RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME UNDER MILITARY REGIME: A STUDY OF DIRECTORATE OF FOOD, ROADS AND RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES (DFRRI)

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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PHD) IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

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DECLARATION

I declare that the work in this dissertation entitled, "RURAL DEVELOPMENT UNDER MILITARY REGIME: A STUDY OF DIRECTORATE OF FOOD, ROADS AND RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES (DFRRI) has been conducted by me in the Department of Public Administration under the supervision of Prof. A. Odoh, Dr. S. B. Abdulkarim and Dr. J.D. Ndan. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this dissertation was previously presented for another degree or diploma at any university.

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CERTIFICATION

This dissertation entitled "RURAL DEVELOPMENT UNDER MILITARY REGIME: A STUDY OF DIRECTORATE OF FOOD, ROADS AND RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES (DFRRI) meets the regulations governing the award of the degree of doctor of philosophy (PhD) of Ahmadu Bello University and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the Almighty God for His mercy, protection and guidance and to my most cherished family for their regular prayers and endurance when this research work was in progress.

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to examine the involvement of the military regime in rural development programme and the implementation strategies it adopted in ensuring success in the areas of provision of water, electricity and construction of access roads. Given the above objective, it was assumed that military authoritative approach to policy implementation informed the success of DFRRI. Primary and secondary data obtained through interviews and questionnaire administered were used, and the four hypothesis tested were accepted. The result of the research indicated that DFRRI succeeded in bridging the gap created in rural development by previous efforts. Based on the outcome of the assumption tested, we concluded that DFRRI achieved its objectives by raising the living standard of rural dwellers by: construction of feeder roads, provision of potable water and rural electricity supply. To improve upon this, the study recommends among others that other efforts at rural development should draw lessons from DFRRI. Moreso, to achieve more meaningful rural development in Nigeria, there should be policy and programme continuity and future rural development programmes should have more comprehensive design that will fully address all human needs.

ABBREVIATION

ADPS	=	Agricultural Development Programmes
AFEM	=	Autonomous Foreign Exchange Market
BRRI	=	Building and Road Research Institute
BIP	=	Bakolori Irrigation Project
BOT	=	Build, Operate and Transfer
DFRRI	=	Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures
FBS	=	Federal Bureau of Statistics
FCI	=	Final comprehensive Inspection
FCT Abuja	=	Federal Capital Tertiary Abuja
FMWR & RD	=	Federal Ministry of Water Resources and Development
FDS	=	Federal Office of Statistics
FUMTP	=	Federal Urban Mass Transit Programme
GDP	=	Gross Domestic Product
GR	=	Green Revolution
ILO	=	International Labour Organization
ITC	=	Inter Town Connection
L.G.A	=	Local Government Area
LNG	=	Liquefied Natural Gas Plant
LPCD	=	Liters Per Capital per Day
MAN	=	Maritime Academy Of Nigeria
M.A.N.R.	=	Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources
NADPA	=	National Land Development Authority

NAFCON	=	National Fertilizer Company of Nigeria
NATSP	=	National Agricultural Technology Support Project
NALDA	=	National Agricultural Land Development Authority
NCAT	=	Nigeria College of Aviation Technology
NC	=	New Construction
NDE	=	National Directorate of Employment
NEPA	=	National Electric Power Authority
NERF	=	National Economic Recovery Fund
NFFP	=	National Fadama Facility Project
NFDP	=	National Fadama Development Programme
NITT	=	National Institute of Transport Technology
NYSC	=	National Youth Service Corps
OFN	=	Operation Feed the Nation
PIAS	=	Programme Implementation Agencies
PME	=	Performance Monitoring and Evaluation
RBDAS	=	River Basin Development Authorities
RH	=	Rehabilitation
RWASAN	=	Rural Water Supply and Sanitation
S.D.R.D.	=	State Directorate for Rural Development
TDN	=	Township Distribution Network
UNICEF	=	United Nations International Children Education fund

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CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Rural Development Programme has been identified as a strategy and an instrument for ensuring sustained economic growth and development. Modern states have necessarily adopted it in tackling, transforming and improving the numerous problems of rural poverty, socio-economic inequality, hunger, illiteracy and disease. The large gap between potential economic opportunities and realized development in the rural sector is explained by the motivation of those who control the allocation of national resources and who allocate these resources thereby causing under-utilization, non-use and misuse of natural human and financial resources. It would appear that the greatest obstacle to successful rural development in Nigeria can be traced to the character of the political leadership that is not committed to rural transformation and the absence of a developmental ideology, Olatunbosun (1995:57).

Before the oil boom, agriculture was the main stay of Nigerian economy. These agricultural products that made Nigeria what it was during the pre-colonial, colonial and post – colonial periods were mostly from the rural areas.

Therefore, in efforts at developing rural areas in the past, the Federal Government in the third National development plan introduced such programmes as the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP), the River Basin Development Authorities and the Integrated Rural Agricultural Development Projects. The Federal Government invested heavily in irrigation, input subsidies (especially fertilizers) and agricultural credit, while the states went into direct production programmes. New farm settlement schemes were started by some states while others experimented

group-farming schemes and there was the launching of the Operation Feed the Nation. From the point of rural development, the most significant break through during this period was the introduction (in 1976) of Universal Free Primary Education.

In the agricultural sector there was a major shift towards foreign and private sector participation in Government projects and generally towards increased reliance on price incentives to encourage private entrepreneurs to establish large-scale farms. Accordingly, agricultural production was transferred from schedule II to schedule III of the Nigerian Enterprises promotion decree, enabling foreigners to own up to 60% of equity in farm enterprises. 24.4% of the promotion for the sector went to irrigation projects, mainly the large-scale River Basin Development Programme to be executed by 11 River Basin Authorities covering the entire country.

The next most important progrmme was the Integrated Rural Development Programme financed jointly by the Federal Government, the State Governments and the World Bank. The Federal and State Governments contribution amounted to 22.2% of the sectoral investment. Other areas of emphasis included agricultural mechanization and agro-service centres (5.7%), fertilizer input programmes (5.3%) and agricultural credit (4.3%).

Transportation received less emphasis which attention being focused on improvement and maintenance of existing roads. However, some 12,000 kilometres of feeder roads were envisaged under the Integrated Rural Development Programme.

Having briefly presented some of the rural development progrmmes prior to DFRRI, it is relevant to trace and analyse them with a view to stating their failures as to justify the problem that necessitate this study on DFRRI.

a. The National Accelerated Food Product Project (NAFPP): This project was launched in 1976 and it continued until 1976 when it was replaced by the Operation Feed the Nation Programme. It was an impact making agricultural strategy to increase food production in specific areas and sub-sectors of the agricultural economy. NAFPP relied heavily on the cooperative approach as well as on technical assistance for its success. The project was a well conceived and guided change programme for rural development, especially in the area of food production. Though the scheme succeeded in the areas of food production but it failed to address other areas like provision of rural water, electricity and access roads that were amongst the infrastructures required to enhance the living standards of rural dwellers.

b. Operation Feed the Nation: This programme was launched in 1976 by then Head of State of Nigeria. It was designed to awaken in the generality of Nigerians especially those living in the rural areas. The objectives of the Operation Feed the Nation were to: mobilize the nation towards self-sufficiency and self-reliance in food production, encourage the sector of the community relying heavily on food purchase to grow their own food; encourage general pride in agriculture and encourage balanced nutritional feeding and thereby produce a healthy nation.

The operation feed the nation was not specifically a rural development strategy, but the rural areas benefitted through inputs and professional advice. Osuntogan and Olutokunbi in Obeta and Okide (2010, internet) observed that operation feed the nation rather than solving food problems created opportunities for the ruling class then to appropriate nation funds. They were appointed board members as well as given fat contracts.

c. The Agricultural Development Projects (ADP): The projects commenced in 1975. The World Bank, the Federal and State Governments jointly own them. The ultimate objective of the Agricultural Development projects was to raise productivity, increase farm output, income and standard of living of the rural people. The emphasis was on the promotion of small-scale autonomous products operated by a multi-disciplinary management unit. Using the cooperative approach, they tackled many aspects of agriculture, which include production, marketing, infrastructure and training. The problem with the Agricultural Development Projects was that they used a mixture of the settlement and the big-push approaches. As such, their heavy capitalization prevented their adoption by government and organizations.

d. The River Basin Development Authority (RBDA): It was first launched in 1976 and further expanded in 1983. It was revised and curtailed between 1984 and 1986. The declared aim of the authority was to make the nation self-sufficient in food production and to uplift the socio-economic standard of the rural dwellers. Accordingly, Federal Republic of Nigeria (1981) reported that government provided in the Third National Development plan huge sum of money to develop the main rivers of the country to benefit agriculture and rural development. The activities of the authority showed that the development philosophy was still the trickle down approach as rural development was not a serious issue in the objectives of the River Basin Development Authority amongst them were:

   - to undertake comprehensive development, both surface and underground water resources for multipurpose use.
   - to undertake scheme for the control of food, and erosion, and for the water shed management including afforestation.

- to construct and maintain dams, dykes, wells, boreholes, irrigations and drainage systems.
- to provide water from reservoir and lakes for irrigation as well as for urban water supply scheme and,
- to control pollutions in rivers, lakes, lagoons, and creeks.

Obeta and Okide (2010) argue that all the activities were geared at the development of materials things, objects and gadgets and not at the people as persons. The activities were only done for the people, not with the people. Also, the impact of the RBDAs was limited due to conflicting policy changes and lack of management know-how. Okorie and Umezurike in Obeta and Okide (2010), argue that the RBDAs diverted from their traditional roles to that of food production. Moreover, the increasing cost of running therein due to huge capital investment led to several policy adjustments.

e. Green Revolution: This is a crash programme launched by Alh. Shehu Shagari's administration. It was aimed at boasting food production in a bid to provide food to every Nigerian. The objectives of Green Revolution include:
   - to make the country self-sufficient in food production within 5 years and
   - to return the nation to its pre-eminent crop production stage within seven years.

   Unfortunately, the programme failed because the same government that instituted it with the aim of making Nigeria self-sufficient as at 1985, embarked on a large-scale importation of rice from India and America, and essential food items for survival and sustenance, Otoghagua in Obeta and Okide (2010). Again, the sole intention of the programme was food and crop production so that the physical hunger of urban areas and the impoverished

foreign exchange account of the government might be replenished. This presumption was that once agriculture was improved, and the yields per acre were increased, the peasant farmers who constituted the major bulk of the producers would automatically have their economic and social standard improved. It is very clear that there was no mention of how to channel the money back extracted from the rural areas to develop area.

Thus, instead of fashioning more effective strategies that will ensure the development of rural areas considering its importance to the growth of Nigeria, past development efforts have been preoccupied with the promotion of an urban-based strategy of building a modern sector aimed at stimulating economic growth. The consequence of this has been a neglect of the rural sector and its growth potential, with the attendant effect of worsening rural poverty. Rural stagnation, and to some extent, rural decline (e.g. in the provision of water, rural roads and supply of rural electricity, etc) has had an adverse effect on the growth-performance of the modern sector and thus hamstrung overall economic growth and national development efforts.

Also, the failure to transform the rural areas in terms of its productive capacity, income levels and quality of life, has had a number of particularly significant consequences like:

i) the retardation of modern sector growth;
ii) the heightening of Nigeria's dependence on the outside world, even for food;
iii) the deepening of the poverty of the rural people and the urban poor; hence the marginalization and impairment or moral among these large sectors of Nigeria's human resources;

iv) the escalation of social problems, e.g. unemployment, indecent and unjust levels of inequality, and an exacerbation of the suffering of the most vulnerable groups in society, crime, social discontent and other tendencies characteristic of a deeply trusted and demoralized society; and

v) the major economic and social crises in which Nigeria then found itself.

Against this background, it is simple to understand why the transformation of our rural areas is a critical precondition for the rehabilitation of the national economy and see the reason why many have argued that rural development is, in our particular circumstances, the foundation of national rehabilitation and development. Suffice it to say that important national objectives and interests, such as self-sufficiency in food, economic self-reliance, industrialization, substantial reduction of mass unemployment and mass poverty, social justice, national security, bridging the gap between the urban and the rural areas in all its ramifications, etc, all require a concerted and more vigorous pursuit of rural development and transformation.

To enhance the development of the rural areas, therefore, the military regime of General Ibrahim B. Babangida, in 1986 introduced more centralized, more coordinated approach to rural development by evolving development policies that were designed to bridge the gap between the urban and rural areas. Studies have shown that benefits of government expenditures on education, health, water supply, industries and roads in Nigeria are concentrated almost exclusively in the urban areas. Subsequently less than 30 percent of total government expenditure is designated for the benefit of rural communities who make up more than 70 percent of the total population. In spite of its potential importance in terms of its working force and its contribution to the Gross Domestic Product [GDP] of the estimated private sector

investment amounting to about N1,632 million during the 1970 -74 plan period, only N246 million that is 15 percent was estimated expenditure in the rural sector. And of the N1560 million planned public investment, only N280 million or 18 percent was allocated in the rural areas, Nwosu in Amucheazi (1980:105).

Nwosu's statistical analysis indicates that the rural areas have been at the mercy of the urban areas concerning provision of water supply, good road network and supply of electricity in Nigeria by the policy makers. Taking into cognizance the importance of the rural dwellers, Military administrations of General B. Babangida embarked upon rural development programme geared towards the provision of rural roads, electricity and water through the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures [DFRRI] 1986 – 1993 just to improve the life of the rural dwellers.

Thus, DFRRI as established by General Ibrahim B. Babangida was a kind of home-grown social dimension of adjustment programme for Nigeria to address the problem of rural development which hitherto could not be addressed properly by past rural development programmes. According to Ekpo and Olaniyi in Obeta and Okide (2010:138) DFRRI has the following objectives:

a. to improve the quality of life and standard of living of the majority of the people in the rural areas by:

i. improving greatly the quality value and nutritional balance of their food intake,

ii. raising the quality of rural housing, as well as the general living and working environment in the rural areas

iii. creating greater opportunities for human development and employment especially self-employment and in variably enhancing rural income levels

iv. making it possible to have a progressively wider range and variety of goods and services to be produced and consumed by the rural people themselves as well as for exchange,

b. to utilize the enormous resources of the rural areas to lay a solid foundation for the security, socio-cultural, political and economic growth and development activities of the rural areas.

c. to ensure a deeply-rooted self-sustaining development process based on effectively mobilized mass participation, beginning from the grass roots and spreading thereafter to the wider economy.

The essence of DFRRI's objectives going by the above therefore is for the provision of economic and social infrastructures, production of Agricultural Inputs, Development and Dissemination of Improved Technology to enhance agricultural and rural housing and mobilization for mass participation in rural development with an ultimate goal of bringing about both quantitative and qualitative changes which results in improved living standard of rural population.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Majority of Nigeria's populace is rural whose basic occupation is farming, (Mohammed 1995:214). These rural people produce food for themselves and the urban populace. Sequel to this, it is expected that the formulation and implementation of any rural development programme in Nigeria should consider the interest of these rural dwellers.

