the State. In the Northern Senatorial District, Ogoja Local Government Area was chosen; in the Central, Ikom and in the South, Odukpani Local Government Area was chosen. This selection was intended to represent the three Senatorial zone of the State.

This methodology is adopted as a logical approach to help in administration and collection of data which would help the researcher examine enhance the formulated hypotheses. In addition to the survey method used, extensive library research on the impact of rural development policies on rural lives.

AREA OF STUDY

**The study was conducted in Cross River State.** Three local government areas (LGAs) were carefully selected from the three senatorial District of the State. In the

Northern Senatorial District was Ogoja, in the Central, Ikom and in the South, Odukpani local government area was chosen. This selection was intended to help represent the entire State.

Ogoja Local Government Area is located in the Northern Senatorial District of Cross River State. It is perhaps one of the oldest LGAs in Nigeria, the only former provincial headquarters that has not yet been made a State. Ogoja is well-drained with River Monaya, Aya River and many others, which favour rice cultivation, fruits and yam in relatively large quantities. Nevertheless, with this locational advantage, Ogoja LGA is still roped in the web of poverty due to mostly poor road accessibility, inadequate potable water facilities, ill equipped medical centers, poor housing, and other basic infrastructures that can promote good living; perhaps most importantly, the absence of agricultural subsidies to willing and deserving farmers.

Ikom is located in the Central Senatorial District of Cross River State. In terms of centrality, Ikom is the most central area in the State, comparing its distance between the North and the South. Ikom is well drained with the Cross River and its tributaries, well aerated and a good tropical (equatorial) climate. Ikom is the highest producer of Cocoa in the State. However, like most other places, Ikom local government area is faced with the problem of adequate rural infrastructures, like poor road network. This affects agricultural and other socio-economic activities in the area.

On the other hand, Odukpani local government area is located in the Southern Senatorial District of the State. Like other local government areas mentioned above, Odukpani is well drained by the lower Cross River and the Calabar River with their tributaries. Located partly at the mangrove and rainforests, Odukpani has the potential of producing rice, sugar cane, most producers of fruits and vegetables, consumed in Calabar and some parts of Akwa Ibom State. This coastal LGA is however amongst the most remote area of the State due to poor accessibility of road network, poor educational facilities, unequal access to portable water, inadequate storage facilities, especially to her farming population, and so on. The three LGAs discussed here as case studies are agrarian in nature and have peculiar problems of poor road network, poor educational facilities, uneven access to portable water, poor health condition, and poor farm subsidies which affects their agricultural activities, their socio-economic activities.

### **SAMPLE POPULATION**

The 18 local government areas in Cross River State is the sample population for the study. Among these local government areas, three local government areas, carefully selected across the three senatorial districts of the State (Ogoja in the North, Ikom for the Central and Odukpani in the South) formed the sample size used to generate data in testing the research hypotheses stated to guide this study.

### **SAMPLING TECHNIQUE**

The sampling technique used to determine the actual number of the individuals in the target population was the stratified sampling method. The method involved

dividing a population into its strata from which random samples are drawn. It was appropriate; as it helped the researcher to divide its sample audience across the three senatorial districts of the State.

However, to select three local government areas, one from each strata or senatorial district, the researcher adopted the purposive sampling method. This was characterized by the use of judgment and deliberate effort to obtain representativeness of the areas chosen. As such, three local government areas across the three senatorial districts were deliberately chosen; Ogoja in the North, Ikom for the Central and Odukpani in the South. The selection was a deliberate attempt for equal representation of the entire State, as each local government area selected is central in its senatorial districts.

From this stratification, purposive sampling technique was relevant in choosing the needed sampling population for the study. For the identified LGAs, 150 respondents were selected, choosing 50 respondents from each LGA. The selection was purposive to reflect the appropriateness need of the sample population. The selection included, Farmers, Business men and Civil Servants. They were better placed in providing useful information needed to answer the research question and examine the socio-economic impact of rural development policies on the lives of the people.

### **SAMPLE**

From the sample size considered, the researcher went further to adopt the stratified sampling method to sub classify the sample size into groups. In the stratification, rural farmers were 30, business men 10 and the civil service class, 10. The farmers were so given high priority, as they are the most affected by the challenges of rural policies. In each of the three local government areas visited, the farmers were met on their way to the way. In Ogoja, Abakpa was used; in Ikom, Okuni and Uyagha in Odukpani local government area. The business men were met in their business premises, while the council headquarters were visited to have the audience of the civil service class. At each point, a research questionnaire was sample. Added to the information obtained from the research questionnaire, the researcher also conducted interview with members of staff (6 Directors) of the State Rural Development Agency. The questions were structured but in-depth. This was done during official hours.

