

**LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN
ANAMBRA STATE, 2006-2014**

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TITLE PAGE

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**A PhD THESIS PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC
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PHILOSOPHY IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

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CERTIFICATION PAGE

Nwobi, Fidelia Obuteaku, a postgraduate student in the Department of Public Administration & Local Government, with Registration Number, PG/Ph.D/07/42723, has satisfactorily completed the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in Public Administration and Local Government. The work embodied in this thesis is original and has not been submitted in part or full for any other Diploma or Degree of this or any other University.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the blessed memory of my late husband

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| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 2.1.7 Rural Dwellers- | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 41 |
| 2.1.8 Theories and Models of Rural Development | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 45 |
| 2.1.9 Challenges of Rural Development- | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 50 |
| 2.1.10 Conceptualization | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 52 |
| 2.1.11 Local Government | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 56 |
| 2.2 Gap in Literature | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 57 |
| 2.3 Theoretical Framework | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 58 |
| 2.4 Research Hypotheses | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 62 |
| 2.5 Operationalization of Key Concepts | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | | | | | | | | | 62 |

CHAPTER THREE: STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH PROCEDURE

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 3.1 Study Area | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 64 |
| 3.2 Population of Study | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 66 |
| 3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure | - | -- | - | - | - | - | - | - | 67 |
| 3.3.1 Sampling Procedure | - | -- | - | - | - | - | - | - | 68 |
| 3.4 Sources and Method of Data Collection | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | | | | | | | | | 69 |
| 3.5 Validity and Reliability of Instrument | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 70 |
| 3.6 Method of Data Presentation and Analysis | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 70 |

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 4.1 Data Presentation | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 72 |
| 4.2 Major Findings of the Study | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 94 |
| 4.3 Discussion | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 98 |

CHAPTER FIVE SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|----|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5.1 | Summary | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | 122 | | | | | | | | |
| 5.2 | Recommendations | -- | -- | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | 125 | | | | | | | | |
| 5.3 | Conclusion | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | 127 | | | | | | | | |
| | Bibliography | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | 130 | | | | | | | | |
| | Appendix A: Questionnaire for Data Collection | - | - | - | - | | | | |
| | 143 | | | | | | | | |
| | Appendix B: Result of Reliability Test | | | | - | - | - | - | - |
| | 149 | | | | | | | | |
| | Appendix C: Result of Data Analysis | - | - | - | - | - | - | | |
| | 150 | | | | | | | | |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 4.1: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Gender - - - - - | 72 |
| Table 4.2: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Age - - - - - | 73 |
| Table 4.3: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Major Occupation - - - - - | 75 |
| Table 4.4: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Marital Status - - - - - | 76 |
| Table 4.5: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Educational Qualification - - - - - | 77 |
| Table 4.6: Mean ratings of the responses of respondents on the challenges of rural development in Anambra State - - - - - | 79 |
| Table 4.7: The t-test Statistics of the mean ratings of the responses of male and female respondents on the challenges of rural development in Anambra State - - - - - | 81 |
| Table 4.8: Mean ratings of the responses of respondents on whether Local Government Plays its Constitutional Role of Development at the Grassroots Level in Anambra State - - - - - | 83 |
| Table 4.9: The t-test Statistics of the mean ratings of the responses of male and female respondents on whether Local Govt play its constitutional role of development at the grassroots level in Anambra State - - - - - | 85 |
| Table 4.10: Mean ratings of the respondents on how lack of democratically elected government at the grassroots and insufficient fund been the bane of rural development in Anambra State - - - - - | 87 |
| Table 4.11: Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the mean ratings of the responses of respondents with different levels of education on how lack of democratically elected government at grassroots lack of fund has been the bane of rural development in Anambra State - - - - - | 89 |
| Table 4.12: Mean ratings of the respondents on the possible solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State - - - - - | 91 |
| Table 4.13: Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the mean ratings of the responses of respondents with different levels of education on the solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State - - - - - | 93 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|---|----|
| Figure 4.1: Pie Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Gender (Males and Females) | 73 |
| Figure 4.2: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Age brackets | 74 |
| Figure 4.3: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Major Occupation | 76 |
| Figure 4.4: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Marital Status | 77 |
| Figure 4.5: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Marital Status | 78 |

Abstract

The study was carried out to investigate local government and rural development in Anambra State: 2006-2014. The study was necessitated due by worrisome trend in poor rural development as a result of lack of adequate commitment from the local government in effective development of grassroots. Four research questions and four null hypotheses were developed to guide the study. Survey research design was adopted for the study. The population for the study was made up of 590,629 adults of 18 years and above in Anambra State. Taro Yamani was adopted in sampling 400 respondents that constituted the representative group from which data were collected for the study. The data for the study were obtained from both secondary and primary sources. Data collected were analyzed using mean and standard deviation for answering the objectives while the null hypotheses were tested with t-test statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA) at $p < 0.05$ level of significance. Based on the data collected and analysed, the study identified some challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State, and that Local Government in Anambra State has not been playing its constitutional roles of development at the grassroots in the state. In addition, the study identified some effects of having non-democratically elected government at the grassroots and insufficient fund for the development of grassroots in Anambra State and possible solutions to the problems of local government in rural development in the state. Based on the findings, the study among others, recommended that the undue interference of the state governors should be eliminated to allow the local government chairmen govern and manage their resources to foster effective development at the grassroots, and that Federal government should ensure adequate financial allocation to the local governments in order to meet the needed rural developmental efforts at the grassroots level.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Nigeria since political independence has been engaging in rural development projects ranging from health to roads which are executed in rural settlements by the local government. Local government according to Adejo (2003) is the bedrock for rural transformation. Barry and Goldman (2000) stated that the idea of local government was born out on the need to bring government closer to the people as a mechanism to engender good governance at the grassroots level. Sharing a similar view, Ogunna (1996) reported that the reasons for establishing local government is to bring good governance in the rural areas so that local people can participate fully in the process of governance, to provide essential local services and speed up the pace of socio-economic and political development. Section 7 of the 1999 Constitution guaranteed a system of local government on democratic principle, and stipulates that one of the functions of local government council is to participate in the development of their area (Abbas and Ahmad, 2012).

Democracy and good governance most especially at the local government level are preconditions for economic development of the rural area (Adesina, 2002). Over 80 percent of the habitants of the rural areas are primarily engaged in farming and produces more than 70 percent of the food consumed in Nigeria. Despite the contributions of the rural people to Nigeria's Gross Domestic Product

(GDP), development of the rural areas has not been given the deserved attention. As a consequence, rural people suffer untold hardships; they have been described as "Nigeria's neglected rural majority" and the "stagnant sector" in the Nigerian economy (Anthonio, 1967). Rural people constitute the neglect poor with high level of poverty and poor standard of living (Ijere, 1981).

Many assistance organizations emphasize poverty reduction as an important international assistance goal. The number of organizations which focus on rural development as a way to reduce poverty has grown with the realization that most impoverished groups live in rural areas. The major international trends for poverty reduction and rural development include: The World Summit for Social Development held in Copenhagen in 1995 declared the goal to reduce absolute poverty in the world by half through people-centred social development. As a result of this conference, the goal of reducing the ratio of the poor by half between 1990 to 2015 was adopted at the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) High Level Meeting of Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in 1996. In addition, the UN General Assembly (Millennium Summit) in 2000 promoted this effort as one of its Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), with the World Bank and IMF also promoting the target.

Other organizations engaging in rural development include Asian Development Bank (ADB) which is shifting its development assistance focus to fighting poverty and the World Bank is developing a new strategy for rural

development in addition to the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP). The Department for International Development (DFID) in the United Kingdom adopted the sustainable livelihood concept as an alternative development approach to existing rural development and for effective anti-poverty programs. Moreover, most NGOs regard rural development as an effective in reducing poverty and have expanded their activities to include remote rural areas such as areas in Southeast Asia. Community participation has been recognized as an essential asset in the promotion of the independence of local people with many organizations implementing multi-sectored activities based on local conditions, such as activities in agriculture, forestry, and fisheries as well as in non-agricultural income generation, education, health care and hygiene or infrastructure improvement.

There were many innovative models of rural development in Nigeria which includes Directorate for Food Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI); River Basin Development Authorities (REDAS); Industrial Development Corporation (IDC); Rural Banking Scheme (RBS) Peoples Bank of Nigeria (PBN); National Directorate of Employment (NDE); Better Life for Rural Women (BLRW); Community Banking Programme (CBP); Family Support Programme (FSP); Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP); National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS); Anambra State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (ASEEDS). These programmes of development yield little or no benefits to rural dwellers. That

may be the reason Olaniwola and Adeleye (2005:9) assumed that rural people have benefited little from most of these rural development programmes.

The government of Anambra State put in place a unique approach to rural development known as Anambra Integrated Development Strategy (ANIDS) to meet up with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGS). The aim of this development strategy is to solve the problems of development in rural areas in Anambra State.

Any programme of development, especially in a Federal State must take cognizance of the existence of Local Government Council. According to the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999:6) every local government in the country shall participate in economic planning and development of its own area of jurisdiction. To strengthen this task bestowed on the local government, General Ibrahim Babangida, reminded Nigerians that local government were not created to pay salaries only, but to ensure collective participation in governance, motivate physical and economic development opportunities and provide social services which can improve the well being of the rural people (Oyarbaire and Olagunju 1998:49). Rural development is mainly the role of local government because it is the government at the grassroots level.

The ability of local government to carry out its function of development depends on the availability of fund to the local government. That may be the reason why Adedeji (1969:96) says that the success or failure of any local government depends on the financial resources available to it.

In Anambra State the government made use of care-taker committee because there was absence of democratically elected government at the grassroots level in Anambra State during Obi Administration. According to Lele (1975:20) rural development means improving the living standards of the masses of low income residing in rural areas, and making the process of their development self-sustaining. As far as government makes effort to alleviate poverty at the grassroots level, there must be a good relationship with the local government council and the state government.

Unfortunately during the Obis administration, there was no democratically elected government at the grassroots and this might constitute problem to development efforts of state government. The rural dwellers in Anambra state are mostly farmers who work in the farm from morning till evening to provide food cheaply to the city dwellers. Many rural areas in the state have built schools through self-help efforts but most of the schools lack necessary aids like writing desk, well equipped science laboratory etc. In Anambra State, there are efforts to alleviate the plight of the rural poor that is the reason for the introduction of various development programmes such as State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS).

The overall objective of all these programmes of development initiated by the government is to bridge the glaring gap between the urban and rural areas in terms of infrastructure, resource distribution, human resource development and employment. It is worthy of note that these programmes of development yield

little or no dividends to the rural dwellers due to various challenges facing rural development which include inadequate finance, lack of autonomy of the local government, lack of democratically elected government at the grassroots, insecurity, etc. However, local government in Anambra State engaged in development of infrastructures, human resource development and employment, unfortunately, some of the projects embarked upon by the local government were not completed and seems to have been abandoned. For example Nodu street road in Awka South was not completed. The expected development which local government were expected to foster in the rural areas now suffers. Thus, there is a genuine need for an objective academic exploration and evaluation of local government and rural development in Anambra State with the primary goal of offering a useful and workable solution.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In Nigeria about 80% of the entire population reside in rural areas (Ogbazi, 1998:20). These rural dwellers are mainly peasant farmers who find it difficult to feed and to provide most basic necessities of livelihood to their immediate families. The level of poverty among rural dwellers in Nigeria is eloquent testimony to the need for development of the rural environment. This situation was incident to identified problems, which include infrastructure, peasant and subsistence agriculture, poor network of roads, low commercial activities lack of food preservation facilities and erosion menace (Anambra State Government 1986:9).

Olamilekan (2006:13) was not comfortable with the interventions over the local government financial operations by the higher level of government. According to him the control of the revenue accruing to local governments by both federal and state government was not indicative of a genuine desire to straighten the local governments and to meet the high expectations of the people. Anambra state since its creation has experienced a chequered political history which disrupted the structure and functioning of the body politics and further hindered effective delivery of public goods and services. The state is making enormous efforts to wriggle her out of the intricate web of infrastructural decay. Despite huge budgetary allocation to the state and enormous natural resources in the state, Anambra state is still far from meeting the demands and expectations of its citizens. All the programmes of development embraced by the government yield little or no dividends to the citizens. The state is still lacking in the areas: infrastructural facilities, good road networks, adequate water, access roads in rural areas and hinterland, healthcare services, transportation services, rural electrification etc.

Various programmes of development initiated by successive government has problem of effective implementation. That may be the reason why Onah (2006:40) highlighted that, “the question that face Nigerian leaders has not been whether to plan or not, but what kind of development plan to adopt in dealing decisively with the problem of widespread poverty, large scale unemployment, technologically backwardness, low-capacity utilization, inadequate and decayed

social and physical infrastructure, illiteracy, urban congestion, short-life expectancy, excessive debt burden, high incidence of diseases and environmental degradation”. Given the above premise, this study seeks answers to the following questions

1.3. Research Questions

1. What are the challenges of rural development in Anambra State?
2. Has the local government been playing the constitutional roles of developing the grassroots in Anambra state?
3. Are there some effects of non-democratically elected government at the local government on grassroots development in Anambra State?
4. What are the possible solutions to the problems of rural development by local government in Anambra State?

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of the study was to investigate local government and rural development in Anambra State: 2006 – 2014. The specific objectives are to:

- i identify the challenges of rural development in Anambra State;
- ii investigate whether the local governments have been playing the constitutional roles of developing the grassroots in Anambra state;
- iii ascertain the effects of non-democratically elected government at the local government on grassroots development in Anambra State; and to

- iv suggest possible solutions to the problems of rural development by local government in Anambra State.

1.5. Significance of the Study

The study has two categorical significance namely: theoretical and empirical contributions. Theoretically, this study will add to the body of knowledge for scholars and writers in the field – Local Government and rural development in Anambra State especially during Obi Administration. Therefore, the study shall be a source of data for researchers in the field of local government and rural development. The work shall contribute towards the evaluation of measures employed by the government to curb the challenges or problems facing local government in rural development in Anambra State.

Empirically, the study highlighted the major challenges facing local government in rural development in Anambra State. Therefore, the study suggested possible solutions to the identified challenges facing local government in rural development in Anambra State, which if implemented will go a long way to solve the development problems of the rural dwellers in the State. In addition, the study also investigated whether the local governments have been playing the constitutional roles of developing the grassroots in the state and the effects of non-democratically elected government at the local government on grassroots development in Anambra State. Findings to these pertinent questions will greatly benefit local government system in Anambra State and Nigeria in general because it will help the local government in formulating policies that are people

oriented towards improving the lives of rural dwellers. It will also encourage mass political participation and restore confidence in local government system from people for sustainable rural development in the state.

The findings of the study will close the already existing gap in literature and provide a clear understanding of the position of local government in rural development in Anambra State. The result of this study will also serve as a tool for local government and good governance in Anambra State, Nigeria. This is because, the findings will help policy-makers to unravel factors undermining sustainable rural development as constitutional responsibility of local government in the state. In conclusion, the study will serve as a framework towards strengthening good governance at the grassroots in Anambra State, Nigeria.

1.6. Scope of the Study

The study focuses on local government and rural development in Anambra State during Obi Administration. It is specifically concerned with the examinations of the contributions of local government in rural development, the evaluation measures employed by local government to improve the lives of rural dwellers in Anambra State during the period 2006-2014.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

It is important to state that in the course of primary source of data, it was difficult to get at actual information needed for the study because many rural

dwellers are illiterate and were not able to fill the questionnaires correctly. Secondly, some of them did not open up and declined to answer questions when the researcher engaged them in oral interview because they were not familiar with the researcher. These limitations were taken care of by the availability of numerous publications and research on challenges of rural development in Nigeria, in internet, private and public libraries and group discussions. The data from these covered details required to address the research questions in this study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter of the study, the areas reviewed are itemised under the following subheadings.

- ❖ Poverty
- ❖ Theories of Poverty
- ❖ Development
- ❖ Rural Development
- ❖ Problems of Funding of Rural Development in Nigeria
- ❖ Rural Sector
- ❖ Rural Dwellers
- ❖ Theories and Models of Rural Development
- ❖ Challenges of Rural Development
- ❖ Security
- ❖ Local Government

2.1.1 Poverty

Poverty in its most general sense is the lack of necessities. Basic food, shelter, medical care, and safety are generally thought necessary based on shared values of human dignity. However, what is a necessity to one person is not uniformly a necessity to others. Needs may be relative to what is possible and are based on social definition and past experience (Sen, 1999). Valentine (1968) says that “the essence of poverty is inequality. In slightly different words, the

basic meaning of poverty is relative deprivation.” A social (relative) definition of poverty allows community flexibility in addressing pressing local concerns, while objective definitions allow tracking progress and comparing one area to another.

The most common “objective” definition of poverty is the statistical measure established by the federal government as the annual income needed for a family to survive. The “poverty line” was initially created in 1963 by Mollie Orshansky at the U.S. Department of Agriculture based on three times her estimate of what a family would have to spend for an adequate but far from lavish diet.

Several authors distinguish similar lists or theories. Blank (2003) covers six theories that are variations on the first and third theory. Morrill and Wohlenberg (1971) also offer a selection of six theories, related to the concepts: family, cash income, treatment of taxes, special work related expenses, or regional differences in the cost of living (Blank 1997:10; Quigley, 2003). Regardless of how we look at the “science” of poverty, or what O’Connor (2001:12) calls the “knowledge of poverty,” it is essential to retain focus on the fact that the definition of poverty and the policies addressing it are all shaped by political biases and values:

It is this disparity of status and interest that make poverty research an inescapably political act: it is an exercise of power, in this case of an educated elite to categorize, stigmatize, but above all to neutralize the poor and disadvantaged through analysis that obscures the political nature of social and economic inequality.

2.1.2 Theories of Poverty

Poverty Caused by Individual Deficiencies

This theory assumes that individual is responsible for his/her poverty situation. Typically, politically conservative theoreticians blame individuals in poverty for creating their own problems, and argue that with harder work and better choices the poor could have avoided their problems. Other variations of the individual theory of poverty ascribe poverty to lack of genetic qualities such as intelligence that are not so easily reversed.

The belief that poverty originates from individual deficiencies is old. Religious doctrine that equated wealth with the favor of God was central to the Protestant reformation (Weber, 2001) so the blind, crippled, or deformed people were believed to be punished by God for either their or their parents' sins. With the emergence of the concept of inherited intelligence in the 19th century, the eugenics movement went so far as to rationalize poverty and even sterilization for those who appeared to have limited abilities. Books like Hurnstein and Murray's *The Bell Curve* (1994) are modern uses of this explanation. Rainwater (1970:16) critically discusses individualistic theories of poverty as a "moralizing perspective" and notes that the poor are "afflicted with the mark of Cain. They are meant to suffer, indeed must suffer, because of their moral failings. They live in a deserved hell on earth." Rainwater further says that it is difficult to overestimate the extent to which this perspective (incorrectly) under-girds our visions of poverty, including the perspective of the disinherited themselves.

The economic theory that the poor lack incentives for improving their own conditions is a recurrent theme in articles that blame the welfare system's generosity on the perpetuation of poverty. In a *Cato Journal* article, economists Gwartney and McCaleb (1985: 7) argue that the years of the war on poverty actually increased poverty (adjusted for noncash transfers) among working age adults in spite of unprecedented increases in welfare expenditures. They conclude that "the application of simple economic theory" suggests that the problem lies in the war on poverty programs:

They [welfare programs] have introduced a perverse incentive structure, one that penalizes self-improvement and protects individuals against the consequences of their own bad choices.

This argument that cast the poor as a "moral hazard" also hold that "the problem of poverty continues to fester not because we are failing to do enough, but because we are doing too much that is counterproductive" (Gwartney and McCaleb 1985:15). Their economic model would solve poverty by assuring that the penalty of poverty was great enough that none would choose it (and welfare would be restricted to the truly disabled or otherwise unable to work).

A less widely critiqued version of the individualistic theory of poverty comes from American values of individualism—the Horatio Alger myth that any individual can succeed by skills and hard work, and that motivation and persistence are all that are required to achieve success (see Asen, 2002:29-34). Self-help literature reinforces the belief that individuals fail because they do not

try hard enough. Frank Bettger (1977:187-8), in the Dale Carnegie tradition, tells how he got a list of self-improvement goals on which to focus and became one of the most successful and highly paid salesmen in America. He goes on to say that anyone can succeed by an easy formula--focused goals and hard work.

Poverty Caused by Cultural Belief Systems that Support Sub-Cultures of Poverty

This theory of poverty base its cause in the “Culture of Poverty”. This theory is linked with the individual theory of poverty or other theories to be introduced below. This theory assumes that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated but individually held. Individuals are not necessarily to blame because they are victims of their dysfunctional subculture or cultural belief system. Culture is socially generated and perpetuated, reflecting the interaction of individual and community. This makes the “culture of poverty” theory different from the “individual” theories that link poverty explicitly to individual abilities and motivation. Technically, the culture of poverty is a subculture of poor people in poor regions, or social contexts where they develop a shared set of beliefs, values and norms for behavior that are separate from but embedded in the culture of the main society.

Oscar Lewis (1976:120) was one of the main writers to define the culture of poverty as a set of beliefs and values passed from generation to generation. He writes,

Once the culture of poverty has come into existence it tends to perpetuate itself. By the time slum children are six or seven they have already absorbed the basic attitudes and values of their subculture. Thereafter they are psychologically unready to take full advantage of changing conditions or improving opportunities that may develop in their lifetime.

Cultures are socialized and learned, and one of the tenets of learning theory is that rewards follow to those who learn what is intended. The culture of poverty theory explains how government antipoverty programs reward people who manipulate the policy and stay on welfare. The underlying argument of conservatives such as Charles Murray in Loosing Ground (1984) is that government welfare perpetuated poverty by permitting a cycle of “welfare dependency” where poor families develop and pass on to others the skills needed to work the system rather than to gain paying employment. The net result of this theory of poverty is summed by Asen’s (2002: 48) perceptive phrase, “From the war on poverty to the war on welfare.”

This theory of poverty based on perpetuation of cultural values has been fraught with controversies. No one disputes that poor people have subcultures or that the subcultures of the poor are distinctive and perhaps detrimental. The concern is over what causes and constitutes the subculture of poverty. Daniel Patrick Moynihan found the concept particularly applicable to his study of Black poverty in the early 1960s and linked Black poverty to the largely “dysfunctional” Black families found in central cities. Valentine (1968:20) criticizes E. Franklin Frazier, who with Daniel Patrick Moynihan (1965),

portrayed the culture of the negro poor as an “immoral chaos brought about by the disintegration of the black folk culture under the impact of urbanization”.

Poverty Caused by Economic, Political, and Social Distortions or Discrimination.

This is a progressive social theory. Theorists in this tradition do not perceive the individual as a source of poverty, but the economic, political, and social system which makes people to have limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and well being.

The 19th century social intellectuals developed a full attack on the individual theory of poverty by exploring how social and economic systems overrode and created individual poverty situations. For example, Marx showed how the economic system of capitalism created the “reserve army of the unemployed” as a conscientious strategy to keep wages low. Later Durkheim showed that even the most personal of actions (suicide) was in fact mediated by social systems. Discrimination was separated from skill in one after another area, defining opportunity as socially mediated. Taken to an extreme, radical thinkers argued that the system was flawed and should be radically transformed.