In a rural setting, economic activities are generally characterized by a direct or indirect dependence on the exploitation of the land. These economic activities, centred principally on farming: namely, animal and crop husbandry, poultry, fishing,

forestry, food processing and other farm-related activities. According to Mohammed (1995:83), it is estimated that agriculture and related activities occupy about 80% of the rural population of Nigeria. In crop husbandry sub-sector of agriculture, the farmer is usually a small-holder, in most cases cultivating an area of between 0.5 to 2 hectres, frequently divided into small and sometimes scattered plots. The farmer's farming is largely traditional and seasonal. The farmer is estimated to put in, on the average, a total time of about 100 days in the year during planting, cultivation and harvesting. For most of the other days of the year, he is either idle or he occasionally offers himself as hired labour.

In a situation such as this, rural incomes are understandably generally low and comparatively lower than in the urban sector. A Federal Office of Statistics Economic Survey, according to Mohammed (1995:83) shows that the average incomes by socio-profession groups in the urban areas range between N148.00 and N3,930.00 per month while in the rural areas the range was between N94.00 and N1,034.00 per month. Since incomes are low, social services are minimal and standards of living are generally low, diet is poor, health is poor and so productivity is low when compared to the urban areas. It is obvious that such a situation of vicious cycle of poverty in the rural sector of the economy presents a complex and multi-dimensional set of development problems to planners and/or policy-makers who have the task of bringing about rural development.

One of the previous rural development programmes is the Area Development Programme aimed at transforming the socio-economic environment and the productive capacity of whole regions. Relevant to this study are River Basin Development Schemes and Integrated Agricultural Rural Development Programmes.

The River Basin Development Scheme involved massive construction programme of dams, irrigation works, drainage channels, feeder roads, power and other infrastructures; as well as large-scale mechanized clearing and cultivation of land and large-scale evacuation and resettlement of peasants. Support services that were offered were, agro-service centres, seed multiplication, stock improvement in addition to special projects like grazing reserves, afforestation schemes, and artisanal fisheries.

According to Sokoto Agricultural and Rural Development Authority (SARDA), Western Zone Progress report 1986, page I, out of the 538 kilometres, feeder roads planned for the western zone, by December, 1986 a total of 493 kilometres of feeder roads have been constructed. Particular emphasis was given to the provision of access to agriculturally important Fadama areas of the zone.

On the other hand, Agricultural Development Programme had the basic strategy of concentrating resources in a few key activities in direct support of small farm production. It was tied to a basic services package consisting of three components: extension, input delivery services and rural roads. This project failed as a result of lack of foresight and anticipation.

There is also this National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) and the Green Revolution. They are previous programmes designed to enhance the living standard of rural dwellers but they failed following operational problems like excessive input dependence, insufficient adaptive research, erratic funding, plus the complex and multifunctional nature of the operations created problems of coordination within the system and with other agencies.

As a result of these problems, the rural sector in Nigeria has over the years suffered neglect in terms of government's provision of social amenities, economic opportunities and physical infrastructures. This neglect is attributed to various implementation strategies adopted by the policy formulators. The undue emphasis accorded increased Gross National Product (GNP) by the various strategies coupled with their inherent urban bias continuously favoured the relatively small urban sector. The well-being of the rural majority, on the contrary deteriorated further thus entrenching the undesirable dichotomy between the rural and urban sectors of the economy.

a. Provision of Economic and Social infrastructures: DFRRI developed rural access roads, Government surveys indicated that 60,000 km of rural feeder roads were either constructed or rehabilitated under the first phase which was completed in 1987. In 1990, a total of 30,724.34 km of rural feeder roads were completed and accepted as having met the required specifications under the second phase of the project. Another 55.576.24 km of rural roads were constructed in 1991. However, in 1992, a total of 85,592.82 km of rural feeder roads were completed, inspected and accepted.

Another important infrastructure on which DFRRI resources were concentrated according to Ekpo and Olaniyi in Obeta and Okide (2010), was rural electrification. The first phase took off in 1987. Two model villages in each local government area of the country were selected for the project so as to serve as reference points in rural development in Nigeria. By 1989, 142 electricity projects were completed in phase I in 1990, 114 communities in 11 states were provided with electricity. In 1991, 325 communities were supplied with electricity, and another 506 communities benefited

in 1992. Also on water supply 4,000 wells/boreholes were reported to have been sunk by 1989. Another 1,291,11,310 and 18,680 wells and boreholes were sunk in 1990, 1991 and 1992 respectively.

b. Production of Agricultural Inputs: With report to DFRRI's production activities, two special programmes for cultivating 50 million fruit trees and producing improved seeds or mass distribution were launched in 1986. In 1987, various research institutes were engaged in the Directorate's seeds multiplication and distribution, livestock, horticulture and agriculture development programmes. The end of 1987 marked a total production of 3,624 tonnes of assorted breeder/foundation seeds of arable crops, 4,598 million oil palm seedlings, and 294,072 tonnes of groundnut seeds were distributed to farmers. Aqua culture also increased through the production of 2,666 million fish fingerlings. In 1991, the achievements improved some 4,033,13 tonnes of improved seeds. 17,112 million fingerlings and 14,529 tonnes of fodder seeds were produced and distributed to farmers. In 1992, 846,224 fruit seedlings for horticulture, 5,726.13 tonnes of arable crops seeds and 3.466 million fingerlings were produced and distributed to farmers.

c. Development and Dissemination of Improved Technology: Another important project embarked upon by DFRRI was its collaboration with Nigerian Building and Road Research Institute (NBRRI), Project Development Agency (PRODA) and Bida Polytechnic on research into the ways of using local raw materials, and improving local technology for constructing houses in rural areas, the rural housing unit of the Directorate trained about 250 technical personnel from all the states on how to use locally available raw materials and technology for building house. In 1992, a total of 8,024 technical extension workers were engaged in

various communities to boost rural housing. The number of rural farmers who were able to farm in motorized vehicles increased by 236 percent of rural population between 1986 and 1993, and 31.4% of the rural dwellers had access to new health facilities built during the period.

d. Mobilization for Mass Participation: DFRRI encouraged and assisted in the formulation of Community Development Associations (CDAs) and Community Banks (which metamorphosed into microfinance banks). The CDAs became very significant in rural development. They identified projects, assisted DFRRI, and mobilized the rural dwellers to partake in modernizing the domain. Between 1989 and 1991, a total of 8,108 CDAs were registered. Also community banks were established in almost all the local government areas of Nigeria.

The above suggested tremendous quantitative achievements by DFRRI in all areas of the objectives.

- However, the quality of amenities provided posed a lot of problems, which reduced the impact of the Directorate on the rural communities. Furthermore, considering that there are more than 97,000 rural communities in Nigeria, these achievements were far from being adequate to solve the problems of rural life in Nigeria. Some other problems which DFRRI faced was its inability to find a modus Vivendi with other executive agencies of government and ineffective grassroots monitoring and follow up systems due to the large extent of the areas serviced, and the paucity of staff and logistic support, Ekpo and Olaniyi in Obeta and Okide (2010).

This study attempts to examine Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure. The problem that forms the basis of this research therefore is to find out whether

DFRRI succeeded in its rural development mission as claimed above. In addition, the study as well find out if DFRRI mobilized rural dwellers for mass participation in the programme and proffer possible suggestions for better performance of future rural development programme in Nigeria.

1.3 Research Questions

1. Did military authoritative approach to policy implementation inform DFRRI success?
2. Was DFRRI able to provide potable water for the rural dwellers?
3. Was DFRRI able to construct feeder/access roads for easy transportation of goods and farming in the rural areas?
4. Did DFRRI provide electricity to some rural communities to improve the living standard of rural dwellers?
5. Did DFRRI mobilize rural dwellers for mass participation in the programme?

1.4 Statement of Research Objectives:

a) To examine whether or not military authoritative approach to policy implementation informed DFRRI success

b) To ascertain if DFRRI provided portable water for rural dwellers.

c) To examine whether DFRRI constructed feeder/access roads for easy transportation and farming in the rural areas.

d) To ascertain whether DFRRI provided electricity to some rural communities to improve their living standard.

e) To examine whether DFRRI mobilized rural dwellers for mass participation in the programme.

1.5 Assumptions

1. Military authoritative approach to policy implementation informed the success of DFRRI.
2. DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved electricity supply in the rural areas of the selected states.
3. DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved water supply in the rural areas of the selected states.
4. DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved the construction of feeder roads in the rural areas of the selected states.

1.6 Justification of the Study

There existed a gap in knowledge in the area of rural development where research works and reports had expressed disappointments on the impact of past efforts at developing rural areas in Nigeria. According to Osuntogun and Olufokumbi (1996) Operation Feed the Nation that was launched in 1976 designed to inculcate in Nigerians the culture of agricultural occupation mostly in the rural areas rather than solving food problems created opportunities for the ruling class to acquire wealth.

River Basin Development Authority (RBDA) first launched in 1982 and expanded in 1983 was another rural development programme that was to make the nation self-sufficient in food production and to uplift the socio-economic standards of the rural dwellers. Contrarily, in 1981 report of the Federal Republic of Nigeria says that government provided in Third National Development Plan huge sum of money to develop the main rivers of the country to benefit agriculture and rural development. However, the activities of the authority show that development was not met as it was not paramount in their objectives.

Also there was Green Revolution launched in 1980 to boost food production in a bid to provide food to every Nigerian. This programme failed as then government embarked on massive importation of food, Godden (2013).

However, research works on DFRRI are of the view that DFRRI is unique from the past efforts at rural development considering its wide scope involvement in rural development which is a new dimension. According to Ukwu in Akeredolu-Ale (1993:83) the creation of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures in 1986 signaled the most deliberate commitment to rural development by any Nigerian government to date.

The budget speech in which the establishment of DFRRI was announced stressed, as might have expected, its mandate of infrastructure development, especially the development of a national network of rural feeder roads in order to reinforce the campaign for food and agricultural sufficiency. But it broke new ground by the articulating to effectively promote framework for grassroots social mobilization and for a virile programme of development monitoring and performance evaluation. Since its establishment the Directorate has continued to refine and elaborate its objectives, policies and programmes, in the process assuming dominant role in the national management of rural development, Ukwu in Akeredolu-Ale (1993:83).

Although past policies had emphasized rural development, what was unique about the DFRRI was its emphasis on rural infrastructure as the key to forestalling future development challenges (especially in relation to population growth) and DFRRI is the most expedient course of action Nigeria could take in its development history, Godden (2013). However, DFRRI can play useful role in the coordination and integration process. It is in this light that one sympathizes with the motives of the new

frequently made suggestions that DFRRI should be enshrined in the new constitution to ensure its continued existence after 1992, Ukwu in Akeredeolu-Ale (1998:88).

Therefore, the justification of this study is to fill a gap in knowledge in the area of rural development. More so, the fact that in the history of efforts at rural development, there had been no programme that had the same approach with DFRRI, and DFRRI did not suffer the same problems with the failed past programmes.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

1.7.1 Scope

This research focused on Rural Development Programme under Military Regime: A Study of Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI). The Rural Development objective of DFRRI was to cover the whole states of the Federation. Sequel to some human problems, the researcher could not study all the states of the Federation hence judgemental sampling was used to select Imo, Plateau and Zamfara States.

It was believed that conclusions made from the sampled states could be generalized on other states since the implementation of DFRRI policy was based on same objectives across the Federation. The period under study was from 1986-1993.

1.7.2 Limitation

The limitation of the study was the inability of the researcher to send the questionnaire by e-mail in other to get quicker responses from the respondents. This was as a result of non access to computer by majority of the respondents and poor network.

Some respondents could not understand the questionnaires only with the help of the Research Assistants earlier briefed by the researcher on the research objectives.

In addition, some data required for this research that were to be gotten from the establishments concerned were classified as confidential and top secret, and were not made readily available to the researcher. Though such data were later released to the researcher (by officers who wouldn't want their identities disclosed) after the researcher assured them that the study meant no harm to the society and their identities were not to be made known.

1.8 Definition of Major Concepts

1.81 Military Authority

Military Authority is defined as the right to direct soldiers to do certain things. Military Authority is the legitimate power of leader to direct soldiers or to take action within the scope of their position. Military authority begins with the constitution, which divides it between Congress and the President. The President as commander in Chief, commands the armed forces, including the army. The authority from the commander-in-Chief extends through the chain of command with the assistance of the NCO support channel, to the squad, sector or team leader who then directs and supervises the actions of individual soldiers.

For the purpose of this research, military authority is referred to the military regime of General Ibrahim B. Babangida (1985-1993) considered to have authorities that passed from the top through series of executive positions or military ranks each accountable to the one directly superior.

1.8.2 Electricity Supply

This is an electronic device that supplies electric power to an electrical load. The primary function of electricity supply is to convert one form of electrical energy to another. Some electricity supplies are discrete, stand alone devices, whereas others are

built into larger devices along with their loads. Every electricity supply must obtain the energy it supplies to its load, as well as any energy it consumes while performing that task, from and energy source. Depending on its design, a power supply may obtain energy from various types of energy sources, including electrical energy transmission systems, energy storage devices such as batteries and fuel cells, electro-mechanical systems such as generators and alternators, solar power converters, or another power supply.

All power supplies have a power input which connects to the energy source and a power output that connects to the loads. In many power input and output consist of electrical connectors. Some power supplies have other types of inputs and outputs as well for functions such as external monitoring and control.

For the purpose of this study, electricity supply is the provision of rural electricity by DFRRI to rural areas of the selected states that improved or enhanced their living standards.

1.8.3 Water Supply

Water supply is the provision of water by public utilities, commercial organizations, community endeavours or by individuals usually via a system of pumps and pipes, irrigations covered separately. Water supply is also a system of engineered hydrologic and hydralyic components which provide water supply. A water supply system includes:

a. A drainage basin,
b. A raw water collection point (above or below ground) where the water accumulates, such as a lake, a river, or ground water from an underground aquifer.

Raw water may be transferred using uncovered ground-level aqueducts, covered tunnels or underground water pipes to water purification facilities.

c. Water purification facilities: Treated water is transferred using water pipes (usually underground).
d. Water storage facilities such as reservoirs, water tanks, or water towers. Smaller water systems may store the water in cisterns or pressure vessels. Tall buildings may also need to store water locally in pressure vessels in order for the water to reach the upper floors.
e. Additional water pressurizing components such as pumping stations may need to be situated at the outlet of underground or above ground reservoirs or cisterns (if gravity flow is impractical).
f. A pipe network for distribution of water to the consumers (which may be private houses or industrial, commercial or institution establishments) and other usage points (such as fire hydrants).
g. Connections to the sewers (underground ditches in some developing countries) are generally found downstream of the water consumers, but the sewer system is considered to be a separate system, rather than part of the water supply system. For the purpose of this study, water supply is considered as the provision of water in the rural areas by DFRRI to enhance the living standards of the rural dwellers.

1.8.4 Rural Feeder Roads

Rural Feeder roads are defined as those roads with less than 50 vehicles a day, ranging from engineered roads and bridges that link to towns and villages, to motor able tracks, trails and paths. Rural roads in general serve dispersed households and populations often with an agricultural or natural resources based land use structure.

Rur4al road networks also tend to be large and complex, they are often 2 to 3 times the size of the main and provincial networks, but carry only 10% of the traffic in vehicle kilometers, foot, animal and bicycle paths also feed into rural roads, in turn rural roads link markets and peri-urban hubs.

For the purpose of this work, rural feeder roads are such roads constructed by DFRRI in the rural areas to enhance the living standards of the rural dwellers.

