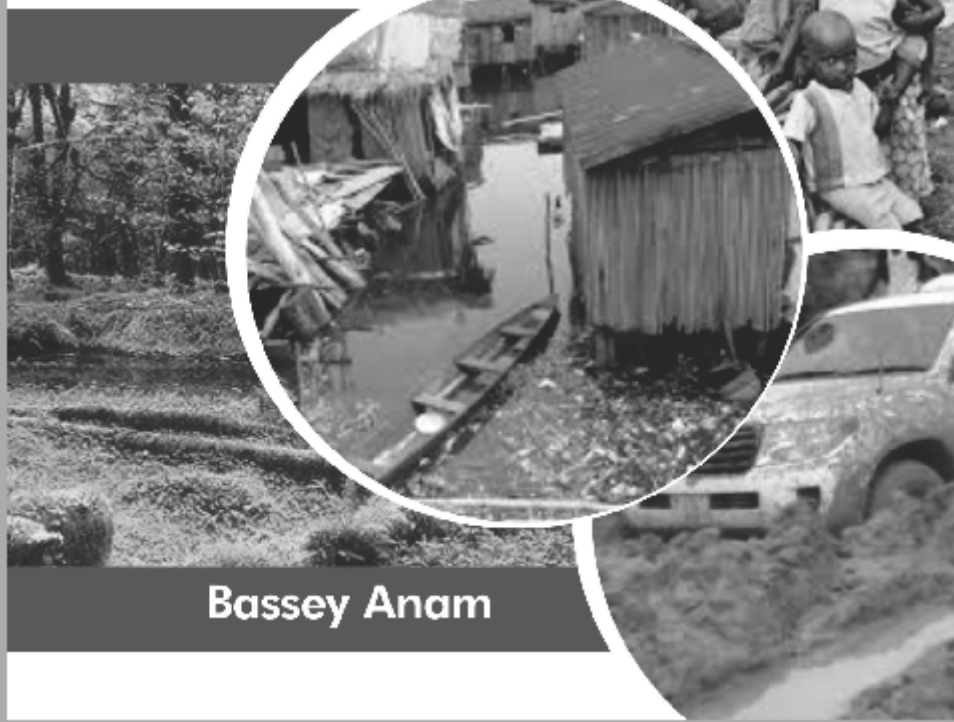


Understanding Community & Rural Development

2nd Edition



Bassey Anam

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Dedication



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

"Well structured and clear in its arguments"

Well structured and clear in its arguments, outlining emerging principles and strategies in community and rural development and sustainability. The array of topics covered in the book is impressive and it is clear that the research done by the author is vast and the level of details is meticulous.

The book is an excellent resource for lecturers and students of Community and Rural Development, as well as a training resource for stakeholders in the sector.

May I congratulate the excellent work of the author for painstaking effort in bringing out these valuable truths!

Foreword by
DR JUDITH OTU
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University of Calabar, Nigeria

Introducing the Second Edition...

“Go to the people;
Live with them, Learn from them,
Start with what they know, Build with what they have”

First published in 2011 as *Understanding Rural Development!* This Second Edition, *Understanding Community and Rural Development*, is an attempt to examine the complimentary approach; theoretical and practical dimensions of community development initiative to sustainable rural development.

Rural development generally refers to the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. Rural development has traditionally centered on the exploitation of land-intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry. However, changes in global production networks and increased urbanization have changed the character of rural areas. The need for rural communities to approach development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentive for agricultural or resource based businesses. This has increasingly brought to bear the need for Community Centered Development Approach; developing the power, skills, knowledge and experience of people as individuals and in groups, to enable them undertake personal initiatives in combating social, economic, political and environmental problems.

Written in Two Parts; Part 1, *Understanding Community Development*, Part 2, *Understanding Rural Development*, the book examines key contemporary, theoretical and empirical issues within the purview of the subject matter. Research findings handed down in this book as well as the results already achieved elsewhere show that community based development strategy is useful in enhancing rural communities' inherent potential and thereby securing their long-term survival.

Each chapter contains a number of self-tests review questions. These allow you to check your progress as you work through each topic. It is advisable that you think very hard about these questions and attempt to answer them without necessarily referring back to the literature. You will therefore, judge whether all or some of the materials contained in them apply to practical environment. Your opinion here therefore, matters a lot, as there are various answers to these questions.

This book provides very valuable information for practitioners, lectures and students; Undergraduate and Graduate taking courses and research in Community and Rural Development, Economics of Rural and Community Development, Agricultural Extension and Rural Development and related disciplines. Surely, this Edition will cover an existing gap and contribute to bring the issue of community and rural development forward.

Dr (Mrs.) A. S. Antai
Department of Economic
University of Calabar

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PART ONE:
PERSPECTIVES ON
COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT





Understanding Community Development

A Community is not a static place within a static landscape, but rather a lively, self-reinforcing resonance of ever-changing, interactive, interdependent system of relationships. More importantly, a community is not just the people who are currently in it. For purpose of community development it is important to learn exactly what a particular community of focus is all about as well as what it is they are trying to develop. The following will be examined in this chapter,

- 1.1 Meaning of community
- 1.2 Characteristics of a community
- 1.3 Meaning of community development
- 1.4 Values and principles of community development
- 1.5 Community development strategies

1.1 Meaning of Community

The term 'Community' is often used loosely to mean 'the population of a certain locality'. In reality, people may belong to several different communities at the same time, some close at hand, some more scattered, whilst other people belong to a few or, if they are isolated, to none. The community may be a residential community, a working or visiting community or a community of interest. Community activity nurtures human bonds, providing more attractive places to live and work.

From sociological standpoint, German sociologist Ferdinand Tönnies distinguished between two types of human association: Gemeinschaft (usually translated as "community") and Gesellschaft ("society" or "association"). In his 1887 work, *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft*, Tönnies argued that Gemeinschaft is perceived to be a tighter and more cohesive social entity, due to the presence of a "unity of will." He added that family and kinship were the perfect expressions of Gemeinschaft, but that other shared characteristics, such as place or belief, could also result in Gemeinschaft. This paradigm of communal networks and shared social understanding has been applied to multiple cultures in many places throughout history. Gesellschaft, on the other hand, is a group in which the individuals who make up that group are motivated to take part in the group purely by self-interest. He also proposed that in the real world, no group was either pure Gemeinschaft or pure Gesellschaft, but, rather, a mixture of the two (Adedeji, 1990).

According to the sociologist Mervin Verbit (in Anderson, 1991) community may be understood as one of the key components of religiosity. And communal involvement itself may be broken down into four dimensions:

1. Content
2. Frequency
3. Intensity
4. centrality

The content of one's communal involvement may vary from person to person (or from one religious organization to the next), as will the degree of the person's participation (frequency), and the intensity and centrality of that involvement (for that person).

In a seminal 1986 study, McMillan and Chavis identify four elements of "sense of community":

1. membership,
2. influence,
3. integration and fulfillment of needs,
4. shared emotional connection (in Anderson, 1991).

Relationships within a community are thought to be direct, holistic and significant than the more formal and abstract relationships with the larger society. From this

relational pattern, community is seen as a group of people who are socially related and are identified with a specific place or location. Here, residents have a sense of belonging and hold at least some values and symbols in common.

However, the social relationship and location have been ideologically debated. As such, different meanings have been offered by the traditional, conservative, socialist, and liberal schools of thought. Let's briefly examine the traditional view point.

In the traditional thinking, community emphasises commonality of origin (blood, kinship, and historical relationship) of people residing in a place, such as the coherence of people within a village or nation. Tawney (2007) suggested that the realisation of a community compulsorily requires a common culture in order to make the place exhibit the characteristics that the term (community) denotes and reflects. A culture that applies to all the residents of an area serves several purposes including facilitation of response to challenges facing residents or members, providing alternative orientation to the economic life of the public (community), identifying and mobilising local resources (e.g., human capital and finance) for development based on the model of cooperation. The employment of social organisation (innovation) underlies the use of cooperation. The toleration or promotion of contrasting social, political and economic circumstances of the local population (in terms of sharing of opportunities for education, healthcare, etc.), within the local region makes the creation of a community difficult (if not impossible). That means equality is a significant aspect of community building. Without equality, it is difficult to create a community with a common culture (Adekunle, 2008).

According to Aziz (1978), most communities are usually identified:

- I) Geographic communities: share physical space, so that residents come into contact with each other by virtue of proximity, rather than intent.
- ii) Communities of interest: are sometimes referred to as "communities within communities". Members of these communities choose to associate with each other on the basis of a common interest (e.g. informal organizations like clubs). Sometimes communities are formed by self-identified members of a reference group based on characteristics outside of their control, e.g. a disability, ethnic group, or low income, which give them a sense of common identity and shared concerns.

- iii) Virtual communities: are groups of people that primarily interact via communication media rather than face to face. If the mechanism is a computer network, it is called an online community. Online communities are "social aggregations that emerge from the Net when people carry on those public discussions long enough, with sufficient human feeling, to form webs of personal relationships (Charles, 2013).

From the above explanations, we can summarize the following as specific meanings to a community. A community refers to,

1. A group of people living together in one place, especially, one practicing common ownership
2. All the people living in a particular area or place
3. A particular area or place considered together with its inhabitants
4. The people of a district or country considered collectively, especially in the context of social values and responsibilities; society
5. A group of people having a religion, race, profession, or other particular characteristic in common
6. A body of nations or states unified by common interests
7. A feeling of fellowship with others, as a result of sharing common attitudes, interests, and goals
8. A similarity or identity

1.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF A COMMUNITY

A community is a type of social system distinguished by the following characteristics:

- i. People involved in the system have a sense and recognition of the relationships and areas of common concerns with other members.
- ii. The system has longevity, continuity and is expected to persist.
- iii. Its operations depend considerably on voluntary cooperation, with a minimal use (or threat) of sanctions or coercion.
- iv. It is multi-functional. The system is expected to produce many things and to be attuned to many dimensions of interactions.
- v. The system is complex, dynamic and sufficiently large that instrumental relationships predominate.

- vi. Usually, there is a geographic element associated with its definition and basic boundaries (Charles, 2013).

1.3 MEANING OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

In community development, the term development is taken as a reference to a particular type of conscious effort to stimulate improvement. In this sense, all positive changes are not the result of development. There is a set of ideas used to differentiate development from other forms of positive change. These are:

- i. A system subject to change exists.
- ii. Change will take place incrementally, within a process, over a rather extended time.
- iii. Once this process has begun, it is very unlikely that the system will be able to return to the original state.
- iv. The process is stimulated and given direction by conscious effort.
- v. During the conscious effort to provide direction, a theory/model of development provides reference points and expectations.
- vi. At each stage, the system is in a configuration it has not experienced before.
- vii. It operates as a learning process.
- viii. Accomplishments in the process can be evaluated only in terms of the judgments of people in the system.
- ix. The results are judged to be more positive than negative and worth the costs (Aziz, 1978).

Community development is a structured intervention that gives communities greater control over the conditions that affect their lives. Clark (2004) maintained that this does not solve all the problems faced by a local community, but it does build up confidence to tackle such problems as effectively as any local action can. Community development works at the level of local groups and organisations rather than with individuals or families. The range of local groups and organizations representing communities at local level constitutes the community sector.

Community development involves a skilled process and part of its approach is the belief that communities cannot be helped unless they themselves agree to this process. Community development has to be looked at, not only at how the community is

working at the grass roots, but also at how responsive key institutions are to the needs of local communities. Where Community development takes place, there are certain principles central to it. Dasputa (1993) said, the first priority of the Community development process is the empowering and enabling of those who are traditionally deprived of power and control over their common affairs. It claims as important the ability of people to act together to influence the social, economic, political and environmental issues which affect them. Community development aims to encourage sharing, and to create structures which give genuine participation and involvement.

Community development is about developing the power, skills, knowledge and experience of people as individuals and in groups, thus enabling them to undertake initiatives of their own to combat social, economic, political and environmental problems, and enabling them to fully participate in a truly democratic process (Ogilvy, 1993).

Historically, community development practice has arisen from a variety of sources and settings. Its roots can be traced to the social reform movement in Britain and North America in the latter half of the 18th century. Community development principles were formulated and applied in third world development efforts following decolonization. In the 50's and 60's CD or community organization, as it came to be called, was used in deprived or underdeveloped urban and rural settings in North America (Smith, 1979: 52).

CD was a response to the perceived disintegration of society due to rapid technological change, economic dislocations, disruption in traditional family and community structures and the extension of government and commercial services into personal and family life, with negative impacts on personal effectiveness and community ties (Carey, 1979:20). CD is eclectic, integrating specialized knowledge from education, public health, economic development and politics. (Head, 1979:101) However, it is also a discipline unto itself, with a body of theory, standards of practice and professional associations.

1.4 VALUES AND PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community development is sometimes confused with community-based programs, community research and other forms of community interventions. The most significant feature that distinguishes community development from other community work is its values and principles.

Estee (2004) highlighted the following as basic values and principles that are typically embodied in community development programmes.

1. **Democratic:** The will of the majority must be carried out, but only after all voices are heard and considered and minority rights are protected.
2. **Inclusive:** There are many barriers to participation in society; poverty, disability, age, race and ethnicity are some other characteristics that often marginalize people. A healthy community embraces diversity and recognizes that all community members have a right to be heard and participate in processes that affect their lives.
3. **Non-authoritarian:** Organizational structures are as flat as possible, with all participants being seen as equally important and having equal input.
4. **Community self determination:** Community members come together to discuss their concerns, assess options and arrive at their own conclusions. They may seek advice from "experts", but consider it along with other sources of information and their own experience and make their own decisions that are right for them.
5. **Community Ownership:** Communities thrive when they develop their own assets, but also when they "own" their problems and issues. When communities accept that it is "their" problem, then they are more likely to work together to develop a solution, and the solution will be better than one provided solely by an external "expert".
6. **Enhance natural capacities and networks:** There are sources of strength in every community; for example, informal networks and social support systems, or certain individuals that have particular talents or are able to help others in need. A community developer identifies these existing community assets and works with them. It is important not to duplicate existing structures and functions as that may weaken rather than strengthen the community.

7. Social justice and equity: This is fundamental to community development and is at least implicit in all CD work, if not an explicit goal of a CD program.
8. Universality: Services are available to everyone, without requiring means or needs testing.
9. Service Integration: Often services provided to persons in need are fragmented, so that one service provider doesn't know what other services are available or being used, resulting in gaps, duplications and sometimes conflicting advice or treatments (Lam, 1998). A community development approach would ensure that services are coordinated, that they enhance and strengthen natural community and family supports, that there is effective communication among all involved, and that services are directed by the individual receiving them, to the extent possible.
10. Upstream: The distinction between upstream vs. downstream approaches uses a river as a metaphor for the increasing impact of conditions and events which affect health over time and space, and relates to the point of intervention (Krishna, 2000).

1.5 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

There are many different strategies and methods used in community development. Below is a chart of those that are most commonly used.

Strategy	Features	Examples
1. Locality Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improvements in the well-being of local citizens through increased resources, facilities, services, etc., brought about by the active involvement of citizens. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Building a community centre Home renovation subsidies
2. Social Action	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seeks a redistribution of power Focus is on a specific issue Advocacy activities; for example; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anti-poverty activists seeking increases to social assistance rates.
3. Social Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rational problem-solving process to address social problems Involves needs assessments, analysis of service delivery mechanisms, systems co-ordination and other technical expertise Involvement of community members in consultation, interpretation of results and service planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting a needs assessment of people who are homeless and using the results to plan a new housing development in needed locations, with appropriate services on-site.
4. Social Reform	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activity by one group on behalf of a relatively disadvantaged group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Advocating for community acceptance, supports and services for people that have a mental illness
5. Community Relations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus is on increasing social integration Often attempts to improve the social status of minority populations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mediating between community factions Anti-racism programs
6. Social Capital Formation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus in on connections among individuals - social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness high social capital = effective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Creating places and opportunities for community members to gather and network with each other

6. Social Capital Formation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus in on connections among individuals - social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness • high social capital = effective schools, governments, lower crime, higher economic equality, greater tolerance • includes political engagement, civic and religious organizations, family gatherings, socializing, group recreational activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating places and opportunities for community members to gather and network with each other • Orientation programs to welcome newcomers • Community activities to develop and/neighbourliness.
7. Capacity Building	<p>Capacity is the participatory leadership, skills, resources, knowledge and tools of individuals in communities and organizations that enable them to address, and have greater control over, conditions and factors that affect their quality of life.</p> <p>(a) Individual Capacity is the sum of the assets (skills, talents, experience and knowledge) possessed by an individual that will help them succeed and contribute to their community.</p> <p>(b) Organizational Capacity is the participatory decision-making, program development, planning, research, resources, tools, skills, education & training, knowledge contained within an organization</p> <p>(c) Community Capacity: the combination of a community's commitment, leadership, resources and skills that can be deployed to build on community strengths and address community problems and opportunities.</p>	<p>(a) The Search Institute[7] has identified the essential development assets for children youth that will enable them to thrive.</p> <p>(b) organizations can enhance their capacity in many ways, such as professional development activities, involvement of all levels of the organization in planning, and recognizing the unique talents of individuals</p> <p>(c) Some indicators of high community capacity are inter-agency networking opportunities, collaborations and partnerships to address broad community issues, community pride, local government support for community activities and high quality education, health and social services.</p>

<p>8. Asset-Based Community Development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assets are the gifts, skills, resources and abilities of community residents; sometimes physical resources are also included • Every community has a unique combination of assets upon which to build its future • Starts with identifying assets rather than needs • Is internally focused and relationship-driven 	<p>Some communities have mapped the location of their community assets (people, businesses, services, buildings, natural features) and used the data to connect people with similar interests, or people in need of help with someone that can provide it. Co-operative businesses and new volunteer groups have been established from community mapping projects.</p>
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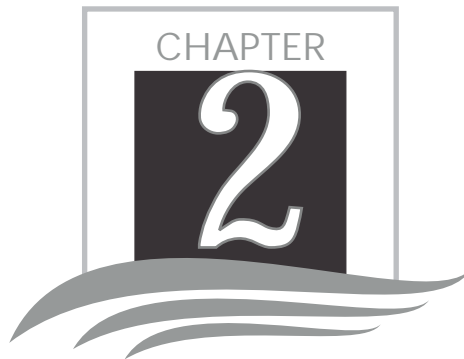
Source: Estee (2004).

Review Questions

1. Attempt 3 explanations to the concept, "community"
2. Highlight the characteristics of a community
3. Define the term, community development
4. Mention the values and principles of community development
5. Identify the various strategies for community development

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Understanding Community Development

Efforts to reduce rural poverty in the past tended to focus on increasing the income and food security of rural poor people. Increasingly, there has been a greater emphasis on the human and social factors that cause poverty. This broader understanding of the factors affecting poverty in rural areas has been reflected in many IFAD projects since the mid-1990s. Project design has stressed peoples' participation and empowerment, enhanced social capital, demand-driven development and a community-driven development approach. The under listed themes will be examined in this chapter,

- 2.1 The meaning of Community Driven Development (CDD)
- 2.2 The Community Driven Development approach
- 2.3 Importance of Community Driven Development
- 2.4 What is a Community-Based Organization (CBO)?
- 2.5 Difference between Community-Based Organizations, Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs), and elected Local Governments.
- 2.6 Partnerships between CBOs and Local or Municipal Governments
- 2.7 Experiences with CDD in some countries
- 2.8 Principles for sustainability and effectiveness CDD

¹Most citation in this Chapter is adapted with permission from S. Alkire, A. Bebbington, T. Esmail, E. Ostrom, M. Polski, A. Ryan, J. Van Domelen, W. Wakeman, and P. Dongier (2001) Community-Driven Development: Draft for Comments, April.

2.1 THE MEANING OF COMMUNITY DRIVEN DEVELOPMENT

Community-driven development (CDD) involves a degree of devolution of responsibility to communities for managing their development, including the design and implementation of projects. This requires that the communities themselves have the capacity to assume responsibility. It also requires a culture of public administration that views communities as development partners in their own right, rather than as simply recipients of benefits through public expenditure. The extent to which communities can shape their own development priorities within a project context defines the extent to which the project is applying a community-driven development approach (Adams, et al, 1984).

