



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COURSE CODE: AEM 511

COURSE TITLE: LEADERSHIP AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT



**COURSE
GUIDE**

**AEM 511
LEADERSHIP AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

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Published by:
National Open University of Nigeria

Printed 2012

ISBN:

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INTRODUCTION

This course is meant to introduce you to **Leadership and Rural Development** in agriculture at the 500 level of the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). In the process, key issues underlining the place of leaders and leadership, leadership in group settings, the patterns of influence of such leaders, and the need for the training of leaders to drive rural development will be highlighted. In addition, the socio-cultural variation in the operations and patterns of leadership and other issues focusing on rural development will be presented.

COURSE AIM

The aim of this course is to familiarise you with the subject matter which is dealt with herein and which you are expected to know after reading through this course material.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

The major objectives of this course are to ensure that on completion of this course you should be able to:

- define leaders and leadership in agriculture
- mention types of leaders and their characteristics
- discuss leadership selection process
- analyse leadership in group settings
- discuss group dynamics and the role of leadership in groups
- state the role of extension in leadership quality development and social systems without leaders
- specify patterns of influence
- outline the categories of these patterns of influence such as social power and culture
- discuss the theories of power, forms of social power and the assessment of power structure
- understand the importance of training leaders for rural development
- explain the concepts and principles of rural development
- identify and evaluate leaders, problems and strategies for rural development
- present the socio-cultural variation in leadership patterns
- explain gender and generational issues
- state the effects of the HIV/Aids pandemic on rural development
- discuss leadership pattern, rural resources allocation and the future of leadership in rural development.

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

To complete this course, you are advised to read the study units, recommended books and other materials provided by NOUN. Each unit contains Self-Assessment Exercise or Tutor-Marked Assignment and at some point in the course you are required to submit the assignments for assessment. At the end of the course there is a final examination. The course should take you the number of weeks specified as needed to complete it. You will find all the components of the course listed below. You need to make out time for each unit in order to complete the course successfully and on time.

COURSE MATERIALS

The major components of the course are:

1. Course Guide
2. Study Units
3. Textbooks
4. Assignment File
5. Presentation Schedule.

STUDY UNITS

In this course there are five (5) modules divided into twenty one (21) study units as follows:

Module 1 Leaders and Leadership

- | | |
|--------|-----------------------------------|
| Unit 1 | Meaning of Leaders and Leadership |
| Unit 2 | Types of Leaders |
| Unit 3 | Characteristics of a Leader |
| Unit 4 | Selection of Leaders |

Module 2 Leadership in Group Settings

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Unit 1 | Group Dynamics and Group Leadership |
| Unit 2 | Role of Leadership in Groups |
| Unit 3 | Role of Extension in Leadership Quality Development |
| Unit 4 | Social System without a Leader |

Module 3 Patterns of Influence

Unit 1	Social Power
Unit 2	Influence of Culture
Unit 3	Theories of Power Structure
Unit 4	Forms of Social Power
Unit 5	Determination and Assessment of Power Structure

Module 4 Training of Leaders for Rural Development

Unit 1	Concepts and Principles of Rural Development
Unit 2	Identification and Evaluation of Leaders
Unit 3	Problems of Rural Development
Unit 4	Strategies for Rural Development

Module 5 Socio-Cultural Variation in Leadership Pattern

Unit 1	Place of Gender and Generational Issues
Unit 2	Effects of HIV/AIDS Pandemic on Rural Development
Unit 3	Leadership Pattern and Rural Resources Allocation
Unit 4	Future of Leadership in Rural Development

All these units are demanding. They also deal with basic principles and values, which merit your attention and thought. Tackle them in separate study periods. You may require several hours for each.

We suggest that the modules be studied one after the other, since they are linked by a common theme. You will gain more from them if you have first carried out work on the scope of agriculture generally. You will then have a clearer picture about these topics.

Each study unit consists of one week's work and includes specific objectives, directions for study, reading materials and Tutor-Marked Assignments; these exercises will assist you in achieving the stated learning objectives of the individual units and the course.

TEXTBOOKS AND REFERENCES

Certain books have been recommended in the course. You should read them before attempting the exercise.

ASSESSMENT

There are two aspects of the assessment of this course, the Tutor-Marked Assignments and a written examination. In doing these assignments you are expected to apply knowledge acquired during the course. The assignments must be submitted to your tutor for formal assessment in accordance with the timelines stated in the presentation schedule and the Assignment file. The work that you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total score.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

There is a Tutor-Marked Assignment at the end of every unit. You are required to attempt all the assignments. You will be assessed on all of them but the best three will be used for the final assessment. The assignments carry 10% each.

When you have completed each assignment, send it together with a (Tutor- Marked Assignment) form, to your tutor. Make sure that each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline. If for any reason you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension.

Extensions will not be granted after the due date unless under exceptional circumstances.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The duration of the final examination for this course is three hours and will carry 70% of the total marks for the course. The examination will consist of questions, which reflect the kinds of self assessment exercises and tutor marked problems you have previously encountered. All aspects of the course will be assessed. You should use the time between completing the last unit, and the examination to revise the entire course. You may find it useful to review your self assessment exercises and tutor-marked assignments before the examination.

COURSE OVERVIEW AND PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The course has a Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) in each unit making a total of twenty one (21) for the entire course. You would be expected to answer one TMA per week or based on whatever timelines that may be demanded by your tutor/facilitator.

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning, the study units replace the lecturer in a classroom setting. The advantage is that you can read and work through the study materials at your pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture notes instead of listening to a lecturer. Just as a lecturer might give you in-class exercise, your study units provide exercises for you to do at appropriate times.

Each of the study units follows the same format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit and how a particular unit is integrated with other units and the course as a whole. Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should do by the time you have completed the unit. You should use these objectives to guide your study. When you have finished the unit, you should go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If you make a habit of doing this, you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course.

Self-Assessment Exercises or TMAs are interspersed throughout the units. Working through these exercises will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignments and the examination. You should do each Self-Assessment Exercise in the study unit. There will be examples given in the study units. Work through these when you have come to them.

FACILITATION/TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

There are a number of hours of tutorials provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of the scheduled tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your tutor, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group.

Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments. Keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter. Your tutor may help and provide assistance to you during the course. You must send your Tutor-Marked Assignments to your tutor well before the due date. They will be marked and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your tutor by telephone or e-mail if you need help. Contact your tutor if:

- you do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings
- you have difficulty with the self assessment exercises

- you have a question or a problem with an assignment, with your tutor's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

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

SUMMARY

This course deals with twenty one (21) topics that are relevant and found in Agriculture as it affects the linkage between leadership and rural development. These topics, broken down into units are on the aspects of Agriculture based leadership as a driver of rural development in form and content.

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

**MAIN
COURSE**

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MODULE 1 LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP

Unit 1 Meaning of Leader and Leadership

Unit 2 Types of Leaders

Unit 3 Characteristics of a Leader

Unit 4 Selection of Leaders

UNIT 1 MEANING OF LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Leader and Leadership
 - 3.2 Basic Elements of Leadership Relationships
 - 3.2.1 Leadership varies from Formal to Informal Types of Influences
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 - 3.3.4 Application of the Theories
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The role of leaders in extension intervention is very important and it hinges on several extension principles you should be familiar with. For, instance a principle says; the extension worker should not do all the work alone but rather should impart the requisite knowledge on contact persons or local leaders who could further influence those within his influence or domain. I hope you remember the principle of teach one teach all? Local leaders command the respect of the rural folks who have so much trust in their leadership. By using local leaders, the extension worker is able to accomplish much more in a sustainable manner. However, effective leadership is not a common place thing, though the qualities could be learnt. This course should make you a

better leader and make it possible for you to make better leaders out of the rural people with whom you will have contact.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the concept of leader and leadership
- define basic leadership theories
- discuss some leadership models.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Leader and Leadership

The Encarta Dictionary (2009) describes a leader as [1] somebody whom people follow; somebody who directs and guides others; [2] somebody in the lead: someone in front of others as in a procession. [3] somebody in charge of others as in the head of a nation, political party, legislative body or military unit.

Leadership is defined as ability to lead; i.e. the ability to guide, to direct or influence people. It also refers to the position or office of leader [Encarta, 2009].

Glossary of Sociological Terms defines a leader as [a] person initiating interaction with other members of a group, [b] person who initiates interaction more frequently than anyone else in a group and [c] person who moves the group towards group goal (Reading, 1963).

From these definitions it can be said that a leader is the one who first perceives the group's needs far ahead of others, plans and enlists the co-operation of others in its implementation.

To appreciate better what leadership entails, clarifications distinguishing it from other similar terms such as headman should be made. A headman may or may not be a leader. According to Ekong [2003], it is possible to have a 'headman' while the group is actually being directed or led by another person who is not styled 'the head' Terms such as 'figure head', 'ceremonial leader' are used to describe persons who head a group but are not performing the leadership role. Gibb [1954] makes the following distinction between a head and a leader:

- a headship or domination is maintained through an organised system and not by spontaneous recognition by fellow group members, of the individual's contribution to group goals

- b the group goal is chosen by the headman in line with his interests and is not internally determined by the group itself
- c in domination or headship, there is little or no sense of shared feeling or joint action in pursuit of the given goal
- d there is in the dominance relation a wide social gap between the group members and the head who strives to maintain this social distance as an aid to his coercion of the group
- e the leader's authority is spontaneously accorded him by his fellow group members – the followers, whereas the authority of the head derives from some extra group power which he has over the group members who may not be meaningfully called his followers.

In the administrative setting, business executives, heads of department, supervisors, foremen and the like, are examples of headmen. Similarly in the rural sector, village heads, chiefs, religious leaders or local government chairmen/councillors who wield authority over their communities may or may not necessarily be leaders. And those under them are not necessarily 'followers'. For real effectiveness, these ones must exhibit some leadership qualities in spite of their authority to be accorded co-operation and thus a leader's status. It behooves on you as a professional change agent to know the leaders in the rural communities in order to attain sustainable development.

For the purpose of this course, a comprehensive definition of leader is adopted as: a vital, integral individual who operates within the group to promote, stimulate, guide, or otherwise influence members to action [Chitambar, 1973]. Leadership is defined as the process whereby an individual directs, guides, influences or controls the thoughts, feelings or behaviour of other human beings. It is essentially a group phenomenon and occurs in a situation calling for interaction between a group of people, the leader or leaders, the problem or task and its possible solution. It is a function of personality and there can be no leadership without follower-ship.

From the foregoing, some key elements of leadership could be highlighted:

- leading takes place in a social setting among people
- no leader without follower[s]
- leadership is a group attribute
- leader's ideas and action influence the thoughts and behaviours of others
- implies role-playing for some time
- leading roles must be performed repeatedly under varying conditions.

3.2 Basic Elements of Leadership Relationships

If leadership is the act of leading others towards a common goal, four basic elements could be identified: 1. the leader, 2. the followers, 3. the situation, and 4. the task.

- **The Leader:** This implies a role relationship with others in the group and interaction over a period of time within which the leader repeatedly performs functions and acts of leadership in the group. Such acts may be shared with other group members; however, the buck stops at the leader's table.
- **The Followers:** Followers also have a role to play under the direction of the leader. Followers are not mere aggregation, but people in constant active interaction in direction toward desired goals.
- **The Situation:** It refers to a set of values and attitudes that have to be faced by group members wherein activity for achievement of goals has to be planned and implemented [Chitambar, 1973]. The situation includes:
 - interpersonal relationships within the group
 - characteristics of the group as a unit
 - characteristics of the culture within which the group exists and from which members are drawn
 - physical conditions within which the group is to act and
 - the perceptual representation of these elements and the attitudes and values held by the members, within the group and among themselves.
- **The Task:** The task defines the activities which are to be performed in common movement and achievement of desired goals by the group. The task sets varying demands and requirements for leadership and hence their nature is of importance and significance to the motivation of leaders.

After these key elements, there are certain aspects of leadership you must understand [Chitambar, 1973]:

3.2.1 Leadership Varies from Formal to Informal Types of Influences

A leadership situation often involves elements of both. In a group where the formal leader is not effective or influential, there is likely to be an informal leader who is formally not a leader but by the influence the person wields, the group reckons with him. Unless such a person endorses a plan, it may never be implemented. In such a situation *dual*

leadership is said to exist. For instance, in Yoruba culture, the man is the head of the family; but occasionally, the wife wields so much influence that what she does not support does not work. As such, the 'head' as the formal leader is no more than a channel through which decisions desired by the wife are implemented. Can you illustrate dual leadership in a rural community cooperative setting?

3.2.2 Leadership may be a Matter of Degrees

A person may show different degrees of leadership in different areas of group action, at certain times and in certain situations. In a rural setting, a retired soldier is prominent when the security of the community is threatened while his prominence drops and that of rural health officer increases in epidemical situation. A retired professor, who has chosen to settle in his village after retirement may attain a fairly high degree of leadership at all times.

3.2.3 Specific Skills and Qualities

Persons who perform functions of leadership effectively must have specific skills and qualities of character appropriate to the task. Illustration provided above further clarifies this point. The nature of group and rulership determine types of persons who can perform leadership functions.

3.2.4 Quality of Leadership not Inherent in Individuals

The quality of leadership in an individual is not inherent in him but the role that is played within a specific social situation. Persons who are leaders in one situation are not necessarily leaders in other situations. For effective delivery, the following must be present where leadership is to be affirmed:

- a. role performance – actions are paramount in leadership situation; else we have weak or no leadership
- b. there must be social interaction, including interaction within the group, between leader and followers or other forms of intra-group or inter-group interaction between the group and other groups and individuals in the larger community. Without interaction there can be no leadership
- c. the leader must enter the position of centrality such that he is the focal point for the group activity
- d. the central influence of the leader must be related to the collective action taken by the group. This is addressing the flow and harmony of group activities and purpose that ought to be located in effective leadership.

3.2.5 Success Promotes Leadership

Successful leadership tends to accumulate leadership even when not overtly desired. Successful leadership in a situation and possibly at lower level lead to pressure being applied to the individual to assume leadership role repeatedly. This is called demonstrated capacity which is useful in rural development interventions such that the antecedence of group/community members would be useful to you as change agent.

3.3 Theories of Leadership

Knowledge of concepts of leader and leadership may be superficial without providing some ground theories of leadership. It is in this recognition that two of such theories – the great-leader theory and the group theory are presented [Sprinthall *et al.*, 1994]:

3.3.1 The Great-Leader Theory

The great-leader theory sees leadership as a quality of the individual that endeared the group members to him as an enigma. In its boldest form the theory states that certain individuals possess just the right blend of looks, personality traits, and intelligence to be almost automatically thrust into leadership position anyhow. These individuals – who are said to have charisma – will always become leaders in any situation or in any group. Charisma is a kind of personal magnetism and hypnotic appeal too imposing not to be recognised.

Several examples of history's Charismatic leaders include Mahatma Gandhi, Winston Churchill, John F. Kennedy, Martin Luther King, Jesse Jackson and Pope John Paul II. In Nigeria a shop-list of charismatic leaders in history may include Herbert Macauley, Chief Obafemi Awolowo, Sir Nnamdi Azikwe and Sir Ahmadu Bello. Leaders that used their charisma to negative end could be listed to include Adolf Hitler and Jim Jones of the Guyana Tragedy.

3.3.2 The Group Theory

Group theory states that anyone who meets some basic needs of the group can be a leader. And, since the needs of the group change, so too does leadership. What service an individual can offer at any point in time determines leadership at that point. In the rural setting, the traditional 'ifa' priest is the leader when the council of chiefs is to consult the deity in a particular problematic situation. However, he may become less relevant as the knowledge of modern medicines become widespread; then a health officer takes the lead.

A recent theory that blends the ideas expressed in the two theories is the Path-Goal Theory [www.12 manage, as at 2008-06-04].

3.3.3 The Path-Goal Theory

Propounded by Robert House, the path-goal theory holds that a leader can affect the performance, satisfaction and motivation of a group by:

- offering rewards for achieving performance goals
- clarifying paths towards these goals
- removing obstacles to performance.

However, whether leadership behaviour can do so effectively also depends on situational factors.

Situational Factors of the path-goal theory have two major dimensions:
Subordinate personalities:

- a. **Focus of control:** A participative leader is suitable for subordinates with internal locus of control; a directive leader is suitable for subordinates with external locus of control.
- b. **Self-perceived ability:** Subordinates that believe they have high abilities themselves do not like directive leadership.

Characteristics of the environment:

- when a group is working on a task that has a high structure; directive leadership is redundant and less effective,
- when a highly formal authority system is in place, a directive leadership can again reduce workers satisfaction,
- when subordinates are in a team environment offering great social support, supportive style leadership becomes less necessary.

Four Leadership Styles [Robert House]

According to Robert House, there are four leadership styles:

- a. **Directive leadership:** The leadership that gives specific guidance to the subordinates.
- b. **Supportive leadership:** The leader is friendly and shows concerns for the subordinates.
- c. **Participative leadership:** The leader consults with the subordinates and considers their suggestions.

- d. **Achievement-oriented leadership:** The leader sets high goals and expects subordinates to have high-level performance.

3.3.4 Application of the Theories

The application of these theories may be addressed by an attempt to answer the question on which one is most useful in development intervention efforts? Should leadership for rural development rest on a charismatic personality or that capable of meeting group needs?

One could easily be carried away by choosing the latter [group theory] for extension is goal oriented i.e. directed toward meeting people's interests and needs. However, it cannot explain the complexities and interplay of factors that facilitates adoption of improved technologies. Majority of rural people are averse to change, but change is facilitated when a local leader [most likely a charismatic one] legitimises such change. Once this is achieved, leaders with technical competencies become relevant.

It implies that the two theories are useful depending on specific task and purpose the task sets out to achieve. Leadership roles may spread across different members of a group and that a leader may not possess all the attributes needed to get a task done. He should be visionary enough to know interventions that are likely to profit the group and how to influence and carry everyone along toward meeting the group needs.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is clear that with the understanding of what leader and leadership mean, you will agree that the concepts are so important in development interventions meant for the support grassroots livelihoods on sustainable basis. Leadership should be held responsible for up to seventy percent of the outcome of any social system. Education acquired by people [in practical terms] is defective if it fails to contribute significantly to their ability to be effective leaders.

5.0 SUMMARY

A leader is somebody whom people follow; somebody who directs and guides others towards common goals. Leadership is defined as ability to lead; i.e. the ability to guide, to direct or influence people. It also refers to the position or office of leader.

From the lecture on the concepts of leader and leadership, these submissions are made:

- a. Leading takes place in a social setting, among people
- b. No leader without follower(s)
- c. Leadership is a group attribute
- d. Leader's ideas and action influence the thoughts and behaviours of others
- e. Implies role-playing for some time and
- f. Leadership roles must be performed repeatedly under varying conditions.

In every leadership, the basic elements comprise – leader, follower(s), situation and task. It is important to note that a headman may or not be a leader.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Define a leader and leadership from the layman's viewpoint.
- ii. As a professional extension worker how would you define leader and leadership?
- iii. What are the basic elements of leadership?
- iv. Describe a theory of leadership, expressing its application and implications for rural development intervention.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Chitambar, J. B. (1973). *Introduction to Rural Sociology: A Synopsis of Concepts and Principles*. New Delhi: Vinod Kumar.

Ekong, E. E. (2003). *Rural Sociology: An Introduction and Analysis of Rural Nigeria*. Uyo, Nigeria: Dove Educational Publishers.

Gibb, C. A. (1954). Leader. In: Garden Lindzey (Ed.). *Handbook of Social Psychology*. Cambridge, Mass: Addison Wesley Pub. Co. pp. 882.

UNIT 2 TYPES OF LEADERS

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Types of Leaders
 - 3.1.1 Types of Leaders by Paths to Leadership
 - 3.1.2 Types of Leaders by Visibility, Legitimacy and Scope of Influence
 - 3.1.3 Types of Leaders by Orientation
 - 3.1.4 Lay Leadership
 - 3.2 Styles of Leadership
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In social situations when the matter of leadership arises, certain characteristics or qualities prevail first on the part of the person who leads and secondly on the part of those being led i.e. the followers. From the insight gained in the previous unit, you now know that a leader must possess the ability to influence others. This ability may be derived from different characteristics or qualities the leader has that make him relevant or acceptable to others. Despite the diversity of these qualities, classifications of leadership by type are possible and these have been found useful both in practice and for analytical purpose.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- classify different typologies of leadership
- describe leadership styles
- mention examples of different leadership types and styles.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Leaders

Several types of leaders can be identified according to the following criteria (Ekong, 2003):

- a. path of attaining leadership position
- b. visibility, legitimacy and scope of influence
- c. orientation.

3.1.1 Types of Leaders by Paths to Leadership

- a. **Situational Leader:** In a community, an individual may foresee an impending danger or the needs of a group and takes action in rectifying the situation or mobilising others to meet such a situation. An illustration of situational leader may be taken from the biblical story of David confronting Goliath; who defied the army of Israel but no soldier in the Israeli army was bold enough to confront Goliath. The defeat of Goliath by David brought the latter to limelight. However, other factors would have to come into play to sustain him.

In other words, situational leaders persist as long as the condition which brought them into the forefront remains. They can continue if such situation that brought them out becomes institutionalized or by self-imposition on the group. In the case of David he won several battles for Israel after Goliath's defeat. In Nigeria, Odumegwu Ojukwu emerged as a situational leader to lead the Biafran Civil War. Think of other situational leaders you know and indicate whether [and how] they were able to sustain their leadership position or not?

- b. **Dictatorial Leader:** This type of leadership ensues when the situation that brings a leader to the forefront no longer persists and yet he continues to stay on by repressive means and domineering the group at all cost. A dictatorial leader may claim to have moral obligation to remain at the helm of affairs to watch over peoples' interests or sees his clinging to power as the reward for his effort.

A dictator would want to control all phases of life in the community and takes no suggestion from his subordinates except where such suggestions are in his own favour [Ekong, 2003].

A ready example is found in most *coup d'etat* by military rulers. They claim to come up to correct some abuses by a ruling class only to wish to perpetuate themselves in power.

- c Traditional or Hereditary Leader:** Here the leader is born into a hereditary leadership position as recognised by custom and tradition. It implies that the leadership status is ascribed rather than achieved. Ascribed status is attained through competition and individual efforts while ascribed status is designed culturally and due to no effort of the incumbent [Ladele, 2001].

Traditional leaders are very important to the work of the change agent because of the natural power and influence they wield, especially in the rural setting. Their authority might have waned and replaced with constituted political authority; they still have remarkable influence on their subjects and often the respective politicians who align their support on intended programmes.

The traditional leader has authority by virtue of the community's tradition; as such he enjoins unlimited loyalty and undisputed obedience as a mark of respect for the stool or office, irrespective of the qualities of the incumbent. Ekong (2003) cites the case of a child king – Ben Keagboekuzi, the 18th Obi of Agbor, Delta State of Nigeria, who took reigns at 2½ years old. When you have a weak infant as the monarch, other people overtly or covertly are vested with the role of leading the community on his behalf.

- d Charismatic Leader:** The path to leadership for a charismatic leader is the personality that exudes charm, magnetism, appeal and captivating aura that are irresistible to people. He has a clear vision of where the people under his influence are heading and the capacity to lead them to realise their common goal. Akinbile (2006) describes such a leader as someone people follow blindly and wholeheartedly without any question. This could only have been attained after the leader has demonstrated qualities and policies that are popular, that make him dear to people's heart. They love, adore and could even worship him [Jibowo, 1992]. Other examples of charismatic leaders include Jawaharlal Nehru of India, Mother Teresa and Nelson Mandela of South Africa.

- e Professional Leader:** This describes someone who attains the leadership position through hard work and technical competence. The position is achieved and not ascribed. His status is not based on personal charm, although such characteristic can enhance his acceptability to his group or community [Ekong, 2003]. The extension agent, community worker, the medical officer, the village headmaster are few examples of professional leaders. At the local community level, skilled professional leader may include, the pastor, diviner or traditional healer. A village

headmaster might be a member or consultant to the village council by the virtue of his expertise, exposure or professional competence. In rural communities they are influential because people look unto them for their knowledge and skills for direction and assistance on various matters both within and outside the scope of their expertise. They are sometimes asked to represent their communities/groups in outside engagements.

3.1.2 Types of Leaders by Visibility, Legitimacy and Scope of Influence

Visibility of leaders refers to the extent to which such leaders are recognised as influential by people. It is known by comparing the status and ranks among several people who are also in leadership positions in their own right. Under this classification, we shall briefly discuss visible leaders, concealed and symbolic leaders.