1.8.5 Development

Oni and Bello (1987-7) are of the view that, the term development means different things to different people. Some people take it to mean change, others take it as advancement, improvement and progress. In its ethnocentric sense, some scholars regard it as modernization or westernization. To them, Oni and Bello (op cit) therefore, development is a continuous process of positive change in the quality and span of life of a person or group of persons.

It is argued that the rural dwellers account for a large proportion of the national population of which the overwhelming majority are engaged in agricultural allied occupations and consist of about two-thirds of the poorest income categories of the country as a whole. This notwithstanding, they are the source of primary products (agricultural produce and minerals) for export to the industrialized countries and of foodstuffs and labour for national urban and industrial centres.

According to E.O. Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995-73), the commission set up by the United Nations under William Brandt had this to say: Development never will be and never can be, defined to universal satisfaction. It refers, broadly speaking, to desirable social and economic progress, and people will always have different views about what is desirable. Certainly, development must mean improvement in living conditions for

which economic growth and industrialization are essential. But if there is no attention to the quality of growth and to social change one cannot speak of development.

There are four basic areas in which development is of paramount importance. These are: Food, habitat or shelter, health and education. As regards food, thought should not be directed to quantity alone but also to quality. Habitat embraces a wide variety of human conditions. It includes the environment in which the members of a society can enhance and expand their enjoyments in society and fully utilize the material, spiritual and emotion components of their lives. In this concept of habitat must also be included the provision of an effective system of public transport of good drinkable water, and of sanitation and so on. Thus, development is defined for the purpose of this study as a positive change in the overall life pattern of rural dwellers without any serious impact on their cultural values.

1.8.6 Rural Development

In his work, Rural Development as a National Objective, E.O. Akeredolu-Ale (1993-32) argues that there are two conceptions of rural development, namely: (i) a remedial conception, and (ii) a more dynamic or even transformational conception. By the remedial conception, rural development is seen as an initiative whose primary objective is the alleviation of poverty. In this case, rural development is aimed at identifiable target groups among the rural poor, most notably small cultivators, subsistence farmers, tenants and the landless, who are presumed to make up the bulk of the rural poor.

In terms of programme orientation under this remedial conception, rural development typically entails interventions aimed at improved productivity, increased

employment/incomes acceptable levels of food, shelter, education, health and housing.

By the more dynamic/transformational conception, rural development is perceived as a more comprehensive concern, both in terms of target and in terms of its programmes orientation. In this regard, rural development is aimed at the entire rural sector, even if it entails constituent programmes aimed at particular target groups. In this case, rural development is intended to correct not just the poverty of selected target groups but rural poverty as a structural phenomenon. In addition, it aims at rural transformation and also at the transformation of the relationships between the rural and urban sectors of the economy. Typically, rural development, under this conception, entails interventions undertaken sequentially or simultaneously, in a wide range of sectors such as construction and provision of infrastructures (e.g., roads, irrigation, works, water, electricity); the introduction and dissemination of new production technologies; the strengthening of existing rural development institutions and organizations and the creation of new types; the promotion of improvements in economic production and productivity, and in rural education, health and housing.

The Rural Development Department, Federal Ministry of Agriculture, Water Resources and Rural Development in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1993-48) says one conception of rural development refers to strategies designed to improve the economic and social life of Nigeria in the rural communities by extending the benefits of development to the poor and, indeed, the small-scale and subsistent farmers and other rural dwellers. It added that, over 75% of Nigeria's Population live in rural areas, and because of the large proportion, the success of development programmes would depend on the importance attached to these rural populace and, indeed, on

efforts being made towards solving their economic and social problems. It is in the light of this that a substantial percentage of our national budgetary allocations has been devoted to agriculture and rural development programmes.

The Rural Development Department, Federal Ministry of Agriculture, Water Resources and Rural Development, further said that the objectives of rural development include, among others, increased employment and higher incomes, as well as the attainment of minimum acceptable levels of nutrition, shelter, education and health for the target groups. It concluded by saying, our programmes for rural development, therefore, hinge on raising the output of agriculture and rural industries, improving health, education, expansion of communication and improvement of housing.

Taken together, available definitions emphasis the central point that rural development is about promoting the welfare and productivity of rural communities, about the scope and quality of participation of rural people in that process, and about the structure, organization, operations and interactions and facilities which make this possible. For the purpose of this work, rural development is seen as a combine effort by both the government and the rural dwellers to improve the living standard of the rural populace.

1.8.7 Programme

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English define programme as a list of proformers of things to be performed at concert, a theater, a sport competition etc. On the other hand, the New Lexicon Websters Dictionary of English Language define programme as a plan or sequence of things to be done, a research programme, a list of items planned to constitute a concert, dramatic performance, athletic meeting etc.

Koinyan in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1993:68) is of the view that programme package must take into consideration the view that development is a package comprising socio-political, socio-cultural and socio-economic aspects, each with its own intricate requirements. He added that programmes must be designed for mass grassroots participation. That all official paternalistic tendencies be curbed and the people orientated to act decisively as equal partners in the entire development process. For the purpose of this study programme is seen as a formulated policy ready for execution/implementation.

1.8.8 Implementation

Implementation is the action taken to bring to reality formulated policies. It is the act of turning formulated policies into projects. Implementation is said to have taken place when led down policies are executed. Ladipo (1983-151) is of the view that implementation is the encompassment of those actions by public and private individuals or groups that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in prior policy decisions. That is to say, that implementation is the activities that are carried out in the light of established policies or programmes.

For the purpose of this work, the concept implementation is seen as the act of trying to realize the goals and objectives of a policy by putting the programme to rest or by executing the programmes. That is, the attainment of set goals of the policy.

1.9 Organization of the Study

This work is divided into six chapters.

The first chapter which is the introduction contains background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, statement of research objectives,

assumptions to be tested, Justification of the Study, scope and limitation of the study, definition of major concepts and organization of the study.

The second chapter (Chapter two) is concerned with review of the related literature, the concept of rural development, the military and rural development, past efforts at rural development, Energy and rural development, communities based Agricultural and rural development programme, the National Poverty Eradication Progreamme (NAPEP), Family Economic Advancement Programme, rural communities and rural development, strategies of rural development, strategies, the management strategy, mobilization strategy, strategy of development 'From Below', problem affecting rural development in Nigeria, theoretical framework, Growth with equity model, modernization model and principles of management.

Chapter three is concerned with population size, sampling method and size, instrument of data collection, method of data analysis and presentation, and variables.

Chapter four is concerned with History and Development of DFRRI, the meaning and dimensions of rural development, Historical development of rural development in Nigeria, Colonial era rural development programmes in Nigeria, Post Colonial era rural development programmes in Nigeria, DFRRI's objectives, DFRRI's implementation strategies, DFRRI's Administrative structure, and the Programmes implemented/executed by DFRRI.

Chapter five of this study is concerned with data analysis, test of assumptions, in line with the assumptions stated in Chapter One, major findings and discussion-reports on DFRRI achievements in Imo, Plateau and Zamfara states; DFRRI's achievements in rural electrification programme in Imo State; DFRRI's achievements in rural roads

and electricity in Plateau state; DFRRI's achievements in rural electrification project-Phase I in Plateau State; DFRRI's achievements in rural electrification project-Phase II in Plateau State; DFRRI's achievements in rural feeder roads in Zamfara State (then part of Sokoto State); and problems faced by the programme, DFRRI.

Lastly, chapter six is concerned with summary, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Literature Review

This chapter is concerned with overview and definition of terms of Rural Development, and theoretical framework.

2.1.2 The Concept of Rural Development

According to Okafor (1990), rural development is concerned with the improvement of living standards of the low-income population living in rural areas on a self-sustaining basis through transforming the socio-spatial structures of their productive activities. It could be distinguished from agricultural development, which it entails and transcends. In essence, rural development implies a broad based reorganizations and mobilization of rural masses so as to enhance their capability to cope effectively, with the daily tasks of their lives and with changes consequent upon this.

According to Okoh in Okafor (1990:10), rural development is the development of rural occupations (by increasing agricultural productivity as well as improving other rural occupations thereby increasing per capita income) and developing the rural person by increasing his level of awareness through education ensuring his full participation in his affairs and improving his standard of living by the provision of the basic social amenities (viz; health service, good water supply, housing, roads) etc.

Uma in Ayobola (1991:17), argues that Rural Development is the improvement of living standards of the mass of the low income population (majority) residing in rural areas. This process of development is more to be on self sustaining basis.

In this definition three important features are reflected, and these are;

i. The improvement of the living standard of the target groups which means that the allocation and mobilization of resources should be within the reach of the people.

ii. There has to be mass participation in the programme.

iii. There has to be development of appropriate skills to make sustenance possible.

Rural development is taken as a strategy by the World Bank (1975) in Ayobola (1991:17) designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people – the rural poor. It involves extending the benefits of development to the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas. This group includes small scale farmers, tenants and the landless. This is mainly to increase productivity and employment much that the levels of food, shelter, education and health are improved.

According to Akeredolu-Ale (1993:32), there are two conceptions of rural development, namely: (i) a remedial conception, and (ii) a more dynamic or even transformational conception. By the remedial conception, rural development is seen as an initiative whose primary objective is the alleviation of poverty. In this case, rural development is arrived at identifiable target groups among the rural poor, most notably small cultivators, subsistence farmers, tenants and the landless, who are presumed to make up the bulk of the rural poor. Infact, this was the World Bank's own official working definition; the definition on which the bank's assistance to developing countries was based throughout the 1970s. In terms of programme orientation under this remedial conception, rural development typically entails interventions aimed at improve productivity, increased employment/incomes for the target groups, as well as minimum acceptable levels of food, shelter, education, health and housing.

By the more dynamic/transformational conception, rural development is perceived, according to Akeredolu Ale (1993:32), as a more comprehensive concern, both in terms of its target and in terms of its programme orientation. In this regard, rural development is aimed at the entire rural sector, even if it entails consistent programmes aimed at particular target groups. In this case, rural development is intended to correct not just the poverty of selected target groups but rural poverty as a structural phenomenon. In addition, it aims at rural and urban sectors of the economy. Typically, in the words of Akeredolu–Ale (1993:32), rural development under this conception, entails interventions undertaken sequentially or simultaneously, in a wide range of sectors such as construction and provision of infrastructures (e.g. roads, irrigation works, water, electricity); the introduction and dissemination of new production technologies; the strengthening of existing rural development institutions and organizations and the creation of new types; the promotion of improvements in economic production and productivity and in rural education, health and housing.

One conception of rural development refers to strategies designed to improve the economic and social life of Nigeria in the rural communities by extending the benefits of development to the poor and indeed, the small- scale and subsistent farmers and other rural dwellers. The objective of rural development include among others, increased employment and higher incomes, as well as the attainment of minimum acceptable levels of nutrition, shelter, education and health for the target groups. Programmes for rural development, therefore, hinge on raising the output of agriculture and rural industries, improving health, education, expansion of communication and improvement of housing.

Nwosu in Amucheazi (1980:89) explained that there has been heavy dependence of the urban on the rural sectors. The growth of the national economy and its inherent strength are bound to be dependent to a very large extent on government performance in the rural sectors, this calls for the need for greater attention to the rural development. The Nigerian economy, he continued has once performed well under agricultural sector (structure) which is predominantly peasant, which means that their involvement and integration in the development process is important. Important as the urban sector plays a more important role. Rural urban investment imbalance in terms of social infrastructures viz, water supply, good road network and electricity are some of the consequences of rural low productivity of available labour and low standard.

According to Williams (1985:39), to overcome reluctance to enhance an integrated approach will be far better than a piece approach. He added that there are problems of rural development in Nigeria due to the fact that incentives are low, bottle necks exist in transport and distribution, farmers depends on archaic primitive tools and equipment. Improved seeds, fertilizers, chemicals, credits and other necessities are in short supply. The land tenure system which does not allow for individual land ownership equally constitutes a problem to in adequate health facilities, hard sanitary condition, water supply, better feeding, electricity, good roads passable at all times etc.

Williams (1985:39) concludes by saying that better physical structure of this sort will substantially increase rural income but the people themselves are too poor to provide them, the government must assume substantial responsibility.

Olatunbosun (1985:6) in his studies, "Nigerians neglected rural majorities emphasized on the need to make maximum use of the potentials in the rural area sector to increase rural income through efficient utilization of the underemployed and surplus resources

in the rural sector. Further, he commented on the relative decline in the real income of the rural people, and suggested that there is the urgent need to denote earnings from export crops to the development of the rural sector. The key to rural welfare in his words, lies in the rural development of good crops, rural non-farm activities and rapid expansion of manufacturers. To him, to reduce rural exodus to the cities and the growth of unemployment and underemployment in the rural sector the people should be given higher prices for their commodities in the world market and modern infrastructures be provided to them. He added that government should make maximum use of the potentials in the rural areas and concluded by saying that efficiency in rural sector and non-farm sectors could generate resources which if used through appropriate policies could help improve the level of living in the rural sector.

Biobaku (1966:1) in his own contribution had the following to say about the concept of rural development. The plight of our rural areas seems to be gathering momentum. Our cities are filled with unemployed youths. Many cannot find decent shelter in a general situation of escalating and exorbitant rents. The congestion in our cities is making life in them increasingly unbearable. Our urban centers are indeed staggering under the weight of their problems. There can be no doubt about this, while there are visible signs of increasing affluence and physical improvement in our cities the travelers in our rural area is struck by the never changing face of our rural scene. Development however you define it seems to be leaving our rural population behind…. It will be fool –hardy and short sighted to believe that urban living can be decent while poverty, squalor and death rains unchecked in the rural areas. It is my fervent hope and desire that out of your deliberation will emerge a new emphasis and direction that will lead to the much needed transformation of life in our rural areas.

Despite the importance of policy formulation and implementation in military regimes, Smith in Dalhatu (1989:33) argues that not much is known about these processes and little effort has been made to identify its basic features. This neglect could be attributed to the fact that most policy makers assume that once a policy has been formulated it will be implemented and the desired result of the policy will be near or same as those expected by the policy.

However, the argument of the study is that judging from the various rural development programmes like water supply, good road network and electricity that have been initiated by military regimes in Nigeria, it is incorrect to insist that the rural areas were neglected. Rather the Rural Development Programmes have not been implemented to meet their stated aims and objectives perhaps for the following two reasons; a) the beneficiaries have not been involved in various stages of the programmes because the policy makers assume that once a policy is formulated, the execution process is not a hard nut to crack. b) The wrong assumption about the execution process and the non involvement of the beneficiaries result to wrong implementation of the sound policies which in turn lead to making difficult the standard of living of the Beneficiaries instead of enhancing it. That is to say, the problem of Rural Development in Nigeria has been approached wrongly as virtually all the rural development policies including DFRRI had sound objectives but wrong execution. So, not until rural development programmes in Nigeria are given the right approach - involving the beneficiaries in all stages of the programmes, subsequent rural development policies will continue to fail.

