NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COURSE CODE: AEM 506

COURSE TITLE: ADVANCED RURAL SOCIOLOGY

AEM 506

ADVANCED RURAL SOCIOLOGY

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COURSE GUIDE

INTRODUCTION

Rural sociology is a branch of sociology which is mainly concerned with the study of the social and cultural factors affecting the lives of those in rural and agrarian society. Rural sociology has its roots from general sociology. This unlike general sociology, which is more interested in the generation of social theories through basic research, rural sociology makes use of the appreciation of social knowledge to practical problems. It emphasizes experienced field research more than theory construction and maintains a particular interest in rural people, their patterns of interaction and social organization.

Advanced Rural Sociology (AEM 506) is a one semester, 2 units 500 level course. The course is divided into four modules of twelve units.

This Course Guide intimates you with the content of the course, the course materials you will be using and how to use these materials. The course guide gives you some guidance on the tutor-marked assignments.

COURSE AIMS

The aim of the course is to expose you to the knowledge of sociology as it relates to rural society.

It defines the difference between personal problems and social condition

It gives an idea about the sociological paradigms such as social conflicts, structural and functional aspects of the society

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of this course student should be able to know and understand

- The concept of rural sociology
- Social change
- Group dynamics and problem of rural society
- Rural poverty

WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE

This course requires that the student spend enough time to read and study. For easy understanding content, the course has been developed in a comprehensive and readable way. It is advisable that student attend tutorial sessions where ideas and knowledge can be shared and compare with colleagues.

THE COURSE MATERIAL

The major components of the course are

- Course Guide
- Study Units

Study Modules and Units

This course is divided into four modules with twelve units in all. The modules and the units are;

MODULE 1: General Sociology

Unit 1:   General Sociology Theories

Unit 2:   Analysis of Social Structure of Rural Agrarian Society

MODULE 2: Social Change I

Unit 1:   Selected Theories of Social Change

Unit 2:   Social and Attitude Change

Unit 3:   Measurement of Social Change

MODULE 3: Social Change II

 Unit 1:   Resistance to Change

Unit 2:   Resistance and Conducive Forces to Change in Rural Societies.

MODULE 4: Group Dynamics and Problems of Rural Society

Unit 1:   Concept and Stages of Group Development

Unit 2:   Types of Group Structure

Unit 3:   Differences between Rural and Urban Settlement

Unit 4:   Characteristics of Rural and Urban Settlement

Unit 5:   Rural Poverty

UNIT 1: **GENERAL SOCIOLOGY THOERIES**

1.0   **Introduction**

Man is a social animal; it is not possible for him to live in isolation. He needs people around and hence lives in a society. When he lives in a society he follows some rules and regulations and norms of the society. In this scenario general sociology comes into being. Sociology is very closely related to Psychology though they differ in some areas. What makes sociology a science was its scientific research focus on humanity. In this unit we are going to learn the definition of sociology, its aims and general theory.

2.0   **Objectives**

After going through this unit you should be able to;

1. Explain the term and branches of sociology
2. Highlight the objectives of sociology
3. Explain the theories in sociology

3.1   **Meaning and Aims of Sociology**

3.1.1 Meaning of Sociology

Sociology may be defined as the study of social relationships, social action and social culture. Areas of study in general sociology ranges from the analysis of brief contents between an individual on the street to the study of global social process. Sociology is classified as a behavioural science in academic discipline

3.1.2 Aims of General Sociology

The aims of general sociology are that;

1. It defines the difference between personal problems and social condition
2. It gives an idea about the sociological paradigms such as social conflicts, structural and functional aspects of the society
3. It benefits the planners, researchers, educators, law makers, business personnels and those who are interested in general welfare of the public for the formulation of policies for the general public.
4. It makes maximum use of the information available from the past
5. Helpful in making individual a social being
6. Help in finding solutions to social problem

There are other branches of sociology among which are political sociology, sociology of education, clinical sociology and rural sociology

3.2   Concepts and importance of rural sociology

3.2.1 Concepts of Rural Sociology

Rural sociology may be defined as a branch of sociology which is mainly concerned with the study of the social and cultural factors affecting the lives of those in rural and agrarian society.

Rural sociology has its roots from general sociology. This unlike general sociology, which is more interested in the generation of social theories through basic research, rural sociology makes use of the appreciation of social knowledge to practical problems. It emphasizes experienced field research more than theory construction and maintains a particular interest in rural people, their patterns of interaction and social organization.

3.2.2.   The importance of rural sociology to developing countries like Nigeria.

The importance of rural sociology particularly, to the developing countries, Nigeria inclusive, where the degree of rurality is still high cannot be over emphasized. These among others include;

1. It brings light to the main characteristics and problems of rural areas, the understanding of which is invaluable in dealing fully with ruralites.
2. It provides information about rural people's needs to the government for rural development programmes so that it can be properly designed.
3. It provides feedback to the change agency as to the progress made and the modifications needed in their change programmes.
4. It exposes the change agent, who has to interact with the rural people with sociological knowledge on issues such as leadership, power, roles, mores culture, family organisation etc, which he needs for the effective performance of his work.

3.3   Generals Sociology Theory

Sociology is the scientific study of human social activity. In the effort to study human social activity, sociologists break it down into objects of analysis

All theories in sociology are interested in explaining the ways in which social life is organized and ordered as well as the ways in which change comes into the society. In explaining social order and social change various school of thought have asked similar questions but were given different answers.

The three general sociology theories are the evolutionary theory, functional theory and conflict theory.

3.3.1   ***Evolutionary Theory:*** Evolutionary theory concentrates more on the explanation of how societies change over the course of time rather than on how it achieves order.

The proponents of evolutionary theory are Auguste Comte, William Summer, Hebert spencer and Vilfredo Pareto. Comte posited that societies develop over three horizontal stages namely theological, metaphysical and scientific and each of these stages represents an advancement in men's knowledge of their world. To sponsor the development of human society can be likened to the evolutionary development of biological organisms from simple to

complex as earlier stated by Charles Dawin. He also held a view that just as biological organisms are made up of different interdependent organs, the interdependence of which is indispensable for the holding together of the organisms as a system, so also the society is made up of institutions such as the family, the economy, and the polity which discharge the vital functions of regulation, production and sustenance.

Emile Durkeim saw societies as evolving from small communities with minimal division of labour and in which members are held together by a mechanical solidarity (i.e. solidarity based on difference and interdependence).

Evolutionary model has been used to rationalize class differentiation in society. To the earlier evolutionists, social change was guide by natural laws rather than human intervention.

The theorists ideas have been dispelled by western education, advancement in technology, industrialization and globalization have all combined to break caste and class boundaries in most countries.

3.3.2 The Functional Model

This model likens society to a living organism with each part being indispensable to the survival of the system. In other words, each part or structure of the system has and performs some functions. The society is always striving to maintain the stability or equilibrium through constant exchanges with its specialized structure (institutions) and sub structure.

The society, as a social system, has four basic problems which can be classified into two groups, instrumental and expressive functional imperatives. The instrumental are problems given from external and it include those of adaptation to the environment and goal attainment, while the expressive problems that are internal factors include pattern maintenance and tension management and integration. The society is especially a moral entity imbued with norms and values, statuses and roles. The specific norms (rules of behavior) which guide and influence particular behaviours are in turn

influenced and supported by the general system of values which characterize a particular society.

The merit of functional model is that it is very important in the explanation of the internal dynamic of the society as a system while its demerits are;

i. The ideal of attributing functions or purpose to institutions is improper as social institutions are not conscious beings and so cannot perform functions on their own

ii. It assumes a commonness of interest in society whereas, what might be functional to one group in society might be dysfunctional to another in the same society

iii. It tends to be conservative and reduces the concern of the actual dynamics of a social change.

3.3.3 The Conflict Theory:

The conflict theory holds that society is a stage for class struggle. It holds that there is no single interest but a variety of interests which therefore divide people and groups. The theory also shows that social relations involve domination and exploitation of one group by another and that social unity is maintained through coercion. It emphasizes that man is naturally good but social institutions distort the basic nature of man. Conflict theory suggests that inequality promotes conflict and is therefore unnecessary. Furthermore, the theory agrees that class is a distinct social group with different interests mainly economic and that the state is invariably an instrument of oppression.

The proponents of conflict theory are George Simmel and Karl Marx. George Simmel is interested in the explanation of social order. He viewed social order as an outgrowth of competing forces of harmony and disharmony. The society persists only according to the proponents because of the existence of external threats. In addition, points of conflict determine the line of cleavage between groups and that conflict in everywhere and its resolution gives rise to other forms of social relationship.

4.0 Conclusion

Theories in sociology are concerned with the problems of social order and social changes.