Much of the literature on poverty now suggests that the economic system is structured in such a way that poor people fall behind regardless of how competent they may be. Partly the problem is the fact that minimum wages do not allow single mothers or their families to be economically self sufficient (Jencks 1996:72). The problem of the working poor is increasingly seen as a

wage problem linked to structural barriers preventing poor families from getting better jobs, complicated by limited numbers of jobs near workers and lack of growth in sectors supporting lower skilled jobs (Tobin 1994). Interestingly research is showing that the availability of jobs to low income people is about the same as it has been, but wages workers can expect from these jobs have fallen. Fringe benefits including health care and promotions have also become scarce for low skilled workers. These and related economic changes documented by Blank (1997) and Quigley (2003) show the way the system has created increasingly difficult problems for those who want to work.

Elimination of structural barriers to better jobs through education and training have been the focus of extensive manpower training and other programs, generating substantial numbers of successes but also perceived failures. However, in spite of perceived importance of education, funding per student in less advantaged areas lags that which is spent on richer students, teachers are less adequately trained, books are often out of date or in limited supply, amenities are few, and the culture of learning is under siege. This systemic failure of the schools is thus thought to be the reason poor people have low achievement, poor rates of graduation, and few who pursue higher education (Chubb and Moe, 1996).

A parallel barrier exists with the political system in which the interests and participation of the poor is either impossible or is deceptive. Recent research has confirmed the linkage between wealth and power, and has shown how poor

people are less involved in political discussions, their interests are more vulnerable in the political process, and they are excluded at many levels. Coupled with racial discrimination, poor people lack influence in the political system that they can use to mobilize economic benefits and justice.

A final broad category of system flaws associated with poverty relate to groups of people being given a social stigma because of race, gender disability, religion, or other groupings, leading them to have limited opportunities regardless of personal capabilities. No treatment of poverty can be complete without acknowledging that groups against which discrimination is practiced have limited opportunities regardless of legal protections.

Poverty Caused by Geographical Disparities

Geographical disparity theory calls attention to the fact that people, institutions, and cultures in certain areas lack the objective resources needed to generate well being and income, and that they lack the power to claim redistribution. As Shaw (1996:29) noted, “Space is not a backdrop for capitalism, but rather is restructured by it and contributes to the system’s survival. The geography of poverty is a spatial expression of the capitalist system.”

That poverty is most intense in certain areas is an old observation, and explanations abound in the development literature about why regions lack the economic base to compete. Recent explanations include disinvestment, proximity to natural resources, density, diffusion of innovation, and other factors

(Morrill and Wohlenberg, 1971:57-64). In a thorough review of the literature on rural poverty, Weber and Jensen (2004) note that most literature finds a “rural differential” in poverty, but that the spatial effect is not as clearly isolated from individual effects as needed for confidence.

Goldsmith and Blakely offer a comprehensive perspective on the link between development and poverty in urban contexts. In their book, *Separate Societies* they argue that the joint processes of movement of households and jobs away from poor areas in central cities and rural regions creates a “separation of work, residence, and economic, social and political life” (1992: 125). These processes which we already discussed are multiplied by racism and political indifference of the localities in which they flourish.

One theoretical perspective on spatial concentrations of poverty comes from economic agglomeration theory. Usually used to explain the emergence of strong industrial clusters (Bradshaw, King, and Wahlstrom, 1998) agglomeration shows how propinquity of similar firms attracts supportive services and markets, which further attracts more firms. In reverse, the propinquity of poverty and the conditions leading to poverty or the consequences of poverty (crime and inadequate social services) generate more poverty, while competitive areas attract business clusters, drawing away from impoverished communities. Low housing prices in such locations may attract more poor persons, for example, leading to housing disinvestment by building owners. In a world in which the criteria for investment is “location, location, location,” it is not unreasonable to

track investment going to neighborhoods, communities and regions in which there is already substantial investment, while leaving less attractive areas.

A second theoretical insight is from central place theory and related “human ecology” examinations of urban growth that trace the flows of knowledge and capital . As Niles Hansen (1970) points out, rural areas are often the last stop of technologies, and low wages and competitive pricing dominate production. The lack of infrastructure that allows development of human resources limits economic activity that might use these resources. Places left behind (Lyson and Falk, 1992) experience the largest competition in restructuring of the economy because the jobs in these categories are most likely to move to less developed countries. An increasing body of literature holds that advantaged areas stand to grow more than disadvantaged areas even in periods of general economic growth and that there will be some “trickle-down” but not an equalizing as classical economists would have us believe.

A third perspective involves selective out-migration. One part of Wilson’s book, *The Truly Disadvantaged* (1987), holds that the people from ghetto areas with the highest levels of education, the greatest skills, widest world view, and most extensive opportunities were the ones who migrated out of central city locations to other places. In addition, he argued, these departing people also were the community’s best role models and were often civic leaders. Rural poverty is similarly attributable to selective out migration. Population density (both low rural density and the negative impact of high density) is another part of a

growing body of theory on spatial variables in social science using the tools of Geographic Information System (GIS) to track spatial dynamics of opportunity and poverty (Bradshaw and Muller, 2003).

Poverty Caused by Cumulative and Cyclical Interdependencies

This theory of poverty is by far the most complex and to some degree builds on components of each of the other theories in that it looks at the individual and their community as caught in a spiral of opportunity and problems, and that once problems dominate they close other opportunities and create a cumulative set of problems that make any effective response nearly impossible (Bradshaw, 2000). The cyclical explanation explicitly looks at individual situations and community resources as mutually dependent, with a faltering economy, for example, creating individuals who lack resources to participate in the economy, which makes economic survival even harder for the community since people pay fewer taxes.

This theory has its origins in economics in the work of Myrdal (1957:23) who developed a theory of “interlocking, circular, interdependence within a process of cumulative causation” that helps explain economic underdevelopment and development. Myrdal notes that personal and community well being are closely linked in a cascade of negative consequences, and that closure of a factory or other crisis can lead to a cascade of personal and community problems including migration of people from a community. Thus the interdependence of factors creating poverty actually accelerates once a cycle of decline is started.

One place where the cycle of poverty is clearly defined is in a book on rural education by Jonathan Sher (1977) in which a focus is on the cycle by which education and employment at the community and individual level interact to create a spiral of disinvestment and decline, while in advancing communities the same factors contribute to growth and well being. For example, at the community level, a lack of employment opportunities leads to outmigration, closing retail stores, and declining local tax revenues, which leads to deterioration of the schools, which leads to poor trained workers, unable to utilize cutting edge technology, to recruit new firms in the area, as well as a greater lack of employment.

This cycle also repeats itself at the individual level. The lack of employment leads to lack of consumption and spending due to inadequate incomes, and businesses of their own, inadequate savings, which means that individuals can not invest in training, and individuals also lack the ability to invest in businesses or to start their own businesses, which leads to lack of expansion, erosion of markets, and disinvestment, all of which contribute back to more inadequate community opportunities. Health problems and the inability to afford preventive medicine, a good diet, and a healthy living environments become reasons the poor fall further behind. The cycle of poverty also means that people who lack ample income fail to invest in their children's education, the children do not learn as well in poor quality schools and they fall further

behind when they go to get jobs. They also are vulnerable to illness and poor medical care.

A third level of the cycle of poverty is the perspective that individual lack of jobs and income leads to deteriorating self-confidence, weak motivation, and depression. The psychological problems of individuals are reinforced by association with other individuals, leading to a culture of despair, perhaps a culture of poverty under some circumstances. In rural communities this culture of despair affects leaders as well, generating a sense of hopelessness and fatalism among community leaders.

This brief description of the cycle of poverty incorporates many of the previous theories. It shows how people become disadvantaged in their social context which then affects psychological abilities at the individual level. The various structural and political factors in the cyclical theory reinforce each other, with economic factors linked to community and to political and social variables. Perhaps its greatest value is that it more explicitly links economic factors at the individual level with structural factors that operate at a geographical level. As a theory of poverty, the cyclical theory shows how multiple problems cumulate, and it allows speculation that if one of the linkages in the spiral was broken, the cycle would not continue. The problem is that the linkages are hard to break because each is reinforced by other parts of the spiralling system.

Cycle of poverty diagram

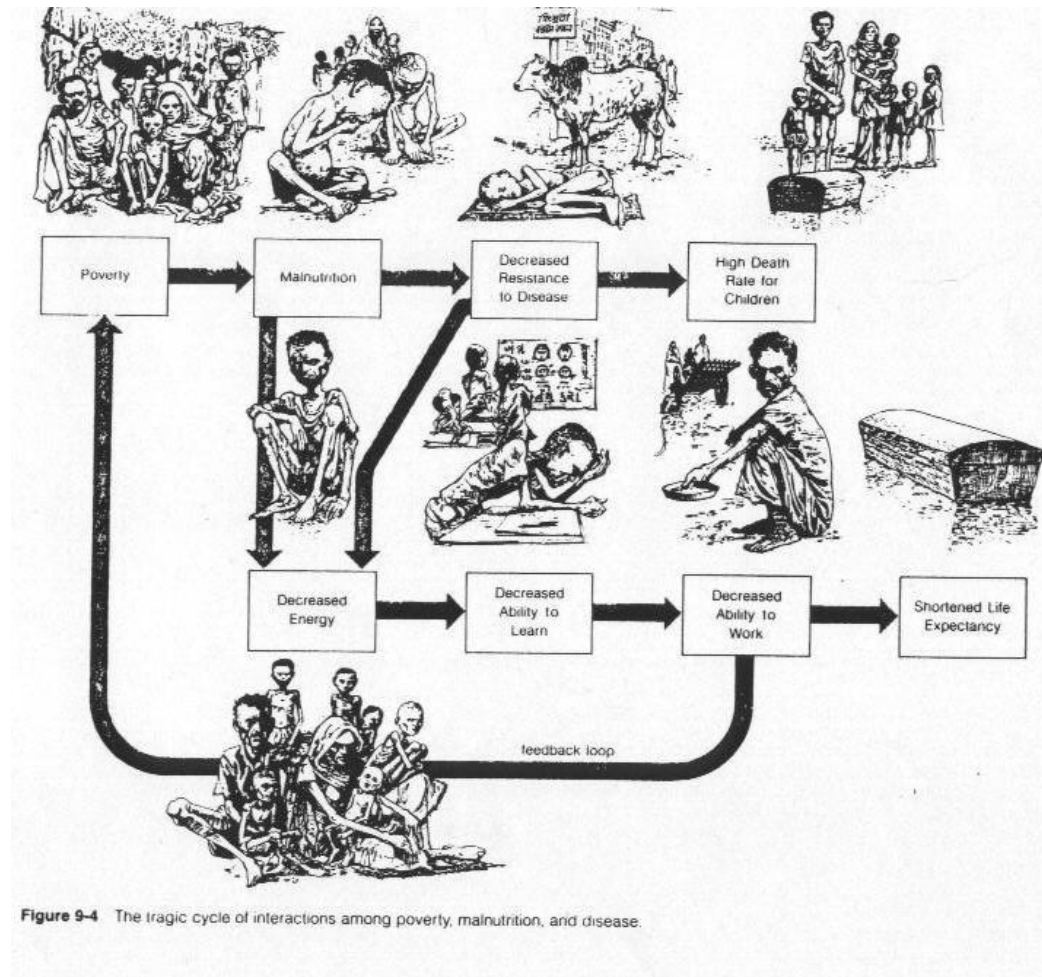
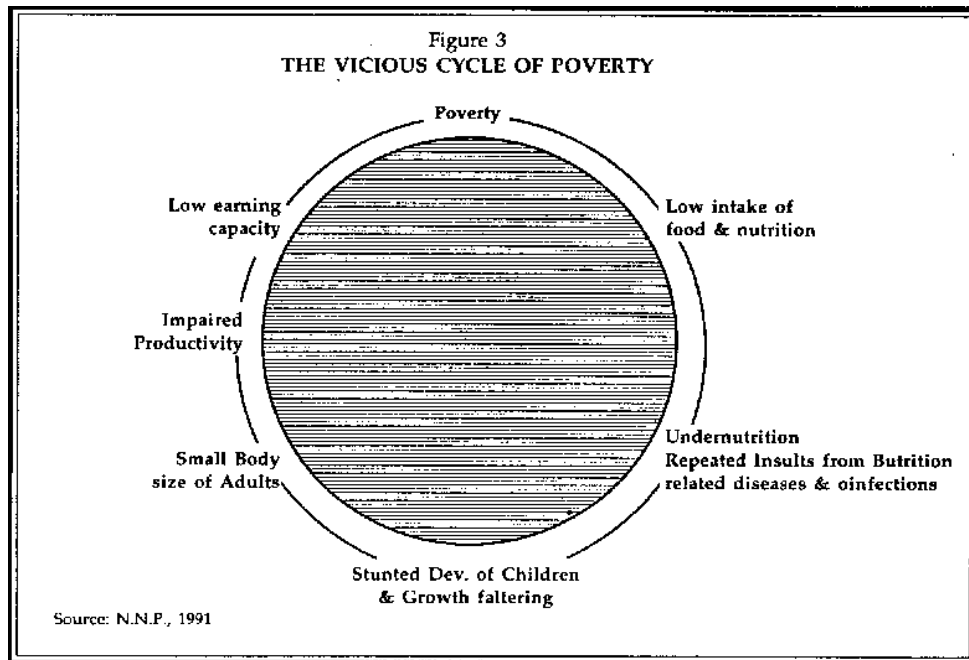
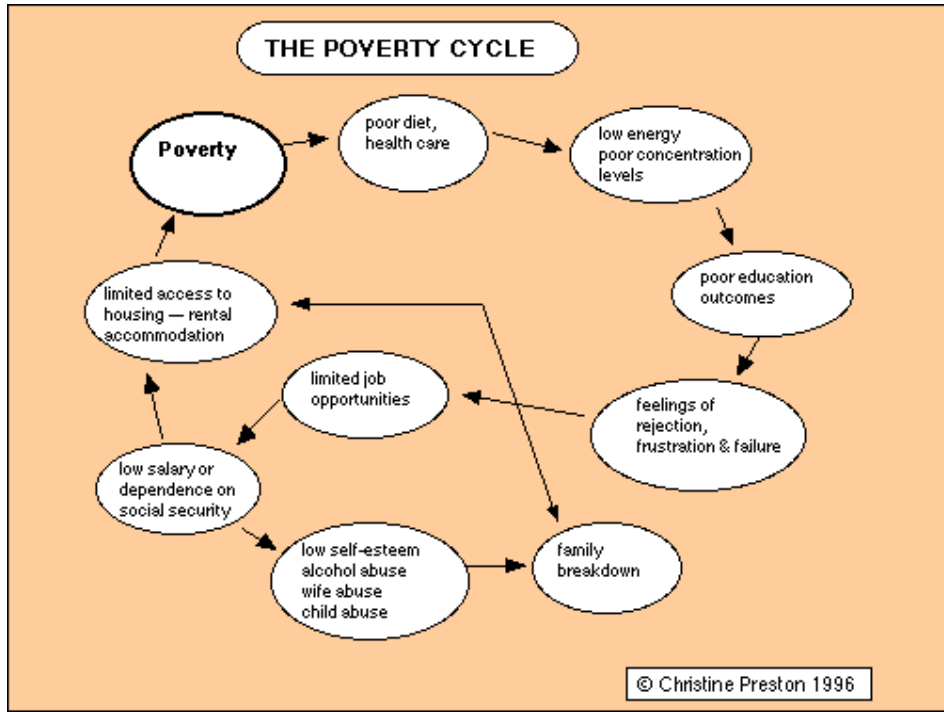
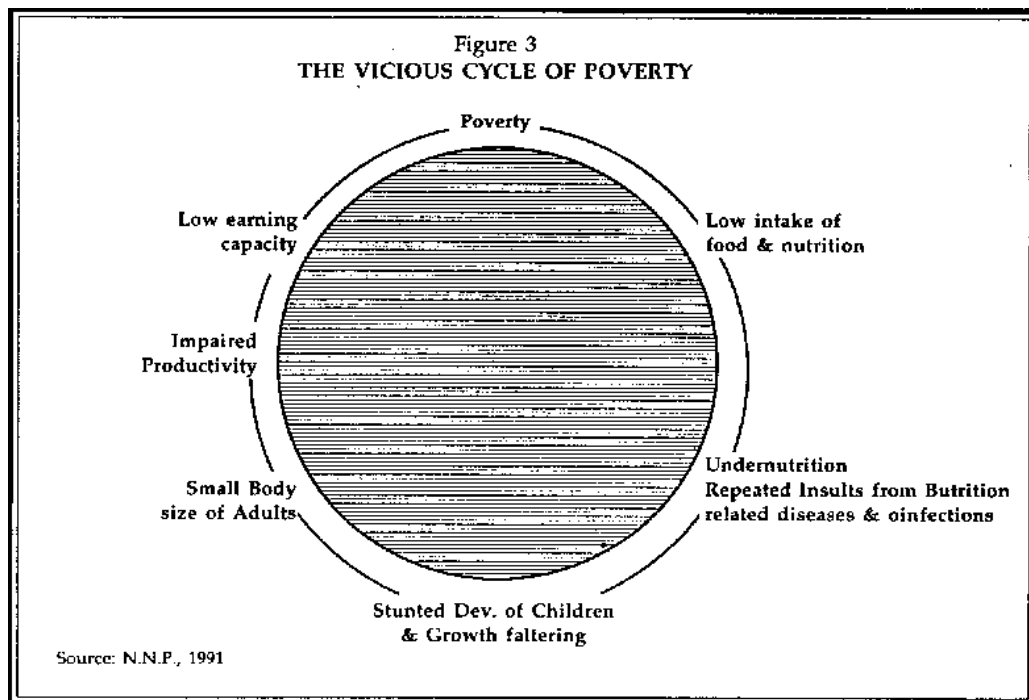
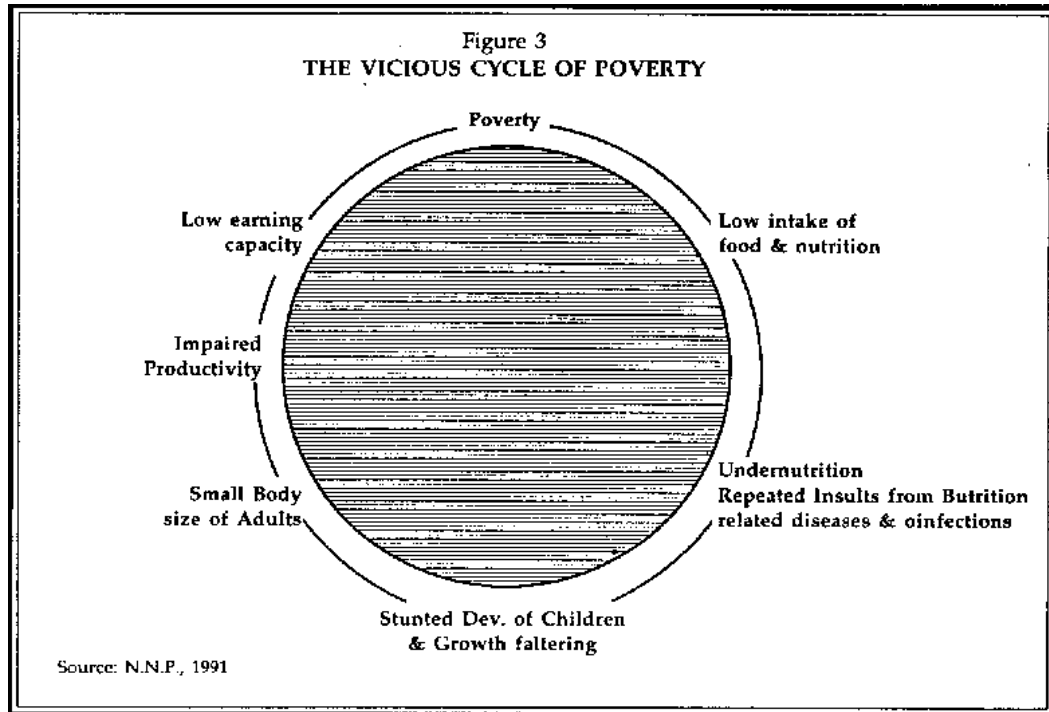
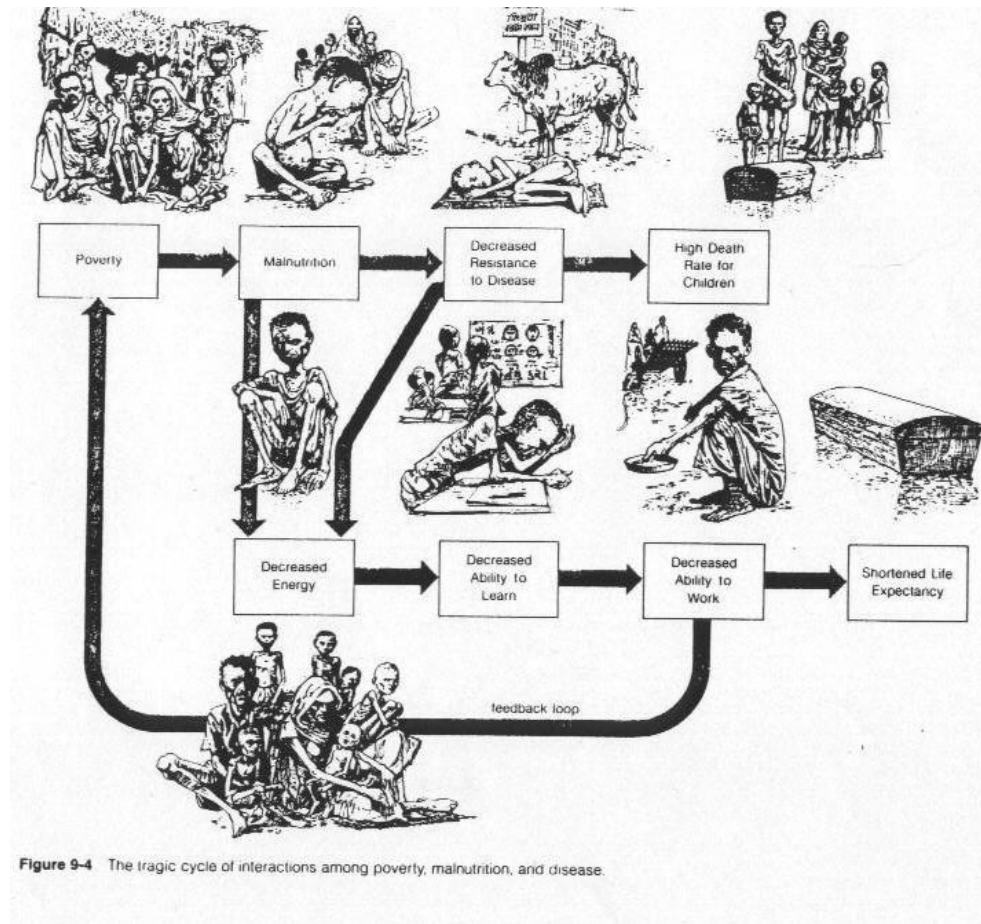


Figure 9-4 The tragic cycle of interactions among poverty, malnutrition, and disease.







2.1.3 Development

Development is a multidimensional process that normally connotes change from a less to a more desirable state. Olewe (2001) sees development as growth. He stressed that the term development when prefixed or suffixed applies to diverse perspectives such as social development, economic development, political development or socio-political economic development.

Traditionally, development meant the capacity of a national economy, whose initial economic condition has been more or less static for a long time, to

generate and sustain an annual increase in its Gross National Product (GNP) at rates perhaps 5% to 7% or more (Todaro & Smith, 2003).

Development, within this angle was seen almost as purely an economic phenomenon; therefore the major indicator of development has been a growth of per capital income. It was believed that the dividends will invariably extend to all segments of society. This process is referred to as the 'trickle down effect'. Rogers (1969) sees development as a type of social change in which new ideas are introduced into a social system in order to produce higher per capital incomes and levels of living through more modern production methods and improved social organization. From these views above it is clear that some scholars see development as westernization, which means that any developing country that wants to develop must toe western line of development. This group of scholars are known as modernization theorists.