### **INSTRUMENTATION**

Two research instruments were used; the questionnaire and in-depth interview methods. A research questionnaire was developed and used to obtain data in the study. The instrument was more efficient and practical as it's highly impersonal and allows for the use of a larger sample. The questionnaire was tagged "Impact of rural development policies on rural lives". It contained two parts; Part A deals with the background data (sex, age, marital status and academic qualification) of the respondents while, Part B contained structured closed-ended and open ended questions about the research variables. The open ended questions were to enable the respondents express their opinions



on issues not included in the structured questions. They structured questions were structured using Likert Scale method of 'Strong Agreed, Agreed, Disagreed and Strongly Disagreed'.

The questions reflected the research questions earlier raised to guide in the study in achieving its objectives. The questions were carefully developed to reflect the variables in the research hypotheses. This was to serve the singular purpose of helping the researcher use the data obtain to test the variables and establish valid conclusions.

The choice of a questionnaire was important in this study because it does not call for personal identification, there was greater impersonality. It also helped the researcher to elicit more candid and objective information from the respondents. It further permitted more considered answers, as each respondents are open to the options of admitting, not admitting and/or being on the side of indecision were not completely certain about his/her position on the question asked.

A structured in-depth interview schedule was developed and also used to further obtain relevant data in the course of the study. It involves the use of interview guide which contains the list of issues and variables to be discussed and measured respectively. The interview was conducted on Members of Staff (6 Directors) of the State Rural Development Agency. At the end of the exercise, responses provided the researcher detailed information on the research problem earlier stated. The method also offered the researcher the opportunity to obtain detail data on the projects implemented, its impacts and challenges which the agency is faced with in the course implementing rural development projects.

### VALIDATION OF INSTRUMENT

In validating the instruments (questionnaire and interview methods) used in the study, Construct Validity was used. It enabled the researcher to determine whether the instruments are tied to the concepts and the theoretical assumptions that are employed in this study. It also helped to assess the content of the instruments used and to the extent to which it is related to or cut across the purpose of this study.

A pilot study was undertaken in Odukpani Local Government Area. This comprises of pre-test and post-test using 10 percent (15 questionnaires) each of the total questionnaire constructed. Correlation coefficient was used to test the relationship between the questions so constructed and the theoretical assumptions in the study. The tests (Pre-test,  $T_1$  and Post-test,  $T_2$ ) enabled the researcher to determine whether the questions contained in the questionnaire really elicited the information required to help test the theoretical assumptions.

### RELIABILITY OF INSTRUMENT

To establish reliability of the measuring instruments used, check questions were applied. They were meant to test the degree of consistency of the respondent's responses. For instance, a question of this nature "Has the agency provided any maintenance mechanism to ensure the sustenance of the projects?" we asked in one place and repeated in another place but in a different form in the same questionnaire

schedule as "Is there any provision by the agency to maintain the established roads in your community?" This helped to check the respondent's response to the first case. This question was asked not only to test its reliability but also reinforced the information that may be supplied by respondents on the maintenance of rural projects in the state.

### METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data collected were properly checked to make sure all items were responded to. Thereafter, they were edited, coded and analyzed using appropriate statistical methods. Used were frequency distribution tables, cross tabulations, percentage and Chi-square ( $X^2$ ) test of significance. The test of significance is best on the .05 level.

### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF DATA

The questionnaire and interview schedules were structured such that data obtained helped the researcher achieve the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was administered to one hundred and fifty (150) respondents, choosing through a stratified process, 50 from each of the three Local Government Areas (Ogoja, Ikom and Odukpani) selected across the three Senatorial Districts of the State. From the 50 respondents from each district; 30 were rural farmers, 10 Business Men and the other 10 were Civil Servants. The farmers group was given more attention as they were considered to be the most vulnerable group to rural poverty and thus desire the impact of government policies.

### TEST OF HYPOTHESES

The verification of hypotheses for this study will be done using two statistical methods: percentage distribution and chi-square statistic. While the percentage distribution helps in comparing and describing the data obtained, the chi-square test of independence is to determine whether a statistical relationship exist between the variables intended to be verified.