5.0 Summary

You have been taken through the concept of general sociology, rural sociology and general sociology theory. We identified the aims of rural sociology which include bringing into limelight the problems of rural areas, providing information about rural areas to the government, providing feedback to change agents and exposing change agents on how to interact with the rural people. We also learnt that general sociology theory includes evolution theory, functional model and conflict model. Evolution theory deals with how societies change over the course of time rather than how it advances order while the functional theory likens society to a living organism. With each part being indispensable to the survival of the system, the conflict theory holds that society is a stage for class struggle and that there is no single interest but a variety of interest which therefore divides people and groups.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

1. Define the term rural sociology and what are the relevance of this field to society at large
2. Explain the following sociological theories;

(i) Evolutionary theory

(ii) Functional theory and

(iii) Conflict theory

7.0 References and further readings

Ekong, E.E. (2003): An introduction to Rural Sociology, Uyo, Dive Educational Publisher PP 1-19

Kachroo, J.L (1996) General Sociology

UNIT 2: **ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF RURAL AGRARIAN SYSTEM AND SOCIETIES.**

Table of contents

1.0   Introduction

It is necessary to understand the structure of the society with which one is working so as to know who does what in the village and in particular, to know who makes the decisions. Decisions such as who are the people that really matter or have influence on the allocation of land and other societal matters. In order to avert the mistakes that have been made in the past by the change agent, through lack of knowledge of village social structure of through ignoring its existence, this unit is of great importance.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of this unit you should be able to;

1.   Define the term social structure

2.   List the factors causing the division of people into groups and societies.

3.   Explain the systems of succession and inheritance in society

3.0   Social Structure of Rural Agrarian System

Over seventy percent of the population of the developing countries such as Africa and Asia, lives in rural areas and are responsible for over seventy percent of the food consumed. The implication is that they live in rural areas and have farming as their main occupation. They are relatively poor and have low living standard. However, the ruralites are capable of living together and organize their lives. How the people are able to live together happily and organize their systems ia a function of the social structure they have put in place.

3.1   Concept of social structure in rural society

Society is the term used to describe a group of people who have had and worked together long enough to get themselves organized and to think of themselves as a social unit. The structure or organization of a society is the way in which the society is organized into families, clans, tribes, communities, clubs and so on. Social structure of a community contains primary channels of communication. These channels therefore, have to be discovered probably to be inferred from previous knowledge of social relationships and the expectations that people have certain incumbents. Social structure consists of those relations between men and women that have achieved a certain definiteness of form and relative permanence.

There are three main kinds of social structure, which are; the economic structure, the cultural structure and the regulative structure. The economic structure is concerned with the means of life while cultural structure has to do

with the intrinsic ends values of society (that is, those institutions and associations concerned with knowledge art religion, recreation, etc.) the regulation or control of human relations is served by what may be called the regulative structure, which includes the machinery of law, the moral and religious codes as well as conventions and fashions.

3.2 Factors causing the division of people into groups and societies

(a) **Sex division:** Traditionally some jobs are carried out by men while some others are done by women. Each sex has customary duties or roles in village life and agriculture. Men are majorly engaged in production of crops while majority of females do engage in the processing and marketing of crops, so, change agent must be conscious of the changes that best fit each sex.

(b) **Religion and ceremony groups:** members of certain religious groups have common loyalties and attitudes. This must be considered while introducing a change to believers of each sect of religion.

(c) **Division based on age:** Age grade is usually used in dividing a society into groups such as the youth, adult and the elders. These three age grades have diverse interests and characteristics so, in considering a change, it must be specifically targeted to the respective groups mentioned above.

(d) **Grouping on the basis of common residence:** The grouping here refers to small units, such as family homesteads or hamlets of a few houses grouped together or spited to form the man village. Such villages usually have a headman or village head who directs the affairs of the community.

The fact that they are living close together forces people to cooperate and develop similar attitudes to common problems. The group may split into fractions to form new homesteads or hamlets.

(e) **Kinship groups:** These are groups of closely related people and are bond together by blood and marriage**.**

The bonds make the members to conform to the groups' behavior, attitudes and responsibilities otherwise called kinship ties. The head of the groups makes decisions which are binding on its members. Kingship heads are very much well respected among the members as he has the final say over most matters concerning the members.

Also members of a kinship group have the responsibility to help each other. This may be in the form of helping the aged and the less privileged members of the society by trying to alleviate their poverty and avert serious misfortunes.

3.3 Systems of succession and inheritance in agrarian society.

The major systems of succession and inheritance are through the patrilineal and matrilineal.

(a) **Patrilineal:** In this system descent, succession and inheritance are through the father side of the family. Inheritance is passed from father to the son. Most of the land for farming in Western part of Nigeria for instance is through inheritance from ancestral origin. The lands are divided among the male children after the demise of their parents, however in some exceptional cases landed property may be given to female children.

(b) **Matrilineal**: matrilineal as system descent, succession and inheritance are through the mother side of the family. It is the woman who owns the land, there is no change in ownership until the wife does, and then the land is divided among her children. This system enables women to become better farmers while the males on the other hand may not be willing to develop the land properly because he knows he cannot inherit it. This system is common in Ghana; however some people who oppose this system have been purchasing land or lease it for their own personal use.

4.0 Conclusion

Social structure or organization exists in all societies but the form and the basis may differ from one society to another. It is therefore necessary for an agent to be familiar with the structure of the society in which he is going to work so as to be effective in discharging his or her duties.

5.0 Summary

In this unit you have learnt about social structure which is the way in which the society is organized into families, clans, tribes, communities and groups. The factors causing divisions of people into groups and societies are sex, religions, age, common residence and kinship groups. Also the system of inheritance in rural community may be through patrilineal or matrilineal.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

1. Explain the term social structure and why is it necessary for a change agent to study social structure of the environment he is going to work with.
2. Explain the factors causing the division of people into groups and societies.
3. Explain the term matrilineal and matrilineal form of inheritance.

7.0 References and Further readings

FAO (1973) Agricultural Extension Maunal (Ed). Rome FAO p. 83-83.

Otite O., Ogionwo, W. (1990) An Introduction to Sociological studies. Heinemann Educational Books (Nigeria) Ltd. Pg 382 – 384.

MODULE 2: Social Change

Unit 1:   Selected Theories of Social Change

Unit 2:   Social and Attitude Change

Unit 3:   Measurement of Social Change

Unit 1: **SELECTED THEORIES OF SOCIAL CHANGE**

Table of Contents

1.0   Introduction

Theories of social change in general, are concerned with the explanation on the sources of social change, the time span of the change and the effect of the change on the changing unit.

Theories in rural sociology were all concerned with the problems of social order and social change. Based on the above, different schools of thought emerged which were later grouped into two large camps; consensus or equilibrium school (comprises of evolutionary and functional theories) and conflict camps. Social change is the process by which attraction occurs in the structure and function of a social system. Social system, in this definition, may be a group, a community, a city, a region or a nativity. Social changes affect the society as well as the individual. At individual level, it is concerned with how individual learns of innovation, what motivates him to change, how to adjust to change and the societal personal factors affecting social change. It is on these premises that various schools of thoughts and theories emerged as theories of social change.

2.0   Objectives

After going through the content of this unit, you should be able to

1. `Define the term social change
2. Enumerate and explain theories of social change

3.0   Selected theories of social change

There are several theories of social change, for this course however four have been selected for discussion namely;

1.   The Behaviourists
2.   The Psychodynamic
3.   The diffusionist and
4.   The conflict theory

3.1 The Behaviourist Theory

The proponents of this theory are Bandura, Kunkel, Homans and Eisentadt. They draw upon one or more learning theories to explain change at the individual level. They assume that individual respond to rewards and punishments which their culture imposes on desirable and undesirable behaviours. Consequently, individuals over time, learns how to practice those behaviours which promise rewards and to desist from those that attract punishments. By manipulating sanctions therefore, behavior can be changed at any time. Social change can thereby be improved through the wise manipulation of sanctions by the system. This theory can further be illustrated by the act of giving incentives to the participants in a programme, the incentives given could stimulate more people into the programme while non participants do not benefit from the incentives.

3.2   The Psychodynamics Theory

The proponents of psychodynamics theory are Vegens and Mc Clelland. This theory emphasizes the man's internal state and explains behavior terms of his internal characteristics. Psychodynamics theorists hold that early childhood socialization largely predetermines future behavior, for instance in a society where children are not taught values of achievement, their needs for it will be very low in the future. They further suggest new socialization patterns which would ensure the development of those characteristics that are favourable to change and modernization.

The shortcoming of these two theories lives in false assumption that the internal state of man can be validly and directly studied/observed. Also that a relationship between observed behavior and assume characteristics of the internal state can be validly drawn. Furthermore, the assumption, that for a society to develop it must imbibe the values of western capitalist world. These aforementioned points are debatable.

3.3   The Diffusionist Theory:

This school of thought views social change as an educational process. The proponents play less importance on the internal state of individuals and holds that the world society could be divided into two camps on the basis of the relative modernity or primarily of each segment.

The modern sector is represented by the developed nations who are technologically advanced countries while the primitive sector is the developing nations who are technologically backward countries. The theory therefore holds that, for change to occur, modern technology must be diffused from advanced countries to underdeveloped nations or where they are lagging, and for the diffusion to be effective, it must include adequate communication skills, democratization and educational approach.

Diffusionist theory is also ethnocentric in nature in the sense that, it claims western culture to be the criterion yardstick for measuring development.

It assumes that social change is unidirectional which means that, all societies must go into the same direction in order to develop. The proponents, such as Roslow therefore, advocate the diffusion of western economic, social and political institutions to the less developing countries as necessary conditions for growth. However, today the situation is contrary as the advance countries have blocked the advancement of the developing countries and they themselves have attained her development status only at the expense and exploitation of the developing nations.

3.4   The Conflict Theory

The Conflict theory identifies causes of change in the institutional arrangements and not in individual's internal state or characteristics. It assesses man in the totality of his social relations and maintains that, gathering small bits of facts (out the individual level) the parts and aspects of the society can never yield the big truths about social order itself. To them, economic relations are the source of conflict and conflict the service of change.

4.0   Conclusion

Change in its general outlook and operations may be aiming at promoting the good of all its citizens while at the same time promoting the interest of specific groups. In the process of promoting common good and for change to occur at times, rewards or incentives are needed. Therefore, in studying the rural areas of developing countries like Nigeria, one cannot analyse the various structures from the consensus perspective and exclude the conflict perspectives. The duo must go hand in hand, for balanced realistic and objective analysis.