CDD gives control of decisions and resources to community groups. These groups often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers including elected local governments, the private sector, NGOs, and central government agencies. CDD is a way to provide social and infrastructure services, to organize economic activity and resource management, to empower poor people, improve governance, and enhance security of the poorest (Alkire, et al, 2001).

CDD is an effective mechanism for poverty reduction, complementing market and state-run activities by achieving immediate and lasting results at the grassroots level. Experience has shown that CDD can make poverty reduction efforts more demand responsive and can enhance sustainability. CDD has also been shown to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of poverty reduction efforts. By devolving responsibility to the local level, CDD has the potential to be scaled up by occurring simultaneously in a very large number of communities thus achieving far-reaching poverty impact. Finally, well-designed CDD programs are inclusive of poor and vulnerable groups, build positive social capital, and give them greater voice both in their community and with government entities (Alkire, et al, 2001).

2.2 THE CDD APPROACH

Community-driven development is a way to manage development, including the design and implementation of policies and projects that facilitates access by poor rural people to social human and physical capital. According to Adato et al (1999) CDD achieves this by creating the conditions for:

1. Enabling community organizations to play a broader role in the design and implementation of policies and programmes aimed at improving the livelihood of community members, particularly of the poor and marginalized people within those communities
2. Changing the organizational culture of the agents working for rural development and rural poverty reduction, and diversifying and shifting the power configuration that confronts rural communities in matters related to the communities' own socio-economic development
3. Emphasizing the importance of good local governance through a commitment to a long-term capacity-building processes
4. Maximizing the impact of public expenditure on the local economy at community level.
5. This approach emphasizes that CDD refers to the way a policy or a project is designed and implemented, not to the content of a policy or project component. It is concerned with community-based civil society and private sector organizations and with decentralization.

2.3 IMPORTANCE OF CDD

Some of the arguments for CDD as advanced by Alkire, et al (2001) include,

- i. Strengthening and financing accountable and inclusive community groups or community-based organizations (CBOs).
- ii. Facilitating community access to information through a variety of media, and increasingly through information technology.
- iii. Forging functional links between CBOs and formal institutions, and creating an enabling environment through appropriate policy and institutional reform, often including decentralization reform, promotion of a conducive legal and regulatory framework, development of sound sector policies and responsive sector institutions and private service providers.

In addition, According to the Voices of the Poor study Fijarayan (2000), based on interviews with 60,000 poor people in 60 countries, poor people demand a development process driven by their communities. When the poor were asked to indicate what might make the greatest difference to their lives, they responded:

- (a) organizations of their own so they can negotiate with government, traders, and NGOs;
- (b) direct assistance through community-driven programs so they can shape their own destinies; and
- (c) local ownership of funds, so they can end corruption. They want NGOs and governments to be accountable to them.

CDD is relevant across many sectors. The potential for CDD is greatest for goods and services that are small in scale and not complex and that require local cooperation, such as common pool goods (e.g., management of common pasture and surface water irrigation systems), public goods (e.g., local road maintenance), and civil goods (e.g., public advocacy and social monitoring).

But not all goods and services are best managed through collective action at the community level. Public goods that span many communities or that require large and complex systems are often better provided by local or central government. Similarly, private goods or toll goods are often better provided using a market-based approach, relying more on individual enterprises than on collective action. CDD can, however, fill gaps where markets are missing or imperfect, or where public institutions or local governments fail to fulfil their mandates (Alkire, et al (2001)).

2.4 WHAT IS A COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANIZATION (CBO)?

Alesina et al (1999) maintained that, throughout history, communities have organized themselves to address collective and individual needs. Community-based organizations are normally membership organizations made up of a group of individuals in a self-defined community who have joined together to further common interests. They often consist of people living near one another, in a given urban neighborhood or rural village. They can also be groups of people united by common interest while not living in the same geographical community. The common interest might be related to production, consumption, the use of common pool resources, or the delivery of services. Examples include women's groups, credit circles, youth clubs, cooperatives and farmer associations, irrigation associations, forest and watershed management groups, artisan groups, fishery associations, and parent associations.

CBOs can be stand-alone groups, or they can be linked into federations of groups at the regional, national, or international level. They can be informal or formal. Informal organizations, such as women's and men's clubs and neighborhood groups, pursue joint interests and often appear most accessible to the poor (Badhan, 1997). Formal organizations have legal status, formally stated rights and responsibilities, and a legally binding governance structure for recruiting members, selecting leaders, and conducting affairs.

2.5 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANIZATIONS, NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS (NGOS), AND ELECTED LOCAL GOVERNMENTS.

In this chapter, we consider a CBO to be a membership organization aimed at furthering the interests of its own members, and an NGO to have a broader scope of activities that might assist CBOs and pursue commitments that do not directly benefit NGO members. CBOs differ from elected local governments in that they are voluntary, and choose their own objectives. In contrast, local governments are mandated to be responsible for revenue collection and for the delivery of a variety of infrastructure and services (Beddies, 2000). CBOs may interface closely with local government, with other levels of government such as local representatives of central ministries, with the private sector, and with NGOs.

CBOs do not always represent the interests of poor people. To ensure that CDD has an impact on poverty reduction, CBOs need to include poor people as members, and represent their needs and interests. That does not mean that CBO membership should always be limited to poor men and women, but it does mean that the functioning and leadership of the CBO should clearly represent the interests of poor people along with those of the less poor (Cernea, Michael and Ayse, 1997).

It is frequently advisable to work through existing organizations. But, when there is no good match between the project and an existing organization (for example, if a local organization has very limited membership but the project requires the involvement of several villages or an entirely different group of people), the existing organization may be too limited. Also, when the social organization of a community is highly inequitable, new groups may need to be created and to achieve program objectives

and/or to promote the participation of disadvantaged people. Both new and special purpose organizations are more effective when they build on positive organizational traditions of a community.

2.6 PARTNERSHIPS BETWEEN CBOS AND LOCAL OR MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENTS

In this approach, Chambers (1994) maintained that the function of coordinating support to communities is decentralized to elected local or municipal governments. In addition to political and electoral incentives encouraging local governments to work in partnership with community-based organizations, policies and incentives are designed so that local governments:

- a. Create an enabling environment for community efforts to flourish, ranging from building more participatory, citizen-oriented planning of local investment priorities to subcontracting with community-based organizations for the provision of goods and services for which CBOs have comparative advantages.
- b. Bring government closer to the people, increasing accountability and transparency, as well as building bonds of trust.
- c. Provide long-term recurrent cost financing within a framework of fiscal decentralization and inter-governmental fiscal flows, thereby creating a local funding base for community-driven development.
- d. Help balance competing needs and demands in allocating resources across diverse communities.

Alkire, et al (2001) added that fiscal transfers to elected local governments, to complement local tax revenues, are preferably made in the form of untied fiscal transfers (block/general purpose grants) from higher levels of government. In the case of block grants local governments have full discretion over allocation of resources. Local government officials are then accountable primarily to their constituents.

An alternative is for central government funding support to be tied to specific program outputs (specific purpose grants). Under this approach, local governments become accountable upwards, to resource providers, and downward, to constituents. Experience has shown that given the frail state of local governance and the weak voice

of poor communities in most developing countries, upward accountability can quickly dominate and accountability to local communities becomes secondary. Alkire, et al (2001) said, unless this approach is carefully managed, local governments will have stronger incentives to respond to finance providers than to their often powerless constituents.

Nevertheless, in some cases it may be warranted to tie central support to specific program outputs and to partnerships between local government and CBOs. This may be the case where there is a need to target resources to poorest or marginalized groups that have not been adequately represented in local government programs. Tying the use of funds in these instances might be necessary to ensure that funds reach excluded groups. A combined strategy may also be considered, comprising untied block grants to local governments complemented by tied funds for special outreach programs.

2.7 EXPERIENCES WITH CDD IN SOME COUNTRIES

According to Alkire, et al (2001), the following describes in more detail some of the benefits of the CDD approach.

- i. Service delivery can improve
 - a. In Zambia, the Social Recovery Programme (SRP) has provided matching grants directly to urban and rural community groups since the early 1990s. Communities choose from a menu of eligible social and economic infrastructure interventions. Impact evaluations of early interventions found that grant-financed schools and health centers performed better than similar institutions whose financing did not involve communities. Teachers and health workers attended more regularly; the physical infrastructure was better; more members of the community used the facilities, and they were more likely to pay school fees and organize health center maintenance committees than in similar facilities that did not receive SRP financing.
 - b. In Bangladesh, the Palli Karma Sahayak Foundation (PKSF) provides loans to NGOs, which in turn provide microcredit services to the poor, often in partnership with community groups. Established in 1990, PKSF now finances 155 NGOs, financing services for more than 2 million poor people, of which

90 percent are women. Its disbursement in 1998-99 was US\$40million. Average repayment rates have consistently been above 98 percent.

ii. Programmes can spread rapidly

a. The NE Brazil Rural Poverty Alleviation Program has financed more than 30,000 subprojects. The program shifted its design from a centrally administered, integrated rural development program after this approach did not produce its expected results. The program was reformulated into a community-driven program that targets the poorest communities and involves them in decentralized decision making, with a reduced role for public agencies. Funds are channeled directly to CBOs, which manage and are accountable for investments. It is estimated that 93 percent of program resources now reach communities, compared with 40 percent under the previous rural development programs and 20 percent under the first integrated rural development programs.

b. In South Africa, the Mvula Trust helped achieve large scale coverage by providing grants for water supply and sanitation projects designed and managed directly by communities in remote rural areas. The program filled a vacuum in serving South Africa's homelands in the absence of government coverage. The success of these community-managed investments has increased social capital in the region, inspiring additional self-organized development activities and influencing government policy in other sectors.

iii. Complements market and public sector activities

According to Alkire, et al (2001), experience has shown that policies aimed at promoting national economic competitiveness and state-run public investment programs are essential but insufficient for poverty reduction. These policies and programs often do not benefit everyone, and benefits often take years to trickle down. CDD offers the opportunity to fill this critical gap by achieving immediate and lasting results at the grass-roots (Chambers, 1994).

The market alone cannot provide all essential services and goods for poverty reduction - it often under-provides public goods (e.g., roads, quality education and

health care for poor people), and often over-harvests common pool goods (e.g., forests, watersheds, fishery resources). Although national state-run programs focused on investing in human and physical capital have the potential to redress some of these imbalances, accumulated experience has shown that central government programs are often slow to deliver basic services, and are often ineffective in reaching poor people. Market and state-run activities can be effectively complemented by community-driven solutions that engage CBOs, local governments, NGOs, and the private sector. By using CDD approaches and local actors to provide key goods and services, governments can support immediate poverty reduction by efficiently building human and physical assets at the local level (Davis, Shelton and Lars, 1995).

iv. Enhances sustainability

CDD can make services responsive to demand expressed by poor men and women and as a result can enhance sustainability. As consumers, community members are the most legitimate, informed, and reliable source of information about their own priorities. Community-developed facilities such as health centers, schools, and water supply systems tend to have higher utilization rates and are better maintained than when investment decisions are made by actors outside of the community. Experience also demonstrates that demand is better articulated when communities contribute to investment costs and control investment choices. A water supply study of 1,875 households in rural communities in six countries (Benin, Bolivia, Honduras, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Uganda) suggests that water system sustainability is significantly higher when communities control key investment decisions and when they pay part of the investment costs, ensuring that they get what they want and are willing to pay for (Sara and Katz, 1997).

v. Improves efficiency and effectiveness

Studies and practical experience suggest that CDD can improve the effectiveness and efficiency of services in many sectors and contexts. Examples of these benefits for infrastructure, education, micro finance, and natural resource management are given below.

- a. **Infrastructure.** Community management of development investments usually results in lower costs and in more productively employed assets. Studies of community-organized irrigation systems in Asia, for example, have repeatedly found that systems constructed and operated by the farmers themselves, often without much external assistance, generate a higher level of agricultural productivity than more modern systems constructed by government agencies with substantial external assistance (Lam, 1998 and Tang, 1992). A recent study in Zambia compares CBO-managed and contractor-managed approaches to developing school infrastructure programs. Unit costs under the contractor approach were more than twice as high as under the CBO approach. Similarly, a recent study in South Africa shows that when CBOs are responsible for all aspects of the project (design, management, monitoring), costs per beneficiary are less than half than when the CBOs are not decision makers (Adato, Besley, Haddad and Hoddinott, 1999).
- b. **Education.** There is empirical evidence that community management and accountability can improve education outcomes (Jimenez and Sawada, 1998). Greater parental involvement in children's education can inspire children to attend school, and puts pressure on providers to deliver better services. Communities that oversee school management are also more willing to assist in financing. Preliminary results from the Philippines show that community-managed primary schools have lower costs, while holding enrollment and quality constant (Jimenez and Paqueo, 1996).
- c. **Group-based micro-finance.** Evidence suggests that certain models of both individual and group-based micro-finance can extend the reach of financial services and achieve high repayment rates. Some micro-finance programs rely on local groups that know community members' character and economic activities, and can provide peer pressure. Group-based programs tend to do particularly well where the screening and monitoring costs of credit are too high for the lender, and when the group approach reduces the cost of information gathering and creates incentives at the local level (Adams, Graham, and von Pischke, 1984).

d. Natural resource management. Several countries have moved from state to community management of natural resources, mainly as a result of poor outcomes under state-led programs. The joint forest management program in the Indian state of Andhra Pradesh shows how community management can increase the effectiveness of services (Venkatamaran and Falconer, 1999). More than 5,000 CBOs have rejuvenated more than 1.2 million hectares of degraded forest in the state. Degraded forests have sprung back to life, timber smuggling has almost stopped, and cattle grazing are under control. Village labor is more gainfully employed and out-migration has declined. Soil conservation has saved local water resources.

vi. Allows poverty reduction efforts to be taken to scale
Because CDD devolves responsibilities and resources to the local level, activities can occur simultaneously in a large number of communities without being constrained by a central bureaucracy. When poor communities are trusted to drive development, and are provided with appropriate information, support, and clear rules of the game, a system can be put in place not to provide for poor people, but to facilitate their active and ongoing role in rolling out poverty reduction efforts.

vii. Makes development more inclusive of the interests of poor people and vulnerable groups
Representative CBOs can provide voice and empowerment to groups that are typically excluded from the development process. The interests of women, indigenous groups, ethnic minorities, the disabled, and people with AIDS might not be effectively expressed through standard political and economic structures. If these minority groups are actively involved in community-based organizations, they will help make development processes more inclusive.

Inclusion also requires that scarce public resources be targeted to groups that most need them. In the absence of reliable information to allow means testing (such as household income), involving communities directly in the targeting process can improve efforts to target the poorest and most marginal individuals and groups. For example, Parent Teacher Associations might be in the best position to determine which children should receive tuition or school lunch subsidies, as shown in a recent

study of a targeted school enrolment subsidy program in Bangladesh (Ravallion, 1999).

viii. Empowers poor people, builds social capital, and strengthens governance
CDD empowers poor people. The objective of development is not merely to increase incomes or to improve poverty indicators, but also to expand people's real freedoms. These are the choices people make between different valuable beings and doings, such as being nourished, being educated, participating in public debate, or being free to walk about without shame (Sen, 1999). This analysis is reflected in the 2000/2001 World Development Report on Poverty, which identifies empowerment as one of the three elements of poverty reduction.

Targeted community-driven approaches devolve control and decision making to poor women and men. This empowers them immediately and directly. While clear rules of the game, transparency, and accountability are important safeguards to prevent corruption or the capture of community resources by elites, the speed and directness with which CDD empowers poor people is rarely matched by other institutional frameworks for poverty reduction.

Control over decisions and resources can also give communities the opportunity to build social capital (defined as the ability of individuals to secure benefits as a result of membership in social networks) by expanding the depth and range of their networks. This kind of network expansion, which is critical for long-term growth and development, also has positive short-term effects on welfare and risk exposure. Several studies conducted in Bolivia, Burkina Faso, Indonesia, and Tanzania found that social capital has a positive effect on household welfare (as measured by per capita consumption), and that the effect was several times greater than that of human capital alone (Grootaert, 1999; Grootaert and Narayan, 2000; Grootaert, Oh, and Swamy, 1999).

The creation of networks and social capital also helps to reduce household exposure to risk. Poor individuals and households manage risk in many ways, including reciprocal self-help, participating in local organizations, and building linkages with people outside their social networks. For example, rotating savings and credit associations in

Bolivia, Peru, Guatemala, and Indonesia are a means by which people save and lend among themselves on the basis of reciprocity and mutual trust. Development strategies that strengthen community-based organizations and that build social capital can also strengthen the safety net for poor people and reduce their exposure to risk.

Finally, strengthening local associations that are inclusive can increase poor people's voice in local political processes and governance. In Bangladesh, for example, leaders of community groups formed and strengthened with the help of NGOs are increasingly being elected to leadership roles in local government bodies (Krishna, 2000).

2.8 PRINCIPLES FOR SUSTAINABILITY AND EFFECTIVENESS CDD

How can CDD be supported on a large scale so that many communities can each simultaneously drive investment decisions? Ten principles have been identified to guide policy formulation and program design, to enhance the effectiveness and sustainability of support to CDD. These principles, listed below, are discussed in detail in the following pages. They have emerged from an analysis of large-scale CDD programs that received positive evaluations, and from a series of consultations with leading practitioners.

The following are some of the basic principles for supporting sustainable and effective CDD.

1. Establish an enabling environment through relevant institutional and policy reform
2. Make investments responsive to informed demand
3. Build participatory mechanisms for community control and stakeholder involvement
4. Ensure social and gender inclusion
5. Invest in capacity building of CBOs
6. Facilitate community access to information
7. Develop simple rules and strong incentives, supported by monitoring and evaluation.

8. Maintain flexibility in design of arrangements
9. Design for scaling up
10. Invest in an exit strategy (Davis, Shelton H. and Lars. 1995).

The principles are fully discussed below, as cited with permission from (Alkire, et al, 2001).

1. Establish an enabling and policy reform environment through relevant institutional CDD involves more than strengthening CBOs and funding their projects - it also requires active measures to establish an appropriate enabling environment. Large programs of support to CDD will not be sustainable without the policies, laws, systems and governance processes that encourage effective collaboration among local governments, central governments, civil society, service providers, and CBOs (Sara & Katz, 1997).

Specifically, they maintain that, such an environment should include:

- i. responsive elected local governments which are responsive to constituents and are empowered to serve them;
- ii. inter-governmental arrangements for fiscal flows to local governments and CBOs;
- iii. a conducive legal and regulatory framework that supports community action; and
- iv. clear sector policies with well-defined financing rules and defined roles and responsibilities of key players in each sector (Sara & Katz, 1997).

Ideally, an appropriate enabling environment should be in place prior to the initiation of any CDD effort (Sara & Katz, 1997). However, this is not always possible (Adato, et al, 1999). Where such conditions are not present well-designed CDD programs have nevertheless succeeded by incorporating measures into the program design to address deficiencies in the surrounding environment. By empowering communities and generating upward pressure on governments and agencies, these programs can serve as catalysts to initiate the necessary policy and institutional reforms.

a. Responsive decentralized local governments and inter-governmental frameworks. Regardless of the mode of CDD intervention (CBO partnerships with local government, private support organizations, central government, or central funds), local governments can be critical to the success and sustainability of community-driven development. Local governments are often well positioned to facilitate coordination across communities and to allocate resources. When local governments interact with communities and informal groups in a participatory way, it is possible to achieve economies of scale in producing and providing goods and services that could not be achieved by CBOs operating independently. Furthermore, in many cases local governments are needed to support operation and maintenance of services, and for ongoing funding of community groups.

Local governments are generally more responsive and effective where there has been political, administrative, and fiscal decentralization:

- i. Political decentralization, transfers policy and legislative powers from central governments to autonomous, lower level assemblies and local councils that have been democratically elected by their constituencies;
- ii. Administrative decentralization places planning and implementation responsibilities in the hands of locally situated civil servants and these local civil servants under the jurisdiction of elected local governments;
- iii. Fiscal decentralization accords substantial revenue and expenditure autonomy to local governments, including the power to levy taxes and user charges.