**Hypothesis 1: The provision of potable water by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has not improved the health status of rural dwellers.**

TABLE 1  
Chi-square (X<sup>2</sup>) response distribution to assess the impact of the provision of pipe borne water by RUDA and its impact on the health status of the people in rural areas

Variables	Responses				TOTAL
	SA	A	D	SD	
Water supply	25 (29.4)	40 (37.9)	15 (16.3)	18 (14.4)	98
Health status of the people	20 (15.6)	18 (20.1)	10 (8.7)	4 (7.6)	52
					150

Calculated X<sup>2</sup> - 194.4; Table value of Chi - 7.82; Level of significance - .05; Degree of freedom - 3.

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork, (June, 2010)

Decision:

The response on Table 1 shows that the provision of potable water by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has a significant improvement in the health status of rural dwellers. This implies that the agency has been functional in its approach of providing portable water in rural communities across the country.

From among the questions asked the respondents in the questionnaire for instance, “Has the provision of portable water in your community by RUDA improved your health status?” a significant percentage of the respondents acknowledged that, pipe bone water provided by the agency, has reduced the incidence of cholera and other water diseases.

Equally, when the data were tested with chi-square test of independence, the computed value of X<sup>2</sup> was 194.4, while its tabulated value at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom was 7.82. Based on the result, since the calculated value of chi is greater than the tabular value, we ignore the null hypothesis (H0) and accept the alternative that, the provision of portable water by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has improved the health status of rural dwellers.

Hypothesis 2: The provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has not improved the educational level of rural dwellers.

TABLE 2  
Chi-square (X<sup>2</sup>) response distribution to assess the impact of the provision of educational infrastructure by RUDA and its impact in improving the educational level of rural people

Variables	Responses				
	SA	A	D	SD	TOTAL
Educational infrastructure	38 (37.4)	20 (22.2)	28 (25)	18 (19.4)	104
Educational level (attainment) of the rural people	16 (16.6)	12 (9.8)	8 (11)	10 (8.6)	46
					150

Calculated X<sup>2</sup> - 212.5; Table value of Chi -7.82; Level of significance- .05; Degree of freedom - 3  
Source: author's Fieldwork, (June, 2010)

Decision:

Response on Table 2 showed that the provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has improved the educational level of rural people. In other words, with the establishment of RUDA, and through the implementation of its various educational projects, there has improved the educational standard of the rural people.

The Table 4.2 exhibit these characteristics; the computed value of X<sup>2</sup> stood at 212.5, while its tabulated value at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom is 7.82. Since the calculated value of X<sup>2</sup> which is 212.5 is greater than the critical table value of 7.82 at 0.05, we ignore the null hypothesis that, the provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has not improved the educational level of rural people, and accept the alternative that, the provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has significantly improved the educational level of rural people. They respondents commended the efforts of RUDA in improving their educational level. Areas of educational projects included the construction of new classroom blocks, desks, provision of textbooks and equipping of school libraries.

Hypothesis 3: The provision of basic road network in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has not improved the income level of the rural dwellers.

TABLE 3

Chi-square ( $X^2$ ) response distribution to assess the impact of provision of basic road network in rural areas by RUDA and its impact in improving the income level of rural dwellers

Variables	Responses				TOTAL
	SA	A	D	SD	
asic road network	28 (18.4)	18 (22.2)	38 (36.7)	22 (24.7)	106
ncome level					
f rural dwellers	8 (7.6)	12 (9.8)	14 (15.3)	13 (10.3)	44
					150

Calculated  $X^2$  - 9.91; Table value of Chi - 7.82; Level of significance - .05; Degree of freedom -3

Source: Author's Fieldwork, (June, 2010)

Decision:

The response on Table 3 shows that the provision of basic roads by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has significantly improved the income level of the rural dwellers. The response as indicated in the table shows that the computed value of  $X^2$  stood at 9.91, while its tabulated value at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom is 7.82.

Since the calculated value of Chi-square which is 9.91 is greater than the critical table value of 7.82 at 0.05, we ignore the null hypothesis that, the provision of basic road network in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has not improved the income level of the rural dwellers, and accept the alternative that, the provision of basic road network in rural areas by Cross River State Rural Development Agency has improved the income level of the rural dwellers.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In this study, certain findings were arrived at based on data gathered from the field and subject to appropriate statistical measure. This chapter discusses the major results of the study and their implications on the socio-economic lives of rural dwellers in Cross River State. It also presents the constraints faced by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency, and how these constraints can be improved upon.