Emphatically, rural development programme of the military regime as seen above was a loudable programme which could have bettered the living standards of the rural people if it was properly implemented. Implementation itself refers to the activities that

are carried out in the light of established policies or programmes, Ladipo in Dalhatu (1989-17). As a concept in the planning process, implementation is one of the most important aspects. The activities of the implementation stage are less well known than those of the formulation stage as it has for long been considered to be outside the planners' conceptual spheres; that explains why implementation has only recently attracted the attention and comments of planners and writers on development planning particularly in the developing countries. Implementation may be defined as the stage in the planning process where policies and policy measures approved during the formulation stage are further specified, or are adjusted as a result of recommendations made during the stage, or include special complementary activities for reaching occasional specific problems that may arise, De Las Casas in Dalhatu (1989:17).

Adequate attention has not been given to the concept, for example pressman and Wildavisky's (1963:16) point to the lack of sufficient or adequate attention to the concept. That in spite of the relevance of the subject matter in Public Administration too little attention has been paid to it.

The concept is important as it assures the articulation of the planning process, thereby bringing control and relevance to the formulation and control stages. Without implementation the whole plan remains a document, a theory which remains meaningless until it is practicalised by being implemented. The concept is also controversial because its meaning, its relevance and processes have not been agreed upon by the numerous writers and development planners. For example while Ladipo in Dalhatu (op cit) is of the opinion that the implementation stage being the most important has been taken for granted, Waterson also in Dalhatu (op cit) is of the

opinion that the formulation stage is most important because of its controversial nature several but often conflicting uses of the concept can be found in the existing literature.

2.1.3 Past Efforts at Rural Development

Past efforts at Rural Development were disjointed, as they were left completely to the initiatives of individual communities and state governments. According to Olowu in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:234), even when the Federal government launched programmes which relate to rural development, they operated more like public relations programmes, (as was the Green Revolution Programme and Operation Feed the Nation) and usually without an effective coordination with state or local activities. The result, as several researchers have found, was one of growing inter-regional state/local/community and intra-regional/state/local/community differences in the availability of rural infrastructures and people's access to them. In contrast to urban areas which were receiving about 70% of Federal and State expenditure programmes, the rural areas were sadly neglected. Mabogunje in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:234), in his original study on Nigeria's urban centres classified over half of Nigeria's cities as "parasitic" on the rural community.

Adalemo in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995: 134), in a wide range review of various rural development programmes, in Nigeria before DFRRI, makes the following assertions: Quite a number of the rural development strategies and programmes initiated by the Federal Government did not meet the objectives for which they were established… The Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) and Green Revolution (GR) programmes… were used for more political propaganda without any direct benefit to the rural dwellers… As for the existing rural development strategies and programmes, the RBDAs have failed to meet their set objectives. The high capital and technology orientation of

RBDAs was beyond the capability and comprehension of the ordinary farmers; therefore only few benefited from their activities. The Integrated Rural Development Projects (IRDPs) or Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs) were established to achieve agricultural development and rural development simultaneously. However, they only succeeded in raising agricultural productivity and rural incomes, which did not necessarily translate into the improvement of rural living standards in their areas of implementation.

Ekong in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995: 234) in his close studies of state-based rural development programmes in respect of the Western State, Idode, in respect of Bendel State also indicate a lack-lustre performance. Why we may ask, did the previous attempts at IRD fail so dismally? Usually, spokesmen for the various agencies connected with rural development programmes often complain of poor inputs, that is, finance, manpower, technology. However, Olowu in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:234) focused on two important factors: the conceptual problems associated with organizing IRD and the constitutional/political problems.

Conceptually, IRD is problematic for governments. In the first instance, government work is organized in sectors. Budgets are allocated and audited on the basis of allocation to sectoral ministries – health, education, agriculture, transportation, communications, energy etc. Each of these sectoral ministries ought to be involved in IRD but they can be coordinated only at the highest levels (the level of the President or Governor at the state level) not in the field where their work is so closely interrelated.

According to Olowu (op cit), this first problem is complicated by another, the constitutional/political problems. Constitutionally, governmental responsibilities are divided among two (before 1979, now three) levels of government. In periods of

military rule, state governments are not capable of asserting their independence as they can under civilian governments. Governments, especially of different political persuasions, may perceive the allocation of responsibilities as one that is mutually exclusive among governments rather than providing opportunities for collaboration. Another problem, also of a constitutional nature, is the tendency for responsibilities for the critical services (rural roads, basic healthcare, primary and adult education, social welfare, etc) to be allocated to the level of government with least access to financial (and consequently manpower) resources.

For instance, in the words of Olowu in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:234), until the entry of DFRRI into the rural infrastructure scene, rural roads were the responsibility of local governments. These roads were 60% of all the road network in the country, yet local governments had access even at the best of times to just about 10.12% of the nation's public revenues. Similarly, local authorities bore responsibilities for primary education, the nation's maternities and health clinics, etc, which constituted the largest share of the nation's health infrastructures. As soon as the Nigerian Federal Government realized this fact as well as the advantage of local governments for initiating or implementing a range of programmes related to IRD, a major national effort was made in 1976 to revitalize the nation's local government system. Great premium was placed on the local governments for the development of infrastructures at the community level in the 1976 nationwide reform of local government. According to Musa in in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:234), these reforms would mean nothing if they did not include the certainty that as from now, every stratum of the Nigerian Society would benefit from the continued prosperity of the country, through the availability of amenities, indeed, necessities such as electricity, adequate water supply, improved transportation, health facilities and so on.

Even though some significant gains were recorded as a result of these initiatives, state government officials ensured that the resources meant for local governments were either diverted to other uses or hampered these institutions in other ways as they exercised their right/responsibility for overseeing local governments in their various states. Thus, in the words of Olowu (op cit) this brings us to a very important political problem in respect of IRD – the perception of the various classes. The higher class members of the government (politicians and administrators) either live and work in the urban areas where all other articulate sections of the population also reside. They perceive their immediate constituencies as the urban communities. According to Chambers in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995-236), more than this is that their perception of the problem of development, and in particular, rural development is so different from the perception of the rural people. How to persuade government officials to genuinely promote IRD is thus one of the most frustrating challenges of the programme. Idode in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:234) had advanced five additional reasons why public sector bureaucracies are inappropriate agents of rural development: Firstly, since centralization is generally emphasized, the best men aspire to be at the centre where decision-making powers reside and higher salaries and better conditions of service are obtained. Second, bureaucracy appears to be inadequately structured for encouraging and supporting innovative peasant farming patterns. Third, problems arise from the bureaucracy's distorted information flow pattern. Peasant farmers are not consulted on major decisions in such areas as pricing and marketing. Fourth, Idode in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:234) says the bureaucracy is rarely effective in gaining the support and cooperation of "the people" for its programmes… One would expect the cooperation of the local people for the achievement of administrative goals which are indeed to be in their interest to be natural process. But the bureaucracy seems to inculcate in the people

a feeling that what the administration is trying to do is peculiarly the work of the bureaucracy: people develop a dependency syndrome. Fifth, the exclusion of the "clients" from the organization structure leads to the view that failure is caused by the failings of the clients themselves. The blame is usually chiefly accredited to the actions of the clients – they are too traditional, too lazy, drink too much or some such rationale is given.

The role of the military regime of General Ibrahim Babangida, in rural development cannot be properly assessed without first understanding the role of implementation in programmes since programme like DFRRI, that was engaged by the military regime under study passed the process of formulation and implementation. In fact implementation is the primary responsibility of public administration. Because of its pervasiveness, the process of finding an effective implementation strategy is indeed complex and intractable exercise.

It can be rightly argued that for the implementation of a rural development programme to be a success a host of complementary set of organizations and institutions together with efficiently designed administrative procedures are necessary. As International Labour Organization [ILD] study on rural development argues that the most serious obstacle to rural development in the developing countries is the prime constraints of structural economic, technological and organizational in adequacies. These organizational in adequacies play a more critical role in retarding the pace of development. Correctly designed organization and administrative procedures are therefore, pre-requisites for an effective implementation strategy and an effective implementation strategy is a key factor which is capable of bringing about speedy socio-economic and rural transformation.

Walinsky in Dalhatu (1989:20) maintained that the experience of many developing countries in development planning proved that plan implementation is far more difficult and important than the actual plan formulation, that there has been more planning in the developing countries today than development. That is to say, that planning without execution is a meaningless and even frustrating exercise. As well, planning followed by faulty inept wasteful or chaotic execution can end in failure.

Walinsky in Dalhatu (1989:21) insisted that implementation is central to planning without which there can be no development. His work particularly his conclusion is considered very instructive by this work. Indeed, the experience of Nigeria in the military regime of General Ibrahim Babangida, in planning for development, particularly in rural areas attests to the fact that actually more programmes were designed while the expected development was achieved. This is because most of the programmes like DFFRI (1986 – 1993), were properly implemented.

In trying to formulate and implement DFFRI, the military regime of 1985-1993 did not put into consideration the socio-economic and institutional environment of the location of the programme – Thus, the inability of the military regime of General Ibrahim B. Babangida to properly implement its programmes of development especially DFRRI can be attributed to so many reasons. Umalele [1975:28] argues that most programmes particularly rural development programmes failed because of lack of consideration of the socio-economic and institutional environment in which the programmes were to be implemented, in her words, most of the programmes were rarely designed with a view to anticipate the effects of socio-political factors in response to intervention.

According to Nkom in Dalhatu (1989:22), the problem of lack of implementation of rural development programme is largely due to inadequacy in the context direction of

government policy in Nigeria and the fact that the content of public policy in this country are not necessarily determined by the collective will of all majorities. The reason for the failure of most government development programmes to improve the living standards of the masses especially in the rural areas has been attributed to lack of executive capacity to implement an otherwise sound egalitarian development policy. Poor understanding of the class structure of the Society and class position of those involved in the Policy making also contribute to the failure of government programmes to achieve what they are not able to achieve.

However, going by the rural development programme of General Ibrahim B. Babangida, it might be an error to conclude that the rural populace did not benefit from them. But it may be correct to say that the rural development programme of the military regime under study was not properly implemented to achieve its stated goals and objectives for two reasons:

a] The implementation stage were taken for granted as it has always been assumed that once a policy is properly formulated, the implementation process will automatically follow.

b] The problem of rural under-development has been approached wrongly as virtually all the programmes meant to bring about rural development were subsumed under agriculture. This approach is guided by the consideration that majority of Nigerians live in the rural areas and their main occupation is agriculture. Hence, by developing the agricultural sector, rural development will automatically be achieved.

Thus according to the Third National Development Plan [1975-1989:292], the main objectives of rural development are to increase rural economy and generally enhance

the quality of life in the rural areas, and since agriculture constitutes the predominant form of activity in the rural areas, the most important instruments for achieving these objectives are the agricultural programmes of both the Federal and State Governments. This notwithstanding, rural development programme of the military regime (1985-1993) does not concern only agriculture but deliberate fashioning out of policies designed to satisfy the social needs of the generality of the people in the society like provision of good road network, electricity, water supply and the like.

2.1.4 Energy and Rural Development

The energy commissioning of Nigeria had its rural development programmes characterized by the construction, installation and in some cases, commissioning of pilot and demonstration projects that were aimed at both improving the standard of living of the rural populace through the utilization and popularization of our abundant renewable energy resources as well as providing the desired conducive environment which is absolutely necessary for rapid rural industrialization in particular and national industrial development in general through the provision of employment opportunities and the much-desired technical skills which could ultimately lead to the drastic reduction in the growing social problem of rural-urban migration.

With growing interest in the development and application of renewable energy resources, the commission has undertook research and development activities in various aspects of renewable energy utilization. So far, a number of the technologies have since been shown to be feasible and ready for adoption, especially in the rural areas of Nigeria – PDF11print11 E-mail.

2.1.5 Community Based Agricultural and Rural Development Programme (CBARDP)

Nigeria covers 924,000 kms inhabited by about 140 million people composed of about 250 ethnic groups with diverse languages and religious faiths. The largest ethnic groups are the Hausa-Fulani in the north, the Igbo in the south-east and the Yoruba in the south-west. The federation currently comprises the Federal Capital Territory, 36 states and 774 local governments.

Declining basic indicators of poverty and experience from previous project and field observation indicate that poverty in rural areas in the northern region of Nigeria is becoming more widely entrenched. Traditional approaches to poverty alleviation through rural development, including projects focusing on a small area, cannot have a major impact on poverty as they cannot mobilize sufficient external resources to assist a large target group: do not ensure a high proportion of funds to reach the target groups; do not make use of existing government programmes and resources; and have been set up outside government process so that even successful models have difficulty to continue operating once project funding is finished.

To address this current decline, a new approach is required to mobilize and redirect existing resources at community, local and state government levels to improve the effectiveness of rural development in northern Nigeria. It is against this background that the community based agriculture and rural development using the community driven development approach was formulated. The programme is designed for eight northern states of Jigawa Kano, Katsina, Sokoto and Zamfara in the northwest and Borno and Yobe in the northeast but implemented in seven states with Kano abstaining from taking the loan but adopting the approach.

The development goals is to improve the livelihoods and living conditions of rural communities with emphasis on women and other vulnerable groups, focusing on the eight northern states.

This goal is pursued by using federal, state and local government community and IFAD resources in at least 207 village areas across the seven participating states to:

- empower poor rural women and men to critically analyse their constraints opportunities and support requirements, and to increasingly effectively manage their own development.
- support institutionalization of the policies and processes, create awareness and develop the capacity of public and private sector service providers to become more relevant and responsive to the rural poor women and men, and,
- support balanced sustainable social, agricultural and economic development interventions for appropriate village women's and men's groups and individual. These are based on the guiding principles adopted during the programme planning phase.

The programme had two main components:

- Awareness and capacity building
- Community development, Kankia (2010)

2.1.6 The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPE)

This programme was introduced in 2001 to focus on the provision of strategies for the eradication of absolute poverty in Nigeria. NAPEP was complemented by the National Poverty Eradication Council which was to coordinate the poverty reduction related activities of all the relevant ministries. It had the mandate to ensure that wide

range of activities are centrally planned, coordinated and complement one another so that the objectives of policy continuity and sustainability are achieved.

Upon consideration of the Joda Panel and Abdullahi committee's Report, fourteen (14) core poverty alleviation ministries were identifies as follows:

i. Agriculture and development
ii. Education
iii. Water resources
iv. Industry
v. Power and steel
vi. Employment, labour and productivity
vii. Women Affairs and Development
viii. Health
ix. Works and Housing
x. Environment
xi. Solid Minerals Development
xii. Science and technology
xiii. Finance, and National Planning Commission

Similarly, 37 core poverty alleviation institutions, agencies and programmes were identified. The poverty reduction related activities of the relevant institutions under NAPEP were classified into four, namely:

- Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) which deals with capacity acquisition, mandatory attachment, productivity improvement, credit delivery, technology development and enterprise promotion.

- Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme (RIDS) which deals with the provision of potable and irrigation water, transport (rural and urban) rural energy and power support.
- Social Welfare Service Scheme (SWESS) which deals with special education, primary health care services establishment and maintenance of recreational centres, public awareness facilities, youth and students hostel development, environmental protection facilities, food security provisions, micro and macro credits delivery, rural telecommunications facilities, provision of mass transit, and maintenance culture.
- National Resource Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS) deals with the harnessing of the agricultural, water, solid mineral resources, conservation of land and space (beaches, reclaimed land etc) particularly for the convenient and effective utilization by small scale operators and the immediate community.

