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**Citizen participation for development in
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CITIZEN PARTICIPATION FOR DEVELOPMENT IN NKWERRE/ISU

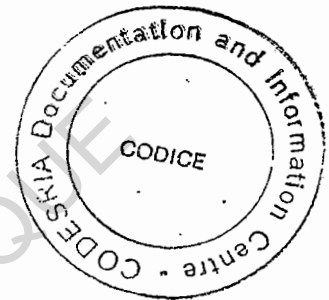
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BY

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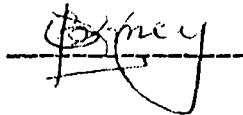
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DECLARATION

We declare that this thesis on CITIZEN PARTICIPATION FOR DEVELOPMENT IN NKWERRE/ISU LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF IMO STATE is an original work written by George Okechukwu Oji and was carried under our supervision. We have examined and found the research work adequate and acceptable for the award of degree of master of science.

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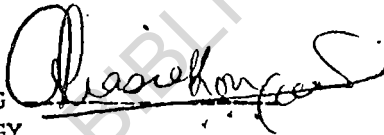
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Chibuzo and Ezinwanne, who endured grievous deprivations to enable me graduate; and to Late Professor Patrick Ollawa for various scholarly inspirations.

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OJI, G.O.O.

and policy preferences. However, past efforts at decentralisation have not been effective. Various reasons were identified. It was suggested, therefore, that the legal instruments establishing the decentralised structures must clearly state the procedures for participation and roles of and relationship of officials at various levels of administration.

The methodology of this research used questionnaire in eliciting information which was subjected to various statistical techniques to facilitate verifiable deductions. The implication of the findings is that policies and strategies aimed at authentic rural development and realisation of human potentials are likely to achieve their objectives if the citizens participate in the **generating** of ideas, formulation and assessment of options and making choice of means to put the options into effect. The data revealed that the government has not sincerely instituted measures to enable rural peoples to take part in decision-making for development purposes. It was also noted that the rural people are not really passive citizens, but are already imbued with the necessary variables like organisational involvement, media exposure and a high degree of community satisfaction and an appreciable level of interest in local affairs. These variables were identified as the necessary pre-requisites for effective mobilisation.

The study recommended the use of local organisations as the most effective instrument of mobilisation for development. It is preferred to the use of councillors or representatives;

and the use of the media-radio, television and newspaper - in mobilisation is considered less effective than local organisations.

The hypothesis that personality variables better explains participatory orientations was found to be significant at 0.05 level of significance. It was however observed that certain personality characteristics (such as sex) are more related to certain participatory activities than others. Also some variables such as the citizens level interest in communal affairs and sense of personal efficacy more explains participatory orientations of rural people than the demographic variables. This questions the inherent assumption in strategies which are administered without regard to the recipients role-situations and socialisation patterns. It also shows the need to clearly study development activities and identify which variables need be emphasized.

In summary, it was noted that three conditions must be fulfilled for rural participation to be effective. These are:

- (a) a positive orientation to it by the political leadership and political system through effective and functional devolution of decision-making units to smaller local levels.
- (b) the existence of formal and institutionalised procedures of integrating local organisations into the planning process, and
- (c) the ability and willingness of the people themselves to participate.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

"No economic theory of economic development is adequate if it ignores the calculating abilities, the entrepreneurial tendencies or the range of individual variation found among traditional farmers".¹

The ineffectiveness of rural development policies in developing countries to palliate problems such as declining agricultural productivity, rural to urban migration, unemployment, high marginal propensity to import foreign manufactured goods, accumulating foreign debts and unfavourable balance of payments, have engaged the attention of governments in many of the third world nations. For instance, in the 1960's, a period referred to as the development decade, it was thought that percentage increases in a country's gross domestic product invariably constitutes development. The idea was that net increases in gross national product (GNP) will, following the multiplier effects of government efforts and the trickle-down theory, enhance the quality of life of the rural peoples. This conception was found to be at variance with regard to the conditions of the economies of many developing nations.² In the words of Patrick Ollawa, "after more than a decade of experimentation with this strategy, none of the African States concerned can be said to have achieved even a modicum of balanced growth".³ What was really achieved was uneven "growth without development."

As a result, redefinitions of the term 'development' have been made to bring into focus the rudiments and ramifications of a development strategy which will be in consonance with the nature and character of developing economies and which will be "related to the structural capabilities of the country in which it was to operate" bringing into play the "historical forces and processes that have shaped the socio-economic structure."⁴

Contemporaneously, there seem to be greater inclination to the people-centred basic needs approach to development. Simply stated, this approach emphasizes the extent to which the basic needs of man are met in society. From this viewpoint, calls for greater participation, as a basic human need, have increased. A communique from the Third World Forum in Karachi (1975) is typical: "The real focus should be on the satisfaction of basic human needs and on a meaningful participation of the masses in the shaping of economic and social change; the policies of self-reliance should be encouraged, with the emphasis on a self-confident and creative use of local resources, manpower, technology and knowledge".⁵ The International Labour Organisation (ILO) in its publication entitled 'Meeting the Basic Needs' (1977) typified the alternative development strategy school when it pointed out two elements of the basic need approach. These are certain minimum requirements for Food, Shelter, Clothing, as well as essential service like public goods which comprises safe drinking water, sanitation, public

transport, health and educational facilities. In continuation, the ILO notes that "a basic needs - oriented policy implies the participation of the people in making the decision which affect them through organisations of their own choice,"⁶ To Robert Dahl, it means decentralizing power and authority to local levels to discover viable smaller units within which citizens can from time to time formulate and express their desires, consult with officials, and in some cases participate even more fully in decisions.⁷

In pursuance of this new approach to development, rural development is favoured. This is because much of public policy deals with the institution of programmes that will be of greatest benefit to the greatest number, and a greater percentage of the populace reside in the rural areas. The Third National Development Plan, 1975-80, in realization of the saliency of rural development to national development gave priority, in the allocation of resources, to those programmes and projects which will directly benefit the rural population. For instance, a rural development policy was enunciated in the document with its main objectives " to increase rural productivity and income, diversify rural economy and generally enhance the quality of life of rural areas."⁸

Unfortunately, the rural poor, who constitute the vast majority of the population and should constitute the target group of the rural development policies, have had little participation in the development efforts. They are usually

excluded from taking part in the initiation, designing and implementation of most rural development programmes. The overall effect is that most of the rural population resort to passive acquiescence "which causes as much harm to the programmes as open resistance."⁹

The African Regional Conference on the Integrated Approach to Rural Development which met at Moshi, Tanzania in 1969, among others, stipulated that any development strategy should have as a primary objective the mobilization of human and material resources in the rural areas. Ollawa in his definition saw rural development as "any clear and consciously applied strategy designed to restructure the economy in order to satisfy the material needs and to promote individual collective incentives to participate in the process of development."¹⁰ Julius Nyerere in his contribution defined rural development simply as "Participation of a people in a mutual learning experience involving themselves, their local resources, external change agents and outside resources."¹¹ The above viewpoints stress the fact that participation is a basic human need for development and must be included as a critical consideration in any development strategy.

In addition, there is wide support, especially among international organisations, for popular participation of the citizenry of any society in public affairs that affect their lives. For instance, in 1975, the 24th Session of the United Nations Economic and Social Council (UNESCO), recommended that governments should:

"adopt popular participation as a basic policy measure in national development strategy and should encourage the widest active participation of all individuals and national non-government organisations in the development process in setting goals, formulating policies and implementing plans."¹²

It is to be noted that prior to this declaration, the United States Congress, in her 1973 Foreign Assistance Act, stated that American development assistance is to be extended to programs that promote the involvement of intended beneficiaries in the planning and implementation of development programs as well as in the gains of development.

As if to buttress the centrality of citizen participation in the affairs of a society, a recent study of 36 rural development projects in Africa and Latin America demonstrated that 49 per cent of projects success was accounted for by the involvement of the intended beneficiaries in the conceptualisation, design and implementation of project as well as in resource commitment.¹³

The question which need to be posed at this juncture is: To what extent is citizen participation meaningfully realized in Nigeria's planning experience? Second, what are the dimensions of the operationalisation of the concept - participation?

In his keynote address to military Governors at a Seminar on integrated rural development in 1986, the President,

General Ibrahim Babangida Stated:

"Our past experience have clearly demonstrated that no self-sustaining development can take place in Nigeria without the masses of our people being effectively mobilized, genuinely motivated and properly organized for productive activity within the context of freedom, orderly progress and social justice".

The presidents' admonition restates the concerns expressed by many scholars, governments and organisations over the failure in achieving an adequately authentic rural development in the society. This may account for why in 1987, General Babangida instituted the Directorate of Social Mobilization (MAMSER). The objectives of the Directorate are, among others, to "generally awaken the rights and obligations of a citizen to the nation; encourage the people to take part actively and freely in discussions and decisions affecting their general welfare; and promote new sets of attitudes and culture for the attainment of the goals and objectives of the Nigerian State".¹⁴

The functions of the Directorate include sensitizing the populace to development issues and facilitating the development of a new development-oriented consciousness in the Nigerian society in which majority of the citizenry will see it as their national responsibility while acting in their rural contexts. It is also hoped that the effect of such actions will facilitate the cognitive development of the masses and imbue in them an orientation which will enhance participation for the purpose of achieving overall national objectives.

Nonetheless, the recognition of the need for mobilization of the masses to participate in the public affairs of their society is only one side of the coin. The other side is the need to identify and delineate the pre-conditions and pre-requisites for participation and development. This is important because mobilization for participation focuses on changes that re-orientate the behaviour and value systems of the people. As Nwosu suggests, "whoever wishes to win over the masses must know the key that will open the door to their hearts."¹⁵

It is in this perspective that this study seeks to test the extent to which personality variables like sex, age, educational level, organisational involvement can adequately explain participatory orientations of rural dwellers. Specifically, what is the degree of effectiveness of governments decentralisation measures towards enhancing participation at the grass roots? What is the nature and dimensions of existing participatory programmes in Nigeria? What policy lessons are relevant to Nigeria from a comparative analysis of citizen participation in rural development? What useful recommendations are necessary as to how citizen participation may be best advanced in rural development administration? What are the policy options? In trying to provide answers to these questions and other incidental ones, it is hoped that this study would highlight the need for citizen participation for rural development and socio-economic advancement of the society.

The study is divided into five chapters. Chapter one deals with introduction, literature review, clarification of concepts,

theoretical framework, statement of the problem and method of research. In this chapter, considerable attention is given to the clarification of concepts with a view to evaluating the theoretical significance and scientific adequacy of the concepts used in the study. Also, the theoretical framework critically reviews various perspectives, models and theories which seem to dominate in the participatory literature. The main objective is to delineate functional analytical frameworks necessary for an adequate explication of a general theory of citizen participation in rural development; while the review of literature seeks to highlight the principal concepts that have evolved in the literature so far.

In chapter two, a brief comparative overview is undertaken in order to show the experience of other countries, other than Nigeria, in the implementation of participatory programmes. For the sake of emphasis, the aim is to identify the sort of methods employed by other nations in achieving meaningful and functional participatory development. It is assumed that such a brief overview would have important lessons for Nigeria as it attempts to grapple with the task of enhancing participatory development in the country. In chapter three, a detailed enumeration of the methodology showing the research design and procedure for the organisation of data is made; while chapter four concentrates on the analysis of data and the discussion of results. Finally, the fifth chapter deals with the summary of findings, policy recommendations and conclusions.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There is increasing concern that existing approaches to development are not yielding the desired results. In fact, some development practitioners and academic theorists are of the view that the existing development strategy is itself contributing to the further underdevelopment of the more marginal sectors of the economies of developing countries. This state of affairs instigated the search for an alternative development strategy.

One line of criticism which has become quite strong in the recent development literature is that programmes and projects and its methods of administration are too top - down and need to be more bottom-up. In fact, some argue that real development, by definition, must involve the target group in the conduct of their own affairs. The call for participation has come from a broad spectrum of those concerned with development and for a variety of reasons. The proponents have advocated greater citizen involvement because they believe that if people are allowed to take a more active role in solving their own problems and meeting their own needs, they will acquire the power that was previously acquired by governments by default. They value participation because it redistributes power more democratically. A new group of development administration experts have advocated participation as essential to the sustainability of projects. The main obstacle to participation, however, is the difficulty of implementing it in practice. It is easier said than done.

Hence, the problem does not subsist in the justifications, but in the 'how'.

The integrated approach to rural development, which is "a highly structural and systematic exercise in which all components in the system of development can be understood as important and appreciated for the part which they play individually and collectively",¹⁶ was considered the most effective means for achieving rural transformation. Unfortunately, this realization was glaringly absent in Nigeria's planning experience until recently. Earlier plans were mostly urban biased in its priorities and allocations such that inspite of the fact that development planning in Nigeria dates back to 1946, the Third National Development Plan, 1975-80 was the first attempt to bring rural development within the framework of the national development planning.

The document states that the plan aims at "specifically promoting the development of the rural areas;"¹⁷ and its main objectives were "to increase rural productivity and income, diversify rural economy and generally enhance the quality of life of rural areas."¹⁸ This shift in emphasis towards rural development was justified by the fact that more than 75 per cent of the population live in the rural areas. It thus assumes that focusing of development on rural society is necessary to ensure maximum benefit to greater number of the people.

This episodial attitude towards diversification of the economy have been criticised. It was noted this attitude was instigated by declining agricultural productivity, increasing import bill, and unfavourable balance of trade and payments, occasioned by the decreasing yields from the sale of oil proceeds and exacerbated by high marginal propensity to import. As the Central Bank annual reports indicated, the relative contribution of the agricultural sector to the gross domestic product (GDP) has persistently declined; resulting in increasing imports of Food items. For instance, in 1970, Food imports relative to total imports was N57.694 million out of total imports of N752.580 million (7.67 per cent). By 1977, this has risen to N736.420 million out of total imports of N7.093.694 million.¹⁹ "In 1978, Food imports was N1,020.7, N1,105.09 million in 1979 and N1,091.0 million in 1980".²⁰ This pitiable Food trend simply shows that government efforts have not been effective. As have been observed, Food production assumed an area of high priority in the 70's, and inspite of the billions of Naira spent on some agricultural development programmes (like OFN, River Basin Development Authority, Green Revolution, etc.), less than commensurable results were attained, Food imports continued and authentic rural development still remains a mirage.

What this implies is that the problems with the attainment of authentic rural development vis-a-vis agricultural development does not subsist in justifying the rationale for rural development as contained in the past efforts, but in the

identification of the variables that must exist and a recognition of the contextual constraints at implementation of these programmes.

It has been rightly observed that past efforts relegated the imperative need to know the characteristics and behaviour patterns of the rural societies in which these programmes were targeted. The nature of the characteristics of the rural society and knowledge of the values, cultural traits and modes of production were not given due attention. More often, projects designed for the rural peasants deals insufficiently with the rural agrarian base and assumes that the programmes could be carried out almost exclusively through the government agents without active local involvement. This has often resulted in project failure, because rather than mobilise the intended target groups, the programmes often stimulate the participation of the wrong groups or individuals - that is, either the local elites or the relatively well-to-do.²¹

The problem, considering Nigeria's dilemma is to identify and examine what other variables that may explain this failure - prone syndrome of development policies; especially to identify what functional methods may be applied to effectively mobilise the target groups in development efforts. It is the examination of this that forms the principal focus of this study.

Rural development, however defined, cannot neglect the human angle which is recognised as the most essential element, with its primary concern being "the participation by the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living with

as much reliance as possible on their own initiative".²² It is in this perspective that this research seeks to identify the level and dimensions of citizen participation in the study area.

This study also argues that the problem with past programmes which accounts for the failure - prone syndrome is the absence of effective participation of the intended beneficiaries in plan conception, initiation, implementation and evaluation. It further argues that the political will or the determination of the polity to develop the rural areas is still bereft of policies that allow for genuine mobilisation and participation of the rural people.

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In order to fully examine the relationship between citizen participation and development, the study seeks to:

- (i) identify the form of rural participation for development already existing in Nkwere/Isu local government area of Imo State of Nigeria.
- (ii) ascertain the most effective methods which may be applied to effectively mobilise the target groups in development efforts;
- (iii) assess the possibility of achieving more effective rural participation in planning and implementation of rural development programmes; and to verify the conditions under which it could work on a self-sustaining basis;
- (iv) to see how far variables such as age, sex, socio-economic status, educational level and organisational

involvement are crucial factors in enhancing citizen participation for development.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study, therefore, lies in its efforts to contribute to the debate and better understanding of the factors which make for effective mobilisation of the rural populace to participate in development programmes in their areas. As indicated earlier, the amount of resources expended in pursuit of authentic rural development are serious enough to give justification to this study.

Much of existing literature on participatory programmes are based on the experiences of other nations. Although these studies provide some reference points to the analysis of participation in development planning in some societies, they do not provide sufficient empirical support to generalise on the virtues or otherwise of participation for development. Hence, the need to relate peculiar issues in development to particular social contexts.

In addition, it has been observed that many of the available case studies either focus on the success or failure of the programmes they have witnessed. In either case, the reporting of various aspects of the projects will be selective and will be focused on the particular perspectives or hypotheses of the author. This requires that more research should be conducted at different rural communities with diverse social and economic characteristics, varying spatio-temporal dimensions, so as to improve the feasibility of involving these rural

peasants in developing their socio-economic contexts. In the light of this assertion, this study is significant. This is anchored on the assumption that man's social environment to a large extent determines his value orientations and behaviour. This study will elucidate on this and show how these attributes have helped to determine the nature of and participatory orientations of the citizens of Nkwerre/Isu Local Government Area of Imo State of Nigeria.

It is hoped that this research will be invaluable for future efforts at enhancing local involvement in problem-solving and policy making in the area under study and possibly in many Nigerian societies.