According to Ake (2001) Modernization Theory posits an original state of backwardness or underdevelopment characterized by among other things, a low rate of economic growth that is at least potentially amenable to alteration through the normal proceed of capital. This original state of backwardness is initially universal. According to the theory, the industrialized countries have managed to overcome it. All the other countries could conceivably overcome backwardness too if they adopted appropriate strategies.

Modernization theorists, often use such words as modern' and its permutations and by categories such as "institutional differentiation".

‘Development,’ nation building ‘westernized’ ‘backward’ ‘primitive’ ‘tribal’ ‘detrivalised’ etc. (Offiong, 1980). Offiong states that: What modernization theorists most often end up with is in eventuating ethnocentric practical recipes which admonish the poor societies to imitate them all the way and they would acquired a sudden leap into the 20th century. In other words, join the Calvinistic cult and you will experience a sudden leap into modernity.

Rodney (1972) views development both from the level of the individual and that of the society as a whole. At the level of the individual, development implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being. On the level of the society, development cannot be sent purely as an economic affair, but rather as an overall social process which is dependent upon the outcome of man’s efforts to deal with his natural environment.

Dudley Seers, at the eleventh world conference of the society for international development in 1969, at New Delhi, India asked the following questions about development. According to him, the questions to ask about a country’s development are therefore: What has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would

be stranger to call the result 'development' even if per capital income doubled. (Seers, 1969).

Development in this sense means that it is comprehensive and touch all sectors plus human recourses. Ake (2001) conceived development as a multi-dimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of poverty. It must represent the whole gamut of change by which an entire social system, tuned to the diverse basic needs and desires of individuals and social groups within that system, moves away from a condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory towards a situation or condition of life regarded as materially and spiritually better. (Todaro and Smith, 2003).

In his own analysis, Dependency theorists, posit that third world underdevelopment is a result of the exploitative contact between the western capitalist countries. Thus Offiong (1980) argues that underdevelopment is not an original state as modernization theorists would want us to believe. The origin of African underdevelopment can be traced to the trans-Atlantic slave trade, abandoning of that trade in favour of 'legitimate trade' and the eventual partition of Africa. Dependency simply states that crucial economic decisions are made not by the countries that are being 'developed' but by foreigners whose interests are carefully safe guarded. To these groups therefore, development must involve freedom of the third world nations from the west.

Thus development is the coincidence of structural change and liberation of men from exploitation and oppression, perpetrated by international capitalist bourgeoisie and their internal collaborators. While real development involves a structural transformation of the economy, society, policy and culture of the satellite that permits the self-generating and self-perpetuating use and development of the people's potential, (Crockroff et al 1972). Development results from a people frontal attack on the oppression, poverty, and exploitation that are meted out to them by the dominant classes and their system (Offiong, 1980). Further, the underdevelopment of the third world is functionally related to the development of the core in which the internationally capitalist system has permitted the advanced core to drain the periphery of its economic surplus, transferring wealth from the less developed countries to the developed capitalist economies through the mechanism of trade and investment (Amin, 1975)

2.1.4. Rural Development

Rural Development

According to Lele (1975:20), rural development means improving the living standards of the masses of low income residing in rural areas, and making the process of their development self-sustaining. It can also be defined as the articulation, provision and stimulation of economic activities, health and educational advancement facilities, and utilities for rural dwellers (Ugwu, 2009:130). Furthermore, Ugwu claimed that, rural development is a venture towards urbanizing the rural environment by way of encouraging rural dwellers

to participate in activities that will promote economic and social development and enhance their living standards.

On its own part, the World Bank (1973:3), defined rural development as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social lives of a specific group of people. According to the financial body, it involves extending the benefit of development to the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas (Ujo, 1994:111). But Basu (2006:470), in a contrary opinion, stated that the essence of rural development is the all round development of the rural areas or villages with the efforts of the people. He contended that the need for citizen participation in plan formulation and implementation processes has been repeatedly stated as the gateway to bringing about social, economic and political development in the rural areas.

According to Barbara (1981:1) The main concern in rural development is supposed to be the modernization of rural society through a transition from traditional isolation to integration with the national economy for equitable and balanced development of the nation. To William (1976) Rural Development activities can be undertaken by governments or international agency which may be private or public. Rural Development constitutes a process of planned change for which one approach or the other is adopted for improvement and or transformation of the lot of the rural populace. Rural development is simply an economic issue raising the low levels of rural income through agricultural modernization (World Bank 1975) to others, it is simply a matter of welfare

Simply put, Rural development means more than all these, it is both a geographical and operational concept. Van Asseldonk (1979) sees rural development as a complex of activities and processes leading to the fulfilment of the basic needs of the rural poor.

Anker (1973) perceives the rural folk as the subject of the development process to Osei- Bonsn (1983) rural development entails the exploitation of the human and physical potentialities with which the rural areas are endowed for the benefits of raising the living standards of the rural poor. Mabogunje (1980) sees rural development as essentially a human process and defines it as being concerned with the improvement of the living standards of the low income population living in the rural areas on self sustaining basis through transforming the socio-spatial structures of their productive activities (Mabogunje 1980:30).

Mabogunje (1980) further distinguished it for agricultural development which it entails and transcends. In his conception rural development implies a broad-based reorganization and mobilization and mobilization of the rural masses and resources so as to enhance the capacity of the rural population to cope effectively with the daily tasks of their lives and with the changes consequent upon these.

William (1973) opined that rural development involves changes in the social and economic structures, institutions, relations and processes of the rural population. He reiterated that generation of new employment opportunities, more equitable distribution of income and widespread improvement in housing

nutrition, health and investment on one hand and creating wider opportunities to realize their full potentials through education, sharing in the decision and actions which affect their lives on the other hand are issues that are tackled in rural development. Nwobi (2007) sees rural development as concerted efforts made in order to facilitate significant increase in rural resources productivity with the overall objective of improving rural communities.

It is a process that seeks to ensure an overall improvement in the standard of living of the rural dwellers. It has to do with institutional and economic reconstruction in which the people are the architects of construction as well as beneficiaries. According to Titola (2008) rural development relates not only to a sustained increase in the level of production and productivity of all rural dwellers, including farmers, and sustained improvement in their well being, manifested by increased per capita income and standard of living, but also leads to a sustained physical, social and economic improvement of rural dwellers. “The goals of rural development embrace a systematic improvement of rural dwellers”.

Rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of the people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas (Mosehery, 2003:5). Rural development has traditionally centred on the exploitation of land-intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry. However, changes in global production networks and increased urbanization have changed the character of rural areas. Increasingly tourism,

niche manufacturers and recreation have replaced resource extraction and agriculture as dominant economic drivers (Ward, 2009).

The need for rural communities to approach development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentive for agricultural or resource based businesses. Education, entrepreneurship, physical infrastructure and social infrastructure all play an important role in developing rural regions (Rural Development Research, 2009:7). Rural development is characterized by the emphasis on locally produced economic development strategies (Moseley, 2003). In contrast to urban regions which have many similarities, rural areas are highly distinctive from one another for this reason there are a large variety of rural development approaches used globally. Rural development actions are mainly and mostly to development aim for the social and economic development of rural areas (Chigbu, 2012).

The condition of the rural sector in the third world countries is evidently very deplorable. Explaining this loudly and looking at the Nigerian situation, Obiukwu (1992) declared that it is the manifestation and embodiment of Nigerian underdevelopment condition. Hence therefore, it is just ad-rem to talk of the administration of rural areas as an integral part of the entire development.

2.1.5. Problems of Funding of Rural Development in Nigeria

According to Lele (1975:20), rural development means improving the living standards of the low income population residing in rural areas, while Lasis (1995:123-124) contends that it involves the mobilization and allocation of

resources so as to reach a desirable balance overtime between welfare and productive services available to the rural populace.

From the above assertions, one is constrained to ask if all the resources available to the local governments are being effectively mobilized and utilized for the improvement and development of lives in rural communities in Nigeria. The importance of this question cannot be overemphasized since most Nigerians are worried over the huge federal allocations that are pumped into the local councils throughout Nigeria, yet the rural communities seem to remain the same overtime. In other words, the decline in the provision of basic amenities for the enlistment of the rural communities is a clear testimony that such huge amount of money allocated to local governments were never mobilized and utilized as expected.

Olamilekan (2006:13), was not equally comfortable with the interventions over the local governments' financial operations by the higher levels of government. According to him, the control of the revenue accruing to local governments by both federal and state governments was not indicative of a genuine desire to strengthen the local governments and to meet the high expectations of the people. Rather, they actually funded the local government system but in disguise collected back a chunk of the allocation meant for the development of rural areas. For instance, local governments are often directed to pay huge amount of money to state governments' coffers without any official papers acknowledging the receipt of such money. This is evident in the directive

by former Governor Oserheimen Osunbor of Edo State that, all councils should pay one million naira to the state government account (Otabor, 2010:13). This is in addition to the attitude of most state Governors who, without consultations, dip into the local government monthly allocations and give whatever is left to the councils for their operations.

Even the federal government is not helping matters as some of the federal government agencies located in the local governments' premises are directed to collect funds from their host councils for their up-keep and conduct of state and national programmes. This is evident in the recent general elections, census exercise and a host of other state and federal programmes, which were partly sponsored by the local government councils.

2.1.6.The Rural Sector

There are many ways to define areas that are "rural." Although the general idea of specifically conceptualizing "rural" areas came into use in the 1920s with its basis in sociology, many, if not most, of the current explanatory frameworks evolved to provide guidance for the distribution of government monies or to perform a census of places and people. As a corollary to these classification systems, there persists the traditional assumption that tend to go along with the word "rural," assumptions that are often ungrounded and at best believe the diversity inherent in areas typically grouped together as "rural" or "nonmetropolitan." For instance, it is a commonly held belief that farming is a mainstay of most rural economies.

In fact, fewer than one-fifth of rural counties in North America now have a significant economic dependence on farming, and the 20% of no metro counties that have farming as their principal economic base contain less than 10% of the no metro population (Deavers, 1992). Moreover, the geopolitical boundaries that usually serve as the basis for these classifications often are not optimal.

Rural society is characterized by relative predominance of agricultural occupation, due mainly to the closeness of the people to nature as contrasted with a human environment; smallness of its communal aggregate; by less internal differentiation and stratification and by less territorial, occupational and vertical social mobility of the population. The individuals in rural areas have fewer contacts with others that are outside their setting due to communication problems. They associate with people from smaller geographical and social areas. A greater proportion of their contact is face to face.

The rural areas are characterised by their depressingly meagre annual per-capita income, poor liveable houses, and various forms of social and political isolation. The labour force are depleted, the mode of production are inefficient and at the rudimentary stage, there is a general dearth of basic infrastructure and social amenities, the paucity of processing factories, markets, banks, storage shop and their low levels of health care delivery, nutrition, hygiene, education and social awareness. For these reasons, Abah (2000) explains that the rural areas are normally unable to harness their abundant natural resources.

Here we examine the following rural sector variables according to Obi (1997) cited in Obi (2006) which distinguishes it from its urban counterpart.

1 Population

The rural sector in Nigeria harbours about 70% of the population of the country. The quality content of the rural population is made up of old people, children and few unskilled young men who often times constitute a nuisance to the rural dwellers. Many children in the rural areas have distended tummies with spindly legs and are obvious of a better milieu. They are highly malnourished due to ignorance as a result of illiteracy and poverty (Idike, 1991). The poverty level in the rural areas is so palpable that the populace is easily seen manifesting the rural underdevelopment condition (Obiukwu, 1992). The rural sector, according to the Federal Government Report outlines of National Development Plan harbours 80.70% of the populace in 1963. 70.13% in 1985 and in 1990, 69%, 1995, 55%. The rural dwellers are predominantly illiterates.

This high illiteracy is explained by the fact that the rural dwellers are usually unable to adequately organize and articulate their demands as those in the urban places do. It also makes them reactionary and antagonistic to innovations, new ideas (rules and regulations from government) and unreceptive to modern economic developments. For instance, loans, modern farming implements and policies, issues like birth control and contraceptives for wives and mothers etc. They are also fatalistic and unwilling to transform the social and political conditions, which they inherited from their forefathers. To Uwakah

(1976), large segment of the population lives in rural areas as peasant farmers. The system of farming is predominantly traditional, using the hoe and cutlass. The farmer practice shifting cultivation, thus planting on a small piece of land for two or three years and move to another distance away.

2. Physical Features

The rural settings are mainly made up of natural hills, mountains streams and lakes where they exist, green vegetation, track roads or untarred roads where they exist. Natural gradation still takes effect and cause a lot of hardship in some of the rural areas while individuals battles on their own to provide a natural control. Physically also, the rural areas harbour the abundance of minerals and natural resources which most countries depend on for survival and development. Using Nigeria for example, the existence of the country is almost completely dependent on those neglected parts of any state or region.

3. Infrastructural Facilities

There is a substantial imbalance between the development levels of the urban and rural sectors particularly in the following areas as presented by Obi:

- a. Investments: Most rural areas lack industrial and public sector investment. A few cottage industries cited in the rural areas are not adequately maintained or even covered for in/by government budgets and policies. Most private investors are particularly discouraged from investing in the rural areas because of difficulties in accessing raw materials and markets for the finished products, due to bad roads, modern communication

facilities and lack of other essential social amenities like electricity, water, etc. This tends to lead to low capital formation in the rural areas.

- b. Few and inadequate Education Institution: There are very few schools in the rural areas and many of these schools are dilapidated, ill equipped and lack qualified manpower like teachers, particularly in the sciences and mathematics and in other technical areas needed for proper training of the pupils.
- c. Lack of other essential amenities: there are few or no good sources of water supply particularly pipe borne water in most rural areas. Most rural areas lack electricity, health centres, Hospitals, sanitation, good housing, access roads and good communication network. Lack of the above essential amenities contributes immensely to social instability in the rural areas (influx of people to the urban areas).

4. Alienation from Seat of State and Federal Government

The rural populace is completely alienated from the central and even state or sometimes local governments unlike their urban counterparts. This tends to explain why policy articulation and formulation often elude most of them. This factor also explains why public sector investment and development often elude them. Hence, Obiukwu (1992) succinctly states that the Nigerian rulers view rural dwellers as mere objects of production for manipulation. This is also responsible for the dearth of basic public utilities in these areas. Idike (1992) supporting this view stated that man and nature are in close corporation in an

attempt to alleviate the hard effects of government policies, which barely acknowledge their existence but favour it with routine care and promises that are hardly fulfilled (Obi, 1997 cited in Obi 2006).

5. High cost of Living

On this, Obi presented that in the past, the prizes of commodities were very high in the urban centres compared with the prizes in the rural areas. Unfortunately, the story is no longer the same. This she said is as a result of imperfections in agricultural marketing system and low agricultural productivity. Research disclosed that the overall food demand was rated at 3.5% per annum while national growth rate is 1% as of 1970-1985. In 1993-97, the overall food demand stands at 3.2% per annum while the national growth is 2.2%.

2.1.7. Rural Dwellers

Rural dwellers have been variously defined as comprising of all persons residing in the open country. Or all persons connected directly with agricultural occupations. Or all persons residing in administrative units of less than a given size (Obi, 1997). These people according to Abah (2000) do not constitute any political force and so policy formulators therefore do not adequately consider them. This he explains further is due to their inability to adequately organize themselves and articulate their demands as those in the urban places do. Perhaps too, it is not just inability to, but absence of knowledge of the way to make such demands. The mere sight of the government in the environment usually satisfies rural dwellers. The mere presence of a government official creates satisfaction,

waving at them is usually pleasant stopping to address them solves their problems of neglect. When a government programme includes them in its coverage, however trivial, they are happy. That therefore gives credence to Abah's (2000:153) assertion that:

...the wealth which built modern Nigeria, whether in the area of the dominance of agricultural commodities or of petroleum products, was derived from the rural areas. One would therefore expect the government to dedicate a greater share of the wealth of the nation to the development of the rural sector, yet life in these areas is so wretched and sharply contrasts with what is obtainable in the urban centre.

World Bank (1975) sees rural development as purely an economic issue raising the low levels of rural income through agricultural modernization, Okafor (1981) in his own way looks at it from the angle of welfare. These definitions are inadequate since they are too restrictive in the sense that although the rural economy is agricultural oriented, it is wrong to use it as a sole criterion for defining rural development or to constitute the basis for rural planning. Other variables like employment opportunity, security, good housing, education, and electricity, good water supply, health care programme, good communication network and other facilities for basing development on structural variables. Simply put rural development is a strategy for bringing about desirable socio-economic, cultural, institutional and technological changes for developing human and natural resources and for enlistment of the standards of living of all peasants in the rural traditional societies.

Williams (1973) in an effort to improve on the earlier definitions, explains that rural development is marked by the changes in the social and economic

structures, institutions and processes of the rural population. The UNDP paper also defined rural development along that same advanced but focused view as; socio-economic changes involving the transformation of an agrarian society in order to reach a common set of development goals based on the capacities and needs of the people. Babra Hanus in his work titled, *Trade and Rural Development: The Nature and Role of Agriculture Trade in a South Indian District* (1981), defined Rural Development simply as the modernization of rural society through the transition from traditional isolation to integration with the national economy for equitable and balance development of the nation.

Mabogunje (1980:30) defines it as a human process concerned with the improvement of the living standards of the low income population living in the rural areas on a self-sustaining basis through transforming the socio-economic structures of their productive activities. The human personality according to Okoye (2001) cited in Obi (2006) (its welfare, culture and institution) is the object and subject of rural development. On the other hand, the new concept of sustainability in development literature stresses that enduring development is that which meets the needs of the present without taking the risk that future generations will not be able to meet their needs (Brundtland Report, 1987). Sustainable rural development is and should be that which has to be designed and sustained by the beneficiaries of the development either solely or in active participation or collaboration of other people or sectors.

It is therefore a pragmatic strategy by the people for ensuring that essential amenities and innovations get to their doorsteps at the rural areas. Hence, T.R Battern in his work titled communities in their development (1986) defines Rural Development as a process whereby communities gather to discuss, define their goals and objectives, plus how to accomplish these goals and objectives. On the other hand, to the common wealth secretariat, rural development is “a comprehensive mode of social transformation which recognizes that national development must involve all elements of the population. It is a socio-economic process, which seeks to bring about more equitable distribution of recourses and incomes within a society. It involves integration of the rural poor, into national economy”.

The implication of the above definition as Obi (1997) cited in Obi (2006) explains is that in order to eliminate rural poverty, the rural poor themselves must become involved in the development process- as producers, as well as consumers. Rural development therefore requires more than an effort to transform the area through just attracting and maintaining development projects. It rather calls for basic and comprehensive reorientation of development approaches. This is in order to build institutions, strengthen the linkages among the various social groups and economic activities, increase, and employment opportunities and income and finally to encourage and motive the people to participate in the planning, execution and sustenance of development projects.

Abah (2000) in giving a general analysis of development from this perspective relied on the four levels of functioning and organizing rural development as follows:

- a. A planned programme of action through nationally formulated policies;
- b. Self help through community mobilization and participation;
- c. Technical assistance through a large pool of federally recruited professionals; and
- d. Integration of various specialties through a systemic approach to rural development.

The term community development itself involves the various processes by which a community is involved in transformation of their condition to a desired and acceptable condition. It can change the relationships between people in communities and the institutions, which shape their lives.

2.1.8. Theories of Rural Development

Theories of rural development include the following:

(A) Basic Resource Theory

This model is the earliest approach of rural development adopted in Nigeria. Abah (2000), assumes that development depends on the existence, magnitude and quality of basic natural resources. According to Essang (1975), the theory argues that the development of those resources attracts investment capital to these areas and increases income and employment.

The Growth Centre Concept

The major argument of Perroux's (1950) growth pole hypothesis is that a growth pole is a "place of passage of forces" which attracts men and objects to it and also repels them. It is a centre from where centrifugal and centripetal forces operate. Basically, it is held that "growth does not appear everywhere at the same time, it manifests itself in points or poles of growth with variable terminal effects for the economy as a whole. To Nicholas (1969) a growth centre can be seen as an urban centre of economic activity which can achieve self sustaining growth of the nation. Thus, initially, growth is held to be concentrated at a matrix of favourable points and subsequently, the growth impulse so generated is transmitted to the surrounding area of the growth space.

According to Friedman and Alonso (1964), the spatial incidence of economic growth is a function of distance from a central city. The growth potential of an area situated along an axis between two cities is a function of the density of interaction between them. The growth potential of a region is thus held to be closely related to the intensity of interaction between the growth centre and its surrounding region. This concept is very important in developing nations. An important aspect of the growth centre concept is the idea that growth generated in the growth centres will spread to the hinterland. The spread mechanism may take the form of stimulation of food production for urban industrial markets, increased production of industrial raw materials for processing industries, employment opportunities for any surplus rural labour

following agricultural mechanization within the growth space; financial remittances to the rural areas of migrant workers, diffusion of innovations into the “growth space”, and subsidiary investments made by rich firms located at the growth centre in surrounding regions.

It is also argued that there is an opposing set of ‘backwash’ effects including the migration of the educated, the skilled, the professional, and the technical workers from the hinterland to the growth centre and consequent adverse changes on the former’s skill mix; the diversion of savings that might have been used productively in the hinterland, the displacement of any embryonic industries that might exist in the hinterland and the stronger relative pull of the growth centre on new locations. Thus, powerful backwash effects may infect, erode the economy of the surrounding region rather than stimulate growth. There is a constant interplay of spread and backwash effects with the net result that the hinterland is either impoverished or enriches depending on the constant strength of spread effects.

The Classical and Neo-Classical Model

The classical and Neo Classical theorists argue that the growth of an economy whether rural or not, is a function of capitalist investment and employment of labour. Because of the fact that capital tends to flow into sectors characterized by high rates of return and high marginal productivity of capital while labour similarly moves into a sector characterized by high wage rates, the classical and neo-classical proposition stipulate that the promotion of economic

development in the rural areas should involve measures which will raise the rate of return to capital investment and the earning of labour.

Export – Led Growth Model

According to Myint (1958) cited in Olisa and Obiukwu(1992) the opening of markets in other parts of the world expanded the demand for exports, whose production was intensive in the use of the abundant land and labour resources of the less developed economies. This led to a fuller utilization of previously underutilized land and labour. The result was cumulative growth in incomes, employment and government revenue. The expansion of exports also induced investment in infrastructural facilities, such as ports, roads, railways and banking institutions which are essential to growth.

This model explains fully the process of economic development in many third world countries. In Nigeria, it guided agricultural and rural development policies from the colonial times to the later parts of the 1960's, when the country was the world leading producer of some cash crops like groundnuts, cocoa, cotton and palm produce. In some states of Nigeria, agricultural development strategies still emphasize export expansion in line with the prescription of the approach.

The Diffusion Model of Rural Development

This model of rural development attempts to explain the existence of substantial productivity differences among farmers in the same economic and geographical regions. According to the model, such differences arise because of

differences in farmers' adoption of innovations, such as new varieties of seeds, mechanical and chemical inputs. Since the path of agricultural and rural development lies in narrowing the existing productivity differences through the diffusion of technological innovations, the proponents of the model concentrates on the analysis of the various techniques for diffusing innovations to the farmers, particularly, communication techniques. This model has gained considerable acceptance in many developing countries. It has led to the emphasis on and the adoption of agricultural extension services, demonstration stations, experimental farmers and progressive farmers' or 'local innovators' as techniques of diffusing innovations to rural farmers in these countries.