Visible, Concealed and Symbolic Leaders

- a **Visible Leaders:** These are leaders accorded the same amount of power and recognition by both leaders and non-leaders. They perform 'visible' roles which are recognised by all in the community.
- b **Concealed Leaders:** These are leaders who are not publicly acknowledged as leaders but have so much influence within the leadership cadre for reasons not so obvious to the larger community. On important matters, they are consulted by those in position of authority for quality advice before actions are taken.
- c **Symbolic Leaders:** These are leaders who are accorded more recognition by non-leaders than by leaders. They are 'symbolic' in representation capacity of their constituency but have not sufficiently proved their mettle among other leaders.

Bojean and Olson (1964) further classified leadership on the basis of legitimacy into 'covert elites' and 'legitimate pluralism'

The covert power elites have the following features:

- a. they do not hold political or associational offices
- b. they are concealed and not recognised by the community at large but strong in their domain of influence
- c. influential in a wide range of decision areas; and
- d. always work with others as a group.

This type of leadership is illustrated in personal assistants who serve people in authority such as politicians. They are not known to the public but their pieces of advice are taken seriously by the policy makers they serve.

The Legitimate Pluralism is characterised as follows:

- political office holders and leaders of associations
- seen by community members as major decision makers
- their areas of focus are usually on decisions on official areas; and
- may not work as a team.

In short, they are visible leaders and have features opposite to those of covert power elites.

A further classification of leaders according to Bojean and Olson [1964] is one based on scope of influence – generalists and specialists. This will be discussed briefly:

- i. **Generalists:** generalists are leaders with a wide scope of influence and who are active in a wide range of community activities. They are usually present where principal decisions concerning community matters are taken. An effective village head should be a generalist as a key legitimiser of all community issues [Ekong, 2003].
- ii. **Specialists:** specialists are leaders whose interests and activities are limited to one or few community matters. They are usually professionals in specific areas and may hold certain official positions in their community. The village health officer, pastor or village headmaster may be examples as they are usually consulted in matters related to their areas of specialisation.

3.1.3 Types of Leaders by Orientation

Leaders are sometimes classified on the basis of their orientation i.e. whether they are local or cosmopolitan. This is defined by the extent to which matters within or outside their community are of interest to them.

Robert Merton, as cited by Ekong (1988) developed a typology for describing leaders on the basis of their orientation thus:

- **Local leaders:** local leaders are those whose interests radiate around immediate community matters and whose leadership influence is closely knitted within relationships of community members. They are quite knowledgeable in local affairs and their strong point is on whom rather than what they know.

- **Cosmopolitan leaders:** cosmopolitan leaders are those whose scope of interests transcends their local environment. They represent their community on outside engagements and they attract beneficial projects to their community. They read widely to be abreast of news that could be of benefit to their community and for personal development. Their power in this case lies on what they know rather than on whom they know.

3.1.4 Lay Leadership

This is another classification of leadership we need to mention. ‘Lay leader’ is the opposite of ‘professional leader’. Lay leaders have been classified into ‘action leaders’ and ‘opinion leaders’:

- **Action leaders:** Action leaders are lay people who are actively involved in every aspect of community programmes from planning to evaluation. They use their knowledge and experience to key into programmes to serve as volunteers in whatever capacity community workers would deem them fit.
- **Opinion leaders:** Opinion leaders are lay people who influence opinion of others on programmes initiated in the community. Over time people have learnt to respect their views which might be as a result of several factors such as social status, age, family background, education, wealth, prestige or political contacts. Change agents should identify them to give legitimation to innovations and programmes in the community.

3.2 Styles of Leadership

Style of leadership is the behavioural approach adopted by a leader to dispense his leadership, reflecting in certain patterns of interaction with the followers. You probably belong to certain groups about which you find some degree of differences in the general atmospheres permeating these groups. This is because you have been exposed to different styles of leadership which to a large extent determine the efficiency of the groups’ performance and satisfaction derived by group members.

List the different groups you belong and reflect on the different behavioural approaches of the leaders. Generate the consequences of these approaches on effectiveness of each group.

There are three basic styles of leadership which are the *authoritarian*, *democratic* and *laissez-faire* styles. The authoritarian leader is domineering, never asking for suggestion about group activities and controls every aspect of the group situation. He rules by orders and decrees. In an authoritarian environment, the leader makes all the

policies and issues directives on how they should be implemented. Activities dropped sharply when an authoritarian leader is absent, and rose immediately he steps in.

The democratic leader is more permissive and involves the followers in decision making. The democratic leader gently guides the group in a participatory manner. According to Jibowo [1992], in the democratic environment, the leader assisted the group in discussing and checking on policies; the group members identified their directions of activities during discussion, outlined steps to be taken, while the leader gives many suggestions from which the group could make choices. Members have the freedom to choose tasks and companions.

The *laissez-faire* leader is generally nonchalant, care free and leaves group members to their own judgments. In the *laissez-faire* environment, group members are given free hand for group or individual decisions. The leader provides materials and information only when asked. He rarely makes comments on activities of members and allows the course of events to drift anyhow.

An experiment by Kurt Lewin many years ago, comparing the effect of authoritarian and democratic styles of leadership on group activities submits that completely different atmospheres were generated in the two groups [Sprinthall *et. al.*, 1994]. The democratic groups were more satisfied, more cooperative, less hostile, and better able to carry on group activities when the leader was not present. Though the authoritarian group did have higher rate of production, the work of the democratic group was of a higher quality.

It has been established that leadership styles affect behaviour, perception and feelings of group members. And in general terms democratic leadership attract more positive evaluations by group members than non-democratic leadership.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The diversity of classifications of leadership by type and style has provided further insight into the subject of leadership. The knowledge will be quite useful in problem solving and ensuring that role of leadership in development interventions is structured such that outcomes are more along the line of manifest function [intended direction], less of latent function [unintended outcome] and much less of dysfunction [detrimental outcome].

Leaders are very important in the scheme of social integration and development intervention. They should therefore be identified and made to contribute to the development process in their communities.

5.0 SUMMARY

There are basically four ways into which types of leaders have been classified:

- a. Types of Leaders by Paths to Leadership – under which we have [a] Situational Leader, [b] Dictatorial Leader [c] Traditional or Hereditary Leader, [d] Charismatic leader and [e] Professional Leader
- b. Types leaders by Visibility, Legitimacy and Scope Influence – under which we have [a] visible leaders, [b] concealed leaders and [c] symbolic leaders.
- c. Leadership had further been classified on the basis of legitimacy into ‘covert elites’ and ‘legitimate pluralism’. Also, on the basis of scope of influence – generalists and specialists.
- d. Types of Leaders by Orientation: This includes the classification of leaders into [a] local leaders and [b] cosmopolitan leaders.
- e. Lay leadership: Lay leaders have been classified into ‘action leaders’ and ‘opinion leaders.’

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Outline the major typologies of leadership, providing their main characteristics.
- ii. Describe the styles of leadership, pointing out the merits and demerits.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Akinbile, L. A. (2006). Programme Planning and Evaluation. Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan. Ibadan, Nigeria. p. 103.
- Bojean, C. M. & Olson, D. M. (1964). Community Leadership: Direction of Research A.S.Q. 9 pp. 278-300.
- Ekong, E. E. (2003). Rural Sociology: An Introduction and Analysis of Rural Nigeria. (2nd ed.). Uyo, Nigeria: Dove Educational Publishers. p.404.

UNIT 3 CHARACTERISTICS OF A LEADER

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Characteristics of a Leader
 - 3.2 Attributes of Effective Leadership
 - 3.3 Differences between a 'Boss' and a 'Leader'
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

From previous units, leadership has been defined simply as the ability to lead. It was also said that not all persons positioned as headman in groups are leaders. Someone may be a figure head, with authority but without commanding the respect of group members. The question is what are the traits or features someone should exhibit to effectively move the group towards group goals? Or why is it that the momentum of activities, group members' motivation changes with change in leadership? It is because individuals got more or less of what it takes to accomplish the tasks ahead of the group. Let us create an imaginary scenario where a group exists without anyone in charge. There is no gain saying the fact that chaos will be rife. It thus implies that leadership is an important factor in agricultural and rural development efforts. We will visit the key features of leadership in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- characterise a leader
- explain the attributes of effective leadership
- distinguish between a 'leader' and a 'boss'.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Characteristics of a Leader

Regardless of whether an individual is born with the ability to lead or the skills are developed, there are certain traits leaders will be expected to reflect. These characteristics are as follows:

- 1. Trustworthiness:** A leader cannot exist if he or she does not enjoy the trust of the people being led. The leader must be considered of being of high integrity and honesty which makes him/her remarkable such that the people trust they would be represented well even in their absence. Group members believe what s/he says to the extent that even when they are yet to perceive the motive, they believe the leader to be doing whatever in their interest. A good leader practices what s/he preaches, thus earning the right to lead others and responsibility to them. To the contrary erodes trust. Trustworthiness is the source of the real authority, based on the trust of other people.
- 2. Enthusiasm:** Enthusiasm is an important element of leadership which energises group members. The true leader is passionate and dedicated about what is to be done and encourages others to move to accomplish the task. Also, a real leader should not be scared to perform hard work, offering a good example to his or her workers. A leader exhibits the 'we can do it spirit' and so 'let's go and take the land'. The biblical examples of Joshua and Caleb reflect this attribute that launched them into leadership position
- 3. Confidence:** A true leader must be confident in his role and position towards others. The result will be a trustful team that looks up to the leader, following his or her orders and performing the tasks well. The team members will be highly motivated to do a good job when there are no traces of doubt in the steps the leader is recommending. Confidence however is based on pre-knowledge, fore-sight or pre-conceived vision of the on-going effort.
- 4. Orderliness:** A good leader must be orderly in his/her approach to things. Fluctuation in decisions and work should be avoided. As much as possible, the leader should try to maintain good order towards work and purpose. This gives the team more confidence and positive thinking. In times of uncertainty and stress, the leader must prove to be orderly and able to work towards the final purpose.

5. **Calmness:** Many challenges may rise along the way and the leader must treat them equally, inspiring others not to let bad influences overcome them. Any crises, any emotions must find the leader calm, composed and steadfast to the main purpose. Others may lose their temper but the leader must keep his/hers. The one that succeeds to keep a cool head in times of pressure is a great leader.
6. **Analytic mind:** A true leader must possess ability to think analytically. He/she should be able to consider the many facets of the problem that needs to be dealt with. While keeping the goal in focus, the leader is able to analyse the matter, by breaking it into parts meant to be inspected and concluded in logical manner. An analytic mind is needed when progress must be made by dealing with every step in particular.
7. **Ambition:** Any good leader should not settle for second best. The focus should be on being the best. Success is a matter of who wins the top. If you settle for less, it implies that you may even attain lesser. A true leader will always have high standards and he or she will strive for excellence in every aspect.

The seven qualities described above are essential for a good leader. They can be personal traits, but they can also be developed and strengthened. But, whether these characteristics are natural or developed, a great leader will always work to make the best of these traits and to achieve excellence [Melchior, 2007 www.google].

Other leadership traits that help a leader to be more effective include competence, honesty, forward looking, inspiring and enjoying good health. Leaders that are open, intelligent, broad-minded, fair-minded and straightforward will impart more on the group members and move them better toward common goal. It should be noted that developing good leadership skills requires practice and it takes time.

3.2 Attributes of Effective Leadership

A question commonly asked in leadership discuss is whether good leadership is an acquired or ascribed traits? In other words, people usually want to know whether leaders are born or made. There are many contributing factors that lead to effective leadership. Every successful business owner knows that the biggest reason for their success is great leadership. The characteristics necessary to be a good leader can come naturally or may be developed. They include the following:

Communication Skills

Communication skills are probably the most important factor in an effective leader. Without it, problems go unresolved. This is likely to happen to rural development intervention programmes, without a leader with good communication skills, intervention programmes may end up in failure. In leadership, it is absolutely necessary that an individual is able to convey ideas and thoughts to the members of his community, those community members be able to offer feedback so that the community is made better as a whole.

If problems exist among community or group members, someone with good leadership skills is able to offer a viable or satisfactory solution.

A Good Motivator

People need to be motivated; after all, with no goals or end result to look forward to, people tend to stagnate. Good leadership includes challenging members to do better. Some people even enjoy being assigned a project or challenge that is yond their normal “scope” of duties. It increases their motivation, and they get an extra boost of confidence simply because you felt they were up to the challenge or task. Effective leadership often involves helping those who work for you feel better about themselves and their capabilities.

Encourage Team Spirit or Participation

Those who have good leadership skills understand that group members want to feel that they are part of the "team", that their input will make a difference. More importantly, they want to feel that you are part of the team as well; that you are not just a leader who feels that you are above their level, giving them directions without becoming actively involved in reaching a solution.

As someone in a leadership role, it is important that you realise that others need to feel capable of making decisions on their own; everyone has potentials they may not use. By letting the members of the group or the community to use their untapped potential and make some decisions on their own, you will become a better leader who is also well-liked by the “team”.

Outstanding Leadership requires an Open Mind

Listening to the ideas of your people is essential in great leadership; by listening to the ideas and opinions of your community people, they will realise that you care and trust them to offer sound ideas - even if you feel that what they have to say is outside your own thoughts. Restrict judgment until after you hear what they have to say - you may just find that they have some great ideas that you have not thought of!

Effective leadership does not mean that you take on all problems and solutions yourself. Give others the opportunity to express their own opinions and suggest solutions to problems at hand.

3.3 Differences between a ‘Boss’ and a ‘Leader’

The dictionary meaning of these terms attempt to establish their differences. Oxford’s Advanced Learner’s Dictionary defines a boss as person who is in charge of other people at work and tells them what to do. Encarta drives home the point further by describing a boss as somebody dominant. He is the dominant partner in a relationship or the dominant member of a group, who tends to make decisions and give instructions. On the contrary, a leader is described as somebody who others follow. In more practical terms, the distinguishing features between a boss and a leader are presented as follows:

BOSS	
1. Drives his/her men	1. Coaches the men
2. Depends upon authority	2. Depends on people’s good will
3. Gets things done by instilling fear	3. Leads by inspiring enthusiasm
4. Arrogates effect to self, says ‘I’	4. Focus on team work, says, ‘We’
5. Assigns tasks	5. Sets the pace
6. Says “get there on time”	6. Says “get there ahead of time”
7. Fixes blame for breakdown	7. Fixes any breakdown
8. Knows it all disposition	8. Knows but believes others know something, too
9. Makes work a drudgery and an awful experience	9. Makes work a privilege, challenging and worth the while
10. Says, “go”	10. Says, “let’s go”

While a boss operates in authoritarian capacity, a leader operates in democratic dispensation. Though, the ‘boss approach’ to getting things done is prevalent in formal institutional setting, where the boss gets things done by riding on the power of authority, democratic approach is likely to be more effective in informal work relations. Managers in

formers setting, however, have realized that work is more effective when leadership principles are applied to their tasks

4.0 CONCLUSION

In every human endeavor on social relations, the subject of leadership comes up one way or the other. Proper application of this knowledge in any development intervention, especially agricultural extension programmes contributes toward programme effectiveness. With the adoption of the participatory approaches to development leadership training becomes more imperative. It is also important for professional agents to recognise leadership potentials and assist clientele develop appropriate leadership qualities.

5.0 SUMMARY

The basics characteristics of an effective leader include trustworthiness, enthusiasm, confidence, orderliness, calmness, analytical mind, calmness and ambition. Other leadership traits that help a leader to be more effective include being competent, honest, forward-looking, inspiring and enjoying good health.

Among the several factors that determine the quality of leadership are communication skills, ability to motivate, promotion of team spirit and open mind.

While a boss and a leader may engage on similar tasks, orientation and approached differ and most likely the attendant results. The disposition of a boss is that s[he] is in charge while the leader rides on people's goodwill.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Mention and explain the characteristics of a leader.
- ii. Differentiate between a boss and a leader.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ekong, E. E. (2003). *Rural Sociology: An Introduction and Analysis of Rural Nigeria*. (2nd ed.). Uyo, Nigeria: Dove Educational Publishers.

Williams, S. K. T. et al. (1984). *A Manual for Agricultural Extension Workers in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Les Shyraden.

UNIT 4 SELECTION OF LEADERS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Selection of Leaders
 - 3.2 Importance of Local Leaders in Rural Development
 - 3.3 Limitation to the Use of Local Leaders
 - 3.4 Suggestions and Guidelines for Using Local Leadership Visuals
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Community development interventions will only be successful with the right leaders at the helm of affairs. Selection of good leaders will obviously promote social integration which will ultimately lead to the achievement of group goals. Extension workers should be able to understand the methods of leader selection, and this knowledge will help him understand the leadership structures prevailing in the community where he works so as to determine how best to use them in accomplishing the extension goals. In using the right local leaders, all efforts at achieving development goals will be made possible through joint participation of both the leadership and the followership.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the four methods of leader selection
- describe the importance of local leaders
- identify the limitation to the use of local leaders
- present suggestions and guides on how to use local leadership.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Selection of Leaders

Good leaders are instruments to the success of any extension programme in the rural communities. Williams *et al.* (1984) observed that different types of leaders are needed to execute all the parts of an ongoing extension programme. The variation in group situations often determines the types of leaders to be used. This is why the issue of leader selection is most important. Without leaders of the proper kind and interest in the work at hand, the extension programmes may suffer greatly. Williams *et al.* (1984) discussed five methods of leader selection.

1. **External selection:** This is the selection of the leader by someone outside the group. The outsider may likely be a professional leader, who asks or appoints someone to serve. The method is commonly used in the military, churches, government and business organisations, where it is usually accompanied with reasonable success. It is not likely to be successful when employed in a voluntary group organisation commonly used in the extension service.
2. **Self-aggrandisement:** This method is based on clever manipulation of the group by the leader by making sure that he is at the right place and at the right time in order to get elected or appointed. The method is usually used by a person who has a strong desire to lead. Usually the leadership does not last very long in a democracy as the people soon become fed up with him. The group he leads soon disintegrates or gets a new leader due to his inability to harmonise the group toward its tasks.
3. **Selection on basis of tradition:** This method relies on tradition and culture of the people making up the group. Older people or those who have been in top positions for long are most highly respected in the traditional society. When group action is desired on new ideas and practices, then this method of leader selection will probably prove unsatisfactory. This is because when traditional leaders are consulted on any innovation, and are opposed to it younger people who want the innovation may be debarred. For any extension practice to be successful in this situation, the extension worker must have the approval of the traditional leader.
4. **Selection by group:** This is achieved through either appointment or election by the group, and is the best method of getting leaders who will have the respect and confidence of the group. Members of the group, who participated in selecting the leader, are ready to give full cooperation and support. The extension worker needs

the skill to facilitate the method of leader selection. Members could be asked to vote for the people the group wants as leaders.

5. **Sociometry:** Another method is the application of sociometry. Simply put, it is the statistical study of behaviour and relationships with social group, especially expressed in terms of preference.

3.2 Importance of Local Leaders in Rural Development

There are many reasons why local leaders are important in rural development efforts. Apart from the fact that the community development worker cannot do the work alone, other reasons are:

1. Changes are more readily adopted by the people when and if their leaders accept the change. This is because the people have confidence in them and they have wrongly or rightly come to believe in them; also we cannot have leadership without followership. It is logical to take the leaders as targets of development.
 - Thus in selecting local leaders one should know those who are trusted and have a wide community appeal.
 - Use of local leaders is generally referred to sociologist as legitimisation (stamp of approval).
 - Local leaders also give prestige to the community development projects.
2. Gives the community development workers opportunity to make a greater contact with the people and this affords them the opportunity to know the need and interest of the people i.e. by moving closer to the local leaders who are in position to articulate the needs and interest of the people.
3. Less destruction of the programme will result when local leaders are effectively used in community development programmes, because the community development workers might be transferred anytime since he works for external agency like the ministry, if he has been making good use of the local leader from the start, chances are that they will continue the programme after the agent might have left the scene.
 - a. Using local leader gives the community development worker a multiplier effect based on the principle, teach-one-teach all.
 - b. Local leaders helps to defend the village work against unfair criticism and helps to bring about favourable attitude towards community development program, as it is possible for their leaders to be involved in decision making at higher level (e.g. being a member of a local council) of community affairs. Such local leaders are in

- position to defend the activities of the community developments
- c. Leadership reflects a relationship between people and it is therefore something that is earned especially in a free – choice democratic society.

Leadership does not exist in vacuum, it is based on achievement, accomplishment, nature and potential and the need for the particular leadership at hand.

Using local leadership therefore helps to fulfill one of the basic principles of community development work which is that of involving people to help themselves because the leaders can help to explain the programme to the people better than the community development workers can.

3.3 Limitations to the Use of Local Leaders

There are some limitations to the use of local leaders and it is essential that the professional extension agents should be aware of these. The knowledge of these will assist extension agent to make wider consultation with various members of the community where he works.

These limitations include:

- a. Local leaders may give wrong interpretation to the programme thus giving the credibility of the agent to question.
- b. Local leaders may not be good teachers and will therefore not be as effective in selling the programme to the people.
- c. Local leaders may not be able to spare the required amount of time to receive adequate training that will enable them to be effective in intervention programme for rural development.
- d. It requires much of the extension agents' time to locate and train local leaders. This is important if wrong choice of leaders is not to be made.
- e. Local leaders may seize the opportunity to acquire prestige and personal gain within the community without contributing much to the effectiveness of the agent.

The knowledge of professional agent of these limitations will assist him to be cautious in the selection of leaders for rural development intervention programmes.

3.4 Suggestions and Guidelines for Using Local Village Leadership

a. Determine the place of local leader in the programme

- i. Extension agent should give careful consideration to the amount of dependence to be placed on local leaders in a given project and outline their specific functions in it.
- ii. Give careful consideration to the type of activities the leaders are expected to perform.
- iii. Give careful considerations to the types of subject matter local leaders are capable of handling.
- iv. Use sufficient number of local leaders and demand only a small amount of time from each.

b. Select satisfactory leaders

- i. Watch continuously for evidence of potential leadership and give it a chance to develop.
- ii. Have group select its leader after qualifications have been presented.
- iii. Consider interests of potential leader, such as his desire to help group and his interest in the subject-matter.
- iv. Consider abilities such as educational background and knowledge of subject.

4.0 CONCLUSION

With your knowledge now on methods of leader selection, it is obvious that you as a change agent will not underestimate the importance of leaders' selection. This is because a good leader will influence development intervention positively with maximum cooperation from other members of the group. Extension workers therefore should direct their efforts at ensuring that effective and goal oriented leaders are selected by their group members.

5.0 SUMMARY

Selection of leaders has been discussed under four methods which include:

- a. external selection
- b. self-aggrandisement
- c. selection on basis of tradition
- d. selection by group.

The importance of local leaders include:

- a. Changes are more readily adopted by the people when and if their leaders accept the change.
- b. Gives the community development workers the opportunity to make a greater contact with the people.
- c. Less destruction of the programme will result with effective use of local leaders.
- d. Gives the community development worker a multiplier effect based on the principle of teach-one-teach all.

Limitations to the use of local leaders were also discussed. Some of them are:

- a. Local leaders may give wrong interpretation to the programme
- b. Local leaders may introduce their own opinion and value judgement to the programme
- c. Local leaders may not be good teachers and will therefore not be as effective in introducing development project to the people.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Mention and briefly discuss the methods of selection of leaders.
- ii. Explain the importance and limitations to the use of local leaders.
- iii. As an extension agent working in the rural area what are the suggestions and guides you will consider when deciding to use local village leadership?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Williams, S. K. T.*et al.* (1984). *A Manual for Agricultural Extension Workers in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Les Shyraden.

MODULE 2 LEADERSHIP IN GROUP SETTINGS

Unit 1	Group Dynamics and Group Leadership
Unit 2	Role of Leadership in Groups
Unit 3	Role of Extension in Leadership Quality Development
Unit 4	Social System without a Leader

UNIT 1 GROUP DYNAMICS AND GROUP LEADERSHIP

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Group Dynamics and Group Leadership
3.2	Classification of Groups
3.3	Group Development
3.3.1	Stages in Group Development
3.3.2	Characteristics of Effective Group
3.3.3	Achieving a Cooperative Group Structure
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Group formation and being part of one group or the other is often associated with human beings. Nobody wants to live in isolation within a social system considering the social nature of people. There is therefore the need to understand what group is especially as to how it relates to the rural development. Also, its study and group processes will give a better picture of how groups can be very useful in bringing about social integration and development in the community with effective leadership. This unit will make you to know that leadership is very crucial to group setting and you as a professional change agent should use your knowledge to help groups to achieve their goals.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain group dynamics and group leadership
- classify groups
- discuss group development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Group Dynamics and Group Leadership

A group is a unit of two or more people in reciprocal interaction or communication with each other (Chitambar, 1973). Forsyth (2006) defines a group as a unit of two or more individuals who are connected to each other by social relationship.