1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The terms which are often used in this work are rural development, mobilisation, motivation, efficiency and effectiveness criteria, participation and decentralisation. It is, therefore, necessary to clarify these terms particularly as they are used in this work.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT:

The World Bank Sector paper on Rural Development (1975) defines rural development as a strategy to improve the socio-economic life of a specific group of people - the rural poor. It suggests that rural development should thus encompass improvement in productivity, increase in employment and higher incomes as well as a minimum acceptable levels of food,

shelter, education and health for the citizenry. It is for this reason that the definition of rural development as offered by Lowdermilk and Laitos is adapted in this study. They aptly state that:

"Rural development is a continuous process of planned social, political and economic changes in rural and urban social structures and organisations which provides for adequate incentives, production possibilities, and services to help rural people achieve higher levels of living, knowledge and skills. Rural development helps to modify their physical and social environments and maintain sustained progress towards desired goals which the rural poor help establish and implement over time".²³

MOTIVATION:

This concept has been defined "as a generalisation applying to the entire class of drives, desires, needs, wishes and similar forces"²⁴ which can cause or induce people to act in a desired manner. The term motivation is derived from another term 'motive' which is a consideration or emotion that excites to action. According to Berelson and Steiner, the term 'motive' refers to "...an inner state that energizes, activates, or moves and which directs or channels behaviour towards goals."²⁵

In effect, therefore, to say that the citizenry be motivated to participate is simply to say that the decision makers does those things which actually satisfy the human drives, needs and wishes, and which induce the citizens to act in the desired manner.

MOBILISATION:

For purposes of this study, mobilisation must be seen in terms of involving the ordinary citizens in taking part actively and freely in discussions and decisions affecting their general welfare. It is the organisation of a group of individuals for joint collaborative action. Following Ollawa, mobilisation "includes not only psychological involvement in the political process by the citizens, but also the shifting of traditional bonds and loyalty from primordial attachments to the nation state."²⁶

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION:

This concept defies any concise definition that will encapsulate adequately its meaning. Yet, for purposes of clarity, an attempt at definition is desirable. Judy Rosener in his contribution asserts that an adequate definition of the concept must indicate the "who, where, what, how and when of participation". To him, the term "citizen" refers to those "individuals who do not occupy sanctional decision making positions".²⁷ Thus, citizen participation refers to the extent to which those not in authority take part in determining how goals and policies are set and how resources are allocated towards the attainment of these goals.

There is an obvious distinction between political participation and participation for development. Contributing to this analogy, Hayward states that participation be seen in a sense of actions aimed at influencing (controlling, changing,

supporting or sharing in) policy making and/or execution from the point of view of participants.²⁸ And Montgomery and Esman notes that citizen participation goes beyond the passive sense of sharing in governmental beneficiencies, and reaches the extent to which the participants are able to exert influence on the administrative behaviour and on the output of government actions.²⁹

DECENTRALISATION:

Following Martin Rein's classifications, decentralisation can be political, territorial or administrative. Political decentralisation focuses on redistributing political power and policy-making authority to local levels. Territorial decentralisation is where government apparatus is brought closer to people for the expression of resident wishes and preferences; while administrative decentralisation is delegation of decision-making authority to sub-ordinate officials.

Drawing heavily from administrative theory, Kart notes that the reality of decentralisation is measured by the amount of authority delegated to local levels or sub-national units to initiate policy independently, and the willingness of the delegating authority to support the decentralised units in those independent decisions.³⁰

1.6 LITERATURE REVIEW

(A) THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF PARTICIPATION:

The question of citizen participation has attracted the attention of scholars and practitioners alike as they attempt to deal with the issue of fostering greater local involvement in development administration. Because the subject-matter is of interest to many different fields, especially in the social sciences, major disciplines have brought to bear on the concept - participation - differing analytical orientations which tend to complicate the understanding of the term for political relationships in the society. It is perhaps for this reason that Churchman suggests that the term participation is complex and sensitive, not only for its multidisciplinary inclination but more for the fact that it has implications for the distribution of material and power resources across class boundaries with its inherent tendency to arouse conflicting expectations.³¹

However, it may seem, citizen participation is a basic policy issue in any development strategy, hence it must be capable of being defined so as to facilitate an effective appraisal of the possibility of its operationalization.

James Cunningham identified three essential elements of participation as common amateurs, power and decisions. The 'common amateurs' are the non-elite citizens whose ability to gain some control results from the participation process itself. 'Power' is control and participation is said to occur

when such control comes within the reach of the common amateurs and is exercised over decisions that affect several members of the society. The 'decisions' are "significant and substantive choices" which directly affect a number of persons in important ways.³²

Focusing on these or some of the elements, a number of scholars have attempted to proffer explanations for the concept, participation, but because their assumptions are based on characteristics of western societies, their definitions largely fail to meet practical application in the developing or non-western societies. As Ollawa avers, the term has far wider implications than its conventional meaning and frame of reference in western democratic societies. This is because "it not only includes activities of those kinds of behaviour that can simply be regarded as falling within the ambit of the political processes such as voting in elections, joining local level party units, attending political rallies, meetings and electoral campaigns, etc, but also and perhaps more significantly, it embraces all efforts or activities in the social and economic spheres...considered central to attainment and/or implementation of its ideological goals."³³

This contribution clearly distinguishes between political participation, which generally dominate the literature on participation, and participation for development.

Contributing to this dichotomy, Cohen and Uphoff note that participation will be irrelevant to development if defined only

in terms of voting, office holding, expressing support for government by coming out en masse to march in parades or what they termed "ceremonial" or "support" participation.³⁴

These attempts at definition of the concept, participation, further highlights two essential elements which are that, first, the participatory process is a composite phenomenon involving the citizens motivations to positively and willingly participate in the governing process; and second, the government must be committed to mobilize both the human and material resources in the society in response to the challenge and rationale for rural change and development.

Having discussed the essential elements of the definition and on the saliency of this in any development approach, another area that engages the attention of scholars is on the extent to which this concept can find empirical referents. In the words of Goldsmith, "while participatory model of development have obvious moral and theoretical appeal the arguments in favour of more participation rarely proceed further, for these are relatively few instances where participatory development has been seriously attempted, and thus scanty empirical evidence concerning either its proper role or the means by which it can be optimised."³⁵ Waddimba in a study designed to review the literature on participation for development and to take stock of findings of some empirical studies carried out by researchers on popular participation further pointed out that, perhaps, because of the large measure of agreement on the philosophical or speculative level,

not much effort appeared to have been devoted to establishing the relationship between participation and programme performance on the basis of acceptable empirical evidence.³⁶

Observing more than a decade of experimentation with participatory democracy in Tanzania, Louis Piccard notes that "while decentralisation has brought about a modicum of deconcentration of power to the regions and districts, the administrative structure has not been able to establish the mechanisms that will ensure increased participation at the district and sub-district level."³⁷ He insists that "a major goal of President Nyerere that decentralisation provide mechanisms for popular participation in the districts remain largely unachieved."³⁸ This was also observed by Uma Lele when she stated that despite the fact that local participation was espoused as an important objective of rural development and where political education in mass participation is a key element of the development strategy, genuine grassroot participation has not evolved.³⁹

Nevertheless, a recent field study carried out by Development Alternatives incorporated in 1975 shows that 49 per cent of the variation in overall project success was explained by differences in the degree of small farmer involvement in project conceptualisation, design and implementation as well as in resource commitment. Involvement in decision-making especially during the implementation phase and the commitment of resources by small-farmers were found to be

particularly highly correlated with overall project success.

In the work under reference, the findings were based on a detailed examination of 36 rural development projects operated in 11 (eleven) African and Latin American countries.⁴⁰ This is perhaps one of the significant work that has attempted to demonstrate in a systematic way the possibility of empirical evidence for citizen participation in development programs. In the same vein, a comparative study of ten cases carried out by the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) and World Health Organisation (WHO) conclude that community participation in the planning, implementation and management of primary health care services was an essential condition for effective functioning of these services.⁴¹

Furthermore, in its comprehensive evaluation of all the projects it has funded during its five years of operation, the International American Foundation (IAF) stresses the significance of citizen participation. Thus, "Only by moving away as much as possible from the 'father knows best' approach and bending every effort to involve rural people in articulating their own needs and running their own affairs is there any hope for unleashing the massive human energies required to bring about broad-scale rural development."⁴²

However, it is necessary to understand what is meant by rural development. To what extent is the product of local involvement in policy making for development commensurate with the opportunity costs, or inputs expended in pursuit of a

participatory rural development? What is actually expected from citizen participation and how are these benefits intended to reach the target groups? The answers to these questions is provided in the sections dealing with theories of development and cost benefit analysis.

(B) THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT:

As with Thomas Kuhn's scientific revolution, the theory of development have witnessed marked shifts in perceptions and emphases. Earlier paradigms (example the GNP index) were premised on dysfunctional variables which neglected many salient issues imperative for an authentic and self-sustaining development process. Since these approaches were predicated on wrong assumptions, it failed to adequately delineate a clear and consistent system of interrelated propositions that may further socio-economic transformations of a developing nation. This inadequacy is more explained in the theoretical framework.

The GNP (gross national product) index for measuring growth and development was based on the "percolation theory" which assumes that inequalities and poverty will be eliminated as the proceeds of national growth trickle-down to the masses. In this view, development was explained in terms of percentage increases in a country's gross national product. The strategy of development thus manifests a predominant concern with promoting rapid growth in gross domestic product, through capital intensive industrialization and construction of large-scale infrastructures. Various neo-classical models and theories such as those of Arthur Lewis (1954) "Economic

development with unlimited surplus of labour"; Ragnar Nurske (1958) theory of balanced growth and so on, were instrumental to the urban bias in these approaches to development. The assumption is that there exist abundant labour in the rural areas, but whose plight will improve as the multiplier effects of government actions trickle-down. The irrelevance of this assumption was demonstrated when authentic development continued to elude countries that have implemented this option.

Many scholars thus advocate for new ways of expressing development goals. Many scholars speak for the use of social indicators which will relate progress to specific development issues. To them, development must be measured on the extent to which it directly provides solutions to the problems of poverty, malnutrition, unemployment and inequality. Mahbub UL Haq in his "Crisis in development strategies" (1973) contends that the new theory must reject the thesis that poverty can be attacked indirectly through the growth rates filtering down to the masses. In his submission he suggests "we were taught to take care of our GNP, since this would take care of poverty. Let us reverse this and take care of poverty first, since GNP can take care of itself, for it is only a convenient summation, and not a motivation for human efforts."⁴³

In the light of these insights and perceptions, a multi-disciplinary definition emerged which states that development must begin by identifying human basic needs; raise the level of living of the masses and provide all with the opportunity to develop their potential. It also includes meeting non-material

needs like the desire for self-determination, self-reliance, political freedom and security and participation in making decisions.

Making a case for the place of participation in development, Nnadozie asserts that development involves the achievement of self-fulfilment goals by individuals being able to participate actively in shaping their affairs, their environment and matters that affect their daily life. From this perspective, development is seen as an attitude of mind, a way of life in which an individual accepts to a greater degree that he is the master of his own fortune and can personally participate in the social engineering of his community.⁴⁴

Following from this viewpoint, any serious attempt to develop a people with regard to the mobilisation of society's material and human resources and even the provision of basic needs should, as a matter of priority, involve the people. This view finds support in Macpherson's assertion that:

"...the most effective means to ensure that policies reflect the principles established for development will be to strive consciously for a widening and deepening of public knowledge of policy issues, together with genuine participation in the implementation of the programmes which are implemented."⁴⁵

The scholars referred to above, seem to agree on the fact that however it be defined, an appropriate strategy must address itself to the 'What' and 'How' questions of participatory development. Specifically, the 'What' questions should relate to the type of activities that need to be undertaken in order to reach the intended beneficiaries; the 'How' questions should focus on devising ways for implementing rural development programmes.

What, then, is rural development? Does rural development imply merely the provision of amenities that enhance the exploitation and expropriation of the rural sector to the advantage of the urban sector? Does it imply measures that foster and strengthen structural imbalances between the sectors? Or is it a measure and process towards enabling the rural sector to adequately play complementary roles with the urban sector and thus enhance societal cohesion, growth and development?

In a focus on rural development, Ollawa sees it as "any clear and consciously applied strategy designed to restructure the economy in order to satisfy the material needs and to promote individual and collective incentives to participate in the process of development."⁴⁶ Julius Nyerere was more philosophical and psychological when he defined rural development simply as "participation of a people in a mutual learning experience involving themselves, their local resources, external change agents and outside resources."⁴⁷ Joung Whang in his "operational implications" defined integrated rural development as:

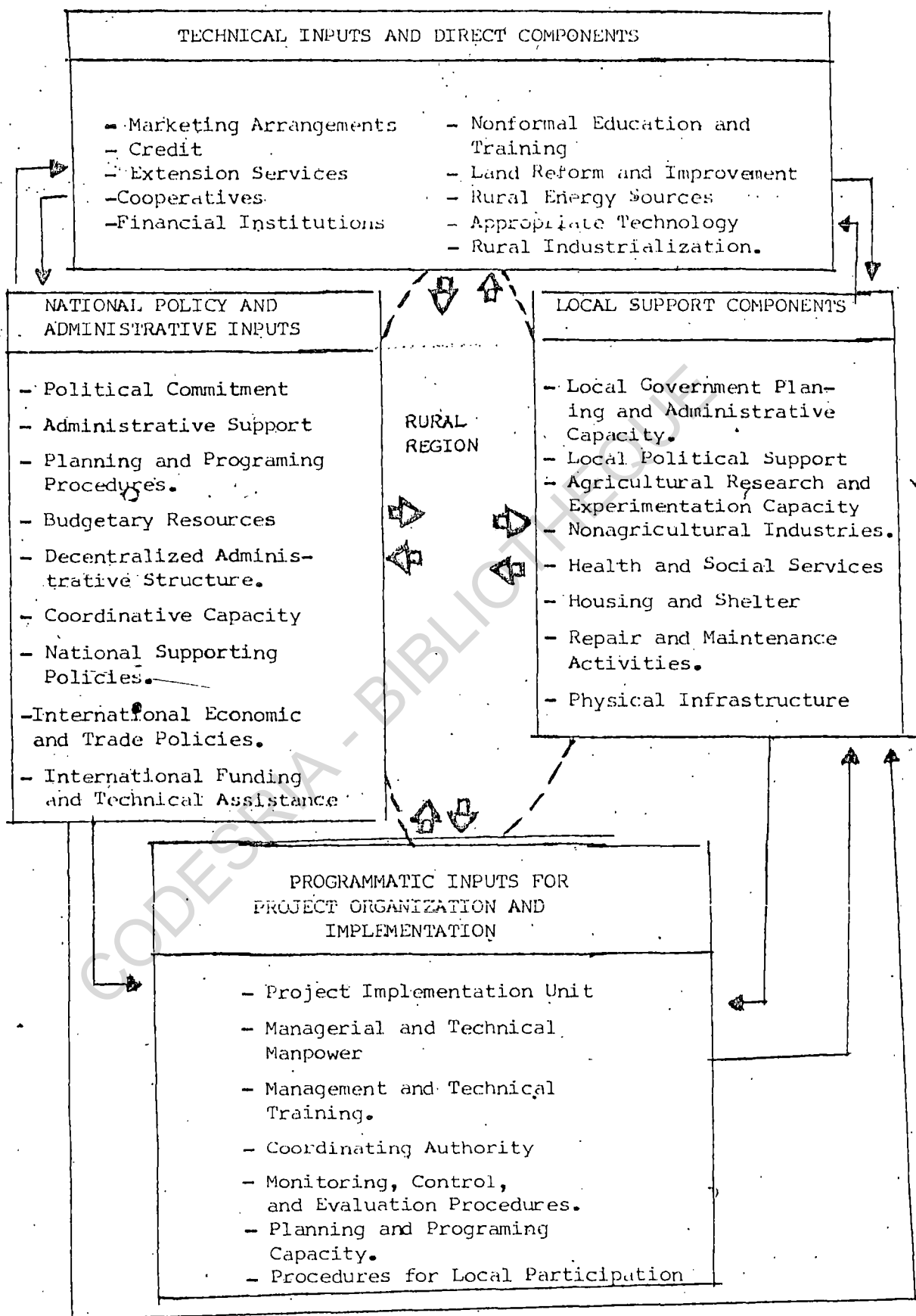
"an integrated process of changes in values and perceptions of rural people, an increase in dynamism of rural organisations, and concomitant change in village economy and community structure. It consists of a process of fundamental change in peoples motivations and also in their world outlook and perceptions which should be conducive to organisational performance and also lead to socio-economic development of the rural community."⁴⁸

What these views seem to emphasize is that rural development is a deliberate effort at finding out the values, perceptions and issues that motivate the rural people, with a view to establishing a functional correlation between those issues and development goals.

As if to support the above ideas, Uma Lele identified what she considered three imperative elements of a good rural development design or programme. She asserts that it must involve;

- (a) improving the living standards of the subsistence population involves mobilisation 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 which 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 mobilisation of additional financial and human resources for continued development of the subsistence sector.⁴⁹

However, a systems analysis of the interrelations will demonstrate the inter-dependence and complementarity of all sectors of the economy. This implies that an authentic rural development strategy must be seen within the purview of the general national objectives, as well as the consideration of the injection of some variables from the international politico-economic relations. An attempt is made to demonstrate this relationship in figure 1.1



SOURCE: Adapted from Max Lowdermilk and Robert Laitos, "Towards participatory strategy for Integrated Rural Development," Rural Sociology 46(4) 1981, p.689.

The figure shows the four major components of a rural development strategy. These are;

- (i) National policy and administrative inputs;
- (ii) technical inputs
- (iii) local support components; and
- (iv) programmatic inputs for project organisations and implementation.

Figure 1.1 provides a listing of the detailed inputs needed for planning and implementing rural development, and shows the interconnectedness of these components. Their functions are not mutually exclusive. For instance, one of the programmatic inputs is sufficient decentralisation as a procedure for local participation, while the local support component shows the need for administrative capacity to execute decentralized functions. The national policy and administrative inputs demonstrates the necessity for political commitment, administrative support and coordinative capacity from national governments towards local levels in the execution of participatory development.