In Nigeria, the diffusion strategy is still being emphasized as the solution to the problem of low productivity of the average rural farmer. However, this strategy has proved very disappointment in the Nigerian context. Experimental stations and demonstration farms have negligible demonstration effects in the areas in which they are located. The uses of local innovators of progressive farmers have yielded unencouraging results in terms of the number of farmers converted to the use of modern techniques and technology. Even the much hailed farm settlement approach has not lived up to expectation in this respect.

In addition, the diffusion of innovations poses more complex organizational problems than had been foreseen by the exponents of the model. To adopt a new idea involves more than a matter of conveying information about the existence, uses and profitability of innovation. It involves the presence of an

administrative frame-work to ensure the regular availability and timely delivery of the new input to the farmers. It also involves the existence of a credit arrangement designed to ensure that shortage of funds presents no barrier to adoption of innovations. In many of the developing nations that have enthusiastically embraced the model, these organizational arrangements are either absent or grossly inadequate.

Another problem of the diffusion model is that it works successfully where the farming population is educated and where the change agents have a thorough understanding of what they are trying to sell or explain to the farmers. In most developing nations, these conditions are absent. The rural population are characterized by mass illiteracy. The extension agents are usually men with very rudimentary knowledge of the basic sciences without which they cannot understand the properties of the biological and chemical innovations they are supposed to explain to the farmers.

There is also wide spread disappointment regarding the role of international and rural development contrary to the idea fostered by the diffusion model. Many agricultural technologies are location specific and cannot be adopted by farmers without considerable adaptation to the local situation. Such adaptation, however, presupposes the existence of research stations and applied agricultural scientists in the countries using the innovations. While this is fulfilled in a few countries, it is not practicable in most developing countries. The result is a tendency to wholesale transfer of new technique or technology to

areas with widely different ecological and economic circumstances. This partly accounts for its limited success in areas where these considerations are ignored

2.1.9 Challenges of Rural Development

In an interview Amuta (1987) said that the challenges facing his government in relations to rural development were five-fold, which impose crucial responsibility on the government. These challenges he enumerated as provision of water and sanitation, construction of rural feeder roads, building rural industries, provision of electricity and embarking on agricultural projects purely on co operative basis. The accomplishment of these goals was not only imperative in his own words but also needed deadlines which must be met purely because we want to move from a position of obscurity in terms of rural development to one of leadership and example for the rest of the country.

Governor Omeruah (1995) accepted the challenge that "the primary task before us is to arrest the steady decline in the general standard of living and intolerable sufferings of the ordinary citizens. His contention falls in line with what Dr Bah (1985) referred to as the plight of the Rural man when he said that the rural man could not be said to be part of the system because not much is thought of him when decisions on development plans are being taken. He went further to say that "most of them follow vaguely the happenings in the society because of their low intellectual development. According to Nwosu (1980:99) "Rural problem often times is not in the conception of plausible plans, but in the faithful and religious implementation of such laudable plans. To Amuta (1987).

The government mouth-piece saw the provision of a directive for rural development as an outstanding governmental strategy for tackling an overwhelming problem in rural development.

When the Federal Government set up Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) in 1986, its focus, Oyaide (1988) was on feeder roads, potable water supply, rural electrification, rural housing to train the rural dwellers, to produce cheap but high quality and durable building materials from local materials and teach them to use them effectively to house themselves, agriculture through supply of improved seeds and yam sets, development and promotion of rural industrialization, adult education, community organization and community mobilization for civic awareness and self development.

Ndubuisi (1992) identifies the problems that were militating against rural development as inadequate infrastructure peasant and subsistence type of agriculture low commercial activities, lack of modern industrial establishments, a system of education which aims solely at white collar jobs and inadequate health institutions for rural Medicare. Other constraints are poor net-work of roads in the rural communities, insufficient supply of fertilizer to rural farmers, insufficient fund for agricultural loan schemes, expensive farm implements, inadequate agricultural extension services, lack of food preservation facilities, absence of plans for the development of land banks for large scale agriculture and soil erosion. Both the federal and state government targeted operation and constraints identified by Anambra state government point to the inadequacy of

conditions of life of rural communities and the need to reduce the inadequacies in the short run and remove them in the long run.

2.1.10 Conceptualization of Security

Security is of vital importance. The term is frequently used to help raise consciousness of the importance of particular issues, which are then so labelled in the minds of the population at large (Buzan 1991: 370). However, security is an ‘essentially contested concept’ (Gallie 1956: 184; Buzan 1983: 6); a concept on which no consensus exists. This conceptual vagueness makes it difficult to find a common ground for discussion. A feature shared by most definitions is some form of threat to cherished values (Williams 2008: 5), especially those threats that endanger a particular referent object’s survival in the near future. Accordingly, concern for survival entails a preoccupation with security (Art 1993: 821).

Security is not an independent concept. It is always related to individual or societal value systems (Brauch 2003:52). Every actor talking about security assigns different meanings to the term. Based on the assumptions of the realist theory of international relations-that security is the dominant concern for states, that force is the major instrument, that governments preserve their unity as they interact with one another security is achieved once threats to security can be prevented or at least managed (Nye 1988, : 6–8). Contrary to realist theory, social constructivism perceives security as resulting from the interactions of various actors, with social values and identities shaping these relations.

Security is accordingly intersubjective; constituted by a process of interaction and negotiation. Once the perception of security has changed, and the fear of one another is overcome, security is achieved (Ulusoy 2003: 161). Especially noteworthy in this context is the distinction between security in an ‘objective sense’ (absence of threats) and in a ‘subjective sense’ (absence of fear)¹ (Wolfers 1962: 149). Security is achieved once both components exist.

¹ “Security, in an objective sense, measures the absence of threats to acquired values, in a subjective sense, the absence of fear that such values will be attacked” (Wolfers 1962: 149).

Security cannot be achieved at the expense of others. Actors deprived of security are possible threats. Security can only be achieved by combined efforts (Booth 1999:41). In this view, security means that a certain degree of trust between actors—originating from a certain level of predictability—needs to be achieved by sharing commitments. The ‘common security approach reflects this view: “International security must rest on a commitment to joint survival rather than on the threat of mutual destruction” (Palme 1982: ix).

There have been various interpretations of security. In general, security has been understood to be synonymous with the accumulation of power. It has been regarded as a commodity, and power as the means of achieving it (Van Buuren 2010: 4). Most strikingly, the interpretation of security has changed with the end of the systemic antagonism between the Soviet Union (SU) and the United States (US). The traditional goal was to defend national sovereignty in

terms of territory, people, and the system of government. Two principal assumptions supported this view: the state was seen to be relatively absolute, and the conflict between capitalism and communism was unresolvable (Allenby 2000: 10–13).

Within the organizational framework of the UN the focus has shifted away from a state-centred to a more human-centred approach. The concept of human security was included in the agendas of UN component organizations (UNDP 1994; FAO 2003), and incorporated into the studies of the academic security community (Brauch 2005:18). Despite a widening of the concept of security, a large number of states still adhere to a state-centred, militarized approach (Møller 2003:279). Since the 9/11 attacks and the declaration of the ‘war on terror’, however, it has been possible to observe a shrinking of the concept of security. Military security, concentrating on state actors, has gained importance once more (Liotta 2002:173).

This study will be based on a definition of security as ‘survival-plus’. Since those threats in particular that endanger a particular referent object’s survival in the near future are of vital importance, concern for survival entails a preoccupation with security (Art 1993: 821). Yet, the terms security and survival are often used in a similar way and present a confusing ambiguity. Defining security as ‘survival-plus’ removes this flaw. Here survival is understood as an existential condition, while security additionally comprises the ability to pursue

cherished political and social ambitions; the ability to make “life-choices” (Booth 2007:106).

2 In 1982 the Palme Commission led by Olof Palme issued the report on *Common Security*. It argued that both sides in the Cold War have legitimate security needs. Unilateral security for one block based on superior military resources is seen to be impossible (Palme 1982).

3 ‘Power’ is understood in a Weberian sense as: “the chance of a man, or a number of men to realize their own will in communal action, even against the resistance of others” (Weber 2005: 28)

2.1.11 Local Government

It has been defined in various forms by different writers. Sharma and Sadana (2008:833) defined local government as a statutory authority in a specified local area, having the power to raise revenue through taxes for the performance of local services such as sanitation, education, water supply, etc. Precisely, they see local government as authority constituted by the elected representatives of the local people, which enjoy autonomy from state or central control sufficient to enable it to perform its services adequately. This view is in consonant with the definition given by the United Nations Office for Public Administration. According to Ezeani (2004:25), UNO saw local government as a political sub-division of a nation, which is constituted by law and has powers to impose taxes or to exert labour for prescribed purposes. The governing body of a local government is elected or otherwise locally selected.

From the above definitions, local government is understood to mean a government constituted by law at local level through representative council which is either elected or selected to exercise some specific powers within a defined area. An in-depth analysis of the definitions reveals some common features which include: Local government as a political sub-division of a nation, which has some legal basis that is constitutional and has substantial control of local affairs. Its governing body can be elected or selected (Ikeanyibe, 2008:24). Defining local government in a very simple form, Obi (2009:304), asserts that it is the government nearest to the local people and is the third tier of government, set up to meet the needs and aspirations of the rural dwellers. In their own words, Olisa, Okoli and Nwabufo (1990:93) saw local government as a unit of government below the central, regional or state government, established to exercise political authority through a representative council within a defined area. In a nutshell, local government is seen as a government which operates at the lowest level of the society, within areas established by law. It is equally a government that is closer to the rural dwellers, which major function is to satisfy the needs and aspirations of the people. Local government is expected to be autonomous in exercising its constitutional powers and allows the local inhabitants to be associated with the government's functioning, thereby being accountable to the people.

2.2 Gap in Literature

Rural development is indispensable in every nation and also to equip them with the right approach to rural development that will enhance the living standard of rural dwellers. The related literature on relevant concepts such as poverty, development, rural development, problems of funding of rural development in Nigeria, rural sector, rural dwellers, theories and models of rural development, challenges of rural development, security and local government were reviewed. The reviewed literature was in line with the specific objectives of the study which helped a great deal in developing the items in the questionnaire that was used for data collection for the study.

From the literature reviewed so far it could be seen that many scholars have written extensively on rural development, efforts of successive governments in reducing infrastructural decay in the rural areas and challenges of grassroots in Nigeria. It is imperative to state that none of the scholars have attempted to investigate whether the local government has been playing the constitutional roles of developing the grassroots and the effects of non-democratically elected local government on grassroots rural development in Anambra state 2006 – 2014. This is the main thrust of this study.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This study adopts Marxian Political Economic Theory as its framework of analysis. The State in Marxian Political Economic Theory continues to be an instrument of exploitation and class dominance. To this end, Marx argues that as the masses became poorer and more numerous, the capitalist became fewer and

controlled greater concentration of the means of production, whose full productiveness they throttled back for their own gain (Mazi Mbah 2006:34). Marxist begin with the notion that the state came about with the consolidation of the power of the bourgeoisie.

The tenets of the theory are:

The state came into existence as a special apparatus of coercion, immediately society was divided into antagonist classes the oppressed and the oppressors. Social division into classes arose and took firm root, the state also arose and took firm root within society (Lenin 1985:8).

The Tenets of the Theory:

1. The state is seen as an apparatus for the oppression of one class by another class, a machine for holding in obedience to one class by another class, other subordinated classes.
2. The state is seen as the autonomous force outside society to protect the interest of bourgeoisie.
3. The concept of class struggle plays a central role in understanding society's allegedly inevitable development from bourgeois oppression under capitalism
4. Actions and human institutions are economically determined.

The Marxist builds on a materialistic understanding of societal development taking as its starting point to necessary economic activities required to satisfy the material needs of human society.

Application of the theory to the study

This theory is relevant to this study as it enables the study to investigate the contributions of local government in rural development in Anambra State during Obi Administration with a view to ascertain the numerous approaches to rural development and to examine the reasons for the failure of government efforts to alleviate the standard of living of the rural dwellers. Applying the theory to the study the issues raised by the theory, it enables the researcher to study the politics, interest and social relationship that characterize rural development.

As noted by Tenuche and Ogwo (2005:124), the fundamental exploitative relations between the Nigeria elite classes who designed and implement rural development programmes and rural poor masses guarantee that rural development programmes and policies have the likelihood to consolidate the predominant class and exploitative interests of their imperialist collaborators. The assumption that the rural communities cannot identify their felt needs is an example of an opportunity for exploitation. Some of the policy efforts made so far includes Agricultural Development Programmes, Rural Infrastructural Development Programmes, Rural Banking and Credit Guarantee Scheme, Transportation Schemes, Health Care Delivery Schemes, educational Programmes that are rural driven, Low cost Housing Schemes, Gender Development Policies and other poverty alleviation programmes. Resources for the programmes are controlled by the bureaucracy (Tenuche and Ogwo,

2005:125). In a clearer analysis Bhagwan and Bhushan (2005:125) pointed out that;

...after the end of colonial rule, the emerging free states-called the Third World Countries, started the process of socio-economic development which led to phenomenal expansion of bureaucracy and the rise of a new class, a bureaucratic bourgeoisies in many of these countries. This class soon acquired social and political parameters on account of the various political and social factors. This new class was western oriented and framed in western methods of administration with the aid of western countries in the form of training abroad and financial assistance for development projects. This new class of administrators was able to establish bureaucratic authoritarianism and hierarchical formation which substituted for mass mobilization and popular participation, the two essential ingredients of development administration...

In the same theoretical analysis, Fezzes Heady in Bhagwan and Bhushan (2005:126) identified the following major characteristics of bureaucracy in the management of development programmes in the developing countries thus:

- i. The basic pattern of administration is initiative rather than indigenous;
 - ii. The bureaucracy is deficient in skilled manpower necessary for development programme;
 - iii. They work for realization of goals other than the achievement of programme objectives;
 - iv. There is widespread discrepancy between form and reality;
 - v. Operational autonomy the above elaborately stands to mark the planning and execution of rural development programmes unresponsive to rural needs, unrepresentative of the rural populace at large, and elitist in nature and character.
- Example is the well equipped nature of government hospital and health care

centres in the urban cities. This is due to the fact that urban setting harbours the programmes' planners and managers. Also is the much propagated National Health Insurance.

2.4 Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses

- i Rural development in Anambra State is significantly hampered by funding and corruption
- ii Local government did not play their constitutional roles in rural development in Anambra state.
- iii Non-democratically elected government at the grassroots level negatively effected development in Anambra State .
- iv Unrestricted access to Federal monthly allocation and constitutional reforms are solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State.

2.5 Operationalization of Key Concepts

For the purpose of this study the key concepts employed are operationalised as follow:

Local Government: Local Government, agency organized to provide and supervise administrative, fiscal, and other services to the people who reside within its territorial boundaries. It is the level of government most directly accountable to the public

Rural development: It is a strategy designed to improve the economic and social conditions of people in the rural areas

Infrastructures: economic and social underpinnings of a community or nation. Elements of infrastructure include systems of transportation, power generation, communications, banking, education, and health

Social services: programs that help people with basic necessities, health, behavior, family problems, and efforts at career development and self-improvement.

CHAPTER III

STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH PROCEDURE

3.1 Study Area

This study, which adopted survey method, was carried out in Anambra State. The state which is one of the thirty six states of Nigerian Federation was created out of the old Anambra State in August 27, 1991, by the Military Administration of President Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida. The State capital is Awka, Anambra State is one of the five states that make up the South-East geopolitical zone and shares borders with Delta State to the west, Imo State and Rivers State to the South, Enugu State to the East and Kogi State

POPULATION: 4,177,828 (2006 CENSUS)

LAND AREA: 4,887 SQ. KM

NUMBER OF L.G.A 21

NUMBER OF AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES: 177

The state is made up of three senatorial zones namely – Anambra South, Anambra Central and Anambra North. Anambra North Senatorial zone is made up of 7 local government areas –

Oyi

Anambra East

Anambra West

Ayamelum

Onitsha North

Onitsha South,

Ogbaru

Anambra Central comprises 7 Local Government Areas;

Awka North

Awka South

Aniocha

Dunukofia

Idemili North

Idemili South, Njikoka.

Anambra South has the following 7 local government areas:

1. Aguata
2. Ekwusigo
3. Ihiala
4. Nnewi North
5. Nnewi South
6. Orumba North
7. Orumba South

ECONOMY:

Anambra state lies in the Anambra basin, home to a rich base of natural gas and crude oil. It is also rich in other minerals. The economy of the state is characterized by primary production activities in Agriculture, manufacturing and commercial activities.

The mainstay of the economy is commerce and this contributes significantly to the internally generated revenue of the government.

Onitsha and Nnewi have remained as the major towns and the economic hubs of the new state.

The state has fast growing towns especially those that border the major towns and this is fuelled more by those resettling after the skirmishes in the northern part of the country. The majority of residents are Anambrarians and are from the Igbo ethnic group.

3.2 Research Design: The design of the study was survey. It was basically analytical on one side and on the other hand it sought to find out whether local government has enhanced rural development in Anambra State

3.2 Population of Study

The population of the study comprised all the residents of Anambra State. The total population is 4,177,828 persons. It is from this population that a sample was selected.

The population of study is the people of Anambra State particularly Awka, Onitsha and Nnewi. The population of Anambra is estimated at 4,177,828 as of 2006. Awka has an estimated population of 301,657, Nnewi has an estimated population of 391,227 while Onitsha has estimated population of 561,106 (Nigerian Census, 2006). It is believed that the population of study which is the number of people/respondents which knows the challenges of rural development in Anambra State should comprise adults i.e. those above the age of

eighteen years. The population ratio of those that are eighteen years and above in Anambra State is 47.1% of the entire population (NPC Anambra State). 47.1% of the sum of the entire population for Awka, Nnewi and Onitsha i.e. the adult population puts the population of the study at 590,629.

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

According to Nworgu (1991:34) sample is used in studies that involve large population. The place of sampling in survey research underscores the problems of surveying and that of gathering data from a sample of cases selected from usually large population (De Cola 1979). Also Asika (1991) sample is a population made up of all elements, subjects of observation having a specific view of interest to the researcher. It is partial universe or population using only some of its units.

Consequently, as Nwana (1981: 72) observed, if the population is a few hundred a 40% or more sample will do, if many hundreds a 20% sample will do, if a few thousands a 10% sample will do, and if several thousands a 10% sample will do, and if several thousands a 5% or less will do. In determining the sample size, the researcher used Alien Taro Yamane (1967) method. Yamane (1967:886) provides a simplified formula to calculate sample sizes. This formula will be used to calculate the sample size for this study and is shown below. A 95% confidence level and level of maximum variability ($P= 0.5$) are assumed. Where n is the sample size, N is the population size, and e is the level of precision (allowable error) that is 5% or 0.05.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where

$$N = 590629$$

$$e = 5\% = 0.05.$$

$$n = \frac{590629}{1 + 590629(0.05)^2}$$

$$= \frac{590629}{1 + 1477.5725}$$

$$= \frac{590629}{1478.5725}$$

$$= 399.73$$

$$= 400$$

The sample size of this study was 400 randomly selected from the three cities chosen for the study.

3.3.1 Sampling Procedure

Stratified sampling technique was adopted. The state was stratified according to the senatorial districts, (South, central and north). The following towns were selected from the senatorial districts: okpuno (Anambra Central) Onitsha (Anambra North) and Ukpo (Anambra South). In Okpuno and Ukpo, 120 respondents were selected randomly from each town while in Onitsha 160 respondents were selected randomly for the study.

3.4 Sources and Method of Data Collection

In the process of carrying out this research, the researcher elicited data through two major sources: primary and secondary sources of data. Primary

sources of data comprised questionnaire/ interview and observation. To ensure that the questionnaire was fully optimized and that the sampling framework was not tampered with, the researcher in most cases personally administered and collected the questionnaire. The questionnaires was designed in Likert style format: Strongly Agree (SA) Agree (A) Undecided (U) Disagree (D) Strongly Disagree (SD). The instrument was divided into five sections A, B, C, D and E.

Section A of the questionnaire sought information on respondents' demography. Section B was designed to obtain information on the challenges of rural development. It contained items relating to hypothesis one.

Section C was designed to obtain data on whether the local government has been playing its roles of grassroots development in the state. It contained items relating to hypothesis two.

Section D was designed to gather information on effects of non-democratically elected government at local government on rural development in the state. It contained items relating to hypothesis three.

Section E was structured to get information on possible solutions to the identified problems of rural development in Anambra State. The items were related to hypothesis 4. The secondary source of data involved getting relevant information on rural development from textbooks, journals, magazines, internet publications, newspapers and government documents etc.

3.5 Validity and Reliability of Instrument

Validity can be defined as the degree to which the test measures what is supposed to measure. To ensure the validity of the instrument, the constructed questionnaire was subjected to scrutiny by experts for content validation of the questionnaires. This was to ensure that the questions asked in the questionnaires fully exhaust all that are implied by the research questions and the hypotheses. To achieve this, the content validity was guided and directed to the following. Have all relevant aspects of the research topic fully explored? Does the measuring instrument adequately capture all aspect or least good representation of the research topic, the research questions and the hypotheses?

After the content validation by the panel of experts, the instrument was subjected to trial testing. This was achieved through a pilot test carried out on twenty three (23) selected pilot samples from the target population. Data collected from the trial testing was analysed using Cronbach Alpha Reliability method in which a reliability coefficient of 0.83 was obtained for the instrument. This indicated that the instrument was about 83% reliable for collecting data for the study (See Appendix B).

3.6 Method of Data Presentation and Analysis

The data collected were presented and analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentages, mean, charts while the hypotheses were tested with t-test statistics and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at the appropriate level

of confidence (0.05). A Likert scale technique was used in analyzing the data with a cut-off point value of 3.00 on 5-point rating scale.

Decision Parameter

Using 3.00 cut-off value for taking decision, any item with mean values of 3.00 and above were regarded as Agreed while items with mean values of less than 3.00 was regarded as Disagree.

In taking decision on the hypotheses tested, the null hypothesis of no significant difference was accepted when F-tabulated or t-tabulated value is less than the F-tabulated or t-tabulated (F-critical) value of 3.00 or 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance for ANOVA and t-test respectively. On the other hand, the null hypothesis of no significant difference was rejected when F-tabulated or t-tabulated value is greater than the F-tabulated or t-tabulated (F-critical) value of 3.00 or 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance for ANOVA and t-test respectively.

CHAPTER IV

DATA PRESENTATION, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1: Data Presentation.

This chapter presents the data, findings and discussions of the study. The data collected from the primary and secondary sources were presented on research questions and hypotheses formulated to guide the study.

4.1.1: Demographic Attributes of the Respondents

Gender of the Respondents

Table 4.1: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Gender

| S/N | Gender of the Respondents | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----|---------------------------|------------|----------------|
| 1 | Male | 203 | 52.19 |
| 2 | Female | 186 | 47.81 |
| | Total | 389 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result presented in table 4.1 above on distribution of the respondents by gender showed that a greater percentage of about 52% of the respondents are males while about 48% were females. The pie chart presented in Figure 4.1 below further showed at glance gender distribution of respondents to that constituted the sample frame for the study.