These three complementary forms of decentralization are important for creating an enabling environment for CDD.

b. Conducive decision making legal and regulatory environment that supports community CDD approaches are more sustainable where community decision making and management of resources is supported by a legal and regulatory

framework. This means that policies and enforceable regulations that support local initiatives must be in place, accompanied by laws that protect community rights (Lam, 1998).

Specifically, Krishna (2000) asserts that CBOs should be able to easily obtain legal status and to own assets, particularly natural resources. Systems may need to be developed to hold both local governments and CBOs accountable for their actions. Procurement and contract laws may need to be changed to enable direct resource transfer to CBOs. An overall freedom of information act, including legal protections for the press, free speech, and the right to organize, are also essential for effective community action. Finally, readily accessible dispute resolution mechanisms are required (Krishna, 2000).

Key legal and regulatory policies that support CDD include:

1. The ability of CBOs to register for legal status and to own assets
2. Systems to hold local governments and CBOs accountable
3. Ability of local governments to transfer resources directly to CBOs
4. Freedom of press, and speech, and the right to organize
5. Easy access to dispute resolution mechanisms (Krishna, 2000).

c. Sector policies and institutional frameworks

Community-driven development requires different policies and institutional arrangements in different sectors. For example, electricity distribution or local water supply works tend to have greater revenue-earning potential than natural resource management or the provision of primary health and education. This calls for different financial policies with respect to minimum amounts of community contributions and to credit financing. Similarly, the relevance and competitiveness of CBOs relative to other institutions will vary across sectors. These differences call for sector-specific policies which define roles of players and financing rules. Depending on circumstances, sector-specific pilots and demonstration programs may be required to test and refine sector policies.

2. Make investments responsive to informed demand

Enabling communities to be involved in decision making is not sufficient to achieve sustainable outcomes. Decisions need to be based on accurate information about the costs and benefits of various options, and communities need to have some of their own resources invested.

- i. Informed, meaningful choice. Communities and stakeholders should have access to sufficient information to weigh tradeoffs and make realistic choices from a range of options that meet their needs, and fit local conditions, culture, values and available operation and maintenance capacity. Alternative solutions should be designed to be affordable to the community - in terms of both upfront capital and long-term operating costs (Kessides, 1997). Financing of specific projects should then be subject to a field-based ex-ante evaluation against transparent criteria that are known in advance.
- ii. Community contributions to investment and recurrent costs. Community co-financing has been shown to be an important factor in building ownership and in helping to ensure that appropriate choices are made and that investments are sustainable. People seem to make better choices when they have their own resources at stake, and when opting for a more expensive option implies a proportionally higher cost. Community contributions can also help leverage scarce public finance to benefit a larger number of communities. The level and type of community contribution should be appropriate to the sector and type of service.

3. Build participatory mechanisms for community control and stakeholder involvement

Communities that have ownership of a project or program are more likely to sustain outcomes. This implies providing inclusive community groups with knowledge, control, and authority over decisions and resources throughout all phases, from program inception.

Programmes should be designed to engage relevant stakeholders (government, local leaders, NGOs, civil society, the community) at the earliest opportunity and

dynamically over time. Political will -garnered through broad-based support and/or 'political champions' to drive necessary reforms -have played critical roles in the scaling up of many existing CDD programs. Broad stakeholder participation helps tap into local technical and financial resources in support of community initiatives. It also ensures that local knowledge and preferences are incorporated into the project design.

4 Ensure social and gender inclusion

Community-driven development has the potential to increase the power of poor communities to negotiate with government, the private sector, and civil society. But to fulfill this potential, CDD needs to be responsive to the priorities of all poor groups. Communities are not homogeneous; thus CDD needs to be designed to be socially inclusive - giving voice and decision making responsibility to women, the elderly, youth, religious and cultural minorities, indigenous and other ethnic groups, those with HIV/AIDS, and the disabled. When community-driven development does not pay attention to issues of social inclusion, groups of poor people may be excluded, investment choices may not reflect the true needs of the poor, and impacts may be significantly compromised. Typical examples of this are:

- a. When cultural practices restrain women from attending or speaking at community meetings, often resulting in under-investment in health services, literacy programs, water supply systems, and other interventions typically more valued by women;
- b. When the needs of HIV/AIDS affected fail to be identified as community priorities due to shame, denial, and social isolation;
- c. When input and participation from indigenous groups is curtailed because program materials and planning discussions are in languages unfamiliar to them.

Various participatory methods can facilitate the inclusion of marginal groups. Because gender cuts across other forms of exclusion, specific gender-sensitive approaches are needed to ensure the participation of both women and men. When designing inclusive programs, it is important to understand existing community decision making processes and the often complex local political and social context. It is also important not to think that a program that was once inclusive will also remain so; issues of inclusion will require periodic attention throughout the life of any organization that is active at the community level.

Some general guidelines for building in social inclusion include:

- i. Identify subgroups among the poor, especially those at risk of exclusion;
- ii. Structure project rules and procedures to promote their participation;
- iii. Determine participatory techniques that can help facilitate their involvement (where existing systems of social organization are highly inequitable, new groups may need to be created to enable excluded groups to participate);
- iv. Ensure that intermediaries (NGOs, local government, etc.) working with communities have expertise in working with these groups and using participatory techniques;
- v. Investigate how local institutions can be made more responsive and inclusive of these groups;
- vi. Include specific indicators related to these groups in monitoring and evaluation systems, and involve all stakeholders in monitoring and evaluation;

Some general guidelines for building in gender inclusion are:

- i. Determine gender roles, priorities, and access to resources in the relevant sector(s) in the proposed project area;
- ii. Identify any barriers to gender-appropriate project implementation;
- iii. Structure project rules and procedures to reduce barriers and facilitate participation;
- iv. Ensure that intermediaries (NGOs, local government, etc.) working with communities have expertise in gender issues;
- v. Provide necessary capacity building;
- vi. Include gender-specific indicators in monitoring and evaluation systems. Collect dis-aggregated data, involve all stakeholders (men and women) in monitoring and evaluation;

Participatory tools and techniques to improve inclusiveness

Many tools and techniques can be used to promote gender-balanced and inclusive CDD. Some of these options are outlined below. These techniques require facilitators well trained in their use. It takes time to utilize these methods, and this must be factored into project plans.

- a. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) (Chambers 1994a,b,c, 1997), now more commonly known as Participatory Learning and Action (PLA), is a set of tools and techniques for gathering, sharing, and analyzing information, and for planning and action. It is heavily based on visualization exercises that include impact diagrams, transects, timelines, community maps, matrices, ranking and scoring. Analysis of difference is an extremely important underlying theme of PRA/PLA. PRA/PLA approaches have often been used for community-level planning and decision making.
- b. SARAR (Srinivasan, 1990) is a participatory approach similar to PRA that emerged in India. It aims to empower people at the community level to initiate and implement their own development activities. It can strengthen local capacity to assess, plan, and evaluate interventions.
- c. Beneficiary Assessment (BA) (Salmen, 1995, 1999) is a systematic inquiry into people's values and behavior in relation to a planned or ongoing intervention. BA relies on participant observation and semi-structured conversational interviewing, and has become widely used in World Bank financed interventions.
- d. The Methodology for Participatory Assessments (Dayal, van Wijk, and Mukherjee, 2000) provides a framework for measuring of sustainability, along with participatory tools that promote inclusion of poor men and women in projects. It contains activities that can be adapted for project design, as well as indicators for monitoring and evaluation.
 - i. The Social Capital Assessment Tool is a methodology to assess social capital. It is a field-tested set of indicators and methodologies that measures levels of cognitive and structural social capital in communities designated for project implementation. The SCAT is useful for determining baseline levels of social capital and monitoring progress over the course of project implementation.
 - ii. Social Assessment (World Bank 1996b, Cernea and Kudat, 1997) is a process which provides an integrated and participatory framework for prioritizing, gathering, analyzing, and incorporating social information and participation into the design and delivery of Bank-assisted operations. It provides a more

comprehensive way to identify stakeholder subgroups among the poor and assess what may need to be done to promote their full participation in a project. It usually includes some participatory exercises (PRA, SARAR, or BA), in addition to surveys, semi-structured interviews, key informant interviews, observation, and background reading.

- iii. Human Scale Development (Max-Neef 1991, 1992) brings together communities or groups to analyze needs (e.g. subsistence, protection, participation, leisure, identity, etc.) that have constructive or destructive effects in their community. Communities develop medium and long term plans that are multidimensional.

5. Invest in capacity-building of CBOs

The lasting impact of CDD programs depends on the capacity of CBOs to provide services and goods on a sustainable basis, often in partnership with responsive formal institutions. Capacity-building of CBOs, and strengthening linkages with formal institutions, is a critical area for investment.

The impact of CDD programs is directly related to the strength of the CBOs driving the process. Experience and studies have shown that those CBOs with clear lines of responsibility, open decision making processes, and direct accountability to the community improve service provision, make more effective use of resources, and are more sustainable (Ostrom, Schroeder, and Wynne, 1993). CBOs need to have the managerial and technical skills required to undertake the required tasks.

Training and capacity building of CBOs through 'learning by doing' should thus be an important component of CDD programs. Where appropriate, capacity building should build on existing community strengths, including local organizations, traditional knowledge, and culture-based skills, so that existing capacity is strengthened rather than undermined. Because community-based organizations rely on volunteer efforts, which can dissipate at critical stages or can lack continuity, an important component of any capacity-building activity is to institutionalize the leadership function in CBOs (Lam, 1998).

6. Facilitate community access to information

Support to CDD is as much about facilitating flows of information among all groups in a community as it is about facilitating flows of funds. The lack of information is often the most significant limitation on CBOs' capacity to play a part in the development enterprise (Krishna, 2000) -community organizations need information on market opportunities, on what support resources are available, and on how to use these resources productively and efficiently. A variety of media may be used to facilitate access to and stimulate flows of information. Information technology and the internet, adapted to community needs, are playing a growing role in this process and can dramatically accelerate local learning and connections with a wide range of opportunities.

Types of information essential to CDD;

- a. Program contents and rules: Communities should be well informed about the program content, conditions, and terms of CDD programs. Mass communication campaigns that provide wide public dissemination of this material helps to place control in the hands of communities, thereby mitigating risks of manipulation by politicians, government officials, contracting agencies, and local elites.
- b. How to interact successfully with the government and market: An essential component of any CDD program should be to provide community members with knowledge and information useful to conduct transactions with both the government and market organizations. Successful CDD programs serve to facilitate linkages between community groups and both government and markets.
- c. Learn from experiences of other CBOs: Although CBOs learn by doing, the pace of learning and quality of implementation can be increased if CBOs learn from the good practices and innovations of other CBOs. Community-to-community exchanges provide opportunities to observe the potential benefits of participating in specific initiatives, and facilitate learning on how to replicate successful processes.
- d. Technical information: CBOs require technical information and support, including accounting and managerial skills required for decision making and implementation of activities.

7. Develop simple rules and strong incentives, supported by monitoring and evaluation

Experience indicates that sustainability and effectiveness of CDD is enhanced when processes are simple and transparent, and when actors have strong and consistent incentives for performance. Regular monitoring and evaluation then provides the necessary information to ensure that the integrity of the system is maintained.

- a. Simple rules. Community access to resources needs to be governed by simple rules that are easy for participating communities to interpret and apply. Clearly defined procedures, outlined and widely disseminated, help to avoid confusion and minimize administrative complexity. To maintain the credibility of the system, these rules should be monitored and transparently enforced.
- b. Strong performance incentives. Key actors at all levels should be rewarded for performance through objective evaluation based on clear criteria. For example, payments to intermediaries and the level of funding of intermediaries could be tied to their performance against indicators of access to service and of CBO institutional sustainability.
- c. Regular monitoring and evaluation. Systematic monitoring and evaluation of program processes and outcomes is critical for ensuring that programs continue to grow and adapt to changing conditions. This is particularly important where programs are being scaled up - monitoring systems supply the necessary information and feedback to ensure that processes are appropriately modified to the needs of different localities, and that potential bottlenecks or problems are identified and overcome early, before they become constraints to expansion. Programs should not just monitor physical and financial progress, but also consider quality of participatory processes, and indicators of effectiveness of local institutions and economic impact of activities. Participatory monitoring and evaluation is also a useful tool for evaluating how the activities are seen and valued locally.

8. Maintain flexibility in design of arrangements

Flexibility in design, often through piloting, is essential to allow systems to evolve and better adapt to local demand and capabilities. Flexible programme planning and

decentralized decision making mechanisms, situated as close to the community as possible, facilitate quick response to change.

As part of this learning process, direct feedback from the community on program performance is essential. Most successful programs routinely conduct beneficiary assessments, focus group interviews, client surveys, and other forms of evaluation that provide policymakers and program managers with information on whether investments reflect community priorities, the level and type of participation they have used, their sustainability, and their impacts.

9. Design for scaling-up

Despite the many islands of success in community-driven development, most countries still have significant opportunities for scaling up CDD. To have a material impact on macro indicators of poverty, CDD needs to take place in many communities simultaneously. It is no longer acceptable to design CDD as small non-replicable isolated interventions. However, the challenge of scaling up is not about bigger projects or bigger organizations, but rather about achieving sustainable results in a large number of communities.

Principles for scaling up CDD are for the most part the same principles for making CDD more sustainable. Arguably the most critical consideration for scaling up CDD, however, is to ensure that approval and disbursement processes are as decentralized as possible. This reduces delays, ensuring that program benefits can be accessed relatively quickly by local groups, so that program momentum is maintained and can respond rapidly to demands from additional communities.

Scaling up can be achieved either through networks among CBOs or through a larger number of small CBOs. In some contexts, as CBOs manage more programs over time, and as their capacity increases, a subset of CBOs may grow into larger networks, or unite more formally with public sector processes. In other contexts, CDD will remain driven by a growing number of small CBOs.

Different models can be appropriate depending on context. Some tools for promoting scaling up are outlined below:

- a. Cluster program activities. Concentrating CDD activities into a nodal area or micro-region can be an effective strategy for focusing inputs in the initial stages, rapidly demonstrating impacts, convincing neighboring groups of the benefits of collective action, gaining credibility, spreading information, and self-mobilizing demand for project activities. Over time numerous nodes emerge, each acting as a demonstration project to motivate surrounding communities to participate in CDD.
- b. Promote networks among CBOs. As CDD programs grow, lateral communication between communities and grassroots organizations can become very valuable. For example, such networks can inform member groups about changes in procedures or policies that impact their work. They can also coordinate activities, support horizontal learning, accelerate the establishment of new CBOs, build social capital and relationships, and branch out into new strategic activities. Support for CBO networks can take the form of organizing meetings for clusters of CBOs in a particular region, establishing a newsletter or annual conference, providing training for key leaders and so forth.

10. Invest in an exit strategy

An exit strategy for external support is a critical component of all CDD interventions. A clear distinction must be made between support services that are recurrent or permanent in nature and those that are temporary. For recurrent services, sustainability requires putting in place permanent institutional and financing arrangements at a cost that can be supported over the medium and long-term. Temporary services, such as initial intensive capacity-building support to community-based organizations, may however not require sustainable financing or permanent institutional structures. For such temporary services, explicit exit strategies need to be designed and implemented.

Review Questions

1. What is Community Driven Development (CDD)?
2. Mention the importance of Community Driven Development
3. Explain the term, Community-Based Organization (CBO)
4. Mention the differences between Community-Based Organizations, Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs), and elected Local Governments.
5. Mention the principles for sustainability and effectiveness CDD

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Participatory Approaches To Community & Participatory Development

Participatory planning and development is one of the fundamental development strategies that distinguish community development from rural development. We shall examine that latter. Basically, in community development initiative, every member of the community has a stake. A participatory approach is one in which everyone who has a stake in the intervention has a voice, either in person or by representation (Cornwall, 2002).

A true participatory approach is one in which everyone's perspective is considered. That doesn't mean that people can't challenge others' assumptions, or argue about what the best strategy might be. It does mean, however, that everyone's thoughts are respected, and it isn't necessarily assumed that the professionals or the well -educated automatically know what's best. Everyone actually gets to participate in the planning process, and has some role in decision-making. The process of encouraging participatory development is highlighted below,

- 3.1 Meaning of participatory planning process
- 3.2 Importance of Participatory Planning Approach
- 3.3 Types of Community Participation
- 3.4 Elements for Effective Participation
- 3.5 Challenges of Participatory Planning Approach
- 3.6 Factors Determining Community Participation
- 3.7 Participatory Development

- 3.8 Forms of Participatory Development
- 3.9 Criticisms of Participatory Development

3.1 Meaning of Participatory Planning Process

A participatory planning process - one in which all the stakeholders are involved - is often the most effective and inclusive way to plan a community intervention (2008). A participatory process provides community ownership and support of the intervention; information about community history, politics, and past mistakes; and respect and a voice for everyone. It also takes time, care, mutual respect, and commitment.

According to Pateman (1970), supporters of community participation usually rely on two arguments about its value. The first is that it makes for justice in decision making. People have some say in, and influence on collective decisions. Secondly, it has an educative value and through participation people learn.

Accordingly, getting as many people as possible in the decision making process is said to help policy makers, developers, politicians and investors understand the issues and hence make better informed decision (Tuftte & Thomas, 2009). Additionally, community participation also gives an opportunity for people to learn from one another and think about things that could have been difficult or neglected before.

Furthermore, community participation provides possibilities of changing someone's mind about things he/she thought familiar to him or her. Community participation is therefore not about conflict, inflexibility or trying to make individuals or specific groups happy, but rather it is about hearing, being heard and eventually working together. It is about reaching and admitting that we do not have all the answers. The ultimate result, however, may not be what individuals and specific group wants, instead it will be closer to what everyone as a whole wants. In this way the final products will be a plan or a decision, which comes from the collective efforts of a community as a whole. Such decisions will in turn gain legitimacy of the community because it comes from the community.

3.2 Importance of Participatory Planning Approach

According to Osmani (2008), the following are some of the basic importance of participatory planning in community development approach,

1. Participation carries with it feelings of ownership, and builds a strong base for the intervention in the community. If people are integral to the planning of a community intervention, then that intervention will be theirs. It increases the sense of responsibility and control over community issues.
2. It ensures that the intervention will have more credibility in all segments of the community because it was planned by a group representing all segments of the community. If people know that others with the same point of view and experience as theirs were instrumental in making the intervention happen, they'll assume that their interests were attended to.
3. It helps to bring greater understanding of local conditions and broad range of solutions. Bringing a broader range of people to the planning process provides access to a broader range of perspectives and ideas.
4. A participatory planning approach avoids pitfalls caused by ignorance of the realities of the community or the target population.
5. It provides appropriate and effective incorporation of traditional, indigenous experience in economical, medical and social planning issues. It involves important players or community stakeholders from the outset. If the intervention needs the support of a particular individual, or that of a particular agency or group, and they've been part of the planning from the beginning, their cooperation is assured.
6. It facilitates empowerments of individuals through increased awareness and development of new skills through participation. It can provide an opportunity for often-disenfranchised groups to be heard, and teach the community that they have important things to say.
7. It teaches skills which last far beyond the planning process, and can help to improve the community over the long term. People learn to run meetings, to analyze data, to construct strategic plans - in short, to become community resources and leaders.
8. It can bring together and establish ties among community members who might normally have no contact. Such relationships - between low-income people and business leaders, for instance - are not only supportive of the

intervention, but may help to create long-term relationships and break down barriers in the community.

9. A participatory planning process builds trust, both between the government, its agencies and the community and among the individuals involved. This trust can serve as a foundation for future community development and community action.
10. A participatory planning process generally reflects the mission and goals of grass roots and community-based organizations. With its underpinnings of collaboration, inclusiveness, and empowerment, a participatory approach embodies the ideals that form the foundations of most grass roots and community-based organizations.
11. It implies respect for everyone in the community, and thus sets a standard for community participation and empowerment that other organizations - and the community at large - may feel compelled to follow.
12. Logically, a participatory planning approach should be effective. The fact that it includes the views and perspectives of everyone affected by the intervention should work to assure that all assets and needs are identified and addressed, and that unintended consequences are minimized. Levels of participatory approach are almost always the most ethical way to plan a community intervention.