A major problem is that many of these inputs are seldom available in desired state in less developed countries, nor are there effective ways and means of creating these essential inputs for rural development. The national components are bedeviled by what has been described as "softness of the states" or the tenets of Fred Riggs "prismatic society". Thus, a major concern of a development theory and/or strategy in a developing nation is to evolve a framework which will provide the means

to acquire these essential components. Indeed as Hobbs aptly concludes, a primary role for research in rural development would be the identification of sources of macroeconomic change and their social, economic and political consequences for rural areas in general and in specific locations.⁵⁰

(C) COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS:

Efficiency and effectiveness are two concepts whose application in rural development administration has aroused much debate.

'Efficiency' concerns the ratio of costs to outputs, that is, in terms of the amount of time, money and effort required to accomplish a particular objective, and 'effectiveness' refers to the degree to which the public goods actually reach the target groups for the purpose of achieving their intended objectives.

✓ Some proponents of citizen participation argue that it increases the information available to administrators and planners and therefore results in more effective programmes. But because participatory planning requires a considerable amount of time, money, manpower, specialised knowledge and organisational capacity, the opponents contend that it is a less efficient strategy of development. This later viewpoint seem to be represented by such scholars as Robert Aleshire. He sees citizen participation as the antithesis of administrative and programme efficiency. As he puts it;

"A theoretically efficient program administrative model would include a decision-making process involving a few

people as possible to allow decisions to be made quickly. The cost-benefit view point of analysis would require that costs are kept as low as possible. If this objective is to be fully satisfied, participation should be limited."⁵¹

On the contrary, some proponents of greater local involvement conclude that whereas participation for development may not be efficient, it is effective, and hence should be accepted as a necessary price to pay in the pursuit of basic needs.⁵² N.U. Akpan, in his 'Public Administration in Nigeria' states that when defined in terms of "input-output ratio, efficiency assumes the connotation of 'mechanical efficiency' and under such a colouration, it cannot be appropriately applied to such human non-profit making and whose output cannot be quantified."⁵³

In his contribution to the question, Gboyega notes that efficiency stresses rationality and thus deals with one aspect of man's nature. How people feel has substantial, though intangible consequences, thus needs to be taken into account in judging the effectiveness of ^a public programme.⁵⁴

✓ Perhaps, President Kaunda of Zambia better summarizes this dialogue when he states:

"We need to remember that efficiency cannot be measured wholly or even chiefly in terms of results that can be reduced to quantifiable terms. The mere fact of decentralisation and the winning of power by the people to do things for themselves and to run their own affairs produce results in terms of human dignity and human self-fulfilment which are incapable of being expressed in any statistical form at all. Yet they remain things of profound importance in terms of the quality of life of our people."⁵⁵

Following the above averment, if we accept participation for development, with its tendency of being more expensive as a price we have to pay in exchange for the realization of human potentials in our polity, there is still one question which seems unanswered. This bothers on citizen competence to participate. To what extent are the citizens, especially rural dwellers, competent to participate in the intricate decisions on development? Does their assumed incompetence warrant their exclusion from decision-making?

Advocates of citizen participation often encounter opposition based on the assumed incompetence of the citizens in taking certain public decisions. The opponents argue that by the complexity and nature of rural problems, there are many decisions which the illiterate peasants are incompetent to make. Certain decisions, planning techniques and evaluation measures require certain specialized knowledge and skills which the rural people may not have.

In an effort to debunk this 'tyranny of expertise', Mulder avers that expertise apparently is a strong pre-requisite for participation, but the most practical strategy for real participation would be to base it on "sufficient expertness". He notes that workers on lower organisational levels may lack knowledge about problems of financing, macro-economic factors influencing sales or leadership training, but they do know about problems relating to their own work. "Thus, for all workers the pre-conditions of participation and decision motivation and expertness necessary for real/making problems -

as for example, structuring of the work process, design of new apparatus, structuring of adapted communication processes, and other matters important to workers and the organisation - do exist, namely in the work site, where the work is actually carried out".⁵⁵ In relation to development administration what this means is that issues on participation must relate to the ✓ context of implementation.

In the same vein, Cohen and Uphoff argue that although peasants cannot run an agricultural research question,⁵⁶ and that since participation (or decentralisation) is not anarchy, the programme choice will still reflect the policy preferences of the technocrats, but that participation means that peasants would take part in the design of agricultural projects at the local level where their knowledge in some respects is greater.⁵⁷ This may account for why Uma Lele suggests that "at the very minimum, they (the peasants) should be informed of the plans designed for their areas if they are expected to consent and to co-operate in program implementation. Participation in planning and implementation of programs can develop the self-reliance necessary among rural people for accelerated development."⁵⁸

✓ What these positions stress is the fact that though the rural peasants may lack the techniques and/or instruments to gather, collate and analyse data on some rural problems, they do not for this reason(s) have to be either excluded in planning or seen as incompetent to participate in programme initiation, planning and implementation. As if to buttress this

point, Jeremy Swift argues that the "rural people know useful things other people do not, that they are more likely successfully to work out a new technology or rural development strategy that they themselves have had a hand in devising and that they have a good moral claim to participate in deciding their own experience". He thus suggests that the "best" step to take is "...to devise institutions to allow rural people to help create their own economic development strategies and their own new technologies, and to devise national economic and political policies which will make such institutions work."⁵⁹

Having agreed on the practical expediency of the participation of the masses in development, how is this possible considering where the seat of power is?

(D) DECENTRALISATION FOR PARTICIPATION.

- See Carr-Saunders, 1963:43.

With participation considered by many as a critical matter in any development process, widespread decentralisation of governmental powers and functions is advocated in order to enhance the ability of the grassroots at mobilizing local human and material resources for overall economic development. Put simply, decentralisation means the delegation of power to lower levels of government to facilitate citizen efforts to organize themselves, formulate and express their desires or actualize their policy preferences. Crudely put, the extent of decentralisation can be measured by the level of authority the central government gives up to the subnational units to initiate policy in the areas that affect them, and the willingness of the delegating authority

to support the decentralized units in carrying out decentralized functions.

✓ Generally, there are two forms of decentralization. These are: functional and areal decentralization. 'Functional' decentralisation, refers to the transfer of authority to specialized organisations to perform specific tasks or activities; while 'areal' focuses on delegation of responsibility to organisations within well defined subnational or geographical boundary. In his classification, Rondinelli ⁽¹⁹⁸¹⁾ identified three degrees of decentralization viz: Deconcentration, Delegation and Devolution.

Deconcentration is where local agents of a central authority execute programmes on behalf of the central executives. This is the least extensive form form of decentralisation because it merely involves "shifting of workload", and "may not involve any decentralisation of power, that is, it may not provide the opportunity to exercise substantial local discretion in decision-making".⁶⁰ On the other hand, delegation of authority involves the transfer of authority to a body to plan and implement decisions concerning specific activities. A necessary prerequisite being that the body must have technical or administrative capacity to carry out such functions. Devolution which is the most extensive form of decentralisation requires that "local government be given autonomy and independence and be clearly perceived of as a separate level over which central authorities exercise little or no direct control," but in

which there are reciprocal and mutually benefitting and coordinate relationships between central and local governments.⁶¹

Canter The operationalisation of government decentralisation of power and authority for rural development finds expression in Nigeria as demonstrated, for example, in its Local Government Reforms of 1976 and 1985. Take for instance in the guidelines for Local Government Reforms of 1976, the objectives are clearly stated as follows:

- (a) to make appropriate services and development activities responsive to local wishes and initiates by developing or relegating them to local representative bodies;
- (b) to facilitate the exercise of democratic self government close to the local levels of our society, and to encourage initiative and leadership potentials.
- (c) to mobilise human and material resources through the involvement of members of the public in their local development;
- (d) to provide a two-way channel of communication between the local communities and government (state and Federal).

The advantages which accrue to a polity from transferring significant responsibility for development planning and management from central to lower levels of administration are many. But it is important to state that these advantages include the fact that decentralisation enables policy makers using micro-data generated from local level to disaggregate and tailor development

plans and programmes to the needs of heterogenous regions and groups within the country. By assigning government officials to rural areas, their knowledge of and sensitivity to local problems increase resulting in better exchange of information with which to formulate more realistic and effective plans and also channel political demands from the local government areas to national ministeries.

To what extent is it empirically possible to derive these benefits? To what degree is power actually devolved to local levels to make original plans independently? And what is the commitment of the central authority towards enabling the local government to execute these decentralized functions? Answers to these questions are important because the degree of effective participation obviously depends on the level to which planning is actually decentralized in the society.

Historically, the first attempt at involving rural Nigerians as integral part of government dates back to the colonial period. The three regional government namely the governments of the Northern, Eastern and Western regions, were empowered to establish and structure their local governments to suit their administrative and political requirements. Given this power, the former regional governments exercised enormous influence over the activities of Local Governments in their areas of authority, and for this reason, local administration differed in form and content, depending on the whims and caprices of the regional government which "created" them. This in Rondinelli's

classification is deconcentration and with "regard to allowing for meaningful citizen participation and enhancement of economic development, the local administrative set up left much to be desired."⁶²

The 1976 Reforms, thus attempted to bring about some form of uniformity in local government administration in Nigeria. To this end, it gave clear recognition to local government as a distinct level of government with well defined boundaries, functions and provisions for the mobilisation of human and material resources.

In the Second Republic (1979-1983), the encroachment of politicians in the running of the affairs of local government infused negative intervening variables which rendered local resource mobilisation and development ineffective and ineffectual. Local Government chairmen and council members were mostly political party loyalists. There was widespread injection of politics and politics of patronage into the local government system; and rather than highlight resource mobilisation and expansion of rural participation in local affairs as their primary goal, local government activities centred on the orchestration and praise-singing of the activities of their mentors at the state level.

These anomalies may have largely occasioned the instituting of the Dasuki Local Government Review Committee in 1984. The report of this committee and the resultant Federal Government

1985 White paper occasioned the introduction of greater autonomy, especially in financial matters, to the local government. Other avenues to engender local participation like the introduction of Development centres were made. More significantly, the more purposive Directorates of Social Mobilisation (MAMSER) and Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure, charged with the responsibility of carrying development to the grassroots were established.

This demonstration of commitment to rural development measured by the amount of financial outlay and evaluation procedures instituted (which was lacking in other attempts) will, no doubt, develop a sense of commitment and confidence in local people.

(E) DIMENSIONS OF PARTICIPATION:

By dimensions of participation is meant an analysis and elaboration of the various forms participation can take, the sets of individuals who are involved in the participatory process, and the various features of how that process is occurring. Judy Rosener argues that since issues differ in terms of their complexity, duration, scope and intensity, they generate different kinds of participation, with varying costs in implementation, and thus argues that to be able to assess the effectiveness of participation to a programme it is necessary to aptly understand how it could have occurred.⁶³

Montgomery and Esman in their typology identified six dimensions of participation, but I find the framework by Cohen and Uphoff more comprehensive and elaborate, and more related to

the theme of this study. Their framework delineates five dimensions, akin to Rosener's 'what, who and how' questions. They disaggregate and classify the maze of activities that can be included under the label participation by discussing the what, who, how, when and where of participation.

In the 'What' dimension, they see four areas for participation: in

- (1) decision-making,
- (2) implementation,
- (3) benefits, and
- (4) evaluation.

Participation in decision-making is what people mostly refers to when they think of citizen participation, whereas administrators are likely to focus on implementation. Participation in decision making and implementation pertains to the 'inputs' of rural development projects, providing authority information, labour and other resources, while people's involvement in benefits and evaluation of development activity of concerns the 'outputs'.

Participation in decision-making relate to participation in the generation of ideas, formulation and assessment of options and making choice of means to put the options into effect. The initial decisions begin with the identification of the real needs of the participation context, collection and collation of vital information on the context, to prevent misunderstandings as to the nature of the problem and to ascertain the reliability and effectiveness of choice of strategy for the resolution of the problems. Participation in on-going decisions occur after initial

decisions have been made, mostly to search for other needs and priorities that the project might respond to, as well as to evaluate the project to see whether to terminate or continue. The operational decisions relate to the organisations involved in the substantive activities of the project.

Rural people can participate in implementation aspects by way of resource contribution such as labour, material goods and information; they can be members of local voluntary organisations who administer and co-ordinate efforts at the project site.

Three kinds of possible benefits are associated with enlistment. These are material, social and personal benefits. The personal benefits are self-esteem and sense of efficacy. Self-esteem results from improvements of an individual's social status, and relates to the enhancement of an individual's ability to influence authoritative decisions. However, sometimes the latent consequences of programmes are harmful and undesirable. For example, Mulder (1971) and Kolawole (1982) posit that sometimes popular participation enabled the more powerful members of the society or organisation to use their influence more effectively. Thus, debunking the hypothesis, that participation of the less powerful in the preparation and execution of policy leads to a reduction of power differences. It shows that sometimes participation provides the elites the opportunity to effectively utilize their instruments of oppression. ⁶⁴

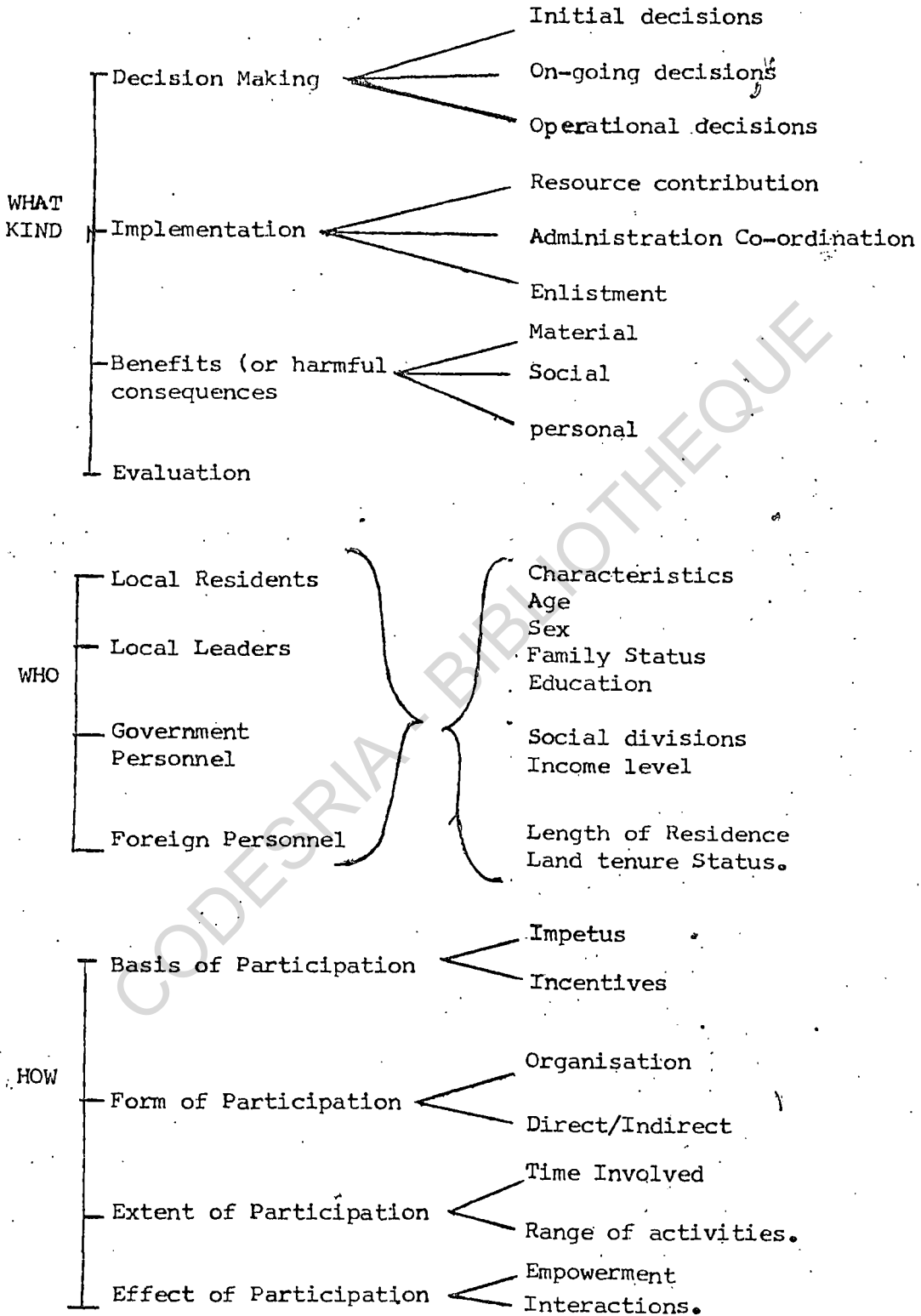
The 'who' dimension relates to the characteristics of the participant. According to Rosener, this dimension is very crucial

for any understanding of the effectiveness of citizen participation. This is because various groups are involved, and each of these groups operate under different organisational, economic and political constraints; and each group has different values, expectations and goals. However, depending on the setting and the goals of the project or programme, certain characteristics of participants would be more significant than others.

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FIGURE 1.2

DIMENSIONS OF PARTICIPATION



SOURCE: John Cohen and Norman Uphoff, "participation's place in Rural Development: Seeking clarity through specificity", World Development, Vol.8, 1980:219.

The 'how' dimension concerns the ways in which participation is occurring i.e. the mechanics of participation, such as whether the initiative for participation is engendered from the grassroots or from the national centre; that is, from the elites or from the masses. Whether the inducements for participation are voluntary or mandatory; what the channels and structure of participation are; whether it occurs on an individual or collective basis with formal or informal organisations and whether it is direct participation or indirect representation.

Empowerment refers to the degree of power which participants have in the organisational pattern. That participation can be individual and unorganised is quite clear, but evidence shows that it will be effective and sustained in the presence of some organized expression and support; and attention is here drawn to the fact that one of the research questions of this research is to find the extent to which organisational involvement is a crucial factor conditioning the amount, kind and success of participation. This analysis of the dimensions of participation shows that a single method of analysing and describing participation will be inadequate; it also shows that the initial incentives or impetus for participation may not clearly explain the form of participation.