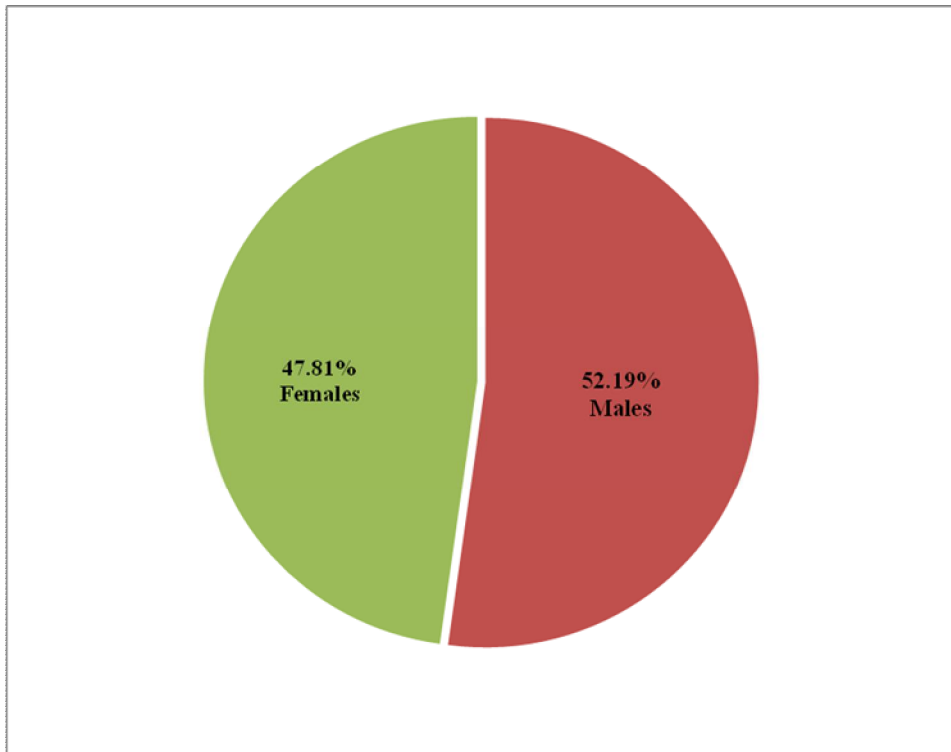


Figure 4.1: Pie Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Gender (Males and Females).

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

Age of the Respondents

Table 4.2: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Age

| S/N | Age of the Respondents | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----|------------------------|------------|----------------|
| 1 | 18 – 30 years | 18 | 4.63 |
| 2 | 31 – 40 years | 70 | 17.99 |
| 3 | 41 – 50 years | 135 | 34.70 |
| 4 | 51 – 60 years | 124 | 31.88 |
| 5 | 61 years and above | 42 | 10.80 |
| | Total | 389 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result presented in table 4.2 above showed the distribution of the respondents by their age bracket. Only about 5% were between 18 to 30 years of age. About 18% fell within 31 to 40 years of age, while a greater proportion of 35% were within the age of 41 – 50 years of age. About 32% and 10% were within 51 to 60 and 61 years and above respectively. The trend in the table above revealed that the average age of people in Anambra State is between 41 – 50 years. This is active economic age, hence the vibrant economic activities among the people of Anambra State. The bar chart presented in Figure 4.2 below further showed at glance age distribution of the respondents in percentage.

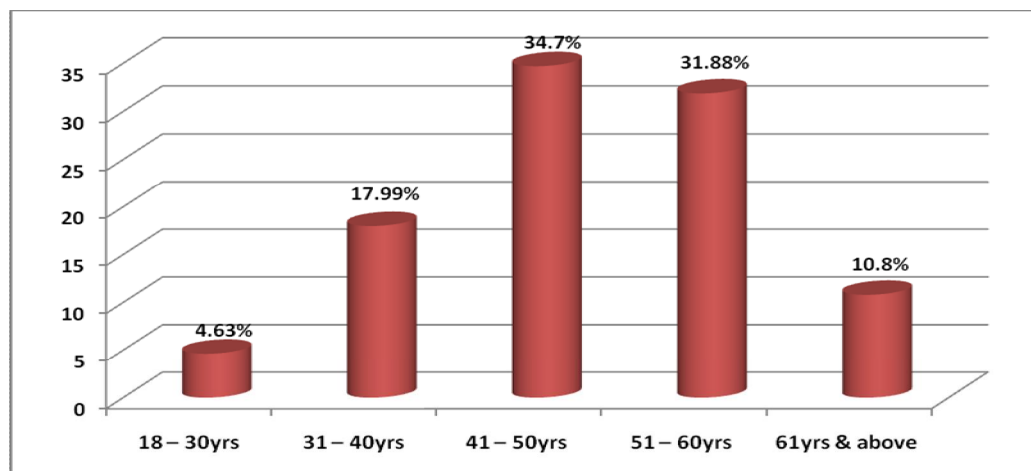


Figure 4.2: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Age brackets.

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

Occupation of the Respondents

Table 4.3: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Major Occupation

| S/N | Major Occupation of Respondents | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----|---------------------------------|------------|----------------|
| 1 | Public Servant | 80 | 20.57 |
| 2 | Farming | 72 | 18.51 |
| 3 | Artisan | 41 | 10.54 |
| 4 | Trading | 132 | 33.93 |
| 5 | Politics | 41 | 10.54 |
| 6 | Student | 13 | 3.34 |
| 7 | No occupation | 10 | 2.57 |
| | Total | 389 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result in table 4.3 above presented the distribution of the people in Anambra State by major occupation. About 21% were of the people are public servants, about 19% are farmers, 10% are artisans across the state, the majority of about 34% of the respondents are trading while about 10% are into politics in the state. Small proportions of about 3% and 2% of the sampled respondents are students and without occupation respectively. The above result showed that the percentage of adult in Anambra State that are not engaged in any economic activity is very low. The bar chart presented in Figure 4.3 below further showed at glance percentage distribution of the respondents in Anambra State by major occupation.

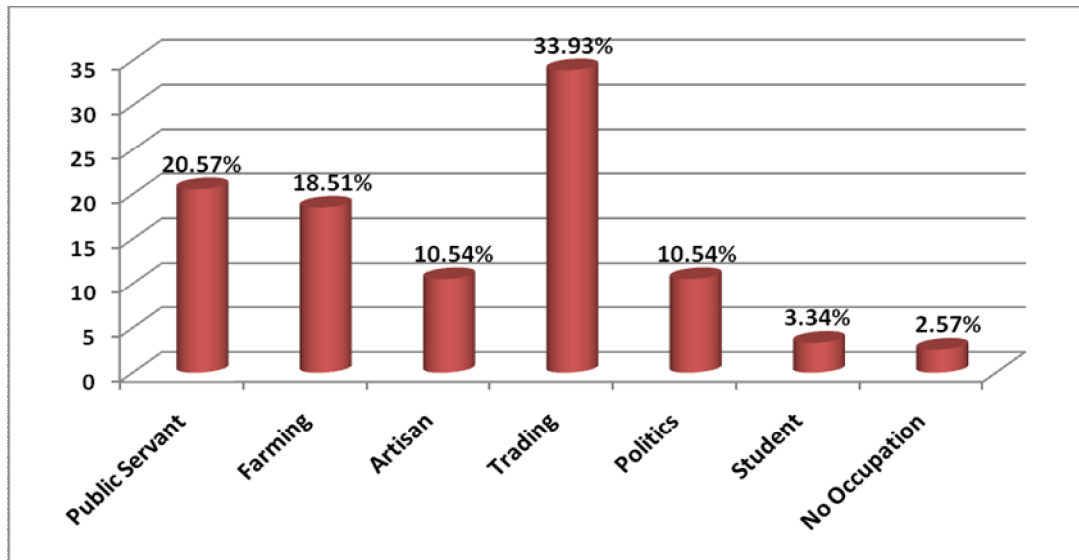


Figure 4.3: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Major Occupation.

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

Marital Status of the Respondents

Table 4.4: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Marital Status

| S/N | Marital Status of Respondents | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----|-------------------------------|------------|----------------|
| 1 | Single | 30 | 7.71 |
| 2 | Married | 288 | 74.04 |
| 3 | Divorced | 27 | 6.94 |
| 4 | Widow/Widower | 44 | 11.31 |
| | Total | 389 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result presented in table 4.4 above showed that majority of about 74% of the respondents are married, about 8% are single, while only about 7% and 11% of the respondents are divorced and widows/widowers respectively. The high percentage rate of the married respondents indicated that majority of the respondents are at advanced age which further agreed with the earlier findings of

the study on age bracket of the respondents. The bar chart presented in Figure 4.4 below shows the marital status distribution of respondents used for the study.

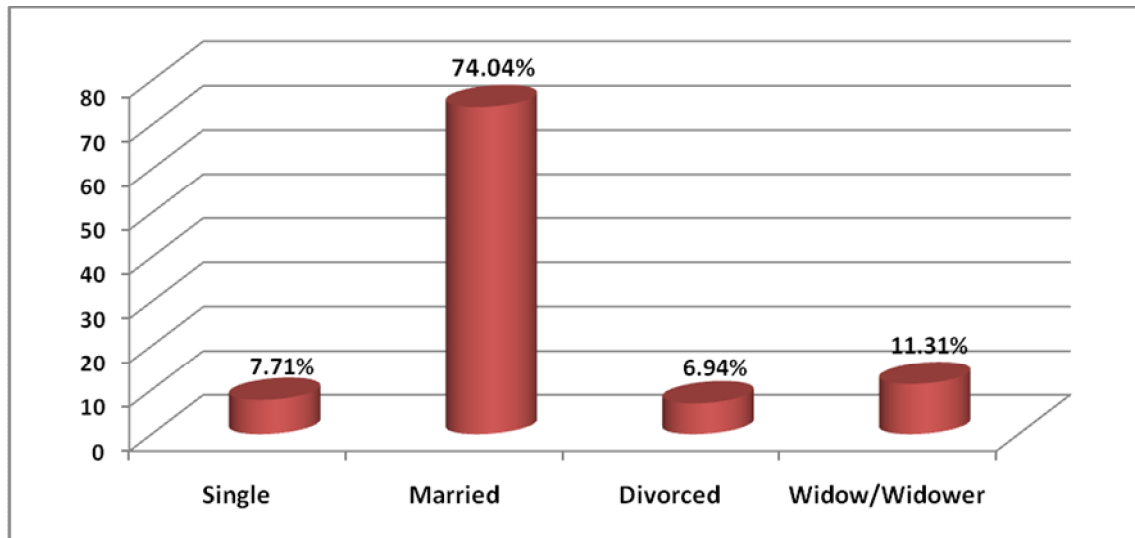


Figure 4.4: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Marital Status.

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

Educational Qualification of the Respondents

Table 4.5: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents by Educational Qualification

| S/N | Education of the Respondents | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----|------------------------------|------------|----------------|
| 1 | No formal education | 23 | 5.91 |
| 2 | F.S.L.C | 42 | 10.80 |
| 3 | S.S.C.E | 65 | 16.71 |
| 4 | OND/NCE | 93 | 23.91 |
| 5 | HND/First Degree | 126 | 32.39 |
| 6 | Postgraduate Degree | 40 | 10.28 |
| | Total | 389 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result presented in table 4.5 above revealed that majority of about 32.4% of the respondents had First degree and its equivalents, about 24% had OND/NCE, this was closely followed by the percentage of people with S.S.C.E which was about 17%. Only about 6% of the respondents were completely not educated while 10.80% and 10.28% of the respondents had primary school leaving certificate and postgraduate qualification respectively. From the above result, it is revealed that literacy rate is relatively high in Anambra State which confirmed the report of Federal government that Anambra State is one of the educationally developed states in the country with various forms of educational institutions ranging from secondary school to tertiary institutions such as colleges of education, polytechnics and Universities (private, state and federal). The bar chart presented in Figure 4.5 below shows clearly the educational qualification distribution of respondents in Anambra State.

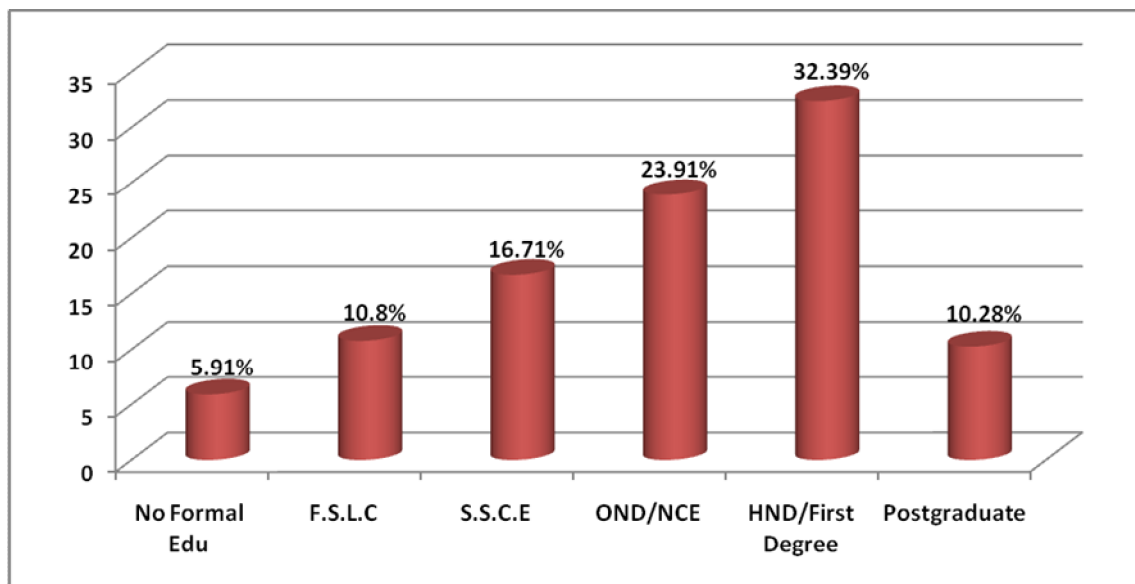


Figure 4.5: Bar Chart of Percentage Distribution of Respondents by their Marital Status.

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

Question One

What are the challenges of rural development in Anambra State?

The data for answering objective one are presented in table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Mean Ratings of the Responses of Respondents on the Challenges of Rural Development in Anambra State, 2006 – 2014.

| SN | Challenges of rural development | SA | A | UD | D | SD | Total | \bar{X} | SD | Remark |
|----|--|-----|-----|-----|----|-----|-------|-------------|------|------------------|
| 1 | Financial constraints resulting from inadequate allocation for the government. | 169 | 125 | 95 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.19 | 0.80 | Agreed |
| 2 | High level of corruption at the federal, state and local government levels. | 214 | 106 | 45 | 18 | 6 | 389 | 4.29 | 0.95 | Agreed |
| 3 | Inadequate provision of social amenities like schools, hospitals, local roads etc to people at the grassroots. | 214 | 96 | 44 | 30 | 5 | 389 | 4.24 | 0.81 | Agreed |
| 4 | Lack of political participation in developmental process by people at the grassroots. | 220 | 68 | 71 | 18 | 12 | 389 | 4.19 | 0.78 | Agreed |
| 5 | Deduction of local government fund reduces finance for appropriate development at the local level. | 277 | 54 | 26 | 32 | 0 | 389 | 4.48 | 0.93 | Agreed |
| 6 | Imposition of local government chairmen by the state government. | 160 | 125 | 104 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.14 | 0.81 | Agreed |
| 7 | Undue interference of state government in local government administrative affairs. | 205 | 51 | 18 | 9 | 0 | 389 | 4.23 | 0.99 | Agreed |
| 8 | Inadequate skilled workers such as engineers, accountants, medical Doctors, town planners, statisticians at the local governments. | 9 | 86 | 88 | 53 | 153 | 389 | 2.34 | 0.76 | Disagreed |
| 9 | Indiscipline and low moral behaviours of local government staff is a major problem. | 27 | 95 | 61 | 47 | 159 | 389 | 2.44 | 0.80 | Disagreed |
| 10 | Poor accountability at local government level deters development at grassroots. | 275 | 50 | 32 | 32 | 0 | 389 | 4.46 | 0.95 | Agreed |

Note: \bar{X} = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; Cut-off point = 3.00

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result presented in table 4.6 above showed that the mean ratings of the responses of the respondents on 8 out of the 10 items in the table ranged from 4.14 to 4.48 which are all greater than the cut-off point value of 3.00 on 5-point rating scale. This finding indicated that the respondents agreed that the 8

identified items in the table are challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State. On the other hand, the mean ratings of items 8 and 9 are 2.34 and 2.44 respectively which are both less than the cut-off point value of 3.00 on 5-point rating scale. This finding implied that the respondents agreed that the 2 identified items are not part of the challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State.

Hypothesis One

Rural development in Anambra State was significantly hampered by funding and corruption

The data for testing the hypothesis one are presented in table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7: The t-test Statistics of the Mean Ratings of the Responses of Respondents on the Challenges of Rural Development in Anambra State, 2006 – 2014.

| SN | Item Statements | \bar{X}_M | SD_M | \bar{X}_F | SD_F | t-cal | t-tab | p-value | Rmk |
|----|--|-------------|--------|-------------|--------|-------|-------|---------|-----|
| 1 | Financial constraints resulting from inadequate allocation for the government. | 4.19 | 0.82 | 4.18 | 0.78 | 0.11 | 1.96 | 0.90 | NS |
| 2 | High level of corruption at the federal, state and local government levels. | 4.42 | 0.74 | 4.16 | 0.80 | 2.72 | 1.96 | 0.01 | S* |
| 3 | Inadequate provision of social amenities like schools, hospitals, local roads etc to people at the grassroots. | 4.33 | 0.94 | 4.25 | 0.87 | 1.74 | 1.96 | 0.18 | NS |
| 4 | Lack of political participation in developmental process by people at the grassroots. | 4.28 | 0.96 | 4.11 | 0.88 | 1.53 | 1.96 | 0.12 | NS |
| 5 | Deduction of local government fund reduces finance for development at the local level. | 4.47 | 0.94 | 4.48 | 0.93 | 0.18 | 1.96 | 0.85 | NS |
| 6 | Imposition of local government chairmen by the state government | 4.04 | 0.84 | 4.24 | 0.76 | 2.52 | 1.96 | 0.01 | S* |
| 7 | Undue interference of state government in local government administrative affairs. | 4.39 | 0.78 | 4.07 | 0.85 | 2.22 | 1.96 | 0.02 | S* |
| 8 | Inadequate skilled workers such as engineers, accountants, medical Doctors, town planners, statisticians at the local governments. | 2.37 | 0.97 | 2.30 | 0.75 | 0.54 | 1.96 | 0.58 | NS |
| 9 | Indiscipline and low moral behaviours of local government staff is a major problem. | 2.50 | 0.80 | 2.38 | 0.70 | 0.88 | 1.96 | 0.37 | NS |
| 10 | Poor accountability at local government level deters development at grassroots. | 4.41 | 0.93 | 4.50 | 0.96 | 0.92 | 1.96 | 0.35 | NS |

Note: X_M = Mean of males; SD_M = Std. Deviation of males; X_F = Mean of Females; SD_F = Std. Deviation of females; Level of Sig. = 0.05; S* = Significant at 0.05; NS = Not Significant.

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result of t-test statistics presented in Table 4.7 above revealed that the t-calculated (t-cal) values of 7 out of the 10 items in the table ranged from 0.11 to 1.74 which are all less than the t-tabulated (t-tab) value of 1.96 at 0.05 levels of significance. This indicated that there are no significant differences in the mean ratings of the responses of male and female respondents on the 7 items of

challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the mean ratings of male and female respondents is accepted on the 7 items in the table.

On the other hand, the t-cal values on the remaining 3 items in the table, specifically items 3, 6 and 7 are 2.72, 2.52 and 2.22 respectively which are greater than the t-tab value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. This indicated that there are significant differences in the mean ratings of the responses of the male and female respondents on the three identified items of challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the mean ratings of the male and female respondents is rejected on the three items in the table.

Question Two

Has the local government been playing the constitutional roles of developing the grassroots in Anambra State?

The data for answering objective two are presented in table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8: Mean Ratings of the Responses of Respondents on whether Local Government has been playing its Constitutional Role of Grassroots Development in Anambra State, 2006 – 2014.

| SN | The roles play be local govt | SA | A | UD | D | SD | Total | \bar{X} | SD | Remark |
|----|--|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|-------|-------------|------|------------------|
| 1 | Local governments in the state have provided appropriate services and development activities to be responsive to local wishes and initiative. | 0 | 88 | 80 | 117 | 104 | 389 | 2.39 | 0.90 | Disagreed |
| 2 | They have facilitated and bring the exercise of democratic self governance close to encourage initiative and leadership potentials at the local levels in the state. | 0 | 119 | 66 | 83 | 121 | 389 | 2.47 | 0.81 | Disagreed |
| 3 | Local governments in the state have mobilized human and material resources through the involvement of grassroots in their development. | 0 | 64 | 87 | 109 | 129 | 389 | 2.22 | 0.88 | Disagreed |
| 4 | Local governments in the state have provided a two way channel of communication between LG, State and Federal government. | 0 | 44 | 77 | 109 | 159 | 389 | 2.01 | 0.93 | Disagreed |
| 5 | Local governments in the state have been effective in providing and maintaining primary, adult and vocational education in the state. | 26 | 80 | 85 | 63 | 135 | 389 | 2.48 | 0.72 | Disagreed |
| 6 | They have been proactive in developing agriculture and natural resources in the grassroots in the state. | 150 | 122 | 33 | 27 | 57 | 389 | 3.72 | 0.81 | Agreed |
| 7 | Local governments in the state have been effective in providing and maintaining health services. | 10 | 90 | 72 | 104 | 113 | 389 | 2.43 | 0.90 | Disagreed |
| 8 | They have been playing the roles of promoting democratic ideals of the grassroots in the state. | 203 | 82 | 20 | 63 | 21 | 389 | 3.98 | 0.90 | Agreed |
| 9 | Bringing government closer to the people at grassroots level. | 55 | 150 | 11 | 11 | 162 | 389 | 3.20 | 0.68 | Agreed |
| 10 | They have facilitated the exercise of democratic self-government and leadership potential at grassroots. | 0 | 69 | 80 | 112 | 128 | 389 | 2.23 | 0.89 | Disagreed |

Note: \bar{X} = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; Cut-off point = 3.00

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result presented in table 4.8 above revealed that the mean ratings of the responses of the respondents on 7 out of the 10 items in the table ranged from 2.01 to 2.48 which are all less than the cut-off point value of 3.00 on 5-point rating scale. This finding indicated that Local Government in Anambra State has not played its constitutional roles of development at the grassroots level to the tune of the 8 identified items in the table. On the other hand, the mean ratings of items 6, 8 and 9 are 3.72, 3.98 and 3.20 respectively which are all greater than the cut-off point value of 3.00 on 5-point rating scale. This finding indicated that the respondents agreed that Local Government in Anambra State has played its constitutional roles by performing the three roles to the development at the grassroots level in the State.

Hypothesis Two

Local Government in Anambra State did not play their constitutional role of developing the grassroots in Anambra State.