In the social sciences, a group can be defined as two or more humans who interact with one another, accept expectations and obligations as members of the group, and share a common identity (wikipedia.org/wiki/group). A true group exhibits some degree of social cohesion and is more than a simple collection or aggregate of individuals.

Criteria for a group include:

- formal social structure
- face-to-face interaction
- two or more persons
- common fate
- common goals
- interdependence
- self-definition as group members
- recognition by others.

Group dynamics therefore is the study of groups, and also, it is a general term for group processes. The fact that people in groups interact and influence each other, groups develop a number of dynamic processes that separate them from a random collection of individuals. These processes according to Wikipedia Encyclopedia (2010) include norms, roles, relations, development, need to belong, social influence, and effects on behaviour.

In group dynamics, group process refers to the understanding of the behaviour of people in groups, such as task groups, that are trying to solve a problem or make a decision. An individual with skill in group process, such as a trained facilitator or change agent working in the rural area, can assist a group in accomplishing its objective by diagnosing how well the group is functioning as a problem solving or decision – making entity and intervening to alter the group’s operating behaviour.

Group leadership is the process of providing focus and direction to a specific group of people (Malcolm, 2010). This type of leadership often involves facilitating and guiding the actions of group participants as well as accepting responsibility for the outcome of the group's efforts. Extension workers who are based in the rural communities can provide focus and direction to the groups of farmers thereby leading to the improvement of their social status and their environment.

3.2 Classification of Groups

Different types of groups based on group attributes or characteristics have been identified. Although the categories are not exclusive and do overlap, it is important that you have knowledge of the type as well as the categories. The major types of groups formed on the following attributes are described below (Chitamber, 1973).

A. Groups based on the Quality or Type of Relationships

1. **Primary and secondary groups:** Primary groups are characterised by intimate face-to-face associations and informal personal relationships, such as in the family and in groups of close friends. Groups like this have a feeling relationship that is a strong feeling of belonging to the group on the part of members. In a primary group, members are interested in one another as individuals. They share experiences, hopes, plans, problems and fulfill their need for companionship. A secondary group is characterised by few ties of sentiments, formality of contacts and impersonal relationships. This relationship may exist between farmers and traders who buy produce. The relationship here is somehow impersonal and contractual and members are not concerned with other members intimately but as individuals who function to fill particular roles. The difference between primary and secondary groups is presented below:

Primary Groups**Secondary Groups**

Small size-often less than 20 Or 30 persons	Large size
Personal and intimate relationships among members	Impersonal and aloof relationships among members.
Much face to face communication	Little face to face communication
Permanency – members are together over a long period of time	Temporary – members spend relatively little time together.
Members are well acquainted and sense of loyalty or “we have a	Members are not well-acquainted and anonymity prevails.
strong feeling”. Informality is most common; the group usually does not have a	Formality prevails – group often has a name, officials and a regular meeting place.
name, officials or a regular meeting place. Group decisions are more	Group decisions are more rational and the emphasis is on efficiency

traditional and non-rational (Rogers, 1960).

2. Formal and Informal Groups: The degree of formality or informality that exists in the group may be regarded as a continuum with the formal groups at one end and informal groups at the other. No group is 100% formal or 100% informal in its relationship; although definite marked differences exist in the two types of groups. An example of formal group is the village council, which involves definite roles, rules of operation and rigidly enforced behaviour of its members. Informal groups, such as friendship groups or farmers association just for social activities have no such organisation, rigidity or formality.

3. Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft: This is similar to the concept of primary and secondary groups. The Gemeinschaft is a society in which most relationships are traditional or personal. The Gesellschaft is a society in which there is neither personal attachment nor the importance of traditional rights, obligations and duties. According to Horton (1964) some of the major characteristics of Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft relationships are compared below

Gemeinschaft Relationships**Gesellschaft Relationships**

Personal
Informal
Traditional
Sentimental
General

Impersonal
Formal
Utilitarian
Realistic
Specialised

B. Groups based on social class

Horizontal group: This is the term used to describe members who are alike in the status or position in the class system of society. For instance, it can be said that all farmers belong to the same horizontal group in the village. This is true for others like blacksmiths and carpenters who will be members of their respective horizontal group.

Vertical groups: They are groups that are composed of members from different social strata and whose membership cuts vertically across the horizontal groupings in the village. For instance farmers, traders, carpenters and drivers can be members of the same group for the development of their community.

C. Groups based on size: Groups may vary and be placed on a continuum on the basis of number of members with the minimum number being the dyad or pair at one end and at the other, the maximum who can interact and communicate with one another.**D. Groups based on personal feeling of belonging**

i. **In-group:** This is a group to which a person feels he belongs and with which he identifies strongly. He refers to such a group as my family, my neighbourhood, my clan, my church or mosque, my club or association. Cassava Growers Association, Vegetable Growers Association and Poultry Keepers Association are few examples of in-groups in the village.

ii. **Out-groups:** These are groups to which a person feels he does not belong for he is outside of them. Individuals relate to such group they do not belong indifferently and with less passion.

E. Groups based on compulsion of participation

Participation in school may be compulsory for a child at the insistence of the state and/or parent. In addition, membership and participation in certain groups may be as a result of social pressure or pressure from other members, as in the formation of workers' union. A good example of this group in the village is vigilante group in which a person must be compulsorily chosen from each house in the village to form members of vigilante group for the security of the village.

F. Reference Groups

These are groups to which an individual refers when he takes action or makes decisions and with which he consciously or unconsciously identifies himself. A reference group is any group-primary, formal, horizontal or otherwise and it strongly influences the individual's behaviour. A family reference group for example may influence a farmer to accept or reject adoption of an improved farming practice.

In rural communities, an individual may belong to a small number of reference groups compared with individuals in more complex urban societies. It is from these reference groups that the individual assumes his point of view and attitude toward various aspects of life. He may identify with a reference group and aspire to be a member, but membership is not a condition to create a reference group. Reference groups have many standards that guide and influence an individual, sometimes even though the goals may be contrary to those of his membership group. A member of a lower social class, for instance may have a higher class group as his reference group, identify with it and aspire to be a member of it.

Whatever may be the type or classification of the group that is used to analyse human behaviour, groups are universal aspects of life and constitute an essential component of both rural and urban society and exert great influence of human behaviour. Relevant to an understanding of behaviour is an understanding and appreciation of the importance of the group in the social structure.

3.3 Group Development

Group development is a process of group forming and working together so that a goal is accomplished (Black, 2010). This is a process that brings individuals together in form of group to achieve a goal or objective. The group goes through some stages before any meaningful work can be done and their objectives achieved.

3.3.1 Stages in Group Development

There are several basic stages that new groups go through as they move to becoming effective as a group (Curtis 1995).

1. **Forming (Getting Acquainted):** This is the first stage and is characterised by a sense of uncertainty and awkwardness and perhaps anxiety. Members of the group may be unsure of what to do and how to do it. Group norms and standards have yet to be defined and participants or members are eagerly looking to find out what is right or not. At this point leaders need to set the standards for group behaviour, activities and interaction. Establishing norms is an important part of this stage. Group norms can be established in three ways.
 - a. **Stating** – telling/explaining to people how to behave.
 - b. **Modeling** – demonstrating behaviour for others to adopt.
 - c. **Importing** – bringing in behaviour customary in other social situations.

Most people are polite as they try to put their “best foot forward” that is try to lead by example. The result is a superficial level of harmony and cooperation. This serves the purpose of getting the group started and off the ground in terms of motivation and commitment. Members may tend to verbalise how close they feel to each other, and may develop quite a group spirit due to successful task accomplishment. Leadership at this point should be a combination of High Task/Low Relationship (Telling) in terms of teaching skills and establishing norms moving to High Task/High Relationship (selling) to get everyone involved and interacting in the group.

2. **Storming (Struggling forward):** This second stage is characterised by individual assertive behaviour which may result in some group instability. Members have begun to feel comfortable enough with their new environment to take some risks in revealing more of their personalities. Each person wants to feel a sense of individual importance and influence on the group. This becomes more evident as increasing responsibility is shifted to the group as they move into moderate levels of maturity. The leadership styles which may be most effective are High Task/High Relationship (selling). Leaders should not be surprised if some conflicts develop in the group at this stage. This is part of the natural process of the group becoming self-sustaining.
3. **Norming (Becoming Personal):** This stage is characterised by a growth of affection and establishment of personal relationships. Members will begin to take responsibility for resolving conflicts and strengthening friendships. The leadership style which may be most effective is Low Task/High Relationship (Participating) since the group is competent regarding tasks but needs assistance and support in terms of relationships. At this point the members determine the final rules and priorities of the group.
4. **Performing (Working Together):** This stage is characterised by harmony among group members. Participants look outwards to see how other people in the group are doing to make sure all are supported. Decision making and problem solving will be shared within the group. At this stage the group is mature enough to attend to its own needs both in terms of task and relationship matters. The leadership style which would be most effective would be Low Task/Low Relationship (Delegating).
5. **Transference:** This is the stage when members of the group are able to transfer the things which they have learned about themselves and being in a group back to their regular lives.

3.3.2 Characteristics of Effective Group

1. Has a clear understanding of its goals: Overall and immediate.
2. Is flexible in selecting its procedure as it works toward its goals.
3. Has achieved a high degree of communication and understanding among its members.
4. Is able to initiate and carryout an effective decision making, carefully considering minority viewpoints and securing commitment of all members to important decisions.
5. Achieves an appropriate balance between group productivity and the satisfaction of individual needs.
6. Provides for sharing of leadership responsibilities.
7. Has a high degree of cohesiveness
8. Makes intelligent use of the differing abilities of its members.
9. Can be objective about reviewing its own processes can face problems and adjust to needed modification.
10. Maintain a balance between emotional and rational behaviour.

3.3.3 Achieving a Cooperative Group Structure

Members must interact, give and receive help from one another, and share ideas, information, and resources to help accomplish the group's goals.

The group goal of getting the task done at the highest level possible must be accepted by everyone, and members need to develop commitment to the group goal.

Because the possibility exists of different group members doing different sub tasks, groups may divide the labour in various ways to accomplish their goals.

Rewards, if any, must be based upon the quality and quantity of group performance, not individual performance.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The understanding of group dynamics and group leadership is so important to extension agent or personnel who hope to become effective in performing his roles. The study of group and how groups are classified and development will assist change agent to enjoy any development intervention he may be involved in at the local level. This knowledge will help him to know the group to work with to achieve the goals of development intervention with full cooperation of the members of groups in the community.

5.0 SUMMARY

A group is a unit of two or more people in reciprocal interaction or communication with each other. Group dynamics is considered as the study of groups and also a general term for group processes. Meanwhile, group leadership is the process of providing focus and direction to a specific group of people.

From this unit, the following are the criteria for a group:

- a. formal social structure
- b. face-to-face interaction
- c. two or more persons
- d. common fate
- e. common goals
- f. interdependence
- g. self-definition as group members
- h. recognition by others.

In group development, the basic stages involved comprise of forming, storming, norming, performing and transference stages. It should be noted that for a group to be effective, it must have clear goals to be achieved.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Define group dynamics and group leadership.
- ii. How would you classify groups based on the type of relationship that exist within them?
- iii. Define group development and explain the stages in group development.

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UNIT 2 ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN GROUPS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Role of Leadership in Groups
 - 3.2 Purpose and Need for Leadership
 - 3.3 Taking Leadership Position
 - 3.4 Visionary Leadership
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is the ability to get other people to do something significant and it is energising people toward a goal. The role leaders play in any association, group or society will determine what will be achieved in such association or group and even in the society for that matter. Leadership should be able to discover and identify the reasons for the existence of the group they belong and thereby determine the roles or function they are to perform in order to achieve the overall goal of the group. Extension experts working in the rural area must know that there are different groups representing different interest of people in the local area where they work. Hence, the need to help groups to achieve their developmental goals through the leadership of such groups.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the roles of leadership in groups
- explain the purpose and need for leadership
- specify what it takes to assume a leadership position.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Role of Leadership in Groups

This model of leadership is based on the premise that in working with a group there are two basic roles or functions which need to be attended to. One is working to accomplish the tasks the group has set out to do. The other is ongoing maintenance and development within the group (Curtis, 1995). Thus, there are two basic types of roles for leaders to engage in:

- a. task roles
- b. relationship roles.

Task Roles of a Leader

- a. **Information and opinion giver:** Leadership offers facts, opinion, ideas, suggestions, and relevant information that will help group to achieve its goals.
- b. **Information and opinion seeker:** An effective leadership asks for facts, information, opinions, ideas and feelings from other members of the group so as to help group discussion.
- c. **Starter:** Leader proposes goals and tasks to initiate action within the group.
- d. **Direction giver:** Develops plans of action on how to proceed and focuses attention on the task to be done.
- e. **Summarizer:** Pulls together related ideas or suggestions by members of the group for goals actualisation.
- f. **Coordinator:** Coordinates various ideas by pulling them together and harmonises activities of various sub-groups and members. In other words, he coordinates all the activities of the group.
- g. **Diagnoser:** Identifies difficulties the group has in working effectively and the hindrances to progress in accomplishing the group's goals and proffers possible ways to overcome them.
- h. **Energiser:** Stimulates a higher quality of work from the group.
- i. **Reality tester:** Examines the practicality and workability of ideas, evaluates alternative solutions, and applies them to real life situations to see how they will work.
- j. **Evaluator:** Compares group decisions and accomplishments with group standards and goals.

Relationship Roles

- a. **Encourager of participation:** He warmly encourages members to participate, giving recognition for contributions; demonstrating acceptance and openness to ideas of others, is friendly and responsive to group members.
- b. **Harmoniser and compromiser:** Persuades members to analyse constructively their differences in opinions, searches for common understanding in conflicts and tries to reconcile disagreements and differences.
- c. **Tension reliever:** Eases tensions and increases the enjoyment of the group members by suggesting breaks, and proposing easier approaches to group work.
- d. **Communication helper:** Shows good communication skills and makes sure that each group member understands what the other members are saying.
- e. **Evaluator of emotional climate:** Asks members how they feel about the way in which the group is working and about each other, and shares own feelings about both.
- f. **Process observer:** Watches the process by which the group is working and uses the observations to help examine group effectiveness.
- g. **Standard setter:** Express group standards and goals to make members aware of the direction of the work and the progress being made toward norms and procedures.
- h. **Active listener:** Listens and serves as an interested audience for other members, is receptive to others' ideas.
- i. **Trust builder:** Accepts and supports openness of other group members, reinforcing risk taking and encouraging individual member.
- j. **Interpersonal problem solver:** Promotes open discussion of conflicts between group members in order to resolve conflicts and increase group cooperation and cohesion.

The idea that leadership is distributed is important because all of these roles do not need to be fulfilled by the leader. In many instances a member of the group may be the Energiser who tries to motivate other members to get the work done. As the group matures and develops into a cohesive entity, more of these roles are taken on by the participants or members and the leaders can play less of an active role.

3.2 The Purpose and Need for Leadership

For any organisation or group to survive, there must be in existence an effective leadership to give direction to the efforts of all workers in accomplishing the goals of the organisation (Ogunbameru, 2004). The absence of leadership will make the link between individual and goal difficult. Thus, achievement of individual's goals rather than group goals becomes prominent and important. This often leads to a situation in which individuals work to achieve their own goals while the overall organisation or group becomes inefficient in achieving its objectives. The essence of leadership is reflected in Davis's statement that: "Without leadership, an organisation is but a muddle of men and machines. Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically, it is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it toward goals. Management activities such as planning, organising, and decision-making will be dormant and ineffective until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them toward goals. Leadership transforms potential into reality. It is the ultimate act which brings to success all of the potential that is in an organisation and its people".

From the submission above, it is pertinent to mention some of leader's responsibilities in a group:

- safety
- honesty
- establish trust
- teach skills
- be vulnerable
- role model
- provide balance
- adapt to situation(s)
- make decisions
- provide motivation
- facilitate group interaction
- be sensitive to needs of group
- deals with expectations of others.

3.3 Taking Leadership Position

Taking a leadership position according to Mills (2005) involves the following:

1. a leader must have a vision of the future for the organisation or group and its members. A leader must be able to express his or her vision clearly and in a compelling manner so that others are engaged by it
2. a leader has to make a commitment to his or her vision, to the group, and to the members of the group. A leader cannot be committed one day and uninterested the next day. The commitment of the leader must be total without looking back. People will judge a leader by his or her commitment, and will commit themselves no more than the leader does
3. a leader takes responsibility for the accomplishment of the mission and the welfare of those he leads
4. a leader assumes risk. If there is no risk, little leadership is required. If the effort is easy and certain to succeed, anyone can lead. But where effort entails a risk of failure, then many people will quail before the challenge and leadership is necessary to get people to make the commitment and the effort to succeed. The first responsibility in a position of leadership is to have a vision. For a leader to succeed in group he must have vision.

3.4 Visionary Leadership

Visionary leadership requires:

1. Creating a vision, a mission, and a strategy: The leader must provide a mission that is what needs to be done and a strategy, a path, for how to accomplish the mission and achieve the vision, a way for the group to get to its target goal.
2. In order to succeed, a leader must clearly communicate the vision. It is only when people grasp the vision can they commit themselves to it.
3. It also requires motivating action.
4. Helping the group grow, evolve, and adapt to changing circumstances.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is worthy to note that a group can effectively realise its goals with functional leadership. The roles leadership assumes in group are the major determinants of the group's success. Extension practitioners should be aware of roles of leadership in group so as to encourage them toward visionary leadership that will push the group toward the attainment of their objectives and consequently sustainable development in the local areas.

5.0 SUMMARY

Leadership entails working with people and providing direction especially among group of people. Working with people means that there are certain roles which leadership must assume.

From this discussion, on the role of leadership in groups, it is obvious that there are two basic types of roles for leadership:

- a. Task roles
- b. Relationship roles: In taking a leadership position, it requires:
 - i. having a vision about what can be accomplished
 - ii. making a commitment to the vision and to the people
 - iii. taking responsibility for the accomplishment of the mission
 - iv. assuming risk of loss and failure
 - v. accepting recognition for success.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Mention and discuss the two basic types of roles of leadership.
- ii. Explain the need and purpose for leadership in any group.
- iii. What does it entail to take a leadership position?

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UNIT 3 ROLE OF EXTENSION IN LEADERSHIP QUALITY DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Role of Extension in Leadership Quality Development
 - 3.2 Importance of Leadership in Extension Work
 - 3.3 Type of Relationship that should Exist between Professional Leader (Extension Agent) and Lay Leader
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The nature of extension is educational but it is different from formal education. Extension deals more with people and groups at the local areas and its success depend on cooperation and skills of the people it works with. For extension to make impact, the leadership quality and skill of the people particularly leaders of communities and societies must come into play. This means that extension has role to play in leadership quality development if appreciable sustainable development is to take place. It is often said that leaders are born, they are not made. But while leaders are born with characteristics that make them leaders, proper leadership skills can be taught. Hence, extension has role to play in teaching proper leadership skills in order to achieve the goal of development.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the role of extension in leadership quality development
- state the importance of leadership in extension work
- differentiate the relationship that should exist between extension agent and lay leader.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Role of Extension in Leadership Quality Development

The primary purpose of extension is to extend knowledge in order to solve problems at the local level (William *et al.*, 1984). Leadership development is therefore one of extension's major objectives. Extension provides educational opportunities for people to improve their skills in leadership, in addition to members gaining practical experience by serving the group in leadership roles (Monarch.tamu.edu/d690).

Leadership develops from opportunities to be in decision making situation and taking an active part in all phases of the program. Leadership is not, in this perspective, a quality that exists only in certain persons. Instead, it is a skill that can be learned and practiced when opportunities arise. Extension can provide these opportunities through which people can improve their leadership skills in order to be effective. Likewise, it is a shared process that is more than one person can be involved in carrying out a leadership role for a particular situation.

Leadership is demonstrated when people, as a group, select and act on an area of concern to them, choosing a plan to solve a problem, and actively taking the necessary steps to reduce or eliminate the problem.

There are a number of benefits that can come to leaders from their participation in group activities. The benefits include:

- self-fulfillment
- increased confidence in decision making and action
- opportunity to learn leadership and problem solving
- opportunity to practice leadership skills
- respect as an acknowledged community or group leader
- prestige from being identified with a successful system of informal education.

Other benefits can come to extension's educational programme from leader involvement in group activities:

- improved programme quality and effectiveness
- improved good will between the public and extension
- greater knowledge, creativity and leadership skills of people to help in program development
- continuity between what citizens want and what extension offers

- more accurate decisions about relevant needs and opportunities
- wider base from which to acquire programme volunteers
- better participation when programmes are planned by participants or their representatives
- increased interest and enthusiasm
- improved evaluation because of closer knowledge of and contact with the public
- greater accountability
- program legitimation which speeds the process of change and reduces resistance
- multiplication of agents' efforts by leaders' efforts
- improved resources when leaders know about and support programmes
- a broader support base for budget and administrative concerns.

3.2 Importance of Leadership in Extension Work

There are many reasons the use of leaders in extension work is very important. The reasons according to William *et al* (1984) are as follows:

1. New practices are more readily accepted by rural people when and if their leaders adopt them. This is because these are the people in whom they have a lot of confidence and whether they are wrong or right, the rural people believe in them. Such leader must be leaders who are trusted and have community wide appeal. Leaders are one of the most important tools used by capable extension agents in persuading rural people to accept change. In the village we generally use the local "Ba'ale" or the village teachers. This is what is referred to as legitimation. This means that in order to get one's programme accepted, you as extension or change agent must get the support of an important person in the local community to help advance the programme. Leaders help to add prestige to the programme meant to develop the rural area.
2. Using local leaders gives the extension agent greater contact with the farmers and this therefore, puts him in a better position to know their needs and interests. We must all accept the fact that no programme will be successful unless it is based on the needs and interests of the people it is intended to serve. One mistake extension agents generally make is to assume that they know what the people need and proceed to draw up a programme to meet such need. This is generally a wrong approach. This can easily be corrected by getting to know the leaders in the community and seeking their advice as to what they think should be done about community problems.

3. Programme will enjoy cooperation and less disruption when local leaders are effectively used. This is because since the extension agents are working for an external agency, they are liable to transfer from the area they have been assigned and well known. This transfer may occur just when the agents are getting to be known by people in the area. If the agent had used the leadership approach and trained the leaders well, they can continue the programme when he leaves.
4. Leadership reflects a relationship between people and is therefore something that is earned. It does not exist in a vacuum. It is based on accomplishment, nature, potentiality and the needs of a particular leadership at hand. Using local leadership therefore helps to fulfill the basic principle of extension of involving people in the process of helping them to help themselves. The leaders can help explain the programme to the people better than the agent in some cases.
5. Using the leaders gives the agent a multiplier effect in that the leaders will assist the extension agent reach many more farmers than he will have the time to reach. And once he has trained them well, they can assist him to spread development information to others. This is the principle of “teach one teach all”;
6. Leaders defend village work or project against unfair criticism and help to bring about more favourable attitude toward extension work.

3.3 Type of Relationship that should Exist between Professional Leader (Extension Agent) and Lay Leader

It is important that the kind of relationship that should exist between professional leader (such as the extension agent, facilitator) and the lay leader should be clearly understood if they are to work cooperatively together.

1. The professional leader should work with the lay leader in programmes of change and not for the lay leader or vice versa. The professional leader should therefore not attempt to give the lay leader instruction or orders as if he is a member of his agency.
2. The professional leaders should operate on the basis of helping the lay leader to perform the roles his followers expect of him if the lay leader is to maintain his credibility with his followers.
3. The professional leader should work with the lay leader to the point where he can say “how can I do this job better?” This is an indication that he is ready to be trained in the assignment that will improve his standing and prestige with his followers.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The involvement of extension in leadership quality development will certainly assist both extension and communities to achieve development goals. When there is good quality leadership apparatus in place, programmes for rural development will enjoy the support of all within the rural community. If the extension fails to perform its roles as an agency in leadership development, rural development may be a mirage.

5.0 SUMMARY

In as much as extension is educational in nature, it must ensure that necessary leadership skills are taught so that leaders at the community level are effective in implementing development agenda. In this unit, leadership development has been seen as one of extension's major objectives. Leadership also develops from the opportunities to be in decision making situation and taking an active part in all phases of the programme.

The importances of leadership in extension work are:

- a. new practices are accepted by rural people when and if their leaders adopt them
- b. using local leaders gives the extension agent greater contact with the farmers
- c. programme will enjoy cooperation and less disruption when local leaders are used
- d. leadership reflects a relationship between people and is therefore something that is earned
- e. using the leaders gives the agent a multiplier effect.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the role of extension in leadership quality development.
- ii.
 - a. What are the benefits that can come to leaders from their participation in group activities?
 - b. What are the benefits that come to extension educational programme from leaders' involvement in group activities?
- iii. Discuss the importance of leadership in extension work.