1. The provision of portable water by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency and its impact on the health status of rural dwellers

Results from the study shows that the provision of portable water by RUDA has a significant impact in improving the health of rural dwellers. This conclusion was obtained subjecting data obtained from the respondents to statistical testing, using chi-square test of independence. When the data were tested, the result showed that the computed value of  $X^2$  of 167.6 was greater than the critical table value of 16.919, determined at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom. The finding confirmed the earlier position of Antai (2004), that a responsible government provides basic facilities for the improvement of her rural population, especially, the provision of potable water to reduce their vulnerability to disease, thereby improving their health status. This finding confirms our earlier emphasis, on the relevance and access to potable water in the development and sustenance of any economy.

The findings also strengthens the contention of Dele (2006) that access to portable water is significantly important and the government must ensure that it is accessible to his citizens if rural health must be enhanced and sustained. There is hope with the introduction of the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF). The programme is intended to create 8800 safe water sources by the end of 2007, including 1200 sources in schools and learning areas. The programme combines the installation of new water points with the upgrading and renovation of existing facilities. UNICEF supports the installation of sanitary facilities in communities and schools and the programme will have benefited at least 4000 communities by the end of 2007 (Moses, 2008). Provision and access to portable water not only ensure optimal child health and survival but also provide a major boost to the health condition of the people. Providing safe water sources is vital for community development as a whole, shortening the amount of time that women spend walking every day to fetch and carry water.

2. The provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency and its in improving the educational status of rural people

Result presented in Table 2 showed that the activities of RUDA in providing basic educational facilities have a significant impact on the lives of rural dwellers. The result obtained from the calculated value of  $X^2$  stood at 212.5, while its tabulated value at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom is 7.82 This result was in favour of the alternative hypothesis, stating that the provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by RUDA has improved the educational level of rural people.

The importance of education, especially in improving rural lives cannot be over stated. The finding confirms the position of Taiwo (1996) that education is a powerful instrument for the development of man and the society; it is the key to increasing economic efficiency in the rural economy and promoting social consistency. By increasing the value and efficiency of rural labor, it helps to raise the poor from poverty. It increases the overall productivity and intellectual flexibility of the labor force; ensures that a country is competitive in world markets now characterized by changing



technologies and production methods. No country can achieve proper rural development without substantial investment in human capital of her rural dwellers. Education raises the people's productivity and creativity level, and further act as an instrument for securing economic and social progress.

Education creates improved citizens and helps to upgrade the general standard of living in a society. Therefore, positive social change is likely to be associated with the production of qualitative citizenry. It would seem to follow naturally that if more individuals are educated, the wealth of nation would rise, since more education attracts higher wages and aggregate higher national income. And if there are positive externalities of education, national income should increase by even more than the sum of the individual benefits. This increasing faith in education as an agent of change in many developing countries including Nigeria has led to a heavy investment in it (Antai, 2007). Generally, this goes with the belief that expanding access to qualitative education promotes the economic growth of the rural activities.

However, the attempts to improve educational opportunities for disadvantaged rural groups, is yet to be at its fullest. The lack of adequate educational infrastructures like classroom blocks, desk, textbooks, school libraries, etc, constrain the educating process in rural areas. Lack of qualified teachers also causes a serious set back to the effort. The teachers remain at the centre of education. This confirms the earlier concern of Daniel (2004) that they teachers should be trained to be able to meet up with the challenges of training the educationally disadvantage population.

Daniel (2004) argued to improve on the existing strides, there is need to improve on the distribution of educational resources so that poor children are not unfairly relegated to the most disadvantaged schools. Basic education and the provision of learning materials must continue to be the number one priority for public investment, particularly in areas which have not achieved universal primary education. Many school systems are centralized and communities have little or no inputs to the education of their children, thus the school is seen as alien to the life and work of the community. In particular, it is crucial that the voices of the communities and groups being served are heard and they be intimately involved in needs defining priorities and the design of programmes to meet their social and economic needs.

3. **The provision of basic road network in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency and its impact on improved income level of the rural dwellers**

In the analysis of data represented in Table 4.7, the result of the computed value of  $X^2$  stood at 9.91, while its tabulated value at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom is 7.82. Since the calculated value of Chi-square which is 9.91 is greater than the critical table value of 7.82 at 0.05, the alternate hypothesis was accepted. This implied that the provision of basic road network in rural areas by the Cross River State Rural Development Agency has improved the income level of rural dwellers.