The data for testing the hypothesis two are presented in table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: The t-test Statistics of the Mean Ratings of the Responses of Male and Female Respondents on whether Local Government has been Playing their Constitutional Role of Developing the Grassroots in Anambra State, 2006 – 2014

| SN | Item Statements | \bar{X}_M | SD_M | \bar{X}_F | SD_F | t-cal | t-tab | p-value | Rmk |
|----|--|-------------|--------|-------------|--------|-------|-------|---------|-----|
| 1 | Local governments in the state have provided appropriate services and development to be responsive to local wishes and initiative. | 2.37 | 0.81 | 2.40 | 0.90 | 0.20 | 1.96 | 0.84 | NS |
| 2 | They have facilitated and bring the exercise of democratic self governance close to encourage initiative and leadership potentials at the local levels in the state. | 2.46 | 0.72 | 2.47 | 0.81 | 0.06 | 1.96 | 0.95 | NS |
| 3 | Local governments in the state have mobilized human and material resources through the involvement of grassroots in their development. | 2.37 | 0.71 | 2.06 | 0.82 | 2.53 | 1.96 | 0.00 | S* |
| 4 | Local governments in the state have provided a two way channel of communication between LG, State and Federal government. | 2.07 | 0.72 | 1.95 | 0.90 | 1.38 | 1.96 | 0.10 | NS |
| 5 | Local governments in the state have been effective in providing and maintaining primary, adult and vocational education in the state. | 2.46 | 0.80 | 2.50 | 0.74 | 0.24 | 1.96 | 0.80 | NS |
| 6 | They have been proactive in developing agriculture and natural resources in the grassroots in the state | 3.72 | 0.68 | 3.72 | 0.84 | 0.01 | 1.96 | 0.99 | NS |
| 7 | Local governments in the state have been effective in providing and maintaining health services. | 2.38 | 0.89 | 2.47 | 0.71 | 0.73 | 1.96 | 0.46 | NS |
| 8 | They have been playing the roles of promoting democratic ideals of the grassroots in the state. | 4.00 | 0.89 | 3.96 | 0.72 | 0.23 | 1.96 | 0.81 | NS |
| 9 | Bringing government closer to the people at grassroots level. | 2.68 | 0.63 | 2.93 | 0.79 | 1.53 | 1.96 | 0.12 | NS |
| 10 | They have facilitated the exercise of democratic self-government and leadership potential at grassroots. | 2.34 | 0.74 | 2.11 | 0.72 | 2.03 | 1.96 | 0.04 | S* |

Note: X_M = Mean of males; SD_M = Std. Deviation of males; X_F = Mean of Females; SD_F = Std. Deviation of females; Level of Sig. = 0.05; S* = Significant at 0.05; NS = Not Significant.

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result of t-test statistics presented in Table 4.9 above showed that the t-calculated (t-cal) values of 8 out of the 10 items in the table ranged from 0.06

to 1.53 which are all less than the t-tabulated (t-tab) value of 1.96 at 0.05 levels of significance. This indicated that there are no significant differences in the mean ratings of the responses of male and female respondents on the 8 items of expected constitutional roles played by Local Governments in the development at the grassroots level in Anambra State. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the mean ratings of male and female respondents is accepted on the 8 items in the table.

On the other hand, the t-cal values on the remaining 2 items in the table, specifically items 3 and 10 are 2.53 and 2.03 respectively which are greater than the t-tab value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. This indicated that there are significant differences in the mean ratings of the responses of the male and female respondents on the two identified items of expected constitutional roles played by Local Governments in the development at the grassroots level in Anambra State. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the mean ratings of male and female respondents is rejected on the 2 items in the table.

Question Three

Are there some effects of non-democratically elected government at the local government on grassroots development in Anambra State?

The data for answering objective three are presented in table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10: Mean Ratings of the Respondents on the Effects of Non-Democratically Elected Government at the local Government on Grassroots Development in Anambra State.

| SN | Effects of non-democratically elected governments include: | SA | A | UD | D | SD | Total | \bar{X} | SD | Remark |
|----|--|-----|-----|-----|----|----|-------|-------------|------|---------------|
| 1 | It results in low interest of members of the community in participating in rural development projects. | 225 | 143 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.52 | 0.59 | Agreed |
| 2 | It leads to inadequate consultation of government with the representatives of communities in development. | 246 | 123 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.58 | 0.58 | Agreed |
| 3 | It makes local government not been able to effectively perform its constitutional role of rural development. | 203 | 82 | 20 | 63 | 21 | 389 | 3.98 | 0.70 | Agreed |
| 4 | It result to lack of infrastructural developments such as good feeder roads, rural electrification etc | 222 | 42 | 125 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.24 | 0.91 | Agreed |
| 5 | The non elected officials are hardly responsive to the developmental needs of the grassroots. | 224 | 124 | 41 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.47 | 0.67 | Agreed |
| 6 | The non elected officials are not always accountable to be people they govern. | 225 | 143 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.52 | 0.59 | Agreed |
| 7 | It encourages misappropriation of fund and corruption at the local government level. | 185 | 123 | 61 | 20 | 0 | 389 | 4.21 | 0.89 | Agreed |
| 8 | Non elected local government officials further worsen infrastructural decay at the grassroots. | 203 | 82 | 20 | 63 | 21 | 389 | 3.98 | 0.70 | Agreed |
| 9 | Non elected officials and inadequate fund slow down the rate of development at local level. | 162 | 82 | 125 | 20 | 0 | 389 | 3.99 | 0.97 | Agreed |
| 10 | The people at the grassroots can hardly express their feeling freely under non-elected government. | 226 | 82 | 41 | 40 | 0 | 389 | 4.26 | 0.81 | Agreed |

Note: \bar{X} = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; Cut-off point = 3.00

Source: Field Survey, 2015

From the result presented in table 4.10 above, it was showed that the mean ratings of the responses of the respondents on all the 10 items in the table ranged from 3.98 to 4.58 which are all greater than the cut-off point value of 3.00 on 5-point rating scale. This finding implied that the respondents agreed that the 10

identified items in the table are effects of having non-democratically elected government at the grassroots on the development in Anambra State.

Hypothesis Three

Non-democratically elected government at the grassroots level negatively effected rural development in Anambra State.

The data for testing the hypothesis three are presented in table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Mean Ratings of the Responses of Respondents on Effects of Non-democratically elected government at grassroots development in Anambra State based on their educational qualification

| SN | Item Statements | Source of Difference | Sum of Square | DF | Mean Square | F-Cal | F-tab | p-value | Rmk |
|----|--|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------|---------|-----|
| 1 | It results in low interest of members of the community in participating in rural development projects. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.183 137.835 139.018 | 388 | 0.357 | 1.657 | 3.00 | 0.192 | NS |
| 2 | It leads to inadequate consultation of government with the representatives of communities in development. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.701 133.998 134.699 | 388 | 0.347 | 1.010 | 3.00 | 0.365 | NS |
| 3 | It makes local government not been able to effectively perform its constitutional role of rural development. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.083 662.824 663.907 | 388 | 1.717 | 0.315 | 3.00 | 0.730 | NS |
| 4 | It result to lack of infrastructural developments such as good feeder roads, rural electrification etc | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.557 322.255 322.812 | 388 | 0.835 | 0.334 | 3.00 | 0.717 | NS |
| 5 | The non elected officials are hardly responsive to the developmental needs of the grassroots | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.444 177.466 178.910 | 388 | 0.460 | 1.570 | 3.00 | 0.209 | NS |
| 6 | The non elected officials are not always accountable to be people they govern | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.183 137.835 139.018 | 388 | 0.357 | 1.657 | 3.00 | 0.192 | NS |
| 7 | It encourages misappropriation of fund and corruption at the local government level | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.109 307.752 307.861 | 388 | 0.797 | 0.068 | 3.00 | 0.934 | NS |
| 8 | Non elected local government officials worsen infrastructural decay at the grassroots | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.083 662.824 663.907 | 388 | 1.717 | 0.315 | 3.00 | 0.730 | NS |
| 9 | Non elected officials and inadequate fund slow down the rate of development at local level | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.561 365.416 366.977 | 388 | 0.947 | 0.824 | 3.00 | 0.439 | NS |
| 10 | The people at the grassroots can hardly express their feeling freely under non-elected government | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.953 397.705 398.658 | 388 | 1.030 | 0.463 | 3.00 | 0.630 | NS |

Note: Level of Sig. = 0.05; NS = Not Significant at 0.05.

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result of analysis of variance (ANOVA) presented in Table 4.11 above showed that the F-calculated (F-cal) values of the 10 items in the table ranged between 0.068 to 1.657 which are all less than the F-tabulated (F-tab)

value of 3.00 at 0.05 levels of significance. This showed that there are no significant ($p < 0.05$) differences in the mean ratings of the responses of respondents based on their educational qualification on the 10 items of how lack of democratically elected government at the grassroots has been the bane of rural development in Anambra State. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant ($p < 0.05$) difference in the mean ratings of the respondents based on their different educational qualification is accepted on the 10 items. This is because, the F-values of the 10 items in the table ranged from 0.068 to 1.657 which are all less than the table value of 3.00 at 0.05 level of significance.

Question Four

What are the possible solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State, 2006 - 2014?

The data for answering objective four are presented in table 4.12 below.

Table 4.12: Mean Ratings of the Respondents on the Possible Solutions to the Problems of Rural Development in Anambra State, 2006 – 2014.

| SN | Solutions to the problems of rural development include: | SA | A | UD | D | SD | Total | \bar{X} | SD | Remark |
|----|---|-----|-----|-----|----|----|-------|-------------|------|---------------|
| 1 | Having direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account. | 178 | 110 | 101 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.39 | 0.82 | Agreed |
| 2 | That elections are conducted in local governments without any interference from the state government. | 256 | 86 | 32 | 15 | 0 | 389 | 4.49 | 0.80 | Agreed |
| 3 | That the provision for the State-Local Government Joint Account is expunged from the constitution. | 201 | 107 | 38 | 36 | 7 | 389 | 4.57 | 0.75 | Agreed |
| 4 | That the statutory allocation from the federation account is increased from the present 20 to 30%. | 225 | 62 | 88 | 7 | 7 | 389 | 4.26 | 0.98 | Agreed |
| 5 | There should be constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of LG. | 293 | 52 | 30 | 14 | 0 | 389 | 4.60 | 0.78 | Agreed |
| 6 | Curtailling corrupt practices in local government administration. | 255 | 85 | 46 | 2 | 1 | 389 | 4.51 | 0.74 | Agreed |
| 7 | Capacity building for local councils in modern technology. | 264 | 72 | 28 | 17 | 8 | 389 | 4.45 | 0.95 | Agreed |
| 8 | There should be increased grassroots participation in all stages of decision-making in developmental process. | 228 | 86 | 42 | 24 | 9 | 389 | 4.28 | 0.83 | Agreed |
| 9 | Clear legislative distinction between the responsibilities of Federal, State and local governments. | 208 | 70 | 71 | 29 | 11 | 389 | 4.11 | 0.92 | Agreed |
| 10 | Reorganisation of local governments to prepare their capacity to meet modern challenges. | 269 | 61 | 41 | 18 | 0 | 389 | 4.49 | 0.86 | Agreed |
| 11 | Ensure a viable local political process where free and fair elections are held at regular intervals. | 166 | 137 | 86 | 0 | 0 | 389 | 4.20 | 0.77 | Agreed |
| 12 | Expansion of self-generated revenue through the exploration of new forms of financing at grassroots. | 201 | 104 | 52 | 32 | 0 | 389 | 4.21 | 0.96 | Agreed |
| 13 | Encouragement of private sector participation in economic development | 211 | 90 | 37 | 40 | 11 | 389 | 4.45 | 0.83 | Agreed |
| 14 | Development of a investor driven local government. | 216 | 64 | 75 | 19 | 15 | 389 | 4.64 | 0.72 | Agreed |
| 15 | Establish the practice of discipline in financial and other aspects of management. | 285 | 44 | 42 | 18 | 0 | 389 | 4.53 | 0.86 | Agreed |

Note: \bar{X} = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; Cut-off point = 3.00

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result presented in table 4.12 above showed that the mean ratings of the responses of the respondents on all the 15 items in the table ranged from 4.11

to 4.64 which are all greater than the cut-off point value of 3.00 on 5-point rating scale. This finding indicated that the respondents agreed that the 15 identified items in the table are the possible solutions to the problems of local government in rural development in Anambra State.

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference in the mean ratings of the responses of the respondents on the possible solutions to the identified problems of rural development in Anambra State based on their educational qualification?

The data for testing the hypothesis four are presented in table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13: Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the Mean Ratings of the Responses of Respondents with Different Levels of Education on the Possible Solutions to the Problems of Rural Development in Anambra State, 2006 to 2014.

| SN | Item Statements | Source of Difference | Sum of Square | DF | Mean Square | F-cal | F-tab | p-value | Rmk |
|----|---|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------|---------|-----|
| 1 | Having direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.005 263.753 263.758 | 388 | 0.683 | 0.124 | 3.00 | 0.996 | NS |
| 2 | That elections are conducted in local governments without any interference from the state. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.006 251.244 251.249 | 388 | 0.651 | 0.304 | 3.00 | 0.996 | NS |
| 3 | That the provision for the State-Local Government Joint Account is expunged from the constitution. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.593 432.810 433.404 | 388 | 1.121 | 0.265 | 3.00 | 0.768 | NS |
| 4 | That the statutory allocation from the federation account is increased from the present 20 to 30%. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.847 376.408 377.254 | 388 | 0.975 | 0.434 | 3.00 | 0.648 | NS |
| 5 | There should be constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of LG. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.824 236.210 237.033 | 388 | 0.612 | 0.673 | 3.00 | 0.511 | NS |
| 6 | Curtailing corrupt practices in local government administration. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.962 212.143 213.105 | 388 | 0.550 | 0.876 | 3.00 | 0.417 | NS |
| 7 | Capacity building for local councils in modern technology. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.342 350.208 350.550 | 388 | 0.907 | 0.188 | 3.00 | 0.828 | NS |
| 8 | There should be increased grassroots participation in all stages of decision-making in developmental process. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 3.827 411.499 415.326 | 388 | 1.066 | 3.795 | 3.00 | 0.027 | S* |
| 9 | Clear legislative distinction between the responsibilities of Federal, State & local governments. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.909 487.652 488.560 | 388 | 1.263 | 0.360 | 3.00 | 0.698 | NS |
| 10 | Reorganisation of local government for capacity to meet modern challenges. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.126 287.108 287.234 | 388 | 0.744 | 0.085 | 3.00 | 0.919 | NS |
| 11 | Ensure a viable local political process where free and fair elections are held at regular intervals. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.655 233.892 235.548 | 388 | 0.606 | 1.366 | 3.00 | 0.256 | NS |
| 12 | Expansion of self-generated revenue through the exploration of new forms of financing at grassroots. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 13.369 349.058 362.427 | 388 | 0.904 | 4.392 | 3.00 | 0.001 | S* |
| 13 | Encouragement of private sector participation in economic development | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 5.872 491.562 497.434 | 388 | 1.273 | 2.306 | 3.00 | 0.101 | NS |
| 14 | Development of a investor driven local government. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 1.063 492.289 493.352 | 388 | 1.275 | 0.417 | 3.00 | 0.660 | NS |
| 15 | Establish the practice of discipline in financial and other aspects of management. | B/W Grp W/T Grp Total | 0.800 288.048 288.848 | 388 | 0.746 | 0.536 | 3.00 | 0.586 | NS |

Note: Level of Sig. = 0.05; S* = Significant at 0.05; NS = Not Significant.

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The result of analysis of variance (ANOVA) presented in Table 4.13 above showed that the F-calculated (F-cal) values of 13 out of the 15 items in the table ranged between 0.085 to 1.366 which are all less than the F-tabulated (F-tab) value of 3.00 at 0.05 levels of significance. This showed that there are no significant differences in the mean ratings of the responses of respondents based on their educational qualification on the 13 identified items of possible solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the mean ratings of the respondents based on their different educational qualification is accepted on the 13 items.

On the other hand, the F-calculated (F-cal) values of the remaining 2 items in the table, specifically, items 8 and 12 are 3.795 and 4.392 respectively which are greater than the F-table (F-tab) value of 3.00 at 0.05 levels of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the mean ratings of the respondents based on their different educational qualification is rejected on the remaining 2 items in the table.

4.2: Major Findings of the Study

1. The findings of this study showed that majority of about 52% of the respondents are males while about 48% of them are females. This result clearly showed that majority of the respondents are within the economic active age bracket of 30 – 45 years.
2. The findings of the study showed that about 95% of the respondents are engaged with one occupation or the other to earn a living. The occupations

of the people range from being public servants, farming, artisans, trading and politicking.

3. The findings of the study also showed that majority of about 74% of the respondents are married which corroborated the findings that majority of the respondents are at advanced age.
4. The findings of the study showed that 32.4% of the respondents had First degree, 24% had OND/NCE, 17% had S.S.C.E, only 6% of the respondents were completely not educated, 10.80% had primary school leaving certificate and 10.28% had postgraduate qualification.
5. The study identified 8 challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State with the high mean values which include: financial constraints resulting from inadequate allocation for the government (4.19), high level of corruption at the federal, state and local government levels (4.29), inadequate provision of social amenities like schools, hospitals, local roads etc to people at the grassroots (4.24), lack of political participation in developmental process by people at the grassroots (4.19), deduction of local government fund reduces finance by the state appropriate development at the local level (4.48), imposition of local government chairmen by the state government (4.14), undue interference of state government in local government administrative affairs (4.23) and poor accountability at local government level deter development at grassroots (4.46).

6. The study found that Local Government in Anambra State has not been playing its constitutional roles of development at the grassroots in the state. This is revealed by the low mean values of the following assessment indicator: provision of appropriate services and development activities to be responsive to local wishes and initiative (2.39), facilitation of and bring the exercise of democratic self governance close to encourage initiative (2.47), mobilization of human and material resources through the involvement of grassroots in their development (2.22), provision of a two way channel of communication between LG, State and Federal government (2.01), effective provision and maintenance of primary, adult and vocational education in the state (2.48), effective provision and maintenance of health services (2.43), and facilitation of the exercise of democratic self-government and leadership potential at grassroots (2.23).
7. The study identified ten effects of non-democratically elected government on grassroots development in the state with their high mean values which include: low interest of members of the community in participating in rural development projects (4.52), inadequate consultation of government with the representatives of communities in development (4.58), perform its constitutional role of rural development (3.98), lack of infrastructural developments such as good feeder roads, rural electrification (4.24), non elected officials are hardly responsive to the developmental needs of the grassroots (4.47), non-elected officials are not always accountable to be people they govern (4.52), encourages misappropriation of fund and corruption at the local government level (4.21), non-elected local government officials further

worsen infrastructural (3.98), non-elected officials and inadequate fund slow down the rate of development at local level (3.99) and lack of freedom of expression (4.26).

8. The study identified possible solutions to the problems of local government in rural development in Anambra State with their mean values which include: having direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account (4.39), local governments without any interference from the state government (4.49), increment in statutory allocation from the federation account from the present 20 to 30% (4.26), removal of the state-Local Government Joint Account from the constitution (4.57), constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of LG (4.60), curtailing corrupt practices in local government administration (4.51), capacity building for local councils in modern technology (4.45), increased grassroots participation in all stages of decision-making in developmental process (4.28), clear legislative distinction between the responsibilities of Federal, State and local governments (4.11), expansion of self-generated revenue at the LG (4.21), encouragement of private sector participation in economic development at LG (4.45), development of a investor driven local government (4.64) and practice of discipline in financial and other aspects of management (4.53).

4.3 DISCUSSION

Objective One

The challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State: 2006 – 2014.

H0₁: There is no significant difference in the mean ratings of the responses of male and female respondents on the challenges of rural development in Anambra State, 2006 to 2014.

The findings of this study on objective one revealed that the challenges of local government in rural development of Anambra State include: financial constraints resulting from inadequate allocation for the government, high level of corruption at the federal, state and local government levels, inadequate provision of social amenities like schools, hospitals, local roads etc to people at the grassroots, lack of political participation in developmental process by people at the grassroots, deduction of local government fund reduces finance for appropriate development at the local level, imposition of local government chairmen by the state government and undue interference of state government in local government administrative affairs.

The findings of this study on the challenges of local government in development at the grassroots level conformed to the report of Odalonu (2015) who in a study identified lack of funds or financial constraints as part of the major challenges in rural development in Nigeria. Odalonu (2015) stated that for local government to effectively provide essential services at the grassroots,

enabling environment most especially funds must be available to carry out its assigned responsibilities. In Nigeria, aside from other common problems, non provision of enough funds to local government has hindered effective performance by the local council (Ibok, 2014). Ibok (2014) pointed out that aside from the fact that statutory allocations and grants from the federal and state governments to councils are inadequate; the problem is exacerbated by the low revenue generation capacity of the council. Associated with this problem is also exacerbated by frequent sundry deductions by the federal and state governments from their monthly allocations. Worst still is failure of most state governments to fulfil their monthly statutory obligations to local government by outright refusal to remit 10% internally generated revenue accrued to the state monthly. In some situations, it has become so bad that many local councils cannot pay staff salaries not to talk about basic need provisions”.

The financial constraints account for the inadequacy of fund in the local government administration in Nigeria and they inhibit the efforts of local council to provide better, efficient and effective social services to the grassroots. In addition, Igbokwe-Ibeto and Nkah (2014) in a study found that funding of local government administration in Nigeria remains a mirage. In spite, of the constitutional provisions and guarantee of funding of local governments from the federation account, local governments in the country operates a joint account with their respective state governments thereby making it difficult if not impossible to discharge their constitutional duties and responsibilities. Igbokwe-

Ibeto and Nkah (2014) reported further that state governments' releases money to local governments only to pay staff salaries and in some instances their staff are owed for months. Yet, financial paucity in local government administration could be blamed on lack of seriousness on the part of local government administrators to explore internal sources of revenue generation. Most local governments in the country are contented with the federal and or state allocations. Thereby serving as a mere distribution outlet for federal and state generated revenues; a situation Suberu (2004) describe as the cost of distributive federalism.

The findings of this study on the challenges of local government in development at grassroots agreed with the result of Bolatito and Ibrahim (2014) who identified corruption as a major bane of rural development, that corruption has been identified as one of the problems confronting effective local government administration in Nigeria. Corruption has eaten deep into the fabric of Nigeria local councils and it is the greatest bane of local government administration in Nigeria. Bolatito & Ibrahim (2014) pointed out that: At the grassroots level, corruption has been canonically accommodated, entertained, and celebrated within the system. In the local government setting corruption is Misnomer labeled and euphemistically referred to as "Egunje" (a slogan which means "illegal offer" in Nigeria) and a major hindrance to good government. The inability of local governments to provide services to the people at the grassroots has been linked to high levels of corruption among local governments' officials

(Agba, Akwara and Idu, 2013). There have been glaring cases of embezzlement and misappropriation of the councils' funds by the official of the council (Ibok, 2014). For instance, in February 2010, the chairman of Ijebu East Local Government Council in Ogun State was suspended from office on account of various financial misdeeds. Similarly, in April 2010, the House of Assembly in Benue State suspended 12 council chairmen in the state and directed that the chairmen should refund a total of 150 million naira being financial misdeeds associated with the excess crude funds received by local governments in the state.

Generally, wide-scale embezzlement by officials of the grassroots has made the needed development of the grassroots a tall dream and has rendered them financially incapable to discharge their constitutionally assigned responsibilities. Eboh and Diejomaoh (2010) reported that the unethical conduct of corruption has rendered local council financially impotence, hence incapable of providing basic needs to its citizens. Unarguably, Chukwuemeka et al., (2014) stressed that the high level of corruption in the local government makes it difficult for them to channel even the available scarce resources towards development projects and programs. Specifically, corruption in the local government system in Nigeria, manifests, for instance, in the award of inflated and fictitious contracts, award of contracts and subsequent abandonment, over estimation of cost of projects, inflation of staff salary, inflation of prices of bought items, fraudulent sale of government property, outright embezzlement of local government fund, payment

of huge sums of money to political godfathers and lack of accountability (Bolaito & Ibrahim, 2014). The import of the foregoing is that apart from financial constraints, corruption constitutes a major obstacle on the effectiveness of local government service delivery.