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The gamut of perspectives, models and theories of development have, in recent times, witnessed a lot of reconsiderations and redefinitions. It is thus intended to review and evaluate the set of ideas and analytical frameworks in some of these moribund theories, identifying their inadequacies and defects with a view to proffering a framework necessary for an explication of a systematic theory of citizen participation in development. This orientation, it is hoped, will serve as a guide in the examination of the substantive issues.

The theory of dualism and balanced growth, among others, explain the complementary nature of the activities of the prominent sectors of an economy. They argue that the economy of nations are dualistic - the traditional subsistence sector consisting of agriculture as the prominent economic; and the modern sector with industrialisation as its pre-occupation. The neo-classical conception of development was based on the assumption that rapid industrialization and high economic rates of growth will provide employment; help bridge the income disparity between the sectors and contribute to the development of the rural sector through the "trickle effect".

A natural consequence of this was the extra-ordinary growth of urban centres resulting from an accelerated influx of rural skilled and unskilled workers in search of urban jobs. This further culminated in a combination of stagnating agricultural productivity, growing urban unemployment and massive

importation leading to the depletion of the country's foreign reserves and balance of payments deficit. This cumulative causation process thus justifies the need for a new theory of development.

Other theories worthy of mention is the Rostow's stages of economic growth, dubbed the 'sequential theory of development'. The Rostow's stages of growth are: the traditional society, the preconditions for take-off; the take-off; the drive to maturity; the age of high mass-consumption. The Rostow's hypothesis of linear stages of growth seems to see growth as being easily amenable to a predictable schema, such that developing countries will surely pass through the same stages as the developed countries in their process of development. This is wrong for as Meier states; "to maintain that every economy always follows the same course of development with a common past and the same future is to overschematize the complex forces of development, and to give the sequence of stages a generality that is unwarranted".⁶⁵ Alechina in criticizing the stage-theorist notes that "different countries have different types of development and they apply different methods of development according to their aims, constraints and opportunities and according to their ideologies".⁶⁶ This is the concept of endogenous development, which implies that the nature of development "must be determined by the country involved, on the basis of its internal possibilities, of the needs perceived and of the efforts its population is able to make."⁶⁷

Also, various theories of the Keynesian School, especially the ~~Harrod-Domar~~ Harrod-Domar model inclined more to macro-variables like National income, aggregate investment and consumption, imports and exports, and neglected the structural inhibitions to the accumulations of capital and the lags in adjustment between investment and creation of productive capacity in developing economies. Furthermore, these old theories concerned themselves principally with trends in the quantifiable aspects of development like income distribution, price changes and technological, but are silent on the non-quantifiable variables like behavioural and institutional features of the rural sector especially changes in taste, motivations and values.⁶⁷ Thus, these theories failed to address the fundamental issues concerning the structure of a developing economy.

In the light of the above, it became obvious that one reason for the failure of development programmes, predicated on those assumptions, to attain authentic development was its faulty premise. It shows that to construct development theories on the basis of an understanding of the socio-economic variables of western developed nations are largely irrelevant to comprehending the kinds of processes occurring in developing countries. It was this realization that the old explanations to the inner meanings of development were ineffective, that the benefits of growth did not actually percolate to the rural masses, that the misery of the masses heightened and that the

rural poor, who constitute the greater number of the population and are the ultimate goals of development has been excluded from the benefits of growth that warranted the redefinitions and new perceptions.

The missing imperative in the old theories is the concept of man and his basic needs. The demand now is to put man and his needs at the centre of development. Man has basic need: Food, Shelter, Clothing, health and other services which facilitate the realization and development of his inert potentials. It was in this purview that efforts were made to re-orient the objectives of development to the ultimate goal - Man.

According to UNESCO;

"development is seen from the point of view of man, who is the central phenomenon in the whole process. As he becomes aware of his needs, man determines the aims of development on the basis of these needs and subordinates the factors of development to the achievement of the aims he has determined."69

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs is identified as one of the theoretical formulations in the social sciences which, with some success, explains the people-oriented theory of development. Maslow identifies five primary needs within the hierarchy. At the lowest level is the physiological needs. These are fundamental and basic to human existence, thus it is difficult for any higher need to manifest. At the second level are the safety needs which include emotional security, as well as for :

physical safety. These are learned motives designed to protect oneself against the hazards and vagaries of life while striving to avoid situations that would thwart the continued gratification of the physiological needs. The third level are social needs. These are desires for love and affection, and inclination to belong to groups. At the fourth level is the need for esteem - a feeling of personal worth and a craving for others to recognize it by granting status, respect and admiration. It also involves autonomy and independent action, freedom of enquiry and expression.

Maslow shows that the problem of human motivation is premised on solutions to basic needs of man. These needs are instinctive and are in themselves products of the particular environments in which man sojourns. He further contends that the needs are arranged in the human psyche as a hierarchy; and because different persons are at different stages of their own hierarchy of needs, their motivations appear to be different. What this means to the theory of participation in development is that no strategy towards development can work from generalisations deduced from the experiences of others.

Further implications of Maslow's contribution with regard to development studies is that any model for mobilisation must recommend beyond the provision of amenities like housing, health centres and food, which are basic physiological needs. Man need to be assured of the continued availability of these goods on a regular basis, including the recognition and integration of certain socio-psychological variables.

The highest need on Maslow's hierarchy is the desire for self-actualisation and self-fulfilment. Self-actualisation is defined as one being what he is best fitted for. It is the tendency for one to become what one is capable of being. Thus Mulder notes that "for the individual members, feelings of wellbeing and their sense of self-realization are related to participation and its consequences".⁷⁰ The UNESCO further concurs that it is only when development is oriented towards aims which individuals and groups set for themselves can growth become development in the full sense of the terms.

Although Maslow's theory has much to offer towards the explication of the variables which determine the mobilisation or motivation of individuals for participation in development; it could not provide adequate explanations for the significant factors which can act as a constraint upon development. John Kunkel seem to provide the missing link when he avers;

"when the individual is given a prominent role in a theory of economic development, two problems must be adequately solved if the theory is to be useful in explaining the predicting change,

- (a) what are the determinants of human behaviour?
- (b) what is the relationship between the individual and the social context?"⁷¹

The implication of this is that a theory that does not relate man to the power relations in his socio-political environment is inadequate; nor can any theory explain the process of development in a developing nation without relating the analysis

to "the external-system-environment interaction". This is because not only are the mode of development process in the less developed countries (LDC's) determined and fostered by the pattern of interaction in the international environment but also "their incapacity to meet the generated demands are attributable in large part to the dependence of the inherited economy on external pressures and stimuli."⁷² In continuation, Ollawa notes that these external pressures are sometimes aggravated and "reinforced by the cross-cultural and trans-national demonstration effects of both the expatriate living standards within these states and the economic achievements associated with the economy of the more industrialized and developed countries which in turn generate expectations and demands beyond the capabilities of the political system to meet."⁷³

This leads us to the dependency theory which seeks to explain the reasons and ramifications of the dependence of the periphery nations on the centre nations for the acquisition of some of the factors of development. In many instances, the content and context of some of these development programmes are pre-determined to suit the whims and caprices of the donor nations, thus accounting for dysfunctional outcomes and plan failures. In his contribution to the analogy, Alechina opines, "when the subjective actions of those who make the decisions coincide with the objective law that are at the base of the process, the latter is accelerated. If, on the contrary, their actions and decisions do not take account of

the imperatives dictated by the objective laws, the process is slowed down or stagnates."⁷⁴ This means that a basic needs theory must show the political, administrative and institutional obstacles to fulfilling basic needs and also specify how these constraints are to be removed. To what extent has external considerations to the polity tended to digress objective functions of programmes?

Many development economists, planners and administrators largely agree that the inclusion of the concept of man in the theory of development would to a great extent help to relate the process to the empirical world of the developing nations. They believe in the capacity of such to generate inputs into the planning process which will help reflect the felt-needs of the intended beneficiaries. Yet, some issues demand consideration in any theory of participatory development. Does the model of man in development subsist in the personality characteristics of the citizens? To what extent is management a crucial factor? And, how over the years, is the salient implications of these questions integrated into the conceptualization, planning and implementation of programmes for development?

In his "Human side of enterprise" Douglas McGregor attempts to explain the relationship between motivation and mobilisation incentives from government, administrators or change agents and the participants. In his theory X, he enumerated the prescriptive model or the conventional conception with propositions

that will facilitate the harnessing of human energy to organisational requirements. The set of propositions are:

- (1) Management is responsible for organising the elements of productive enterprise - money, materials, equipment, people - in the interest of economic ends.
- (2) With respect to people, this is a process of directing their efforts, motivating them, controlling their actions, modifying their behaviour to fit the needs of the organisation.
- (3) Without this active intervention by management, people will be passive. They must therefore be persuaded, rewarded and controlled. This conventional theory has over the years dictated the approach to planning and development, such that people simply have decisions made by a cult of experts and handed down to them for compliance. It was thought that since the masses are ignorant and lack the requisite knowledge for participation in the planning process that they should be excluded. This assumption has been contested by Hart who said that human behaviour in organisational development is not a consequence of man's inherent nature. Rather, it is a consequence of the nature of organisations which depend on hierarchical structure and positional power relationships for obtaining organisational objectives.⁷⁵ In continuation, Hart provided the justification for maximal citizen participation because "the abilities and consciences of the political elite are

to frail a reed upon which to rest the survival of the entire society".⁷⁶

In realization of the inadequacy of theory X, McGregor introduced the subject of motivation and rigorously applied Maslow's hierarchy of needs to his analysis. To him, the physiological and safety needs being the lower ones are satisfied first; and a satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour. When man's physiological needs are satisfied, and he is no longer afraid of his physical welfare, other higher needs manifest to motivate his behaviour. The highest of these needs are the self-fulfilment needs. These are needs for realizing one's own potentialities, for continued self-development and for being creative in the broadest sense of the terms. The assumptions of theory X inhibit the attainment of this level of man's need and has adverse implications for personality development. This explains the passivity and resistance of the masses to change. Since management by direction and control stultify their absolute development, man inclines to passive acquiescence of programmes and this adversely affects the attainment of objective functions.

Thus, the emergence of 'Theory Y' which tends to proffer a more adequate solution based on functional assumptions about human nature and human motivation. The set of propositions for theory Y are:

- (i) Management is responsible for organizing the element of productive enterprise in the interest of economic ends.
- (ii) people are not by nature passive or resistant to organisational needs. They became so as a result of

experience in organisations.

- (iii) The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour towards organisational goals are all present in people. It is a responsibility of management to make it possible for people to recognise and develop these human characteristics for themselves.
- (iv) The essential task for management is to arrange organisational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organisational objectives.

The propositions for theory Y is akin to the mobilisational model by J.P. Nettle in his "Political mobilisation: A Sociological analysis of methods and concepts"; the tenets of which was summarized by Ollawa, (1978). Other notable studies of the mobilisation hypotheses abound.⁷⁷ The tenets of the mobilisation models implies that government must develop the capacity to effectively mobilise the masses for collective action, and orient their actions towards a defined set of values; support decentralisation measures and generally motivate the masses to participate in development efforts. The contemporary theories recommend that participation is not determined by the personality characteristics of the participants, but more by the incentives and manipulative persuasion of the change agents, and positive influences of the exogenous variables.

Perhaps, Hart succinctly summarises the benefits of citizen participation for the society generally when he contended that;

"...if all citizens participate in policy decisions, the resultant policy (and the regime from which it issues) will be more legitimate in the minds of the citizens and most of the problems of compliance to government policy will disappear in a participatory system."

This framework have to a large extent unravelled the inner meanings, the salient questions to seek answers to and the ramifications, delineating the goals and obstacles to its operationalization. It reveals that any theory of participatory development must be premised in a multi-disciplinary, multi-dimensional and multi-relational setting.

1.8 STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

1. The rural poor are insufficiently involved in the rural development process because adequate institutional frameworks suitable for their mobilisation are lacking.
2. Local organisations more than the government - instituted organisations will make for more effective mobilisation for participation in rural development programmes.
3. The citizens level of interest in local affairs and the sense of community satisfaction better explains participatory orientations than personality variables.

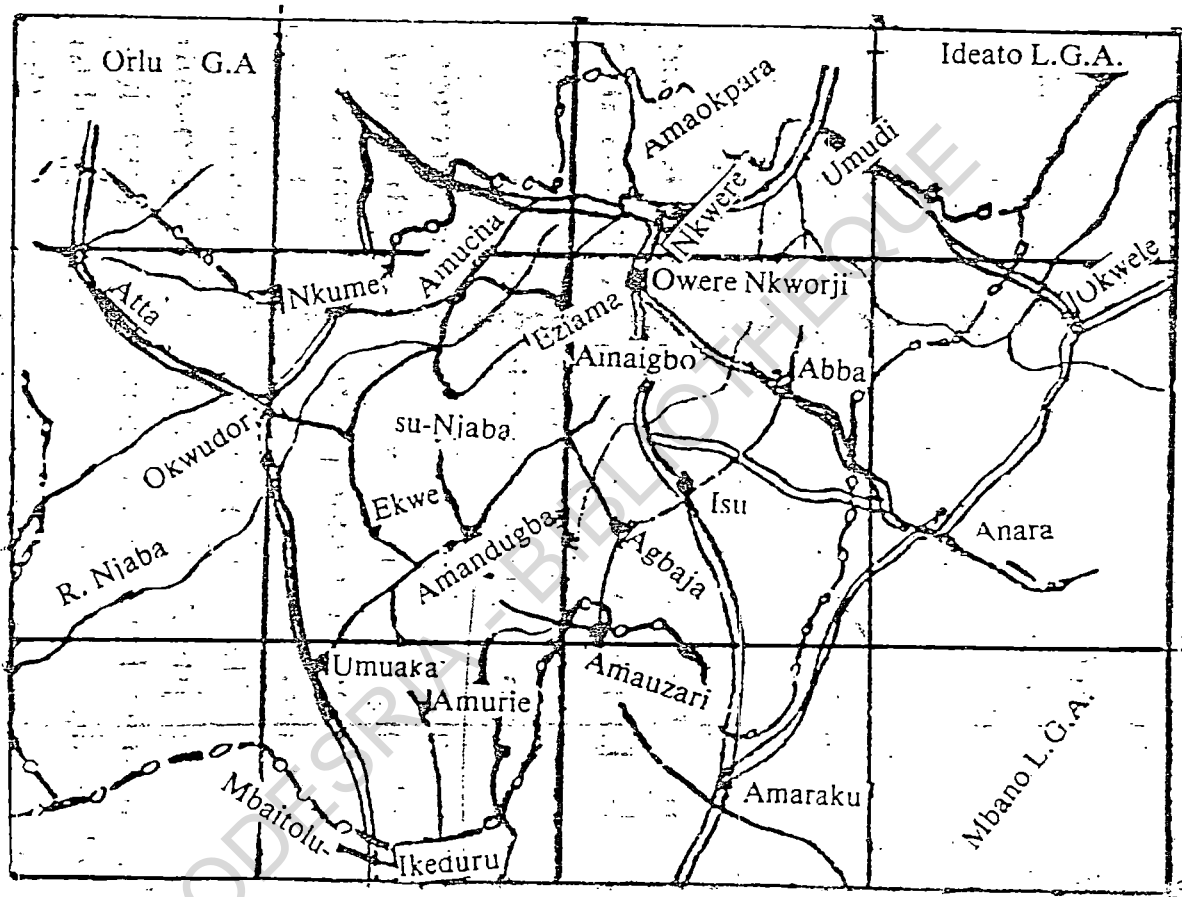
1.9 METHODOLOGY


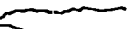

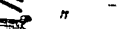
The data analysed in this study were obtained through a questionnaire distributed in the study area - Nkwerre/Isu Local Government Area of Imo State. There are twenty-one (21) autonomous communities in the Local Government Area. These communities with number of villages comprised in them are listed:

1. Amaokpara	6	12. Unudi	10
2. Nkwerre	20	13. Umuwala	9
3. Owerre-Nkwoji	10	14. AgbaJah	8
4. Ezianya-Obaire	14	15. Nkume	4
5. Isu	27	16. Umuozu	4
6. Amucha	14	17. Abba	4
7. Isunjaba	30	18. Amurie Omanze	8
8. Okwudor	8	19. Ekwe	6
9. Umuaka	10	20. Atta	5
10. Amandugba	12	21. Umundugba	4
11. Amaigbo	36		

Figure 1.3 shows the topographical position of these communities in the local government area.

In a preliminary survey, it was revealed that there are presently sixty-four (64) on-going self-help community development projects (as at July 1989). These projects range from health institutions, civic centres, market projects, Road/Bridges and Culverts, water scheme, cottage industries, electricity, school and communal scholarship. The sixty-four projects are spread out among the twenty-one communities (see Figure 1.4). In addition, there are eighteen state and/or Federal Government



L.G.A. Boundary: 
 River: 
 M.O.W.:  Roads.
 L.G.A.: 
 Scale: 1:85000

**MAP OF NKWERRE-ISU
LOCAL GOVT. AREA.**

Retraced from Community Development Office.

sponsored projects in the Local Government Area; ranging from erosion control scheme, water boreholes, electricity, access roads, schools, health and industrial concerns.

Agricultural activities are the main economic activity, although primarily at the subsistence level. This is so because the participating labour force spend much of their time in non-farm economic activities which are additional sources of income. Petty trading activities dominate resulting in the prevalence of transitory rural dwellers or marginalised individuals who shuttle between the city and the village, but who are still resident in the rural areas.

Time and resource constraints were dominant limitations to this study. As a result, in the distribution of the research questionnaire, only the first eleven listed communities were covered. The choice of area was determined by the size and number of villages in an autonomous community and in the distance from my base of operation. The sample universe was nonetheless considered representative. Furthermore, efforts were made to cover the interest of all classes of people, especially those who had no education. For this group of people, questionnaire was administered like a structured interview-schedule with the same questions and options.

More than four hundred questionnaires were distributed. Only two hundred and ninety-six were returned. However, some were discarded because of insufficient information or failure to answer more than half of the questions.