Critical to this finding is that, out of the 58 rural roads mapped out by the agency to construct and repair, so far 18 have been completed and commission and more are till under construction. This effort, the respondents maintains have created the following opportunities in rural areas,

1. Newly access roads has helped the farmers to have easy transportation of their produce to markets
2. Access rural roads have become a catalyst to business opportunities in the rural communities. Rural economic advantages is now been fully appreciated
3. Easy access to the market has led to reduction in the problem of having farms produces, especially perishable produces like vegetables get bad before they reach the market. This has helped increase the profit margin of rural farmers and encourage the propensity to save
4. Access road has increased the interest of rural dwellers, especially, children to go to school. This was not the case in the past because accessibility to schools was difficult. With the opening up of roads, educational activities has grown rapidly in the rural areas
5. Health risk has also been reduced, as health centers are easily assessed without necessarily having to walk along distance through bus tracks, etc.

Since the rural economy depends much on road transportation, in that it facilitates agricultural and other socio-economic activities, the provision and maintenance of the access road is a sine qau non for the development of the rural economy. Aliyu (2004) confirmed that the development of small scale business which has been recommended as a strategy for improving the rural economy, hinges on access roads. Good roads need not be tarmac, but even a well-graded gravel road for the rural dwellers is appreciated when one has to travel to a hospital or to source a market with better prices. Institution as the Federal Roads Maintenance Agency (FERMA) is important in ensuring that the country's road network is up to scratch. Since the FERMA came into being, previously having been known as the National Roads Board, it has been instrumental in funding the development and maintenance of major roads in the country.

Antai (2007) emphasized that access rural roads are important elements in rural development, as it facilitate all aspects of development; agriculture, health, education, forestry, fisheries, small-scale industries, trade, commerce etc. that depends on good communication. Rural transportation network will give shape to the living environment of villagers; rather roads of rural transportation are the connectivity elements in our society. Appropriate combination of various links both technically and economically can generate rural traffic infrastructure, which should be prepared for the measure of land development. Rural road connectivity is not only the key component of rural development; it is also recognized as an effective poverty reduction programme. An improved accessibility to all quarters of a village is an indispensable prerequisite for the provision of adequate living conditions in rural areas. The interdependency in change of

land use and transportation is not promoted in rural areas and this keeps the economic system inactive in these areas. The absence of roads in rural areas leads to stagnation of socio-economic conditions of the villagers.

However Hague (2007) added that proper maintenance is critical because rainstorms can be tremendously intense. Thus, small areas of road decay can very rapidly expand under the forces of erosion and weathering in the rainy season. Much of the problems associated with the erosion of roadways are compounded by the lack of adequate drainage infrastructure (which also makes driving hazardous during heavy rains). This concern calls for prompt and adequate attention.

The findings of this study provide us with some evidence to reach some specific conclusions. These are that, the need to improve and sustain the provision of potable water by RUDA so that the health status of the people can be improved. These provisions must be evenly spread. This supports Antai (2007) assertion that, there is need to provide a mechanism for the effective maintenance of government projects. A better way to do this is to involve community members in designing and implementing projects. The consultative process will allow rural people to express their goals and priorities. Experience advanced by scholar's shows that when rural people are given the opportunity to express their views, they add real value to the quality of the resulting decision and guard the projects, with the consciousness that it is their own.

This consciousness promotes greater responsibility in monitoring the sustenance of the project. Akintola (2000) added training the rural people to provide some technical assistance in the course of implementing projects enables them to identify, prepare and implement their own subprojects, thereby augmenting their capacity to compete for investment funds. Project experts should therefore be employed to train members of the rural communities on basic technical skills, thereby improving their manpower power capacity to maintain basic projects after provision has been made by the government and its agency.

On the provision of educational infrastructures in rural areas, the second finding obtained from the analysis of data was affirmative. It was established that the provision of educational infrastructure in rural areas by RUDA has significantly improved the educational level of rural dwellers. The importance of education was founded on the fact that it increases the productivity and intellectual flexibility of the rural labor force; ensures their ability to compete favorably with their urban counterpart, especially in world markets now characterized by changing technologies and production methods. Education is the greatest assets needed to empower the rural population. He further added that, ensuring proper access to education for the rural less privilege is the foundation upon which any other transformative effort rest. Education raises the people's productive level, and further secures their economic and social progress.

Finally, it was revealed in the study that the provision of basic road network in rural areas by RUDA has significantly improved the income level of rural dwellers. Access road remains a catalyst for improved economic activities in rural areas,

especially agricultural production; it enables easy access to the market, which reduces the problem losing perishable farms produce. Access roads have helped increase the profit margin of rural farmers and encourage their propensity to save. It has further increased the interest of rural children to go to school, especially, when it is at close proximity. With the opening up of roads, educational and economic activities have grown rapidly in rural areas.