This study also identified undue political interference and lack of autonomy as part of the challenges confronting local government. This findings conformed with that of Ibeto, Osawe and Nkah (2014) who reported that the issue of autonomy of local government administration has been a recurring one as witnessed in the on-going constitutional review where the issue of local government autonomy got almost 100 percent support. While efforts have been made since 1976 to bring about local government as a tier of government under a three tier federal system, local government administration is still seen as an appendage of the state governments. In spite of the constitutional provision which defined functions and sources of funding of the system, local governments in the country have not been able to extricate themselves from the apron string of state governments.

State governors appoint Caretaker Committees to whom they dictate and direct on how to run the operations of local governments in their respective states. Yet, these committees are dissolved at will. Sharing his view, Adeyemi (2013) stated that another reason for the failure of local government in area of services delivery is the role of the state governors in the affairs of local government. Eboh and Diejomaoh (2010) found that there is high degree of

external influence and interference in local government affairs by the higher levels of government, particularly the state governments. Ukonga (2012) reported that the governors are found of taking over their financial allocation, taxes, counterpart funding and refuse to conduct Local Government elections, but instead ruling local governments with appointed administrators, most of whom are party loyalist and their friends and relations turning the entire process of local governments into irrelevance schemes of things.

There have been instances where state governors unconstitutionally dissolve the entire elected council's officers without proper recourse and due process. As soon as a new governor comes into office, one of the first actions is to dissolve the existing local councils, whether elected or care taker (Abutudu, 2011). This, as the recent case of Imo State demonstrates, can degenerate into anarchy, with claims of legitimacy between rival appointees or elected officials. The staff of the councils invariably finds themselves caught in the middle (Anyanwu and Okara, 2011). In many cases, care takership is perpetuated through promises of elections which are invariably postponed. For instance, as at 2009, Nkwocha (2009) noted that Anambra State had not held any local council elections since the return to civil rule in 1999. The high level of interference by state governors on local government affairs was also expressed by Khaleel quoted in Adeyemi (2013) when he observed thus: There is no state of the federation of Nigeria where one form of illegality or the other is not committed with funds of local government, through over deduction of primary school

teacher's salary, spurious state/local government joint account project, sponsoring of elections, taking over the statutory functions of local government and handling them over to cronies and consultants, non-payments of pensioners and non-utilization of training fund despite the mandatory deduction of stipulated percentages for these purposes. Nine states out of the 36 states of the federation have elected representatives running the affairs of their local governments.

This is central to the whole problem because it is by planting stooges called caretaker committee, who neither have the mandate of the people nor the moral strength to resist the excruciating control of the state government that perpetuates the rot. This undue interference has incapacitated local government from effective functioning on one hand, and alienated grassroots people from enjoying social service delivery expected of local governments in Nigeria. The 1999 constitution of Nigeria did not adequately provide for the financial autonomy of the local governments as it subordinates them to the states through the provision, in section 162, paragraph 6, for the establishment and operation of State Local Government Joint Account.

This provision does not allow for the direct funding of the local government from the federation account and various research findings have shown that state governments manipulate this constitutional provision to keep the local governments as their appendages and, in large measures, siphon the funds meant for them (Azelama, 2008 and Ezeani, 2012). The second dimension is the

political interference. The constitution did not provide adequately for the political autonomy of the local governments in Nigeria. As part of what constitute the problem, Chukwuemeka ,et al., (2014) stated that the 1999 constitution did not provide specifically for the constitution of the local government council to be solely through democratic elections, for the specific tenure of the local government political office holders, for the local governments to derive their full existence directly from the constitution of the federal constitution and for the specific powers and functions of the local government. The resultant effects of these lapses or inadequacies are that the state governments have the discretion to determine the nature, content and direction of local government elections and political activities.

In the exercise of this discretion, the state government decide when elections would be held, who wins in elections, when to dissolve elected council, and the alternative framework to administer the affairs of the local governments. This multifarious problems lead to poverty of leadership at the grassroots. In affirmation, Igbokwe-Ibeto and Nkah (2014) submitted that poverty of leadership at the local government level remains one of the most daunting challenges of sustainable development of the grassroots' in developing countries. While we recognize the fact that leadership problem is a national phenomenon in Nigeria, local government administrations have come under serious criticism over years for poor service delivery and bad governance. Both political and administrative leadership are in deficit at this level of government due to

keptocratic and patronage system of politics. Most leaders at the local government level have a sit-tight mentality which does not allow for new ideas, fresh initiative and innovation. Rather than concentrate on developmental efforts, some local government chairmen are busy boot-licking state governors and donors/donor agencies.

Objective Two

On whether Local Government plays their constitutional role in grassroots development in Anambra State, 2006 - 2014.

H0₂: Local Government did not play their constitutional role of development at the grassroots level in Anambra State.

The findings of this study in respect to objective two showed that the Local government in Anambra State has not been effective in playing their constitutional roles of: providing appropriate services and development activities to be responsive to local wishes and initiative, facilitating and bringing the exercise of democratic self governance close to encourage initiative and leadership potentials at the local levels in the state, mobilizing human and material resources through the involvement of grassroots in their development, providing a two way channel of communication between LG, State and Federal government, providing and maintaining primary, adult and vocational education in the state, providing and maintaining health services and facilitating the exercise of democratic self-government and leadership potential at grassroots to the development of the state.

The findings of this study supported that of Odo (2014) who reported that the challenges of poor participation at local government level was due to the fact that local governments has not been effective enough to play its roles at grassroots which has increased apathy and lack of community participation in the development process is high at local government level in Nigeria. Development is about people and if it is to be meaningful, the people must be its active agent and not just passive beneficiaries. Many development projects in the local governments failed due to non-involvement of the local communities in the conception, design and implementation of such projects. Idada (2006) noted that development programme, which marginalizes the contributions of the primary beneficiaries, could hardly make serious impact on the lives of the people including lack of sustainability. This is because the local communities, which could have owned the programme and continued from where the government stopped, are from the levels of conception, design and implementation, excluded.

Local government is people's government at the grassroots level and as a government that represents the interests of the people, the people should be seen to be involved in its affairs (Adeyemi, 2013). The constitutional role of local government in rural development is enhancing the participation of the local people in the decision-making and administration of the local authority which the local government has always fail to perform (Odo, 2014). Once the local community does not participate in the affairs of the local government, they become alienated and would not support any development programmes of such

councils. Egwemi and Odo (2013) sees rural or grassroots development as the development of rural people in such a continuous manner as to enable them to effectively and efficiently utilize their intellect, technology and other resources for further development of themselves and others. Grassroots development is a process of bringing improved level of living to the inhabitants with notable and reasonable changes in all ramifications.

According to Egwemi and Odo (2013), grassroots development is the restructuring of the rural economy in order to grow it from a dependent peasant and largely agricultural economy to one capable of sustaining an improved quality of life at the local level. Whatever, the conceptualization of grassroots development, the bottom line is that it is about improving the standard and living conditions of the rural people. Olusola (2011) reported that there is gross poor environmental state, deteriorating public school building, poor market facilities and lack of health centers in local governments in Nigeria. The provision of basic social services such as education and health, as well as maintenance of roads and public utilities within the jurisdictions of local government is now both a myth and mirage (Agba, 2006). The failure of local governments in service delivery was expressed by ex-president Obasanjo in 2003. He lamented that: what we have witnessed is the abysmal failure of the local government system. It is on record that at no time in the history of the country has there been the current level of funding accruing to the local governments from the federation account, yet the hope for rapid and sustained development has been a

mirage as successive councils have grossly under-performed in (their assigned responsibilities).

The above observations apparently show that local government has not really facilitated rapid development at the grassroots, which is the essence of their creation (Amaechi, 2012). As a result of abysmal failure of local governments in service delivery, the citizens at the local level are beginning to lose trust in the existence or otherwise of local government councils in Nigeria. Some of these factors underlying the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of local government in their service delivery responsibilities were identified in a study conducted by Bello-Imam and Roberts (2001) to include: (a) revenue inadequacy (b) the erosion of local functions particularly in the revenue yielding areas by state governments and their agencies (c) politico-administrative problems such as inadequacy of skilled and technical manpower, lackadaisical attitude of existing local government staff, official corruption, variable structures/sizes of local government among others, lack of integration of the relevant communities in the execution of local services.

Objective Three

Effect of non-democratically elected government on grassroots development in Anambra State 2006 – 2014.

H0₃: Non- democratically elected government at the grassroots level negatively effected rural development in Anambra State.

The findings of this study as regards objective three showed that the effects of having non-democratically elected government at the grassroots and insufficient fund on rural development in Anambra State include: low interest of members of the community in participating in rural development projects, inadequate consultation of government with the representatives of communities in development, local government not been able to effectively perform its constitutional role of rural development, lack of infrastructural developments such as good feeder roads, rural electrification, non elected officials are hardly responsive to the developmental needs of the grassroots, non elected officials are not always accountable to be people they govern, misappropriation of fund and corruption at the local government level and deteriorated public infrastructure at the grassroots in the state.

The findings of this study agreed with the submission of Eboh and Diejomaoh (2010) that there is high degree of external influence and interference in local government affairs by the higher levels of government as a result of imposition of non-elected officers particularly from the state governments. The governors are found of taking over their financial allocation, taxes, counterpart funding and refuse to conduct Local Government elections, but instead ruling

local governments with appointed administrators, most of whom are party loyalist and their friends and relations turning the entire process of local governments into irrelevance schemes of things (Ukonga, 2012). There have been instances where state governors unconstitutionally dissolve the entire elected council's officers without proper recourse and due process.

Sharing a similar experience, Abutudu (2011) noted that as soon as a new governor comes into office, one of the first actions is to dissolve the existing local councils, whether elected or care taker and imposition of governors is the next order. This, as the recent case of Imo State demonstrates, can degenerate into anarchy, with claims of legitimacy between rival appointees or elected officials. Anyanwu and Okara (2011) stated that the staffs of the councils invariably finds themselves caught in the middle. In many cases, Abutudu (2011) noted that care takership is perpetuated through promises of elections which are invariably postponed as has been the case in most states of the federation. Nkwocha (2009) observe that the outright denial of democratically elected local councils through caretaker committees demonstrates the increasing authoritarian holds of the councils by state governors. As such most state governors never bothered of conducting local government elections.

The high level of imposition of non elected officers by state governors on local government affairs was also expressed by John (2012) when the author observed that there is no state of the federation where one form of illegality or the other is not committed with funds of local government by the state governor, through over deduction of primary school teacher's salary, spurious state/local

government joint account project, sponsoring of elections, taking over the statutory functions of local government and handling them over to cronies and consultants, non-payments of pensioners and non-utilization of training fund despite the mandatory deduction of stipulated percentages for these purposes. Ajibulu (2012) shared that this practice of undue interference is central to the whole problem of local government because it is by planting stooges called caretaker committee, who neither have the mandate of the people nor the moral strength to resist the excruciating control of the state government that perpetuates the rot.

This undue interference has incapacitated local government from effective functioning on one hand, and alienated grassroots people from enjoying social service delivery expected of local governments in Nigeria (Agba, Akwara and Idu, 2013). Consequently, local governments according to Eboh and Diejomaoh (2010) now functions mostly as extension or appendages of state governments. The inherent nature of this problem, as reported by Adeyemi (2013) has caused subservience, a situation where local government waits for the next directives from states government before embarking on any developmental projects. This has made local government an object of control and directives by the state governor. The import of the above is that there are different dimensions of interference by state governors on local government administration in Nigeria. Chukwuemeka, et al., (2014) noted with dismay that the first is the fiscal interference by the state governors? This problem stems from the fact that the

Nigerian constitution did not totally grant financial autonomy to the local governments.

The 1999 constitution did not adequately provide for the financial autonomy of the local governments as it subordinates them to the states through the provision, in section 162, paragraph 6, for the establishment and operation of state local government joint account. According to Azelama (2008), this provision does not allow for the direct funding of the local government from the federation account and various research findings have shown that state governments manipulate this constitutional provision to keep the local governments as their appendages and, in large measures, siphon the funds meant for them. The second dimension is the political interference. The constitution did not provide adequately for the political autonomy of the local governments in Nigeria. For instance, Ezeani (2012) stated that it did not provide specifically for the constitution of the local government council to be solely through democratic elections, for the specific tenure of the local government political office holders, for the local governments to derive their full existence directly from the constitution of the federal constitution and for the specific powers and functions of the local government (Chukwuemeka, et al., 2014). The resultant effects of these lapses or inadequacies are that the state governments have the discretion to determine the nature, content and direction of local government elections and political activities. In the exercise of this discretion, the state government decide when elections would be held, who wins in elections, when to dissolve elected

council, and the alternative framework to administer the affairs of the local governments.

The federal allocation to local governments for the period 1976 to 1997. The federal allocation showed steady increases during the periods. In nominal terms, the allocation which stood at N100 million in 1976 jumped to N352.6 million in 1980, reflecting a compound growth rate of almost 29%. During the structural adjustments programme (SAP), federal allocation to local governments increased remarkably by 45.7%. This jump could be as a result of the increase in the number of local governments (Adeyemi, 2013). Local governments in Nigeria receive statutory allocations from the two higher tiers of government (federal and states). At the present, revenue sharing formula, local governments receive 20 per cent from the federation account. They are also statutorily entitled to 10 per cent of states' internally generated revenue. As regards to Value Added Tax, Agba (2006) stated that local governments receive 30 percent in 1998. This was shared to local governments, on the following basis: equality (50 per cent): population (30 percent) and derivation (20 per cent). In 1999, local governments received 35 per cent of the VAT proceeds.

Objective Four

The possible solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State, 2006 – 2014.

H0₄: There is no significant difference in the mean ratings of the responses of the respondents based on educational qualification on the possible solutions to the identified problems of rural development in Anambra State?

The findings of this study on objective four identified possible solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State to include: having direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account, conducting local governments without any interference from the state government, removal of State-Local Government Joint Account from the constitution, increase of statutory allocation from the federation account from the present 20 to 30%, constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of Local government, efforts must be made to curtail corrupt practices in local government administration, capacity building for local councils in modern technology, increased grassroots participation in all stages of decision-making in developmental process, establishing a clear legislative distinction between the responsibilities of Federal, State and local governments, reorganisation of local government for capacity to meet modern challenges and development of a investor driven local government in the state.

The findings of this study conformed with that of Odalonu (2015) who suggested constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of local government as part of the solutions to the challenges facing local government in rural

development. Reforms are needed to increase the fiscal and spending autonomy of local governments and minimise the interference and control of state governments. Adeyemi (2013) reported that the undue interference of the state governors should be eliminated to allow the council heads to govern and manage their natural resources using appropriate planning standards; opportunity to design appropriate policies, programmes and project suited to peculiar areas; preservation of cultural heritage of communities; and effectively delivery of democratic dividends to the grassroots. Odalonu (2015) stated further that there is therefore need for constitutional reforms to provide unique guarantees for the autonomy and powers of the local government.

Supporting this, Oke (2013) argued that institutional reforms are important to clarify and align local governments' roles and responsibilities in a manner that earns public confidence, intergovernmental credibility and unequivocal accountability. Autonomy would pave way for rapid development at the grassroots. To ensure responsive governance, local government executive must be elected by the people and not superimposed by the ruling party or state governor. Ibok (2014) stressed that elections at specific intervals should be conducted into the local government council and with outright prohibition of any other alternative arrangement to administer the local governments.

This study found that curtailing corrupt practice in local government administration is a solution the present challenges of local government in Anambra State. This findings supported that of Odalonu (2015) who reported

that curtaining corruption will help local government play its roles of rural development in the country. The author noted that to stem corruption and embezzlement, all financial transaction of the council must be audited and publicized. There should be monitoring and evaluation unit aim at measuring efficiency and effectiveness. To ensure accountability and transparency in local government administration, the civil society organizations should also monitor the performance of local government officials and report any found wanting to anti-corruption agent. The anti-corrupt agencies like the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC) and the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFFCC) should intensify their efforts at tackling the problem of pervasive corruption in the local government system (Ibok, 2014). According to Chukwuemeka et al., (2014), government could further assist in this direction by introducing more effective anti-corruption clauses and fraud detecting mechanisms as well as ensuring the conduct of free and fair elections through which people could only get into power on the basis of their perceived honesty and ability to deliver democracy dividends to the rural and grassroots people.

The findings of this study also agreed with the result of Igbokwe-Ibeto and Nkah (2014) who found that solutions to the problems of local government in Nigeria include positive leadership and sound financial control mechanism. Positive leadership is crucial to the success of any human endeavour local government administration inclusive. Therefore, there is the urgent need to bring about political and administrative leadership anchored on rule of law,

transparency and accountability, administrative probity and culture of good governance. The local government system needs missionary and visionary leaders with democratic credentials and readiness to transform the local government system in the country.

Local government administration should adopt the principle of public management summarized by Osborne and Gaebler (1993) to include: catalytic government: steering rather than rowing; community: owned government empowering rather than serving; competitive government: injecting competition into service delivery; mission-driven government: transforming rule driven organization; result-oriented government: funding outcomes, not inputs; customer-driven government: meeting the needs of the customer, not the bureaucracy; enterprising government; earning rather than spending; anticipatory government; prevention rather than cure; decentralized government; from hierarchy to participation and teamwork; and market-oriented government; leveraging change through the market.

According to World Bank, the above ten principles serves as a new conceptual framework for public administrators and an analytical checklist to transform government policies to action. Their position got support in the argument that traditional public administration theory has failed to transform the society and deliver the much needed public goods and service. The state had become too large and over committed and therefore the market offer superior mechanism for achieving efficiency in the supply of public goods and services.

Also important in effective rural development by local government according to Igbokwe-Ibeto and Nkah (2014) is global best financial practices. Financial control mechanisms in the system should be activated and reinforced to promote transparency and accountability.

Local government administration should place more emphasis on staff training, retraining and developments. This will enhance employee performance and productivity irrespective of their quality on entry point. In this era of globalization, competition is the order of the day and local governments cannot be left out (Igbokwe-Ibeto and Nkah, 2014). For local government staff to compete with their counterpart elsewhere they should be well motivated financially and work environment made conducive. Odalonu (2015) submitted that adequate financial allocation to the local governments will go a long way to solve the problem of local government in Nigeria. Ekpo (2008) stated that lower levels of government must have legal authority to raising needy revenue to support its expenditure requirements.

Thus, the fiscal relationship between the centre and lower - levels of government must be clearly worked out on the basis of equality, fairness and justice. Local governments should have direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account and their share of the internally generated revenue. State government should be compelled to relinquish their 10% internally generated revenue to the local council to avoid their overdependence on statutory allocation. Thus, Abutudu (2011) stated that the

provision for the State Local Government Joint Account should be expunged from the constitution and also the statutory allocation from the federation account should be increased from the present 20 to 30 percent. On the other hands, Adeyemi (2013) suggested that the internal revenue generation sources of the local government should be enhanced by way of investment in profitable ventures. The internal revenue base can also be enhanced, if rural inhabitants are properly educated on their civic responsibilities to support their local governments financially, by paying their taxes and rate promptly.

Capacity building or institutional and human resource development is part of the solutions to the development of local government in Nigeria. According to Abutudu (2011), there should be capacity building for local councils to take advantage of modern tools of local governance that are being developed world wide. This must combine the political and administrative cadre of the councils. Building institutional and system capacity that produces the human capital that is committed to the principles of good governance briefly summarized as transparency, accountability, honesty, foresightedness, equity, justice, prudent management of public funds, strong leadership inspired by vision and direction that is beneficial to the masses (Agba, Akwara, and Idu, 2013). According to Eboh and Diejomaoh (2010) the capacity building programme should be two-dimensional.

The first is institutional strengthening - with respect to the various organs, departments, units and relationships and operational matters. This should involve

training and orientation in policy development, monitoring and evaluation, public participation, public service delivery, social mobilization and government collaboration with the private sector. The other dimension is human resources upgrading – including training and education of staff to enhance their knowledge, skills and competencies. The working environment should be upgraded to attract higher quality well motivated staff at the local government level.

Local governments should have direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account and their share of the internally generated revenue. Ibok (2014) found that state government should be compelled to relinquish their 10% internally generated revenue to the local council to avoid their overdependence on statutory allocation. Thus, the provision for the State Local Government Joint Account should be expunged from the constitution and also the statutory allocation from the federation account should be increased from the present 20 to 30 percent.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary

The study was carried out to investigate local government and rural development in Anambra State, 2006-2014. The study was necessitated due to the worrisome trend in poor rural development as a result of lack of adequate commitment from the local government in effective development of the grassroots. The study was presented in five chapters. Chapter one focused on the introduction of the study to present the background information, statement of the problem, objectives, significance of the study, scope and limitation of the study. Under the objective of the study, effort was made to examine the challenges of rural development in Anambra State, whether the LG play its constitutional role of development at the grassroots level in Anambra State, how has lack of democratically elected government at the grassroots and insufficient fund been the bane of rural development in Anambra State and the solutions to the identified problems of rural development in Anambra State within the stipulated period of 2006 to 2014. In line with the four specific objectives, four null hypotheses were formulated and tested.

The chapter two of the study focused on literature review which was made to capture: concept of poverty, theories of poverty, development, rural development, problems of funding of rural development in Nigeria, rural sector, rural dwellers, theories and models of rural development, challenges of rural

development, security and local government. The detailed review of literature helped to provide the required information for developing the questionnaire and for data collection for the study.

The chapter three presented the methodology that was adopted to carry out the study. For instance, survey research design was employed to achieve the objective of the study. The population for the study was made up of 590,629 adults of 18 years and above in Anambra State. Taro Yamani was adopted in sampling 400 respondents that constituted the representative group from which data were collected for the study. Data for the study were obtained from both primary and secondary sources. The primary source was through the use of structured interview and questionnaire items to elicit qualitative and quantitative data while the secondary sources comprised: books, Journals, political Parties Handbooks, Magazines, Internet and Government gazettes. The data for the study were collected through the help of well trained research assistants. Data collected were analysed using, frequency, percentage, charts, mean and standard deviation for addressing the objectives while t-test statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used for testing the hypothesis at $p < 0.05$ level of significance.

Chapter four dealt with presentation of the data, findings of the study in line with the specific objectives and hypothesis tested and discussion of the findings. Based on the data collected and analysed, the study found that majority

of about 52% of the respondents are males while about 48% of them are females. This result clearly showed that majority of the respondents are within the economic active age bracket of 30 – 45 years. The findings of the study showed that about 95% of the respondents are engaged with one occupation or the other to earn a living. The occupations of the people range from being public servants, farming, artisans, trading and politicking.

The findings of the study showed that majority of about 74% of the respondents are married which corroborated the findings that majority of the respondents are at advanced age. The result generally revealed that literacy level is high in Anambra State as only 10.80% of the sampled respondents had no formal education.

The study identified 8 challenges of local government in rural development in Anambra State, and that Local Government in Anambra State has not been playing its constitutional roles of development at the grassroots in the state, 2006 to 2014. The study identified 10 effects of having non-democratically elected government at the grassroots and insufficient fund on the development of grassroots in Anambra State, 2006 to 2014 while possible solutions to the problems of local government in rural development in Anambra State were identified.

The discussion of the findings of the study was by presenting the respective research findings in relations with other related findings of authors to draw conclusion in a statistical manner by explaining relationships among some

key variables. From the information presented in this chapter of the study, it was revealed that the findings that emanated from this study corroborated the results or findings of other previous related studies. This further establishes the credibility of the findings of the study. Chapter five summarised, concluded and gave possible recommendations based on the findings of the study.