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UNIT 4 SOCIAL SYSTEM WITHOUT A LEADER

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Social System without a Leader
 - 3.2 Characteristics of a Social System
 - 3.3 Elements and Processes of Social System
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Social system comprises of people who interact with one another and are bound together in a characteristic pattern of relationships. This interaction can take place in families, groups, communities and even societies and such interaction and relationships among members of family or group often lead to the attainment of goals of the system. In the absence of leader, social disorder, chaos and confusion result and development efforts in such system will just be a mere waste of time since there is nobody to coordinate the activities of the system. In any social system without a leader everybody is to self, and such system will lack direction in rural development programmes.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain what happens to a social system without a leader
- identify the characteristics of a social system
- discuss the elements and process of the social system.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Social System without a Leader

Word-web online (2010) defines social system as the people in a society considered as a system organised by a characteristic pattern of relationship. A social system may consist of family or group with members, interacting to pursue a common goal. A social system therefore basically consists of two or more individuals interacting

directly or indirectly in a bounded environment. These individuals are oriented to a common focus or inter-related foci. Social systems are open systems, exchanging information with, frequently acting with reference to other systems. Parsons (1966) also define a social system as consisting a plurality of individual actors interacting with each other in a situation which has at least a physical or environmental aspect, actors, who are motivated in terms of a tendency to the optimisation of gratification and whose relations to their situation, including each other, is defined and mediated in terms of a system of culturally structured and shared symbols.

The major units of a social system are said to be collectivities and roles (not individuals); and the major patterns of relationships linking these units are values and norms (i.e. rules governing role performance). However, a situation where a social system operates without a leader can be disastrous because this can lead to social disorder and disorganisation. Dacosta (2010) observes that the absence of a real leader can be felt by those who know the purpose of one. When a leader is not on a project the team members are left to their own discretions. This can be harmful to the success of a project that is meant for rural development. Also according to Mills (2005), without leadership, organisations' activities move too slowly, stagnate and lose their way.

Anomie - Anomie in a social system refers to a condition of instability resulting from a breakdown of standards and values or from a lack of purpose or ideals. This may result from lack of effective leadership.

A social system without a leader is bound to experience the following:

- crisis and conflict among members of the social system
- confusion because of lack of direction from competent and effective leadership
- there will be no meaningful development as nobody is charged with the responsibility of initiating development projects
- even if projects are initiated, there is bound to be problems of implementation as everybody in the social system is a boss. Everybody is a decision maker
- constant break down of law and order leading to social disorganisation.

3.2 Characteristics of Social System

There are two broad characteristics of a social system (William *et al.* 1984):

1. A social system is composed of persons who interact more with members than with non-members when operating to attain objectives of the social system.
2. A social system has patterns of relationships among its members. From these two characteristics, we see that there is an almost unlimited number of social systems. This can be family, a church or mosque, a cooperative society or a village. All of these have more interactions between members than with non-members and there are definite patterns of relationships between the members. Extension agents need to be aware of these social systems and learn how to work effectively with them for optimum rural development.

In a social system, interaction among members is important. This interaction might be called the influence one person has on the actions and thoughts of another. It is also the influence a person has on a group, and the influence of the group on the person. It can be one group's influence on another group. Thus interaction can be between persons, groups, societies and villages. Hence, leadership influences and enhances interaction and without a leader, no influence and no meaningful progress.

3.3 Elements and Processes of Social System

At any given moment in time, a given social system's structure may be described in terms of the following elements.

- **End, goal or objective:** This refers to those changes which members of the system expect to accomplish through appropriate interaction.
- **Facility:** This refers to the means used by the social system to attain its ends or goals.
- **Norms:** This refers to the rules or criteria which prescribe what is acceptable or unacceptable for both individuals and group action in any social system.
- **Status:** This is a collection of responsibilities and rights associated with a certain position in a given society.
- **Role:** This is the expected behaviour associated with each status.
- **Power:** This refers to the capacity to control others.

There are two forms of power

- a. Authority
- b. Influence

Authority is the right as determined by the members of the system to control others.

Influence is the control over others which is not built into the authority component of the status role, but results from the willingness of the subordinate to become involved by the super-ordinate. Example is the head or leader of the farmer's club at the local level who only influence the members toward the goal of the club.

- **Sanction:** This refers to the rewards and penalties meted out by the members of a social system as a device for inducing conformity to its norms and goals.
- **Belief:** This refers to any cognitive proposition about any aspect of the universe that is accepted as true.
- **Sentiment:** This refers to expressed feelings about the world, irrespective of the cause of the feeling.

Processes of social system include:

- **Communication:** This refers to the process by which information, decisions and directives are transmitted among actors and the ways in which knowledge, opinions and attitudes are formed or modified by interaction.
- **Boundary maintenance:** This refers to the process by which the identity of the social system is preserved and the characteristic interaction pattern is maintained.
- **Systematic linkage:** This refers to the process whereby one or more of the elements of at least two social systems is articulated in such a manner that the two social systems in some ways may be viewed as a single unit.
- **Institutionalisation:** This refers to the process through which organisations are given structure and social action and interaction are made predictable.
- **Socialisation:** This refers to the process through which the social and cultural heritage is transmitted to the individual in the process of growing up.
- **Social control:** This refers to the process by which deviance is either eliminated or made compatible with the functioning of the social groups.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In every social system, people interact among themselves and the leaders provide direction in the social system. Extension professionals should have the knowledge that there are various social systems within the rural communities and absence of leaders will lead to a disorganised society. Extension agents must emphasise the need for effective leadership in the rural community to avoid confusion and crisis.

5.0 SUMMARY

The experience of a social system without a leader include crisis and conflict, confusion because of lack of direction, retarded development, problem of programme implementation and constant breakdown of law and order within the social system.

The two broad characteristics of a social system are:

- a. A social system comprises of persons who interact
- b. A social system has pattern of relationship among members.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i.
 - a. Define social system.
 - b. What are the experiences of a social system without a leader?
- ii. Discuss the two major characteristics of a social system.
- iii. Explain the element and processes of social system.

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MODULE 3 PATTERN OF INFLUENCE

Unit 1	Social Power
Unit 2	Influence of Culture
Unit 3	Theories of Power Structure
Unit 4	Forms of Social Power
Unit 5	Determination and Assessment of Power Structure

UNIT 1 SOCIAL POWER

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	The Meaning of Social Power
3.2	Leaders' Bases of Power and Influence
3.2.1	Bases of Influence
3.3	Excesses of Legitimate Power
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Group formation and being part of one group or the other is often No group or society can function effectively without a leadership structure that is both functioning and progressive in order to achieved tangible goals. This means that leadership provides guides and direction for people in the society to achieve meaningful development. This involves the use of power, for without power leadership may not be able to exert control and influence over the people or group it leads. In essence, leadership is associated with power and a good knowledge of this will help the professional extension agent how to work with people in the rural area with maximum success.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the meaning of social power
- discuss leaders' bases of power and influence
- state the excesses of legitimate power.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Meaning of Social Power

Power is about being able to realise wishes; to produce the effects you want to produce (Domhoff, 2005). It is one of the basic dimensions of all human experience, whether at the interpersonal, group or societal level. This means power is basic and fundamental to human co-existence in the society. Russell (1938) defined power as the ability to produce intended effects. This definition allows for two kinds of power noted by social scientists, collective power and distributive power.

Collective power concerns the capacity of a group to realise its common goals, it is the combination of organisation, cooperation, morale, and technology that allows one group to grow and prosper while another fails. This is what makes possible the existence of distributive power: if the group did not have the collective power to grow and produce, there would not be anything worth fighting over. Distributive power then is about who has power over who and what. From the perspective of distributive power there is domination – egalitarianism dimension that is potentially present in all human interactions and social structures, with dominators at one end and egalitarians at the other. Dominators think that there are inherent inequalities among individuals and groups that justifiably lead to extreme hierarchy and social stratification.

Meanwhile, according to Atlee and Atlee (2008) social power is the ability to influence others so as to further our own interest or desires. It is also the ability to resist the activities of others. Social power therefore is the basic, common element in politics, economics and all other social relationships. It is possessed by all individuals and social groups and arises out of their connections to each other.

Horton in Chitambar (1973) defined social power as the ability to control the actions of others or the degree to which an individual can influence or control the actions of others. From the various definitions, social power has two components: authority and influence. Influence is the ability to effect decisions and actions of others beyond any authority to do so. While authority is referred to as legitimate power and is derived from the position held by the individual or group in society, which contains the right to order and control the actions of others.

The terms formal power and informal power can also be used to describe these two aspects of power. Authority is the formal power which rests on rank or office vested on an individual, and informal power referring to influence which has no coercive or authoritative

connotations. On the one hand, an individual must act according to social requirements to obey laws e.g. laws that regulate the conduct of members of a cooperative society in the community. On the other, an individual subjected to persuasion may or may not act as advised by the person attempting to persuade. Thus, the head of a village council may be vested with authority in certain respects over members of the village council and other members of the village by virtue of the authority formally vested on him as the head of the council. At the same time, he may also wield some influence over individuals informally because of this role in matters outside of the formal limits of his jurisdiction.

3.2 Leaders' Bases of Power and Influence

That leadership involves the ability to influence, direct or control others means that leadership involves the use of power (Ekong, 2003). The leader must have a recognised power the source of which may be within or outside the group. When this power is from the group this is spontaneously accorded him by his followers whereas where the source of power is located externally there may be some elements of coercion. Power is therefore seen as the ability to execute one's will irrespective of opposition.

There are five bases of power of a group leader as identified by Cartwright and Zander (1960). These include:

- a. **Reward power:** The followers' belief that they will be rewarded in some way for complying. In this instance power is exercised effectively whenever one party can grant or withhold what another party needs but cannot get elsewhere. This is illustrated in the power play between a skilled artisan and the apprentices under him.
- b. **Coercive power:** This arises from the belief that non-compliance will result in punishment. Power exercised in the military leadership comes under this classification.
- c. **Expert power:** This is a situation when a person is evaluated to have needed knowledge, information or skill which cannot be obtained readily elsewhere, that person holds experts power over the group. The rain doctor, the diviner and other local experts claim this source of power.
- d. **Referent power:** This is the power that a leader has as a result of his having qualities which the group members like, admire and want to identify with. They submit to him because they identify with him. Charismatic leaders tend to wield this kind of power.
- e. **Legitimate power:** This power derives from the office or official position which the individual occupies and which gives him the right to control others and equally compels others to

comply. The tax collector and the police all have legitimate power to do their work.

3.2.1 Bases of Influence

There are six bases of influence as identified by Moss (1970):

- a. **Official position:** This may be elected, appointed or earned office within the political structure. The village headship is an official position for instance. It usually grants the incumbent a certain minimum of functions and responsibilities which enable him to become involved in and affect the outcomes of community issues more readily than other actors in the community's political structure. It provides access to knowledge and information, popularity, friendship, development skills, the expectation of activity and the legitimation of attempts to exercise influence by others.
- b. **Financial control:** Economic base such as control over money, credits, jobs and other resources or essential services is a recognised strong basis of influence. People who are rich may also enhance their influence within the community by donating generously to community programmes. In most parts of Nigeria today, they may even purchase traditional titles thereby warming themselves up into the power structure of the community. When these types of people have featured repeatedly in community issues, they may later be regarded as being indispensable.
- c. **Organisational influence:** This derives from one's ability or potential ability to mobilise and organise others into active groups. It also derives from participation in organisations and perhaps holding positions within such organisations. Most community issues are crystallised in voluntary formal organisations hence people who are active in such organisations are bound to wield considerable influence within the community.
- d. **Knowledge or expertness:** This may be related to official position but it involves the possession of particular knowledge or skills above others in the group. The Diviner's status and prestige for instance, are based on his ability to see what others cannot see.
- e. **Interpersonal contacts:** This includes access to and interaction with other persons both inside and outside the community. The individual who has many friends and contacts within the community is likely to be more informed, knowledgeable and influential than others. Community members may look up to him to link them up with these external agencies and personalities from whom they can obtain the needed resources with which to attain their objectives.

- f. **Personal characteristics:** This includes attributes like appealing personally, popularity, esteem charisma, ability to persuade others, eloquence, honesty, congeniality, etc. These attributes by themselves may not form a solid base for influencing others. To be effective, they must go hand in hand with the possession of a combination of the other bases of influence discussed above.

3.3 Excesses of Legitimate Power

In various societies of the world, the legitimate power of individuals is a position of authority that is power within prescribed bounds of authority is often exceeded. Such influence or power in excess of legitimate power is referred to as non-legitimate power. Some of the more common devices whereby individuals exceed or go beyond their legitimate power consciously according to Chitambar (1973) are as follows:

1. **Intimidation:** Power is achieved by threat, which may take forms such as exposure of information, or subtle withholding of privileges. A clerk may hold up the application of a farmer for a cash loan until some reward or gratification is given him. Blackmail is another terrible form of intimidation.
2. **Manipulation:** This is a situation whereby efforts are made to cause an individual to favourably identify with the interests and intentions of the manipulator. Some of the techniques of manipulators are propaganda, withholding part of the truth in reporting, and other persuasive methods commonly used in advertising and in an election campaign. The facts are manipulated and only what can be exploited for the use and benefit of the manipulator is presented. For example, an agricultural officer may strongly recommend a particular type of insecticide as the most effective and beneficial to farmers, while the vigorous effort to induce its adoption presumably serve the best interest of farmers for increased crop production, when his actual interest may be the personal gain from commission payments made to him by the insecticide firm for his efforts.
3. **Suggestion:** The prestige given to certain individuals is a special form of manipulation, and is commonly used, either intentionally or unintentionally as a source of power. Persons who have prestige are frequently directly responsible for influencing the behaviour of others both within the areas of their prestige and outside of it. Thus, a practitioner of indigenous medicine who has acquired status and prestige because of his effective behaviour may influence the behaviour of a farmer both in respect to matters concerning his health and also his farming practice

(even though this is outside the practitioner's experience) merely because he is a prestigious person.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The capacity to influence or resist action on issues that border on rural development is what social power is all about from our own perspective. People with some forms or types of power such as reward power, coercive or expert power exercise control over others in order to enforce compliance. Also, people with some level of influence such as official position, financial control and so on can successfully influence other people.

5.0 SUMMARY

Social power has been seen as the ability to control the actions of others and that it has two components:

- a). authority
- b). influence.

There are five bases of power which are:

- a. Reward power
- b. Coercive power
- c. Expert power
- d. Referent power
- e. Legitimate power

Also six bases of influence have been discussed which are:

- a. Official position
- b. Financial control
- c. Organisational influence
- d. Knowledge or expertness
- e. Interpersonal contacts and
- f. Personal characteristics

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Explain the concept of social power with relevant examples.
- ii.
 - a. Describe the bases of power of a leader.
 - b. Describe the bases of influence of a leader

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UNIT 2 INFLUENCE OF CULTURE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Concept of Culture and its Relationship with Social System
 - 3.2 Influence of Culture
 - 3.3 Importance of Culture in Social System
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Culture is an important aspect of the discussion on leadership and social power. Every society has its own culture upon which roles and responsibilities of people are determined. Social power exercised by the leadership within a social system is determined by culture. This is because beliefs, values, norms are different from one society to the other. Culture influences behaviour and the kind of interaction in the society among members, thus the importance of culture cannot be over emphasised.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of culture and its relationship with social system
- explain the influence of culture
- discuss the importance of culture in social system.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Concept of Culture and its Relationship with Social System

Culture means the totality of way of life of people, group or society. Culture is the conventional behaviour of a society that encompasses beliefs, customs, knowledge and practices (www.nwlink.com/donclark/leader/leadob.html). Britannica concise

encyclopedia (2010) sees culture as an integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief and behaviour that are both a result of, and integral to the human capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations. Culture thus consists of language, ideas, beliefs, customs, taboos, codes, institutions, tools, techniques, works of art, rituals, ceremonies, and symbols. It influences human behaviour, even though it seldom enters into their consciousness. People depend on culture as it gives them stability, security, understanding, and the ability to respond to a given situation. This is why people fear change. They fear the system will become unstable, their security will be lost, they will not understand the new process, and they will not know how to respond to the new situations. Culture influence the way people interact among themselves in a social system.

Hence, a social system is a complex set of human relationships interacting in many ways. Within an organisation, the social system includes all the people in it and their relationships to each other and to the outside world. The behaviour of one member can have an impact, either directly or indirectly, on the behaviour of others. Also, the social system does not have boundaries. It exchanges goods, ideas, culture and other things with the environment around it.

3.2 Influence of Culture

According to Chitambar (1973), both legitimate and non-legitimate power interact in society to either strengthen or weaken the position of those in power. The limits of power are culturally defined in accordance with the prescribed roles accepted in society. These roles, role expectation and norms of behaviour will vary from culture to culture; hence, power also will vary. The role of wife, for instance, may include more authority in decision making in a western culture, hence she tends to wield more power. This is however different from other cultures especially in African culture where the power for decision making rests on husband. In Nigeria, among the Yoruba, the roles of wife include taking care of home and children. The power for decision making rests on her husband who only expects the wife to cooperate with him in the running of the family affairs.

Roles and role expectations involving norms of social behaviour are culturally defined and carry with them rights, privileges and power to varying extents and within prescribed limits. Variation in patterns of influence from culture to culture are normal and to be expected.

Power also usually operates indirectly in a society and with effectiveness through various established components of the social structure, such as institutions and organisations, and forms its own

pattern. Co-existing with this formal power structure are the informal groups and individuals who may exert powerful influence on decisions and action implemented through formal channels. Thus members of a school board meet formally to vote on decisions thoroughly discussed informally with other individuals and groups who have influenced thinking and action. According to Bruntland (2003) culture powerfully influences thoughts, emotions and behaviours. Culture is an important part of our blueprint for operation within our physical and social worlds. We are living in an insecure environment, but culture offers us a reduction of anxiety through its standard rules of thought, emotion and behaviour. It offers predictability in an often unpredictable world. Our culture is a mindset that we developed right from childhood socialisation. The structural integrity, coherency and stability of our personalities are rooted in our culture.

Culture also influences how we learn and how we teach. Teaching within one's own culture is an activity where social and cultural contexts and the existence of different thinking, learning and instructional styles interact in a very complex fashion. The classroom is a complex socio-cultural environment even when working within our own culture. This is also true about the field of farmers where learning takes place. The professional extension agent should take note of this; that culture will influence how farmers learn and how he teaches new methods of doing things. Culture and sub-culture affect the attitude, assumptions, expectations, style and performance of both instructors and students or farmers. Culture also influences norms of verbal and non-verbal interaction within the classroom. In other words, sub cultural and socioeconomic differences can create different classroom interaction patterns. A society's educational processes normally display a vast array of thinking styles, learning styles, teaching styles and styles of learning environment. Culture can contribute to making certain styles more prominent than others.

3.3 Importance of Culture in Social System

The cultural values of a community give it an identity of its own (Oak, 2009). A community gains a character and a personality of its own, because of the culture of its people. Culture is shared by the members of a community. It is learned and passed from one generation to the other. For an effective transfer of culture from one generation to another, it has to be translated into symbols. Language, art and religion serve as the symbolic means of transfer of cultural values between generations.

Culture is a bond that ties the people of a region or community together. It is that one common bond, which brings the people of a community together. The customs and traditions that the people of a community follow, the festivals they celebrate, the kind of clothing they wear, the food they eat, and most importantly the cultural values they adhere to, bind them together.

Culture is seen as a system of social control, wherein people shape their standards and behaviour. The cultural values form the founding principles of one's life. They influence one's principles and philosophies of life. They influence one's way of living and thus impact social life. Culture is also a link between people and their value system.

Culture also played a crucial role in human evolution, allowing human beings to adapt the environment to their own purposes rather than depend solely on natural selection to achieve adaptive success (Britannica Concise Encyclopedia, 2010). Every society has its own particular culture or socio-cultural system. Variation among cultures is attributable to such factors as differing physical habitats and resources; the range of possibilities inherent in areas such as language, ritual, and social organisation; and historical phenomena such as the development of links with other cultures. An individual's attitudes, values, ideals and beliefs are greatly influenced by the culture in which he or she lives.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The diversity of culture has provided insight into how culture can influence power structure from one society to the other. Every society has its own culture and this determines the beliefs, values and behaviour of people in such society or community. The power and roles of members is limited by culture. There is a subculture within and anybody willing to bring change to the rural communities must be aware of this so as to effect change without necessarily contradicting the culture of people where he works.

5.0 SUMMARY

Culture is the way of life of people; that is their beliefs, custom, knowledge and practices of society. Culture influences:

- a. power for decision making
- b. roles and role expectation involving norms of social behaviour
- c. thought, emotion and behaviour
- d. how we learn and how we teach.

The importance of culture are:

- a. it helps a community gain character and personality of its own
- b. culture is a bond that ties people of a community together
- c. culture is seen as a system of social control wherein people shape their standards and behaviour.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Describe how culture serves as pattern of influence in a village setting.
- ii. Explain the importance of culture to a social system.

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UNIT 3 THEORIES OF POWER STRUCTURE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Power Structure
 - 3.2 Theories of Power Structure
 - 3.3 Importance of Power
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In social system, with different categories of people and groups, power is expressed in different ways and in different forms to determine who makes the decisions and for whom. The power structure in social situation is based upon the leadership style prevalent in the society.

There are different organisations and groups in the society and each determines who rules or makes decision for them. Also these groups may exercise control or power over each other in order to get their needs met.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe power structure
- explain the theories of power structure
- discuss the importance of power.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Power Structure

A power structure is a system to decide who can decide, and for how long their decision stands, and who can be forced to comply with their decision (Wikipedia Encyclopedia).

In democracy, this is done by educating people on the issues and then voting in an election to choose leaders, or a referendum to actually choose one option from several options. Competing power networks form political parties and offer only one leader or one option to the public, to simplify the issues to make decisions possible. After the decision, they do not fight it to the point of civil war, but wait for the next election.

In dictatorship this is done by asking one powerful person to make the decision and then agreeing to force everyone to follow it. Anyone who will not agree are exiled, imprisoned, or killed, even if the decision is not very important, since the refusal to follow is taken as a challenge to the power structure itself. There is only one power network and all others are forced to be obeyed or fight it. Civil war is much more common in a dictatorship than in a democracy.

3.2 Theories of Power Structure

According to Chitambar (1973), increasing attention and emphasis is being placed on the concept of power structure in the study of human behaviour in both urban and rural contexts, and three basic theories of power structure have been presented.

1. **Elitist theory:** This theory was expounded by Mills (1956). According to him, definitive power is held by a small controlling group of individuals, called elite, who exercise control over the established institutions. Membership among the elites consists of individuals who exert influence in various walks of life and who share such influence with others to effect definitive control over society. The power elite then consist of a coalition of influential individuals that together holds the power to control the affairs of a community or nation. Members of the 'power elite' usually are residents having status and wealth, from various walks of life such as business, industry and prominent professions, with membership in many organisations, religious, political, public, media and communication services.
2. **Mass theories of community power:** These posit a common core and hold that in mass society there can be few leaders. The potential power of the masses gravitates through abdication of leadership by the masses to a small interested group of people who are desirous of exercising control over the masses. The difference between this position and that of elitist is in the assumption of the powerlessness of the masses by the former because of the nature of mass society. This situation is like self imposed leadership without the consent of the masses. In the

case of mass theories of community power, the power elite, by careful design, usurp power to secure control over society.

3. **Pluralistic theories:** Pluralistic theories of social power structure describe contemporary community and national power as being dispersed in society among a large number of small groups, each holding power over each other and over society. Thus, labour unions use various influencing devices such as strikes to exert influence over employers and to gain advantages. Management, on the other hand, also has power and can exert influence through lobbying, the press and in various other ways to counteract or limit the power expressed by labour unions. The press can be a powerful influencing group to control actions of other groups and individuals. Farmer's organisations that are sufficiently organised, form important power groups that can pressure political groups. The pluralistic theories thus hold that the power structure is fragmented among power groups which have countervailing power over each other and society.

3.3 Importance of Power

Power is mainly one of the essential components of practically every organisation (Ogunbameru, 2004). Power according to Bierstedt (1950) is required to inaugurate an association in the first place, to guarantee its contrivance and to enforce its horns. Without power, there is no organisation and no order.

Power is important because it is necessary for coordinated human activity. When power is not effectively exercised chaos results, and chaos is not acceptable for two reasons:

- a. Persons become upset and insecure in the presence of chaos and
- b. Chaos precludes the synergistic benefits that are gained from effective organisations. Power thus provides a refuge from chaos.