In effect, the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) is social welfare services and natural resource development, provision of social welfare services and conservation. In the attempt to overcome the inadequacies of provisions of programmes, the NAPEP Blue print has the following features:

It adopts the participation bottom-up approach in programme implementation and monitoring.

It provides for rational framework which lays emphasis on approach and sustainable institutional arrangement.

It provides for pro-active and affirmative actions and deliberate targeted women, youths, farmers and the disabled.

It provides for technology acquisition and development particularly for agriculture and industry.

It provides for capacity building for existing skill acquisition and training centres.

It provides for the provision of agricultural and industrial extension services to rural areas.

It provides for institutional development for market of a agricultural products and

It provides for integrated schemes for youth empowerment, development of infrastructure, provision of social welfare services and exploitation of natural resources.

What becomes obvious from a careful considerations of the foregoing and their elaboration in the blueprint is much of the problems that attended previous efforts have been sharply focused upon following their identification. Nonetheless the statement of good intentions and enunciation of measures towards poverty eradication are only necessary but not sufficient conditions.

This programme assured Nigerians that unemployment, poor educational system, lack of portable water, poor power generation and supply, poor health care system, inadequate infrastructures and insecurity of lives and properties were to be things of the past. With the promises, after about nine years of implementation, it appeared that the situation was not better than what it was before the advent of democracy in 1999. NAPEP existed for many years, after such number of years of existence, like other past programmes, there was no legislative backing for the programme.

Most of the reasons responsible for failure of the programme include, frequent policy changes and inconsistent implementation, inadequate funding, management and governance problems, too broad in scope, lack of involvement of beneficiaries in the

formulation and implementation of programmes, corruption and greed of those who implemented them, Agbi – National Assembly.

2.1.7 Family Economic Advancement Programme

Family Economic Advancement Programme is an empowerment programme (established in 1997, act No 11) designed specifically for local based producers of goods and services and potential entrepreneurs, it had its objectives as follows:

a. Provide basic working capital requirements for small scale farming and traditional processes as loans to the low income groups.
b. Provide facility for the procurement of machinery and equipment for Nigerians to set up and run cottage and small scale industries.
c. Encourage the design and manufacture of appropriate plants, machinery and equipments.
d. Create employment opportunities at ward levels through the establishment of enterprises and pilot projects in the wards.
e. Encourage producers of goods and services at world levels to farm cooperative societies.
f. Utilize all available local resources for the benefit of Nigerians through improved production, preservation etc.
g. Provide an enabling environment for private sector and United Nations Agencies participation in the programme (Act, 1999 No 43).

The Family Economic Advancement programme gulped over N7 billion but disbursed N33 billion as loans to about 21,000 cooperative societies.

This programme failed to alleviate the economic hardship of Nigerians to such an extent that the First Lady herself – Mrs. Maryam Abacha thoroughly berated the board of FEAP for non-performance.

2.1.8 Rural Communities and Rural Development

The question is, what is the target social unit of rural development policy? According to Mabogunje in Akeredolu-Ale [1995:48] rural development entails going from the known to the unknown, using what we have to secure what we want. To be effective, policy must be clear as to the target at which policy instruments are directed. One of the reasons for the diffused and unimpressive impact of rural development policies in Nigeria to date is governmental indifference to recognizing and strengthening the relevant social unit for promoting rural development. This unit according to Mabogunje in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:48) is found in all cultures; Civilizations and countries, and its existence among the numerous ethnic groups who make up Nigeria is indisputable. At present, for want of a better generic name, it is generally referred as "community"

In short, then, to appreciate the background to DFRRI's strategy, the questions to ask are: How have Nigerian rural communities fared over the last three decades of planned development in the country? How much voice or control have they had in determination of those development issues that closely affect their economic and social well-being? How far has government succeeded in facilitating their access to the critical factors of production which they need to enhance the quality of their lives? How far is the income gap between them and their urban compatriots being bridged? How attractive and congenial has government made the environment within which they are expected to live and have their beings? How much have they been assisted to

reduce the climate of poverty, disease and ignorance that pervades their living and working conditions?

The above questions must have been answered by the time this segment of the study is concluded. Adamu and Abdullahi [1988:12] are of the view that rural Nigerians everywhere have been sitting with anger. Not only were the road not being constructed, but even in the rare instance where DFRRI had attempted a mock presence, it has only made age-old rural pathways impassable. Without roads, trucks, motorcycles and even bicycles, rural Nigerians everywhere are being forced back to trekking, head portage and the beast of burden.

On the other hand, Longman [1987:7], argues that Gana claimed that about 30,000 kilometers of rural roads were constructed. Disputing this claim, Vongman [1987:7] says, I want to make it clear that not a single kilometer has been constructed in Keffi Local Government Council of Plateau State. Keffi Local Government is still faced with a lot of problems of bad roads, collapsed bridges, and others. Yet Gana (op cit) has mentioned Plateau State among State where DFRRI has recorded very good achievements".

Road problem apart, there was also a very serious water problem in Keffi which affects workers, students and peasants. Keffi community cannot boast of a good water supply, or a dam to serve the purpose. But Gana in Longman (1987:7) says "Phase I of the Rural Water sanitation programme was designed to provide potable water to 250 communities in each state" I understand that Phase I of this programme came to an end on 30th June, 1987. Then when will Keffi community get its own portable water: Today; Tomorrow?

According to Jibrin [1987:7], we in Moroa River area of Keffi Local Government of Plateau State have never seen any rural feeder road constructed in our domain, which is about fifty kilometers distance from the Federal road at Ungwan Takwa to Moroa River, not to talk of wells in the area.

Still on the impact of DFRRI on the lives of people, Vongman [1987:7] says, it is true that DFRRI has tried much in some areas, but we in Plateau State were yet to see or feel the power of DFRRI. This is true especially in Singha Chiefdom, which has no motor road, no single well, no primary school, no health clinic and many others. Sometimes in February, 1987, some people came and told our Mai Ungwa [Word Head] that they were from Lagos to dig bore hole for us. They Marked trees and wrote numbers on them in Magai Village. These took them three days before they went away. Later somebody came and started digging a Local Well instead of a borehole. He too, left, after digging the well 10 meters deep with no water in it. If these people were sent by, DFRRI to our District, they have done nothing for us and so we were yet to receive the blessing of DFRRI, particularly in Singha chiefdom of Gani District of Lantang Local Government Council in Plateau State.

According to Haruna, [1987:20], on the claims of (op cit) Gana on the successes recorded by DFRRI nationwide, he could not locate the 1,020kms of roads DFRRI claim to have constructed, that all the roads rehabilitated by DFRRI were state or Federal roads that the few bulldozed and graded roads were then full pot –holes, that the few roads opened up are neither compacted not lateritic; that DFRRI had only busied itself patching pot-holes on Federal and State roads, and that DFRRI had not been working according to specifications.

However, an article on Newswatch March, 28, [1988:14] titled, DFRRI: FACTS and FICTION is of the view that Facts about the true performance of the directorate were subjects of claims and counter claims virtually in all parts of the country. But from the story of the first two years of the Directorate it was the story of hopes raised and dazed in many instances. And it was paradoxically, a story of achievements of rekindling hopes in the rural populace.

Another article in New Nigerian, Thursday November 12, 1987 argues that, DFRRI in co-operation with the other state Government agencies, particularly the rural works Service Unit of the state Ministry of Local Government and Community Development, had actually done wonders in the areas of rural road construction within the past one year. So far, had constructed about 3,000 kilometers of roads, most of the roads which were hitherto impenetrable and inaccessible have now been re-opened, graded and converted to all season roads. A large number of rural communities which were formerly kept out of events around the world now have access to urban or semi-urban settlements and can fully partake in the development process. More importantly, they can now evaluate their farm produce through these roads to centers of commerce. This, continued the report, no doubt elevates their standard of living as more income is derived from sale of agricultural produce.

On provision of portable water to rural communities, Koinyan (op cit) in Abiodun and Tonni [1992;442] said, DFRRI has surpassed the national target of 5,000 instead, 5421 communities were provided with portable water. One innovation recorded by DFRRI in its rural water scheme was the use of solar energy power pumps to supplement the usual hand operated pumps. In phase One of the rural electrification programme, Koinyan in Abiodun and Toni [1992:442] said that DFRRI executed 196

projects instead of the national target of 170 projects. These 196 projects actually served 305 communities as opposed to the projected 227 communities. From the above analyses of claims and counter-claims, it can be vividly observed that the impact of DFRRI on rural people's lives is that of higher crises than the expected development that was geared towards the enhancement of their lives. Imagine a situation where DFRRI claim that it has constructed rural roads and it was later countered by the rural people that the road was to serve. In the areas of impact therefore, the activities of DFRRI were more or less those of exaggeration than reality going by claims and counter-claims by DFRRI and benefiting communities .

In the light of the above, it might be a conclusive statement that most of the rural development programmes have fail shot of their objectives as a result of setback in formulation and, especially implementation which involves control, participation, delegation of authority etc. In addition, the rural development programmes so far were mostly designed to serve the agricultural needs of the rural populace in accordance with the provision of national development plans. The plans have forgotten that despite agricultural development at the rural areas, there are other rural development programmes that could enhance the living standard of the rural populace through the provision of electricity, pipe burn water and good roads in the rural areas. Thus emphases of this study shifted a little from looking at agricultural development in the rural areas to assessing the involvement and implementation/execution strategies of the military regime concerning some other aspects of rural development in Nigeria.

2.2 Strategies of Rural Development

According to Idode in Jonah, B. (2006:16) by rural development, we mean the structuring of the economy in order to satisfy the material needs and aspirations of the

rural masses and to promote individual and collective incentives to participate in the process of development. This involves a host of multi-sectoral activities, including the improvements of agriculture, the promotion of rural industries, the creation of the requisite infrastructure and social overheads, as well as the establishment of appropriate decentralized structures in order to allow mass participation.

Gana in Jonah, B. (2006:17) argues that rural development strategies are basic needs oriented, labour intensive, small-scale, regional resource based, rural-centred and argue for the use of appropriate rather than highest technology.

According to Gana in Jonah, B. (2006:17), the following are the five key elements without which a rural development strategy will not achieve all the socio-economic objectives of rural development:

a. More equitable distribution of land and other rural resources in order to give greater opportunity the poorest segments of the rural population to meet their basic needs.
b. Organisation of rural producers and rural economic activities on a cooperative of communal basis in order to ensure a fuller utilization of available physical and human resources.
c. Diversification of the rural economy to provide additional employment opportunities and to improve the quality of rural life.
d. An active policy of social development through the expansion of social services and the improvement of social relations.
e. Political and administrative capacity for the planning and implementation of community development strategy to provide linkages with the rest of the economy and protect the legitimate interest of the rural population.

2.2.1 Strategies

For the purpose of this study, attention is paid to two strategies of development:

i. The management strategy, and

ii. The mobilization strategy

2.2.2 The Management Strategy

According to Igbozurike M, in Johah B. (2006:18) the management strategy of rural development could be found in pre-colonial class societies and in the structure of rural-urban relations where an urban class or bureaucrats, soldiers and court officials of city-states and empires lorded it over the surrounding areas. The management strategy refers therefore to what-for want of a better term-may be called the development of underdevelopment, it refers to the process of development from above (as opposed to development from below). In the development from above the peasant is made to produce under terms imposed upon him sby political forces in the feudal mode of production and/or by market and political forces in the capitalist mode of production.

2.2.3 The Mobilization Strategy

The concept of mobilization describes more or less or socio-political process of harnessing all available human and natural resources of a people (nation) towards the achievement of a clearly defined social and economic objective or set of objectives.

It is a strategy of development at the grassroots. Except in times of war socio-economic objectives of all national mobilization strategies are aimed at liquidating

mass poverty. The concept of liquidating mass poverty operationalized, breaks down into the provision of food, clothing and shelter.

The acceptance of food, shelter and clothing and their provision as the objectives is problematic, particularly in neo colonial class society where the rich few form either a ruling class, whose ideas and caprices rule the society or a pressure group capable of influencing political decision and if necessary of sabotaging the realization of any set of socio-economic objective which is against their own interests, Igbozurike in Jonah B. (2006:18).

2.2.4 The Strategy of Development "From Below"

The concept of development from below in the words of Gana in Jonah B. (2006:19) is a recent strategy for spatial reorganization and organizing of resources for regional and rural development. Development from below considers development to be based, primarily on maximum mobilization of each areas natural, human and institutional resources the primary objectives being the satisfaction of the basic needs of the inhabitants of the area. Development from below strategies are basic needs oriented labour intensive, small-scale, regional resource-based rural centred and the use of appropriate technology.

The central objectives of development from below is the full transformation of a regions natural resources and human skills for a people centred development process.

The concept stresses development programmes which are deeply rooted in indigenous resources and the creative capacities of the people. Development tasks are to be done by the people themselves, with their collective energies and organizational talents rather than relying on foreign and external capital, Gana in Jonah B. (2006:19).

The essential elements of a development 'from below' strategy are:

a. A fundamental restructuring of rural space and settlements so as to improve the physical and social access of producers to vital national resources.
b. The creation of new rural structures that would facilitate substantial reinvestment of financial resources in the rural sector.
c. Mobilization of farmers through effective organizational framework that would promote mass involvement in the development process.
d. Provision of appropriate technology for raising rural productivity and efficient utilization of resources.
e. Egalitarian provision of basic needs, such as food, housing, water supply, health services etc.
f. Creation of efficient transport networks for rural and urban areas.
g. Agricultural transformation to ensure mass food production and supply of industrial raw material.
h. Creation of progressive social system in rural areas.
i. Integrated rural development which incorporates not only services.

Provision but rural industrialization, Gana in Jonah, B. (2006:20).

According to Mckenzie in Jonah, B. (2006:21), development 'from below' is labelled neo-populist by Gove (1984) and Utopian by Forbes (1984) precisely because, although it may draw from political economy in considering, for example, the spatial transfer of surplus or the empowerment through participation of the poorest members of society, it fails to constructs a coherent analysis which connect the different actors or interest groups (class, gender, ethnic group) within society. It is a theory of policing rather than of explanation. The contractions that may evolve in term of state-

local relation of classes or genders are ignored. Indeed, the interests of individuals or groups are frequently equated with territorial interest, an 'ecological fallacy'. It does not follow that development measured at a certain level of aggregation denotes benefits to all members of that group.

In Nigeria the following aspects of the development from below strategy can be emphasized:

i. Spatial reorganization
ii. Mobilization of farmers
iii. Community development
iv. Agricultural extension
v. Rural industrialization

i. Spatial reorganization

According to Gana in Jonah B. (2006:22) this would involve a profound and comprehensive re-arrangement of villages, farmlands, transport networks, rural markets, farm services centres, schools and health facilities.

The aim should be to enhance accessibility and to establish an effective mechanism for mobilizing peasant producers. The idea here is a deliberate effort to come up with a new rural order which would promote productive and rapid transformation of rural economies.

Rural land use planning would make up an essential feature of this task of spatial re-organisation. Rural land use plans, the resource endowments of each area should be identified and strategies for their proper utilization.

ii. Mobilization of Farmers

How to effectively mobilize the farmers for genuine rural development may be the most crucial task in a development from not be possible without the mobilization of farmers. Rural development can be brought into being through the mobilized power of a conscious, disciplines and self-reliant peasantry. This can be achieved through organizing farmers in groups not too small to be effective in undertaking major public works needed for their own use and not too large to make interaction and decision making remote. The farmers in each of organized group must be made to deeply appreciate the immense value of collective cooperation in the process of rural development. The operations of each group of farmers should emphasize not only higher agricultural productivity but also intense solidarity of its members in social economic and political relations.