This eclectic approach (using elements and arguments from both camps) will be useful in the studying of the contemporal study of rural areas in developing countries.

5.0 Summary

This unit discussed the selected theories of social change. The theories include behaviourist, psychodynamics, diffusion and conflict theories. Behaviourists theory assumes that individual responds to rewards and punishment which culture imposes on desirable and undesirable behaviours. Also the psychodynamics as a theory holds that early childhood socialization largely predetermines future behavior. On the other hand the diffusionist theory views social change as an educational process, of less importance on internal state and divides the world society into developed and less developed segment. In addition, the diffusion theory advocates for the diffusion of modern technology from advance country to less advance countries and further state that for diffusion to be effective communication skills and democratic educational approach must be encouraged. As regards the conflict theory, it identifies the causes of change in the institutional arrangements rather than in individual internal state or characteristics.

6.0   Tutor marked assignment

1.   Clearly state the emphasis of behavornist theory on social change

2.   What are the differences between psychodynamics and diffusion theory of social change?

3.   In your own perspective which of the social change theory will you recommend for a developing country such as Nigeria?

7.0   REFERENCES AND FURTHER READINGS

Ekong E.E. (2003) An introduction to Rural sociology, You Done Edcucational Publishers Pp 259-265.

Rogers E.M and Svening L Modernisation among Peasnt N.T. opcit. Hoselit 2, B sociological Aspects of Economic Growth Glucose III. The free press 1960.

Rostow W.W. (1971) Politics and the stages of economic growth New York OUP 1971.

Unit 2: **SOCIAL AND ATTITUDE CHANGE**

1.0   Introduction

The purpose of extension education is to introduce change. It is therefore important that extension agents should understand the actions for change. We often hear of our elderly people saying, "things have changed from what it used to be in the past". This is an indication that nothing is permanent except change.

The primary purpose of social change is to bring about change for better living within a community. This change can be deliberately induced or purposely modified through the willing cooperative effort of the people themselves for the achievement of community improvement (Anyanwu, 1992)

2.0   Objectives

After successfully going through this unit, you should be able to

1. Define the term social change
2. Explain various types of social change
3. Discuss sources of change
4. Explain the concept of attitude and attribute change

3.0   Social and Attitude Change

Social change as a process lays emphasis on what happens to people socially and psychologically in the course of community development. Within this scope, they plan and act together for the satisfaction of their felt needs. In this process, individuals are assisted, through organized efforts to acquire the attitudes, the skills and concepts required for their effective participation in programmes designed to promote their well being. In discussing social and attitude change further, you will be intimated with its concept, forms, types and sources. In your own environment for instance, can you mention five things you observed have changed since the past ten years?

3.1   Concept of Social Change

The basis behind social change is that all societies are changing at all times. Social change can be defined as the modification in social systems and their sub-units in terms of their functioning or structure for a specified period of time i.e. it involves the change in the way people interact socially, in their structured relationships and in the functions performed by these relationships.

Social change is the significant alteration of social structures including consequences and manifestations of such structures embodies in norms values, cultural products and symbols.

Social change may take either of the following forms.
1.   Modification in human attitudes and behavior pattern as a result of education for example, a farmer changing his system of farming as a result of innovation received from the extension agent.
2.   Alteration in social conditions as a result of changes in policies of a social organization
3.   Effecting reforms in major legal and functional systems of a society.
Whenever laws are passed, they call for changes in the way sand conduct of people and which usually demands for adjustment.

4.   Changes in material culture involve the change in the arts and artifacts of cultures. It is the outwards manifestation of changes in the non material aspects of culture.

3.2   Types of Social Change

There are different types of changes and it is imperative that the extension should get acquainted with them so as to know which one to apply for its rural development projects.

3.2.1 Planned change.

Planned change is the one in which deliberate intervention effort is made to alter existing practice. It entails mutual goal setting by one or both parties. Goals and objectives must be clear to minimize trial and error. Planned change is used to correct some of the consequences of unintended or unplanned changes. It is also used in improving the rural system and for seeking assistance from out side.

3.2.2 Unplanned/ unintended plan/ natural change.

This type of change has no apparent deliberation or goal getting. It involves operations or activities which human being has no control over. For example, unplanned change may involve natural disaster such as flood or earthquake which can make people to shift from their locations to the other.

3.2.3 Total Change

This type of change is encompassing and comprehensive in nature. It covers all aspect of the social system such as economic, social, political and so on. This type of change may pose some difficulties for resource mobilization and ordering of priorities.

3.2.4 Segmental Change

This occurs in part as opposed to total change above. Resources mobilization is less difficult. It touches only an aspect of life of the people or a small percentage of people living in a place, the most important thing to note in this type of change is that the change should be sufficient enough to make a meaningful impact.

3.2.5 Coercive change

Coercive change is a change of force. Goal setting is usually done by one side and it is non mutual. Goal setting may be done by the change agent or government and the beneficiaries are not involved. The opposite of coercive change is voluntary change whereby people themselves make a plan for change and such include embarking on self helped projects.

3.2.6 Immanent change and contact change

Immanent change is that which takes place internally among people without external influence e.g. when a local blacksmith comes up with a new farm implement. In case of contact change it occurs when an external person unintentionally introduce a change (selective contact change) or represents a planned change organization to effect a change among the people (direct contact change)

3.2.7. Emulative Change

This is generally associated with formal organization or parastatas with clear cut superior/subordinate relationship. It can be viewed as an influence through identification. Change could be brought about sometimes uncourageously through identification and emulation of power figures by the subordinates as we have in the civil service.

3.2.8 Technocratic change

This is a type of change that relies on collecting and interpreting data e.g. the researchers or engineering models.

3.2.9 Indoctrination

This involves mutual goal setting and is deliberate. It involves an imbalance power ratio. The followers imbibe injunctions and tenets of the doctrine for example Christianity, Islam and traditional worshippers.

3.3   Sources of Change

The major sources of social change are through invention, discovery, and diffusion. Others include religions, urbanization, governmental policies, application of science and technology and natural physical forces.

3.3.1 Invention: Is the recombination of existing cultural traits to design a new things and the rate at which it takes place is directly related to the existing cultural base

3.3.2 Discovery: Is an act of sharing with others a perception of fact object or relationship which has always existed but was not known. This method is used to enhance the cultural base in a society.

3.3.3 Diffusion: entails the spreading of cultural traits from one group to another. Cultural diffusion involves both material and non material things and that is facilitated through the use of efficient technology communication gadgets, interaction facilities, telephoning and specialists, who are well trained for the diffusion of innovation and other sources

3.3.4 Religious institution: Brought changes through formal preaching, indoctrination and the use of metaphors and phrases to change people from one mode of life to another and also through the provision of education.

3.3.5 Government policies: Many changes have been brought about in the Nigeria society through governmental policies. The military era promulgate decrees while the civilian era pass legislative bills which require a major social change to be effected.

3.3.6 Application of Science and Technology: The patterned daily life in most rural settlements have changed considerably today as a result of new

road construction, rural electrification and water supply schemes. Many varieties of foreign food and cash crops have been introduced within traditional farming system and we now raise and enjoy exotic breeds of livestock as a result of research and improved technology.

3.3.7 Natural physical forces: These includes natural forces like water flood , erosion, and fire disaster, erosion and flood have necessitated the relocation of villages while excessive drought have caused the migration of the entire population within a region.

3.3.8 Urbanization: the growth of town/cities or urbanization has led to the attraction of youths and schools leavers aware from rural areas. In the cities there is increase in populations, in industries, in trades thereby resulting in water and light shortages. This have called for a tremendous adjustments on parts of urban dwellers

6.1   Concept of Attitudes and Attitudes Change

Attitudes can be defined as the more or less permanent feelings, thought and predispositions a person has about certain aspects of his environment. Its components are knowledge, feelings and inclinations to act.

In a more simple term, attitude can be defined as an evaluative disposition towards some objects which has consequences for how a person would act vis-à-vis the attitude object. The emphasis here is on feelings or emotions. A change in attitude is referred to as attitude change.

Many social psychologists now assume that among other factors, behavior is influenced by behavioural intentions; these intentions are not influenced by attitudes of people alone.