We can therefore conclude using the position of Colwell & Greene (2008) that there is a dire need to resuscitate the rural economies by advancing their course. A strategy to achieve rural development and sustain growth must be founded on the provision of basic infrastructures necessary to improve live. By improving social infrastructures of educational facilities, good road networks, portable water, among others, the continuing drive towards improving the rural lives will be sustainable realized.

## POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations made and their successful implementation could go along way in changing the lives of rural dwellers. The findings of this study suggest the need to improve the provision of infrastructural facilities in rural dwellers. The recommendations are discussed below,

**1. Improve access to portable water in rural areas:** Since improving access to portable water in rural communities remains a major determinant to improving their health, more efforts must be made to improve its access. In the years past, emphasis has been on large scale investments, but many of the water schemes have been poorly designed with adverse health consequences. Some of the schemes are not functioning due to faulty installation or lack of maintenance. The major water development projects are concentrated in the urban areas. And most of these projects remain uncompleted, while those that were completed have long broken down without any serious plans to rehabilitate them. There is therefore need to improve, refocus provision priority to the rural areas where there is felt need for water supply.

Improving the provision of portable water will hinge on an integrated scheme of technical, operational, and financial issues right from the start of the planning process to its final implementable stage. Emphases should be placed on the provision of hand pumps and wells, especially in the rural areas where large segments of the population live. Rain harvesting should be encouraged and the appropriate technology for sorting such water collected should be made available both in urban and rural areas.

**2. Provision of educational facilities to improve learning:** Also, the study further establishes that education is critical to rural development. Improving the base of rural education is an instrument for securing economic and social progress. Giving attention to improve educational facilities in rural areas will influence their social welfare. Education, in no small respect, is the greatest investment the state can make to improve all spheres rural social and economic life.



Aliu (2001) stated that there is need to further improve upon the present level of existing facilities. He maintained that, no effective education can take place without improving, from time to time, its facilities, especially, instructional facilities. Osuala (1993) said instructional materials are indispensable tools with which the teacher enhances his/her effectiveness. The pupils on their parts are able to develop problem-solving skills, positive attitudes and maintain functional knowledge. Instructional facilities are equipments and materials utilized by the teacher to illustrate emphasize and explain a lesson with the intension of making it clearer to the learner. These materials include all forms of information carriers that can be used to promote and encourage effective teaching and learning activities. He referred to these materials as textbooks, workbooks, reference books, magazines, maps, journals, pamphlets, newspapers, posters, models, globe boards, film strips and pictures Effective teaching is greatly enhanced by the use of appropriate methods, techniques and instructional aids.

In the above context, Besley (2002) maintained that instructional facilities are seen as materials the teacher can use to enable the realization of set objectives of an instruction. The realization of objectives of any lesson is thus determined by the availability and effective utilization of instructional resources. Effective classroom communication cannot be ensured without the adequate use of learning resources. This is because classroom communication involves pupil's active participation in the teaching and learning process. Through the interaction between teacher and pupils, reciprocal response adjustment can be made. Based on this premise, it will be justified to assert that, it is through this two-way traffic system in education programme, that real practical learning takes place.

The government must promote the use of instructional facilities. This will increase educational performance. The students will be able to develop problem-solving skills, positive attitudes and maintain functional knowledge. Adequate textbooks and reference books are also a basic requirement for ensuring good quality education. This must be consolidated with good learning environment, especially, the provision of classroom blocks, chairs and other necessary factors that would make learning convenience.

**3. Provision of more access roads in rural areas:** Finally, the provision of basic road network is indispensable to improving the lots of rural areas. Since the rural economy depends much on road transportation for the movement of goods and services, the provision and maintenance of good road network will improve their lots. Strategies for maintaining rural roads must be well planned and adequately funded. This will facilitate among other things, the development of other socio- economic sub sector, thus improving the overall rural economic and social activities.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. With particular emphasis on poverty reduction and rural development, identify a suitable research problem/topic

2. Write a simple but comprehensive research proposal on the identified topic. In your proposal, identify the following,

- (a) Statement of problem
- (b) Objectives of the study
- (c) Significance of the study
- (d) Research questions
- (e) Research hypotheses
- (f) Scope of the study
- (g) Research design
- (h) Area of study
- (i) Sample population
- (j) Sampling technique
- (k) Sample
- (l) Instrumentation
- (m) Validation of instrument
- (n) Reliability of instrument
- (o) Method of data analysis

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