FIGURE 1.4

SELF-HELP COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS, 1988/89

Number of on-going projects

64

Expenditure up to date of on-going projects

21,706,501.00

Number of participating autonomous communities

21

Expenditure for the year, 1988

901,500.00

Number of completed projects

11

Total value of completed projects

3,648,680.00

Estimated cost of on-going projects.

49,876,000

Number of newly initiated projects

5

SUMMARY OF PROJECTS

Health Institutions	-	14
Civic Centres	-	20
Market projects	-	3
Road/Bridges/Culverts	-	5
Water Scheme	-	4
Cottage Industries	-	1
Electricity Projects	-	5
School projects	-	12
Communal Farm Projects	-	NIL
Communal Scholarship.	-	NIL

SOURCE: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT OFFICE, NKWERRE L.G.A. IMO STATE.

1.10 RESEARCH DESIGN

Citizen participation is the dependent variable in this study. A number of studies have shown that elements of participation or participant citizenship⁷⁹, range from voting, reading newspapers and listening to radio/television, belonging to organisations. These elements have been divided into gladiator roles, transitional and passive roles.⁸⁰ Consequently in the construction of the questionnaire the dependent variable was operationalised using questions 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 20, 24. (see appendix I). These items constitute various ways in which persons can become informed or involved in the mechanics of decision making for development.

The independent variables are personality variables, socio-economic status, organisational involvement, sense of community satisfaction, measures of personal efficacy and media exposure. An index of socio-economic status was designed by combining the variables of educational attainment and income level. This is in consonant with results by Ladewig and McCann that educational attainment and income are positive indicators of one's social and economic ability to influence and control outcomes affecting his circumstance.⁸¹ These were also found to be directly and significantly correlated with one's level of community satisfaction. Respondents were required to indicate the level of education attained. Income level was determined by asking the yearly income of the respondent, choosing from among seven categories ranging from below ₦4,000.00 to above ₦20,000.00.

Organisational involvement index was constructed by asking whether and how respondents belonged to any local organisation in his area, leadership position held and extent of meeting/ congress attendance. The sense of community satisfaction variable was operationalized by asking respondents "How satisfied are you with the quality of life in your community" and whether they "feel 'at home' in this community". (items 21 and 22).

The media exposure variables is used to provide an indication of an individuals access to information on the world around him. It is believed that the more exposed one becomes to various sources of information, the more his cognitive ability develops and the more knowledge the individual would have in developing his effectiveness to control and contribute to development issues. Thus, the media exposure of the individual was measured using questions 12 and 13; while the sense of personal efficacy was measured with question 25 where the respondent was asked whether there are enough opportunities in his area for "people like you" to take part in decision making for development.

A number of questions in the questionnaire was aimed at eliciting information concerning peoples feelings and attitudes towards the strategy of citizen participation and an evaluation of existing procedures, people were asked to indicate what they considered the most effective way of mobilizing people for rural development; whether it makes any difference whether or not people participate.

Presently, in the study area, various projects are taking place, costing millions and thousands of Naira. Respondents were required to indicate which of the projects are taking place in their areas and method of sponsorship - whether government sponsored, community self-help or Joint sponsorship. The extent and dimensions of existing participatory measures were tested by requesting if some sort of survey or opinion poll was conducted in the community before choice of project was made, and if project is community self-help, whether the decision to undertake the project was mere executive discretion or an executive discretion or an expression of general will of the congress.

The answered questionnaire was sent for computer analysis, measuring the correlation coefficients and analysis of variance. The scales were subjected to reliability tests. The group and total means, standard deviations and 'Z' test levels of significance with regard to differences between the means were also computed. Cross tabulations, chi-square calculations and test of hypotheses were made using F - distributions.

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CHAPTER TWO

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT:
SOME LESSONS FOR NIGERIA

There is demonstrated consensus on the saliency of the principle of citizen participation in rural development planning. However, the incessant disappointment experienced by many countries in its pursuit has resulted in mass discontent warranting more research in to reasons for the failure - prone syndrome. Seldom were the rural masses involved in the design and management of development programmes, nor were levels of decision-making adequately decentralized to lower levels to enhance the collation and integration of local wishes and aspirations and circumstances into the national policy framework.

It is for this lapse that Goldsmith showed that:

"while the participatory model of development has obvious moral and theoretical appeal, the arguments in favour of more participation rarely proceed further, for there are relatively few instances where participatory development has been seriously attempted and thus scanty evidence concerning either its proper role or the means by which it can be optimised."¹

However it may seem, many countries have attempted, impressively too, to operationalize this concept. The literature and case study reports on these are legion. Previous research has attempted to unravel reasons for the lag in effective operationalization. Paul Harrison in his "Third world Tommorrow" enumerated empirical attempts, approaches and lessons. His examples range from the Chinese model of primary Health Care, the

Barefoot doctors of Bangladesh, Education for development as exponented in Columbia, Phillipines and Indonesia. Rondinelli and Ruddle (1977), Rondinelli (1981) and Diane Conyers (1974 & 1986) and many other scholars have contributed immensely to this analogy. The Lilonge projects of Malawi, the "Seamaul Undong" of Korea and the Comilla project in Bangladesh are examples of participatory projects that found repeated reference in comparative studies.

These nations and social contexts approached the strategy from various standpoints, but as Churchman in a comparative analysis averred;

"despite great differences in the context and specific details of the programmes and the resident involvement process, there are similarities in the general trends, as well as in the broad issues that arise. Variability exists within and between countries, but the phenomenon of resident participation seems to have a basic structure that is expressed in different elaborations and emphasis while still retaining its essential core".²

Therefore, the whole essence of this chapter is not only to reveal the constraints under which these programmes were executed, but also will suggest conditions that must be established to make participatory development effective. More importantly as Ollawa states, the comparative studies will draw together "the historical and situational experiences of differing political systems and geographical areas into a coherent theoretical framework",³ and further enhance the evaluation of the potentials of this strategy and concept for prediction and explanation.

Available information has shown that much of what is to be discussed lies within the framework of administrative decentralisation of many nations. These are measures aimed at social engineering and mobilization of local involvement in decision making. It is in the discussion of these that we discern the policy implications and lessons to be learnt of participatory planning for development. Furthermore, the literature reveals the dearth of extensive participatory programmes at national levels. What predominates is the study reports of particular measures to mobilise the citizens towards the attainment of a specific programme which may be at regional, local government level or county councils, after which the citizens relapse into their "culture of silence". To what extent can local involvement in development programmes be instituted on a self-sustaining basis at a relatively national level?

2.1 PARTICIPATION IN PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION:

It has been emphasized that the participation of the rural population in planning and decision making holds the key to authentic rural development. It facilitates the achievement of "goodness of fit" between the needs and skills of the rural dwellers.

The indispensability of this concept have been demonstrated by the planners of New Bombay, India, in the choice of design. In one of the settlements, a "study Action Group" comprising of architects, doctors, Engineers, and Social workers first undertook

an extensive survey of family structure and family budgets of the residents. This enabled them to identify living patterns that would influence design, and income levels which would indicate how much rent people can pay. The draft designs were made, circulated among the intended beneficiaries for their comments and modifications were made in the final draft reflective of the these comments. Then, eight demonstration houses were built for them to visit. Paul Harrison (1980) notes a variant of this approach, the 'site and services' approach in which the authorities provided land, constructed some of the public utilities like water, sewage and access roads, and then allowed the people to build their settlement to suit their lifestyles, pockets and standards.

This contrasts the "planner-knows-all" approach where designs were sketched a priori, decisions as to patterns, made; and the citizens participation amounting to mere acquiescence. In Nigeria, in the Second Republic (1979-83) the regime embarked and executed low cost housing programs. This was intended to help curb urban drift; but in the main, its main purpose was to help in the upliftment of rural housing standards. Today, a greater percentage of these houses are inhabitable by human beings owing to locational deficiencies. They are rather housed by lower primates and/or constitutes hide-outs for hoodlums. In some places where it is possible to instigate other complementary services or economies, they now serve as barracks to some members of the force. The reason

was that the planners neglected the lifestyles, residence patterns and standard of living of the intended beneficiaries. Furthermore, adequate considerations was not given to other complementary activities that will engender economies of scale. Consequently, the layouts lacked effective horizontal and vertical integration with other sectors of the economy.

The problem of lack of adequate citizen involvement in the policy process finds further demonstration in previous government attempts at agricultural development. In the Green Revolution programme (1980), apart from appeals to farmers to go back to farming,⁷ no serious attempt was made by the administration of Shehu Shagari to seek the opinions of peasant farmers as to what their problems and needs were and how best to meet them. There was hardly any serious attempt to establish local participatory units based on the existing traditional social structures for the purpose of involving the peasant farmers in the agricultural development policy process. This elitist inclination have been found to be responsible for programme failures.

In Northeast Thailand, one persistent problem confronting development concerns water. This is a drought-prone region and irrigation and portable water supplies are often inadequate to meet agricultural and domestic needs. "Despite several decades of large scale capital investment in ground and surface water development, many families in these communities are still beyond the feasible technical and economic limits of piped water systems".⁴ In one of the studies, it was identified that "lack

of community participation in systems development, lack of community motivation, difficulties in co-ordinating the actions of the many agencies involved in rural water development and inadequate user participation", were responsible for the failure to maximise the objective functions of other attempts. Thus, in 1981, The TUNGNAM project was embarked upon, premised upon the lapses of past efforts. The project held a series of meetings with interested districts and households delegating to them participation in choice of project design. The project was to help villages/districts to construct water reservoirs with a capacity of 11,000 litres.

The actual process of tank construction was by the villagers themselves with technical assistance provided by TUNGNAM field staff. Local materials like bambo were used, reinforced with cement moulds. The interaction of the operators of the programmes with the families enabled them to device a functional schedule for the repayment of the cost of materials. Results showed that in the first year of programme implementation, 1,000 rain water storage tanks were constructed. By the end of the second year, 5,470 tanks had been completed sparsing eleven districts.⁵

What these goes to show is that citizen participation is the panacea to development problems that seem to have defied honest attempts. In a bid to show the lessons which these studies hold for Nigeria, Hafner concludes that geographic barriers as a constraint to the delivery of rural development activities

has been overcome by a strategy of direct involvement with the target communities; that local skills and initiative are a valuable reservoir often neglected and untapped by more conventional programmes. These examples further show that project beneficiaries are willing to pay for development activities when the benefits are clear and costs reasonably commensurate with benefits.

The Korean example as typified in the "Saemaul Undoung" hold the same lessons for Nigeria.⁶ Revolutions in primary health care delivery as exemplified in the Barefoot doctors of China and Bangladesh are cases in point; and even in human resource development as demonstrated in the choice of educational system in the Philippines and Indonesia. For instance, in an experimental project in the Philippines and Indonesia, children are taken to the fields to learn the techniques of cultivation from farmers, and get practical lessons in woodwork from the village carpenter.⁷ This stresses the need for a much closer linkage between school curriculum and community needs. Education is supposed to help reinforce the replenishment of what Todaro (1977) calls the "real resource needs of a community. In Nigeria, social contexts that are purely agro-based need to have a different school curriculum geared specifically to the predominant economic activity. It is unfortunate to realise that in riverine areas, children neglect fishing and farming as a plausible occupation; and rather than being schooled

in the modern techniques of fishing and farming they pursue western-styled education and subsequently graduate into unemployment. What a dysfunctional educational system.!

2.2 DECENTRALISATION, PARTICIPATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT: ISSUES AND PROCEDURES:

The degree of effective citizen involvement in decision-making for rural development obviously depends on the extent to which the decision making units have been decentralised and powers absolutely devolved to lower levels. A significant number of countries have realised the importance of decentralized planning and administration as a means of encouraging local participation. The Chinese approach is usually mentioned in this vein; while Tanzania, Zambia, Papua New Guinea, Senegal and indeed many developing nations of the world have at certain stages of their development process undergone extensive administrative decentralisation with a view to attaining greater levels of citizen involvement in decision-making for development.

Various procedural and substantive issues emanate from these experiences and constitute veritable lessons for others.

Considering the subjective classification of forms of decentralisation - deconcentration, delegation and devolution, - and the inherent tendency of varied meanings between nations, the comparative analysis more concerns itself with a delineation of functional activities over which authority is devolved, the type

of powers transferred and the explication of other variables that must exist with decentralisation to enhance the maximisation of objective functions.

There is also the need to understand the managerial and political objectives of decentralisation. In the political parlance, it is necessary to know that the issue of participation assumes the sensitive and strategic position in development studies because of its political and ideological undertones. It concerns not only with the distribution of power between different levels in the politico-administrative hierarchy, but also the distribution of power between interest groups at each level.

The Chinese example always finds repeated reference in comparative studies. China is one of the few countries which have really evolved a decentralized planning procedure that extends right down to the rural masses, and is adequately integrated into the national planning framework. The whole country is divided into Twenty-nine (29) administrative units. Each of these units is further sub-divided into smaller units which extend to the level of the "production team" in the rural areas and the "street" in urban areas. In her illustration using the yearly process of agricultural planning, Conyers notes that it makes for a "high degree of genuine grass-roots participation in the Chinese planning system".⁸

The first step is for the levels in the hierarchy to submit to the level immediately above it an estimate of the amount of

produce it expects to produce in the year and what proportion of it will be made available for sale to the state. These estimates eventually reach the higher echellons - provincial and national levels; where they are reconciled with national estimates and targets. The revised estimates are also passed over again through the hierachy, each level setting the targets for the level below it. The details of these targets are worked out by the production units.

The decentralisation programme in Tanzania dates from 1972. The 1972 instrumental decentralisation transferred powers and functions significantly to the regions and districts with a view to improving on local administrative capacity so as to succeed in her "Ujamaa" village programmes. The country is divided into twenty (20) administrative regions, with further sub-divisions into districts and development committees. These development committees, however were mere advisory bodies, "with no power to enforce decisions and only limited financial control".⁹ At the district level, the system of elected local government councils, which had been established before independence was also operational. The regional development committee comprising of civil servants, party officials and representatives of local organisations have powers at the regional level. The district development council, supported by the district development and planning committee feature at the district level. In 1978, a new legislation was enacted to take care of the urban areas. The regional and district development authorities have power to

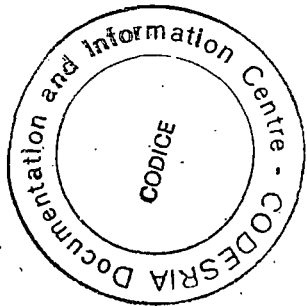
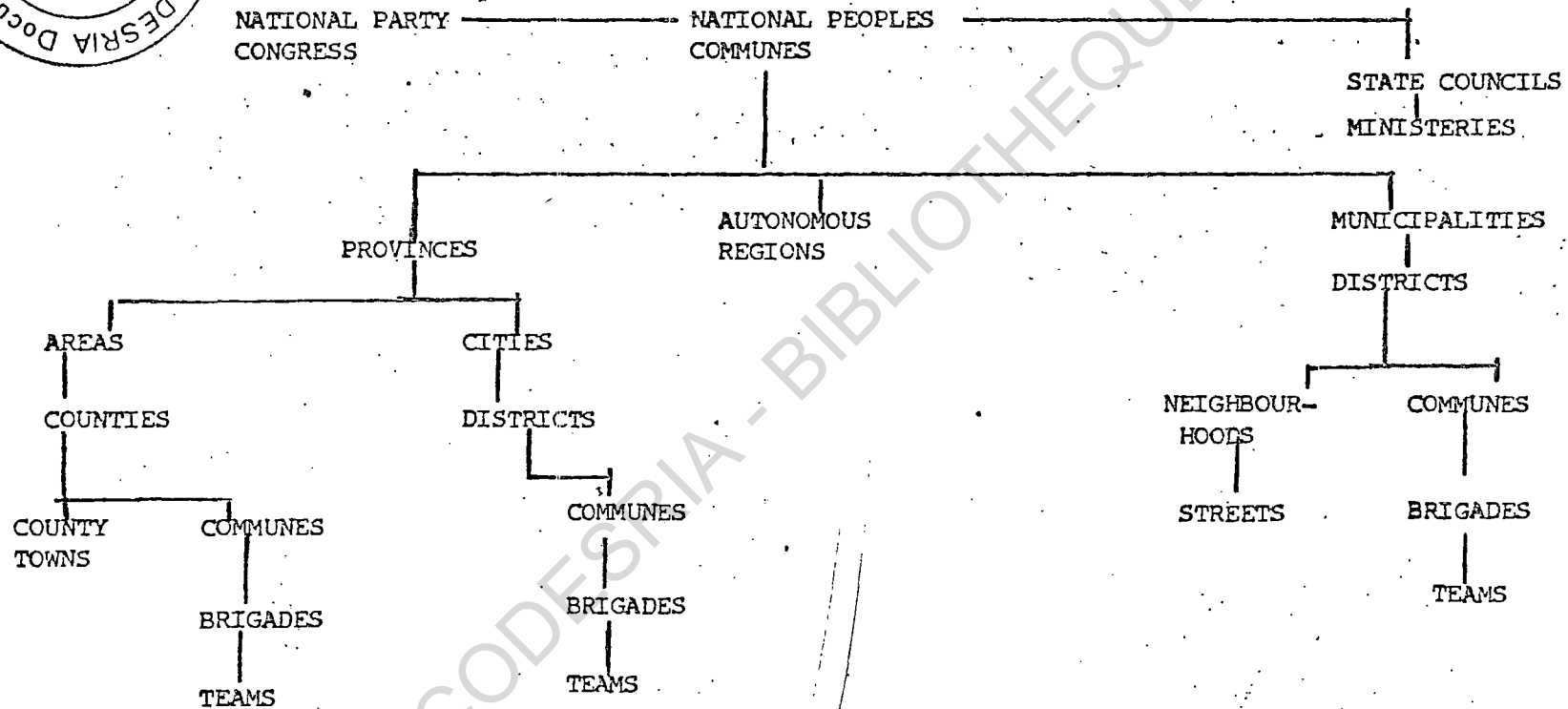


FIGURE 2.1

CHINA'S ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE



SOURCE: DIANA CONYERS, An Introduction to Social Planning in the third world, (NY, John Wiley & Sons, 1982) p.111.

plan and implement development programmes, constrained only by national policy objectives and targets.