5.2 Recommendations

- i. The immunity granted the governor in the Constitution has significantly been abused. Hence, this study therefore recommended a constitutional amendment that withdraws it such that Governors should be made accountable while still in office and this may checkmate their excesses.
- ii. Government at all levels must curtail corrupt practices in local government administration. There should be monitoring and evaluation unit aim at measuring efficiency and effectiveness.
- iii. Thus, the fiscal relationship between the centre and lower levels of government must be clearly worked out on the basis of equality, fairness and justice.
- iv. There should be capacity building of human resources within the local level who are committed to the principles of good governance in terms of transparency, accountability, honesty, foresightedness, equity, justice, prudent management of public funds, strong leadership inspired by vision, direction that is beneficial to the masses and investment promotion for rural development.

- v. Other state governments should emulate Kaduna State governor that scrapped Joint Allocation Account by allowing LG to have direct access to their statutory allocation. In addition, the state governments should hand off from constitutional internally revenue sources of LGs as practiced in US, Britain and France
- vi. There should be constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of local government in order to increase the fiscal and spending autonomy of local governments for proper rural and grassroots development.
- vii. The undue interference of the state governors should be eliminated to allow the local government chairmen govern and manage their resources to foster effective development at the grassroots.
- viii. To ensure accountability, transparency and grassroots development in local government, the civil society organizations should also monitor the performance of local government officials and report any found wanting to anti-corruption agent.
- ix. The federal government should ensure adequate financial allocation to the local governments in order to meet the needed rural developmental efforts at the grassroots level. Local governments must be made to have direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account and their share of the internally generated revenue.
- x. The provision for the State Local Government Joint Account should be expunged from the Nigerian constitution and also the statutory allocation

from the federation account should be increased from the present 20 to 30 percent.

- xi. Through the support of federal and state government, the internal revenue generation sources of the local government should be enhanced by way of investment in profitable ventures. This should be done through proper education of the rural inhabitants on their civic responsibilities to support their local governments financially, by paying their taxes and rate promptly.

5.3 Conclusion

Local government administration has been adopted as the main fundamental instrument for the acceleration and sustenance of rural development. It serves as vehicle for political education, mobilization and development of the grassroots among others. Several efforts have been made towards moving the system from local administration to local government with functional political and economic autonomy. Unfortunately, the process of achieving local government administration that would have prompted sustainable development was not visibly seen in Nigeria. Prior to the advent of the British colonial administrators, the various communities, kingdoms and empires had evolved their own unique forms and patterns of native administrations which were able to meet the needs of their various peoples at their different levels of development.

It is important to note that despite various reforms in local government administration in Nigeria, much has not been seen in terms of provision of essential services in the local governments that will translate to sustainable development at the grassroots' level. Ordinarily, local government administration encapsulates adapting appropriate technology in agriculture; establishment of skills acquisition and development centres; increasing literacy levels; creating awareness of rural possibilities; political education and mobilization; providing information on rural resources, deploying technical assistance; sensitizing potential volunteers and donors as well as focus on peoples' felt needs and basic amenities such as provision of good roads, electricity, health centres, markets, schools, and farm settlements among others. Unfortunately, the reverse is the case in Nigerian local governments. Local government administration in Nigeria is confronted with issues and challenges that undermine the achievement of grassroots development in Anambra State.

Given the crucial role local government administration plays in development at all local levels, it is imperative to empirically investigate the challenges of rural development in Nigeria using Anambra State as case study. It was based on this bedrock that this study was carried out to investigate the challenges of rural development in Anambra State from 2006 – 2014 focusing on critical examination of the challenges that confront local in rural development in Anambra State, level of constitutional roles play by local government in development at the grassroots level in the state, how has lack of democratically

elected government at the grassroots been the bane of rural development in Anambra State and possible solutions to the problems of rural development in Anambra State within the stipulated period of 2006 to 2014. To answer the research questions, data were collected from the respondents with structured questionnaire and other secondary sources. The data collected were analysed using frequency, percentages, charts, mean, standard deviation, t-test statistics and analysis of variance.

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APPENDIX A

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Local Government and Rural Development in Anambra State: 2006 – 2014.

Department Public Admin and Local Govt
University of Nigeria,
Nsukka.
September, 2016

Dear Sir/Madam,

This questionnaire is being administered with the aim of finding out your views pertaining rural development in Anambra State with particular reference to your own locality. The research is carried out in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration and Local Government in University of Nigeria Nsukka. The researcher is soliciting your full co-operation in responding as honestly as possible to each of the items of the questionnaire.

Yours sincerely

Nwobi, F.O.
Researcher

SECTION A

Mark X in the appropriate box

1. **Sex:** (a) Male (b) Female
2. **Age bracket:** (a) 18 - 30 (b) 31 - 40 (c) 41 – 50
(d) 51 - 60 (e) 61yrs and above
3. **Occupation:** (a) Public Servant (b) Farmer (c) Artisan
(d) Trader (e) Politician (f) Student
(g) No occupation
4. **Marital Status:**
(a). Single (b). Married
(c). Divorced (d). Widow/widower
5. **Educational Qualification:**
(a). No formal education (b). FSLC
(c). S.S.C.E (d). OND/NCE
(e). HND/First Degree (f). Postgraduate Degree
4. Which village do you come from? _____
5. Which town do you come from? _____
6. Which local government area do you come from? _____

SECTION A: Challenges of Rural Development in Anambra State

| S/N | Items | SA | A | UD | SD | D |
|-----|--|----|---|----|----|---|
| 1 | Financial constraints resulting from inadequate allocation for the government. | | | | | |
| 2 | High level of corruption at the federal, state and local government levels. | | | | | |
| 3 | Inadequate provision of social amenities like schools, hospitals, local roads etc to people at the grassroots. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 4 | Lack of political participation in developmental process by people at the grassroots. | | | | | |
| 5 | Deduction of local government fund reduces finance for appropriate development at the local level. | | | | | |
| 6 | Imposition of local government chairmen by the state government. | | | | | |
| 7 | Undue interference of state government in local government administrative affairs. | | | | | |
| 8 | Inadequate skilled workers such as engineers, accountants, medical Doctors, town planners, statisticians at the local governments. | | | | | |
| 9 | Indiscipline and low moral behaviours of local government staff is a major problem. | | | | | |
| 10 | Poor accountability at local government level deters development at grassroots. | | | | | |

SECTION B: Has the Local Government been playing the constitutional roles of developing the grassroots in Anambra state.

| S/N | Items | SA | A | UD | SD | D |
|-----|--|----|---|----|----|---|
| 1 | Local governments in the state have provided appropriate services and development activities to be responsive to local wishes and initiative. | | | | | |
| 2 | They have facilitated and bring the exercise of democratic self governance close to encourage initiative and leadership potentials at the local levels in the state. | | | | | |
| 3 | Local governments in the state have mobilized human and material resources through the involvement of grassroots in their development. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 4 | Local governments in the state have provided a two way channel of communication between LG, State and Federal government. | | | | | |
| 5 | Local governments in the state have been effective in providing and maintaining primary, adult and vocational education in the state. | | | | | |
| 6 | They have been proactive in developing agriculture and natural resources in the grassroots in the state. | | | | | |
| 7 | Local governments in the state have been effective in providing health services. | | | | | |
| 8 | They have been playing the roles of promoting democratic ideals of the grassroots in the state. | | | | | |
| 9 | Bringing government closer to the people to speed up grassroots development. | | | | | |
| 10 | They have facilitated the exercise of democratic self-government and leadership potential at grassroots. | | | | | |

SECTION C: Effects of non-democratically elected government at the local government on grassroots development in Anambra State?

| S/N | Items | SA | A | UD | SD | D |
|-----|---|----|---|----|----|---|
| 1 | It result in low interest of members of the community in participating in rural development projects. | | | | | |
| 2 | It leads to inadequate consultation of government with the representatives of communities in developmental process. | | | | | |
| 3 | It makes local government not been able to effectively perform its constitutional role of rural development. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 4 | It result to lack of infrastructural developments such as good feeder roads, rural electrification etc | | | | | |
| 5 | The non elected officials are hardly responsive to the developmental needs of the grassroots | | | | | |
| 6 | The non elected officials are not always accountable to be people they govern | | | | | |
| 7 | It encourages misappropriation of fund and corruption at the local government level | | | | | |
| 8 | Non elected local government officials further worsen infrastructural decay at the grassroots | | | | | |
| 9 | Non elected officials and inadequate fund slow down the rate of development at local level | | | | | |
| 10 | The people at the grassroots can hardly express their feeling freely under non-elected government | | | | | |

SECTION C: Possible solutions to the problems of rural development by local government in Anambra State

| S/N | Items | SA | A | UD | SD | D |
|-----|--|----|---|----|----|---|
| 1 | That the local government has direct and unfettered access to the statutory allocations from the Federation account. | | | | | |
| 2 | That elections are conducted in local governments without any interference from the state government. | | | | | |
| 3 | That the provision for the State-Local Government Joint Account is expunged from the constitution. | | | | | |
| 4 | That the statutory allocation from the federation account is increased from the present 20 to 30%. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 5 | There should be constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of local government. | | | | | |
| 6 | Curtailling corrupt practices in local government administration. | | | | | |
| 7 | There should be capacity building for local councils to take advantage of modern tools of local governance that are being developed world wide. | | | | | |
| 8 | There should be increased grassroots participation in all critical stages of decision-making in their developmental process. | | | | | |
| 9 | There must be a clear legislative distinction between the responsibilities of Federal, State and local governments to guarantee each of them its role in the constitution. | | | | | |
| 10 | Reorganisation of local governments to prepare their capacity to meet modern challenges. | | | | | |
| 11 | Ensure a viable local political process where free and fair elections are held at regular intervals with everybody having equal opportunity to contest. | | | | | |
| 12 | Expansion of self-generated revenue through the exploration of new forms of financing at grassroots. | | | | | |
| 13 | Encouragement of private sector participation in the economic development of local areas. | | | | | |
| 14 | Development of a customer driven local government where citizens will be king. | | | | | |
| 15 | Establish the practice of discipline in financial and other aspects of management. | | | | | |

APPENDIX B**RESULT OF RELIABILITY TEST****Case Processing Summary**

| | | N | % |
|-------|-----------------------|----|-------|
| Cases | Valid | 23 | 100.0 |
| | Excluded ^a | 0 | .0 |
| | Total | 23 | 100.0 |

Reliability Statistics

| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
|------------------|------------|
| .832 | 45 |

APPENDIX C

RESULT OF DATA ANALYSIS

Objective One

Descriptive Statistics

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Altem1 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.1902 | .80258 |
| Altem2 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.2956 | .95113 |
| Altem3 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.2442 | .81509 |
| Altem4 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.1979 | .78381 |
| Altem5 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.4807 | .93762 |
| Altem6 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.1440 | .81218 |
| Altem7 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.2339 | .99963 |
| Altem8 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.3445 | .76393 |
| Altem9 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.4447 | .80513 |
| Altem10 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.4602 | .95333 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 389 | | | | |

Objective Two

Descriptive Statistics

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Bltem1 | 389 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.3907 | .90832 |
| Bltem2 | 389 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.4704 | .81938 |
| Bltem3 | 389 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.2211 | .88051 |
| Bltem4 | 389 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.0154 | .93035 |
| Bltem5 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.4833 | .72690 |
| Bltem6 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 3.7224 | .81240 |
| Bltem7 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.4344 | .90307 |
| Bltem8 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 3.9846 | .90809 |
| Bltem9 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.8072 | .68703 |
| Bltem10 | 389 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.2314 | .89259 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 389 | | | | |

Objective Three**Descriptive Statistics**

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Cltem1 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.5244 | .59858 |
| Cltem2 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.5810 | .58921 |
| Cltem3 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 3.9846 | .70809 |
| Cltem4 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.2494 | .91214 |
| Cltem5 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.4704 | .67905 |
| Cltem6 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.5244 | .59858 |
| Cltem7 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.2159 | .89076 |
| Cltem8 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 3.9846 | .70809 |
| Cltem9 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 3.9923 | .97253 |
| Cltem10 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.2699 | .81364 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 389 | | | | |

Objective Four**Descriptive Statistics**

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| DItem1 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.3979 | .82449 |
| DItem2 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.4987 | .80470 |
| DItem3 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.5799 | .75689 |
| DItem4 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.2622 | .98606 |
| DItem5 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.6041 | .78161 |
| DItem6 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.5193 | .74111 |
| DItem7 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.4576 | .95052 |
| DItem8 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.2853 | .83462 |
| DItem9 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.1183 | .92213 |
| DItem10 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.4936 | .86040 |
| DItem11 | 389 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.2057 | .77915 |
| DItem12 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.2185 | .96648 |
| DItem13 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.4568 | .83228 |
| DItem14 | 389 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 4.6491 | .72762 |
| DItem15 | 389 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 4.5321 | .86282 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 389 | | | | |

Hypothesis One**Group Statistics**

| | Gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------|--------|-----|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| Altem1 | Male | 195 | 4.1949 | .82047 | .05876 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.1856 | .78628 | .05645 |
| Altem2 | Male | 195 | 4.4256 | .74499 | .05335 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.1649 | .80749 | .07951 |
| Altem3 | Male | 195 | 4.3333 | .94524 | .06769 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.1546 | .87578 | .07724 |
| Altem4 | Male | 195 | 4.2821 | .96721 | .06926 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.1134 | .88607 | .08515 |
| Altem5 | Male | 195 | 4.4718 | .94322 | .06755 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.4897 | .93432 | .06708 |
| Altem6 | Male | 195 | 4.0410 | .84241 | .06033 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.2474 | .76897 | .05521 |
| Altem7 | Male | 195 | 4.3949 | .78187 | .05599 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.0722 | .85841 | .08317 |
| Altem8 | Male | 195 | 2.3795 | .97610 | .09138 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.3093 | .75389 | .09002 |
| Altem9 | Male | 195 | 2.5077 | .80459 | .10058 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.3814 | .70645 | .10098 |
| Altem10 | Male | 195 | 4.4154 | .93982 | .06730 |
| | Female | 194 | 4.5052 | .96706 | .06943 |

Independent Samples Test

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | |
|---------|-------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| | | F | Sig. | T | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Std. Error Difference |
| Altem1 | Equal variances assumed | 1.428 | .233 | .114 | 387 | .909 | .08149 |
| | | | | .114 | 386.460 | .909 | .08148 |
| Altem2 | Equal variances assumed | 21.513 | .000 | 2.725 | 387 | .007 | .09566 |
| | | | | 2.723 | 337.781 | .007 | .09575 |
| Altem3 | Equal variances assumed | 4.422 | .036 | 1.741 | 387 | .183 | .10267 |
| | | | | 1.740 | 380.197 | .183 | .10270 |
| Altem4 | Equal variances assumed | 9.257 | .003 | 1.537 | 387 | .125 | .10971 |
| | | | | 1.536 | 371.209 | .125 | .10977 |
| Altem5 | Equal variances assumed | .009 | .923 | .188 | 387 | .851 | .09520 |
| | | | | .188 | 386.993 | .851 | .09520 |
| Altem6 | Equal variances assumed | 1.107 | .293 | 2.523 | 387 | .012 | .08179 |
| | | | | 2.524 | 384.170 | .012 | .08178 |
| Altem7 | Equal variances assumed | 15.195 | .000 | 3.222 | 387 | .001 | .10016 |
| | | | | 3.219 | 338.428 | .001 | .10026 |
| Altem8 | Equal variances assumed | .096 | .757 | .547 | 387 | .584 | .12828 |
| | | | | .547 | 386.940 | .584 | .12828 |
| Altem9 | Equal variances assumed | .107 | .744 | .886 | 387 | .376 | .14253 |
| | | | | .886 | 386.984 | .376 | .14253 |
| Altem10 | Equal variances assumed | .243 | .623 | .928 | 387 | .354 | .09669 |
| | | | | .928 | 386.561 | .354 | .09670 |

Hypothesis Two

Group Statistics

| | Gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------|--------|-----|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| Bltem1 | Male | 195 | 2.3795 | .81207 | .07964 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.4021 | .90730 | .07950 |
| Bltem2 | Male | 195 | 2.4667 | .72376 | .08764 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.4742 | .81811 | .08746 |
| Bltem3 | Male | 195 | 2.3795 | .71669 | .07997 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.0619 | .82117 | .07332 |
| Bltem4 | Male | 195 | 2.0795 | .72314 | .08043 |
| | Female | 194 | 1.9505 | .90096 | .06469 |
| Bltem5 | Male | 195 | 2.4667 | .80923 | .09376 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.5000 | .74761 | .09675 |
| Bltem6 | Male | 195 | 3.7231 | .68669 | .09930 |
| | Female | 194 | 3.7216 | .84137 | .10348 |
| Bltem7 | Male | 195 | 2.3897 | .89358 | .08547 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.4794 | .71395 | .08716 |
| Bltem8 | Male | 195 | 4.0000 | .89631 | .09283 |
| | Female | 194 | 3.9691 | .72300 | .09499 |
| Bltem9 | Male | 195 | 2.6821 | .63765 | .11727 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.9330 | .79033 | .11418 |
| Bltem10 | Male | 195 | 2.3436 | .74419 | .08194 |
| | Female | 194 | 2.1186 | .72879 | .07386 |

Independent Samples Test

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | |
|---------|-------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| | | F | Sig. | T | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Std. Error Difference |
| Bltem1 | Equal variances assumed | .001 | .971 | .201 | 387 | .841 | .11253 |
| | | | | .201 | 387.000 | .841 | .11253 |
| Bltem2 | Equal variances assumed | .016 | .899 | .061 | 387 | .951 | .12381 |
| | | | | .061 | 387.000 | .951 | .12381 |
| Bltem3 | Equal variances assumed | 6.763 | .010 | 2.527 | 387 | .004 | .10851 |
| | | | | 2.528 | 384.285 | .004 | .10849 |
| Bltem4 | Equal variances assumed | 2.097 | .000 | 1.386 | 387 | .102 | .10327 |
| | | | | 1.387 | 370.373 | .102 | .10321 |
| Bltem5 | Equal variances assumed | .452 | .502 | .247 | 387 | .805 | .13472 |
| | | | | .247 | 386.552 | .805 | .13473 |
| Bltem6 | Equal variances assumed | .614 | .434 | .010 | 387 | .992 | .14341 |
| | | | | .010 | 386.259 | .992 | .14342 |
| Bltem7 | Equal variances assumed | .023 | .880 | .734 | 387 | .463 | .12207 |
| | | | | .734 | 386.812 | .463 | .12207 |
| Bltem8 | Equal variances assumed | .272 | .602 | .233 | 387 | .816 | .13281 |
| | | | | .233 | 386.748 | .816 | .13282 |
| Bltem9 | Equal variances assumed | 7.094 | .008 | 1.533 | 387 | .126 | .16369 |
| | | | | 1.533 | 386.774 | .126 | .16368 |
| Bltem10 | Equal variances assumed | 7.043 | .008 | 2.039 | 387 | .042 | .11035 |
| | | | | 2.040 | 383.108 | .042 | .11032 |

Hypothesis Three

ANOVA

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|
| CItem1 | Between Groups | 1.183 | 2 | .592 | 1.657 | .192 |
| | Within Groups | 137.835 | 386 | .357 | | |
| | Total | 139.018 | 388 | | | |
| CItem2 | Between Groups | .701 | 2 | .351 | 1.010 | .365 |
| | Within Groups | 133.998 | 386 | .347 | | |
| | Total | 134.699 | 388 | | | |
| CItem3 | Between Groups | 1.083 | 2 | .542 | .315 | .730 |
| | Within Groups | 662.824 | 386 | 1.717 | | |
| | Total | 663.907 | 388 | | | |
| CItem4 | Between Groups | .557 | 2 | .278 | .334 | .717 |
| | Within Groups | 322.255 | 386 | .835 | | |
| | Total | 322.812 | 388 | | | |
| CItem5 | Between Groups | 1.444 | 2 | .722 | 1.570 | .209 |
| | Within Groups | 177.466 | 386 | .460 | | |
| | Total | 178.910 | 388 | | | |
| CItem6 | Between Groups | 1.183 | 2 | .592 | 1.657 | .192 |
| | Within Groups | 137.835 | 386 | .357 | | |
| | Total | 139.018 | 388 | | | |
| CItem7 | Between Groups | .109 | 2 | .055 | .068 | .934 |
| | Within Groups | 307.752 | 386 | .797 | | |
| | Total | 307.861 | 388 | | | |
| CItem8 | Between Groups | 1.083 | 2 | .542 | .315 | .730 |
| | Within Groups | 662.824 | 386 | 1.717 | | |
| | Total | 663.907 | 388 | | | |
| CItem9 | Between Groups | 1.561 | 2 | .780 | .824 | .439 |
| | Within Groups | 365.416 | 386 | .947 | | |
| | Total | 366.977 | 388 | | | |
| CItem10 | Between Groups | .953 | 2 | .477 | .463 | .630 |
| | Within Groups | 397.705 | 386 | 1.030 | | |
| | Total | 398.658 | 388 | | | |

Hypothesis Four**ANOVA**

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|
| DItem1 | Between Groups | .005 | 2 | .003 | .124 | .996 |
| | Within Groups | 263.753 | 386 | .683 | | |
| | Total | 263.758 | 388 | | | |
| DItem2 | Between Groups | .006 | 2 | .003 | .304 | .996 |
| | Within Groups | 251.244 | 386 | .651 | | |
| | Total | 251.249 | 388 | | | |
| DItem3 | Between Groups | .593 | 2 | .297 | .265 | .768 |
| | Within Groups | 432.810 | 386 | 1.121 | | |
| | Total | 433.404 | 388 | | | |
| DItem4 | Between Groups | .847 | 2 | .423 | .434 | .648 |
| | Within Groups | 376.408 | 386 | .975 | | |
| | Total | 377.254 | 388 | | | |
| DItem5 | Between Groups | .824 | 2 | .412 | .673 | .511 |
| | Within Groups | 236.210 | 386 | .612 | | |
| | Total | 237.033 | 388 | | | |
| DItem6 | Between Groups | .962 | 2 | .481 | .876 | .417 |
| | Within Groups | 212.143 | 386 | .550 | | |
| | Total | 213.105 | 388 | | | |
| DItem7 | Between Groups | .342 | 2 | .171 | .188 | .828 |
| | Within Groups | 350.208 | 386 | .907 | | |
| | Total | 350.550 | 388 | | | |
| DItem8 | Between Groups | 3.827 | 2 | 1.914 | 3.795 | .017 |
| | Within Groups | 411.499 | 386 | 1.066 | | |
| | Total | 415.326 | 388 | | | |
| DItem9 | Between Groups | .909 | 2 | .454 | .360 | .698 |
| | Within Groups | 487.652 | 386 | 1.263 | | |
| | Total | 488.560 | 388 | | | |
| DItem10 | Between Groups | .126 | 2 | .063 | .085 | .919 |
| | Within Groups | 287.108 | 386 | .744 | | |
| | Total | 287.234 | 388 | | | |
| DItem11 | Between Groups | 1.655 | 2 | .828 | 1.366 | .256 |
| | Within Groups | 233.892 | 386 | .606 | | |
| | Total | 235.548 | 388 | | | |
| DItem12 | Between Groups | 13.369 | 2 | 6.684 | 4.392 | .001 |
| | Within Groups | 349.058 | 386 | .904 | | |
| | Total | 362.427 | 388 | | | |
| DItem13 | Between Groups | 5.872 | 2 | 2.936 | 2.306 | .101 |
| | Within Groups | 491.562 | 386 | 1.273 | | |
| | Total | 497.434 | 388 | | | |
| DItem14 | Between Groups | 1.063 | 2 | .531 | .417 | .660 |
| | Within Groups | 492.289 | 386 | 1.275 | | |
| | Total | 493.352 | 388 | | | |
| DItem15 | Between Groups | .800 | 2 | .400 | .536 | .586 |
| | Within Groups | 288.048 | 386 | .746 | | |
| | Total | 288.848 | 388 | | | |