Apart from the above, a team of researchers from the Economic and Social Research Foundation (ESRF) of Tanzania have provided five advantages of community participation (Koopman et al 2001):

1. Participation in planning can help reduce design mistakes.
2. Participatory discussions of the design may also help to convince people that the technical choices they did not think were correct are in fact a good choice.
3. Participation helps to improve the programme/project design.
4. If people are not fully involved, they won't be willing to contribute funds or labour to the project.
5. Participatory decision-making increases the prospect for social and economic sustainability because it both creates a sense of ownership and gives people a greater understanding of how the particular project rehabilitation scheme will

work technically; how to avoid breakdowns and how everyone can contribute to good maintenance and proper operation can increase everyone's benefits.

In this way people's participation ensures project sustainability and social acceptability when the beneficiaries participate in the project. Indeed community participation leads to resource mobilization in the form of money and labour - - materials that can be easily obtained if people are committed to a project. But even more forcefully, the rationale and objective or positive function of community participation in the development cycle or project has been ably and succinctly summarized by Msambichaka:

The active involvement and participation of the community has been noted as *sine qua non* for imitating, planning, implementation and management of development programmes and projects. That is if programmes/projects are to succeed, the community has to be involved and should participate in the entire project cycle (Msambichaka 1998:1).

3.3 TYPES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Community participation varies from situation to situation and takes several forms. In view of that Msambichaka (1998) suggests some vital factors that determine or influence the individual and/or community's level of participation

- Type 1: Community Consultation:

This type of participation usually involves the exchange of ideas with either the leaders of the community/representatives of the community or a group of the community. In most cases in this type of participation, the external agents would define the problems and the solutions. They may listen to the views with the responses made by the people but they are in no way obliged to include them. In actual sense, the external agents merely inform the community without allowing them to share in decision-making in a way they go to seek approval of decisions which have been made by other people elsewhere. They also ask them to implement decisions that have already been decided by other people for them.

-Type 2: Community Financial Contributions

This is one of the modes of community participation, which is usually seen in programmes and projects. What happens is that communities are requested to contribute in cash or kind towards the project. The contributions are made either before the project starts or during the implementation period. Important in this case is that the community has at the minimum to be consulted but it is better if they participate fully in the whole decision process which leads towards making a decision that every member of the community contributes towards the project's activity. What happens is that communities are requested to contribute in cash or kind towards the project. The contributions are made either before the project starts or during the implementation period. Important in this case is that the community has at the minimum to be consulted but it is better if they participate fully in the whole decision process which leads towards making a decision that every member of the community contributes towards the project's activity.

-Type 3: Community Self-Help

This type of participation demands that the community not only participate in consultations and contributions. The community participates fully in the following project stages:-

- a. identification,
- b. design,
- c. planning,
- d. implementation,
- e. management, and
- f. monitoring and evaluation of project activities.

In this type of participation it is assumed that the communities have "identified" their/ a problem and that they want to solve the problem through their own resources, and leadership. The government and other organizations are only there to supplement the people's efforts and not to replace them.

Another view on types or levels of community participation has been advanced by Winklemann (1999) who opines six types:

1. Passive participation: in which people participate just by virtue of living in the area in which the project is implemented, but they have no any input into the project.
2. Participation for material incentives: in which people participate by being paid for their labour.
3. Participation by resource contribution: in which people participate by contributing in resources such as labour (unpaid labour), material or money to a predetermined project.
4. Participation by consultation: where people participate by being consulted on projects where the majority of the decisions have been made.
5. Interactive participation: when people participate by joining with external professionals in analyzing their situation, developing action plans and determining common projects.
6. Spontaneous participation: where people have spontaneously mobilized themselves and participated by taking their own initiative independent of external professionals to change their situation.

3.4 ELEMENTS FOR EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION

The Draft Report of the LVEMP Community Participation Strategy provides a comprehensive list of elements for effective participation (LVEMP January 2003:8-10, cited in Osmani, 2008). These elements include the following:

1. Political will: There is political mandate in support of community participation through the Constitution and various political and socio-economic reforms taking place in the country; For example, the Local Government Reform Program (LGRP).
2. Economic well-being of communities: Availability of important basic needs and services such as health services, education, safe and clean water are very important. However, due to abject poverty affecting the majority of majority of lake basic communities, provision of these services has been inadequate. If the issue of poverty is not addressed, effective community participation will be hindered.
3. Peace and Security: Peace and Security are important aspects to be considered for effective participation. Areas where communities experience

frequent theft of fishing gears, hijacking, robbery, piracy and cattle raiding they are unlikely to fully participate in community development activities.

4. **Institutional Arrangement:** Clear well defined, coordinated institutional structures and mandates are necessary for effective participation. Many actors such as Ministries, NGOs, bilateral organizations and Local Government Authorities are implementing community participation in Tanzania. In many cases, these institutions are not well coordinated.
5. **Education, Knowledge and Skills:** Education, knowledge and skills are very important in enabling communities to undertake development activities. Majority of the people in the lake basin are illiterate, unskilled and lack essential knowledge to adapt to changes. It is therefore, imperative that a comprehensive community participation strategy takes cognizance of these shortcomings.
6. **Awareness:** A majority of local communities lack awareness in various aspects e.g. environmental management and conservation, technological changes and civic knowledge. Sensitization and awareness creation programs are therefore important tools in enhancing community participation.
7. **Communication and infrastructure facilities:** Under this aspect, they are several key facilities, which need to be availed for effective participation to bring a linkage during the implementation process. These include; transportation, telephones, emails, radios, televisions and web sites.
8. **Socio-cultural Beliefs:** Social-cultural norms and taboos are important aspects to be considered in community participation. In some communities there exist taboos and norms that prohibit some important activities to take place such as afforestation, farming and sanitation.
9. **Information and Feedback Mechanism:** Since information is power, communities have the right to access and share information for informed decision-making and learning from others. An effective community participation strategy should therefore build adequate capacity for information networking.
10. **Sharing of Common Resources:** In a situation where few people manage to monopolize common resources, the possibility of other people particularly the poor to participate positively in community participation activities is difficult. For instance, in the Nile perch fishing industry, only few people have

amended to monopolize production processes from fishing, filleting and export. This situation is a hindrance to effective participation.

11. **Trust, Transparency and Accountability:** Trust, transparency and accountability are key elements for enabling communities to work together within their local settings. For example, lack of trust between Nile perch fish processors, prominent fishers/collectors and the artisan/poor fishers have created mistrust and tensions.
12. **Motivations, Incentives and Benefits:** This is one of the important aspects for drawing supportive community participation. When the communities realize benefits from their daily livelihood they participate positively on implementation of various activities (Osmani, 2008).

3.5 CHALLENGES OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING APPROACH

Along with its advantages, a participatory planning approach brings some serious disadvantages as well. It's crucial to understand and anticipate these, and to decide when and how a participatory planning approach can work in individual situations. Sen (2002) highlighted some of the challenges to include the following,

1. A participatory process takes longer. A diverse group always takes longer to make decisions and come to conclusions than an individual or small group. It could take so long that an opportunity is missed, or that valuable time is lost that could be spent addressing the problem.
2. Members of the target population or the community may not agree with the "experts" about what is needed. This may point out serious flaws in a proposed plan, and acknowledging and addressing those flaws may be difficult. Disagreement may also mean that the target population or community members simply don't have access to the knowledge or expertise to understand why the intervention is in fact a good idea.
3. It may be difficult to assure that all the right people get to the table. Some key people may simply not want to participate. Factions in the community, a history of failed attempts at communication or at dealing with problems, ignorance of which groups or individuals are important, or just basic mistrust may complicate the task of creating a participatory planning process. Overcoming this barrier, however, can have profound positive consequences in the community over the long term.

4. A participatory planning process takes patience and commitment on everyone's part. People have to maintain their commitment over time, remain civil while discussing issues about which they may have strong feelings, and be willing to compromise. A few misplaced words, or one or a small number of key people losing interest can upset the whole process.
5. Often, the most difficult part of participatory planning is to make sure that the "experts" actually listen to community people and members of the target population and take their ideas seriously. The goal isn't automatic acceptance of those ideas, but serious discussion of them, just as for the ideas of the professionals and policy makers. If the assumption is that only the professionals have something to offer, it doesn't matter who's sitting at the table - the process isn't participatory. It can be difficult, even for an outstanding facilitator, to turn this situation around.

The following are useful in promoting participatory planning in the community,

- a. Educating members of the community: lots of education may be needed, both for community members and the organization. Members of the target population and the community may not have important technical knowledge or experience, and may need to understand some theory or past practice in order to see what the organization is trying to do. Some may need new skills in order to participate fully in the planning process.
- b. Understanding the culture of the organisation: the organization, on the other hand, may need to learn more about local culture, political issues, and community history in order to tailor the intervention to the community and avoid past errors. Education of either or both takes time...and time may not be available.

3.6 FACTORS DETERMINING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A community or individual's decision to participate in the community development project/programme and plan is usually determined or influenced by a number of factors. According to BelkWatkins, Jerry & Tacchi 2008), some community development planners and practitioners have categorized such elements or factors for effective participation into two major categories namely community related and personal factors.

1. Community Related Factors

These factors generally include the following:

- i) The magnitude of the problem: an objective measure of the prevalence or extent of the problem.
- ii) A history of community support: This includes the existence of organization or agencies involved in the alleviation of the respective problem/issue, the presence of traditional systems for dealing with the issue, the amount of efforts and resources expended on the issue in a defined period of time by any sources with the community.
- iii) The existence of personal networks: As with the case (ii) above, this factor refers to the number, strength and connectedness of various networks that belong to the community and the presence of leaders in such networks.
- iv) The availability of resources related to the issue: These include the availability of information about the issue within the community, the presence of channels of communication that carry information about the issue, the amount of money and other resources available for the community to use in addressing the issue, and the presence of alternative practices/behaviors that could substitute for or alleviate the problem.
- v) A history of external support: This may include the past and present policy, legal financial or infrastructural support from outside the community (e.g. donor funding, technical assistance, enforcement etc).
- vi) Prior Community Action: This refers to the extent to which community participation has previously been resorted to in the community. This factor is sometimes referred to as "Collective Efficacy" - - the belief that the group/community is capable of accomplishing a task by working together. It is obviously influenced by some of the previous factors
- vii) Subjective Norms: This refers to perception of what other people do or think should be done about a particular issue, including the perception of how acceptable collective action is on the respective issue.

2. Personal Related Factors

These typically include one or more of the following factors:

- i) **Personal Involvement:** refers to the degree to which one has direct personal experience with the issue or problem being addressed.
Perceived self-efficacy: a person's belief that she/he is personally capable of performing a particular task.
- ii) **Prior personal participation in community activities** that refers to the number of times/frequency that an individual has been involved in group activities.
- iii) **Strength of identification with the community:** the degree or extent to which people recognize or feel they belong to the group or community that is affected by the issue in question.
- iv) **Perceived consequences of change:** referring to an individual's perception of what the consequences of change are vis-à-vis the respective problem/issue i.e. "What will happen to me if I do this? If I don't? What if my community does or does not? What are the costs and benefits for me/my community? etc.

It is important at this stage to accentuate that each of the above personal factors may be positive or negative, strong or weak in any given situation. The stronger and more positive they are, the more likely will people in the community be willing and/or want to participate.

Levels of participatory planning

There are a number of ways to consider community participation in planning. David Wilcox, in his excellent "Guide to Effective Participation," sets out the following as a model of the different possible levels of participation:

1. **Information** - The least you can do is tell people what is planned.
2. **Consultation** - You offer a number of options and listen to the feedback you get.
3. **Deciding together** - You encourage others to provide some additional ideas and options, and join in deciding the best way forward.
4. **Acting together** - Not only do different interests decide together what is best, but they form a partnership to carry it out.
1. **Supporting independent community initiatives** - You help others do what

they want - perhaps within a framework of grants, advice and support provided by the resource holder.

Each of these levels may be appropriate in different circumstances, or with different groups, although only at "deciding together" and above do they really begin to be fully participatory in the sense that the term is used in this section (BelkWatkins, Jerry & Tacchi 2008). When participatory planning is appropriate

In addition to whatever feels right for your organization and circumstances, there are some guidelines for when it might be appropriate to use each level of planning. BelkWatkins, Jerry & Tacchi (2008) pointed out the following,

Information-only may be appropriate when:

- a. The course of action has already been decided - by a funder, for instance
- b. You're simply reporting on something that's already in progress
- c. You're keeping people informed so that they'll have the information to be part of a participatory effort later

Consultation-only may be appropriate when:

- a. You want to evaluate or improve existing services
- b. There are limited options, and you're trying to choose among them
- c. There are technical reasons - again, perhaps because of a funder - why only certain people or groups can be officially involved in the planning process

Deciding together may be appropriate when:

- a. It's important that everyone feel ownership of the plan
- b. You want fresh ideas from as many sources as possible
- c. You can pull in people whom the intervention will directly affect
- d. There's a commitment to provide support through the process for those who need it
- e. There's enough time

In reality, as mentioned earlier, a planning process often is time-limited by proposal deadlines, the severity of the need (if teenagers are dying every day by gunfire, a violence prevention program needs to get under way quickly), the requirements of

other partners or funders, etc. The trick is to balance participation and time restraints, and to try to use the highest level of participation possible under the circumstances.

Acting together may be appropriate when:

- a. The intervention will be more effective than if it were run by a single entity
- b. There is a funder's requirement for community oversight
- c. There is commitment to the development of a real partnership
- d. Everyone benefits from acting together
- e. One goal of the intervention is the eventual assumption of leadership or the learning of leadership skills by the target population and/or others in the community

The word "partnership" implies a relationship of equals, where everyone has an equal voice, and where power and responsibility are equally shared. Forming such a relationship, even in circumstances where everyone truly desires it, is not a quick or easy task. It takes time, commitment both to the process and the end product (the partnership), and the willingness to air and work through disagreements and philosophical differences.

Supporting local initiatives may be appropriate when:

- a. There is a commitment to community empowerment
- b. The community has the desire and at least some of the tools to start and run a successful intervention
- c. There is a commitment to provide training and support where needed
- d. Your organization can only provide support, or can only run an intervention for a short time (BelkWatkins, Jerry & Tacchi 2008).

Who should be involved in a participatory planning process?

According to Mohan (2008), the ideal answer here is everyone who is affected by the proposed intervention, but that's seldom possible, or even desirable. You may be talking about thousands of people, too many for an effective planning process. In reality, there should be strong and effective representation for everyone involved, including:

1. Targets of Change: Targets of change are the people at whom the intervention is aimed or whom it is intended to benefit. That could be very

specific (e.g. teen mothers, for a job training program aimed at teen parents) or very general (the community as a whole, for a smoking prevention and cessation initiative aimed at everyone in the community).

There are really two groups to be considered here:

- a. Members of the target community, both those on whom the intervention is specifically focused, and others who share their culture, age, language, or other characteristics.
- b. People whom the target community sees as significant opinion makers. They may be members of the target population itself, or outsiders - clergy, advisors, former community members who now move in circles of power, politicians, etc. - whom people in the target community trust and rely on.
2. Agents of Change: Agents of change are the people who make or influence policy or public opinion. These include actual policy makers, but also encompass people influential in the community at large, who can help or block an intervention by their support or opposition.
3. Policy makers: This will include local elected or appointed officials, state or federal elected or appointed officials who have influence in the community or over the issue at which the intervention is aimed, educated members of the community and other individuals who have excelled in other endeavours, like business. Sometimes, it includes the Clergy and the faith community. In many communities, clergy wield great influence, and many see involvement in community issues as part of their spiritual mission. Faith-based groups, because of their cohesiveness, their sense of purpose, and their moral standing, can be powerful forces in a community. And last, but not the least, natural leaders, those whom others respect and listen to.

To successfully plan and encourage participation, the stakeholders must be identified and made to be involved, using appropriate communication techniques. Once the planning process has started, it has to be maintained. Participants have to continue to be interested, support has to be provided when it's needed, conflicts have to be resolved, methods have to be devised to keep the process reasonably efficient, goals and deadlines have to be set, etc.

3.7 PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT

From Participatory Planning (PP), we have Participatory Development (PD). Participatory development seeks to engage local populations in development projects. Participatory development has taken a variety of forms since it emerged in the 1970s, when it was introduced as an important part of the "basic needs approach" to development (Cornwall, 2002). Most manifestations of PD seek "to give the poor a part in initiatives designed for their benefit" in the hopes that development projects will be more sustainable and successful if local populations are engaged in the development process. PD has become an increasingly accepted method of development practice and is employed by a variety of organizations. It is often presented as an alternative to mainstream "top-down" development (Mohan, 2008). There is some question about the proper definition of PD as it varies depending on the perspective applied.

Two perspectives that can define PD are the "Social Movement Perspective" and the "Institutional Perspective":

1. The "Social Movement Perspective" defines participation as the mobilization of people to eliminate unjust hierarchies of knowledge, power, and economic distribution. This perspective identifies the goal of participation as an empowering process for people to handle challenges and influence the direction of their own lives (Tufte, 2009)

Empowerment participation is when primary stakeholders are capable and willing to initiate the process and take part in the analysis. This leads to joint decision making about what should be achieved and how. While outsiders are equal partners in the development effort, the primary stakeholders are *primus inter pares*, i.e., they are equal partners with a significant say in decisions concerning their lives. Dialogue identifies and analyzes critical issues, and an exchange of knowledge and experiences leads to solutions. Ownership and control of the process rest in the hands of the primary stakeholders (Tufte, 2009).

2. The "Institutional Perspective" defines participation as the reach and inclusion of inputs by relevant groups in the design and implementation of a development project. The "Institutional Perspective" uses the inputs and opinions of relevant groups, or stakeholders in a community, as a tool to

achieve a pre-established goal defined by someone external to the community involved. The development project, initiated by an activist external to the community involved, is a process by which problem issues in a community can be divided into stages, and this division facilitates assessment of when and to what degree a participatory approach is relevant (Tufté, 2009).

From an institutional perspective, there are four key stages of a development project: Research Stage, Design Stage, Implementation Stage, and Evaluation Stage. From these stages, the institutional perspective can also be referred to as a "Project-Based Perspective" (Tufté, 2009).

Advocates of PD emphasize a difference between participation as “an end in itself”, and participatory development as a “process of empowerment” for marginalized populations (Mohan, 2007). This has also been described as the contrast between valuing participation for intrinsic rather than purely instrumental reasons. In the former manifestation, participants may be asked to give opinions without any assurance that these opinions will have an effect or may be informed of decisions after they have been made. In the latter form, proponents assert that PD tries to “foster and enhance people's capability to have a role in their society's development” (Osmani, 2008).

Tufté (2009) maintained that, each project issue in participatory development can be divided into stages, and this division facilitates assessment of when and to what degree a participatory approach is relevant. As earlier noted above, from an institutional perspective, there are four key stages of a development project:

1. Research Stage is where the development problem is accurately defined. All relevant stakeholders can be involved in this process. The research around the development problem can include studying previous experiences, individual and community knowledge and attitudes, existing policies and other relevant contextual information related to socio-economic conditions, culture, spirituality, gender, etc.

2. Design Stage defines the actual activities. A participatory approach helps to secure the ownership and commitment of the communities involved. Active participation by local citizens and other stakeholders aims to enhance both the quality and relevance of the suggested interventions.
3. Implementation Stage is when the planned intervention is implemented. Participation at this stage increases commitment, relevance and sustainability.
4. Evaluation Stage participation ensures that the most significant changes are voiced, brought to common attention and assessed. For a meaningful evaluation, indicators and measurements should be defined in a participatory process at the very beginning of the initiative involving all relevant stakeholders (Tufté,

3.8 FORMS OF PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT

In participatory development, there are various forms. Tufté (2009) identified the following,

1. Passive participation is the least participatory of the four approaches. Primary stakeholders of a project participate by being informed about what is going to happen or has already happened. People's feedback is minimal or non-existent, and their participation is assessed through methods like head counting and contribution to the discussion (sometimes referred to as participation by information).
2. Participation by consultation is an extractive process, whereby stakeholders provide answers to questions posed by outside researchers or experts. Input is not limited to meetings but can be provided at different points in time. In the final analysis, however, this consultative process keeps all the decision-making power in the hands of external professionals who are under no obligation to incorporate stakeholders' input.
3. Participation by collaboration forms groups of primary stakeholders to participate in the discussion and analysis of predetermined objectives set by the project. This level of participation does not usually result in dramatic changes in what should be accomplished, which is often already determined. It does, however, require an active involvement in the decision-making process about how to achieve it. This incorporates a component of horizontal communication and capacity building among all stakeholders—a joint

collaborative effort. Even if initially dependent on outside facilitators and experts, with time collaborative participation has the potential to evolve into an independent form of participation.