The institution of participatory democracy in Zambia is another example. Irrespective of a number of piecemeal reforms towards decentralisation in the pre-independence and earlier post-independence era, the United National Independence party, in her new local government Act, 1980, made further decentralisation. The decentralisation measures and procedures shared in the basic tenets of the Tanzanian approach, but the Zambian example differed in the introduction of the "village productivity and ward development committee", following the enactment of the Registration and development of villages Act, 1971. The functions of the village productivity committees, ward councils and ward committees were explicitly stated, subsisting mainly in "structuring local activities within established channels of communications so that local leadership will not only be in the position to interpret national directives or policies in terms of their applicability to local needs, but also to transmit local interests and aspirations to the national decision making structures".¹⁰

The motives behind the decentralisation programmes in the three countries vary owing to the different ideology and planning framework, yet two aims can be identified:

- (i) the desire to increase local involvement in development plans, and
- (ii) the need for more effective planning and implementation of development at regional or local levels.

The lessons these cases reveal is the need to establish an organisational structure that will facilitate the institution of

a two-way communication process between the local levels and national levels through a hierarchy of intermediate planning levels.

The question, then, is what have been the course of citizen participation in these contexts with extensive decentralisation?

In the Ujamaa Scheme of Tanzania, it was observed that inspite of the fact that local participation was espoused as an important objective, with political education in mass participation as a key element of the strategy, genuine grassroot participation has not evolved.¹¹ Tanzania's Ujamaa villagisation policy for rural transformation was a failure because its conception and implementation was an elitist affair. Its special Rural Development Programme (SRDP) was carried out without meaningful involvement of the local people. Uma lele stresses that the people were neither consulted during programme planning nor informed in advance of programme implementation. In her words, "programmes for villages were prepared, priorities worked out, budgets allocated and personnel deployed by the sectoral ministries in Dar es Salaam... Decisions took an inordinately long time to reach the field personnel and often overlooked local resource endowments and environmental factors. Consequently, Farmers initiative and co-operation were often strangled".⁷²

A similar observation of low level or lack of peasant participation in the policy process is also noted to be the case in South Korea. Kihl points out that in that country "decisions

are rarely subject to bargaining and negotiation among autonomous actors; rather they reflect the will and desire of the leadership in an elaborate chain of command that is based on the explicit differentiation of superior and subordinate rules".¹³ Continuing he notes that in almost all cases policies are shaped by the top political elite and their staff, to the exclusion of the peasants - the intended beneficiaries.

Charlick, (1972) in his analysis of the participatory development strategy in the republic of Niger, observed that in spite of the 10-year time-lag for the programme, little was achieved by way of translating the strategy into a working field policy. "While still officially supporting mass popular participation in development, it has in fact shifted to operational development policies which have entirely different political and economic implications". Continuing, he notes that "the shift has been away from participation as shared influence in decentralized structures, designed both to produce structural change at local level and to develop individual capabilities, to participation as mass involvement without influence in development projects, dictated by technical considerations."¹⁴

In the light of the above catalogue of failures in the attempts to attain an effective participatory strategy, the study is justified or rationalised in the sense of being an attempt at discovering what other variables actually make for effective citizen participation.

Various reasons for failure were however identified from other studies and experiences. As Uma Lele notes from her survey of African cases, even "the most ambitious efforts to foster popular involvement can be thwarted by subtle forms of paternalism."¹⁵ Lack of adequate mutual interaction and communication between development officials and planners and the rural audience is adduced as one of the reasons.

There is demonstrated centrist-attitude which makes officials to scorn participation of rural people in development activities. In the few instances where development officials and rural people meet, the "top bottom" syndrome dominates with few questions permitted and little evidence of willingness to modify approved plans to suit local conditions.¹⁶ In the Sudan, Howell observes that the local government staff at district and local levels distrust the ability and probity of local councillors and consequently instructions are cynically administered.¹⁷ In Kenya, this distrust manifests and is reinforced by poor communication resulting in lack of knowledge about rural peoples objectives and motivations. In few instances where participation was achieved local leaders and community representatives were directly involved in major project activities from an early stage. Rondinelli and Ruddle, (1977) contend that the success of projects such as the Lilonge project in Malawi and the Comilla project in Bangladesh was attributed to government officials "belief in the value of rural life, the

basic wisdom of local farmers concerning agricultural processes and cultural traditions and the ability to improve rural conditions through solutions of problems at local level".¹⁸

It was also observed that legal instruments establishing the decentralised structures were almost always vague about the extent and forms of decentralisation to be established, the procedures for participation and roles of and relationship of officials at various levels of administration. This results in dysfunctional overlap of functions and possible frustration in maximising objective functions of programmes and/ or plans.

Finally, financial autonomy is one of the most important aspects of decentralisation. Unfortunately, authority is commonly delegated to lower levels without adequate resources to perform new roles. Illustrating on the importance of this Diana Conyers, (1986) points out the levels of power that needs be decentralized for maximum results. These are policy making, financial powers and powers over personnel matters. These are interrelated, and decentralisation of some without others will frustrate the plans.¹⁹ Comparative studies shows instances in less developed countries where local government and local planning authorities are ineffectual because they have powers to formulate policies or plans but do not have control over the financial and manpower resources needed to put these plans into effect.²⁰ What these goes to show is that participation is not completely dependent on the degree of decentralisation. Certain other variables within the realm of psychology, sociology, economic and religious spheres need to complement decentralised

structures, and there is the need to minimize the size of decentralised units to ward level and production units to facilitate and guarantee participation of the lower members of the society.

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CHAPTER TWO

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CHAPTER THREE

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION FOR DEVELOPMENT IN NKWERRE/ISU LOCAL GOVERNMENT
AREA: A PRELIMINARY SURVEY

Having reviewed the theoretical and conceptual underpinings, one will like to relate the established indices of participation to the context under study. What is the existing state of the art: and what factors influence the relevant variables? To be able to provide answers to this questions, this chapter is subdivided into the following sections:

- 3.1 The State of the art
- 3.2 Conditions for Participation
- 3.3 Assertions about participation.

3.1 THE STATE OF THE ART

The question relating to rural peoples participation in rural development activities requires an understanding of whether the indigenes are aware that such activities did in fact exist. Respondents were asked questions relating to the existence of rural projects in their respective communities; sponsorship to such projects and whether any form of data collection exercise preceded the adoption of which project to implement; and if so, whether they were directly involved. It was further required of them to state whether those projects actually reflect the felt needs of the community.

In line with results of previous researches, it was found that a number of development projects existed in many rural

communities in the local government area. Most of these projects were self-help communal efforts, some were sponsored by the government as part of efforts to modernise the rural communities; while an appreciable number of these projects start as self-help development projects with remarkable government subvention.

These projects include Hospital/medical centres, market projects, access roads, bridges/culverts, water supply scheme, rural electrification, school project and human capital development projects like scholarship programmes for their sons in institutions of higher learning. Table 3.1 shows the distribution of respondents classification of project sponsorship. The table indicates that most development projects were through self-help, 23 per cent were jointly sponsored, while 14 per cent accounts for governments (State and Federal) projects in the area.

TABLE 3.1

CLASSIFICATION OF PROJECT SPONSORSHIP		
SPONSORSHIP	RESPONDENTS (N = 265)	
	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
GOVERNMENT	36	14
COMMUNITY SELF-HELP	204	77
JOINT	62	23.4

NB: Each respondent was free to tick more than one project and/or sponsors where applicable and this accounted for the fact that the total responses were more than 265 (total number of respondents) and percentages totalled more than 100.

It was found that before the choice of project, especially government or jointly sponsored projects, opinion polls or sample surveys were never conducted to ensure that projects conform with the felt-needs of the intended beneficiaries. Fifty-eight per cent of the respondents agree with this, while Forty-two per cent contend that the opinion of the citizens were sought before choice of projects. However, in answer to whether anybody ever sought their opinion, 72 per cent had never been consulted personally, while only 28 per cent had had such transitional participative roles. This shows that, in fact, rural people are not consulted in development planning despite the abundance of persons endowed with all the attributes for effective participation.

It was found that local organisations which engineer and pilot communal efforts are more democratic. Seventy one per cent of the respondents are of the view that decisions or choice of projects are usually the collective expressions as against executive discretion. As a result, these self-help programmes almost always reflect the felt-needs of the community. Only 22 per cent of the respondents deny the fact that such collective decisions does reflect felt needs, while 78 per cent answered in the affirmative.

Thus, the missing imperative is the absence of a purposive programme of mobilization and deliberate sincerity of the political will to integrate the wishes and contributions of the rural people. This makes it necessary to identify the variables that ought to exist for effective participation

and to know the extent to which these necessary conditions are available in Nkwere/Isu Local Government Area of Imo State.

3.2. CONDITIONS FOR PARTICIPATION:

The participation of an individual in development programs is influenced by many variables among which personality characteristics are very important. These characteristics are sex, age, educational and income level; and these variables together determine the persons socio-economic status.

The issue is to determine how far these personal characteristics cohere as a positive indication of participatory orientation. Earlier researches have established education and income level, as positive indicators of one's (social and economic) ability to influence and control outcomes affecting one's circumstance. Table 3.2 is a summary of the personal characteristics of the respondents.

TABLE 3.2

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	RESPONDENT N = 265	
	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
SEX: Male	163	61.51
	102	38.49
AGE BRACKET:		
(a) Below 21 years	10	3.77
(b) 21-30 years	83	31.32
(c) 31-40 years	100	37.74
(d) 41-50 years	47	17.74
(e) Over 50 years	25	9.43
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL:		
(i) No education	22	8.30
(ii) Primary School only	58	21.89
(iii) Secondary School only	69	26.04
(iv) Higher education	117	44.15
INCOME LEVEL:		
(a) Below N4,000.00 pa.	56	21.13
(b) Between N4,000-8,000	116	43.77
(c) " 8,000-12,000	61	23.02
(d) " 12,000-16,000	14	5.28
(e) " 16,000-20,000	16	6.04
(f) above N20,000.00	3	1.13

The table shows that the age distribution is disproportionately composed of middle aged rural persons. In the occupational specification, civil servants especially teachers and local government employers dominated. Others are typists, traders and farmers hence justifying the prevalence of people

who earn between ₦4,000 and ₦8,000 per annum. Considering also the subsistence level of most rural dwellers, it shows the data are realistic.

The tenets of participation include voting in an election, reading newspapers, listening to radio and television and commentaries, and organisational membership. These constitutes various ways in which a person can become informed or involved in the mechanics of decision making for rural development. Rogers, et al, (1980), using the mobilisation hypothesis shows that organisational involvement, sense of personal efficacy and media exposure stimulate persons to become active participants.¹ How are these variables empirically relevant and what are its implications?

(i) ORGANISATIONAL INVOLVEMENT:

There is a demonstrated degree of organisational involvement among the citizens of Nkwere. This is shown by the fact that fifty -six per cent of the respondents responded to the Federal Government clarion call for rural people to belong to development committees in their communities and wards. This was intended by the government as a way of generating information for planning purposes. However, a sizable percentage - 44 per cent did not heed this call. Furthermore, 72 per cent of the respondents are active members of rural organisations, with only 28 per cent non-members. This is significantly buttressed by the fact that 54 per cent have held leadership positions. In answer to the question on meeting attendance as a

measure of their active involvement, 69 per cent have attended 50% of the meetings of their organisations for the year.

What these go to show is a demonstrated high degree of organisational involvement in the area and points to the abundance of politically active individuals who can be mobilized for participation in development programmes. This may have accounted for the high turnout in the 1987 Local Government Elections, where 72 per cent of the respondents voted.

(ii) MEDIA EXPOSURE:

The place of media exposure as an important pre-condition for participatory orientation is not in question. Results of the interview schedule show that 15 per cent of the respondents listen to radio and television very regularly. About 52 per cent listen regularly, while 30 per cent are irregular listeners. Only 3 per cent never listened to radio and Television commentaries.

About 20 per cent of the respondents read newspapers everyday, 49 per cent read few times a week, 18 per cent are irregular readers, while 11 per cent never read newspapers. The high incidence of people who read few times a week may be explained by the irregular supply of national dailies to rural areas, and the cost constraint especially now that newspapers are very costly.

It is, however, important to note that the respondents in rural areas appear to rely more heavily on informal face-to-face

communication processes as their primary source of information, thus apparently reflecting the developmental relationship between the rural and urban areas. This observation emanates from answers to questions which required respondents to state what they considered most effective means for mobilisation for rural development. (See questions 14 and 26 in Appendix I). Respondents were required to choose from among the following options: Radio, Television, Newspapers and Local organisations. About 33 per cent chose radio, 16 per cent said television, 4 per cent chose newspapers, while 48 per cent prefer local organisations.

In the same vein, in answer to this question - "Through what means do you think the government can effectively mobilise rural people for development?" About 19 per cent said through government agents or MAMSER representative, 14 per cent considered councillors and representatives, while 67 per cent consider direct contact through rural organisations as the most effective instrument.

(iii) SENSE OF PERSONAL EFFICACY, SATISFACTION AND LEVEL OF INTEREST:

Efficacy is defined as the feeling that one's own participation in community issues has some effect on the outcome of collective decisions or outcome of public policy. It is the "felt potential of an individual mobilizing to attempt to influence policy".² Those rural dwellers who feel a sense of efficacy are more likely to be active participants in decision-making for development. Researchers have also identified the

salience of this variable in encouraging citizen participation. In this study, similar concept of community efficacy is examined relative to the citizens awareness of the existence of opportunities for participation.

Respondents were asked if they thought opportunities existed in their communities for people of the same socio-economic status with them to take part in decision making. About 23 per cent admitted that enough opportunities existed, 61 per cent admitted some levels of opportunity, while 16 per cent deny the presence of any niche for their involvement.

Another important condition for citizen participation is the individuals sense of community satisfaction. Various studies have demonstrated and hypothesized the positive correlation between participation and community satisfaction.³ In Ollawa's contribution, he notes that satisfaction is a critical ingredient to the structuring of any kind of disposition to participate. Put differently, the argument is that generally people tend to be more or less actively involved if they are satisfied with the system and its distributive outputs. Dis-satisfaction, Ollawa notes, has negative implications for participation in that generally people, who experience disappointment and a strong sense of frustration tend invariably to be both disaffected and alienated.⁴

However, Rojek, et al (1975) has shown that the use of only objective variables to measure social conditions of human existence appear inadequate. Applying the same argument to

Korea, Whang (1980) found the necessity to recognise the impacts of dummy variables in community satisfaction analysis. He found that in some communities, people were demonstrably dissatisfied with the quality of life in their communities, yet exhibits a high degree of involvement since "there is no place like home". To some, the inter-village competition instigated their avid involvement.

In answer to questions 21 and 22, the degree of satisfaction or otherwise by indigenes of Nkwere Local Government Area is appraised. In answer to question 21 which states "How satisfied are you with the quality of life in your community?", about 5 per cent are very satisfied, 31 per cent are satisfied, 7 per cent are undecided, 44 per cent are dissatisfied and 13 per cent are very dissatisfied. Responses to question 22 reveals that 36 per cent "feel at home" in their community, 16 per cent feel no contentment, while 48 per cent does not quite feel at home. The implication of this finding is that, following the argument by Rojek et al (1975) and Whang (1980), the greater percentage of people who are dissatisfied and those who are not quite content with their village settings will seem to be prepared to do anything within limits of their means and within limits of the opportunities provided to improve on the standard of life in their communities.

The foregoing analysis reveals the abundance of citizens who are endowed with the requisite pre-conditions for participation: satisfactory organisational involvement, adequate exposure to information, active involvement in their organisations as 54 per cent

have held "gladiator" roles in their organisations, 69 per cent have actively attended a greater percentage of their organisations meetings for the year. This positive attitude must have accounted for the high level of interest in community or Local Government affairs or in the high turn out in the 1987 local government elections; and further shows that any development strategy that aims at mobilising the citizens for participation have a high tendency of followership. This is in line with the propositions of McGregors' theory Y as reviewed and analysed in the theoretical framework.

3.3 ASSERTIONS ABOUT PARTICIPATION

In the review of literature and conceptual clarification, our attention was drawn to the seemingly general consensus by many people on the desirability of rural participation in development programmes. In answer to question 27 of the research questionnaire, 34 per cent of the respondents are of the opinion that it makes a great deal of difference if local people take part in making decisions for development; 40 per cent thinks that it makes some difference, while 26 per cent think otherwise. Cumulatively, it shows that 74 per cent think highly of local involvement in development planning.

Table 3.3 summarizes respondents reactions to questions in section B of the questionnaire which sort to test peoples attitude to these assertions.

Let "strongly agree" and 'agree' be known as simply "agree", while 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' be simply disagree, so

that the cumulative frequencies of the responses be used in the analysis. It means that as high as 83 per cent of the respondents agree that rural people know and understand their problems and are in a better position to say what should be done for them. As high as 75 per cent favour participation since it is the lives of rural people which will be affected by the results and effects of these programs. Almost as high as 70 per cent agree that the government has not sincerely provided measures to enable rural people to take part in making development decisions.

Based on these responses, there is considerable support that rural people have potentials to take initiative and offer help and co-operation in rural development activities; but possibly because of the ineffectiveness of the government decentralisation measures to devolve power adequately to lower levels, this have not been actualised.