Cooperativization of production and marketing activities should be encouraged through the formation of committed reliable and progressive local leadership. The creation of a new leadership is important since the traditional leadership may view the new organizational units as means for consolidating their political and economic power. Democratic process should be implored in formulating the new leadership so as to ensure that the masses of the farmers participates effectively in decision making at the local level, Gana in Jonah B. (2006:23).

iii. Community Development

This term gained prominence during the colonial era when social welfare officers tried, by stimulating self-help, improve healthy nutrition and general community welfare. Its major objectives in the words of Williams in Jonah, B. (2006:23) was

social development and most of its activities were directed towards social problems, such as juvenile delinquencies. Later, the objective changed from social to community development. The opponents of the system fault it as useless and rebellious, primarily advanced by officials who merely wish to create an empire for themselves. This views is unfortunate. Properly understood, this strategy can have a vital role to play. The term connotes that people themselves exert their own efforts in collaboration with governmental authorities to improve their economy and social conditions, clearly there is value in the feature that this system has of integrating the community into the life of the nation and allowing the latter to contribute to national progress.

This strategy is not concerned with anyone aspect of life such as agriculture, business, health or education but with total community life and needs it involves all the members of the community and requires their fullest participation in decision making and implementation. Here, people work together to shape their own future.

According to Williams in Jonah B. (2006:24), the following are the essential elements in the complex process:

a. It encourages analysis of local problems with a view to improving the level of living and as much as possible on the initiative of those concerned.
b. It provides technical and other services in ways which encouraged initiative and cooperation.
c. It considers the local community, the fundamental unit for planning and development and
d. It diffuses the decision making power by emphasizing the principle that those affected by community change should themselves select and manage such change.

iv. Agricultural Extension

According to Williams in Jonah B. (2006:25), agricultural extension means increasing agricultural productivity. In many developing countries, the cheapest resources in the rural areas are land and men. It is best to concentrate these where they will pay off best, in an efficient and effective agricultural extension service.

This strategy Williams in Jonah B. (2006:25) says deals directly with the improvement of agriculture. Its main objective is to help farmers increase production by persuading them to adopt improved technical practices; it develops skills, knowledge and attitudes favourable to change in the farmers and their families. It makes them to benefit from research and technology, and its ultimate aim is to raise their efficiency and thus achieve a higher level of living. Demonstration plots and models farms are always used as teaching devices. The emphasis is on techniques of production; only secondarily is attention given to economic and logistical matters like farm management and planning use of credit, procurement and marketing of inputs.

Although the strategy focuses purely on agricultural production obviously. It is indirectly concerned with other problems such as health, motivation cooperatives and the like. Therefore it cooperates, with other agencies directly responsible for promoting and facilitating these other services, which are not exclusively agriculture.

v. Rural Industrialization

According to Ake in Jonah (2006:26), if one assimilates the concept of development into the idea of rural development the traditional dichotomy between agriculture and industrialization will tend to disappear. Industrialization will then begin as rural industrialization, a part of the process of rural development.

A policy of rural industrialization integrated with agricultural development as part of a strategy of rural development is promoted. Industrialization is pursued mainly on the basis of self-reliance, fuel primarily from the incomes of farmers and the multiplier effect of the linkages between farm and non farm activities.

Tremendously opportunities exist for improving agricultural technology to the advantage of both agriculture and industrialization. For centuries Nigerian agriculture has been dominated by hoes, wooden paddles for threshing and matches. New simple technologies such as seeders, ox-ploxs, and inter-row weeders are now used.

There are forward linkages like food processing, brewing and packaging. The untapped potential is immense. There are large opportunities in consumer-demand linkages. Rises in farm incomes increase the demand for consumer foods such as shoes, clothes, furniture, building materials and new kinds of foods. This demand promotes industrialization and the availability of the consumer goods provides a strong incentive for increased agricultural productivity.

As these forward, backward and consumer demand linkages expand, there will be greater integration of rural and urban development. Urban development will at first be primarily about the informal sector which employs the vast majority of urban dwellers in Nigeria.

As with rural industrialization, the concern is to enable people to be more productive in what they are doing to encourage movement to higher technological levels. The levels of education and technology are the same. Rural industries and the informal sector will be producing similar goods roughly similar conditions for the same markets.

This approach to industrialization will markedly improve the possibility of development. It proceeds in daily response to the practical needs of the people, it is endogenous and self-reliant; it is not driven by foreign loans, foreign technology, foreign investment or foreign trade; it relies on an assured and gradually expanding domestic market; it obliterates the dichotomy between industry and agriculture, urban and rural and promotes internal balance and auto centrism.

2.3 Problems Affecting Rural Development in Nigeria

Rural development will continue to be a basic problem to developing countries including Nigeria because of the following reasons:

1. Lack of Nation Philosophical Base

   The Nigerian rural development strategy lacked a philosophical, ideological and holistic foundation. It had a body (policy makers and functionaries) but had no soul to give it life and sense of direction. The usual practice has been to be in office propounding slogans and manifestations for the people below. That was instrumental to the failure of some rural development scheme, Operation Feed the Nation, Green Revolution, etc. A philosophical base is typified by an internal motivating and compelling force or commitment stemming from faith and love of the sapiens in the rural sector and determination to work for their upliftment. Without philosophical super structure, rural development remains an echo of good intentions.

2. Lack of integrated Pilot Demonstration

   Before 1976, there was segmented or uncoordinated rural development where it is assumed that new programmes in one community will have ripple effects on other communities and institutions. According to Oyaide in Obeta and Okide (2010),

the first Department of Rural Development at federal level was established in 1976 to mobilize people, initiate local projects with local leadership promote agriculture, rural development and community projects by 1978, the government was not so sure of what to do with rural development. As such, the term "rural development" was added to the Federal Ministry of Agriculture, and later replaced with Water Resources. All these occur because it is not certain about the place of rural development in the overall development strategy.

3. Lack of Cohesive Identity

   Failures have occurred in rural development as people regard the social and cultural aspects of development as subordinate to economic development. Any innovation that does not guarantee the cohesiveness of the group and respect for their history and beliefs have little hope of survival.

4. Defective Local Economics

   People tend to treat rural development projects as charity of welfare packages. Few people are interested in the costing, evaluating and ensuring that targets are met. As such, production is emphasized in rural development policy while marketing and market outlets are neglected. For e.g. Kano state government in 1983 poured in a huge amount of money (about N895 million) into Kano River Basin Agricultural Project with little or nothing to show for them on the ground.

5. Lack of Core Project Leadership

   The failure of project leadership to come from within to sustain the development projects has led to the falling apart of things in rural development. The tendency has been to rely on official leadership for carrying out rural projects. These official leaders are not prepared to motivate and sustain the enthusiasm of conflicts, depressions and unfulfilled expectations.

6. Inadequate Community Participation

   The top bottom approach to rural development employed by government functionaries whip up enthusiasm among the people, as there is absence of total community participation. Due to the approach adopted, people evoke unwilling response as they are regarded as being incapable of standing on their feet.

7. Lack of Grassroots Planning

   There is little or no attempt to allow the rural communities to identify the problem and goal, analyse their own needs, and commit themselves to the achievement of targets. Local experts, chiefs and community leaders were taken for granted in deciding what projects to embark upon, and where and how to execute them. The planners do not consult even the interest groups, the cooperatives and professional organizations.

8. Inability to Optimize Local Resources

   Due to Nigeria's penchant for foreign-made goods, local resources are neglected for the imported goods. Local talents and manpower as well as other resources are also ignored, thereby loosing the opportunity of evolving appropriate technology.

9. Neglect of Community Structural Approach

   The pattern in Rural Development Programmes in Nigeria centres on the imposition of imported schemes whether or not they are related to the cultural and sociological life of the people. Examples of these areas of neglect include: appointing new leaders where such leaders already exist, not making use of youth organizations, age grades, and women's group in the initiation and implementation of programmes, Obetta and Okide (2010).

2.4 Military Approach to Policy or Programme Implementation

In most developing nations, there is a disruption of the civil-military equilibrium, usually assumed in Liberal democracies. In liberal tradition, the military is insulated from politics and subject to civilian control. In several developing countries like Nigeria, however the military has not only intervened in the political process and overthrown the constitutional civilian authority, but it also often has established its superiority authoritatively over elected politicians.

It can be shown that the period of major policy implementation and major structural changes in the body of politic of Nigeria since independence have occurred under military regime. For instance, the creation of twelve states in 1967, the creation of states in 1983, the creation of thirty one states in 1990, the creation of the present seven hundred and seventy four local government structure, the establishment of land reform and the creation of the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja etc. These were authoritatively done and they have had far reaching consequences on the economic, social and cultural development of the nations. These developments are indicators of the precise and authoritative approach of the military to policy, implementation.

Also the periods of massive infrastructural development and the expansion of social services in Nigeria since independent have occurred under military administrations. For instance, the decades of 1970's was that for the construction of roads, airports, dams, stadia etc, Oricha (2005).

In a military regime in Nigeria, the state government consisted of the military governors, a cabinet, the civil service and the state judiciary all answerable to the military head at the Federal level. In most policy matters and in matters of finance, the

state governments had to abide by Federal directives and were subject to coordination by National Council of States.

The military regimes had powers over and above the states and local governments. The states only implement decisions and policies of Federal military government. This is because the state military governors or military administrators were appointed by the Federal military government. The Federal military government expanded its control over the economy to the extent that in 1990 the states depended on it for up to 90 percent of their revenues. The Federal government also took over such matters as education, which formerly belonged to the states. Because the state governors were appointed on military assignment by the military president, the states had little autonomy, except in deciding how to implement policies/programme formulated by the Federal government, Oricha (2005).

However, according to Bello (2010:27), there are various approaches to rural development and government adopted these approaches in their efforts at developing rural areas. These approaches include:

a. The matching grant approach
b. The directive approach
c. The non-directive approach
d. A midway approach
e. The integrated approach and
f. The term approach.

Bello (2010:28) explained each of the approaches as follows:

1. The Matching Grant Approach:

In Nigeria, the matching grant approach takes the form of self help projects by various communities within the purview of their local authorities, with the state or local government providing technical, financial and managerial assistance wherever such projects are initiated. The communities implement part of the project, while government provides matching grant in money or kind to supplement the effort of the communities.

2. The Directive Approach:

   Under this approach, an Agency, Federal, State and Local Government, Department of philanthropic organization, tries to identify the needs of a community, plans for action, organizes and provides resources to meet the needs, what people do is to participate actively or passively in the project execution through direct labour. The main objective of this approach is that with time, the people would be able to learn and be in position to do things by themselves. It is also assumed that the provision of their needs by the external body would stimulate them to take action in future for other needs. This approach is mostly associated with military administrations.

3. The Non-Directive Approach:

   Under this approach, the people of a community is expected to be able to identify their felt needs, plan for action, provide their resources and execute projects or provide services all on their own. All that they may require from an external body or technical advice is planning and designing some projects like building, bridges and roads.

4. The Midway Approach:

   Under this approach, an agent or agents of an external body in collaboration with the people of a community try to identify plan and organize. This approach has

helped backwards, primitive and preliterate communities to develop. This approach is equally an embodiment of the military administration.

5. Integrated Approach:

   The integrated approach is more of a concept rather than an approach to rural development. It is used on the recognition that community development mean much more than construction of roads, schools, dispensaries, bridges, provision of water, supply of electricity etc through self help. The approach calls for comprehensive rural development programme which include provisions for improvement of economic, social and cultural conditions of the people. The approach also calls for the effective coordination and management of all material and human resources, available in the various groups, to achieve total development. The point therefore is the integration of the economic with the socio-cultural aspect of rural development. This approach is also found in military administration's ways of implementing policies/programmes.

6. The Team Approach:

   This approach relied on the cultivation and sustenance of team spirit among various bodies who are jointly involved in a project requires all the agencies involved or are interested in a project to find out about themselves and avoid any unhealthy rivalries – disagreement or duplication of work. This approach is best applied where the military is involved in rural development.

2.5 History of Military Administration in Nigeria

The first military administration in Nigeria began on January 15, 1966, when Major Chukwuma Nzeogwu and a group of other Majors overthrew the Prime Minister, Alh. Sir Abubakar Tafawa Balewa in a coup d'etat known as a coup of the five Majors.

Major General Aguiyi-Ironsi was made the Head of Federal Military Government of Nigeria. Major General Aguiyi-Ironsi was then overthrown and murdered in coup in July of the same year and was succeeded by General Yakubu Gowon, who held power until 1975 when he was overthrown in a coup by a group of soldiers that wanted to return civilian rule to Nigeria. Brigadier (later General) Murtala Mohammed who succeeded General Yakubu Gowon was not directly involved in the coup, but did help round up soldiers for the coup. In 1976, General Murtala Mohammed was assassinated in a violent coup, and General Olusegun Obasanjo succeeded General Murtala Mohammed then.

After a brief civilian regime headed by Alh. Shehu Shagari from 1979-1983, Alh. Shehu Shagari's government was overthrown in a bloodless coup in 1983, and he was succeeded by General Mohammed Buhari who was appointed chairman of the Supreme Military Council of Nigeria and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces. General Mohammed Buhari was overthrown in 1985 by General Ibrahim Babangida who appointed himself with the position of President of the Armed Forces Ruling Council of Nigeria and promised return of democracy to Nigeria when he seized power but could not fulfill that. General Babangida ruled Nigeria until 1993 when he handed power to the interim head of state Chief Ernest Shonekan. Ernest Shonekan was overthrown by General Sani Abacha (in 1993) who appointed himself chairman of the Provisional Ruling Council of Nigeria. After General Sani Abacha's death in 1998, General Abdulsalam Abubakar took over and ruled until 1999 when Nigeria returned to its present democratic system of government.

In his contribution to the history of military administration in Nigeria, Oyovbaire in Akeredolu-Ale (1993:26) says that apart from deep ethnic cleavages, other factors that

contributed to the collapse of the first Republic include various constitutional and political crises. In the process, the Federal Government was unable to hold together and thus provided the welcome opportunity for the military coup d'etat of January 1966. The country returned to democratic rule in 1979 after a prolonged period of 13 years of military rule. Politics of the second Republic (1979-83) – Nigeria's second democratic experiment – was essentially in many ways a rehearse of that of the first Republic.

The Murtala/Obasanjo Administration had introduced certain fundamental structural innovations in the political system. It had replaced the parliamentary system of government inherited from the colonial administration with an executive presidential structure at the Federal level and their equivalent at the state level.

According to Oyovbaire in Akeredolu-Ale (1993:26) the major defect of the Murtala/Obasanjo Administration's transition to civil rule programme was that no deliberate attempt was made to generate desirable social conduct to compliment its structural and institutional reforms. As the vices of the first Republic accentuated to an unprecedented level, the second Republic was toppled and replaced by a military administration in December, 1993. The 1993 coup d'etat was in many respects redemptive. The irresponsible attitude of the political class to governance had threatened the interest and objectives of the Nigerian state. The state was, indeed, on the brink of paralysis when the military intervened. The initial overriding objective of the successor Buhari Military Administration was to find solutions to the foregoing political and economic problems. The regime also sought to redress the general social malaise and indiscipline that beset the nation. The nation was very receptive to the regime and hailed the coup as timely and patriotic. But the Administration squandered

the overwhelming goodwill in no time because of the despotic, ruthless and arrogant style of governance.