4. Empowerment participation is where primary stakeholders are capable and willing to initiate the process and take part in the analysis. This leads to joint decision making about what should be achieved and how. While outsiders are equal partners in the development effort, the primary stakeholders are *primus inter pares*, i.e., they are equal partners with a significant say in decisions concerning their lives. Dialogue identifies and analyzes critical issues and an exchange of knowledge and experiences leads to solutions. Ownership and control of the process rest in the hands of the primary stakeholders.

3.9 CRITICISMS OF PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT

Although significant in promoting community development, PD is without criticisms. Mohan (2008) noted that, when compared with traditional forms of development, PD is sometimes criticized for being costly and slow. A project may take longer if one has to engage, work and come to a consensus with local communities, than if one did not have to do these things. PD may also have higher start up costs than traditional development. In addition, PD is criticized for reaching a smaller population than traditional development. Community dialogue and augmentation may initially involve only a few individuals, whereas dropped food aid reaches hundreds of people.

Cornwall (2002) added that PD projects have been accused of treating communities as if everyone in them is the same. This issue has been raised most specifically with regard to gender. Critics suggest that while many organizations acknowledge the importance of including women in PD projects, the history of success has been limited (Mayoux, 1995). This may be because PD projects seek to address women's immediate needs "without addressing underlying aspects of gender subordination such as the unequal division of reproductive labour, restrictions on female mobility, domestic violence, women's lack of autonomy and so on" (Mayoux, 1995).

Mayoux (1995) further added that PD projects fail to adequately address other inequalities such as class and caste. In trying to give voice to communities, development agencies may connect only with elite members of a group, thereby re-

enforcing local inequalities. PD projects have also been accused of enabling tokenism, where a few “hand-picked” local voices are allowed to speak as a “rubber stamp to prove...participatory credentials” (Mohan, 2008). This view suggests that organizations only include local voices to improve their image, without really seeking to engage the population with which they are working. However, the significance of PD cannot be undermined as it provides the community members with the responsibility for choosing their development priorities and the best possible means of sustainably achieving it.

Review Questions

1. Define the term participatory planning process and highlight its importance.
2. Identify the various types of community participation
3. What are the basic elements for effective participation?
4. Explain the challenges of participatory planning approach
5. What is participatory development? Mention its forms.
6. Identify the criticisms of participatory development

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Community Mobilization And Sustainable Community Development Planning

Community mobilization is one of the process for building rural/ community capacity for promoting effective community development. The issues discussed below will buttress this fact,

- 4.1 What is community mobilization
- 4.2 Basic steps for community mobilization
- 4.3 How does community mobilization work
- 4.4 The role of donors, policy-makers, and external organizations

4.1 WHAT IS COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION

There are nearly as many definitions of community mobilizations using it as a strategy. We will examine some of them,

1. Community mobilization is a capacity-building process through which community members, groups, or organizations plan, carry out, evaluate activities on a participatory and sustained basis to improve their health and their conditions, either on their own initiative or stimulated by others (Adedeji, 1990).
2. Community mobilization is a dynamic process that involves planned actions to reach, influence, enable, and involve key segments of the community in order to collectively create an environment that will effect positive behavior

and bring about desired social change (Anderson, 1991). Segments include influential groups or individuals as well as formal and informal leaders among those who will directly benefit from the desired social change.

3. Community mobilization is a process whereby a group of people have transcended their differences to meet on equal terms in order to facilitate a participatory decision-making process. The process therefore is grounded in local concerns and energy, and both empower and ensure local ownership, leading to greater sustainability and impact.

Although this strategy can be applied to any aspect of community development, in this paper we focus on community mobilization to improve material and newborn health. Its primary actors are community members (particularly women of reproductive age), families, households, neighborhoods, and community organizations with their respective links to external resources.

4.2 BASIC STEPS FOR COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION

According to (Estee, 2004) the basic steps of community mobilisation involve the following features:

1. **Defining the problem**
The first step in community mobilisation is to collect the basic information about the issue, or problem which the community intends to address. This will give an idea of the extent of the problem and what the underlying causes are. In doing so, one has a clear statement of the problem and identifies the target population in the community affected by it.
2. **Establishing a community mobilisation group**
The aim is to establish a group that can influence community mobilisation activities. It usually consists of partners that have a stake in the issue, as well as influential groups and members of the community such as formal and informal leaders and religious and traditional leaders.
3. **Designing strategies, setting objectives and selecting target groups**
To achieve a planned change at community level, resources need to be mobilised from the community and other external partners. After obtaining resources, the community mobilisation group designs strategies to address the

identified problem with objectives that are SMART, which means Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-bound. The objectives are assessed for their impact on the targeted groups in the community.

4. **Building capacity**
Capacity building involves identifying existing capacity resources and assessing the gaps that exist to implement the community mobilisation. The gaps identified are supplemented by capacity building of the community groups and other relevant stakeholders in the community involved in community mobilisation.
5. **Identifying partners**
In the community there are various partners that work independently to achieve similar goals. Therefore, it is important to identify relevant partners through a simple mapping exercise.
6. **Implementing the plan of activities**
Based on the action plans developed with relevant community level partners, implementation of the community mobilisation activities is the main task. In the implementation process, a clear role for any partners that are involved should be put in place and communicated with all of them.
7. **Monitoring and evaluation**
Monitoring and evaluation is the last, but essential, element of community mobilisation. It enables one check whether the action plan has been implemented effectively and the specific objectives are met with respect to the issue the community is mobilised to achieve.

Participation is the essential element of community mobilization, but it is important to recognize that all participation is not equal. Figure 1 show increasing degrees of community participation, from the low end of cooption to the high end of collective action. As community participation increases, community ownership and capacity increase, with the result that community action and continuous improvement in the quality of community life are more likely to be sustained over time.

FIGURE 1: The Degrees of Community Participation

Community Ownership and Sustainability	Collective Action: local people set their own agenda and mobilize to carry it out, in the absent of outside initiator and facilitation.
	Co-learning: Local people and outsider share their knowledge to create understanding and work together to form actions plant with outsider facilitation.
	Cooperation: Local people work together with outsider to determine pri orities, responsibility remind for directing the process .
	Consultation: Local opinion are asked; outsider analyze and decide the course of action
	Compliance: Task are assigned, with initiative, outsider decide agenda and direct the process.
	Co-option: Token involvement of local people; representative chosen, but have no real input or power

Source: Estee (2004)

Estee (2004) further noted that, when carried out at the higher levels of participation, community mobilization:

1. Builds on social networks to spread support, community, and changes in social norms and behaviors.
2. Builds local capacity to identify and address community needs.
3. Through organizing and capacity strengthening, helps to shift the balance of power so that disenfranchised populations have a voice in decision-making and increased access to information and services while addressing many of the underlying social cause of poor health (discrimination, poverty, low self-esteem and self-efficacy, low social status, etc)
4. Mobilizes local and external resources to address the issues and establishes coordination and monitoring system to ensure transparency, accountability, and effective management of these resources (in decentralized government,

this is evolving as an important issue as health services depend more on local government funding to support them.

5. Plays a key role in linking communities to health services, helping to define, improve on, and monitor quality of care from the joint perspectives of community members and services providers, thereby improving availability of, access to, and satisfaction with health services.

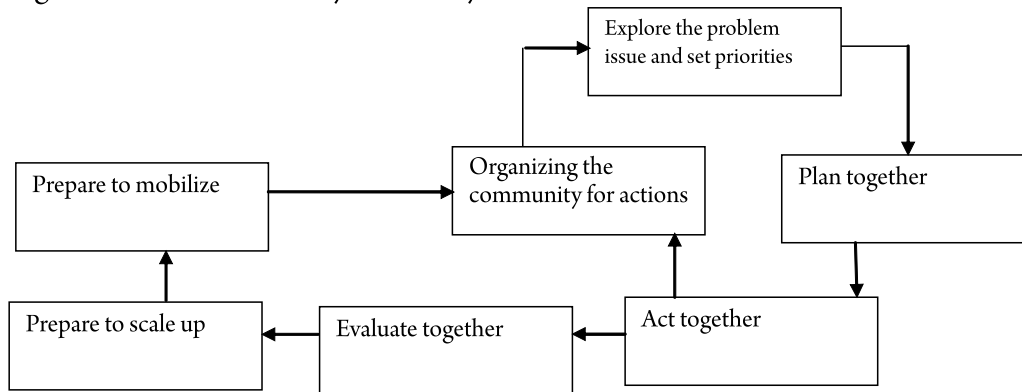
True community mobilization incorporates values and principles that empower people to develop and implement their own solution to health and other challenges. Programmes that carry out all of the community mobilization steps but do not embrace these values and principles will not empower communities to achieve lasting results. They may also run the risk of setting poor precedents that leave communities feeling co-opted, manipulated, and reluctant to work with external organizations in the future.

4.3 HOW DOES COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION WORK

Mohan (2008) noted that community mobilization is a comprehensive strategy that includes the following activities: carrying out careful formative research to understanding the community context and design the process; entering the community (if externally facilitated) and establishing credibility and trust; raising community awareness about the maternal and newborn health situation; working with community leaders and others to invite and organize participation of these most affected by and interested in maternal and newborn health; exploring the issue to understand what is currently being done and why (helpful, harmful, and benign practices, beliefs, and attitudes) so that they can set priorities; planning; implementing the community plan; and monitoring and evaluating progress.

Community members who are most affected by and interested in maternal and newborn health are involved from the very beginning and throughout the action cycle. Other individuals and organizations from inside and outside the community who may provide technical and resource support are invited to participate at appropriate points along the way.

Figure 2: The Community Action Cycle



Estee (2004)

4.4 THE ROLE OF DONORS, POLICY-MAKERS, AND EXTERNAL ORGANIZATIONS

With specific attention to health care delivery service Tufte & Thomas (2009) disclosed that the roles of donors and policymakers in mobilization for material and newborn health is to ensure programmes,

1. Integrate community mobilization into the broader national or regional health plan.
2. Prioritize communities with the highest mortality and that could benefit
3. Hire implementing organizations with proven experience and expertise in community mobilization and maternal and newborn health.
4. Engage communities as full partners in planning, implementation and evaluation.
5. Have sufficient financial support; have realistic timelines; are supported by policies that promote community participation
6. Establish links to external assistance within the health and other sectors
7. Establish mechanisms to coordinate the work of all implementing agencies and communities to ensure that perspectives at all levels are taken into account as strategies and materials are developed, to maximize program learning and use of resources.

External assistance is most effective when it starts from where people are and facilitates a process through which interested community members, especially the most vulnerable, identify and implement strategies and approaches that will reduce mortality within their local context. Additionally, external facilitators may share valuable information with community members on effective strategies, practice, and experiences to complement local knowledge, making for better informed community decision-making and planning relationships with communities built on respect and trust, with faith in the ability of community members to identify and resolve their challenges in the most appropriate way in the local cultural setting. Ideally, community mobilization will work together with other, complementary program strategies (mass media, services strengthening, and policy advocacy) rather than on its own.

To Raise Awareness and Foster Commitment

When community mobilization is implemented effectively, it raised people's awareness of a real need that they may or may not have perceived before and it presents an opportunity to achieve a goal that is not clear benefit to the community. When the goal resonates with people and they are offered the opportunity to address it in a meaningful way, they become engaged.

To Address the Underlying Causes of Inequitable Access and Care

High maternal and newborn mortality are often the result of physical, social cultural and political factor that are beyond an individual's control. Beneath this factor we often find discrimination, power imbalances, and marginalization of women and minority groups that contributed directly and indirectly to poor health by limiting access to esteem, and by inducing a chronic level of stress.

Community mobilization aims to address these underlying issues through collective consciousness and action. Communities—and women in particular—that previously recognized the need to address poor health outcome but felt helpless to do anything on their own, gain strength in the knowledge that they are not alone and that there is something they can do. They are encouraged as learn what is already working, and they become increasingly determined to address the challenges that remain.

As women build their understanding, increase their skills, and develop relationship with men, community leaders, and organization, they often become more valued and respected in the community, and they start to play a more active role In the community decision-making process, inserting maternal newborn health into the public agenda and inviting others to help support their goal. As they gain access to decision-making process, women's status and value in the home and community increase, and power imbalances that underlie their ability to access information, services, and other resources become more equitable, enabling them to better identify and meet their needs. As the perceived value of women increases, they become more equal partners in making key household decisions such as whether or not to spend scarce family resources to save the life of a pregnant woman.

Although there have been very few published studies comparing higher level community participation with more externally driven, top-down approaches and their effects on health outcome, the studies that have been published have indicated that community participation approaches resulted In better health outcome, improved health knowledge and practices, and practices, and greater community involvement in health activities. More complex research needs between to be carried out to better understanding the complex direct and indirect links between participation, strengthened community capacity empowerment, and improved health outcomes.

To Strengthen Community Capacity

Several conceptual framework have been developed to illustrate the challenges involved in improving maternal and newborn health, such as the “pathway to survival” (Estee, 2004) which describes the possible delays to resolving life-threatening complications: the delay in recognizing a health problem, the delay in deciding to seek care, the delay in reaching a health facility or services, and the delay in providing adequate treatment.

Strategic and Sustainable Community Development Planning

The Sustainability Community Development (SCD) planning process is supported by the 3Cs of sustainability. It is extremely important to understand the many, diverse Connections in capital assets and human-nature interaction associated with action

planning so Choices made do not produce unintended Consequences. This is the number one principle of any planning process and is what make the planning “strategic” (Flint, 2006). Thus, we must be continually aware of basis factor affecting how human and nature worlds operate. That is exactly what integrates the idea of sustainability into strategic action planning.

Conventional planning routinely performed by the town/city planner involve decisions and executions carried out by the community legislation and/or the different governmental agencies usually in isolation. On occasion the design team presents plans to the community and input is gathered through various methods such as surveys and public hearing. But in many instance, comprehensives planning has lacked significant public dialogue, or encouragement of small discussion group input on part of the responsible jurisdiction. In a conventional planning exercise strategic integration of issues is rarely considered. A system's approach to planning is also rare. Usually major issues are insolated into topic with little cross-feed there is limited public input and transparency.

Strategic planning for SCD has emerged as a compelling alternative to conventional approached to planning for community development: a participatory, holistic and inclusive planning process that leads to positive, concrete changes in communities. Strategic planning actions in SCD are best developed by taking a system's approach to understanding, forecasting, and decision-making. Only through the use of a sustainability framework (e.g. the Nature step,3- overlapping circle model, triple Bottom Line) applied consistently throughout the SCD project, as a sustainability lens in deciding on plan objectives and strategic actions, can a community be assured that it is incorporating concepts of sustainability during its process for systemic strategic planning (Pfau, 2011)

There are two elements that community members must understand about their community before they commence on an SCD process: the human assets that a community possesses and the need or problem that a community has. The SCD process itself includes the

1. Convening of stakeholders,
2. Creating a vision of the community identified by core values,

3. Established the goals,
4. Employing the emerging field of sustainability science to identified assets and challenge and set targets for improvement,
5. Development objectives and action to improve sustainability performance with assistance from a selected sustainability framework for guidance,
6. Developing a business case for pursuing sustainability,
7. Identifying and selecting improvement project that meet the chosen sustainability framework criteria for assessing a project,
8. Designing a strategy for assessing community change and indicators to monitor change (again based on sustainability science),
9. Employing an adaptive management approach to implement change which engage the learning by experience, thus refining/revising strategic action to achieve the intended outcome defined by the visions, and
10. Communicating to community for members for encouraging participation in the overall effort (Flint, 2006).

SCD efforts begin by developing an understanding of what exists in the community right now the capabilities of local residents, associations, and institutions. Whereas traditions development processes might begin with an assessment of what is lacking in community-in other word the community's problem- asset mapping flips this around to identify and capitalized on the tangible and intangible strengths that already exist (Mohan, 2007).

Likewise, a necessary for SCD success is getting a large number of population from the target community (critical mass) to engage and participate in community improvement planning and action implementation. Public support, is crucial, because it lends credibility to a project initiative, help you again further support, provides strength for action or political pressure, blocks passive sabotage, and creates community ownership of and responsibility for dealing with the issues of concern. Efforts must be focused upon how best to engaged people and use their knowledge most effectively to develop action strategies specifically directed toward community resilience and sustainability. These action strategies should be founded upon plans initiated, driven and completed by targets community.

Communities that have the ways and means to undertake these challenges demonstrate “capacity.” A fundamental goal of community capacity building is to increase the ability of individual to make policy choice and modes of implementation among development options, based on an understanding of environment potentials and limits and of perceived needs.

After assets assessment the next step in SCD is to review main strength and problem that were compiled from the different survey tools that might in the community. These should be analyzed in the sustainability framework context while trying to achieve agreement on the ranking of key problem listed. It is extremely important and obvious that the community fully delineate the needs I the community before developing the action plan of vision etc. one of the unfortunate by-product of initiating a needs assessment or problem identification process is the implication that the community has many shortcomings. In interaction among community member therefore, it is best to try and keep dialogue positive.

In developing the strategic sustainability plan it is critical to establish a vision, goal and objectives, so the community can be sure it's pursuing the right strategies. Having a listing of community needs will assist the work of problem identification and visioning in the action plan for strategic sustainability planning. In visioning the community must examine its members' core value and meaningful vision of the supported by compelling goals provides purpose and direction in the present. A vision is like a lighthouse which illuminates rather than limits, gives direction rather than destination.

A community's vision communicates what member or issues stakeholder believes are the ideal condition for the community- how things would look like if the issues important to each community members were perfectly addressed. By developing a vision statement, the participating community members make the beliefs and governing principles of the group clear to the greater community.

In the community SCD planning process it is extremely important to see a goal as the first step in making dreams a reality, a statement of regarding the actions to achieve a certain vision. Setting goals moves the community ever closer to realizing its vision. A

goal is a concrete thing in which you set into motion the step to obtain it. A goal is a target you want to reach or achieve a general statement in abstract terms of an intended outcome. Goals should be focused on the community's strength and reflect the end state community wants to arrive at in the form of increased capital after the strategic sustainability plan has been implemented.

To continue work on SCD the community must build on their shared vision and goals with the development of objectives, the foundation for guiding strategic actions. Objectives are specific measurable element of an issue or problem- how of what will be accomplished and by when-that are the means for achieving any particular community goal. The way to meet the community's defined goal will be through the setting of objectives. And each objective is related to a problem that has been characterized through community dialogue.

The community must design a process for identifying and understanding the variables at work in a particular problem system and the influence they exert (Nagy and Heaven, 2009). The vision sets the “big picture” that the goals and objective fit into. Developing objectives is a critical step in the community's planning process. Completed objectives can serve as marker to show member of the community and other what the SCD initiative has accomplished (Nagy and Fawcett, 2011).

Once the community stakeholders have agreed to a visions, goal and objective and have evaluated the objective for sustainability, they are ready for the next step: developing the strategies that will make the objective possible. Strategic action can commence once your objective are satisfactory to all member of the community wanting to have a say, as well as important people outside the community with knowledge of the issues. While the strategic plan might address general goals stakeholders want to see accomplished, the strategy statements themselves will help determine the specific actions they will to make their vision a reality, always considering both the subtle and big picture constraints of the 3Cs of sustainability (Flint, 2006).

Strategic planning will lead to a set of decisions about what the community wants to do, why they want to do it, and how they will do it. The overall goals and objectives-

while trying to minimize the number of “unintended consequences” that might result. A strategic plan will describe the way a community will use its initiatives to meet its objectives while being well-informed of the many human-nature interconnections involved. Naturally, some decisions and actions are more important than others. Much of strategic planning lies in making the tough decision about what is most important to achieving success, always trying your best to understand the vast array of synergistic processes (both internal and external) that will be influencing action choices you ultimately decide upon (Nagy and Axner, 2009). By integrating the steps you are able to “big picture” a thoroughly integrated plan that will most definitely provide the most efficient use of time, energy and resources.