What this means for development administration is that efforts should be made to educate people on government efforts so as to mobilise their support and involvement. It also implies that deliberate measures be taken to integrate the wishes and aspirations of rural dwellers in development planning and implementation, since, as Whyte (1981) showed one of the important aspects of any new research and development model built upon the fruits of agricultural and social science research was that "small farmers must actively participate in the research and extension activities carried out in their area, helping to identify problems and set criteria as well as judge results. They can no longer be considered the passive recipients of material and information handed down to them by professionals".⁵

TABLE 3.3

ASSERTIONS ABOUT PARTICIPATION

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1. Rural people know and understand their problems and are in a better position to say what should be done for them.	115 (43.4)	105 (39.6)	30 (11.3)	13 (4.9)	2 (0.8)
2. Since it is the lives of rural people which will be affected, they should be involved in planning and implementation.	80 (30.2)	118 (44.8)	33 (12.5)	25 (9.4)	(3.4)
3. Rural people are mostly not educated, it is not possible for them to take part effectively in planning and implementing rural development programmes.	6 (2.3)	40 (15.1)	27 (10.2)	100 (37.7)	92 (34.7)
4. In general, rural people lack the ability to contribute effectively in planning development programmes.	4 (1.5)	33 (12.5)	48 (18.1)	98 (37.0)	82 (30.9)
5. It is no use asking for their opinion in planning development programmes.	5 (1.9)	25 (9.4)	29 (10.9)	85 (32.1)	121 (45.1)
6. Local organisations like town unions, village meetings can better mobilise people to participate than representatives.	49 (18.5)	148 (55.8)	39 (14.7)	8 (3.0)	21 (7.9)
7. Local organisations are usually for the rich ones and exclude the poor members from taking part in decision making.	14 (5.3)	47 (17.7)	67 (25.3)	63 (23.8)	74 (27.9)
8. The government has not sincerely provided measures to enable rural peoples to take part in making development decisions.	35 (13.2)	149 (56.3)	20 (7.5)	28 (10.6)	33 (12.5)

A sizeable proportion of the respondents did not consider lack of education a sufficient hindrance to participation. About 73 per cent of the respondents believe that although rural people are mostly not educated, it is possible for them to take part effectively in planning and implementing rural development programmes. In the same vein, 68 per cent does not agree that rural people lack the ability to contribute effectively, while 77 per cent debunks the assertion that it is no use asking for the opinion of rural people in the planning of development programmes.

While there can be no justification to deliberately ignore the contributions of rural people in development planning, illiteracy is definitely a serious constraint. Lack of ability to read and write will make rural people unable to comprehend adequately the technicalities of development planning. Without mass literacy, it is unrealistic to expect effective involvement of rural people; thus any mobilization apparatus that is based on the use of mass media - newspapers, seminars, pamphlets, and others, would be ineffective because those who cannot read and write may not be able to use these services adequately.

The policy implication of this finding is the need to establish an informal educational system that will deal closely with the rural people in their socio-economic settings and inculcate the requisite techniques of appraisal. The use of local organisations have been advocated as an instrument for education and mobilization.⁶ According to Lowdermilk and Laitos, (1981) "if learning and local initiative are important, programs must be tailored to local conditions. Outside planners simply cannot anticipate and evaluate adequately without the participation of the

people directly involved."⁷ In addition, a recent Field study of 36 rural development projects in Africa and Latin America found that 49 per cent of the variation in overall project success was explained by effective and direct involvement of the rural dwellers.

In the light of the results from the data collected, one can see that the requisite variables necessary for effective citizen participation for development in Nkwere/Isu Local Government Area of Imo State are available. Our next concern is to test the extent to which these responses validate our hypotheses and at what level of significance.

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CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS: RESULTS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The preceding preliminary survey reveals that despite the existence of participatory orientations in the study area, a greater percentage of the rural dwellers do not participate in the planning process. Evidence shows that no survey or opinion poll precedes the choice of any programme. This demonstrates the absence of any purposive programme of mobilisation for participation in rural development programmes. To be able to appraise the theoretical significance of the assertions and facilitate easy ^{application} significance of the statistical tests, we divide this chapter into two:

- 4.1 Estimating validity and reliability of the scales.
- 4.2 Test of Hypotheses.

4.1 ESTIMATING VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE SCALES

The relevant variables were operationalised using certain questions in the questionnaire, and these were converted into scales. We have the participation scale, level of interest, community satisfaction and organisational involvement scales.

The validity of a scale is the property that ensures that questions and information generated does actually measure what they are supposed to measure. There are usually three types of validity that can be distinguished. These are content, empirical and construct validity.

In content validity, two types can be recognised. The face and sampling validity. Face validity rests on the subjective evaluation of the researcher. This is because a researcher first

relies on his own skill and judgement before applying other validity tests. In addition, it need be stated that some of the items have found use in other researches, especially Rogers, et al (1975), Alford and Scoble (1969), Nie, et al (1969), and Van Loon (1970). For instance, Van Loon applied the level of interest scale in his study of political participation in Canada; while Nie, et al (1969) used the same type of scale, but called it "political attentiveness". However, one major problem of content validity is the absence of replicable rules for evaluating its effectiveness.

This research is guided by a set of theoretical perspectives and assumptions. Construct validity thus relates to the extent to which the instruments are tied to the concepts and theoretical assumptions that are employed. The instruments are valid to the extent that the analytical derivatives are related to the mobilization hypothesis.

The reliability coefficient of the scales were calculated using computer. The following coefficients was realised: the level of community satisfaction 0.67, organisational involvement 0.48, level of interest 0.58 and participation index 0.57. This showed that the scales were reliable. According to Nachimias and Nachimias (1976), a reliability coefficient of 0.50 shows that the predictive validity of the instruments have been established¹; while Inkeles and Smith describes such as been "moderately reliable."² The computer used the cronbach-Alpha Formula in computing the reliability coefficients.³

4.2 TEST OF HYPOTHESES

The major assumption in this study is that government and change agents should actively motivate and mobilise the rural citizens for development programs. Data has shown that the potentials for human development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour towards organisational goals are all present in the rural dwellers. It is therefore the responsibility of government and development planners to recognise and develop these human characteristics for authentic rural development. There is general consensus that the masses are not adequately involved in the decision making processes. To test the validity and empirical import of this assertion, we posit this hypothesis.

Hypothesis I:

H₀: The rural citizens are adequately involved in the rural development decision making process.

H₁: The rural poor are insufficiently involved in the rural development decision making processes.

To be able to test the null hypothesis of sufficient involvement of rural dwellers in the planning and implementation of rural development planning, the Pearson correlation coefficient between participation and citizens level of interest in local affairs was calculated. Using questions 23 and 24 to measure the degree of respondents interest in local affairs and the participation scale

as the dependent variable, we obtained 0.586 and 0.729 as the correlation coefficient and it shows a strong relationship between the level of interest and citizen participation.

Using section B (items 1-5) of the questionnaire, we calculated the Chi-square to test the H_0 . Our obtained sample result is 683.75 which is far greater than the Chi-square tabulated of 26.3 (d.f 16) at 0.05 level of significance. (See appendix II) Even at higher levels of significance of 0.01, for example ($X^2 = 32.0$), it is still statistically significant, and calls for the rejection of the null hypothesis. We therefore state the alternative hypothesis that the rural poor are insufficiently involved in the planning and implementation of rural development programmes. Hence, Almond and Verba observe that if there is a revolution going on in the world, it is a revolution of a new world culture of participation.⁴

HYPOTHESIS II

H_0 : Local organisations will make for more effective mobilisation for participation than government instituted organisations and representatives.

H_1 : Government instituted organisations and representatives are more effective instruments of mobilisation for participation in rural development programmes.

Various attempts have been made in the pursuit of authentic rural development. One of the approaches by the government had been the institution of ad hoc committee or organisations.

Thousands of millions of Naira have been expended with less than commensurate results.

In answer to questions 14 and 26, it was discovered that 67 per cent of the respondents consider direct contact through organisations the more effective instrument of mobilisation than government agents, councillors or representatives. One reason for this support may be in recognition of the fact that in the rural areas there are already existing power relations and systems of authority which the people recognise and obey without coercion or manipulation; as against situations where councillors or representatives simply manipulate the electorate to win their votes, thus relegating participation to mere voting activity.

To further discover their allegiance, respondents were asked: "suppose your local government chairman and the president of your town union disagree about what should be done about some public issue, which leader would you feel greater moral obligation to obey" (Question 29). Data show that 80 per cent of the citizens will support their town leader more than the local government chairman.

To test our null hypothesis, we conducted an analysis of variance using items 6, 7, 8 of section B of the questionnaire. An insignificant F-ratio was obtained ($3.10 < 3.48$). Then, we accept the null hypothesis. (See appendix III). As a measure of the strength of the relationship between the variables - mobilisation for participation and local organisations - in addition to the level of significance, the epsilon (ϵ) was

calculated and found to be 0.6, this further made us conclude that there is a strong relationship between local organisations and mobilisation of rural citizens to participate in the decision making process.

Consequently, following the demonstrated effectiveness of rural organisations in initiating and executing various self-help communal projects, one can confidently conclude and recommend that local organisations is a more effective instrument of mobilisation than government instituted ad hoc organisations. The problem for further research is to identify what functional procedure to employ in the use of local organisations towards the maximisation of the objective functions of rural development programs.

Having identified citizen participation as a necessary pre-requisite for any successful development strategy, the next issue is to see the extent to which certain personality characteristics of the individual ^{ch}cohere with participatory inclinations. The demographic characteristics of the citizen include sex, age, educational level and income level. These variables individually and collectively relate to the persons socio-economic status, sense of personal efficacy, and relatively determine the content and context of a persons level of interest and community satisfaction.

TABLE 4.2
CORRELATION MATRIX

	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.00				
2	-0.1818	1.00			
3	-0.1991	-0.2169	1.00		
4	-0.3201	0.3542	0.1262	1.00	
5	0.1367	-0.3549	0.5352	0.5170	

- (1) Sex
- (2) Age
- (3) Educational level
- (4) Income level
- (5) Participation scale.

The correlation matrix shows the extent of relationship between the personality characteristics and the participation scale. There is a weak but positive relationship between sex and participation; there is a significant but negative correlation with age; income and educational level are positively and significantly related with participation. The remarkable relationship between income and age need also be noted. A negative correlation, however, does not imply no relationship; it shows negative relationship and may be accounted for by data fluctuations.

It is commonly believed that certain activities are explained along sex lines. This means that in deducing a strategy for mobilizing citizens for effective participation in development

programmes, it is necessary to identify issue areas where sex plays a dominant role in determining the character of such activity.

Other variables like a persons sense of personal efficacy, level of interest also influence a persons inclination to participate. Some of these variables are either direct correlations to the personality characteristics or are themselves products but are capable of inflicting independent effects on one's disposition. Our intention, therefore, is to identify which of these variables better explains participatory orientations. We thus hypothesize:

HYPOTHESIS III

H₀: Participatory orientation is better explained along sex lines.

H₁: Sex (personality characteristics) does not better explain participatory orientations.

The null hypothesis states that sex (personality characteristic) better explains citizen participation than level of interest and community satisfaction. This seeks to find out if males and females differ in their attitude towards some participatory activities. Is there any significant sex-role distinction between the participatory orientations of ruralites towards development issues?

To answer the question, we obtained the mean, standard deviations, the mean differences and standard error as concerns certain participatory activities. The essence is to see whether the obtained mean differences in view of its corresponding standard error is large enough to reject the null hypothesis. Then, the

critical region or zone of rejection was obtained by dividing the difference between the sample means by its standard error. The \bar{z} - distribution is used considering the sample population of 265; and the level of significance is 0.05. ($\bar{z} \pm 1.96$) (See appendix IV)

$$z = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sigma_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}}$$

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{N_2}}$$

where \bar{X}_1 = mean of group I (males)

\bar{X}_2 = mean of group 2 (females)

σ_1 and σ_2 = standard deviations of the means of the groups.

$\sigma_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}$ = Standard deviation of the difference between means of the two groups.

N_1 and N_2 = Size of the 2 samples.

($N_1 = 163, N_2 = 100$).

Following table 4.3, the sex-role distinctions in participation using some issue areas was determined. It shows that in some issue areas there is no difference in participatory orientation between the sexes. In such cases, we accept the null hypothesis which states that sex better explains participation. As concerns the issue area - interest on events at local government level, it can be seen that 16.64% of the cases in a normal distribution fall between the mean and ± 0.21 . This is within the acceptance region since the \bar{z} - calculated is less than the \bar{z} - tabulated of ± 1.96 .

Except the underlined F -levels, the others are not significant and implies that the mean differences between the sexes might have arisen as a sampling fluctuation.

Some issue-areas like disposition to read newspapers, having a great deal of concern for public issues, and one's involvement at discussing communal problems with close associated with a view to profering plausible solutions or options were seen to be explained along sex lines. They are significant at 0.05 level of significance and rejects the null hypothesis that sex better explains participatory orientations.

What this means for development administration is, that certain personality characteristics of the intended participants conclusion emphasizes
It the need for any development strategy to study peoples circumstances and socialisation patterns.

TABLE 4.3

SEX-ROLE DISTINCTIONS IN PARTICIPATION: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Issue Area		GROUP 1 MEN N = 163	GROUP 2 WOMEN N = 100	Z	%
1. Interest on events at local government level	\bar{X}	1.9080	1.8900	0.21	16.64
	S.D	0.815	0.567		
	S.E	0.064	0.057		
2. Vote in last local government elections	\bar{X}	1.2577	1.3200	-1.074	71.5
	S.D	0.439	0.469		
	S.E	0.039	0.047		
3. Member of rural development committee.	\bar{X}	1.4785	1.3900	1.4	83.8
	S.D	0.501	0.490		
	S.E	0.039	0.049		
4. Attending MAMSER forums	\bar{X}	1.6564	1.6700	-0.203	15.9
	S.D	0.489	0.551		
	S.E	0.038	0.055		
5. Listen to Radion and Television Commentaries	\bar{X}	2.0368	2.4800	-0.35	27.36
	S.D	0.702	0.674		
	S.E	0.055	0.067		
6. Read Newspapers	\bar{X}	2.0675	2.3700	-2.59	99.04
	S.D	0.854	0.960		
	S.E	0.067	0.096		
7. Active member of local organisation.	\bar{X}	1.3067	1.2600	0.74	54.08
	S.D	0.476	0.505		
	S.E	0.037			
8. Held leadership in one's organisation.	\bar{X}	1.4479	1.3900	0.80	59.9
	S.D	0.568	0.567		
	S.E	0.045	0.057		
9. Attended 50% of the meetings of the organisation for the year.	\bar{X}	1.2515	1.2700	-0.22	17.42
	S.D	0.714	0.649		
	S.E	0.056	0.065		
10. Concern for public, either community problems or local government affairs.	\bar{X}	1.8282	2.0300	-2.73	99.4
	S.D	0.615	0.559		
	S.E	0.048	0.056		
11. Discuss the Community problems with close association	\bar{X}	2.0000	2.2900	-2.82	99.5
	S.D	0.809	0.808		
	S.E	0.063	0.081		

Note: \bar{X} = group mean, S.D = Standard deviation,
S.E = Standard error.

Critical values at 0.05 level of significance ($Z = \pm 1.96$).

CHAPTER FOUR

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²Alex Inkeles and David Smith, Becoming modern: Individual Change in Six Developing Countries. (London: Heinemann, 1974) p.376.

³Cronbach-Alpha Formula is

$$\frac{n}{n-1} \left(\frac{1 - \sum V_i}{2 \sum V_s} \right)$$

where n is the number of items.

V_i = the variance of the i^{th} item

V_s - the variance of a scale which is the average of the items. See: Inkeles and Smith, Ibid, and SPSS UPDATE; New procedures for releases 7 and 8. (New York, McGraw Hill, 1979) p.125.

⁴G.A. Almond and S. Verba, The Civic Culture, Political attitudes and Democracy in Five Nations: An Analytical Study. (Boston, Little-Brown, 1965) pp.2-3 quoted by E.C. Amucheazi, "Local Government reforms and mobilisation for Rural development" in E.C. Amucheazi (ed.) Readings in Social Sciences: Issues in National Development. (Enugu, Fourth Dimension, 1980) p.44.

CHAPTER FIVESUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, our focus have been to highlight the role of the individual in the economic development process. This is in recognition of the centrality of meaningful involvement of people of a given area in the planning and implementation of development programmes towards the attainment of the objective functions of such development programmes. Various attempts at rural development have in the past relegated the intended beneficiaries to mere recipients of programs. The peasants who constitute the majority are almost always excluded from the decision-making process for development. This study thus investigated and identified insufficient involvement of rural citizens in the design, implementation and evaluation of development programmes as the main cause of plan failures.

The review of relevant literature showed that, in itself, citizen participation can generate more questions than the immediate answers it provides. There are issues of clearly delineating the "how", "what" and "who" of participation. What forms and methods are more appropriate? How much participation is possible and desirable on given issues? On what issues and at what stages in the decision making process is citizen participation most useful? What are the costs and benefits of participation to the various groups in society? This study tried to support its contentions with enough relevant literature and tried to

prefer answers and/or rationalisations to the questions as are germane to obtaining an effective apparatus for citizen participation, as well as grappling with the broad requirements and levels of the process.

A comparative analysis was undertaken which showed that regardless of the differences in context and specific details of participatory programmes, there are similarities among countries in the general trends and in the broad issues that arise. The main essence of the comparative analysis was to highlight the constraints in implementation and procedures for solution, and to use this situational experiences of differing political systems to foster a theoretical and analytical framework which will further explanation and prediction. It was revealed that citizen participation is the panacea to development problems, especially geographic barriers which are constraints to delivery of development programmes and can only be overcome by a strategy of direct involvement with the intended beneficiaries. Furthermore, we saw that local skills and initiative are a valuable reservoir which are often neglected and untapped by more conventional programmes; but more importantly, the comparative analysis debunked the assumed passivity of the rural masses by revealing that project beneficiaries are willing to make financial contributions towards programme success, especially where the benefits are made clear to them and costs reasonably commensurate with benefits.

It has also been noted that some schools of thought prefer centralisation as against decentralisation. Nonetheless, there seem to be consensus that the advantages of decentralisations overshadows those of centralisation, especially for heterogenous societies where culture, history and tradition differ, and where communities have varied, divers interests and policy preferences than can possibly be adequately handled in a centralised form of government. Various procedural and substantive issues are involved in devolution of decision units to lower levels. These involves a clear delineation of the functional activities over which authority is devolved, the type of powers transfered, the levels to which such authority/power is transfered and the explication of all the variables that must exist with decentralisation to enhance the maximisation of objective functions of programmes. These variables include the legal instruments establishing the decentralised structures. It was suggested that the legal instrument must clearly state the procedures for participation and roles of and relationship of officials at various levels of administration. Another important variable is financial autonomy to decentralised structures; and above all, there must be the willingness of the "black box" to support and encourage decentralised authority in the execution of its functions.