Having considered the importance of power, it is equally important to consider the general attitudes toward power.

Power is generally viewed from three angles: evil, obscured and natural.

1. Power is evil

"Power corrupts and absolute power corrupt absolutely". This statement by Lord Acton shows that power holders should be looked at as potential enemies and usurpers of the rights of people. Power is at times seen as taking away the rights or property of persons and therefore it is evil.

2. **Power is obscured**

There is the tendency to always obscure power because it is evil. Because of power's bad connotation, a person seldom says he wants power. Rather he says he wants challenge, the opportunity to serve, or wants to do something important, among others.

3. **Power is natural**

In the contemporary world, there is the idea that power is a natural necessary feature of organisations. That is power is seen as neither good nor bad but as elemental. In fact, the benefit of modern civilisation could not be achieved without the visible exercise of power in some way.

4.0 **CONCLUSION**

Every society decides who should lead and for how long. Some communities are ruled by a small influential group of people and such hold the power to control the affairs of the community. In another instance, by design try to usurp power to secure control over society. Extension agent need to study his environment well and then understand the power structure being operated. This will enable him to know important power brokers in the community to contact in times of serious decision making for rural development.

5.0 **SUMMARY**

Basically, this discussion considers three theories of power structure.

- a. Elitist theory
- b. Mass theories of community power and
- c. Pluralistic theories.

The importance of power were also mentioned as:

- a. power is required to establish an association
- b. power is necessary for coordinated human activity
- c. power prevents chaos and disorderliness.

The importances of leadership in extension work are:

- a. new practices are accepted by rural people when and if their leaders adopt them

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the three basic theories of power structure and the position each represents.
- ii. Why is power important in organisations or rural societies?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 FORMS OF SOCIAL POWER

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Forms of Social Power
 - 3.2 Four Power Indicators
 - 3.3 Basic Axioms about Power
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Power has been defined as the ability to influence others and affect their behaviours. The fact that people occupy leadership position in group or at community level is an indication that power must be exercised in order to achieve results. Power is therefore expressed in different forms in the society. This means that power may be gained through the social status one attains in the society or through position one occupies.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the forms of social power in society
- mention four power indicators
- explain basic axioms about power.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Forms of Social Power

The forms in which power expresses itself in society are varied. They may be in the form of a small group of unorganised masses or of law. Some of these forms of power according to Chitambar (1973) are discussed below.

1. **The Elite:** Membership in this powerful group may rest on several bases that make for prestige, status and consequent influence over individuals and groups in society. Wealth brings with it power, for instance, and society may be controlled by a

few of the wealthiest individuals who make up the wealthy elite. Strategic position held by an individual also may be a source of power in society and such individuals who are executives in society and carry strategic influence and power form the executive elite. In addition, the elite in society may consist of those who are considered as community influential by members of the community. The method utilised by sociologists to identify influential is to ask a group of people who are well informed about a community to list those whom they consider influential in the community. Further questioning of those listed serves to narrow the list. The final list will include those considered most influential in a community by the members of that community. The controlling group in society called the elite may then include the wealthiest, those with highest executive positions of influence in various walks of life and those considered influential in the community.

2. **Organisational power:** Organisations that are well recognised and have wide support may wield considerable influence in society. Sources of organisational power are numerous and include the wealth, the membership of the organisation and the composition of the membership. An organisation with membership including a cross-section of people from various occupations will wield considerably more power and influence in society than one that is more restricted in its membership. Further, organisations which represent an important sector in society such as farmers, industrialists, doctors, students, teachers or any section of population considered important in society can wield correspondingly important influence and power in society.

Organisations may use specialised facilities, such as contacts with government officials and lobbying, to increase their influence. They may use various communication media, such as radio, television, internet services, mobile phone and printed material, for the same purpose. The major source of organisational power exists in the ability to enable many people to take planned, concerted action to affect decisions on social issues.

Some of the factors that affect the power of organisations are: the size in physical number and degree of representation of society as a whole and/or of sections of society considered significant are important factors. A large membership is not always effective but does give an organisation a great power potential. In addition, group solidarity and cohesiveness make a group effective as an influencing unit; loosely structured organisations are comparatively ineffective. Small cohesive organisations, consisting of members bound together in their

united interests and desire for influential action on specific issues are of greater influence and possess relatively more power than large, loosely structured organisations which include members with a wide variety of views.

Another limit on the power of an organisation is the members' image of the area of activities, the frame of reference and kind of activities of their organisation; the perceived role keeps the power of the organisation within the boundaries of its frame of reference. An organisation therefore is ineffectual in influencing behaviour and exercising power in areas of life outside of its perceived limits. Professional organisations of doctors, scientists and teachers may thus exert considerable influence in technical and academic matters, but have little or no power over the way in which individuals vote in national elections.

Alliances between organisations may prove effective. Such alliances result from a common interest which is served with greater effectiveness and speed because of the increased influence and power through alliance. At times, organisations tend to react negatively to other organisations, opposing them, rather than cooperating with them. Exercise of considerable power by one organised group gives rise to an opposing organised group or groups so as to prevent any one group from gaining complete control. In some cases the government may intervene to prevent an organisation from securing complete control and power in an area of activity.

3. **Power of unorganised masses:** Another form of social power exists among unorganised masses, although much of their considerable power is frequently unused. While an individual may be comparatively powerless by himself in mass society, he can be collectively decisive. Mass power may express itself through various ways in society. First, the masses exert tremendous influence in providing markets for various goods and services. Secondly, masses may exert negative influence through non-cooperation and non-participation. Thirdly, tremendous power can be expressed by masses in the political sphere in a democracy where adult franchise allows each member a vote; political parties often compete intensely to gain the votes of the masses which may swing the election results in one direction or another.
4. **Law:** Law is the form of power that is socially accepted and has been legitimised. It represents the formal organised structure in society that lays down socially acceptable rules and regulations of behaviour rights and privileges; it includes mechanisms for implementation and enforcement, together with protection of

individuals and groups and punishment of violators. The law serves to structure power relationships in society and legitimises the use of force by certain groups in society such as force by the police for specific ends.

Other forms of social power identified by Atlee and Atlee (2008) are:

1. Economic power

- Industrial or productive power to control production, resources and labour.
- Financial power to buy or control things with money.
- Market power to influence consumption, production, prices, wages or other market conditions.

2. Governmental power

- Legislative power to make the rules governing the acquisition, distribution and use of social power.
- Police power to enforce laws or the interest of power groups.
- Judicial power to make judgments about the use and balance of social power.
- Bureaucratic power to enable or resist the implementation of policies.

3. Physical power

- Physical force, violence and the threat of violence to coerce the behaviour of others.

4. Political power

- Organisational power to coordinate the actions of many people.
- Propaganda power to influence public opinion and experience of reality.

5. Media power

- Media power to influence or control information and communication and people's ability to give and receive them.

6. Knowledge power

- Knowledge to comprehend circumstances, to predict and plan, and to create effects, particularly by knowing how to use other forms of power.

7. Personal power

- Leadership to motivate and coordinate other people.
- Persuasion to mobilise people's awareness and opinion.
- Energy and initiative to begin and carry out activities.
- Intelligence to comprehend issues and solve problems.

- Technical skills to manipulate physical resources and barriers.
 - Love to encourage people to drop their defences, to respond and grow.
 - Integrity to inspire reciprocal honesty, loyalty and support.
 - Ambition to motivate the accumulation and use of social power.
 - Inspirational ability to motivate people and bring out their best.
- 8. Situational power**
- Security to give bargaining power and freedom to maneuver.
 - Advantageous position from which to use other forms of power.
 - Invisibility and secrecy to limit others' ability to interfere.
- 9. Cultural and institutional power**
- Social institutions and traditions define the context in which power is exercised.
 - Public opinion constitutes the extent of popular support or opposition.

3.2 Four Power Indicators

The four power indicators according to Domhoff (2005) are:

1. Who benefits in terms of having the things that are valued in the society?

In every society there are experiences and material objects that are highly valued. If it is assumed that everyone in the society would like to have as great a share as possible of these experiences and objects, then those who have the most of what people want are, by inference, the powerful. For instance, the political elites in the rural areas who do not have farms may use their influence to buy fertilisers meant for practicing farmers and later resell to practicing farmers at higher price.

2. Who governs (sits in the seats that are considered to be powerful)?

Power also can be inferred from studies of who occupies important institutional positions or takes part in important decision-making groups. If a group or class is highly over-represented or under-represented in relation to its proportion of the population, it can be inferred that the group is relatively powerful or powerless, as the case may be. For example, when it is found that women are in only a small percentage of the leadership positions in business and government, even though

they make up a majority of the population, it can be inferred that they are relatively powerless in these areas.

3. Who wins when there are arguments over issues?

There are many issues over which groups or classes disagree. There are many problems confronting rural areas ranging from poor roads, bad health facilities, poor educational facilities, inadequate storage and processing facilities for agricultural products.

Power can be inferred from these issues which fuel conflicts by determining who successfully initiates, modifies, and vetoes policy alternatives.

4. Who stands out or has a reputation for power?

This is derived from a person or group's reputation for being powerful, as determined by a series of interviews.

3.3 Basic Axioms about Power

Domhoff (2005) discussed them as follows:

- a. First, we know that power corrupts, and absolute power corrupts absolutely. It tells us what we see so often, that the powerful over reach, make mistakes, and often destroy themselves. The arrogance of power is another expression for this basic idea. The fact that power corrupts means that power congeals. People and organisation try to hold on to it at all costs. Once there is a power structure, it is very hard to change it or dislodge it. It is very rare to see person who does not cling to power.
- b. The second basic axiom concerning power is that the powerful always try to create an outside enemy, real or imagined to bind the followers to the leaders.
- c. The third basic axiom is - divide and conquer. If the followers are not faithfully bound to the leader by the dread of the outside enemy, then leaders can stay in power by favouring some followers and punishing others. A large group of followers is usually at a disadvantage because it is so hard for them to become organised, but the principle of divide and conquer makes it even more difficult.
- d. Fourth, axiom is - provide the followers with bread and circuses. There is a mundane version of this axiom that fits with sociological findings: make everyday life possible. If everyday life is possible, then people are less likely to try to challenge a power structure. Then add a little something new every now and then, the circuses, and the rulers are all set.
- e. Fifth, it is important to know that the powerful believe that the enemy of their enemy is their friend. This is the power version of the idea that "politics make for strange bedfellows." Only by

understanding this axiom is it possible to realise that there is a rationale to the constantly shifting alliances that occur in human power struggles at any level from the personal to the international.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, it has been revealed that power is expressed in varied forms and power is central to the administration of society. People or groups struggle for power base on position or influence they have in the society.

5.0 SUMMARY

Forms of social power discussed in this unit include:

- a. the elite
- b. organisational power
- c. power of unorganised masses
- d. law.

Four power indicators include:

- a. Who benefits?
- b. Who governs?
- c. Who wins?
- d. Who stands out?

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Outline and discuss major forms of social power.
- ii. Briefly explain the four power indicators with relevant examples.
- iii. What are the basic axioms about power?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 DETERMINATION AND ASSESSMENT OF POWER STRUCTURE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Approaches to the Study of Power Structure
 - 3.2 Common Errors of Approaches to the Power Structure
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit will help you as a student to equip yourself with the tools necessary for understanding, effective analysis and determination of the power structure including leadership which together form the patterns of influence that exist in a rural society. The patterns of influence in society form a network, linking such individuals and groups significant in decision making. These individuals and groups together form the power structure of a society.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the approaches to the study of power structure
- explain the common errors of approaches to the study of power structure.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Approaches to the Study of Power Structure

According to Chitambar (1973) these include:

- A. The positional approach:** This is based on the assumption that an individual power is closely correlated with the official or semi-official position that he holds in society. The individuals who occupy positions of power or potential power are considered to constitute the power structure in the community. The positions which are considered as having potential power are defined. The

disadvantages of such a method emerge from the basic assumption of the correlation of power with position and the consequent disregard for those who do not occupy such positions. The positional approach is seldom if ever used by itself in studies of community power and is used along with other approaches.

- B. The reputational approach:** This approach is one that has been most widely employed in studies of community power structure. Using this approach, the power structure is determined by questioning knowledgeable members of the community who serve as “judges” to select from lists of potential candidates those whom in their opinion have influence in the community. Those most frequently selected on the basis of specified criteria are considered to constitute the power structure in the community.
- C. The decision making or issue – analysis approach.** This focuses on the decision making process in the community and its analysis. Decision making is considered the nucleus from which may be determined the power structure of the community. The object of study is the actual way in which decisions are made and carried out, specifically by whom and to what extent. Membership in the decision making group is by itself not to be equated with power, rather the actual participation of each member in making decisions. The approach presents some serious difficulties in application. Its complex nature, the consequent need to limit the range and number of issues (for decision making) studied, exclusion of the researcher from private discussion concerning power and the determination of criteria on the basis of which decisions are to be selected for examination, are among the difficulties encountered.

3.2 Common Errors of Approaches to the Study of Power Structure

1. All who officially participate in decision do in fact necessarily influence it. There are hidden influences and pressures and those in positions of power are sometimes no more than figureheads who promulgate decisions made by someone behind the scene, sometimes commonly described as the power behind the throne.
2. The extent of a person’s power is often considered to include areas actually outside of his jurisdiction. The word “powerful” is thus frequently over extended and a person who has power in certain areas does not necessarily have it in other areas of life. Although an individual may exercise power in more than one area of life, this is not always necessarily the case. A progressive farmer may have influence with a government agricultural officer which enables him to secure top priority subsidies and

- concessions for his farm, but he may lack the power necessary to be elected as a member of the local government.
3. Degrees of power vary among power holders in a community and distinction among these varying degrees of power must always be recognised. Candidates who are defeated in local or village elections are not thereafter rendered powerless. The power may be less in degree than those who have won, but it must be recognised that they nonetheless still have some degree of power.
 4. Evidence of past and present power structure does not necessarily predict the future structure of power in a community. The tendency may be toward continuity but forces of change may easily intervene.
 5. A power holder does not necessarily hold his position by his own intent or efforts. Forces of circumstance and various pressures may thrust upon him his position of power. To assume he holds a position of power because he has actively sought it is erroneous.
 6. Those who seek power may do so for reasons that are self-serving as well as altruistic, conscious as well as unconscious. The motivations of power seekers are not always clearly and correctly defined, interpreted or recognised even by power seekers themselves. To determine and define the motivating forces that impel an individual to seek power is by no means easy. It must however be recognized by the researcher that there exist a diversity of motivation and consciousness in varying degrees.

Research in community power structure studies conducted by American sociologists indicate that individuals who hold influence and power do exist in most communities, and operate as a primary friendship clique, and that power is concentrated in the hands of a few persons. Studies of the personal characteristics of power-holders indicate that they often are top executives or owners of large commercial or industrial firms, are of high social status and well-known and respected in their communities.

Power holders and individuals of high status usually have been found to have contacts and friendships scattered over a large area extending beyond the bounds of the local community. Power holders have relationships with individuals, groups and organisations outside of the local community through participation in outside organisations, outside travel, outside newspapers and other media that enable them to maintain contacts and orientations both within and outside of the local community. The term cosmopolitan is used to refer to those individuals who have such outside orientation. Those whose orientation is mainly within the local community are called locals..

4.0 CONCLUSION

For a community to remain peaceful, orderly and to bring development, the subject power is brought to the forefront. The power structure of a community is considered to be related to the positions individuals occupy in the community. It can also be determined by questioning knowledgeable members of the community on their opinion of who they considered influential in the community.

5.0 SUMMARY

The approaches to the study of power structure include the positional approach, the reputational approach and the decision making or issue analysis approach.

Some of the common errors of the approaches to the study of power structures are: the extent of a person's power is often considered to include area actually outside of his jurisdiction, degrees of power vary among power holders in a community and distinction among these varying degrees of power must always be recognised, and evidence of past and present power structure does not necessarily predict the future structure of power in a community.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the approaches to the study of power structure and how would you relate them to your local area.
- ii. Explain the common errors of the approaches to the study of power structure.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Chitambar, J. B. (1973). *Introductory Rural Sociology: A Synopsis of Concepts and Principles*. New Delhi: Wiley Eastern Limited.

MODULE 4 TRAINING OF LEADERS FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Unit 1	Concepts and Principles of Rural Development
Unit 2	Identification and Evaluation of Leaders
Unit 3	Problem of Rural Development
Unit 4	Strategies of Rural Development

UNIT 1 CONCEPTS AND PRINCIPLES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Concepts of Rural Development
3.2	Principles of Rural Development
3.3	Rural Occupations in Nigeria
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Rural development demands attention if the living condition of people is to improve particularly in the rural areas. The understanding of rural development as a concept and its principles will afford the extension agent the opportunity to collaborate with other stakeholders in order to come up with all encompassing development agenda for the rural people. Also this unit will be an eye opener to the fact that developing rural areas is developing the urban areas as they are interconnected. In other words, the neglect of one will definitely affect the other.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the concept of rural development
- state the principles of rural development
- outline an overview of rural occupations in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Concepts of Rural Development

The concept of rural development in Nigeria lacks a unified definition as different scholars tend to view it from varying perspective (Ogidefa, 2010). But understanding of the concept of development will give a clearer picture of rural development. Ladele (2005) defines development as a continuous process of generating and efficiently allocating resources for achieving greater socially satisfying needs. This shows that national development should not be left to chance but should be marshalled through concerted and planned efforts guided by policies, plans and strategies. Umebali (2006) sees change as multi-dimensional involving changes in structures, attitude and institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth; the reduction of inequality and eradication of absolute poverty. He asserts that development involves economic growth, equality or social justice, and socio-economic transformation which are all on a self sustaining basis. Simon (2004) sees development as an improvement in quality of life (not just material standard of living) in both quantitative and qualitative terms. He opines that development must be seen as actually and temporally relative, needing to be appropriate to time, space, society, and culture.

Obinne as cited by Ogidefa (2010) perceived rural development to involve creating and widening opportunities for (rural) individuals to realise full potentials through education and share in decision and action which affect their lives. He views efforts to increase rural output and create employment opportunities and root out fundamental (or extreme) cases of poverty, diseases and ignorance. Mumm von Mallinckrodt in Ekong (2003) defines rural development as a process by which a set of technical, social, cultural and institutional measures are implemented with and for the inhabitants of rural areas with the aim of improving their socio-economic conditions in order to achieve harmony and balance both on the regional and national levels.

The current conception of rural development in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular has come a long way from the original conception and implementation of the idea in the colonial days (Ekong, 2003). Then rural development specifically meant increasing productivity of the export cash crop sector. He maintained that with attainment of independence by many African countries, the need to reconsider the ideals of rural development became imperative. The concept of 'integration' was introduced into the term thereby generating the following objectives as the ideals of rural development:

- integrating into the society those people who have been by-passed by past and current development activities (i.e. spreading the benefits of development more equitably throughout the society)
- integrating the various development efforts into a comprehensive system
- integrating the goals of development (e.g. increased incomes, participation in governance and decision-making, welfare and employment) such that they are not discrete and manually exclusive
- the gradual restructuring of the socio-economic and political systems on the basis of a popularly shared development ideology
- the maximum mobilisation of domestic human and material resources for self-reliance
- the gradual narrowing of the gap between rural and urban areas in the provision of social amenities and infrastructure and the elimination of the patron-client relationship between the two.

These ideals imply that for any development programme whose aim goes beyond the growth of a particular sector, development must be viewed from a holistic perspective (Ekong, 2003).

3.2 Principles of Rural Development

The following principles are suggested to implement rural development programmes (FAO, Undated):

- **Access:** Try to ensure that the programme and its benefits can reach those in need, and beware of the consequences if some farmers have access to the programme while others do not.
- **Independence:** Devise a programme which helps and supports the farmer but which does not make him or his livelihood dependent upon the programme.
- **Sustainability:** Ensure that the programme's plans and solutions are relevant to the local economic, social and administrative situation. Short-term solutions may yield quick results, but long-term programmes that are suitable to the local environment have greater success.
- **Going forward:** Technological aspects of rural development programmes should help the farmer to take the next step in his development and not demand him to take a huge technological leap. It is better to secure a modest advance which can be sustained than to suggest a substantial advance which is beyond the ability of most.

- **Participation:** Always try to consult the local people, seek out their ideas and involve them as much as possible in the programme.
- **Effectiveness:** A programme should be based on the effective use of local resources and not necessarily on their most efficient use. While efficiency is important, its requirements are often unrealistic. For example, the maximum use of inorganic fertiliser is beyond the means of most farmers. But an effective use of resources, which is within the capabilities of most farmers, such as agricultural waste as organic fertiliser will have a better chance of a wider impact.

3.3 Rural Occupations in Nigeria

Occupation as a term is defined as “the job by which somebody earns a living” or “an activity on which time is spent” (Encarta Dictionary). However, Galeski in Ekong (2003) observed that sociologists define it as a complex of activities which:

- a is differentiated from other complexes of activities and is performed regularly
- b provides goods and/or services to other persons in the society
- c constitutes a regular means of support; and
- d requires appropriate training, entitling the individual to pursue the occupation specifically as a profession.

It is important to take note that none of these defining criteria taken singly is sufficient to define an activity as an occupation; rather an occupation is defined by a combination of certain criteria. The individual may pursue a certain activity on a full time or part time basis. It is therefore possible for an individual to have more than a single occupation.

Greater proportion of economic activities in the rural areas of Nigeria depends directly or indirectly on the exploitation of the land. People living in the rural areas are principally occupied in farming, animal husbandry, fishing, hunting, food processing and some cottage industry. However, occupations in the rural areas are not all farm-oriented. Different forms of secondary industrial and service occupations abound in the Nigerian rural area. These include saw milling, pottery, weaving, carving, leather works, carpentry, bicycle-repairing, black smithing, knitting and dressmaking, dyeing, retail trading, barbing and hair dressing, entertainment, bars, teaching, bricklaying and house construction, midwifery, native doctor, preachers, transport, and so on. Although there are numerous non-farming occupations in the Nigerian rural areas, it is observed that the level and intensity of these

occupations are usually such that they are over-shadowed by agricultural activities when these are compared with those of the urban areas.

Characteristics of Rural Non-Farm Occupations

Non-farm occupations in rural areas in Nigeria share certain characteristics which go to explain their inferior status (Ekong, 2003).

These include:

1. they generally entail low capital investment and often do not use complex machines
2. they employ few people-usually less than fifty persons
3. the owner is usually the proprietor/manager thereby making them very private enterprises
4. they usually entail low level of division of labour
5. they are usually regarded as part-time occupations besides farming
6. they usually involve minimum or no re-training of workers for better productivity
7. each apprentice tends to graduate to a sole entrepreneur and there is no inclination toward partnership
8. in such enterprises, little or no accounts of business costs and revenue are kept and the bank is rarely used
9. level of production is often geared towards meeting the immediate needs of the local community or surrounding villages.

These characteristics therefore combine to make rural non-farming occupations rather unattractive to school leavers hence they often migrate to the urban centres when opportunity arises. Although farming is the major occupation of Nigerian rural dwellers, it has not been a very attractive occupation particularly to rural youths.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The understanding of the concept rural development is very crucial and fundamental to solving various problems confronting rural dwellers. People living in the areas are also entitled to some level of comfort in terms of improvement in their socio-economic status. Also to bring about rural development is give attention to every sector of the rural economy which will consequently lead to rural transformation.

5.0 SUMMARY

The concept of rural development has been fully discussed under this unit. Rural development lacks a unified definition but it is seen as efforts directed towards facilitating significant increase in rural resources productivity with the objective of enhancing rural income and creating employment opportunity in rural communities to stem rural–urban migration.. Also the principles of rural development were considered which include principles of access, independence, sustainability, going forward, participation, and effectiveness. Rural occupations were also discussed which include rural farm activities and rural non-farm activities.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Explain in detail the concept of rural development and why is it necessary?
- ii. Define occupations according to sociologists.
- iii. What are the characteristics of rural non-farm occupation?