Creating project metrics or monitoring tools is the last step in the successful completion of a community's strategic sustainability plan. Communities come together to reduce levels of violence, to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, to work for safe, affordable housing, or to help improve the water quality in their local ecosystems. But how do they know whether these programs are working? If they are not effective, and even if they are, how can the community make them better? And finally, how can community leaders make intelligent choices about which promising programmed are working best are in their community over the long-term?

Assessment provides the transition from the intellectual nature of planning to the real world where your plan is being executed. When you measure the actual effects of your actions at regular intervals, you will know whether or not you are making progress toward your goals. The assessment process seeks to find out if your actions are on target and improvement in the community is occurring. And more times than not, the metric of assessment is the indicator. An indicator is something that helps you understand where you are, which way you are going and how far you are from where you recognize what needs to be done to fix it.

Once the community has chosen criteria that characterizes their action project, they must decide exactly what they are going to measure, and for how long-the indicators that will monitor the criteria. Once indicators and corresponding data base are agreed to, community members can begin setting benchmarks or targets for each indicator. The criteria/indicator model will require system diagnoses to explain undesirable

trends that may be shown by indicator measures. Such diagnosis is a key element in adaptive management processes that can be designed to direct the use of resources within a sustainable framework, to help understand what the system conditions are, and to alert managers when indicators tell the community leaders something is wrong.

The above planning process is referred to as “Communities of change,” a theory of action which has evolved from my experiences in sustainable community development through the last couple of decades. This process employs representative practices for establishing community wisdom and capacity, and the process of evolutionary sustainability for enhancing community change (Milstern and Chapel, 2011) The outcome of this process is not a report that will sit on a shelf, but rather a strategy document that will guide the setting of policies and procedures to affect change in the target community over both the short-and long-term.

Review Questions

1. Define the term community mobilization
2. What are the basic steps for community mobilization
3. Discuss how the process of community mobilization work
4. Mention the role of donors, policy-makers, and external organizations

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Community Self –help Projects And Rural Development

Despite concerted efforts by the government to improve the welling of rural dwellers, there is persistence poverty in Nigerian rural communities (Akinleye (2003). In fact, the present poor state of rural areas reflects cumulative policy neglect, poor planning and inadequate resources transfer Rural Development Sector Strategy. It becomes appropriate to promote community self-help project initiate as a participatory and integrated community development strategy to improve the social and economic well being of the people.

- 5.1 Defining the Problem
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5.1 DEFINING THE PROBLEM

The study is developed in response to the concern on the possible cause of dearth of community self-help efforts in development of rural communities in Bayelsa State. Community self-help schemes initiated and implemented by local communities

¹A field study conducted by Love Obiani Arugu & ²Anam Bassey in Bayelsa State, Nigeria.

became vogue in the 1970s – 1980s and it played significant role in the provision of social infrastructure in rural communities. It's a bottom-top approach to rural development where the local people are involved from the initiation to the implementation development projects geared towards alleviating rural poverty and generating rural development, by jointly pooling their resources(monetary and labour) to execute badly needed social infrastructures in their communities. However, beginning from the early 1990s community self-help began to gradually loss momentum and finally died down due to myriads of variables. The dearth of community self-help efforts has in effect manifested in the increasing high rate of poverty the general decay in social infrastructure in rural communities, because community self-help was seen as the catalyst for the development of rural communities. The study identifies the factors that have contributed to the decline in self- help projects in rural communities in Bayelsa State with recommendations that are significant in reviving and sustaining self-help projects in the state.

5.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Community self-help development is one of the emerging approaches to rural development. Aweto (2000) noted that the idea of self-help is one of several distinguishing features of community development theory, practice, and ideology. Self-help is based on the premise that people can, will, and should collaborate to solve community problems. In addition to the practical problem-solving utility of this perspective, self-help builds a stronger sense of community and a foundation for future collaboration. It embodies the notion that a community can achieve greater self-determination within constraints imposed by the larger political economy in which it is embedded. Without a commitment to self-help, a community may exist as a place, an organization, or an interest group but be lacking the capacity building strategy. It is a style of planning, decision making, and problem solving which is endemic to the very idea of community, especially that of the small, face-to-face community (Capfens, 1999).

Darah (2004) disclosed that self-help is emphasized not only as a goal to be achieved in and of itself, but also as a strategy for the accomplishment of broader development objectives. Helping communities achieve a capacity for self-help is fundamental to both the theory and practice of community development. In Nigeria, as in other parts

of African nations, self-help strategy for development has played significant role in rural development.

In the 1970s-1980s, community self-help effort became very popular and significant that prompted the Old Rivers State government to embrace it and made it as part of the State government policy by giving match grants and aids to rural communities that embark on self-help development projects meant to develop the rural communities. Most of the rural infrastructures that were built in the Old Rivers State (Bayelsa State) in 1970s-1980s were as a result of self-help efforts, where local communities mainly levied themselves to raise funds to provide the needed social amenities.

Self-help embodies two interrelated features: (1) it is expected to produce improvements of people's living conditions, facilities, and/or services" and (2) it emphasizes that the process by which these improvements are achieved is essential to development of the community. The "developed community" is both improved and empowered as a result. Of these two features, the self-help perspective emphasizes that the process is more important in the long run than the improvements, because the collaboration that derives from a strong sense of community can be the means to continuing improvement of community services and quality of life. By contrast; if community services, facilities, or improvements are contributed by an outside agency or organization with little or no community involvement, such "improvements" are likely to be transitory, to increase community dependency, to contribute little to a greater sense of community, and to diminish the community's future capacity to act on its own behalf. Thus a self-help approach not only emphasizes what a community achieves, but more importantly, how it achieves it (Darah, 2004).

In Nigeria, rural areas are noted for their backwardness in terms of infrastructural development in relation to urban setting. Therefore the need to focus on rural development through the self-help approach is potent and widely accepted. Chambers (1974) identifies four main reasons.

- i. Firstly, according to him the majorities of the population live and find their livelihoods in the rural areas.
- ii. Secondly, the drift to the towns (rural-urban migration) is a matter of concern,

- because of the increasing rate of urban unemployment, housing problems, increasing crime rates and other attendant social evils.
- iii. Thirdly, it is in the rural areas that most of the poorer and most disadvantaged people are to be found.
 - iv. Fourthly, there is a cluster of orthodox economic arguments for giving priority to rural development.

The paper advances for the need to promote the self-help rural development approach as a potent development strategy in Nigeria. It examines community self-help efforts and dearth of self-help schemes in Bayelsa State and further identifies practical strategies to improve self-help schemes in State so as to improve upon the wellbeing of the people. The study intends to address the following,

1. Identify forms of community self-help projects in Bayelsa State.
2. Examine factors responsible for the dearth of community self-help projects in the State.
3. Identify strategies for reviving sustaining community self-help projects in Bayelsa State.

5.3 METHODOLOGY AND SOURCE OF DATA

The study adopts a secondary source of data. Data were obtained from documentaries; government publications, literature from past research and personal observations. Internet research, documented profiles and field works have enriched the paper. It is situated in Bayelsa State. The state is in southern Nigeria in the core Niger Delta region, between Delta State and Rivers State. Its capital is Yenagoa. The state was formed in 1996 from part of Rivers State and is thus one of the newest states of the Nigerian federation.

5.4 EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

The literature will examine the concepts of development as they apply to this study; rural, community and self-help development. The concept of development is ubiquitous. It means different things to different people, depending on intellectual and ideological belief of the society. According to Akinleye (2003) development varies as there are schools and scholars in the field of development study. The common theme that runs through the literature on development agrees that it is a man centered and

multidimensional phenomenon that ultimately leads to qualitative improvement in man's standard of living. Thus, according to Okodudu (1998) development may be reflected in the economic, educational, social and aesthetic life of the society.

Development has different meanings, i.e. "increases in production, income, standards of living, quality and accessible education," the "development of the economic wealth of a nation for the benefit of the people;" or a set of "economic, social, political and government policies that seeks to improve the lives of the people." Whichever manner one choose to explain development; it seeks improvements in literacy rates, life expectancy, reduction in poverty, and the provision of adequate political goods and services. With that in mind, the main goal of development therefore is improvement in human well-being: high standard of living, expanding choices, guaranteeing people's freedom, increasing their economic security, and the provision of an enabling environment to allow people attain their private and public aspirations.

In addition, development can also be measured with indicators which includes advancement in infrastructural development, enhanced education, training and greater employment opportunities, affordable cost of living, a more efficient government system and reduction of wasteful economic and organizational practices such as embarking on unviable projects, corruption and graft, greater self-reliance especially in food production, development of technology, improved productivity, sustainable political stability, healthy population (Onuoha, 1999). Ibaba (2005) added absence of absolute poverty, low level of unemployment.

In addition, Laninuhun (2003) as cited in Amodu (2008) noted that development implies a change for better: the ordering of society and social and economic processes in such a way as to lead the eradication of gross poverty, ill-health, illiteracy, and to rising standards of living and material comforts for all. Therefore, development implies a process of transformation usually manifested in the occurrence of desirable changes in the various aspect of life of society (Tamuno, 2009). According to Akpakpan (1987), examples of such changes are:

1. Reduction in the level of unemployment
2. Reduction in the extent of personal and regional inequalities
3. Reduction in the level of absolute poverty

4. Rise in real output of goods and services and improvement in the techniques of production
5. Improvement in literacy, health services, housing conditions and government services
6. Improvement in the level of social and political consciousness of the people and
7. Greater ability to draw on local resources (human and material) to meet local need. i.e. becoming more independent.

On the other hand, the word 'rural' connotes a specific geographic location on the earth surface in relation to an urban location. Spatially, rural refers to the countryside, while urban refers to the city. Economically, rural areas are noted for the cultivation of primary products. Politically, rural areas constitute the politically marginalized group located at grass-root level, law and power flow not from the bottom (rural) but from the top (federal and state) and finally to local government areas. Socio-culturally, the rural people are seen as backward in every sense of the word. Social interaction and actions are based on primordial behaviour (Tamuno, 2009). Besides, the rural economy is generally characterized by high dependence on agricultural activities, farming, fishing, forestry, animal husbandry, poultry, food processing etc.

Ollawa (1977) cited in Tamuno, (2009) contributed that rural development is, the restructuring of the economy in order to satisfy the material needs and aspirations of the rural masses and to promote individual and collective incentives to participate in the process of development. This involves a host of multi-sectoral activities, including the improvement of agriculture, the promotion of rural industry the creation of the requisite. Infrastructural development, social overheads and establishment of appropriate decentralized structures in order to allow participation are significant in enhancing rural development.

Contributing further, Todaro (1977) opined that rural development while dependent primarily on small farmers and agricultural progress, implies much more. It encompasses:

1. Improvement in levels of living, including income, employment, education, health, and nutrition, housing and variety of social services
2. Decrease inequality in the distribution of rural incomes and in urban-rural imbalances in incomes and economic opportunities and
3. The capacity of rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of development

According to the World Bank (2011), rural development is concerned with the modernization and monetization of rural society, and with its transition from its traditional isolation to integration with the national economy. In addition, Akpakpan view rural development as, the transformation of rural areas of the society i.e. the transformation of the economic, social and political structures, institutions, relationship and processes in the rural areas which have hindered productivity....must involve measures and actions that will bring about such transformation measures and actions that will generate economic opportunities (e.g. jobs and income) and improve literacy, health, housing, real output of goods and services, techniques of production and social and political & consciousness in the rural areas of the society.

The most widely cited definition of rural development by scholars and practitioners is that of Uma Lele (1979). He defines rural development as improving the living standards of the mass of the low income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self-sustaining. The above definition has three main components:

1. Improving the living standards of the subsistence population entails the mobilization and allocation of scarce resources with a view to reaching a desirable balance overtime between the welfare and productive services available
2. Mass participation requires that resources be allocated to low-income regions and class and that the productive and social services actually reach them
3. Making the process self-sustaining requires development of appropriate skills and levels to ensure the effective use of existing resources.

Rural communities in Nigeria have been noted for their general state of backwardness as a result of deficiency in social infrastructure such as potable water, good roads,

electricity, markets etc. The rural areas represent one of the extreme situations of underdevelopment- lacking virtually all the indices of development. Paradoxically, in Nigeria a vast majority of people, about 70% live in the rural areas (Idode, 1989). Eno (1988) aptly captures the features of rural areas, that the rural people and their areas are characterized by poverty, penury, hopelessness, unemployed youths roaming streets, widespread illiteracy and ignorance. Other features include absence of basic facilities such as well equipped medical centers, electricity, potable drinking water, good roads, etc. Rural development thus aims at eliminating these unfavorable conditions.

In literature on rural development, the term is used in different ways in divergent contexts. In our context, rural development connotes development of rural areas with a view to improving the quality of life of rural people; this is occasioned by deficiency in social infrastructure. We can assert that rural development is a process that aims at improving the standard of living of the people living in rural areas, where a vast majority of Nigerians live through the provision of social infrastructure which is lacking in the areas.

Rural development strategies are programmes and policies designed and implemented by the government to improve the well being of rural lives. It is an integrated process which includes social, economic, political and physical development of poorer section of the society (Chambers, 2011). William (1978) sees rural development as enhancing rural well-being, which includes access to improved health facilities, potable water, and basic education among other necessities of life.

Corroborating on the above, Mabogunje's (1980) view rural development from the perspective of: Improvement of the living standards of the low income population living in rural areas on a self-sustaining basis, through transforming the socio-spatial structures of their productive activities. In essence, rural development implies broad based reorganization and mobilization of the rural masses so as to enhance their capacity to cope effectively with the daily task of their live and with changes consequent upon this. Therefore, in order to improve their standard of living, the rural dwellers initiated self-help projects in their communities, which they feel can bring about the needed development they have been yearning for. Because they realized that the state cannot government cannot single handedly provide these social amenities?

Scholars and policy makers have expressed diverse views on the concept of community development. Gary Craig's (1998) view is tied to the notion of promoting community participation as a means of enhancing the development process. He cites the Brundland Commission (WCED, 1997), which enlists effective citizen participation as one of the preconditions to sustainable development. The Human Development Report (UNDP, 1993) echoes the imperative of people participating in their own development, remarking that people's participation is becoming the central issue in the face of current challenges for development.

Community self-help is one of the variants of rural development widely practiced in Nigeria before the British colonial masters came to Nigeria. The main channel for execution of self-help projects were the Ages grades and village councils. It is a community based initiative. Community self-help schemes are bottom-top approach to the development of the rural communities, where the people mobilize, pool their resources, initiate projects according to their needs and execute such projects. It is the conscious efforts of the people to develop their communities aimed at reducing absolute poverty.

As one of the strategies for rural development, the self-help approach mainly concentrates on the provision of social amenities such as postal agencies, roads, electricity, classroom blocks, potable water, and health centre. Self-help effort was very useful in most rural communities in Nigeria for the provision of social amenities, because in the urban centres (such as Port-Harcourt, and local government headquarters) the government provides the basic social amenities, while the rural communities were left to fend themselves through self-help. However, according to Tamuno (2009) self-help approach to rural development was formalized, gave more vigor and attention in 1971 after the civil war in the Old Rivers State. The need for increased attention can be explained in two ways.

- i. In the first place, given the consequences of civil war in terms of its massive destruction of social infrastructures, the Dikte-Spiff regime in the State initiated a campaign for self- help development for rural communities. It was mainly aimed at mobilizing the people in the various rural communities to supplement government's effort in rebuilding, rehabilitating and

reconstructing the war-torn physical, economic and social infrastructural facilities in the State.

- ii. The second reason adduced for renewed vigor given to self-help schemes in the State was the perceived neglect of rural tax payers and their areas by successive government located in the urban centers. This further aroused in the people a revival of spirit of self-help, which induced them to harness and mobilize their resources on their own towards the construction of socially-valuable projects which successive government failed to provide for them.

This concept of people's participation had been significant in the development of the Nigerian rural societies in the pre-colonial and early part of the post-colonial era (Anam, 2011). This paper advocates the need to establish and sustain the self-help approach to community development in the effort to improve the social and economic welling of rural dwellers in Nigeria.

Government participation in self-help projects

In Bayelsa State, in the early 1970s, up to the early part of the 80s, the government played significant participatory role in the promotion of self-help schemes in developing rural communities. There were levels of institutional participation. These were inform of,

1. Grant-in-Aid: this is the major area under which State government provides funding to self-help projects of communities. This can be categorized into three planks;
 - a. Category i- these were projects which would have been normally provided by the State government directly, but because no provision was made for such project in the budget, local communities were encouraged to provide them through communal efforts. Projects such as rural health centers, maternity homes, postal agencies, potable drinking water schemes fell into this category and attracted a grant of 25% to 50% of the estimated cost of the projects.
 - b. Category ii- these projects that contributes to the economic progress of the people, and include such projects as feeder roads, co-operative farming, markets, etc. these projects attracted a grant of 15% of the total cost.

- c. Category iii- this category provide for the socio-cultural improvement of the life of the people- libraries, youth centers, town halls etc. covered under this category are attracted a grant of 10% of total cost of the project.
- 2. Technical Aid- this was purely technical assistance to the communities, because it was clear that the communities did not have the technical know-how to initiate and execute certain projects. Thus, it entailed the offering of advice and the use of State government personnel and equipment in the planning and execution of self-help development projects.

Formulation of Self Projects and Sources of Funds

In Bayelsa State, there were agencies responsible for the formulation of self-help projects in the state. These were the Community Development Committees (CDC), enlightened members of the communities, Community heads, Youth associations and government rural development officers. The CDCs is the primary agent responsible for the initiation and formulation of self-help development projects. Self-help projects were financed from four main sources. We briefly outline them below.

- I. Development launching was one popular and acceptable means of raising fund for self-help projects. It is process by which funds were raised for a specific project. Citizen of the communities were invited and people make monetary pledges. Sometimes development launch for self-help projects became a sort of competition among the people sons and daughters from the community who lived in urban areas returned home to join their rural communities in the planning and execution of projects designed to improve life in the community. Huge sums of money were raised from development launch.
- ii. Individual donations for specific projects were another source of funding for development projects. However, we would like to point out that the amount of money raised from this source depends on the number of wealthy people in the community and their willingness to donate for specific development projects.
- iii. Another equally important source of financing self-help projects is the direct levy on all adult males and females for a specific project. This levy is compulsory, and in some rural communities, defaulters were arrested and detained until the levy was paid. In some communities in Bayelsa State, this was the major source funding for self-help projects.

- iv. Lastly, government matching –grants also contributes funding for self-project. This was an arrangement by which the State government provided funds to help rural communities in the execution of specific rural development projects. The funds were released when the State government was satisfied that an identified project was likely to be beneficial to the community in question.

For instance in Old Rivers State, between 1970 and 1975, a total of 839 projects were executed with 412 projects, in financial terms, total grants paid out by the state government towards various self-help scheme during the same period stood at #1,857,000 (Rural Development in Old Rivers State). Most of the social infrastructures that were built in 1970s and 1980s were executed through self-help, town halls, schools, markets; road, potable water etc. Self-help was the single most important variable in the development of the rural communities. In Bayelsa State, every community was involved; the CDCs of the communities were very active. With government's limited resources and communities took it upon themselves to provide the needed social amenities. At some point, it became competitive among neighboring communities, which one to first provide peculiar social amenities through self-help. They people felt the impact of their development effort.

However, all that suddenly changed beginning from the early 1990s. The tempo of self-help activities by rural communities began to decline. This can be evidence from the fact that in Bayelsa State, there is no provision for match grant for self-help projects in the successive annually budgets of the state government. Even in the rural communities, nobody is talking about self-help project any longer, as if it has become an outdated concept. But we argue that self-help is still one of the best strategies for community development, especially given the developmental challenges the people. Since the State government cannot simply provide all the needed social amenities for the rural communities.