Attitudes influence behavior and the analysis of attitudes usually produces a model of behavioural change which are used by extension agents to persuade their clients to behave in a certain way or to adopt innovations disseminated them.
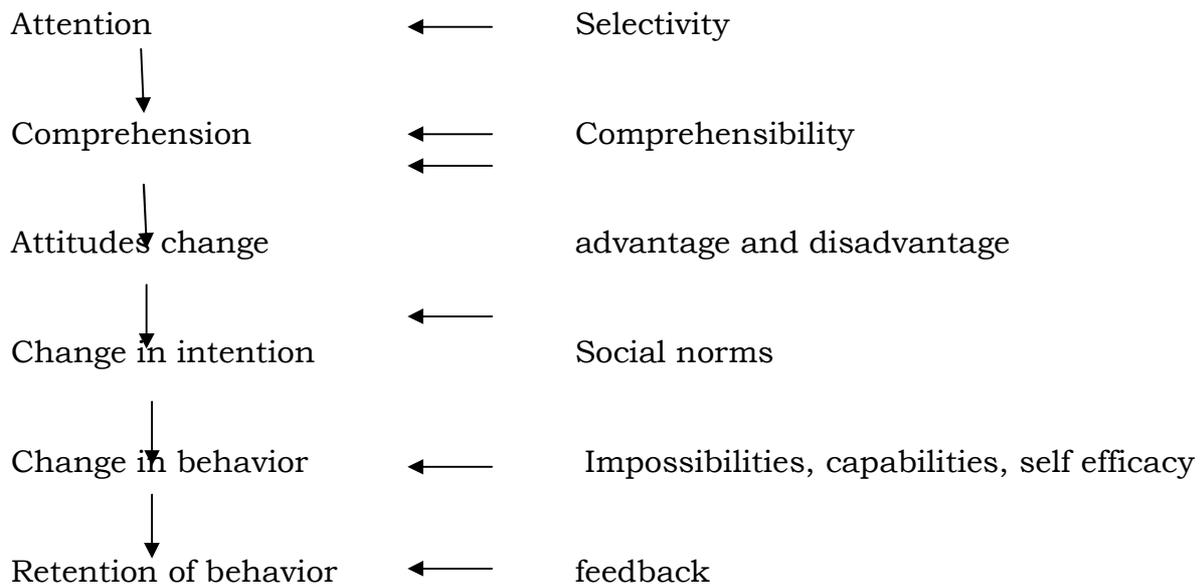
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Attention              ◄─────       Selectivity
   │
   ▼
Comprehension          ◄─────       Comprehensibility
                       ◄─────
   │
   ▼
Attitudes change                    advantage and disadvantage
   │
   ▼
Change in intention    ◄─────       Social norms
   │
   ▼
Change in behavior     ◄─────        Impossibilities, capabilities, self efficacy
   │
   ▼
Retention of behavior  ◄─────       feedback
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Fig. I.   Model for change in behavior through change in attitudes (Van den Ban and Hawkins (1996))

Extension agents would have to arouse their clients' attention by prosecuting their message in such a way that the clients select it from the vast array of messages available to them. The message is presented to the clients in such a way that the clients understand it. The client then should be helped to balance the advantages and disadvantages of the new behavior innovation. If the extension agent comes with a message which deviates widely from the clients present opinion, the message will be rejected. If the change advocated by the extension agent is favourably accepted in the client social environment, there is an increased probability that the clients will change their intention. It is quite possible to have a change in behavior if there are other changes. In the environment for example, fertilizer may be added to improve varieties of maize or availability of inputs. The farmers may revert back to their old behavior unless feedback, teaches them how their changed behavior will help them to achieve their goals more effectively.

4.0   **Conclusion:**

Change is normal and inevitable. Changes do affect the social and cultural lives of people living in rural area or agrarian communities. These changes are of varied types and sources and most of the time they make the rural people better off.

5.0 **Summary**

You have been taken through the concept of social change which is the modification in social system and their sub units in terms of their functioning or structures for a specific period of time. It may take the modifications in human attitudes and behavior, alterations in social conditions, effecting reforms in major legal functions or changes in material culture. Different types of social change were also discussed such as planned and unplanned change, total change, segmental change, immanent emulative, technocratic, and coercive just to mention a few. The sources of these changes were also explained and this includes, invention, diffusion, discovery government policies, urbanization application of science and technology and through the natural physical forces. Attitude is also defined as the permanent feelings, thoughts and predispositions a person has about certain aspects of his environment.

6.0 Tutor marked assignment

1. Define the term social change
2. State the different forms in which social change can take
3. Explain briefly four types and four sources
4. Define the term attitudes and discuss how attitudes can lead to a change in behavior

7.0 References and further readings

Anyanwu C. N. (1992): Community Development: The Nigerian Experience. Gabesthen Educational Publishers, Ibadan. Pp 24-25.

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Unit 3: **MEASUREMENT OF CHANGE IN RURAL SOCIETY**

Table of Contents

1.0   Introduction

Social change is a continuous process in which changes in human relationship occurs. In our earlier definition of social change, we made mention that social change is the modification in social system and their sub-units in terms of their functioning structure for a specified period of time, which implies that, there is need for periodic assessment of change.

2.0   Objectives

After going through this unit you should be able to

1. Enumerate the characteristics of the change process

2. Identify the indicators used in measuring of social change

3. Highlights the methods used in data collection for measurement of social change.

3.0   Measurement of Change

Given the mult-sectoral Nature of rural development and the anticipated social change, deliberate change effort may be difficult to introduce if mechanism for measuring it is out of place. This is because feedback from the

efforts of introducing change could be an impetus for further development and careful planning in that regard. It therefore becomes imperative to be acquainted with the modes of measuring change.

3.1 Characteristics of the change process.
Change process possesses the following characteristics
1. Spatial and time temporal: This means that change takes place in a geographical location and over a period of time
2. Change is assessed in relation to social structure:- change and their significance are used to assess the reaction to the relevant conditions of the society at the time of change.
3. Change is inevitable: change is normal and inevitable if society does not change it is abnormal and change may be planned or unplanned.
4. Change occurs at different rates from one different part of a society to the other
5. Change is usually faced with some resistance as there will be some people who will want to maintain the status quo

3.2 Measurement of Social Change
Social change is usually measured through the following ways by using:
1. Economic indicators: Involves the use of per capital income, gross national product, the amount spent on different sectors, such as agriculture and education and unemployment rate.
2. Demographic indicators: The factors considered under this type of measurement are birth rate, death rate, expected life span, fertility rate immigration and emigration rates. Reduction in death rate is an indication of development or change in health sector
3. Social indicators: social indicators are statistics that try to look at the well being of the people. It has direct normative interest which facilitates concise comprehensive and balanced judgment about the conditions of

major aspects of the society. Social indicators is not concerned alone with the number of people who attends hospitals, or who are diseased but are also interested in the state of health or well being or welfare of the people. It is not only interested on the income that people make but also in the satisfaction of their needs that they derive from it.

The indicators used for measuring social indicators are health, public safety, education, employment, income, housing, leisure and recreation and population. Social indicators are used to measure how the people fare in terms of social provision. It occurs periodically and this enables us to know whether there is an improvement at a particular time or not. It is used for advising or establishing certain social goals and social policies and for predicting future social events.

3.3   Data collection for measurement of social change

Data for the measurement of social change are usually collected in three forms namely information, enlightenment and intelligence data

1. Information data- this data is specific in nature as it does not give more than the required information, it is equally used for operational purpose e.g. number of teachers in schools, school enrolment, number of project undertaken in the area through loan organization.

2. Enlightenment Data- It is a kind of data upon which we can make some evaluation and it is used in understanding a problem situation and for the formation of government policies.

3. Intelligence Data- This type of data is used for administrative and management purposes. It can be used to determine correlations, relationships or differences between one thing and the other.

4.0   Conclusion

Change can easily and objectively be evaluated. Progress requires an objective evaluation and change while be positive or negative. The planner's idea as to what an improvement is, may be quite different from the ideas of the

members of the community on improvement. Since change is continuous it has to be measured periodically.

5.0   Summary

This unit deals with the characteristics of change, which are, spatial and time temporal, assessed in relation to social structure, normal and inevitable, occurring at different rate and always faced with resistance. Social changes can be measured through economic, demographic and social indicators. Social indicators are usually used to look at the welfare of the people while the economic indicators of measurement include the use of per capital income and others. Data collection for the measurement of social change is often obtained through information, enlightenments and intelligent gathering methods.

6.0   Tutor Marked Assignment

1.   Enumerate the characteristics of the change process
2.   Discusses the indicators used in measuring social change
3.   Explain the methods used in collecting data for social change.

7.0   Reference and further readings

Ekong, E.E. (1984) An introduction to Rural Sociology. Ibadan. Jumak Publishers.

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MODULE 3: SOCIAL CHANGE II

      Unit 1:   **Resistance to change**

      Unit 2:   **Resistance in Conclusive Forces to change in Rural Societies.**

UNIT 1: **RESISTANT TO CHANGE**

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1.0   Introduction

Change is necessary for improving the welfare of people. Most of the problems associated with human beings are rooted in change process in one form or the other. However, there are problems that are usually associated with every type of change or innovation brought about since change indicates a deviation from what they have been accustomed to.

The new development may pose some threats to some risk a versed targets groups due to the uncertainly of the consequences of such a change. So, no matter how seemingly beneficial a change may appear, there is still the tendency to be faced with opposition from the people it is intended for if not even total rejection of such efforts.

2.0   Objectives

After the end of this unit you should be able to

1.   Explain various dimensions to social change

2.   Highlight and discuss factors that are conducive to change

3.   Explain the causes of resistance to change.

3.0   Resistance to Social Change

As admirable and desirable as change is, it is not all changes that are wholeheartedly received with open hands by the people such changes are intended. Attributes such as fatalistic tendencies, familism, low empathy, Aversion to risk-taking, traditionalism and immediate gratification make the people to doubt the objectivity and certainty of the changes. The consequence of the exhibition of such rural values as mentioned above make the people show some resistance to the changes, the benefits notwithstanding. You will therefore learn the dimensions of social change, factors conducive to change and ways change is being resisted.

3.1   Dimensions of Social Change

The dimension of social change can take any form out of the following:

(a)   Economic change: This is a type of change that occurs in the mode of production, economic relations and statuses of people in the society, for example changes in production of crops for market supply rather than for home consumption, industrialization and mining of natural resources. An example was when Nigeria redirected her focus from agriculture as the source of income to petroleum and natural gas.

(b)   Political change: This is the change that takes place in the distribution and of operational mechanism of social and political power within the country. Examples can be seen to be evolutionary from the Obas and Chiefs as

traditional sole authority of the past to the military regime and then to democratically elected representative from ward level to the national level.