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UNIT 2 IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION OF LEADERS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Identification of Good Leaders
 - 3.2 Training of Leaders
 - 3.3 Evaluation of Leaders
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Identification and training of good leaders are very crucial when considering the enormity of rural development actions. Various methods should be employed in order to identify who qualifies to be a leader for rural development work. For the success of rural development actions, the leaders who occupy certain positions in the rural areas will determine whether people will be willing to cooperate. Aside identification, leaders should also possess some skills and abilities that will enhance their performance in rural development activities. Hence, training is an important ingredient for leaders to perform well. Also in rural areas, evaluation of leaders is important in order to ensure that their skill match their performance. This unit therefore, intends to expose students to how to identify and evaluate leaders for effective performance in rural development programmes.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the identification of leaders
- discuss the training of leaders
- describe the evaluation of leaders.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Identification of Good Leaders

There are many methods that can be used to identify a good leader in the community. It is imperative that this identification be carried out properly as once a wrong leader is chosen it becomes difficult to get him out of the leadership role (Williams *et al*, 1984). The following methods according to Ekong (2003) will be discussed:

- a. **Positional technique:** This involves the identification of those individuals in the community who are in position to exercise power as a result of holding formal or informal offices in organisations within the community and/or within the community's power structure itself. This technique of identifying leaders has a weakness in that it overlooks the persons who do not hold official positions of power but have the ability to influence the outcomes of most community issues.
- b. **Decisional technique:** This may involve event or issue analysis in which persons actually involved in several community issues occurring currently or in the past, are identified as the leaders. These persons may have made effective public statements, voted on major issues or merely attended the crucial meetings. Sometimes, those who contribute effectively at meetings may be appointed to function as an ad-hoc committee to look into an issue of interest to the community or group.
- c. **Reputational technique:** This involves a socio-metric study in which informants are asked to identify and rank the most influential people in the community when it comes to getting things done. In a one-step procedure, the list obtained may be accepted as constituting the list of leaders. In a two-step technique, the lists obtained from the first step may be given to knowledgeable community informants to be re-evaluated with the aim of narrowing down the list or ranking its members.

Therefore, an effective means of identifying community leaders should include a systematic observation of who the decision makers are for various community issues; identification of all formal position holders in the community in civic and social agencies and in organisations related to education, health, government, business, religion and politics; casually interviewing many persons in the community and recording their responses by using formal questionnaires.

Other methods that can be used to identify leaders according to Williams *et al.* (1984) are:

1. identification of people to whom members of the community go for frequent advice
2. people who have wide contacts within the social system and are rather secured in their positions, provided they do not use their wide contacts for self aggrandisement.

3.2 Training of Leaders

Williams *et al.* (1984) pointed out that for the most effective leader training, extension or change agents should see that:

1. the leaders know and understand the situation, in which they will work, and the demands upon them and the group
2. regardless of the programme objectives in which the leader is to operate, the training must develop understanding of the group he serves and its aspirations, as well as the details of the subject-matter he is to bring to the group
3. leaders must be provided opportunities to practice what he has learnt and must be encouraged to provide opportunity for his group members to practice same
4. leaders should be encouraged to observe and evaluate the practices used in training, as a means of feedback to the extension worker
5. consider personality factors such as enthusiasm, tact and loyalty in the village
6. give leaders adequate training and assistance, and:
 - a. assist leaders in planning and organising work
 - b. train leaders carefully in teaching methods, subject-matter, principles and skills
 - b. provide supplementary reading materials when appropriate and available
 - c. assist leaders in obtaining necessary materials
 - d. encourage leaders to discuss leadership problems among themselves
 - e. whenever possible, break projects into smaller meaningful units
 - f. encourage leaders to look for facts and figures usable in local demonstrations of practices.
7. Give leaders encouragement and recognition, and:
 - i. help leaders to develop strength by encouraging them and providing democratic supervision for them
 - ii. emphasise potentials of the project in the village and of the satisfaction of being a leader in it provide public

recognition of work done by local leaders at meetings and in local press where appropriate.

3.3 Evaluation of Leaders

Leadership evaluation guidelines indicate the behaviours that can be used to evaluate a leader (Human Resources, 2006).

- **Vision** – He clearly and simply communicates the Strategic Plan and inspires and energises others to commit to the Strategic Plan. He leads by example.
- **Ownership** – He reinforces the Strategic Plan in all operational activities. He communicates organisation’s challenges in a positive manner. He uses expertise to effectively influence the behaviour/decisions of rural leadership. Accept responsibility for failures and successes.
- **Accountability/Integrity** – He adheres to highest standards of ethics. Follows and promotes development policies and procedures (“does the right thing”). Actions consistent with words (“walk the talk”). He is absolutely trusted by others. He delivers on commitments to constituents, leaders and employees. He demonstrates courage/self-confidence to stand for beliefs, ideas, and people.
- **Inspires excellence** – He continuously seeks new ways to improve the work environment both practices and processes. He strives to improve her/his own areas of relative weakness and assumes responsibilities for own mistakes. He sets challenging standards and expectations for excellent performance. He recognises and rewards achievement. Fully utilises team members of all cultures, races and genders.
- **He positively stimulates change** – He creates real and positive change. Sees change as an opportunity. He questions the status quo and implements new and better ways of doing things. He promotes alternative points of view as being essential to positive change.
- **Teamwork** – He functions effectively both as a leader and team member and respects the talent and contributions of all team members. He creates an environment where everyone feels able to participate. He links goals of own organisation, team members with Strategic Plan. He respects diversity of opinion in constituency, peers, and subordinates. He enthusiastically supports the team, even during bad times. He assumes responsibility for the team’s mistakes and settles problems without alienating others.
- **Self-Confidence** – He acknowledges strengths and limitations, seeks candid feedback from peers. He maintains an even

disposition when things are not going well and treats all others with respect, fairness and dignity. He shares problems and concerns openly and honestly. Shares information across traditional boundaries and is open to new ideas.

- **Communications** – He explains Strategic Plan and other rural initiatives and messages to members of the community. He communicates in an open, candid, clear, complete, consistent, interactive manner – initiates response/discussion. Listens effectively, demonstrates genuine interest in others.
- **Development Skills** – He structures jobs/assignments for people development and growth. He shares knowledge, information and expertise with team members. Positively sets challenging goals that stretch current performance levels and drives new skill development. Gives frequent, candid coaching/feedback on performance and career development. He documents results and treats everyone with dignity, trust and respect.
- **Motivation** – He motivates others to behave and perform at their highest level. He inspires through words and actions.
- **Empowerment** – He delegates important tasks, not just what she/he does not want to do. Gives authority commensurate with responsibility, and resources necessary to get the job done. Promotes visibility of staff/team members and peers, gives credit where due. Fully utilises diversity of team members to achieve success.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is clear that with the knowledge of methods that can be used to identify leaders, it will difficult for extension agent to make mistakes in discovering the leader who will assume position of responsibility for rural development interventions. People with good leadership traits and who are ready to learn or to be trained for effective performance are required in the rural areas. It is equally important to note that any social system that lacks good leadership will definitely have problems in terms of development.

5.0 SUMMARY

Culture is the way of life of people; that is their beliefs, custom, There are many methods that can be used to identify a good leader. The methods include: (a) Positional technique (b) Decisional technique (c) Reputational technique (d) Identification of people to whom others go for advice (e) People who have wide contacts within the social system

In the training of leaders it is expected that leaders should and understand the situation in which they will work, also leaders must be provided opportunities to practice what he has learnt among other things.

Evaluation of leaders should be based on his vision, accountability, how to inspire excellence; stimulate change, team work, self confidence, communication, his development skill and how he can motivate others.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. How would you identify good leaders as an extension agent?
- ii. In order to ensure effective leader training, what should extension take note of?
- iii. Describe how a leader can be evaluated?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 PROBLEM OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Challenges of Rural Development
 - 3.2 Prospects for Rural Development
 - 3.3 The Importance of Rural Areas
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Efforts at making the rural sector to develop are faced with many problems. Though attention has been given to rural development in Nigeria through the provision of social, physical and institutional infrastructures however, lack or insufficiency of these infrastructures in the rural areas has continued to directly hinder rural development. This is because they determine the level of living and quality of life of the rural dwellers. The knowledge of these challenges of rural development by change agents will prepare them to design an effective road map to achieving rural development in the rural area they may find themselves.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- present the challenges of rural development
- discuss the prospects for rural development
- explain the importance of rural areas.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Challenges of Rural Development

Rural development is faced with challenges which have made the effect of government's efforts at different levels, NGOs, private initiatives and international involvement not felt by the intended beneficiaries (Umebali and Akubuilu in Ogidefa, 2010). Some of them include:

- vicious cycle of poverty
- poor infrastructure
- high level of illiteracy
- low social interaction and local politics, and
- rural-urban migration.

A major challenge is that the hypothetical rural dweller who is the barometer through which one determines the impact of rural development in the words of Chinsman (1998) continues to give negative readings as he is seen to be ravaged by an excruciating poverty, ignorance and disease. A lot of rigours, bottlenecks and unnecessary bureaucracy as observed by Ogidefa (2010) are often attached to rural development process. This is evident in the history of most of the rural development programmes which are often saddled with disappointments.

Another challenge is the issue of proliferation of development programmes. Some are so superficially implemented that the average targeted population (rural dwellers) doubt the sincerity of the initiators. Such proliferation can easily be noticed from the many numbers of such that failed with successive government that initiated them. The problem of implementation is another glaring challenge. Obot (1989) justified this claim when he writes that the development policies geared towards the improvement of the rural dwellers remained almost a house-hold word without corresponding success especially at the implementation states. To this end, some of them are haphazardly implemented as a result of poor supervision. Perhaps, this is why water taps abound in so many rural communities but without water since their installation. Also, most of the low cost housing estates built by some state government during the second republic are yet to be completed and handed over to the intended beneficiaries 25 years after. This may also be the reason why the Community and People's Banks system failed.

The issue of funding is also a big challenge. Some of the rural development programmes are so vague without a clearly defined source of funding. The cases of the Housing for All and Universal Basic Education (UBE) are clear examples. They are often initiated before sourcing for funds from philanthropists and international donors which may never come. Other challenges include armed conflicts ranging from ethnic, religious and communal issues which do not provide enabling environment for the implementation of sustainable development programmes in such areas. For instance, a situation where foreigners and government workers in some coastal rural areas are target of kidnappers demanding ransom is obviously not favourable or conducive for developmental work.

Corruption poses a very big threat to rural development. There is lack of integrity, accountability and transparency on the part of people who are supposed to implement developmental projects in the rural areas.

3.2 Prospects for Rural Development

A mental view of the efforts of government at different levels towards rural development overtime have been heartwarming save for poor implementation at different stages and the monumental corruption that has defiled all known creative maneuvers (Ogidefa, 2010). The rural development direction and terrain is crowded with inconsistencies and distortions. Little wonder Asolo (2000) compares Nigeria development experience to that of an AIDS patient who because of intrinsic pathological abnormality in the body system finds it difficult to respond to all medical entreaties. After about three decades of introduction of most rural development programmes, the scorecard is nothing to write home about. The rural area still lack structural foundation which development can be sustained.

The above scenario notwithstanding, the zeal of successive governments in Nigeria to develop rural areas is evidenced by the proliferation of development agencies which often make use of NGOs, cooperatives and volunteers to introduce and implement development projects. For instance the implementation of National Fadama Development Project is on-going which is believed to improve the income and general welfare of the rural dwellers. The rural dwellers can be encouraged to form cooperatives alongside their various interests. Through such joint efforts and participation, rural development can be stimulated and sustained. Government perception of rural cooperatives has been warm hence it has always involved them in most rural development programs. Sustained rural development requires policies that will stimulate rural growth and employment and in so doing, provide income for rural dwellers and social welfare for people who cannot benefit directly from rising income.

From the perspective of human resources, Obadan in Ogidefa (2010) sees rural development in the areas of human capital development and social services. The most permanent and deepest way to ensure ideal development in the rural area is to invest in people which policies like NDE, NAPEP, UBE, NEEDS, etc are meant to do. Again, these programmes are relatively successful at the rural level, although with some reservations, if they will not go the way others before them went. Also, rural development has brought about improved access to resources, increase and diversity of agriculture, food security, promotion of non-farm activities, employment creation, construction and maintenance of new roads, rural electrification and provision of

transformers, and water supply. Other noticeable near improvements are in the areas of granting of micro-credit and soft loans for rural dwellers through the defunct People's Bank and Community Banks which later transmuted to Micro-Finance Banks, affordable and compulsory education at the primary level, and improved rural cooperatives and community participation. Recently, some states bankrolled enrolment for the Junior and Senior Secondary School Certificate examinations for their students while effort is being intensified to ensuring proper implementation of the UBE programme. Some states have at different times provided, through their Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs) and Directorates of Rural Agriculture, in cooperation with local cooperatives and extension officers, improved seedlings and fertilisers for rural communities which have relatively improved the quality of life of people in the rural areas.

3.3 The Importance of the Rural Areas

Ekong (2003) identifies the importance of the rural area to include:

- (a) the rural area is the predominant food and fibre producing sector of the society. Apart from food and fibre, it can be observed that nearly all natural resources which constitute the wealth of a nation are obtained from the rural areas. This makes development of the rural sector the best interest of national development agenda
- (b) the rural area is the seed bed of national population and serves to replenish the human resources of the urban centres
- (c) in times of national emergencies and crises, the rural areas constitute the place of refuge and also a huge reservoir of national patriotism and manpower owing to the fact that rural people are relatively unaffected by international threats and aggression flourishing among the multi ethnic mix of people in the urban centres
- (d) the relative conservativeness of rural dwellers and apparent natural resistance of rural cultures to rapid change make rural areas the conservatory of pristine cultures and traditions of the people which are often quickly discarded in urban areas. In other word, the sector plays roles in cultural heritage
- (d) the rural population is equally a source of stability or neutralising influence on the urban population in many ways. Also the rural environment provides a necessary break to the urbanite from the hectic activities and tempo of urban living. In other words, rural area is a resting place
- (e) in Nigeria, the importance of the rural areas also lies in the mere fact that over 70 per cent of the people live and derive their livelihood from there.

From the above discussion, the necessity of developing the rural areas becomes evident. In a developing society like Nigeria with infant industries, weak industrial base and overwhelming neo-colonial influence, it is imperative to develop the rural areas for that sector to continue to perform the above enumerated functions more efficiently and effectively.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is evident from the discussion so far that rural area has always faced one problem or the other which have consistently constitute a clog on the wheel of development of the rural areas. The problems of poverty, poor infrastructures, rural-urban migration, corruption and a lot of others combined to impede progress among the rural people. However, considering the importance of the rural areas to the overall development of the nation, government should take a bold step at implementing policies and programmes that will stimulate rural development.

5.0 SUMMARY

The problems of rural development include (a) Poverty (b) Poor infrastructure (c) High\population density (d) High level of illiteracy (e) Low social interaction (f) Rural-urban migration (g) Poor implementation of development programmes (h) Poor funding of development projects (i) Ethnic conflicts (j) Corruption.

Despite these challenges, the prospects for rural development in Nigeria are based on the following:

- a. proliferation of development agencies is bound to improve rural areas
- b. rural dwellers can be encouraged to form cooperatives which will enhance their participation in development programmes
- c. sustained rural development required policies that will stimulate rural growth and employment.

The rural area is important because (a) It is the food and fibre producing sector of the society (b) It supplies human resources to the urban centres (c) It is a place of refuge during crises (d) It is a place of rest from hectic working condition of the urban centres (e) Most people live and derive their livelihood from there.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Describe the various challenges of rural development in Nigeria?
- ii. Is there any future for Nigeria rural development? Discuss.
- iii. Why are rural areas considered important in the pursuit of development agenda for the country?

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UNIT 4 STRATEGIES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Strategies for Rural Development
 - 3.2 Programmes for Rural Development
 - 3.3 Extension Guidelines for Rural Development
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Various strategies for rural development have been tried at different times to improve the condition of the rural areas in Nigeria. It is evident that development cannot take place anywhere without a specific strategy and definite planned course of action geared towards rural development. Hence, this unit will expose the readers to strategies for rural development. Also, operational components of rural development will be discussed and lastly the extension techniques for rural development.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the strategies for rural development
- identify the programmes for rural development
- describe the extension techniques for rural development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Strategies for Rural Development

Many strategies in the words of Ijere (1992) have been tried in the past in an attempt to solve the problem of rural development in Nigeria. They are as follows:

- a. **The Authoritarian Approach:** The first involved authoritarian handouts from the administration, which prescribed the facilities suitable for the rural areas. This was the practice in the colonial era and has continued till today in many guises. A type of paternalism, it dictated the number of left-over of clinics, post

offices, roads, schools and market stalls that could be allotted to the rural areas after the urban centres had been sufficiently loaded with many and could accommodate no more.

- b. **The Bottom-up Approach:** The second method of developing the rural areas is the so-called 'development from below'. This implies mounting development agencies in the rural areas, making use of local leaders in decision-making over their own affairs, with limited assistance from government. This is exemplified in the concept of community development by which the human and material resources are mobilised under government direction for specific and general developmental purposes. Village councils, autonomous communities and country or local government councils became the political arrangements for carrying this theory into practice. While it raised the hopes of the affected people, and brought them on the verge of realising the set objectives, the plans usually failed for lack of sustenance. There was not enough money to finance even the smallest projects. The carefully drawn development plans became a dead letter, while the basic needs of the people remained unattended to. With this state of affairs, the rural communities were made to look up to, and rely on, the state and central governments for the solution of their ills rather than rise by their own efforts.
- c. **The Integrated Development Approach:** The integrated approach to rural development involves development in which urban and rural areas are considered as an integral part of the same plan. In other words, better health, education, infrastructure and better living standards, which had been the preserves of urban areas form part and parcel in the development process of rural areas as well. An example of an Integrated Rural Development Scheme is the Farm Settlement Scheme of the Eastern and Western Regions of Nigeria in the first republic. They were conceived largely as a means of reducing urban unemployment, increasing food production and decentralising amenities. Other examples of integrated development approach are Integrated Rural Development Scheme (IRD), the Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs), including the on-going National Fadama Development Project (NFDP).
- d. **Community Organisation Approach:** The last strategy to be discussed here is the use of community organisations. In the words of McNeil in Ijere (1992), the community organisation approach is the process of bringing about and maintaining a more effective adjustment between resources and needs within a geographical area. Community organisation relates to the promotion and coordination of activities among groups. It consists in certain enabling techniques through which community

workers, by providing leadership, make it possible for citizen groups to work out the problems involved in coordinating the social services provided by agencies for health, welfare and recreation. It also implies the use of professional skills in identifying areas of social need and of promoting and interpreting these programmes so that the needs will be met.

In order to carry out the above function, community organisation relies on fund-raising, enactment of social legislation and the coordination of social activities.

Goals of Community Organisation

The goals include the following:

- (a) the discovery and definition of the needs of the community
- (b) The elimination and prevention of social needs and disabilities as far as possible
- (c) the adjustment of resources and needs to achieve the desired results
- (d) the improvement of standards of social work and of individual agencies
- (e) the improvement in inter-relationships and promotion of coordination between organisations, groups and all concerned with social welfare programmes and services.

3.2 Programmes for Rural Development

The various programmes initiated and chiefly targeted at the rural sector by government include the following:

- a. **National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP):** This programme was launched in 1973 as a national network of agro services centres created to facilitate the distribution of tractor and machinery services to farmers to support the promotion of improved packages of technology development by various research institutes under the NAFPP. These centres are no longer in the mainstream of rural development plans, thus a gradual collapse of the programme (Adebayo and Okuneye, 2005).
- b. **River-Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs):** The RBDAs were launched in 1976. Their functions were to facilitate land development and ensure efficient water resource management. With the long years of existence, the activities of RBDAs and the Ministry of Water Resources have not been felt appreciably by Nigeria farmers (Adebayo and Okuneye, 2005).

- c. **Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs):** The ADPs in Nigeria started as an enclave programme in 1975 as a World Bank assisted integrated rural development package with pilot projects in Funtua, Gusau and Gombe. The Training and Visit (T&V) extension delivery approach was used and some results were achieved. The success recorded encouraged the creation of the state-wide Agricultural Development Projects (Akinbile, 2007).
- d. **Operation Feed the Nation (OFN):** The programme was introduced in 1976 as a strategy to increase food production by harnessing the human, material and natural potentials of the country towards substantially increasing food production through inputs supply. The programme, however, had no articulated extension delivery system. (Akinbile, 2007).
- e. **The Green Revolution:** This approach was launched in 1979. Its primary objective was to achieve food self-sufficiency for Nigeria in five years. It placed emphasis on inputs supply, improvement of infrastructures and provision of price incentives. Hence the approach lacked clear focus and there was diversification of efforts into several activities which could not be sustained, thus the programme failed.
- f. **Directorate for Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI):** The programme was established by Decree No.4 of 1986 with a determined focus on the development of the entire rural areas of Nigeria in order to improve the quality of life of the rural dwellers. DFFRI, between 1986 and 1993 recorded success in the area of infrastructural development such as feeder roads but eventually collapsed in 1994 due to policy inconsistency and discontinuity of programmes and projects (Adebayo and Okuneye, 2005).
- g. **Better Life for Rural Dwellers (BETTER LIFE) Family Support Programme:** The programme (BL) was established in 1987 with a view to alleviate poverty and was transformed into Family Support Programme in November 1994, with the same objectives of encouraging rural dwellers especially women to improve their standard of living. The programme also suffered discontinuance as a result of change of administration.
- h. **National Directorate of Employment (NDE):** The NDE was established in 1987 to tackle the problem of mass unemployment involving all categories of labour (skilled and unskilled). The directorate focused its attentions on small scale enterprises, special public works and vocational skills development.
- i. **National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP):** At the inception of the Obasanjo administration in 1999, many Nigerians believed that employment generation and poverty alleviation are the ultimate goals. The Government embarked on

- the eradication strategy. However, to date, Nigerians are yet to feel the full impact of this programme.
- j. **Rural Banking Scheme (RBS):** The Federal Government introduced a policy to liberalise access to credit by the poor in 1989. The policy measures include the establishment of People's Bank by government and Community Banks by the private sector. Among the problems that bedeviled People's Bank include the dependence on government for funds and weak management which affected its effectiveness. The People's Bank has been merged with the Nigerian Agricultural Credit Bank (NACB) to form the Nigerian Agricultural Credit and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB). The establishment of Community Banks was intended to inculcate the banking habit in rural areas by providing needed banking services to members of their community. However, most of the services of these banks are directed to the urban rich with less credit risks.

A cursory look at the introduction, establishment, implementation and the objectives of majority of the above programmes will reveal that they are mainly targeted at rural development in an attempt to better the lives of rural dwellers, stimulate and enhance economic growth, as well as get the rural sector to contribute meaningfully to the national economic and social development. These programmes have direct or indirect impact on rural development and can broadly be grouped into specific and multi-specific programmes. The specific programmes are those directed mainly at agriculture, health, education, housing, transport, infrastructure, finance and manufacturing. Such programmes were initiated in the early 1970s and 1980s. On the other hand, most of the multi-specific programmes were put in place in the early 1990s and thereafter to handle general projects, such as NDE, DFRRI, Better Life, Family support etc.

3.3 Extension Guidelines for Rural Development

There are some useful techniques which can work for rural development (Ijere, 1992). They include the following:

- a. **Start from the extension to the social context:** People's nature, belief and expectations form the basis on which they can be helped. They form the life situation that the extension agent is called upon to improve. To facilitate this, the extension worker should get to know the community where he is going to work. This he can do personally by visiting them ahead of time. He should within a short time know the leaders of the community and their names and should be able to conduct himself round at the least possible time.

- b. **Involve people in actions that promote their welfare:** People should not be made to be observers but participants in a programme. They should participate in planning and implementation of the programme.
- c. **Gain the confidence of the community:** The community sees the agent as a person that has answers to their problems. And since this cannot be true, one has to combine theory and practical experience to proffer solutions to challenges that will convince the community that one is not indulging in guesswork.
- d. **Be firm but accessible:** The extension worker is the person who is very accessible to members of the community he is serving irrespective of whether it is during his work hours or not. He should not live isolated from the community or be condensing in his relationship with the villagers and the community. He should make time to visit them in their own homes, familiarise and be friendly.
- e. **Use local leaders:** Another approach that can be useful in extension work is the use of local leaders. A local leader is a person selected by his community to represent their interests when dealing with other communities or issues that border on rural development.
- f. **Be aware and make use of the adoption process:** The extension worker should also put into practice the extension adoption process. He should realise that the decision to adopt usually takes time. People normally do not adopt a new practice or idea as soon as they hear of it. They may wait several years before trying the new idea for the first time, and longer still before permanently adopting it.

For many practices, people appear to go through five stages:

- a. **Awareness:** The first knowledge about a new idea, product or practice.
- b. **Interest:** The active seeking of extensive and detailed information about the idea, to determine its possible usefulness and applicability.
- c. **Evaluation:** Critical assessment of the required information and evidence in the light of the existing conditions into which the practice would fit.
- d. **Trial:** The tentative trying out of the practice or idea, accompanied by acquisition of information on how to do it.
- e. **Adoption:** The full-scale integration of the practice into the on-going operation.
- g. **Make use of audio-visuals:** The role of communication is of vital importance in agricultural extension. To this effect there is no limit to what part the press, radio and television can play.