The methodology of this research used questionnaire in eliciting information which was subjected to various statistical techniques to facilitate verifiable deductions. The implication of the findings is that policies and strategies which are aimed at authentic rural development and realisation of human potentials are likely to achieve their objectives if the citizens are part of the decision process. Data also indicates that the

government has not sincerely instituted measures to enable rural peoples to take part in making development decisions. It was also noted that the rural people are not really passive citizens, but are already imbued with the necessary variables like organisational involvement, media exposure and a high degree of community satisfaction and level of interest in local affairs. These variables are the necessary pre-requisites for effective mobilisation.

The study identified the use of local organisations as the most effective instrument in mobilisation for development. It is preferred to the use of councillors or representatives. This is because in the rural areas, there are already existing systems of authority and power relations which the people recognise and obey without much manipulation and coercion, as against the pseudo-participation perpetrated by representatives and their cohorts.

The empirical analysis further revealed that the use of radio, television, and newspapers in mobilisation is less effective than local organisations. Earlier researches have since shown that rural people rely heavily on informal face-to-face communication processes for their primary source of information. The effectiveness of local organisations is demonstrated in the fact that self-help communal projects worth millions of naira are successfully initiated and executed by these local secular organisations, and these projects almost always reflect the felt needs of the people. In the choice of

project, it was shown that executive discretion is subordinate to the supreme wish of the general assembly. It was also shown that the citizens owe more allegiance to their local leader than to the local government chairman.

The hypothesis that personality variables better explains participatory orientations than sense of community satisfaction and level of interest was found to be significant at 0.05 level of significance. It was however observed that certain demographic characteristics (such as sex) are more related to certain participatory activities than others. Also some variables, such as the citizens level of interest in communal affairs and sense of personal efficacy, more explains participatory orientations of rural people than the demographic variables. This questions the inherent assumption in strategies which are administered without regard to the recipients role-situations and socialisation patterns. It shows the need to clearly study development activities and identify which variable need be emphasized.

In summary, it was noted that three conditions must be fulfilled for rural participation to be effective. These are:

- (a) a positive orientation to it by the political leadership and political system through effective and functional devolution of decision-making units to smaller local levels.
- (b) the existence of formal and institutionalised procedures of integrating local organisations into the planning process.
and
- (c) the ability and willingness of the people themselves to participate.

In the light of the above findings, we therefore propose a policy structure or organisational arrangement for reaching the rural masses and through which the potentials for development of the rural peasants, their skills, needs and knowledge of their environment can be transferred to the policy agenda. Such organisational arrangement must be built upon the existing social organisations in the rural economy around which the rural population have themselves, over the years, organised their political, economic, religious and social affairs. These will include age-grades, town unions, the village, clan and community assemblies. This is the participatory strategy for integrated rural development.

Considering the position of the local government following the 1984 local government reforms, there is no doubt that this strategy of planning from below must be co-ordinated by the local government. The local government authority need to employ at least ten-to-twenty (10-20) community development officers, who must be graduates of the social or behavioural sciences. They must be provided adequate remunerations and incentives so as to encourage them to build their career in rural development administration. These officers will be required to relate to the local government chairman directly. The main duty of these officers will be to relate with leaders of secular local organisations. All organised local unions to be identified and recognised.

All other unions, organisations whose activities are subservient to the main town union will be encouraged to liaise with the town union leader to discuss their programs, harmonise deliberations to reflect the general interest and felt-needs of the indigenes. These policy preferences are then collated by the community development officer before passing them to the local government for onward transmission to the state and federal government for statistical requirements and planning purposes. By so doing, we will achieve the ideals of development from below', as well as instituting a two-way traffic in flow of information between rural and urban, agriculture and industry, and other sectors and infrastructures. This will guarantee plan success since the rural people are more likely to comply with any strategy in which they have a hand in devising and which recognises their local needs and aspirations.

Further recommendations concern the election of the representatives and councillors. The four-year tenure is too much and makes representatives hardly responsible and responsive to the wishes and aspirations of the rural people. We suggest that structures and institutions be created which will facilitate the direct influence of the electorates on the policy agenda and decisions. Councillors and representatives... of the rural communities should have a statutory obligation to discuss and solicit the opinion of the citizens on proposals and policies that are geared towards the improvement of their conditions.

As Kim Jong IL correctly observes:

"The masses of the people know the reality better than anybody else and have a wealth of experience. Only when the will and demands of the broad masses are integrated in a policy one is working out, can policy be correct, conform with their aspirations and interests, win their hearty support and inspire them".¹

And it is also when this happens that the creative power of the people which is an important element in the development process will be stimulated.

The system of communication or information flow is essentially vital to the success of any participatory strategy of rural development. The level of participation in government by citizens of any country is related to the level of information that are made available to them. It follows that if public opinion is adequately informed and supplied with facts and fair interpretation, it is more likely to be sympathetic with a cause. On the other hand, public opinion which is misinformed or uninformed can be hostile to a cause. Thus, through a mutual flow of information, the government will be in a better position to identify the gratifications and frustrations of its citizens.

If the masses are to be mobilised for purposes of developing the rural areas they should first be politically educated to understand the purpose and value of its government in order that they may be committed to its survival. As Blessing Osuagwu

pointed out;

"the justification for public information dissemination is based on the fact that in enlightened societies, support is related to the extent to which there is congruence between peoples expectation about how the political system ought to perform and their perceptions of how it is performing".²

This social awareness would provide a constructive sieve for objective perception. Hence a viable political education is advocated.

In the light of the above admonitions, we recommend the use of local organisations as the most effective instrument for this information dissemination and political education, co-ordinated and supervised by the community development officers. A caveat is necessary here. Past efforts relied dysfunctionally on traditional rulers and councillors or local government agents. This lag is clearly expatiated by Nnadozie Nwosu in his paper, "inter-government relations at the local level and the impact on rural development." Nwosu notes that the communication gap between the local government councils and various groups arose from the heavy reliance on the traditional rulers by the various tiers of government in Nigeria. Some of these Eze's, Igwe's or chiefs are the 'Nouveau Riche' who bought their Ezeship with money and are hardly traditional rulers as such. Excessive reliance on these uncultured self-made upstarts may also hinder efforts at effective social or mass

mobilisation. Nwosu thus opines,

"As growing concern for the less fortunate members of the community is in part being satisfied by the vigorous activities of both secular and religious voluntary associations which sprang from the consciousness and resourcefulness of the citizens and pioneered many of the social services such as education, and other rural infrastructures, nothing should be done to alienate such local power centres as the development-oriented interest groups such as town/development unions and social clubs. Any conscious or unconscious alienation of these vital local power links will, in our opinion, be detrimental to the strategy for rural development".³

However, in emphasizing the importance of active maximum feasible rural involvement in the planning process, it is not intended to over-exaggerate the capacities of rural people or to denigrate the potential contributions of government and her change agents. It is to some degree true that rural people are not likely to know the resources available to government or to fully understand the intricate modern planning techniques. But, with regards to their respective communities and the conditions affecting them, they certainly have sufficient expertness.

CHAPTER FIVE

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A RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION FOR DEVELOPMENT IN
NKWERRE/ISU LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA

This questionnaire is aimed at eliciting information from rural dwellers regarding the extent and dimensions of rural participation in development programmes. It is purely for academic purposes. The answers you give to our questions will not be identified with you personally, as we are only interested in the aggregate responses to particular questions.

Your co-operation will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

SECTION A

1. Autonomous Community
2. Village
3. Sex (Mark X in the appropriate box)
 Male Female
4. Age bracket:

(a) Below 21 years	(b) 21 - 30 years
(c) 31 - 40 years	(d) 41 - 50 years
(e) over 50 years	

5. EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

- i) No education
- ii) Primary School only
- iii) Secondary School only
- iv) University, College of Education, OND, HND or its Equivalent.

6. INCOME LEVEL

- a) Below ₦4,000 Per annum
- b) Between ₦4,000 - ₦8,000 P.a.
- c) Between ₦8,000 - ₦12,000
- d) Between ₦12,000 - ₦16,000 P.a.
- e) Between ₦16,000 - ₦20,000 P.a.
- f) Above ₦20,000 P.a.

7. OCCUPATION (SPECIFY)

8. How much interest do you generally have in what is going on at the Local Government Level.

- a) a good deal (b) Some interest (c) Not much interest.

9. Did you vote in the last year Local Government Elections?

Yes No

10. The Government has advised people to belong to development Committees in their Communities. Are you a member of any development Committee?

Yes No

11. Have you attended any of the MAMSER forums where people freely ask the Officers and Councillors questions?

Yes No

12. Do you listen to Radio and Television Commentaries and news items? (a) Very regularly (b) regularly (c) irregularly (d) Never

13. Do you read newspapers?

- (a) Every day (b) Few times a week
- (c) Very irregularly (d) Never

14. Which do you consider most effective in Mobilisation for

- rural development. (a) Radio (b) Television
(c) Newspapers (d) Local Organisations
5. Are you an active member of one or more of the Local Organisation in your Community?
- Yes No
6. Have you held any leadership position?
- Yes No
7. How did you belong? (a) By force because it is compulsory for people of my status and age.
(b) Voluntarily.
8. How would you assess the contributions of your organisation to development issues?
- i) They waste their time on irrelevant issues.
ii) They concern themselves mainly with settling leadership problems.
iii) They deliberate more on problems of the Community.
9. Do you have leadership problems? Yes No
10. Sincerely speaking, would you claim to have attended 50% of the meetings of your organisation this year.
- Yes No
11. How satisfied are you with the quality of life in your Community? (i) Very satisfied (ii) Satisfied
(iii) Don't know (iv) Dissatisfied (v) Very dissatisfied.
12. Would you say you feel "at home" in this Community
- Yes No Not Quite
13. Have you ever gotten so highly concerned regarding some public issue, either concerning your community or Local Government that you really wanted to do something about it.
- (i) Frequently (ii) Often (iii) Rarely (iv) Never
14. How often do you discuss the problems of your Community with your wife, friends and neighbours?
- (i) Very often (ii) Often (iii) Rarely (iv) Never
15. Do you think there are enough opportunities in your Community for people like you to take part in decision making for development.
- (a) much (b) Some (c) None

26. Through what means do you think the Government can effectively mobilise the people for developments?
 (a) Through Government agents or MAMSER representatives
 (b) Through direct contact with rural organisations
 (c) Through councillors and representatives only
27. In your opinion, do you think it makes ----- if Local people take part in making development decisions?
 (a) A great deal of difference (b) Some difference
 (c) No difference
28. Generally speaking, do you think the Government actually seek rural peoples opinion before decisions are made?
 (i) Often (ii) Rarely (iii) Never
29. Suppose the Local Government Chairman and the president of your town Union disagreed about what should be done about some public issue. Which leader would you feel greater moral obligation to obey.
 (i) Local Government Chairman (b) President of my Town Union.
30. Which of the following Programmes/Projects are taking place in your Community (Tick the one, that apply),

	Specify whether projects ar		
	Government Sponsored	Community Self-help	Joint
a) Hospital/Medical Centre			
b) Market Project			
c) Road/Bridges/Culverts			
d) Water Supply Scheme			
e) Rural Electrification			
f) School Project			
g) Civic Centre			
h) Scholarship Programme			
Others (specify)			

31. Were surveys or opinion polls conducted before choice of projects?

Yes

No

32. Did anybody seek your opinion? Yes No

33. (If self help), was it decided at the general meeting or executive discretion only?

i) General meeting (ii) Executive

34. Did that decision reflect the felt-need of the Community?

Yes

No

35. What contribution would you as an individual be prepared to make to communal projects? (i) Contribute Money only. (ii) Take part in physical Labour Contribution only (iii) Contribute money and labour (iv) Nothing

SECTION B

Please read each statement carefully and decide how you feel about it. Mark (X) in that column against the statement being considered.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Rural people know and understand their problems and are in a better position to say what should be done for them					
2. Since it is the lives of rural people which will be affected, they should be involved in planning and implementation					
3. Rural people are mostly not educated, it is not possible for them to take part effectively in planning and implementing rural development programmes.					7
4. In general, rural people lack the ability to contribute effectively in planning and development programmes.				6	0

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5. It is no use asking for their opinion in planning development programmes.					
6. Local Organisations like Town Unions, Village Meetings, can better mobilise people to participate than representatives and MAMSER agents					
7. Local Organisations ^{are} and usually for the rich ones and exclude the poor members from taking part in decision-making					
8. The Government has not sincerely provided measures to enable rural peoples, to take part in making development decisions.					

Thank you.

APPENDIX II

See Section B, items 1-5 in appendix I; and table 3.3

(a) = strongly agree,

(b) = agree,

(c) = uncertain

(d) = Disagree

(e) strongly disagree.

	a	b	c	d	e	Total
1	115	105	30	13	2	
2	80	118	33	25	9	
3	6	40	27	100	92	
4	4	33	48	98	82	
5	5	25	29	85	121	
TOTAL	210	321	167	321	306	1325

Chi-square (X^2) = $\frac{\text{actual} - \text{Expected}}{\text{Expected}}$
 Frequencies - Frequencies
 Expected Frequencies.

$$X^2 = \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$$

where $f_e = \frac{(\text{Row total})(\text{Column total})}{\text{Total}}$

$$= \frac{(115-42)^2}{42} + \frac{(80-42)^2}{42} + \dots + \frac{(92-61.2)^2}{61.2}$$

$$\frac{(82-61.2)^2}{61.2} + \frac{(121-61.2)^2}{61.2}$$

$$= 126.9 + 34.4 + 30.9 + 34.4 + 32.6 + \dots + 15.5 + 7.1 + 58.4$$

$$X^2 = \underline{683.75}$$

degrees of freedom = $(r-1)(k-1)$

= $(5-1)(5-1)$

= 16

Level of significance = 0.05

Critical values of Chi-square at d.f 16

0.05 level = 26.30.

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APPENDIX III ANOVA

See Section B, items 6,7,8 in appendix I and table 3.3.

a = strongly agree, b = agree

c = uncertain d = disagree e = strongly disagree.

	a	b	c	d	e	Total
6	49	148	39	8	21	265
7	14	47	67	63	74	265
8	35	149	20	28	33	265
Total	98	344	126	99	128	795

1. Total sum of squares - SS_T

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i=1}^r X_{ij}^2 - \frac{T_{..}^2}{n}$$

where X_{ij} = the observation in the i th row and j th column

$T_{..}$ = total number of observations.

$$\begin{aligned} SS_T &= 49^2 + 14^2 + 35^2 + 148^2 + \dots + 33^2 \\ &= 2401 + 196 + \dots + 5476 + 1089 \\ &= 68369. \\ &= 68369 - \frac{795^2}{15} \\ &= 68369 - 42135 \\ SS_T &= 26234. \end{aligned}$$

2. Sum of squares between groups - SS_B

$$SS_B = \sum \frac{T_{.i}^2}{n} - \frac{T_{..}^2}{N}$$

The between-groups sum of squares deals with the difference between the mean of each group and the grand mean.

$$\begin{aligned}
 SS_B &= \frac{98^2}{3} + \frac{344^2}{3} + \frac{126^2}{3} + \frac{99^2}{3} + \frac{128^2}{3} - \frac{T_{..}^2}{15} \\
 &= 3201.3 + 39445.3 + 5292 + 3267 + 5461.3 \\
 &= 56666.9 - 42135 \\
 &= 14531.9
 \end{aligned}$$

3. Sum of squares within groups; also called Error sum of squares.

SS_E

$$SS_E = SS_T - SS_B$$

$$= 26234 - 14531.9$$

$$= 11702.1$$

ANOVA TABLE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREE OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F	$F_{0.05}$
Between-groups.	14531.9	$K-1$ 4	3632.98	3.10	3.48
Within group.	11702.1	$n-k$ 10	1170.21		
Total	26234	$nk-1$ 44			

STRENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP - EPSILON (E)

$$E = \sqrt{\frac{d.f_B (F-1)}{d.f_B F + d.f_E}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{4(3.10-1)}{4(3.10)+10}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{8.4}{22.4}}$$

$$= \sqrt{0.375}$$

$$= \underline{0.6} \quad ?$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{-0.0623}{0.058} = -1.074$$

$$= 35.77 \times 2 = \underline{71.54\%}$$

3. Member of Development Committee.

$$= \sqrt{\frac{0.501^2}{163} + \frac{0.490^2}{10}} = \sqrt{\frac{.25100}{163} + \frac{.2401}{100}}$$

$$= \sqrt{0.00154 + 0.00240} = \sqrt{0.003941}$$

$$= 0.063.$$

$$\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 = 1.4785 - 1.3900$$

$$= 0.0885$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{0.885}{0.063} = 1.40$$

$$= 41.92 \times 2 = \underline{83.84\%}$$

This same procedure was used on all the items. See table 4.3.

APPENDIX IV

SEX-ROLE DISTINCTION: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

1. Interest on events at local level

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 &= \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{N_2}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{.815^2}{163} + \frac{.567^2}{100}} = \frac{0.66423}{163} + \frac{0.32149}{100}\end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{0.00408 + 0.003215} = \sqrt{0.007295}$$

$$\sigma_D = 0.085.$$

$$\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 = 1.9080 - 1.8900 = 0.018$$

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sigma_D} = \frac{0.018}{0.085}$$

$$Z = 0.21.$$

From normal curve distribution table $Z = 0.21 = 0.8.32 \times 2$ because of the two-tail gives 16.64%.

2. Vote in last LGA election.

$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{\frac{.439^2}{163} + \frac{.469^2}{100}} = \frac{0.19272}{163} + \frac{0.21996}{100}$$

$$= \sqrt{0.0012 + 0.0022} = \sqrt{0.0034}$$

$$\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 = 0.058.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 &= 1.2577 - 1.3200 \\ &= -0.0623\end{aligned}$$