The dearth of community self-help projects in the State
Several factors have been identified as factors responsible for the sudden decline in the self-help activities in rural communities in Bayelsa State. Some of them include,

1. **Corruption:** Corruption constitutes one of the greatest factor constraining self-help programs in rural areas of Bayelsa State. Corruption can be seen from two angles, the State government and the community leaders. We recalled that the Old Rivers State government made it a matter of State policy to encourage self-help efforts in rural communities by giving them match grants or aids. In today Bayelsa State, State officials in the Ministry of Local Government Affairs have turned the issue of match grants into private business by enriching themselves.
2. **Fictionalization in the communities:** The increased factions in rural communities over chieftaincy, stools, land, contracts, oil right, etc. has been isolated as partly responsible for the dead of self-help efforts in rural communities in Bayelsa State. When communities are factionalized, there is no unity, therefore they cannot come together to plan for the overall good of the community as a whole, there is no bound, no trust. Self-help effort can only thrive in a situation of absolute unity. Self-help efforts cannot flourish in a state of division and acrimony. People largely think of the faction they belong, not the community's overall interest. As a result the various factions cannot come together to promote their common interest and enhance their well being.
3. **Conflicts-Communal conflicts** are frequent in rural communities in Bayelsa State and this cannot foster self-help projects. When there are pervasive conflicts in communities, it leads to loss of lives and property. Community driven effort towards development cannot be fostered. These no doubt has led to the dead of self-help efforts in Bayelsa State.
4. **Lack of Community Spirit-**This is also argued as partly responsible for the decreased of self-help projects in rural communities in Bayelsa State. Gone were the days, people have deep seated interest in the development of their communities. Largely because of the hard economic situation in the rural communities, people think of their families, not the interest of larger communities. Lack of community spirit affects the development and sustenance of self-help projects.

5. Urban Migration-Most promising young men and women that would have been useful in mobilizing community support for self-help projects have migrated to Yenagoa the State capital, for greener pasture. This has affected the ability to the community to mobilize themselves, harness resources, plan and implement self-help programmes. Therefore, the migration of young men to cities is detrimental to self-help programmes of rural communities.
6. Poverty; Poverty has always been and still remains a delimiting factor in rural community development in Bayelsa State. Poverty appears both as a cause and effect of the problem for rural backwardness. As a cause, poverty precludes both the government and rural people from pooling huge funds to execute rural self-help projects. It is on record that, the level of poverty in rural areas is increasing in Bayelsa state compared to 1970s and 1980s, when self-help projects was in vogue and was embraced by every community. The poor rural dweller cannot levy themselves to fund projects that are of common interest to their communities. As an effect, the leaders tasked to manage the meager resources misappropriated and embezzled such funds. The CDC chairmen and members now see their appointment as a veritable opportunity to redress their poverty status.

5.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The participatory rural development approach is used in this study. Participatory approach is an alternative development theory which emerged in the late 1970's in response to the top down nature of previous approaches, marking a shift in the traditional focus from things to people (Anam, 2011). Promoting community's full involvement in their own development, the participatory approach envisages rural development as a process which values and promotes indigenous knowledge and skills while building upon their cultural and natural resources. Therefore, strategies used in participatory approaches aim at finding sustainable livelihoods solutions and opportunities by working with rather than for the community.

Community participation is the secret of the success of self-help projects. Participation is both in kind and in cash. There is usually enthusiasm from the community to participate in projects since the adoption of projects is arrived at through consensus and these projects must meet the aspirations of all classes of the

society. Wignaraja (1984) emphasizes the extent of people's participation by observing that the rural poor need to become increasingly aware of the socio-economic reality around them, of the forces that keep them in poverty, and of the possibility of bringing about change in their conditions through their own collective actions. This constitutes a process of self-transformation through which they grow and mature as human beings. In this sense participation is also a basic human need. This is manifested in the voluntary contributions either in cash or in kind from community members.

Participation and community development have been identified as key concepts in development with the emphasis on "the direct involvement of ordinary people in local affairs (Midgley et al 1986)." The stream of development thinking points to participation as a process of empowering those who were previously excluded from achieving power; that is, "power in terms of access to, and control of the resources necessary to protect livelihood (Oakley and Marsden 1984)." These concepts are in tandem with the efforts of communities to initiate and realise that their projects.

Promoting self-help projects encourages self-reliant among community dwellers in promoting their collective wellbeing. Self-reliant development provides basic community needs such as water, health facilities, roads, etc. while projects like electricity and telephone, which are not of primary importance, are not considered priority projects. This partly accounts for the enthusiastic participation of all strata of the society, particularly the poor, in self-reliant projects. The overriding principle is for rural communities to look inwards and search for solutions to urgent development problems through the mobilisation of local resources. Government organisations and other development partners should devise strategies to support these local initiatives and regional networks, which will go a long way in transforming most rural communities.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The study revealed that community self-help was a potent instrument at the disposal of rural dwellers in reducing abject poverty, thereby promoting the common good and wellbeing of their communities. However, community self-help has lost its desired attention in rural communities in Bayelsa State. The study identified myriads of factors

responsible for the dearth of self-help efforts in the development of rural communities in Bayelsa State. It submits that, given due attention base on the highlighted recommendations, self-help projects can be revive and promoted as a veritable tool for community development in the State.

Self-help projects are potent to sustainable rural community development. Development will be sustainable to the extent that it allows for community participation, contributes to increased local growth that rural people can see, and are able to access the resources to keep it going. Thus, sustainability implies effective participation to assure that the projects and activities undertaken respond to articulated priorities at the local level. A sustainable strategy will thus have to enhance the revenue base of local people over time (although initially the contribution will be small). It will, moreover, have to define a major role for local government in coordinating the participatory decision-making and in mobilizing available resources.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the findings and the pivotal role played by community self-help schemes in the development of rural communities, the paper recommends that:

1. The State government should kick start the campaign to revive self-help programmes, by enlightening the people on the significance of the scheme and also appropriating certain amount of funds in the State government annual budget estimates as match-in-grants and aids to rural communities.
2. The State government should look into the issue of corruption that bedeviled the scheme in the past. It was noted that the increasing level of poverty is a militating factor against the success of community self-help and has been largely responsible for the dearth of the scheme in the past.
3. Therefore, the state government should revive the rural economy by establishing farm settlements in every local council area and building cottage industries to invigorate the local economy. Also the issue of conflict which has discouraged community self-help efforts should be given attention by the state government and the communities.
4. The state government should also step-up enlighten campaign to revive the spirit of community self-help in the mass media.

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PART TWO :

PERSPECTIVES ON
RURAL DEVELOPMENT





Understanding Rural Area

Rural areas throughout the world tend to have similar nature and characteristics. They are 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. Some of these characteristics are examined in this chapter,

- 6.1 Meaning of rural areas
- 6.2 Characteristics of rural areas
- 6.3 Differentiating rural, urban and metropolitan areas
- 6.4 Urban and Rural Living
- 6.5 The concept of Rural Economy

6.1 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 their traditions and beliefs.

6.2 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 land forms, 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.

6.3 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 nonmetropolitan, 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.

6.4 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.

6.5 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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Understanding Rural Poverty

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. Fundamental issues in rural poverty will be examined as follows,

- 7.1 Definition and meaning of poverty
- 7.2 Conceptualization of poverty
- 7.3 The Who and Why of Poverty
- 7.4 What Do the Poor Own?
- 7.5 The concept of rural poverty
- 7.6 Typology of poverty
- 7.7 Categorization of poverty
- 7.8 The consequences of poverty
- 7.9 Some theories of poverty
- 7.10 Focus on Nigeria/Africa/Third World Countries

7.1 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.

7.2 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;

1. 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).

2. 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 economics 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

7.3 The Who and Why of Poverty

7.3.1 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.

7.3.2 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 18th 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

7.4 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.

7.5 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.")

The 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 poverty—these 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 conditions—in terms of personal consumption and access to education, health care, potable water and sanitation, housing, transport, and communications—faced 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.

7.5.1 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.

- i. 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.

7.6 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 measurable, 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-scare 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.

7.7 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.

7.8 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 as 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 ensuing 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.

7.9 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 – Aule (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 of the countries, where clearly explains what has been happening in 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.

7.10 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 run. 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.

7.10.1 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).

7.10.2 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 they 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.

7.10.3 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 were 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 Addison (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 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.

7.5 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 and 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 levers 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 extensive 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 county 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—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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Understanding Rural Development

Rural 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. The guideline for this chapter is as showed below,

8.1 Rural development: concept and meaning

8.2 Objectives of rural development

8.1 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.
- ii. 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 assessment 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.

8.2 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 inequalities 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.

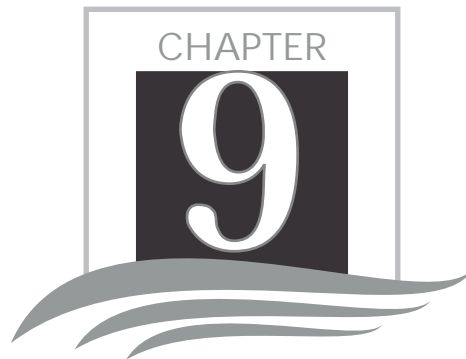
- i. The markets in which the rural poor participate are those for products, inputs (labor and nonlabor), and finance (from formal and informal sources). Several important features of these markets can affect conditions in rural areas.
- ii. The infrastructure that directly affects the rural sector's 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 channels—markets, infrastructure, and transfers—do 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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Competing Theories In 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, they have in many respects been instrumental in the development of areas they've been applied. The following theories will be examined as showed below,

- 9.1 Structural Model
- 9.2 Sectoral Model
- 9.3 Integrated Rural Development (IRD) Model
- 9.4 Classical and Neo Classical Model
- 9.5 Internal Combustion Model
- 9.6 Basic Resource Theory
- 9.7 Dual Economy Model
- 9.8 Export-led Model

- 9.9 Diffusion Model
- 9.10 Induced Model
- 9.11 Participatory Model
- 9.12 The THUNEN MODEL as a Paradigm for Rural Development

9.1 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 rapid 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

Notwithstanding 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.

9.2 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.

9.3 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 is 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.

9.4 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.

9.5 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.

9.6 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.

9.7 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.

9.8 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.

9.9 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 well being 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.

9.10 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 identify 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.

9.11 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 where 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 involved, 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.

9.12 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 or 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 of 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-Stratton input-output models of production.

9.12.1 Rural as Being Remote: Thunen'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.

9.12.2 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 exist, 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.

Schumpeterian 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-know 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 trail 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 disadvantage 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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STRATEGIES FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT





The Need To Develop 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. The under listed sub themes will guide discussions in this chapter.

- 10.1 Meaning of rural infrastructures
- 10.2 Categories of infrastructural facilities
- 10.3 Need for rural infrastructures
- 10.4 Development plans and provision of rural infrastructures
- 10.5 Distribution of rural infrastructures

10.1 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).

10.2 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

10.3 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.

10.4 Development plans and provision of rural infrastructures

In 1946, the colonial government drew up what it referred 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 form 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 share 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 declare the rural dwellers as

constitution 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 cannot, 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.

10.5 Distribution of rural infrastructures

Rural infrastructures are sine qua non 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 pan 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 tackle 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 contained 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.
- © 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 fared 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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Agriculture and the Development of the Rural Economy

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). These challenges provide the basic for discussions in this chapter as examined below,

Basic concerns in agricultural development

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,

- conditions of poor soils,
- hillside slopes,
- arid dry lands,
- erratic rainfall,
- periodic drought, and
- 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 adversely affected.

11.1 Issues of neglect of the agricultural sector by the government

11.2 What has the government done?

11.3 Issues that must be addressed

11.1 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.

11.2 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).

11.3 Issues that must be addressed

Notwithstanding 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 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.

7.4 Measures for improving agriculture and rural development

Rural development is more than agricultural development, but critical to its 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.

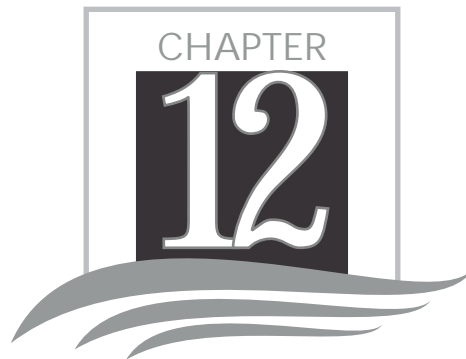
In conclusion, given the extensive nature of food insecurity and the severe resource constraints in many areas, it is necessary to complement actions aimed directly at improving agricultural production with efforts at more broad-based sustainable and participatory rural development. Increased participation 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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Developing Rural Education

The importance of education, especially in improving rural lives cannot be overstated. 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. The chapter will be examined within the framework of the under listed,

- 12.1 Meaning of rural education
- 12.2 Functions of rural education
- 12.3 Education in rural areas
- 12.4 Features of rural education
- 12.5 Implication for rural development
- 12.6 Education for manpower development
- 12.7 Education for bridging information gap in rural areas
 - 12.7.1 Importance of information to rural development process
 - 12.7.2 Areas of information need
 - 12.7.3 Measures to improve access to information

12.1 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.

12.2 Functions of rural education

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

I. 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.

ii. 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.

12.3 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.

12.4 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.

i. 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, other 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.

12.5 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.

12.6 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 aim 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.

12.7 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.

12.7.1 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.

12.7.2 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.

12.7.3 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 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 swerving 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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Access To Potable Water

Water, 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 rain falls, 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. Further discussions are examined as follows,

- 13.1 Water need inadequacy
- 13.2 Efforts to provide accessibility to potable water in Nigeria
- 13.3 Challenges of rural access to potable water
- 13.4 Improvement measures for potable water accessibility in rural communities

13.1 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).

13.2 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.

13.3 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 face 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.

13.4 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 providing 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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Providing Effective 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). More of these concerns are examined below,

- 14.1 Health Care Delivery System: Issues of concern
- 14.2 Harmful cultural practices and health care delivery in Nigeria

- 14.3 Meaning and Rationale for Primary Health Care (PHC)
- 14.4 Factors militating against effective Primary Healthy Care delivery services
- 14.5 Measures to improve Primary Health Care delivery services

14.1 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 9th 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 12–23 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 841 poliomyelitis 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.

14.2 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 3rd 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.

14.3 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 point to the fact that Nigeria is seriously lagging behind, particularly on the MDGs 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 MDGs 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.

14.4 Factors militating against effective Primary Health 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

14.5 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: Tobacco 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 its 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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Improving Rural Financial System

Finance 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. The importance of rural financial system is further underscored as follows,

- 15.1 Nature of rural finance
- 15.2 Functions of rural financial system
- 15.3 Meaning of rural banking
- 15.4 Objectives of rural banking
- 15.5 Financing rural development
- 15.6 Rural banking programme
- 15.7 Challenges of rural banking
- 15.6 Rural banking programme
- 15.7 Challenges of rural banking

15.1 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:

15.2 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).

15.3 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.

15.4 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.

15.5 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.

15.6 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.

15.7 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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Non Governmental Organizations & Rural Development

NON 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. The under listed will provide direction for discussions in this chapter,

- 16.1 Meaning of Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs)
- 16.2 Role of NGOs in development cooperation
- 16.3 United Nations Development Project and other development projects in Nigeria
- 16.4 The Millennium Village Project
- 16.5 Challenges faced by NGOs
- 16.6 Measures to strengthen the activities of NGOs

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.

16.1 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,

- a) 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.
- b) Social development organization assisting in empowerment of people.
- c) 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.
- d) 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.

16.2 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.

16.3 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.

16.4 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.

16.5 Challenges faced by NGOs

According 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 remote 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.

16.6 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 non-governmental) 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 non-governmental 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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Corporate Social Responsibility and Poverty Reduction in Rural Communities in Cross River State

This study was to examine the impact of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the reduction of poverty through infrastructural development in rural communities in Cross River State. The study adopted descriptive research design. The empirical review of this study relied on the relationship between corporate social responsibility and poverty reduction. Primary data was generated from 215 respondents in Akampka Local Government Area, who have benefited from CSR in the State. Pearson product moment correlation analysis was used in assessing the data. The result showed ($r = 0.34$) with 213 degree of freedom. This result therefore means that corporate social responsibility significantly affects poverty reduction in rural communities in Cross River State. The study therefore recommends that corporate social responsibilities should be seen by corporate firms as social obligations they owe their shareholders, the local (host) community, general public, customers and employees. To encourage the operation of corporate firms, the government should provide a viable work environment in the state.

- 17.1 Background to the study
- 17.2 Objectives of the study
- 17.3 Methodology and source of data
- 17.4 Empirical Literature
- 17.5 The concept of Corporate Social Responsibility

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17.1 Background to the study

Poverty is largely situated in rural areas where the poorest people live. Theoretically, the rural areas of a region or country lie outside the densely-built up environments of towns, cities and sub-urban. Their inhabitants are engaged primarily in agriculture as well as the most basic of rudimentary form of secondary and tertiary activities (Adebayo, 1998).

Ariyo (1991) asserts that rural development has been placed to the top of the agenda in Nigeria's national development drive. Saheed (2010) noted that the upsurge of interest in rural development can be attributed to a number of events which had their origin in the colonial heritage and the unanticipated oil boom of the seventies. There were massive rural-urban drift of able-bodied young men and women declining productivity in agriculture, increasing food imports, growing unemployment and the widening gap in welfare terms between the urban and rural areas. Related studies affirmed that rural areas of Nigeria are areas where the lack of basic socio-economic infrastructure, low access to the factors of production, poverty, natural disaster and socio conflict have become a strong push factor for rural out migration. Therefore, there exist large irregularities in the standard of living between geographical areas in Nigeria and pockets of poverty are still common in Nigeria, more especially in the rural areas (Saheed, 2010).

Anam (2011) disclosed that there is no significant improvement in the well-being of the Nigerian rural populace. The Nigerian rural areas are characterised with poverty. Poverty is the inability to attain a minimum standard of living (World Development Report, 1990). This assessment have two indices; 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. The rural poor in Nigeria are generally identified as:

- a. Those whose abilities to contribute to the productive process is insufficient or limited. That is, those who are unable to contribute adequately to the productive process to warrant an income that would raise them above the poverty line.
- b. Those who have not attained certain level of academic qualification to fit into available job offers.

- c. 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.
- d. Those whose opportunities to participate in the productive process are restricted by discrimination of various kinds: sex, age, race, etc. (Aluko, 2005: Edozien, 2006, cited in Anam, 2011).

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.

Successive Nigerian governments have created rural development institutions to address the challenges of rural poverty. Some of these are the River Basin Development Authorities (RBDA); the World Bank Assistant Agricultural Development Projects (ADP), the Directorate for Food Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) and Better Life for Rural Women (BLRW). There are other official institutions directly or indirectly involved in rural development activities. They include, the Ministries of agriculture and rural development, health, works, education, utility boards, the Agricultural and Cooperative Bank, water resources, national directorate of employment, Poverty Alleviation Programme (NAPEP), National Millennium Development Project through rural infrastructure (Saheed, 2010).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) emerged as a significant strategy for addressing the development challenges of infrastructural decay in Nigeria. CSR deals with an attempt by an organization to initiatives actions or design and implement projects that will impact positively on its host community, its environment and the people generally. This study is aimed at assessing the impact of CSR in the reduction of poverty through infrastructural development in rural communities in Cross River State.