(c)   Cultural Change: Cultural change is used to describe all changes that take place in every part of culture, be it material or non material culture, such as values and beliefs. It involves the alterations in the way people perceive and relate to the environment, for example, taking e.g. pride in the wearing of Nigerian dresses listening to traditional music and eating of indigenous food.

(d)   Technological change: Is a continuous process of change within technical material and physical practices in a culture. It also entails the application of scientific knowledge and inventions to practical problems in the society. Technological change can be observed in almost all aspects of life, in the transportation for instance, through manufacturing of boats/shops, cars, Lorries and aero plane, in health, by developing many types of drugs to cure diseases, in agriculture through the breeding of improved varieties of plants and animals while, in education it is through the use of ICT for students' instruction and so on.

(e)   Behavioural change: This is the impact of education on the knowledge, attitudes and skills of the individual. Nowadays, people do not kill twins but in the past twins were regarded as evil and were so killed. Youths are migrating from rural areas to urban areas in search for jobs because they are tired of staying in the rural areas where the tempo of life is too low and most required basic amenities for a better living are inadequate.

3.2   Factors that are Conducive to Change

The following factors within the social systems are conducive for bringing about change and the change agent could exploit these to his advantage and also pays more attention to the ones that can inhibit the change in a social system.

(a)   Education: Is liberation from ignorance, poverty and diseases. Education helps to diffuse knowledge, skills and attitudes to people which help them in their adjustment to the new ways. Research findings have shown that people with higher level of education adopt (accept) change earlier than none or less educated people.

(b)   Social disorganization: This occurs as a result of rapid and uncoordinated change which may bring about further change for good of the social system. The experiences the people of Nigeria heard during the civil war of late 1960's have been a factor that has kept multi-nationalities and multi-ethnic group together as a nation.

(c)   Heterogeneous population: The migration of people from one place to another brings them in contact with new cultural traits. Several studies have been conducted and reported that, societies which compose of people with different ethnic backgrounds who interact freely an diffuse their customs, knowledge, technology and ideology generally experience rapid change.

(d)   Contact with other cultures: Contact with other societies is an important force for cultural change. With exposure to other cultures through contact and diffusion, resistance to change can be minimized.

(e)   Favourable Political and Economic climate: change is usually promoted when the political and economic climate is conducive. In a situation of chaos change is usually impeded. Other factors that are of importance to rural dwellers, are the change that can quickly bring economic returns to them and which will improve their socio-economic life rather than the ones in which they will have to wait for a long time before they start enjoying the benefits. They are also more likely to be accepted than the ideas which are though good, but do not appear to result in saving greater income for the farmer.

(F)   Active Involvement of the people;

The involvement of the members of the social system in the planning and execution of the change made them to feel that the activity is partly their own and not one imposed from outside. With such arrangement, the people have a sense of belonging in what goes on to make change happen.

Relative Advantage;

Relative advantage of the change being introduced is also factor to be considered. If the newly introduced change is superior to the one it is meant to supersede, for example, manual processing of oil palm fruits is tedious and inefficient when compared with the use of machine that can process palm fruits in a matter of minutes into oil palm and with less tediousness.

4.0 Conclusion:

You learnt in this unit that Change is necessary for improving the welfare of people and that some problems are usually associated with every type of change. Also, you have learnt that some factors are resistance to change such as traditionalism, fatalistic tendencies, low empathy, aversion to risk taking and immediate gratification. Dimensions to social change have also been taught in this unit.

5.0 Summary:

In this unit you learnt about;

1. resistance to change which include fatalistic tendencies, familism, low empathy, Aversion to risk-taking, traditionalism and immediate gratification that make the people to doubt the objectivity and certainty of the changes.

2. the dimension of social change

3. the factors that are conducive for changes within the social system.

6.0   Tutor Marked Assignment

1.   Explain the resistance to change

2.   Enumerate the dimensions of social change

3.   what are the factors conducive for changes.

7.0   Reference and Further Reading

Ekong, E.E. (2003): An introduction to Rural Sociology, Uyo, Dive Eductational Publishers.

Unit 2:   Resistance Forces to Change

Table of Contents

1.0   Introduction

If rural people accept change their lives would be transformed in terms of living standard and income. However not all changes are accepted by the people, while some would accept, some others may not. In this unit therefore, you will learn why some changes may be rejected by the rural people.

2.0   Objectives;

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

    i.   List the forces that may make a change unacceptable

    ii.   Explain why ache of the listed forces in (i) makes chance

3.0   Main Content

No matter how seemingly beneficial a change may be to a society or individuals, such a change must possess the characteristics that would attract the people to want to accept them. The change must therefore, be conscious of that fact and so take every necessary step to make the change he takes to the people acceptable.

3.3   RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

There are various sources of resistance to change by the people for whom such change is intended. These factors could be of assistance to the change agent, as explained below.

3.1   Cost: Though a change may be perceived to have greater satisfaction than the one the people precise, however it may not be adopted because of its higher cost. The cost may be considered, in terms of what the adopter is supposed to give up and what he is to gain, in adopting the change/innovation. Therefore the cost of change must be affordable to the people it is meant for.

3.2   Fear of Disruption, Suspicions and Anxiety: some people usually feel satisfied and protected under the old arrangement where they have remained unchallenged. In the face of a change which they do not know the details, they often feel threatened and become suspicious what the outcome would be, particularly as refers to their prestige, influence and present power of positions. They therefore, demonstrate fear and anxiety over the unknown. This results in the imperativeness of resistance to the new change.

3.3   Vested interest. Social change meets opposition or resistance whenever it threatens the vested interest of key individuals or groups. In a social system where stratification is strongly entrenched, any change that affects their superior class will be voluntarily opposed, also change that affects the income, prestige or personal ambition of some people would be totally opposed.

3.4   Cultural Resistance: this occurs when the proposed change is in conflict with the prevalent social norms and belief of the people. Introduction of pig production, domestication and consumption in a Muslim dominated area for example, would likely be strongly opposed since such a change runs foul of Islamic injunction which people cherish and defend with all their vigour.

3.5   The Degree of Complexity: occurs when the use of an innovation or some fact in it is beyond the present level of understanding of the people or if some training becomes necessary for the people to understand its use. People do not show enthusiasm to accept such change or adopt it, the use of farm record by the peasant farmers is an example because of the difficulty in its operations.

3.6   Compatibility: change meant for the people should be ecologically and socially and economically compatible with the people of the area otherwise, the change may be rejected. The change must conform to the existing values, norms and past experiences of the adopters.

4.0   Conclusion

Changes involve the introduction of new behavior pattern and the integration of this new pattern of behavior into the cognitive and social structure, thereby destabilizing the old system at a higher level. Extension agent, who wants to be successes in introducing a change, must endeavour to reduce forces of resistance and embrace factors that are conducive for change to occur.

5.0   Summary

In this unit, you have learnt that change is necessary to improve the welfare of the people and that the change may be economic, political, cultural, technological or behavioural change. The factors that are conducive for change as learnt are education, social disorganization, heterogeneous population, relative advantage of the change, contact with other cultures, economic returns and favourable political climates. You equally learnt that the opposing forces to change include cost, complexity, fear and suspicions, vested interest, cultural resistance and compatibility.

6.0   TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Briefly explain the following;

(a) Economic change (b) technological change (c) cultural change (d) behavioural change

2.   Discuss five factors that are conducive for change to take place.

3.   Explain the factors of resistance of change.

7.0 References and further readings

1.   Ekong E.E (2003) An introduction to rural sociology. Second Edition Dove Educational Publishers, Uyo pp 267-287

FAO (1973) Agricultural Extension A Reference Manual (Abridged Version) In Addition H. Maunder (Ed) Rome FAO, pp 87-89

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MODULE 4: Group Dynamics and Problems of Rural Societies

Unit 1:   Concept and Stages of Group Development

Unit 2:   Types of Group and Group Structure

Unit 1: Concept and Stages of Group Development

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1.0 Introduction

Extension education is concerned with charging the knowledge attitudes and practices of large number of rural people. To do so effectively, he looks at the want; desires and wishes of individuals and how they act and react as a group. Farmers choose whether to accept or reject a change in farming

practice. He made a choice and this choice is as a result of interplay of many forces, both within and outside the individual, such as his experience, education, traditions, mental capability and many other internal influences. However, there are some goals he cannot attain alone because such goals need collective action. Example of such goals include building of schools, medical centres and roads, these require group action. The individual is also influenced in his decisions by the attitudes of others in his group or community and he in turn influences them. In traditional societies, this influence is so strong that hardly could anyone oppose the socially accepted standards of the group, so the extension and other rural development programmes make use of groups to achieve their aims.

2.0 Objectives

It is expected that at the end of this unit, you should be able to;

1. Define the term group dynamics
2. Explain the theories and stages of group development
3. Discuss the internal dynamics of group
4. Explain the external dynamics of group
5. Enumerate the factors affecting dynamics among group.
6. Identify the ways of fostering participation in groups.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Concept of group dynamics

A group can be defined as several individuals who come together to accomplish a particular task. Group dynamics can be defined as an interaction of complex intra-and inter-personal forces operating in a group which determines its character, development and long term survival. It refers

to the attitudinal and behavioural characteristics of a group. Group dynamics is concerned with how groups are formed, their structure and process and how they function. Group dynamics is relevant in both formal and informal groups of all types.

The social process by which people interact and behave in a group environment is called group dynamics. Group dynamics involves the influence of personality power and behaviour on the group process.