The timely intervention of General Ibrahim Babangida saved our society from a potential civil unrest and disintegration. The coup d'etat of August 27, 1987 ushered in a period of reviewed commitment to the national interest, national survival, freedom and development. The first major pre-occupation of Babangida Administration was, the restoration of the battered confidence of the people in themselves and in the government. Chief Ernest Shonekan succeeded General Babangida and his government was overthrown by General Sani Abacha whose administration was characterized by dictatorship. General Sani Abacha died on the throne and the leadership of Nigeria fell on General Abdulsalam Abubakar in 1998.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

This study will lack a fundamental research tool if reference is not made to the theories or models which form the basic framework of investigation. This is necessary considering the fact that a policy decision is regarded as good only when the theory that informs its formulation is relevant, as wrong theories of a research or study certainly lead to having wrong diagnosis of the problem.

One cannot study any problem systematically and orderly without using a conceptual framework. The conceptual framework guides the study, it is just like a builder building with a plan. Models or conceptual framework or theoretical framework is a simplified version of reality. It is a caricature of reality. All the features of reality is represented in model. Any time one is engaged in a study of nature, that is, in analysis of our theoretical framework, whether for practical purposes or for academic interest we must use conceptual models or theories. The use of models or theories is to enable

studies to be orderly and systematically, it enable studies to have focuses and they simplify the process involved, Abubakar (2010:33).

Having looked at the relevance of theories or models in a research/study, it is pertinent to state and present three models and their substances out of which, one is chosen. The three theories are: Growth with equity model by Rosset and Starr, Principles of Management by Henri Fayol and Bureaucratic Theory by Max Weber.

2.6.1 Growth with Equity Model

According to Rosset and Starr in Ojo (Op cit), public policy under this theory tends to reflect some elements of both the orthodox and radical theory that believed to either produce economic growth, emphasize egalitarian values or assume that benefits of growth are extended to those who need them mostly. Therefore, the central element to the growth with equity theory is the idea that public policy must reflect new efforts directed toward improving rural areas of developing nations where majority still live and where the poor are concentrated.

Some of the most outstanding components or features of this theory are:

1. Employment and income distribution: Employment is considered central to the eradication of poverty in developing nations. As a strategy for reducing poverty, public policy shall be directed at the expansion of employment opportunities and making employment conditions conducive to meeting socio-economic needs of the employee. The direct link between poverty, income, distribution inequality, employment policy and development of society has been a major concern in development studies.

2. Capital investment policy: Here investment policy under the growth with equity theory shift emphasis away from large-scale centralized projects which benefits mainly urban areas and high technology agrolized industries to projects which benefits the poor who live mostly in the remote areas.
3. Basic Needs: Development policy under the growth with equity emphasizes on the provision of basic needs to the masses. These are to include affordable food, safe water, clothing, shelter, medical services, education and transpiration. This is based on the primary obligation of the government to provide basic needs to the people.
4. Agricultural Development: Hunger is known to be a source of considered human suffering in most third world countries or nations. The strategy places a high premium on policies of agricultural development as an important requirement for the overall development of society. According to Seitz (1998:2), development can be judged by its success in reducing human suffering. Nations should therefore make attempt to reduce human problems or suffering especially hunger. Analysts are of the view that this theory works well in Taiwan, South Korea and Srilanka with impressive result, Ojo (Op cit).

This theory of growth with equity can equally yield positive results in Africa, Nigeria in particular. But the theory did not take into consideration the poor economic endowment of many countries in Asia, Africa and South America which is making them difficult to formulate policies that would be able to attain the stated objectives of this approach.

In addition, population explosion of the developing countries has been a problem that tends to work against the workability of the theory. There is fast increase in the

population of most of the third world countries that have overstretched many basic facilities and resources are limited.

2.6.2 Principles of Management

Management principles are guidelines for the decisions and actions of managers. They were derived through observation and analysis of events faced in actual practice. The principles of management are the essential understanding factors that form the foundations of successful management. According to Henri Fayol (1841-1925), in his book General and Industrial Management, these can be used to initiate and aid the processes of change, organization, decision making, skill management and the overall view of the management function.

Henri Fayol's 14 Principles of Management are of the view that:

1. Division of work: Work should be divided among individuals and groups to ensure that effort and attention are focused on special portions of the task. Fayol presented work specialization as the best way to use the human resources of the organization.
2. Authority: The concepts of authority and responsibility are closely related. Authority was defined by Fayol as the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience. Responsibility involves being accountable, and is therefore naturally associated with authority. Whoever assumes authority also assumes responsibility.
3. Discipline: A successful organization requires the common efforts of workers. Penalties should be applied judiciously to encourage this common effort.
4. Unity of command: Workers should receive orders from only one manager.

5. Unity of Direction: The entire organization should be moving towards a common objective in a common direction.
6. Subordination of individual interests to the general interests: The interest of one person should not take priority over the interests of the organization as a whole.
7. Remuneration: Many variables, such as cost of living, supply of qualified personnel, general business conditions, and success of the business should be considered in determining a worker's rate of pay.
8. Centralization: Fayo defined centralization as lowering the importance of the subordinate role. Decentralization is increasing the importance. The degree to which centralization or decentralization should be adopted depends on the specific organization in which the manager is working.
9. Scalar Chain: Managers in hierarchies are part of a chain like authority scale. Each manager, from the first line supervisor to the president, possess certain amounts of authority. The president possesses the most authority, the first line supervisor to the least. Lower level managers should always keep upper level managers informed of their work activities. The existence of Scalar chain and adherence to it are necessary if the organization is to be successful.
10. Order: For the sake of efficiency and coordination, all material and people related to a specific kind of work should be treated as equally as possible.
11. Equity: All employees should be treated as equally as possible.
12. Stability of Tenure of Personnel: Retaining productive employees should always be a high priority of management. Recruitment and selection costs, as well as increased product – reject rates are usually associated with hiring new workers.
13. Initiative: Management, should take steps to encourage worker initiative, which is defined as new or additional work activity undertaken through self direction.

14. Espirite De Corps: Management should encourage harmony and general good feeling among employees.

Henri Fayol was one of most influential contributors to modern concept of management. In another way of thinking, Follette in Barret (2003:51) defined management as "the art of getting things done through people". She described management as philosophy.

Critics, however, find this definition useful but far too narrow. The phrase "management is what managers do" occurs widely, suggesting a difficulty of defining management, the shifting nature of definitions and the connection of management practices with the existence of a managerial cadre or class.

One school of thought regards management as equivalent to business administration and thus excludes management in places outside commerce, as for example in charities and in the public sector. More broadly, every organization must manage its work, people, processes, technology etc to maximize effectiveness.

DFRRI was an organization that managed its work, staff and the benefiting communities that participated, passed through various processes that enabled it to implement its policy, and these assisted DFRRI in achieving the set objectives/functions. That is to say there must be involvement of actions and processes before a programme/policy is either successfully implemented or record a failure.

Management involves the manipulation of the human capital of an enterprise to contribute to the success of that enterprise. This implies effective communication: an enterprise environment (as opposed to a physical or mechanical mechanism) implies

human motivation and implies some sort of successful progress or system outcome. As such management is not the manipulation of a mechanism (machine or automated programme), not the herding of animals, and can occur in both a legal as well as illegal enterprise or environment. Based on this, management must have humans, communication and a positive enterprise endeavour, plans, measurement, motivational psychological tools, goals and economic measures (profit etc) may or may not be necessary components for there to be management. At first, one views management functionally, such as measuring quality, adjusting plans, meeting goals. This applies even in situations where planning does not take place. From this perspective, Henri Fayol in Dunod (1966) considers management to consist of six functions.

1. Forecasting
2. Planning
3. Organizing
4. Commanding
5. Coordinating
6. Controlling

2.6.3 Bureaucratic Theory

Bureaucratic Management is a traditional management system that relies much on rules, a set hierarchy, a clear division of labour, and detailed rules and procedures. Max Weber, a German sociologist, lawyer, and social historian showed how management itself could be more efficient and consistent in his book – The theory of Social and Economic Organizations. According to him, the ideal model of management is the bureaucracy approach, Abba (2008:55).

Weber believed bureaucratic structures can eliminate the variability that results when managers in the same organization have different skills, experiences, and goal, Weber advocated that the job themselves be standardized so that personnel changes would not disrupt the organization. Weber emphasized a structured formal network of relationship among specialized positions in an organization. Rites and regulations standardize behavior, and authority resides in positions rather than in individuals. As a result, the organization need not rely on a particular individual, but will released efficient and success by following rules in a routine and unbiased manner, Abba (2008:55).

According to Weber, bureaucracies are especially important because they allow large organizations to perform the many routine activities necessary for their survival. In addition, bureaucratic positions foster specialized skills eliminating many subjective judgements by manager. Also, if the rules and controls are established properly, bureaucracies should be unbiased in their treatment of people, both customers and employees. Bureaucratic management provides a blue-print of how an entire organization should operate. It prescribes seven characteristics:

- a formal system of rules,
- impersonality,
- division of labour,
- hierarchical structure,
- a detailed authority structure,
- life-long career commitment, and
- rationality.

Some of the characteristics of Max Weber Bureaucratic theory according to Abba (2008:55)are:

1. **Rules**: Rules are formal guidelines for the behavior of employees while they are on the job. Viewed from a positive perspective, rules can help provide the discipline an organization needs if it is to reach its goals. Adherence to rules ensures uniformity of procedures and operations and helps maintain organizational stability, regardless of individual manager's or employee's personal desires.
2. **Division of Labour**: Division of labour involves dividing duties into simpler, more specialized tasks. It enables the organization to use personnel and job – training resources efficiently. Managers and subordinates are assigned and perform duties based on specialization and personal expertise. Unskilled employees can be assigned tasks that are relatively easy to learn and do.
3. **Authority Structure**: A system that possesses the attributes highlighted above is tied together by an authority structure. It determines who has the right to make decisions of varying importance at different levels within the organization. Weber identified three types of authority structures, viz: traditional, charismatic, and rational or legal.
4. **Life-long Career Commitment:** Employment is viewed as a life-long career commitment in a bureaucratic management system. That is to say that both the employee and the organization view themselves as being committed to each other over the working life of the employee. Life-long career commitment means that job security is guaranteed as long as the employee is technically qualified and performs satisfactorily. Entrance requirements, such as level of education and experience, ensured that hiring is based on qualifications rather than friendship,

ethnicity, religious affiliations or family connections. This unfortunately negates what obtains in most third world nations (like Nigeria) where various vices play key roles in recruitment. The organization uses job security, tenure, step-by-step salary increase and pension schemes to ensure that employee satisfactorily perform their assigned duties. Promotion is granted when an employee demonstrates the technical competence required to handle the demands of the next higher position. Organizational level is assumed to correspond closely with expertise. People in higher positions superintend over the affairs of their subordinates as a result of their superior technical knowledge.

5. **Rationality:** Rationality managers, according to Hellriegel in Abba (2008:57), are those managers who use the most efficient means possible to achieve the organizations goals. Managers in a bureaucratic management system run the organization logically and "scientifically" with all decisions leading directly to achieving the organizations goals. When activities are goal directed, the organization utilizes its material, financial and human resources efficiently. In addition, organizational rationality ensures that general organizational goals be broken down into more specific goals for each organization. If all units in the organization reach their individual goals, the organization reaches its overall goals, Abba (2008:57).

For the purpose of this research, Bureaucratic theory by Max Weber serves as the theoretical guide of analysis.

2.6.4 Applicability of the Theory to the Study

Though there are striking similarities between the three theories, however the researcher consider the framework by Max Weber more comprehensive and detailed.

The study analysed data on the basis of the objectives of Max Weber's Bureaucratic theory which was critical to determine the effective implementation of Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI).

Thus, the Bureaucratic theory to the study has the following relevance:

a. It can analyse the military administration and the implementation strategy it adopted in DFRRI programme (1986-1993) from different levels.
b. The Bureaucratic model provides a framework for assessing how well the various departments of an organization – The Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) interacted to achieve a common purpose, which is successful implementation of DFRRI programme.
c. It emphasize that rules help in providing the discipline an organization needs to actualized its goals and objectives. That is, the importance of rules to the success of an organization cannot be overlooked.
d. The Bureaucratic model as well emphasise that for a successful implementation, an organization should use personnel rules as formal guidelines for the behaviour of employees while they are on the job, division of labour involving dividing duties into simpler, more specialized tasks, authority structure that determines who has the right to make decisions of varying importance at differen levels within the organization and rationalism which entails the efficient means for managers to achieve the organization's goals. These are the characteristics of a military administration which established and implemented the Directorate of Food, Roads, and Rural Infrastructures (DFRR) that is under study.

CHAPTER THREE:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Kotler in Ndan (2008:78) says research design is a choice among many alternative ways to collect information that would satisfy the research objectives. The researcher must decide in the data collection method, the research instruments and sampling plan. The researcher in this work, adopted descriptive research that describes and interprets the phenomena under study.

Ndagi in Ndan (2008:78) says that a descriptive research involve the collection of data for the purposes of describing and interpreting existing conditions, prevailing practices, beliefs, attitudes and on-going process. In addition, descriptive research seeks to find out the conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are on-going, effects that are evident or trends that are developing. The major advantage of descriptive research is that it tends to be more accurate. This is because the researcher here is in control of the actual situation in the field, Akuezuilo in Ndan (2008:78).

The accuracy of the information so collected would depend on the ability and competence of the researcher, his honesty, integrity and capability to relate questions asked to the objective of the research, Ozaze in Ndan (2008:78). To meet the research objectives therefore the researcher adopted the historical and descriptive research methods considered the most suitable.

3.2 Population Size

The population for the investigation consists of staff of Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources, Abuja, Officials of Zamfara State Rural Development Board, Gusau, Officials of Plateau State Rural Development Board Jos and Staff of Imo State Rural Development Board, Owerri. Also Staff of Gusau Local Government Secretariat in Zamfara State, staff of Jos South Local Government Secretariat in Plateau State, Staff of Ahiazu Local Government Secretariat in Imo State and the beneficiaries (Local People) of the programme constitute the population.

These Federal Ministry, State Ministry and Local Governments Secretariats were chosen considering the fact that they are the formulators and executors of rural development policies in Nigeria be it military or civilian regimes. That is to say that it is the staff of the Federal ministry concerned, State Ministries concerned and Local Government Secretariats concerned that formulate and implement policies on rural developments in Nigeria.

The States and Local Governments were also chosen sequel to the national character of DFRRI programme such that whatever was obtainable in other states and Local Governments were the same in others as regards success or failure of the programme.

3.3 Sampling Method and Size

A sample is a representative of a population of a study. The idea of sampling is based on the fact that, it is not always possible to carry out a study on the entire population, because of human weaknesses. Sampling method was adopted following the fact that results from sampling inspections are more reliable than those from 100% inspections.

The random sampling method is used in this research. This is to enable a wide application of the survey or investigation and to ensure that all the staff of the various establishments has equal opportunities of being participants.