Agricultural radio programmes are very commendable in awakening the people's interests in farming and gardening particularly when the broadcast is made in the local languages of the people who are mainly concerned with the actual farm work.

- h. **Evaluate continuously:** The extension worker assesses the progress being made continuously. This presupposes that the goals and objectives were known from the beginning and target of performance set. It is imperative that a proper evaluation of the individual's progress, as well as that of the scheme should be conducted on a regular basis, say monthly, terminally or yearly.

4.0 CONCLUSION

From the discussion so far, it is clearly understood that developing rural areas is so important that efforts have been taken in ensuring rural development. This is evident in the series, methods and programmes employed at achieving rural development. This is because nothing happens in the absence of a predetermined line of action.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has considered the strategies for rural development which include (a) Authoritarian approach to rural development (b) Bottom-up approach (c) Integrated Development Approach (d) Community organisations approach. Programmes for rural development such as NFPP, RBDA, ADP, Operation Feed the Nation, NDE and so on, were also considered.

Extension guidelines for rural development include (a) Start from the extension social situation (b) Involve people in actions that promote their welfare (c) Gain the confidence of the community (d) Be firm but be accessible (e) Use local leaders (f) Make use of the adoption process (g) Use audio-visuals (h) Evaluate continuously.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss briefly various strategies for rural development.
- ii. Mention ten programmes that have been implemented for rural development in Nigeria.
- iii. Explain the extension techniques that can be used for rural development?

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MODULE 5 SOCIO-CULTURAL VARIATIONS IN LEADERSHIP PATTERN

Unit 1	Place of Gender and Generational Issues
Unit 2	Effects of HIV/AIDS Pandemic
Unit 3	Leadership Pattern and Rural Resources Allocation
Unit 4	Future of Leadership in Rural Development

UNIT 1 PLACE OF GENDER AND GENERATIONAL ISSUES

CONTENTS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The study of gender is an important one when considering the leadership pattern in the society. Males and females have certain roles and responsibilities expected of them and these are the characteristics that distinguish them from each other. The kind of relations between men and women is determined by roles the society assigned to them which they must fulfill within their living environment. The roles assumed as either male or female have direct relationship on the leadership pattern that will be exhibited in the community.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss gender issues
- state the gender roles in rural development
- explain generational issues.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Gender Issues

Gender according to International Telecommunication Union (2002) refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialisation processes.

Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman or a man in a given context. In most societies there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities.

Gender is part of the broader socio-cultural context. Other important criteria for socio-cultural analysis include class, race, poverty level, ethnic group and age.

'Gender' also in the words of Institute of Development Studies (2011) refers to the socially constructed roles of and relations between men and women, while 'Sex' refers to biological characteristics which define humans as female or male. These biological characteristics are not mutually exclusive however, as there are individuals who possess both.

'Gender relations' are characterised by unequal power. 'Gender norms' assign specific entitlements and responsibilities to men and women - for example, women might be expected to take on caring or domestic duties and remain close to home, while men may be expected to be the main breadwinner, working outside the home, with greater freedom to move around in public places.

The term 'gender' refers to the social construction of female and male identity. It can be defined as 'more than biological differences between men and women. It includes the ways in which those differences, whether real or perceived, have been valued, used and relied upon to classify women and men and to assign roles and expectations to them. The significance of this is that the lives and experiences of women and men, including their experience of the legal system, occur within complex sets of differing social and cultural expectations' (<http://www.gdrc.org/> Accessed February 2nd, 2011).

The following gender related concepts will be briefly discussed:

Gender Analysis

Gender analysis examines the differences in women's and men's lives, including those which lead to social and economic inequity for women, and applies this understanding to policy development and service delivery. It is concerned with the underlying causes of these inequities and aims to achieve positive change for women.

Gender analysis recognises that:

- women's and men's lives and therefore experiences, needs, issues and priorities are different
- women's lives are not all the same; the interests that women have in common may be determined as much by their social position or their ethnic identity as by the fact they are women
- women's life experiences, needs, issues and priorities are different for different ethnic groups
- the life experiences, needs, issues, and priorities vary for different groups of women (dependent on age, ethnicity, disability, income levels, employment status, marital status, sexual orientation and whether they have dependants)
- different strategies may be necessary to achieve equitable outcomes for women and men and different groups of women.

Gender analysis provides a basis for robust analysis of the differences between women's and men's lives, and this removes the possibility of analysis being based on incorrect assumptions and stereotypes (<http://www.gdrc.org/gender> Accessed February 2nd, 2011).

Gender analysis aims to achieve **equity**, rather than equality.

Gender equality is based on the premise that women and men should be treated in the same way. This fails to recognise that equal treatment will not produce equitable results, because women and men have different life experiences (<http://www.gdrc.org/gender> Accessed February 2nd, 2011).

Global Education (2011) posits that gender equality refers to the equal valuing of the roles of women and men. It works to overcome the barriers of stereotypes and prejudices so that both sexes are able to equally contribute to and benefit from economic, social, cultural and political developments within society. When women and men have relative equality, economies grow faster and there is less corruption.

When women are healthy and educated, their families, communities and nations benefit.

Gender equity takes into consideration the differences in women's and men's lives and recognises that different approaches may be needed to produce outcomes that are equitable.

Gender Inequality

Men and women are physically different but it is the social, economic, political and legal interpretation of these differences that lead to inequality between them.

Some examples are outlined below according to Global Education (2011)

Gender issues will therefore be considered based on the under listed:

Social Inequality

Women and men usually have different roles and responsibilities in their daily work. Men tend to do heavier, riskier work that is usually located outside of the home. Men's works tend to have a higher status than the work done by women, who have the main responsibility for caring for children and the elderly, and providing food for the family.

Women often have unequal access to education and health services. Social customs that encourage or force girls into teenage marriages and early child bearing have direct and dangerous consequences for their health.

There are high levels of violence against women in all countries around the world. This may be within families where it may be accepted as 'normal'. During armed conflict violence is used to humiliate the enemy and to undermine morale and resistance).

Economic Inequality

Nearly 70% of the world's poor are female, and the number of women living in poverty has increased disproportionately in recent years compared with that of men.

Women have unequal access to economic resources, such as capital, credit, labour and land, and limited opportunities for employment and

career advancement which restricts their ability to improve their economic situation.

Females have unequal access to education and training opportunities, which leads to low literacy levels and employment in unskilled, low status jobs.

Political and Legal Inequality

Women are very poorly represented at all levels of formal decision making in society, but particularly regional and national levels.

The legal system in many countries discriminates against women in the areas of family law, inheritance, property and land ownership, citizenship and criminal law. The prosecution of cases involving violence against women is particularly difficult.

Addressing Inequality

The equality of men and women or gender parity has been accepted as a fundamental principle of human rights since the adoption of the United Nations Charter in 1945. Many international agreements, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), the World Conference on Human Rights (1993) and the Millennium Development Goals (2000) have highlighted the need for countries to take action against discriminatory practices.

The increased focus on women since the International Year for Women (1975) has led to many improvements in the lives of women.

There are a number of approaches to addressing inequity. The 'Women in Development' (WID) approach focuses on women. This helps to raise the knowledge and skills of women to overcome social, economic and political disadvantages but it may increase the workload of women and fail to recognise the role of men as an essential element of change. The 'Gender and Development' (GAD) approach integrates gender planning in all aspects of development programs. It works to understand of the impact of the proposed changes on both men and women but it may not always address the specific needs of women and men.

Achieving gender equality requires men and women to work together in search of solutions, in ways that encourage mutual respect and trust.

Gender discrimination or sex discrimination, may be described as the unequal treatment of a person based solely on that person's sex. While females have historically laid claim to the cry of unequal treatment, modern civil rights laws banning sex discrimination have been construed

to protect males as well, especially in the area of employment (<http://www.jrank.org/> Accessed February 3rd, 2011). Gender discrimination can occur in the acquisition of credit, education and employment.

3.2 Gender Roles in Rural Development

Gender roles refer to the set of social and behavioural norms that are widely considered to be socially appropriate for individuals of a specific sex in the context of a specific culture, which differ widely between cultures and over time.

Though some views on gender-based differentiation in the workplace and in interpersonal relationships have undergone profound changes, especially in Western countries, as a result of feminist activism, there are still considerable differences in gender roles in almost all societies. It is also true that in times of necessity, for example during a war or other emergency, women are permitted to perform functions which in "normal" times would be considered a male role, or vice versa.

Gender role is also a term used in the social sciences and humanities to denote a set of behavioural norms that accompany a given gendered status (also called a *gendered identity*) in a given social group or system (<http://www.wordiq.com> Accessed December 30th, 2010).

In many ways gender identity and roles function as any other social identity and role. Every known human society presents individuals with a set of statuses by which members of the society identify themselves and one another. Such statuses may be assigned to an individual automatically, based on the status of his or her parents, or based on some physical characteristic (including ones that emerge through the aging process); such statuses are called "ascribed." Other statuses may be achieved based on the activities and accomplishments of an individual. Gender role can influence all kinds of behaviour, such as choice of clothing, choice of work and personal relationships; e.g., parental status.

However the process by which the individual learns and accepts roles is called socialisation. Socialisation works by encouraging wanted and discouraging, sometimes even forbidding, unwanted behaviour. The sanctions by agencies of socialisation such as the family, school, and the media make it clear to the child what the behavioural norms he/she ought to follow are. The child follows the examples of the parents, siblings and teachers. Mostly, accepted behaviour is not produced by outright coercion. The individual does have some choice as to if or to what extent he or she conforms. Also, typical encouragements of gender

role behaviour are no longer as powerful as they used to be a century ago.

Still, once the person has accepted a set of behavioural norms these are very important to the individual. Sanctions to unwanted behaviour and role conflict can become stressful. Thus, gender roles are quite powerful.

Gender roles were traditionally divided into strictly feminine and masculine gender roles, though these roles have diversified today into many different acceptable male or female gender roles. However, gender role norms for women and men can vary significantly from one country or culture to another, even within a country or culture. People express their gender role somewhat uniquely.

Nigerian Women in Agriculture and National Development: The Nigerian woman has proved to be more than a mere “bench-warming” spectator, even in the midst of the male-dominated professional congregation. If given the opportunity, women can effectively participate in policy-making and governance. They can hold their own in very difficult and stressful circumstances and can do as well, if not better, than men. The steady advancement of women in contributing to the nation’s economic development and their progressive prominence in the national scheme of affairs have, to a large extent, impacted on the Federal government and government has responded positively in diverse ways.

On the basis of available evidence and statistics, the role of women in agricultural production in Nigeria cannot be trivialised. They perform crucial roles in the domestic and economic life of the society. Rural and national development can hardly be achieved with the neglect of this important and substantial segment of the society (Kishor *et al.* in Ogunlela and Mukhtar, 2009). In recognition of the importance of women in national building, the Nigerian government, more than ever before, is keen on rural poverty alleviation as a way of improving the economy. Focus is on planned and desirable change in the rural societies in the form of agricultural development. The success of these planned change programmes is hinged largely on the rational decision-making process of the women.

3.3 Generational Issues

The **generational gap** is *and was* a term popularised in Western countries during the 1960s referring to differences between people of a younger generation and their elders, especially between a child and the parents’ generation.

Although some generational differences have existed throughout history, because of more rapid cultural change during the modern era differences between the two generations increased in comparison to previous times, particularly with respect to such matters as music preference, fashion, culture and politics. This may have been magnified by the unprecedented size of the young generation during the 1960s, which gave it unprecedented power and willingness to rebel against societal norms. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki> Accessed December 30th, 2010).

4.0 CONCLUSION

The study of gender and generational issues are very important to students and change agents who are actively involved in developmental programmes. Roles played by individuals due to gender differentiation should be analysed as these will help to direct development objectives that will impact the lives of both men and women. Development activities that try to undermine the study of gender are found to be gender biased and may not fully realise the set objectives.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been made to understand the concept of gender as the social attributes opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men. Important gender issues discussed here include:

- a. Gender analysis
- b. Gender equality
- c. Gender equity
- d. Gender inequality
- e. Gender discrimination.

Gender roles and gender role theory were also discussed in this unit. In generational issues, generational gap was considered. This is the term referring to differences between people of a young generation and their elders.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What do you understand by the term gender?
- ii. Briefly explain five gender issues known to you.
- iii. Discuss gender roles in the light of rural development?
- iv. Explain what you understand by generational gap?

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UNIT 2 EFFECTS OF HIV/AIDS PANDEMIC

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 What is HIV/AIDS
 - 3.2 Effect of HIV/AIDS on Rural Development
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

HIV/AIDS continues to be a major plague troubling the world today. The subject HIV/AIDS has received great attention because of its devastating effect on the socio-economic development of the nation and the world at large. As a result of its destructive effect, its study has therefore become important so as to enlighten the understanding of the people on the possible cause and prevention of the deadly virus. This in effect will help people to know how to avoid it and desist from the kind of behaviour that predisposes one to its infection. It is particularly relevant to the rural economy because of the socio-economic interaction between the rural and urban sector.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain HIV/AIDS
- mention the effect of HIV/AIDS on rural development
- discuss the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is HIV/AIDS

AIDS stands for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. Over time, infection with **HIV** (Human Immunodeficiency Virus) can weaken the immune system to the point that the system has difficulty fighting off certain infections. These types of infections are known as opportunistic infections.

Many of the infections that cause problems or are life-threatening for people with AIDS are usually controlled by a healthy immune system. The immune system of a person with AIDS has weakened to the point that medical intervention may be necessary to prevent or treat serious illness. (Scott, 2009).

Difference between HIV and AIDS

HIV is the virus that causes AIDS (Scott, 2009):

- H** - Human: because this virus can only infect human beings.
I - Immuno-deficiency: because the effect of the virus is to create a deficiency, a failure to work properly, within the body's immune system.
V - Virus: because this organism is a virus, which means one of its characteristics is that it is incapable of reproducing by itself. It reproduces by taking over the machinery of the human cell.
A - Acquired: because it's a condition one must acquire or get infected with; not something transmitted through the genes
I - Immune: because it affects the body's immune system, the part of the body which usually works to fight off germs such as bacteria and viruses
D - Deficiency: because it makes the immune system deficient (makes it not work properly)
S - Syndrome: because someone with AIDS may experience a wide range of different diseases and opportunistic infections.

HIV Transmission in Nigeria

There are three main HIV transmission routes in Nigeria as established by various authors (International HIV and AIDS Charity, 2010):

- **Heterosexual sex:** Approximately 80-95 per cent of HIV infections in Nigeria are a result of heterosexual sex. Factors contributing to this include a lack of information about sexual health and HIV, low levels of condom use, and high levels of sexually transmitted diseases. Women are particularly affected by HIV; in 2009 women accounted for 56 percent of all adults aged 15 and above living with the virus.
- **Blood transfusions:** HIV transmission through unsafe blood accounts for the second largest source of HIV infection in Nigeria. Not all Nigerian hospitals have the technology to effectively screen blood and therefore there is a risk of using contaminated blood. The Nigerian Federal Ministry of Health has responded by backing legislation that requires hospitals to only

use blood from the National Blood Transfusion Service, which has far more advanced blood-screening technology.

- **Mother-to-Child transmission:** Each year around 57,000 babies are born with HIV. It is estimated that 360,000 children are living with HIV in Nigeria, most of who became infected from their mothers. This has increased from 220,000 in 2007.

A number of small-scale studies have indicated towards a rise in HIV prevalence among injecting drug users. Although HIV transmission through injecting drug use is not one of the main transmission routes, it appears to be accounting for an increasing number of new HIV infections.

The Symptoms of HIV

Primary HIV infection according to Scott (2009) is the first stage of **HIV disease**, when the virus first establishes itself in the body. Some researchers use the term acute HIV infection to describe the period of time between when a person is first infected with HIV and when antibodies against the virus are produced by the body (usually 6- 12 weeks).

Some people newly infected with HIV will experience some “flu-like” symptoms. These symptoms, which usually last no more than a few days, might include fevers, chills, night sweats and rashes (not cold-like symptoms). Other people either do not experience “**acute infection**,” or have symptoms so mild that they may not notice them.

Given the general character of the symptoms of acute infection, they can easily have causes other than HIV, such as a flu infection. For example, if you had some risk for HIV a few days ago and are now experiencing flu-like symptoms, it might be possible that HIV is responsible for the symptoms, but it is also possible that you have some other viral infection.

The Symptoms of AIDS: There are no common symptoms for individuals diagnosed with AIDS. When immune system damage is more severe, people may experience opportunistic infections (called opportunistic because they are caused by organisms which cannot induce disease in people with normal immune systems, but take the “opportunity” to flourish in people with HIV). Most of these more severe infections, diseases and symptoms fall under the Centers for Disease Control’s definition of full-blown “AIDS.” The median time to receive an AIDS diagnosis among those infected with HIV is 7-10 years.

3.2 Effect of HIV/AIDS on Rural Development

Nigeria, which is the most populous country in Africa, is fast gaining its share of the HIV/AIDS scourge. It has the highest prevalence in the West Africa sub-region with an estimated 2.6 million people already infected (Daudu, Okwu and Shaibu). In their study, they found out that HIV/AIDS scourge has serious adverse effect on the farm productivity, income and standard of living of the farm families in Benue State particularly and Nigeria as a whole. Some sustainable intervention measures are therefore necessary

AIDS has the potential to create severe economic impacts in many African countries. It is different from most other diseases because it strikes people in the most productive age groups and is essentially 100 percent fatal. The effects will vary according to the severity of the AIDS epidemic and the structure of the national economies. The two major economic effects are a reduction in the labour supply and increased costs (Bollinger, Stover and Nwaorgu, 1999).

Labour Supply

- The loss of young adults in their most productive years will affect overall economic output.
- If AIDS is more prevalent among the economic elite, then the impact may be much larger than the absolute number of AIDS deaths indicates.

Costs

- The direct costs of AIDS include expenditures for medical care, drugs, and funeral expenses.
- Indirect costs include lost time due to illness, recruitment and training costs to replace workers, and care of orphans.
- If costs are financed out of savings, then the reduction in investment could lead to a significant reduction in economic growth.

Economic Impact of AIDS on Households

The household impacts begin as soon as a member of the household starts to suffer from HIV-related illnesses:

- loss of income of the patient (who is frequently the main breadwinner)
- household expenditures for medical expenses may increase substantially

- other members of the household, usually daughters and wives, may miss school or work less in order to care for the sick person
- death results in; a permanent loss of income, from less labour on the farm or from lower remittances; funeral and mourning costs; and the removal of children from school in order to save on educational expenses and increase household labour, resulting in a severe loss of future earning potential.

Economic Impact of AIDS on Agriculture

Agriculture is the largest sector in most African economies accounting for a large portion of production and a majority of employment. Studies done in Tanzania and other countries have shown that AIDS will have adverse effects on agriculture, including loss of labour supply and remittance income. The loss of a few workers at the crucial periods of planting and harvesting can significantly reduce the size of the harvest. In countries where food security has been a continuous issue because of drought, any declines in household production can have serious consequences. Additionally, a loss of agricultural labour is likely to cause farmers to switch to less-labour-intensive crops. In many cases this may mean switching from export crops to food crops. Thus, AIDS could affect the production of cash crops as well as food crops.

Impacts on other Economic Sectors

AIDS will also have significant effects in other key sectors. Among them are health, transport, mining, education and water.

- Health.** AIDS will affect the health sector for two reasons: (1) it will increase the number of people seeking services and (2) health care for AIDS patients is more expensive than for most other conditions. Governments will face trade-offs along at least three dimensions: treating AIDS versus preventing HIV infection; treating AIDS versus treating other illnesses; and spending for health versus spending for other objectives. Maintaining a healthy population is an important goal in its own right and is crucial to the development of a productive workforce essential for economic development.
- Transport.** The transport sector is especially vulnerable to AIDS and important to AIDS prevention. Building and maintaining transport infrastructure often involves, sending teams of men away from their families for extended periods of time and increasing the likelihood of multiple sexual partners. The people who operate transport services (truck drivers, train crews, sailors) spend many days and nights away from their families. Most

transport managers are highly trained professionals who are hard to replace if they die. Governments face the dilemma of improving transport as an essential element of national development while protecting the health of the workers and their families.

- c. **Mining.** The mining sector is a key source of foreign exchange for many countries. Most mining is conducted at sites far from population centres forcing workers to live apart from their families for extended periods of time. They often resort to commercial sex. Many become infected with HIV and spread that infection to their spouses and communities when they return home. Highly trained mining engineers can be very difficult to replace. As a result, a severe AIDS epidemic can seriously threaten mine production.
- d. **Education.** AIDS affects the education sector in at least three ways: the supply of experienced teachers will be reduced by AIDS-related illness and death; children may be kept out of school if they are needed at home to care for sick family members or to work in the fields; and children may drop out of school if their families cannot afford school fees due to reduced household income as a result of an AIDS induced death. Another problem is that teenage children are especially susceptible to HIV infection.
Therefore, the education system also faces a special challenge to educate students about AIDS and equip them to protect themselves.
- e. **Water.** Developing water resources in arid areas and controlling excess water during rainy periods requires highly skilled water engineers and constant maintenance of wells, dams, embankments, etc. The loss of even a small number of highly trained engineers can place entire water systems and significant investment at risk. These engineers may be especially susceptible to HIV because of the need to spend many nights away from their families.

3.3 Prevention of HIV/AIDS

Who Needs HIV Prevention?

Various studies according to International HIV & AIDS Charity (2010) discussed extensively on HIV prevention. Anyone can become infected with HIV, and so promoting widespread awareness of HIV through basic HIV and AIDS education is vital for preventing all forms of HIV transmission. Specific programmes can target key groups who have been particularly affected by a country's epidemic, for example children, women, men, lesbians, gays, bisexuals, and transvestites (LGBTs),

injecting drug users and sex workers. Older people are also a group who require prevention measures, as in some countries an increasing number of new infections are occurring among those aged over 50.

HIV prevention needs to reach both people who are at risk of HIV infection and those who are already infected:

- people who do not have HIV need interventions that will enable them to protect themselves from becoming infected;
- people who are already living with HIV need knowledge and support to protect their own health and to ensure that they do not transmit HIV to others - known as “positive prevention”. Positive prevention has become increasingly important as improvements in treatment have led to a rise in the number of people living with HIV.
- HIV counselling and testing are fundamental for HIV prevention. People living with HIV are less likely to transmit the virus to others if they know they are infected and if they have received counselling about safer behaviour. For example, a pregnant woman who has HIV will not be able to benefit from interventions to protect her child unless her infection is diagnosed. Those who discover they are not infected can also benefit, by receiving counselling on how to remain uninfected.

The availability and accessibility of antiretroviral treatment is crucial; it enables people living with HIV to enjoy longer, healthier lives, and as such acts as an incentive for HIV testing. Continued contact with health care workers also provides further opportunities for prevention messages and interventions. Studies suggest that HIV-positive people may be less likely to engage in risky behaviour if they are enrolled in treatment programmes.

Sexual Transmission

Someone can eliminate or reduce their risk of becoming infected with HIV during sex by choosing to:

- abstain from sex or delay first sex
- be faithful to one partner or have fewer partners
- condomise, which means using male or female condoms consistently and correctly.

There are a number of effective ways to encourage people to adopt safer sexual behaviour, including media campaigns, social marketing, peer education and small group counselling. These activities should be carefully tailored to the needs and circumstances of the people they intend to help.

Comprehensive sex education for young people is an essential part of HIV prevention. This should include training in life skills such as negotiating healthy sexual relationships, as well as accurate and explicit information about how to practise safer sex. Studies have shown that this kind of comprehensive sex education is more effective at preventing sexually transmitted infections than education that focuses solely on teaching abstinence until marriage.

Numerous studies have shown that condoms, if used consistently and correctly, are highly effective at preventing HIV infection. Also there is no evidence that promoting condoms leads to increased sexual activity among young people. Therefore condoms should be made readily and consistently available to all those who need them.

Transmission through Blood

People who share equipment to inject recreational drugs with HIV infected persons risk becoming infected. Methadone maintenance and other drug treatment programmes are effective ways to help people eliminate this risk by giving up injected drugs altogether. However, there will always be some injecting drug users who are unwilling or unable to end their habit, and these people should be encouraged to minimise the risk of infection by not sharing equipment.

Needle exchange programmes have been shown to reduce the number of new HIV infections without encouraging drug use. These programmes distribute clean needles and safely dispose of used ones, and also offer related services such as referrals to drug treatment centres and HIV counselling and testing. Needle exchanges are a necessary part of HIV prevention in any community that contains injecting drug users.