Is the relationship between individuals conducive to achieving the group goals? Is the structure and size of the group an asset in pursuing both task and maintenance functions of the group? How is formal and informal power used to build consensus or reach decisions? Does the combination of individuals produce the right culture? How does individuals, cultures and internal forces interact? All these and others are embedded in group dynamics.

3.2   Theories and Stages of group development

As applied to group development, group dynamics is concerned with why and how groups develop.

Theories of group development.

(b)   **Classic Theory –** This theory was developed by George Homans and he posited that groups develop based on activities, interactions and sentiments. The theory indicates that, when individuals share common activities, they will have more interaction and will develop attitudes towards each other.

(c)   **Social exchange theory** – This theory stipulates that individuals form relationship based on the implicit expectation of mutually beneficial exchanges, based on trust and felt obligation. Thus, a perception that exchange relationships will

be positive is essential if individuals are to be attracted and affiliate with a group.

(d) **Social identity theory** – simply put, this theory suggests that individuals get a sense of identity and self esteem based upon their membership in salient groups. The group may be demographically based, culturally based or organizational based. Individuals are motivated to belong to and contribute to identity groups because of the sense of belongingness and self worth membership.

Stages of group development

According to Tuckmans theory, there are five stages of group development namely:

(1) Forming   (2) Storming   (3) Norming (4) Performing and

(5) Adjourning. Each of these stages presents the members with different challenges that must be overcome before they can move on to the next stage.

1. **Forming** - At this stage of development, the members familiarize themselves with the task and with other members of the group. This is the dependent stage as members tend to depend on outside expertise for guidance, job definition and task analysis.

2. **Storming** – At this stage, the group encounters conflict as members confront and criticize each other. Issues arising in this stage include identification of roles and responsibilities, operational rules and procedures, and the individual need for recognition. This stage is also referred to as counter dependent stage where members flex muscles in search for identity.

In some cases, the group may have problems getting through this stage as a result of encountered difficulty in clarifying their task, agreeing on their mission or mandate, or deciding how they will proceed. Lack of skills, ability or aptitude can also contribute to their inability to get beyond this stage.

3.   **Norming** – At this point the members start to resolve the issues that are creating the conflict and begin to develop their social agreements.   The members begin to recognize their interdependence, develop cohesion and agree on the group norms that will help them to function effectively in the future.

4.   **Performing** – Occurs when the group has sorted out its social structure and understands its goals and individual roles.   It will move toward accomplishing its task. Mutual assistance and creativity become prominent themes at this stage.   The group sensing its growth and maturity becomes independent, relying on its own resources.

5.   **Adjourning** – During this stage the group resort to some form of closure. Not all groups experience this stage of development because it is characterized by the disbandment of the group. Some groups are relatively permanent.

Unit 2:   Types of Group and Group Structure

Table of Content

Types of group and group structure

1.0   Introduction

Certain activities that could improve the development of rural communities can not be done successful by an individual but in groups. Group and group formation therefore have some specific inherent characteristics that enable them to function towards achieving stated goals. There are therefore many groups which you will learn about in this unit.

2.0   Objectives

It is hoped that at the end of this unit, you will be able to;

i.   Classify group into its two classes

ii.   Explain group structure.

3.0 Main Content

It is not in all situations that the change agent work with individuals, on some occasions, his work is better appreciated within a group or groups. In this context therefore, the change agent must understand the workings of group, types and structure to enhance his professional competence.

3.1   Types of groups

Groups may be classified into two

(i)   Formal group
(ii)   Informal group

(a)   **Formal groups** – groups are structured to pursue a specific task, they are established by an organization to achieve organizational goals.   Formal groups may take the form of command groups, tasks groups and functional groups. Command group consists of a supervisor and the subordinates, task groups consist of people who work together to achieve a common task within a specified period of time, examples of task groups are, ad-hoc committees project groups, and standing committees. Functional groups are created by the organization to accomplish specific goals within unspecified time frame. Functional groups remain after the achievement of their current goals and objectives.

(b)   **Informal groups –** Groups are formed naturally and in response to the common interests and shared values of individuals. They are established for the accomplishment of organizational goals and do not have specified time frame, examples of informal groups are, interests group, friendship groups and reference groups.

3.2   Group structure

Group structure is a pattern of relationships among members that hold the group together and help it to assigned goals. Structured group can be described in a variety of ways, such as group size, group roles, group norms and group cohesiveness.

(a)   **Group size** – Group size may vary from 2 people to a very large number of people. Small groups are between 2-10 people, it has an advantage of quick decision and are more effective while large groups may waste time by deciding on processes and trying to decide who should participate next, but also have advantages on numbers of people to interact with. It is difficult for members of large groups to identify with one another and experience cohesion.

(b)   **Group roles –** In formal groups roles are usually assigned to members. Group roles can be classified into work roles, maintenance roles and blocking roles.

i.   **Work roles**: are task oriented activities that involve accomplishing the group goals. They involve a variety of specific roles such as initiator, informer, clarifies, summarizes and reality tester.

ii.   **Maintenance roles:** are social emotional activities that help members maintain their involvement in the group and raise their personal commitment to the group. The maintenance roles are harmonizer, gatekeeper, consensus tester, encourager and compromiser. Harmonizers reduce tension in the group and reconcile difference and explore opportunities. Gatekeepers keep communication channels open and make suggestions that encourage participation. The concensus tester will task if the group is hearing a decision and test possible conclusion. Encouragers are friendly warm and responsive to other group members while the compromiser modifies decisions, offers compromises and admitting errors.

iii.   **Blocking roles: –** Are activities that disrupt the group. They may take the form of dominating discussions. Verbally a tackling other

group members and distracting the group with trivial information or unnecessary humor.

3.3   Group Norms

Norms are acceptable standards of behaviour within a group that are shared by members of the group. Norms define the boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. They are created in order to facilitate group survival, make behaviour more predictable, avoid embarrassing situations and express the values of the group. Groups exert pressure on members to force them to conform to the group's standard.

3.4   Group cohesiveness

Cohesiveness refers to the bonding of the group members and their desire to remain part of the group. Groups tend to be more cohesive when they are in intense competition with other groups or face a serious external threat to their survival. Smaller groups and those that spend time together also tend to be more cohesive.

The advantages of cohesiveness are workers satisfaction, low turnover and absenteeism and higher productivity, however, highly cohesive groups may be detrimental to organizational performance if their goals are misaligned with organizational goals; they are also liable to group think. Group think occurs when members exert pressure on each other to come to a consensus in decision making. Group think results into careless judgements, unrealistic appraisal of alternative courses of action and lack of reality thinking.

4.0   Conclusion

Havine gone through this unit you would by now able to mention the types of group and offer explanation on group structure, group norms and group cohesiveness.

5.0   Summary

In this unit you have learn that;

i. Types of groups are formed and informal

ii. Group structure is made up of group size and group roles

iii Group norms are acceptable standards of behavious within a group

iv. Group cohesiveness refers to the bonding of the group members.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

1. Explain types of group

2. What are group norms?

References and further readings

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Unit 2: **Resistance and Conducive forces to change in Rural Societies**

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1   Characteristics of the change /innovation

3.1.1 Relative advantage

3.1.2 Cost

3.1.3 Complexity

3.1.4 Visibility

3.1.5 Durability

3.1.6 Compatibility

3.2   General factors Affecting Acceptance of change

3.2.1 The role of change agent

3.2.2 Community characteristics

3.2.3 Inertia

3.2.4 Habit

3.2.5 Fear, suspicious and anxiety

3.2.6 Vested interest

3.2.7 Rejection of stranger

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/further readings

1.0   Intoduction

In this unit, we will learn about resistance and conducive forces to change in rural societies. In unit six, we learnt about the first part of resistance and conducive forces to change. In this second part, there are other factors to be mentioned that resist change and some other factors serve as impetus to the acceptance of change. These factors, either they resist change or assist acceptance are interest in the change itself.

2.0   Objectives

It is hoped that at the end of this unit, you will be able to;

- Explain the resistant and conclusive forces to change in rural areas.
- Discuss the general factors affecting acceptance of change

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Characteristics of change/ Innovation.

Apart from the individual's intrinsic inertia, the major factors that affects resistance and conduciveness of change/innovation in rural societies are the characteristics of the change/innovation itself. These may be discussed under the following categories.

3.1.1 Relative advantage: This can be defined as the degree to which a change/innovation is superior to one it is meant to supersede which can be expressed either in economic or social terms.

3.1.2 Cost: Though a change may be perceived to have greater advantage over the current one in practice, however, it may not be adopted because of its cost. The cost may be considered, in terms of what the adopter is

supposed to give up and what he is to gain, in adopting the change/innovation.

3.1.3 Complexity: This refers to the degree to which an innovation is relatively difficult to understand or use. New ideas which are not complex, that is, relatively simple to understand and apply are adopted more rapidly than those which are more complex (Jibowo, 1992).

3.1.4 Visibility: This refers to the extent to which their results or operation are early seen. The tangibility of the result of an innovation arouses in the rural people the interest to adopt whereas those results that are not easily observed can ignite pessimistic look.

3.1.5 Divisibility: This refers to the extent to which an innovation can be tried in parts or on a limited scale.

3.1.6 Compatibility: This refers to the extent to which an innovation is consistent with existing values, norms and past experiences of the adopter. Innovations which are compatible with these factors are more readily adopted than those which are not.

3.2   Factors Affecting Acceptance of change

3.2.1 The Role of the change agent. The identity or personality of the change agent greatly affects the adoption of a change. The agent's frequency of contact with farmers, his professional competence, human relation skills, positive attitude towards extension work, motivation, commitment and other factors affect adoption of change.