Statement of the problem

In Cross River State poverty exists. This is shown in table 1 below,

Table 1: Poverty incidence in Cross River State

S/N	L.G.A	SENATORIAL DISTRICT	ESTIMATED POPULATION (IN THOUSAND)	POPULATION IN POVERTY (IN THOUSAND ASA (%) OV 2008 FIGURES	POVERTY LEVEL (%)				
					2000	2002	2004	2006	2008
1	Abi	Central	144802	86736.4	65.5	56.2	71.1	59.9	65.8
2	Akamkpa	Southern	151125	96266.7	54.2	65.5	34.8	63.7	49.3
3	Akpabuyo	Southern	271395	123756.1	62.2	66.9	65.3	45.6	55.5
4	Bakassi	Southern	32385	23738.2	78.2	68.5	53.6	73.7	63.65
5	Bekwara	Northern	105822	76191.8	69.9	83.5	45.4	72.0	58.7
6	Biase	Southern	169183	101848.2	56.7	44.3	43.3	60.2	51.8
7	Boki	Central	186141	142397.9	77.7	64.2	77.0	76.5	76.8
8	Cal. Municipal	Southern	179392	104585.5	49.8	66.9	33.1	58.3	45.7
9	Cal. South	Southern	191630	115361.3	53.2	66.9	42.7	60.2	51.5
10	Etung	Central	80196	60708.4	75.5	56.1	85.2	75.7	80.5
11	Ikom	Central	162383	97754.6	51.8	71.6	42.7	60.2	51.5
12	Obanliku	Northern	110324	70055.7	66.3	51.0	61.5	63.5	62.5
13	Obubra	Central	172444	115537.5	53.5	78.5	60.3	67.0	63.6
14	Obudu	Northern	160106	101026.9	62.4	75.5	60.7	63.1	61.9
15	Odukpani	Southern	192444	114119.3	60.7	53.8	63.1	59.3	61.2
16	Ogoja	Northern	171901	108641.4	59.2	62.7	59.3	63.2	61.3
17	Yakurr	Central	196450	110208.5	56.2	69.9	63.2	56.1	59.7
18	Yala	Northern	210843	144849.1	68.5	62.7	80.7	68.7	74.7
	Entire State		2858966	1840271.3	62.3	64.7	59.1	63.7	61.4

Source: Cross River State Ministry of Social Welfare: Poverty Profile for Cross River State (2008)

Table 1 gives a breakdown of poverty incidence on a Local Government-by- Local Government basis from 2000-2008. On average, poverty level in the state which stood at 62.3percentatge in 2000 increased to 64.7 in 2002, depicting a 1.4 percentages increase. Between the period 2000 and 2004, the level dropped from 64.7 to 59.1 percentages depicting a 3.3 percentages decrease in the level of poverty before increasing to 63.7 percentages in 2006 with a 2.9 percentages increase. The level of poverty finally dropped from 63.75 percentages to 61.4 percentages in 2008.

The different local government areas also recorded marginal fluctuations in the level of poverty during the period, in 2000; Bakassi LGA recorded the highest poverty level of 78.2 percentages while Calabar Municipal recorded the lowest level of 49.8 percentages. However, in 2002, Bekwara and Biase recorded 83.5% and 44.3 percentages respectively as highest and lowest levels of poverty. In 2004 Etung recorded the highest levels of 85.2 percentages, while Akamkpa recorded 34.8 percentages, signifying an all-time low during the period under review. In 2006, Boki LGA recorded the highest poverty level of 76.5 percentages revealing that 142307.9 persons were in poverty out of an estimated population of 186141 persons, while Akpabuyo recorded the lowest poverty level of 45.6 percentages with 123756 persons in poverty out of an estimated population of 271395 persons. In 2008 Etung LGA recorded the highest poverty level of 80.5% revealing that 60708.4 persons were in poverty out of an estimated population of 80196 persons, while Calabar Municipal recorded the lowest poverty level of 45.7 percentages with 104585.5 persons in poverty our of an estimated population of 179392.

Table 2 Cross River State: relative poverty by zone/sector (2000-2008)

ZONE	NORTHERN			CENTRAL			SOUTHERN		
Year	Urban	Rural	Zone	Urban	Rural	Zone	Urban	Rural	Zone
2000	27.47	37.79	65.26	30.44	33.41	63.85	27.85	31.60	59.29
2002	31.33	35.75	67.08	22.60	43.48	66.08	19.85	41.98	61.83
2004	24.31	37.23	61.54	31.73	41.66	73.39	22.65	25.34	47.99
2006	29.22	38.21	67.43	29.39	36.51	65.90	25.42	34.13	60.09
2008	26.77	37.72	64.49	30.56	39.09	69.65	24.04	29.74	53.78

Source: Cross River State Ministry of Social Welfare: Poverty Profile for Cross River State (2008)

According to the table 2 showed above, in 2000, the Northern Zone recorded the highest poverty level of 65.26 percentages, followed by the Central Zone with 63.85 percentages while the Southern Zone recorded the lowest level of 59.29 percentages, In 2002, the Northern Zone recorded the highest poverty level of 67.08 percentages while the Central and Southern Zone recorded 66.08 percentages and 61.83 percentages recorded the highest poverty level of 73.39 percentages, followed by the Northern Zone with a value of 61.54 percentages and the Southern zone with 47.99 percentages. In 2006, the Northern Zone with a value of 67.43 percentages and the Central with 65.90 percentages while Southern Zone recorded the lowest of 60.09 percentages. In 2008, the picture also shows that Central Zone recorded the highest poverty level of 69.65 percentages, followed by Northern Zone with a value of 64.49 percentages and the Southern Zone with 53.78 percentages.

The table also reveals that poverty is more sever in the rural areas than in the urban. However, a zone-by-zone analysis shows that poverty is more sever in the central zone with an average of 73.39 percentages during the period covered, followed in that order by the Northern Zone 67.43 percentages and the Southern Zone 61.83 percentages. The idea of relative poverty which the above table explains, refers to a person or

household whose provision with goods is lower than that of other persons or households, Relative poverty, therefore does not necessarily mean that the person concerned cannot live a life that is worthy of human dignity. It merely states that, because of the distribution structure in a society, certain economic subjects are disadvantaged to an unacceptable extent. Thus, there is need for more concerted efforts to reduce rural poverty in Cross River State. This study advances that corporate social responsibility by corporate organisations operating in the State will play significant role in support the efforts of the government in poverty reduction.

17.2 Objectives of the study

This study is aimed at assessing the impact of corporate social responsibility (CSR) in the reduction of poverty through infrastructural development in rural communities in Cross River State. It will highlight challenges and strategies for improvement and sustainability.

17.3 Methodology and source of data

Descriptive research design is used for the study. Primary and secondary data were used. While the secondary data were obtained from empirical literature, primary data were collected with the use of a research questionnaire from 215 community dwellers in Akamkpa Local Government Area of Cross River State.

17.4 Empirical Literature

There are extant literatures on poverty and its reduction strategies. It is generally agreed that the rural sector has invariably lagged most in the rate of development and constituted a drag on national development as a whole. Despite the high number of development projects undertaken by national and international agencies within Nigeria, the living condition of the rural areas still remains deplorable as attested by many scholars studying the problem of the rural areas (Gbadamosi, 2001).

One of the most significant features of rural environment is land. In rural areas of most countries in sub-sahara Africa, land is not only the primary means for generating a livelihood but often also the main vehicle to invest, accumulate wealth and diversify the rural economy base.

Oladipo (1999) expatiated on the unique features of the Nigerian rural environment when he opined that rural economy is that branch of the statesmanship which deals in agriculture and rural enterprises and consider rural life as factors in nation-building. It places agriculture in the center of economic life of rural communities and it is around this that other enterprises revolve and/or spring from. Structurally, rural economies are multi-enterprises dominated entities with identifiable boundary lines between major complementary, supplementary and other seasonally oriented subsidiary enterprises. The arable crops under traditional; small-scale cultivation is for subsistence and is usually prone to poor yield and low productivity.

Poverty conditions in Nigeria is corroborated with the statistics below as analysed by the Federal office of statistics based on consumer expenditure surveys carried out over a period of 60 years (1980-1996) and subsequently (1998-2005). Using the internationally recognized definition of the poor as those individual living on <1 US dollar per day at purchasing power parity, the surveys showed that poverty in Nigeria increase sharply between 1985-1996 and drop gradually between (1998-2005) due to the economic reform embark upon by the Obasanjo administration. According to the RDSS Main Report between 1980 and 1991, all but one of the 19 existing states had declared that more than half of their respective populations were poor. Statistics confirmed also that 59% of urban and 70% of rural households had become poor by 1996.

Infant mortality had reached 21.7 and 14.7 per 100,000 live births in urban and rural households, respectively while maternal mortality was 948 per 100,000, live births overall. Furthermore, preliminary health profiles 2004 figures from the Federal Ministry of Health indicated that major causes of mortality include maternal which is 919 per 100,000, dysentery 386 per 100,000, Pneumonia 146 per 100,000 and measles 89 per 100,000. Gross primary school enrolment was 82% for girls and 87% for boys in 1995 while adult literacy rate was 5% in 1996 the literacy rate on gender basis showed that there were more educated males (62%) than female (38%) in the country.

The report further confirmed the expectancy which was 54 years in 1990 had dropped to <50 years 2005 access to adequate shelter water and sanitation facilities as well as communication had been very low while income inequality had also worsened during

the same period. The worsening situation had affected vulnerable groups and women in rural areas the most in particular individuals with limited or no formal education, large families farm communities and groups engaged in informal sector activities (Saheed, 2010).

17.5 The concept of Corporate Social Responsibility

The concept of Corporate Social Responsibilities (CSR) has attracted a lot of scholarly attention. CSR describes “a demonstration of certain responsible behavior on the part of public and the private (government and business) sectors toward society and the environment”. Business for Social Responsibility (BSR), a leading Global Business partner, in a Forum held in 2006 defined CSR as achieving commercial success in ways that honors ethical values and respect people, communities, and the natural environment. For BSR, CSR also means addressing the legal, ethical, commercial and other expectations society has for business, and making decisions that fairly balance the claim of all key stakeholders. In its simplest terms, it is: “what you do”, “how you do it” “and when and what you say”.

In this sense, CSR is viewed as a comprehensive set of policies, practices and programmes that are integrated into business operations, supply chain, and decision making processes throughout the company and wherever the company does businesses that are supported and rewarded by top management. It also includes responsibility for current and past actions as well as future impacts. The issues that represent a company's CSR focus vary by business, size, sector and even geographical region. It is seen by leadership of companies as more than a collection of discrete practices or occasional gestures or initiatives motivated by marketing, public relations or other business benefits (Auka, 2011).

The World Business Council on Sustainability Development, 1998 described CSR as “the continuing commitment by Business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large”. “CSR is the concept that an enterprise is responsible or accountable for its impact on all relevant shareholders” (European Union, 2006).

Macmillan (2005) cited in Keffas and Olulu-Brigs (2011) opined that “CSR is a term describing a company's obligation to be accountable to all its stakeholders in all its operations and activities. Socially responsible companies will consider the full scope of their impact on communities and the environment when making decisions, balancing the need of stakeholders with their need to make a profit”. “CSR is concerned with treating the stakeholders of the firm ethically or in a socially responsible manner. Since stakeholders exist both within a firm's and outside a firm, hence, behaving socially and responsibly will increase the human development of stakeholders both within and outside the corporation” (Clarkson, 1995).

Kenneth, Andrews and Steiner (1999) cited in Adeyanju (2012) defined CSR “as the intelligent and objective concern for the welfare of the society that retains the individual and corporate behaviour from ultimately destructive activities, no matter how immediately profitable and leads to the directions of positive construction of human betterment”. For Koontz and O'Donnell (2008) in Adeyanju (2012) CSR is the personal obligation of everyone, as he acts in his own interests, but he must always have due regard that his freedom does not restrict others from doing the same thing. He further noted that a socially responsible individual or organization will obey the laws of the land because the rights of others are at stake.

According to the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), CSR has the following characteristics:

- i. Meeting the need of current stakeholders without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own demand.
- ii. Adopting CSR voluntarily, rather than as legal requirement, because it is seen to be in the long-term interests of the organization.
- iii. Integrating social, environmental and economic policies in day to day business.

The definitions and characteristics of CSR above shows three impact. These are economic, environmental and social dimensions.

- i. Economic Responsibility: Integrity, corporate governance, economic development of the community, transparency, prevention of bribery and corruption, payments to national and local authorities, use of local suppliers, hiring local labour and similar areas.

- ii. **Social Responsibility:** Human rights, training and developing local labour, contributing expertise to community programs and similar areas.
- iii. **Environmental Responsibility:** Precautionary approaches to prevent or minimize adverse impacts support for initiatives, promoting greater environmental responsibility, developing and diffusing environmentally friendly technologies and similar areas (Saheed, 2010).

The emergence of the idea that business has social responsibility that goes beyond profit making, to include helping to solve societal social and environmental problems CSR, has provided a fertile ground for the debate that has shaped the present direction now assumed by business-society relationship. Critics have argued that CSR is a distraction for business from meeting its primary goal of profit making, an inefficient means of allocating scarce resources, and that business lacks the legitimacy and competency to take on any such responsibility outside its primary area of expertise (see Friedman, 1962; 1970; Henderson, 2001; Levitt, 1958). In contrast, proponents of CSR have responded that the monumental increase in business power, the widespread incidence of corporate misdemeanors, issues of ethics and the increasing inability of governments to meet their basic responsibility to society as well as regulate business activities have meant that the acceptance of social responsibility by business was both inevitable and a necessity (see Davis, 1960, 1973, 1967, Davis and Blomstrom, 1973, Carroll, 1979, 1991; Bowen, 1953, Bowie, 1991; Mosen, 1975; Moon, 2001) (cited in Owolabi, 2007).

According to Adeyanju (2012), while this debate is far from resolved, emphasis has since shifted from whether corporations should imbibe the principles of CSR to the extent to which CSR principles can influence corporate decisions and practices and how business can best address its social responsibilities. Partly in response to the critics' argument that CSR is costly, the coinage of the 'business case' for CSR increasingly became a formidable cornerstone for securing business commitment to CSR. The business case suggested that business acceptance of social responsibility invariably results in a 'win-win' situation for both business and its stakeholders. As a result, the business cases successfully moved CSR from the realm of altruism or morality to the realm of rational economic business decision-making (Adeyanju 2012).

Corporate Social Responsibility and the Cross River State Experience

There are several corporate organisations operating in Cross River State. The Dansa Agro Allied Products Limited has distinguished itself in corporate social service in the State. According to the State Governor Liyel Imoke, “the company had invested billions of naira to boost the agricultural sector within Akampka Local Government Area”.

The Governor who spoke at the official opening of the Ibe bridge, built by the company to link the host communities and the farm at Isoba-Oban, Akampka Local Government in Cross River State, said Dansa Agro Allied Products Limited has raised the bar in CSR as it singlehandedly built the bridge and distributed a total of eighty thousand high yield oil palm seedlings to the host communities including Oban, Okarara, EkongAnaku, Neghe, and EkpeneEki communities.

Imoke described Dansa Agro Allied Products Ltd as the ideal investor every State Government is searching for as the company is also building a fruit juice manufacturing plant inside its vast pineapple plantation in Oban, Cross River State. He said the company is an integrated investor who has planted a vast pineapple plantation, built a bridge to link farms, plantations and host communities is building a pineapple concentrate factory in the farm and distributed oil palm seedlings to the host communities (Osagie, 2014). The Dansa Agro Allied Products Ltd's distribution of oil palm seedlings to the host communities is in line with his Government's drive to empower rural dwellers to embrace Agriculture as means of livelihood.

In another development, Nigeria's leading mobile operator, Airtel Networks Limited, has been commended by Senator Liyel Imoke, for adopting a rural primary school in the state. Airtel's gesture has increased the opportunities available to the people of the state to benefit from modern education in pursuit of the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). The initiative renovated school building and provided furniture, textbooks, uniforms for the pupils and writing materials. Beneficiaries commended on the significance of the initiative on their social well being.

CSR is common in the literature but not in the practice. Despite the need for business to be morally conducted, one of the primary reasons in CSR is whether organisations pursue it for economic reasons or because of the advantages involve. There has been few empirical test conducted in support of the advantages involve in CSR as the examples identified above. This makes CSR practice significant in promoting the wellbeing of the people by reducing poverty in rural communities in the state (Adegboyega and Taiwo, 2011). In modern business world, corporate social responsibility has been emphasized by stakeholders as a driving tool for success to be accomplished. It has become an increasing evident and crucial component of overall performance of business organizations generally.

Theoretical framework

The Integrated rural development approach is used to explain the variables in this study. Hallet (1996) is the proponent of the integrated rural development approach. He maintained that community development involves a pattern of in integrated development activities that are varied with the scale and functions being performed. The degree of operational coordination among specific activities fluctuates. Further a substantial number of action areas perform with a high degree of independence. The intelligence, information, resources, technologies, designs, skills and energies generated by such independent operations may be integrated only after they reach the stage of outputs of the constituent structures.

This approach is significant in explaining the process of corporate social responsibility in rural development. CSR is seen as a process integrating a wide variety of activities in a controlled sequence that enhances the development of rural infrastructures, reduces poverty and improve the general well-being of the people. The effectiveness of CSR depends on the system's ability to articulate various modes of structuring. The capacities of the whole community system profit from the variety of ways the constituent parts can work. It encompasses the systems and holistic functions earlier discussed above, and as such it stands suitable as the most suitable framework recommended by this study.

Data analysis and interpretation of result

One basic research hypothesis was stated to examine the variables of this study. The study hypothesized that Corporate Social Responsibility does not significantly affects poverty reduction in rural communities in Cross River State. Primary data was generated from 215 respondents from two communities in the State was used from the study. Pearson product moment correlation analysis was used in assessing the study.

Pearson product moment correlation analysis to the relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility and poverty reduction in Cross River State (N = 215)

Variable	$\sum x$	$\sum y^2$	$\sum xy$	r
	$\sum y$	$\sum x^2$		
Corporate Social Responsibility	8643	347548	209355	0.34*
Poverty reduction in Cross River State	5207	126220		

* significant at .05 level, df = 213

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This result showed ($r = 0.34$) with 213 degree of freedom. This result therefore means that Corporate Social Responsibility significantly affects poverty reduction in rural communities in Cross River State. This shows that CSR is significant in reducing poverty through the provision of basic infrastructure that improves economic and social activities in rural areas. 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 (Osemene, 2012). As shown in the primary data obtained, examples include, 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 are focus of attention and therefore sustained for a viable rural development.

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 (Anam, 2011).

Conclusion

The study identifies the impact of corporate social responsibilities on rural communities in Cross River State. Result obtained from the analysis of primary data shows that corporate social responsibility significantly affects poverty reduction in rural communities. This indicates that corporate social responsibility contributes to a way of living a healthy life in the community.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is therefore recommended as follows:

1. More corporate organizations operating in Cross River State should identify forms of social needs and through their corporate social responsibility help in addressing such needs. The corporate efforts should aim at raising the standard of living of the rural people through adequate inter-village communication such as good road network, electricity, pipe-borne water, recreational facilities, etc.
2. The government should promote a conducive, task friendly and viable working environment to encourage the growth of businesses development in the state.
3. Corporate social responsibilities should be seen by the firm as social obligations business concerns owe their shareholders, the local (host) community, general public, customers, employees and the government in the course of operating their legitimate businesses, such that CSR should be included in the law and enforced on the firms accordingly.
4. Government should fix a minimum percentage of profit corporate firm should expend on corporate social responsibility activities (Adeyangu, 2012).
5. Corporate social responsibilities should also be directed towards the development of rural industries, which must be based on rural raw materials available in that area. The small and medium-scale enterprises will turn out goods that will feed the urban and sub-urban-based industries. Such rural-

based industries must be essentially labour-intensive rather than capital-intensive since the required manpower must be indigenous and appropriate. It will create jobs and reduce rural poverty.

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Rural Development Policies and Their Impact on the Socio-economic Lives of Rural Dwellers: An Examination of Cross River State Rural Development Agency, Calabar

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.

- 18.1 Background of the study
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18.1 Background of the study

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.

18.2 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.

18.3 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.

18.4 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?

18.5 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.

18.6 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.

18.7 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.

18.8 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.

18.9 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 Odupkani in the South) formed the sample size used to generated data in testing the research hypotheses stated to guide this study.

18.10 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 district 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 Odupkani 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.

18.11 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.

18.12 Instrumentation

Two research instruments were used; the questionnaire and in-depth interview methods. A research questionnaire was developed and used to obtained 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 polices 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 was 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.

18.13 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, T1 and Post-test, T2) enabled the researcher to determine whether the questions contained in the questionnaire really elicited the information required to help test the theoretical assumptions.

18.14 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.

18.15 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.

18.16 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.

18.17 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 (X²) 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 X² -194.4; Table value of Chi - 7.82; Level of significance - .05; Degree of freedom -3

Source: *Researcher'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 X² 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 X² 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

Variables	Responses				TOTAL
	SA	A	D	SD	
Basic road network	28 (18.4)	18 (22.2)	38 (36.7)	22 (24.7)	106
Income level of 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.

18.18 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 accessed 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 qua 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.

18.19 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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