Also important for injecting drug users are community outreach, small group counselling and other activities that encourage safer behaviour and access to available prevention options.

Transfusion of infected blood or blood products is the most efficient of all ways to transmit HIV. However, the chances of this happening can be greatly reduced by screening all blood supplies for the virus, and by heat-treating blood products where possible. In addition, because screening is not quite 100% accurate, it is sensible to place some

restrictions on who is eligible to donate, provided that these are justified by epidemiological evidence, and do not unnecessarily limit supply or fuel prejudice. Reducing the number of unnecessary transfusions also helps to minimise risk.

The safety of medical procedures and other activities that involve contact with blood, such as tattooing and circumcision, can be improved by routinely sterilising equipment. An even better option is to dispose of equipment after each use, and this is highly recommended.

Health care workers themselves run a risk of HIV infection through contact with infected blood. The most effective way for staff to limit this risk is to practise universal precautions, which means acting as though every patient is potentially infected. Universal precautions include washing hands and using protective barriers for direct contact with blood and other body fluids.

Mother-to-Child Transmission

HIV can be transmitted from a mother to her baby during pregnancy, labour and delivery, and later through breastfeeding. The first step towards reducing the number of babies infected in this way is to prevent HIV infection in women, and to prevent unwanted pregnancies.

There are a number of things that can be done to help a pregnant woman with HIV to avoid passing her infection to her child. A course of antiretroviral drugs given to her during pregnancy and labour as well as to her newborn baby can greatly reduce the chances of the child becoming infected. Although the most effective treatment involves a combination of drugs taken over a long period, even a single dose of treatment can cut the transmission rate by half.

A caesarean section is an operation to deliver a baby through its mother's abdominal wall, which reduces the baby's exposure to its mother's body fluids. This procedure lowers the risk of HIV transmission, but is likely to be recommended only if the mother has a high level of HIV in her blood, and if the benefit to her baby outweighs the risk of the intervention.

Weighing risks against benefits is also critical when selecting the best feeding option. The World Health Organisation advises mothers with HIV not to breastfeed whenever the use of replacements is acceptable, feasible, affordable, sustainable and safe.

4.0 CONCLUSION

HIV infection can weaken the immune system to the point that the system has difficulty fighting off certain infections. Many of the HIV infections in Nigeria are a result of heterosexual sex. This is as a result of lack of information about sexual health and HIV, low levels of condom use and high levels of sexually transmitted diseases.

HIV therefore, has overall adverse effect on rural transformation and the general improvement of level of living of the people. Hence, the need to design wholesome intervention programmes which will be directed toward HIV prevention and such intervention should target everybody particularly the vulnerable members of the society.

5.0 SUMMARY

AIDS stands for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome and HIV is Human Immunodeficiency Virus and this is the virus that causes AIDS. There three main HIV transmission routes which are:

- a. Heterosexual sex
- b. Blood transfusion
- c. Mother-to-child transmission.

HIV/AIDS has serious adverse effect on households' income and productivity, agriculture, health, transport, mining, education and water resources sub-sectors of the economy. Anyone can become infected with HIV, and so HIV prevention needs to reach both people who are at risk of HIV infection and those who are already infected.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What is HIV/AIDS? Describe how HIV is transmitted in Nigeria
- ii. Explain the effect of HIV/AIDS on the socio-economic life of the people?
- iii. Can HIV be prevented? Explain.

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UNIT 3 LEADERSHIP PATTERN AND RURAL RESOURCE ALLOCATION

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 - 3.2 The Meaning of Resource Allocation
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- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Leadership pattern is the form of leadership that is operational at one time and in a certain location. Leadership pattern determines the roles that will be performed to meet group or societal needs. The management of rural resources or proper rural resources allocation is premised on the type and qualities of leadership. In the light of this, students should be able to know the relationship between leadership pattern and rural resources allocation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain leadership pattern in the rural areas
- define rural resources allocation
- describe some specific rural resources.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Leadership Pattern in the Rural Areas

Leadership patterns may be in the following forms (<http://www.leadership-quality.com> Accessed 17th February, 2011).

- a. **Situational leadership** emerges at a time when the group or community is in need. Another variation would be what is called

informal leadership which commands respect and prestige in specific situations.

- b. **Dictatorial or authoritarian leadership** which tends to centralise all the functions in one individual and does not seek to evoke the maximum involvement to other members in the group in finding solution to common problems
This type of leadership usually fails to generate spontaneity of assent and group solidarity. This authoritarian leadership may not be bad or unproductive. There are always certain situations in which members prefer such leadership for advancing the interest of the group. At times, permissive leadership blocks movement towards the attainment of group goal/goals.
- c. **Democratic creative leadership** promotes responsible participation by other group members and reinforces cooperative inter-personal relations within the group. It makes use of those ways that release creativity in group members and encourages cohesiveness in the group.

It should be noted that, none of these patterns, however, exist in its pure form in the real world. Whereas institutional leadership has informal aspects, informal leadership has formal aspects which characterise the various leadership roles. Again, we need to recognise that there is democratic-authoritarian continuum and that while one may be embedded to democratic leadership, this does not mean that in all situations there is full realisation of individual abilities and needs. Differences in leadership patterns do produce different results in different situations.

3.2 The Meaning of Resource Allocation

What is resource allocation?

Resource allocation is the distribution of resources – usually financial - among competing groups of people or programs. (Trends and Indicators in the Changing Health Care Marketplace, 2004).

Resource allocation is used to assign the available resources in an economic way. It is part of resource management. In project management, resource allocation is the scheduling of activities and the resources required by those activities while taking into consideration both the resource availability and the project time. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Allocation> of resources Accessed 19th January, 2011).

In strategic planning, resource allocation is a plan for using available resources, for example human resources, especially in the near term, to achieve goals for the future. The leadership pattern that encourages participation and interaction of people is bound to ensure effective human resource use. It is the process of allocating resources among the various projects or business units.

The plan has two parts: First, there is the basic allocation decision and secondly there are contingency mechanisms. The basic allocation decision is the choice of which items to fund in the plan, and what level of funding it should receive, and which to leave unfunded: the resources are allocated to some items, not to others.

There are two contingency mechanisms. There is a priority ranking of items excluded from the plan, showing which items to fund if more resources should become available; and there is a priority ranking of some items included in the plan, showing which items should be sacrificed if total funding must be reduced. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Allocation_of_resources Accessed 19th January, 2011).

3.3 Some Specific Rural Resources

These resources include:

Water Resources

Water is a resource that is needed by all humans and most other forms of life. Water is so crucial to humans that it often influences human settlement patterns. Nigeria is a country that receives a relatively high level of annual precipitation. However, rainfall is not distributed evenly through time or space. Large seasonal variation in rainfall exists, as well as large regional variation in rainfall. Because of these variations in time and space, people in different parts of Nigeria use water in different ways. For example, in the drier northern parts of Nigeria where rainfall is lower and less evenly distributed throughout the year, efforts have been made to develop irrigation. Irrigation development has involved many different kinds of dams, from large electricity-producing dams to smaller dams used mainly for field irrigation.

While irrigation is important in a few parts of the country, the vast majority of people use water mainly for day-to-day household activities like cooking, drinking, and washing. In a relatively well-watered country like Nigeria, one would think that acquiring water would not be a problem. Providing safe, abundant supplies of household water is not a simple task, however. In a poor country like Nigeria, gaining access to

safe, continuous water supplies is an ongoing challenge for many. Human wastes and pollution make many water supplies unsafe for many people. In addition, the state has been unable to provide safe, affordable water. This is particularly true in rural areas. In many rural areas, women and girls are forced to walk long distances to acquire household water. In extreme cases, women and children may spend from two to three hours per day gathering water. It goes without gain saying that most rural households do not have their own pipe-borne water supply. In the best of circumstances, small villages or neighborhoods will have their own wells. While water supply is somewhat better in urban areas, major challenges still remain. In cities without a functioning public water system, individual households and groups of households must either drill their own well or purchase their water. The proliferation of small urban wells is not an optimum solution, however. There is no guarantee that the water drawn from these wells is safe for drinking. Without adequate sanitation facilities, household wastes filter into the city's underground water supply.

Access to safe water is a critical factor in Nigerian public health. This is why the poor state of Nigeria's water supply is so important. The most damaging drinking water-borne illnesses are typhoid, cholera, and diarrhea. Other human diseases are spread merely through contact with contaminated water. Bathing water illnesses include bilharzias (another name for schistosomiasis), guinea worm, and roundworm. Drinking and bathing are not the only methods through which water-borne illnesses are spread. Contaminated water is often used to wash foods like fruits and vegetables. This often provides another channel for diseases to spread.

Besides immediate household use, water is an important resource for transportation and electricity generation. With respect to the latter, Nigeria produces approximately one-half of all its electricity through hydro-dams. The Kainji Dam in West-central Nigeria is the source of most of this hydroelectricity. While this is an impressive relative figure, Nigerian electricity consumption is low by international standards. Thus, many Nigerians are still without electricity or do not rely heavily on electricity for their energy needs.

In terms of transportation, Nigeria's rivers play an important role in the country's transportation system. Because Nigeria is a relatively well-watered country, it has an abundance of rivers. It should be noted, however, that the flow of rivers fluctuates seasonally, depending on both regional rainfall regime and human uses of river water (e.g. irrigation, dams).

The two major rivers of Nigeria are the Niger and its primary Nigerian tributary, the Benue. The Niger River is the major river for all of West Africa, rising in the Guinea Highlands 4200 km upstream from its mouth. Because of substantial water loss upstream, however, the Niger is not as large as one might imagine by the time it reaches Nigeria. This reality hinders the use of the Niger as an all-season West African transportation artery. Nevertheless, the Niger-Benue system is of substantial importance to Nigeria. "The large volume of water [in the lower part of the Niger], particularly between June and November when it is in flood, the steady gradient of its valley, and the fact that it flows through rich agricultural lands, make it of great importance for transport."

(<http://www.uni.edu/gai/index.html> Accessed 17th February, 2011).

Forest Resources

In many parts of the developing world, however, wood is a primary source of household energy. In much of sub-Saharan Africa, fuel-wood is the dominant source of energy for cooking and other activities. Nigeria is typical of this pattern. While fuel-wood use is most common in rural areas, many urban households also rely upon wood for their daily needs.

In rural areas, people often gather their own fuel-wood. In fact, many rural people earn small amounts of income by gathering fuel-wood for the cities. Depending on the state of local vegetation, fuel-wood gatherers may have to travel extensive distances to collect their fuel-wood. One reason for this is that many tree species like oil palms and cocoa trees are not used for fuel-wood. Thus, fuel-wood collectors must gain access to particular trees in particular places. Further, fuel-wood collection is a seasonal activity. For small-scale wood collectors, the dry season is a time of intensified fuel-wood collection. This is because there is typically less farm work to do in the dry season and wood is lighter and easier to carry. This is important because most fuel-wood collectors are limited by the amount that they can carry as a head-load. Because of the seasonality of fuel-wood collection in the northern half of the country, fuel-wood prices fluctuate seasonally as well. In general, fuel-wood is more expensive during the rainy season.

One important determinant of fuel-wood use over the last several decades is population growth. To the extent that people do not acquire their energy needs from non-wood sources, greater population growth leads to greater cutting of trees for fuel-wood. While this basic argument is an accurate assessment for many parts of sub-Saharan Africa, it is important to evaluate the role of humans in managing tree resources. In

Nigeria, there are indications that people are quite capable of managing their tree resources without outside, bureaucratic intervention. The region surrounding the northern city of Kano provides an excellent case study of fuel-wood management. (<http://www.uni.edu/gai/index.html> Accessed 17th February, 2011).

Mineral Resources

Mineral extraction in Nigeria is highly localised and employs relatively few people. Nonetheless, minerals have been some of Nigeria's most important resources in the last several decades. As the following examples indicate, however, the importance of mineral resources fluctuates a great deal over time. For example, in the British colonial era tin was an important resource extracted from north-central Nigeria. At the peak of tin mining in the 1940s and 1950s, the industry directly employed as many as 75,000 workers. After this peak, however, both tin production and employment levels began to decline precipitously. Part of the reason for this decline was the exhaustion of the tin reserves. The more important reason was that tin production in other parts of the world was far cheaper and more economical. Because places like Southeast Asia and Bolivia could produce tin ore much more cheaply, Nigeria's tin industry went into serious decline. Not long after the decline of tin, however, Nigeria discovered vast quantities of petroleum reserves. These discoveries were to have major impacts on Nigeria's national development, both positive and negative.

Nigeria has substantial petroleum and natural gas reserves. While it is important to know that Nigeria is a large oil producer, it is also critical to know where these resources are located. As with most geographic phenomena, oil is not located evenly throughout Nigeria. Instead, it is concentrated along the Nigerian coast, particularly around the delta of the Niger River and in the southeast corner of the country. The highly concentrated location of oil resources has been of critical importance throughout the short history of independent Nigeria. Large-scale oil resources were first discovered in this region of Nigeria in the late 1950s. Extraction of crude oil did not begin until the 1960s. (<http://www.uni.edu/gai/index.html> Accessed 17th February, 2011).

Land Resources

It is often easy to overlook land as a resource. In Nigeria, however, thirty to forty times the numbers of people are directly engaged with the soil through agriculture. In many countries with low soil fertility, chemical fertilisers are used extensively. This is not the case in Nigeria; however, where fertiliser use continues to be among the lowest rates in the world. Lack of fertiliser use is due to a mix of different factors. Most

Nigerians cannot afford fertiliser or get credit for increased agricultural inputs. Furthermore, government has often mismanaged distribution of state-supplied fertiliser.

In the absence of chemical or organic fertilisers, Nigerian agriculture has relied on different fallow systems to maintain soil fertility. In areas of moderate to low population density and relatively equitable land distribution, these systems are quite effective. These fallow systems can often be disrupted by population growth or changes in land tenure, however. The key point to note here is that external social and economic constraints often limit the ways in which people use resources like land. In other words, individual farmers do not have full control over the way in which they use their land. If a farmer is faced with the choice of immediate personal survival or the long-term health of the soil, personal survival is the obvious winner. In other cases, however, individuals may shift their agricultural production to other crops. Cassava provides an excellent example of a shift to a new crop.

Soil is also an important building material in Nigeria. In the majority of the country, the walls of houses and other buildings are constructed out of sand. Since sand is readily available, it serves as a relatively cheap and environmentally friendly building material. The use of sand in construction is important because it decreases the amount of wood, stone, or other materials that are required for building construction. In order to produce a solid and durable wall, soil is typically mixed with a straw-like material and some gravel. Mud-walled buildings like these are then topped off with a thatch roof, metal roof, or a wood-supported mud roof. (<http://www.uni.edu/gai/index.html> Accessed 17th February, 2011).

4.0 CONCLUSION

The subject of leadership pattern and rural resource allocation is important for change agents and students to understand. This is due to the fact that rural resource distribution and allocation will affect the socio-economic well-being of the people. However, leadership pattern in the community will provide direction for effective utilisation of rural resources in such a way that every member in the community benefits.

5.0 SUMMARY

Leadership pattern may be expressed in the following forms:

- a. Situational leadership
- b. Informal leadership
- c. Dictatorial or authoritarian leadership

d. Democratic leadership.

Resource allocation is the scheduling of activities and the resources required by those activities while taking into consideration both the resource availability and the project time. Specific rural resources include water, minerals, and forest and soil resources.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Briefly explain different forms of leadership pattern?
- ii. What is resource allocation?
- iii. Describe specific resources common to the rural areas

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 FUTURE OF LEADERSHIP IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Effective leadership with good focus will determine the success of rural development programmes. For leadership to be relevant in future intervention activities, there is the need for leadership practice and issues to shift and also certain leadership skills must be improved upon. It is apparently certain today that the use of technology to perform some communication activities has come to stay. Therefore, future leadership is such that should take seriously the issue of leadership skills development which entails developing the leaders' writing skills and ability to manipulate information technology for easy communication. Future leadership should also look at the past and the present and project for the future in such a way that development will be accelerated.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- contextualise the shift in leadership practice for the future
- discuss leadership skills development for rural development
- explain the problem of earning leadership trust.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Leadership Practice in the Future

To activate the untapped leadership potential, leadership thinking and practice need to shift in three fundamental directions (Reinelt, 2010):

From Individuals to Communities

Leadership is not primarily a capacity or quality that an individual possesses; it is a relational process that occurs in groups, communities and networks. We can see tangible outcomes when we nurture leadership in communities. A great example is the work of the Promotora Institute in Nogales, Arizona in the United States of America. The Institute was founded by local women in the community, who people turned to for health advice. Promotoras lead by listening; and building trust. They look for strengths and help people make the connections they need to control and improve their lives. Promotoras have succeeded in supporting communities with few health resources to become healthier – even when their success is not widely recognised.

As one promotora said, “Some business people tell me, ‘You are not efficient.’ I say, ‘We are more efficient than you could possibly imagine, because our job is to listen, find out how much of an intervention people need and connect them to solutions.’” This ability to listen and relate is at the heart of the new leadership model.

From Organisations to Networks

While leadership in organisations is positional, individual, top-down, and directive; leadership in networks is relational, collective, bottom-up, and emergent. We have an opportunity to apply network principles to our leadership efforts and tap into networks as powerful sources of innovation.

One story that illustrates the power of networks is the approach CEO Paul Levy and Beth Israel Deaconess Hospital took to respond to a \$20 million deficit in 2009. Instead of convening his senior leadership team to make a decision about layoffs, Levy called a meeting with all employees. He did not come in with a plan; he came in with a concern. He suggested a potentially unpopular idea: protecting low-paying jobs by reducing the salary and benefits of higher paid employees – including many in the auditorium. To his surprise the room erupted in applause. His candid request led to countless suggestions for cost savings. He tapped into the power of the employee network; as a result they all

jointly owned the solution. Levy modeled openness and transparency; and trusted the process to produce positive outcomes.

From Silos to Partnerships

We typically exercise and develop leadership in silos. We have separate workforces, distinct cultures, different ways of framing problems and defining solutions. Yet, this way of leading has not produced health or educational equity. Why? We have failed to recognise that producing these results requires multi-stakeholder approaches that cut across sectors and disciplines.

The African Public Health Leadership and Systems Innovation Initiative is an example of a multi-sectoral approach. This Initiative, currently being piloted in Namibia, seeks to transform a highly skilled health system. Multi-stakeholder teams of national health leaders, senior government officials, local community health providers, and representatives from business and civil society engage in problem-based learning that generates and tests innovative solutions. The group is guided through a leadership development process that breaks down barriers. Something as simple as using each other's first names, not titles, transforms how people see themselves in relationship to each other. Transcending hierarchies and silos opens up new possibilities for addressing systemic issues that have defied solutions in the past.

Leadership emerges through relationships. We need to focus on building relationships and building trust. We also need to create the conditions for people to self-organise. And finally, we need to break down the silos and establish partnerships with other groups that are pursuing similar outcomes.

3.2 Leadership Skills for Rural Development

The last 20 years has seen an incredible increase in technology. Most of the principles of good leadership remain the same, regardless of how technology changes. However, technology presents new challenges for leaders (Shead, 2010).

Virtual Contact Leadership

One of the benefits of modern technology is the ability to communicate with anyone anywhere in the world. While this is a benefit for businesses looking to expand, it presents unique challenges for leaders. Many leaders have a leadership skill set that relies heavily on their personality and "presence". Many of these skills do not translate well into electronic communication.

Leaders need to be aware of this and work to improve their skills in communicating and leading using modern tools. They can no longer rely on the power of their personality to give them an edge. One of the biggest areas leaders must develop is the ability to communicate well through the written word.

In the past, leaders were often able to rely on assistants for written communication. However, with the ubiquitous use of email, this is no longer an option. Leaders who cannot communicate well in writing will find themselves at a disadvantage.

Leaders preparing for the future should make a conscious effort in the following areas:

- developing strong writing skills
- understanding different forms of electronic communication
- understanding the culture of different forms of electronic communication.

Leadership skills to be developed for rural development according to White Tag Leadership Development (2011) include:

- **Getting and giving information:** is probably the first competency required of leaders. If you cannot communicate effectively, then no other leadership skill will compensate for this lack. First and foremost, you must be able to exchange information effectively and accurately.
There are three distinct aspects to communication, or getting and giving information: Getting it, retrieving it, and giving it.
- **Understanding group needs and characteristics:** Every group member needs to learn other members' needs and characteristics. Throughout life, as any group forms, members informally assess others' characteristics and needs.
- **Knowing and understanding group resources:** This competency enhances the accidental, serendipitous encounter. It provides an informal but recognised stage where group leaders and members can learn more about each other.
As a leader, it is a good idea to introduce activities that help the individuals in the group to become acquainted with one another's skills, knowledge, and abilities.
- **Controlling the group:** A group exists for a purpose. Control is the throttle of the group's engine—the energy that gives it direction. As a leader exerts control, he balances getting the job done and keeping the team together.

- **Counselling:** Counseling is a private talk with someone that helps the individual with a personal problem. As a leader, people will come to you with problems. Because you are a leader, you will spot people with problems. You cannot turn them away or just let them suffer, because the ignored problem, if serious, will almost inevitably become a group problem.
- **Setting the example:** As a leader, setting the example means that your public and private lives are transparent and unified. Since we define leadership as a property of the group, and at its essence the act of influencing a group to achieve its goals, anyone is by definition a leader. Setting the Example is one way all members can influence the group.
While, a very simple competency on the face of it, none is more important. Fail to demonstrate this competency to members of your group, and you are doomed to negative results. No matter how good a line you talk, if you do not match it with your walk, you will earn no respect and find it increasingly difficult to get the group to work with you.
Setting the example is where your backbone shows. If you have character, if your character has integrity—that is, if who you are in public the same person you are in private—you will accomplish far more than you might imagine possible. For this kind of leader, as long as he takes care of his followers’ needs, enjoys their respect, loyalty, and even love, there will be results.
- **Representing the group:** Representing the group is accurately communicating to non-group members the sum of group members’ feelings, ideas, etc., and vice versa. A leader must represent his team on a great variety of issues. Some of these issues and the need for a decision representing group interests will be known in advance; others will not be.
- **Planning:** Planning as an ongoing process, where a decision at each step helps clarify your choices in the next step. You can use the suggested questions after each step to help define the details for each task.
The effective use of planning will do more than any other competency to advance both getting the job done and keeping the group together. It is an “umbrella” competency in its effect on a variety of issues. Planning is useful both in group situations and one-on-one. The goal of planning is to improve the quality of the decisions made and the results achieved.
- **Evaluation:** Evaluation is a continual process, either informal or formal, of judging a situation against a standard.
- **Sharing leadership:** A way of assessing the desirability of a leadership style or the need for sharing leadership with the team is to consider both the groups’ short- and long-range goals. Effective, enlightened, unselfish leaders are true servants of the

group and are not reluctant to encourage group participation and ownership of a decision.

3.3 The Problem of Earning Leadership Trust

Some of the implementation problems facing rural development intervention will require some changes for leaders of the future. Subordinates are less likely to trust a leader because of position and title. In the future, obtaining trust will require even more effort. In the future, leaders must seek to actively measure the level of trust in their organisation and take deliberate steps to improve the level of trust. Before making big changes leaders must gauge the level of trust in their organisation to make sure they have built enough of a solid trust foundation in order to obtain support.

While the core skills of leadership will remain the same over time, the leadership of the future will require a different emphasis on particular skills. By preparing for these changes ahead of time, leaders can ready themselves today for what organisations will need tomorrow (White Tag Leadership Development, 2011).

4.0 CONCLUSION

Rural development is a subject that everybody including the government is concerned about. Where attention is not given to rural development people are bound to wallow in poverty as they will lack basic amenities that will enhance their living standard. To look at the issue of rural development is also to consider the future of leadership. This is so because no leadership no direction and without direction no development. It is in this wise that leadership that will be considered fit for the future ought to be dynamic in terms of skill development and must be ready to shift ground in order to cope with future challenges and at the same time be relevant in the scheme of development.

5.0 SUMMARY

Leadership thinking and practice need to shift in three fundamental directions:

- a From individual to communities
- b From organisation to networks
- c From silos to partnerships.

Leadership skill development means that leaders work to improve their skills in communicating and leading using modern tools or information technology. Leaders preparing for the future should ensure that they

develop strong writing skills and also know how to make use of electronic communication.

However, the serious problem that needs to be addressed is that of leadership trust. Efforts have been made to address rural development problems, but leadership has not performed up to expectation. Hence, future leaders should ensure that steps are taken to improve the level of trust.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Explain the shift in directions of leadership practice?
- ii. Outline and discuss the leadership skills necessary for future development agent.
- iii. Why is leadership trust a major problem in rural development?

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