3.2.2 Community characteristics: The activities of a group greatly influence what the individual does. Community that has long stand of cooperation and peaceful co-existence that tolerates strangers, who are forward looking and progressive, relatively high level of social amenities an who form themselves into cooperatives adopt change more than that with opposite attributes.

3.2.3 Inertia: People who have lived long under a particular condition and have perfectly adjusted to it, may find it very difficult to change.

3.2.4 Habit: People find it difficult to change what has become their habit, especially if such a change will look like a deviation from norms of a society.

3.2.5 Fear, Suspicion and Anxiety: Some people intrinsically fear change and are constantly suspicious of change agent because they are anxious about their survival within the old setting which they find themselves.

3.2.6 Vested interest: Social change meets with community resistance whenever it threatens the vested interests of key individuals or groups in the community. Rejection of strange people naturally holds strangers with some suspicions, particularly in rural areas.

4.0 Conclusion

In this unit we have discussed the resistant and conducive forces to change in rural societies. It is therefore certain that while some factors pose resistance to change some other factors make change accepted.

5.0 Summary

You have learnt in this unit that;

- the characteristics of the change such as relative advantage, cost, complexity, visibility, divisibility and compatibility, visibility are resistant and conducive forces to change in rural societies.
- the general factors affecting the acceptance of change such as the role of change agent, community characteristics, inertia, habit, fear, suspicion and anxiety, vested interest and rejection of stranger.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Describe how the characteristics of change can resist or make change conducive in the rural societies.
2. Discuss at least four other general factors that can resist or encourage adoption of change in the rural societies.

7.0 References and Further Reading

1. Jibowo A. A. (2000): Essentials of Rural Sociology, Gbemi Sodipo Press Ltd., Abeokuta, Nigeria.

Unit 3: Differences between Rural and Urban Settlement

Table of Content

1.0   Introduction

Rural society: society is that in which there is a low ratio of inhabitants to open land and in which the most important economic activities are the production of foodstuffs, fibers, and raw materials. Society is difficult to define with greater precision, for, although in non industrialized nations, the transition from city to countryside is usually abrupt, it is gradual in industrialized societies, making it difficult to pinpoint the boundaries of rural places. In this unit emphasis shall be on the difference between the rural and urban settlements.

2.0   Objectives

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

- appropriately define rural society and differentiate it from other related terms
- differentiate rural society from urban society
- Explain the concepts of rural-urban linkage.
- Highlight major problems of rural society
- Enumerate factors that create rural poverty
- List policies that can reduce rural poverty
- Highlight solution to the major problems of rural society

3.0 The Difference between Rural & Urban Settlement

Urban and rural settlements differ in demographics, land area and usage, population density, transportation networks and economic dependencies. These characteristics are the defining differences that geographers and city planners observe between rural and urban centres.

3.1   Demographics

Urban settlements contain a heterogeneous population consisting of different ages, cultures and ethnicities, whereas rural areas contain a more homogenous population based on family, similar ethnicities and fewer cultural influences.

3.2   Land Area and Usage

Urban settlements are more expansive and contain a wide range of land uses. For instance, major metropolitan areas use density zoning to indicate different levels of development. In contrast, rural settlements are more or

less self-contained and may not use zoning controls and they have limited planning and development regulations.

3.3   Population Density

The U.S. Census Bureau defines urban settlements as areas with more than 50,000 people and at least 1,000 people per square mile; including contiguous census tracts or blocks with at least 500 people per square mile. In contrast, rural settlements contain less than 2,500 people, at a density between one and 999 people per square mile.

3.4   Transportation Network

Rural transportation networks consist of local and county roads with limited interconnectivity to rail and bus lines. Urban settlements contain highway infrastructure as well as airports and light or heavy commuter rail.

3.5   Economy

Urban areas are dependent on a global economy of import and export, whereas rural economies rely on a local and agricultural-based economy with dependencies on services, such as hospitals and educational establishments in nearby urban centers.

4.0 Conclusion: You have been acquainted with the differences between the urban and the rural settlements.

5.0 Summary: The unit has afforded you to be able to explain the differences between the urban and rural settlements in terms of the demographic, land area and usage, population density, transportation network and the economy.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

i. Discuss the differences between the urban and the rural settlements

8.0 References:

U.S Census Bureau: Census (2000): Rural and Urban Classification.

Unit 4: Characteristics of Rural and Urban Settlements

Table of Content:

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives: It is expected that at the end of the unit you would be able to;

        1. explain the characteristics of rural settlement

2. explain the characteristics of urban settlement

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Characteristics of Rural Settlement

Rural settlements remain common around the world. Each country has its own definition as to what defines a rural settlement, but there are some common characteristics among them. Some of these characteristics include illiteracy, traditionalism, isolationism and an agricultural economy.

3.1.1 Illiteracy

Illiteracy is most common in adults in areas of poverty and rural settlements. Illiteracy in rural settlements can be two to three times higher than urban areas. Rural settlements often do not have the tools to give their community a thorough education and consequently, many adults do not know how to read.

3.1.2 Traditionalism

Maintaining traditional values is important to rural settlements. People in rural settlements tend to maintain traditionalism as the roles maintained by men, women and children. The people cherish their values and often don't accept assistance to develop their settlement in fear that their traditional values will be at risk.

3.1.3 Isolationism

Isolationism is a common characteristic among rural settlements, but it can be for different reasons. One reason is that the settlement is in a hard-to-reach location. Another reason why isolationism is a characteristic is because people of the community usually want to protect their traditionalism and fear that people from the outside will try to urbanize their community.

3.1.4 Agricultural Economy

Rural settlements usually have to support themselves in every aspect because their communities are often isolated. Therefore, their main source of economic value is their agriculture. Either, they are able to buy and trade their goods within their own settlement or they are able to sell their goods to people outside of their communities.

3.2 Urban Settlement Characteristics

3.2.1 Economic and Social Factors:

Urban settlements are differentiated from rural ones by economic, social, and population factors. Most urban settlements derive from a small village. The village, due to certain economic or strategic advantages, receives many newcomers and soon becomes both the social and administrative center for surrounding areas. Urban settlement characteristics, therefore, derive from the changes a village goes through once it begins to acquire economic importance.

3.2.2 Diversity

Much of urban settlement has an economic basis. As a result, the first and primary characteristic of urban settlement is the development of a diversity of occupation. Over time, the settlement becomes an industrial, financial, or manufacturing center of a certain district or area, which implies that urban settlement, has a close connection with the desire to find work.

3.2.3 Administration

The economic content of urban settlement is usually complemented by very different forms of state. Rationalized, more or less centralized, and class-

based government becomes the norm in urban centers, normally following the pattern of industry or trade. Economic regulation then becomes paramount.

3.2.4 Civic Activism

Somewhat more foggy is the existence of a municipal civic culture that serves to encourage civic participation and some form of democratic government. The European experience in the Renaissance strongly bears out this view the existence of a strong civic culture is characteristic of urban settlement.

3.2.5 Social Tension

As a village becomes an urban area, those who live in the village setting often have substantial social tension with newcomers. As a result, a significant characteristic of urban settlement is the influx of newcomers, all seeking some form of economic security, and the hostility of those already living there. There may be a connection between this constant feature of integration and the existence of a strong civic life.

3.3 Problem of Rural Society

The causes of rural poverty are complex and multidimensional. They involve, among other things, culture, climate, gender, markets, and public policy. Likewise, the rural poor are quite diverse both in the problems they face and the possible solutions to these problems.

Broad economic stability, competitive markets, and public investment in physical and social infrastructure are widely recognized as important requirements for achieving sustained economic growth and a reduction in rural poverty. In addition, because the rural Poor's links to the economy vary

considerably, public policy should focus on issues such as their access to land and credit, education and health care, support services, and entitlements to food through well-designed public works programs and other transfer mechanisms.

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

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

Rural poverty accounts for nearly 63 percent of poverty worldwide, reaching 90 percent in some countries like Bangladesh and between 65 and 90 percent in sub-Saharan Africa. (Exceptions to this pattern are several Latin American countries in which poverty is concentrated in urban areas.) In almost all countries, the conditions—in terms of personal consumption and access to education, health care, potable water and sanitation, housing, transport, and communications—faced by the rural poor are far worse than those faced by the urban poor. Persistently high levels of rural poverty, with or without overall economic growth, have contributed to rapid population growth and migration to urban areas. In fact, much urban poverty is created by the rural Poor's

efforts to get out of poverty by moving to cities. Distorted government policies, such as penalizing the agriculture sector and neglecting rural (social and physical) infrastructure, have been major contributors to both rural and urban poverty.

The links between poverty, economic growth, and income distribution have been studied quite extensively in recent literature on economic development. Absolute poverty can be alleviated if at least two conditions are met:

- economic growth must occur or means of income must rise on a sustained basis; and
- economic growth must be neutral with respect to income distribution or reduce income inequality.

Generally, poverty cannot be reduced if economic growth does not occur. In fact, the persistent poverty of a substantial portion of the population can dampen the prospects for economic growth. Also, the initial distribution of income (and wealth) can greatly affect the prospects for growth and alleviation of mass poverty. Substantial evidence suggests that a highly unequal distribution of income is not conducive to either economic growth or poverty reduction. Experience has shown that if countries put in place incentive structures and complementary investments to ensure that better health and education lead to higher incomes, the poor will benefit doubly through increased current consumption and higher future incomes.

The pattern and stability of economic growth also matter. On the one hand, traditional capital-intensive, import-substituting, and urban-biased growth—induced by government policies on pricing, trade, and public expenditure—has generally not helped alleviate poverty. On the other hand, agricultural growth—where there is a low concentration of land ownership and labor-intensive technologies are used—has almost always helped reduce poverty. Finally, sharp drops in economic growth—resulting from shocks and economic

adjustments may increase the incidence of poverty. Even when growth resumes, the incidence of poverty may not improve if inequality has been worsened by the crisis.

4.0   Conclusion:

One could say by now that you can mention the characteristics of both rural and urban settlements.

5.0   Summary:

In this unit you have learnt that;

i.   Rural settlements characteristics are illiteracy, traditionalism, isolationism and agricultural economy.

ii   Urban Settlement characteristics include economic and social factors, diversity, administration and civic activism.

6.0   Tutor Marked Assignment

1.   Explain traditionalism and Isolationism as rural settlement characteristics

2.   Briefly explain diversity and civic activism

7.0   References and Further Reading:

1.   U.S Census Bureau: Census (2000) Rural and Urban Classification

2.   Urban Geography Courses www.sobe.salford.ac.uk/corses

3.   Urban Settelement Characteristics

http://www.how.com/list 5841030urban-settelement-characteristics

Unit 5:   Rural Poverty

Table of Content

1.0   Introduction

Ii is not a gainsaying to stress that the rural people live in abject poverty. The cause of their poverty is not because they take agriculture as their main occupation but because agriculture is still being practised in a crude manner and with crude instruments. This results in poor yield and smallness of farm size. Poverty in the rural area is therefore manifested in their ability to satisfy their daily surviving requirements.

2.0 Objectives: it is expected that at the end of this unit you should be able to;

    i.   Explain the factors that influence rural poverty

    ii.   Mention policies for reducing poverty

    iii.   Explain solution strategies for rural poverty.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   How Rural Poverty Is Created

Numerous characteristics of a country's economy and society, as well as some external influences, create and perpetuate rural poverty:

- political instability and civil strife;
- systemic discrimination on the basis of gender, race, ethnicity, religion, or caste;
- ill-defined property rights or unfair enforcement of rights to agricultural land and other natural resources;
- high concentration of land ownership and asymmetrical tenancy arrangements;
- corrupt politicians and rent-seeking public bureaucracies;
- economic policies that discriminate against or exclude the rural poor from the development process and accentuate the effects of other poverty-creating processes;
- large and rapidly growing families with high dependency ratios;
- market imperfections owing to high concentration of land and other assets and distortionary public policies; and
- External shocks owing to changes in the state of nature (for example, climatic changes) and conditions in the international economy.

Biases in national economic and social policies can contribute to rural poverty by excluding the rural poor from the benefits of development and accentuating the effects of other poverty-creating processes. Policy biases that generally work against the rural poor include:

- urban bias in public investment for infrastructure and provision of safety nets;
- implicit taxation of agricultural products through so-called support prices and an overvalued exchange rate;
- direct taxation of agricultural exports and import subsidies;
- subsidies for capital-intensive technologies;
- favoring export crops over food crops; and

- bias in favour of large landowners and commercial producers with respect to rights of land ownership and tenancy, publicly provided extension services, and access to (subsidized) credit.

These policies can have both short- and long-term effects on the rural poor. The effects are particularly significant in the context of the structural adjustment programs that many developing countries have undertaken to restore macroeconomic stability and expand the capacity of the economy to increase production, employment, and incomes.

3.2 Policies for Reducing Rural Poverty

To design policies that have a chance of effectively helping the rural poor, the focus of policy should be on four major groups:

- **small landowners** who cultivate their land;
- **landless tenants** who cultivate other people's land;
- **landless labourers** who depend on casual or long-term employment in the farm or nonfarm sectors; and
- **Women**, who could also be part of any of the three preceding groups.

All of these groups will benefit from good macroeconomic management—which helps keep inflation in check and maintains unsubsidized prices—because it facilitates sustained economic growth through private investment and competitive markets. Needless to say, unfair laws or poor enforcement of existing laws, exclusion of the poor from decision making, and pervasive corruption in the public sector are no less detrimental to the well-being of the poor than they are to the country's overall economic growth.

Achieving agricultural growth by applying new technologies is one of the most important ways to reduce rural poverty. The impact of such efforts on the rural poor, however, depends on initial conditions, the structure of relevant institutions, and incentives. Research shows that agricultural stagnation has

harmed the rural poor in sub-Saharan Africa by creating food shortages and higher prices that have reduced their ability to buy food and find work. Conversely, experience with the Green Revolution showed that rapid agricultural progress made a big difference in reducing rural poverty in parts of South Asia. Researchers have found that higher crop yields reduce both the number of rural poor and the severity of rural poverty. But these effects are strong only if certain conditions are met:

- land and capital markets are not distorted by a high concentration of ownership of natural resources (agricultural land), including unfair tenancy contracts, and repression in the capital markets (with restricted access to finance);
- public policy on pricing, taxes, and the exchange rate does not penalize agriculture and encourage or subsidize labor displacement;
- public investment in basic education and health care is high and used effectively; farmer literacy and good health have great influence on farm productivity;
- public sector support for agricultural research is strong and resulting improvements are made available to small farmers is effective;
- physical capital, like irrigation systems, access roads, is adequately maintained;
- safety nets and social assistance are available for the very poor, particularly the landless (casual) workers and rural women, in the form of public works programs, microfinance, and food subsidies; and
- the rural poor are directly involved in the identification, design, and implementation of programs to ensure effective use of resources and equitable distribution of benefits.

Since the rural poor are a varied group, we need to understand how macroeconomic changes and policies affect them. The three major ways in

which policies affect the rural poor are through *markets*, *infrastructure* (including public services), and *transfers*.

The **markets** in which the rural poor participate are those for products, inputs (labor and nonlabor), and finance (from formal and informal sources). Several important features of these markets can affect conditions in rural areas.

The **infrastructure** that directly affects the rural sector's productivity and the rural poor's quality of life includes the economic (transport, communications, extension services, and irrigation) and the social (education, health care, water, and sanitation). Given that most elements of a country's infrastructure are provided through public funding, the level of spending, cost effectiveness, quality of service, and access of the rural poor to infrastructure and public services have important effects on human capital and productivity in rural areas.

Transfers, which are both private and public, provide some insurance against anticipated and unanticipated economic shocks. Most of the rural poor depend on private transfers among households, extended families, and other kinship groups. Public transfers can take the form of redistribution of such assets as land, employment on public works projects, and targeted subsidies for inputs and some consumer products. These transfers supplement or displace private transfers, depending on the policy instrument and how it is used. But these channels markets, infrastructure, and transfers do not work in the same way for all of the rural poor because each group has quite different links to the economy.

3.3   Solution to the Problems of Rural Society

The rural poor depend largely on agriculture, fishing, forestry, and related small-scale industries and services. To understand how poverty affects these individuals and households and to delineate the policy options for poverty reduction. The rural poor are not a homogeneous group. One important way to classify the rural poor is

according to their access to agricultural land: *cultivators* have access to land as small landowners and tenants, and *noncultivators* are landless, unskilled workers. There is, however, much functional overlap between these groups, reflecting the poverty-mitigating strategies of the poor in response to changes in the economy and society.

3.3.1 Key Policy Components Needed To Reduce Problems of Rural Society

So, what are the key elements when crafting a policy to reduce rural poverty?

Competitive markets, macroeconomic stability, and public investment in the physical and social infrastructure are widely recognized as important requirements for sustained economic growth and reduced poverty. In addition, the first requirement of a strategy to reduce rural poverty is to provide the enabling environment and resources for those in the rural sector who are engaged in the agricultural production and distribution system.

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

3.3.1.1   Information gathering. The rural poor face many different problems and are not a homogeneous group. Therefore, a sustained effort must be made to gather information about the particular problems they face so that they can be adequately addressed.

3.3.1.2 Focus on building assets. The government should assess what assets the poor need most to help them to earn more. This could be agricultural land or other resources, access to credit, or improvements in health and education. Dependence on raw labor, without a focus on building other assets, is the single most important source of persistent poverty.

3.3.1.3 The right to adequate land and water. A broad-based land reform program—including land titling, land redistribution, and fair and enforceable tenancy contracts—is critical for reducing rural poverty. It can make small (marginal) landowners and tenants more efficient producers and raise their standards of living.

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

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

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

3.3.1.7 Targeted credit. Informal and formal sources of credit often are too costly for, or unavailable to, the rural poor. Targeted public sector rural credit programs, especially if they are subsidized, benefit the nonpoor far more than the poor. The poor want credit that is available on acceptable terms and when they need it. Recent experiments with

community-based credit programs, in which the poor actively participate in the making of lending decisions that are subject to peer accountability, have been successful in reaching target groups at reasonable cost.

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

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

4.0 Conclusion:

You have been acquainted with rural poverty and the factors that influence it, you have also learnt that rural poverty can be reduced through policies and national strategies.

5.0 Summary:

Having gone through this unit you have learnt that;

1. rural poverty is influenced by several factors

2. policies for reducing rural poverty should focus on small land owners, landless tenants, landless labourers and women.
3. Other policy components for national strategies for reducing rural poverty include information gathering focus on building assets, right to adequate land and water and more others.

6.0   Tutor Marked Assignment.

1.   Explain rural poverty.

2.   Explain three policies as a mean of reducing rural poverty.

7.0   References

U.S. Census Bureau: Census (2000) Rural and Urban Classification.

 Urban Geography Courseswww.sobe.salford.ac.uk/Courses

Further reading

Urban Settlement Characteristics
http://www.ehow.com/list_5841030_urban-settlement-characteristics.