In this research and for adequate representation, [420 out of the total population of 1024] was selected randomly to assist in making more purposeful recommendations at the end of this study. The population of this study constitutes staff of various establishments that are concerned in this research.

The following are the sample size from each of the selected agencies with a total population of ,1024. Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources Abuja [80], Plateau State Rural Development Board Jos [60], Zamfara State Rural development Board Gusau [60], Imo State Rural Development Board Owerri [60], Gusau Local Government Secretariat in Zamfara State [54], Ahiazu Local Government Secretariat in Imo State [53], and Jos South Local Government Secretariat in Plateau State [53].

The figures above were selected out of the main population and from the rank of Assistant Directors to that of Directors who have been staff of the ministries and Local Governments from the inception of DFRRI Programme to date. On creation of Zamfara state, in 1996, some of the staff of Rural Development Board Sokoto (indigenes of Zamfara State) were moved to Gusau to establish the same office. Gusau Local Government was in Sokoto State before the creation of Zamfara State and was an instrument of implementation.

Table 3.3.1 Summary of total sample size of 420 from each of the selected agencies:

S/N	Agencies	Sample size
1.	Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources, Abuja	80
2.	Plateau State Rural Development Board, Jos	60
3.	Zamfara State Rural Development Board, Gusau	60
4.	Imo State Rural Development Board, Owerri	60
5.	Gusau Local Government Secretariat in Zamfara State	54
6.	Ahiazu Local Government Secretariat in Imo State	53
7.	Jos South Local Government Secretariat in Plateau State.	53
	TOTAL	**420 Respondents out of 1024 Total Population**

Source: Researcher (2010)

Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources Abuja was chosen because it is the central institution of rural development in Nigeria. That is to say, it is from Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources Abuja that rural development programmes in Nigeria are being coordinated by both military and civilian regimes. Though DFRRI was autonomous, but used the establishments (Table 3.3.1 above) to execute and implement its programmes. The choice of Plateau State in North central Geo-Political zone, Zamfara State in North West Geo-Political zone and Imo State in South East Geo-Political zone by the researcher is necessitated in addition by ensuring

that at least this study covers three [3] Geo-political zones in Nigeria in order to produce an acceptable research findings as it concerns military regime and rural development (DFRRI 1986 – 1993) in Nigeria especially in the areas of provision of water, electricity and construction of good roads.

In addition, the choice of three [3] Local Government Areas from each of these zones namely, Jos South Local Government Secretariat in Plateau State, Gusau Local Government Secretariat in Zamfara State and Ahiazu Local Government Secretariat in Imo State by the researcher is as a result of this understanding that such rural development policies [Water supply, provision of good roads and electricity] are formulated to enhance the living standard of those that the Local Government officials lead and therefore it is assumed that the Local Government officials should be able to know whether the policies actualized their objectives or not in addition to the fact that they are closer to the rural people.

3.3.2 Research Design

The one-shot case study was used as a guide in the data collection and the analysis of data in this study because this observation is being made after the rural development programmes of the military regimes under study have taken place. The researcher is aware of the weaknesses of this design as it has no baseline measurement to compare the past-programme result with, and also it has no control group. Results were largely based on personal experiences of those who participated in the programmes. The design was selected despite the fact that this was a limitation for the study since the programmes have been executed ever before this study.

3.4 Instrument for Data Collection

3.4.1 Questionnaire Method

One of the methods of obtaining primary data is the questionnaire method.

Primary data were collected through questionnaire designed for the purpose of this research to source information from the sample size-[respondents] on:

a) Successful implementation and effective authority
b) Successful implementation and effective unity of direction
c) Successful implementation and effective division of work
d) Successful implementation and effective Scalar chain

The questionnaires were sent to officials of DFRRI in Imo, Plateau and Zamfara States, and officials of DFRRI, Abuja.

The questionnaire was divided into five sections, that is sections A, B,C,D, and E. Section A consist of respondents personal Bio-Data like Age, Sex, Educational Backgrounds, Work Experience and other information relevant to the topic under research. Other sections of the questionnaire were meant to obtain respondents views on a particular assumption as stated in this study.

Sections B,C,D and E contain:

- ✓ Variables like the implementation strategies adopted and successes recorded.
- ✓ The relevance of the variables in sections B,C,D and E of the questionnaire in understanding the problems of the military regime's DFRRI of 1986-1993 in this study (as it relates to rural development in Nigeria) were addressed in chapter two [2] of this work-literature review and theoretical framework.

3.4.2 Questionnaire Administration

Four hundred and twenty (420) questionnaires were distributed amongst the respondents (as stated above). Three hundred and fifty six (356) questionnaires were retrieved and out of this number, one hundred (100) were invalid, while 64 could not be recovered.

85% of retrieved questionnaires were recorded as indicated in the computation below:

$$\frac{356}{420} \times \frac{100}{1} = 85\%$$

This is to say that 85% questionnaires were returned, which is an impressive percentage.

Key:

a. 356 represent the returned questionnaires
b. 420 represent the sample from the selected three states and Abuja in Nigeria
c. 100 represent percentage used for computation in selected states and Abuja
d. 85 represent the percentage of questionnaire returned
e. 15% represent the percentage of unreturned questionnaire.

Considering the population under study, the researcher used random sampling and stratified sampling.

The questionnaires were distributed to the staff of the Ministries and Local Government Secretariats involved in this research work using random selection method which its rule stipulates that, the closer you are to the population, the more representative is the sample.

The main purpose of random selection in scientific research is to avoid bias as it creates opportunity for every member of the group to be chosen in addition to ensuring normal distribution / administration of questionnaires.

Scoring of Data

Scores ranging from 1 and 5 were allocated to each section of the question in the Appendix.

The likert scale was divided into three [3] nearly equal parts and the respondents were classified as those belonging to those who:

a) agree that successful implementation of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures programme was a result of effective authority, effective unity of direction, effective division of work and effective Scalar chain.
b) said that they were undecided as to whether successful implementation of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures programme was a result of effective authority, effective unity of direction, effective division of work and effective Scalar chain.
c) disagree that the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) programme successful implementation was a result of effective authority, effective unity of direction, effective division of work and effective Scalar chain.

3.4.3 Interview Method

Another method of obtaining primary data is the interview method. The interview is structured (Appendix II & III) to ensure that each interview is presented with exactly the same questions in the same order. This ensures that answers can be reliably aggregated and that comparison can be made with confidence between

sample groups or between sample sub-groups or between different survey groups. More primary data were collected through interviews designed for the purpose of this research to source information from former officials of DFRRI and the Benefiting communities on: whether they still remember DFRRI programme, its problems, the role played by the strategy adopted in achieving its objectives, the areas DFRRI made most impact, who and who implemented and funded the policy. And the awareness of DFRRI by the communities, the extent of DFRRI success to the communities, the services DFRRI provided for them, the involvement of the communities in DFRRI activities, how the facilities improved the communities standard of living, the problems the communities are facing in maintaining the provided facilities and which other ways to provide the services other than DFRRI.

3.4.4 Secondary Data

The secondary data used in this work are published and unpublished materials on DFFRI from Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources Abuja, Zamfara State Rural Development Board Gusau, Plateau State Rural Development Board Jos and Imo State Rural Development Board Owerri. Also published and unpublished materials on DFFRI were sourced from Gusau Local Government Secretariat in Zamfara State, Jos South Local Government Secretariat in Plateau State, Ahiazu Local Government Secretariat in Imo State, Libraries and other research centres.

The materials were obtained from the above Ministries, Boards and Local Government Secretariats as a result of their involvements in the DFRRI Programme. Not only that, the materials were among the assets shared between the old state and the new state created out of it.

The materials obtained from the above mentioned institutions are:

Articles [published and unpublished], research works written on the research topic, Newspaper reports, Magazines, written speeches of the military leader of the regime under research, that is records on the military leader's achievements in the areas of provision of water, roads and electricity in the rural areas concerned in this work.

3.5 Method of Data Presentation and Analysis

The method of presenting data was by tabulation and the use of simple percentages. The data collected from the field were sorted and tabulated to ensure clarity and logical presentation. The simple percentage was found cogent for descriptive analysis, while the chi-square statistic was meant to consider for inferential analysis. The statistical package for the social sciences was meant to be used for the analysis of data because of the belief of the researcher that it would be convenient and relevant to the study. The chi-square is used to measure the level of discrepancy between observed and expected frequencies and the formula is:

$$\sum x^2 = (O - E)^2 E$$

Where:

X = Chi-Square

O = Observed Frequencies

E = Expected Frequencies

$\sum$ = Sigma or Summation

The usual method of computing the chi-square is using expected frequency to calculate by multiplying the column total by the row total and dividing the result by the grand total for each cell.

$$E = \frac{CT \times RT}{GT}$$

Where:

E = Expected Frequencies

CT = Column Total

RT = Row Total

GT = Grand Total

The Degree of freedom is the number of freely ranging scores within the sample. The difference is always one less than the sample size and is given as:

$$DF = N - 1$$

The level of significance refers to the maximum probability with which the researcher could be willing to risk: it could also be referred to as probability of making a type one error, which is designated as alpha; that is rejecting as false an assumption that is not true. For the purpose of this study, the level of significance the researcher wanted to consider was 0.05.

However, after inputting data using the statistical package of the social sciences, it was clear that the Likert Scale nature of the questionnaires were not in tandem with the technique, because of the qualitative nature of variables that were studied. Consequently the first method which was the use of tabulation and sample percentages was reverted to. That helped to ascertain the extent to which the policy of Directorate For Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures was implemented and how effective was the implementation.

The four assumptions stated in this study were tested with the use of simple percentages. For any of the assumptions to be accepted, the number of respondents who agreed that DFRRI programme successful implementation was a result of effective authority, effective unity of direction, effective division of work and effective Scalar chain must be greater than those who disagree. In addition, the results of each assumption must be supported by at least two reports from other sources. Any of the assumption will be rejected on the other hand when the number of respondents who disagree that DFRRI programme successful implementation was a result of effective authority, effective unity of direction, effective division of work and effective Scalar chain must be lesser than the number of those who agree. In addition, each of the results must be supported by at least two reports from other sources.

3.6 Variables

Two main variables are involved in this work – implementation strategies adopted and success. Implementation strategies adopted represented the independent variable (that is, the variable whose effect on the dependent variable is under investigation) while success is the dependent variable (the variable whose change as a result of the effect of the independent variable is being predicted).

CHAPTER FOUR:

HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF DFRRI

4.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a historical overview of Rural Development in Nigeria, examine Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) as a programme, its objectives, implementation Strategies, the administrative structure, the programmes it executed/implemented and problems of implementation.

4.1.1 The Meaning and Dimensions of Rural Development

World Bank in Ukwu (1995:57) sees rural development as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people – the rural poor. According to United Nation's Committee in Ukwu (1995:57), rural development is a strategy designed to transform rural life by extending to the masses of the rural population the benefits of economic and social progress … it stresses a fundamental principle; that the rural poor must share fully in this development process through equitable access to resources, inputs and services and participation in the design and implementation of development prgrammes. Mabojunje in Ukwu (1995:57) has it that meaningful development of rural people must be: on a self sustaining basis, through transforming the socio-spatial structures of their productive activities… and implies a broad based re-organisation and mobilization of the rural masses so as to enhance their capacity to cope effectively with the daily tasks of their lives and with the changes consequent upon this.

However viewed, rural development has three main dimensions, the nature and interactions of which bear fundamentally on the final income.

- The first is the institutional dimension: who decides, who acts, who is affected? In a national system where there are hierarchies of power and authority among government, firms and individuals.
- There is also a multiple of interest, e.g,. economic or class interests, cultural or communal interests, etc, affecting their behaviours. Each of the institutions must not only take responsibility for its initiatives and reactions, but also relate to the impact of the initiatives and reactions of others.

Closely linked with the institutional dimension is the spatial dimension: where does action take place and where does it affect? In this dimension, operations and relationships are also hierarchical. The perception of interests and outcomes depends very much on the level of observation: national, regional, local or anywhere in between. There is also the external factor, the interactions between rural development and our external connections.

The third major dimension is the sectoral dimension which deals with the content of action. Traditionally, rural development is most strongly associated with agriculture and with the provision of the rural infrastructures. Indeed development in every sectoral of the economy impinges significantly on the productivity and the quality of life.

4.2 Historical Overview of Rural Development in Nigeria

4.2.1 Colonial Era Rural Development Programmes in Nigeria:

Britain's main interest in Nigeria was commercial. In running this promising enterprise, the primary concern of its managers was to keep the overheads down and the profits up. Government spent as little as it had to, most of that on activities that

would promote the production and evacuation of export Crops and the development of the local markets for imports. Under the expedient policy of Indirect Rule, most of the matters which concerned the livelihood and welfare of the masses of the population, i.e. the rural people, were left in the hands of the Native Authorities and the voluntary agencies.

It was not until 1929 that the British government established a Colonial Development Fund (in the princely sum of One Million pounds sterling a year for the whole Empire) partly to promote trade with and relieve economic depression in the United Kingdom. It was not until the 1940s that a more positive attitude was manifested and, under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts of 1940 and 1945 substantial funds became available. To the extent that the Colonial government was directly involved in rural development. The emphasis was on agricultural research and extension services. But even here, the effort could not be sustained for long. In 1953, the Agricultural Department, pleading lack of funds transferred the responsibility for some of its few programmes to the Native Authorities.

The question now is, what was the impact of the Colonial policy and programmes? According to Ukwu (1993:73), in the area of the greatest public investment, transport, attention was focused on the export corridors, principally the railway system and the feeder roads leading to the export producing areas. This emphasis did little to integrate the internal economy and even less to link rural communities with their farmlands and with one another. The importation of a new Colonial currency and proscription of local and indigenous currencies destabilized internal trading systems while the promotion of imports producers had it all their way. The high level of taxation, both direct and indirect, penalised the farmer and inhibited expansion.

Ukwu (1993:73) argues that a major unintended, but no less permicious, consequence of the Colonial style of administration was that since much was left to the Local Governments to handle as best each could, wide differences in objectives and even wilder disparities contributed to the widening of development gaps between and within regions. Notwithstanding, there were some gain from some aspects of Colonial administration. The emphasis on agricultural research and extension has paid off where it has been sustained; particularly in some of the northern states, while success of some administrative officers in promoting self-help community development in their areas of operation shows how much mobilization can be accomplished by imaginative and dedicated effort.

Emphatically, it is a fact that the British Colonial government paid patchy attention to rural development. Given the primacy of its commercial interests, it was concerned mainly with the development of export production and concentrated on infrastructural development in export-producing areas and on providing access from those areas to the coast. Such rural development as those brought about was certainly not in the interest of the rural people. Indeed, to the extent that the instruments of imperialist incorporation- new currencies, new economic relationships and new trade alignments- dislocated the pre-existing traditional economic linkages among communities.

However, some of the rural development efforts in the Colonial era include researches into commodities like cocoa, cotton, palm, coffee etc. These changed the course of the agricultural practices of rural peasants in the country. There was also during the period, vigorous extension work to enlighten the farmers and to encourage them to accept the newly-introduced crops and animal husbandry. Some of the projects

executed included Coca Research station in Ibadan, the Agricultural Research station in Zaria, the Veterinary Research Station in VOM, etc.

One of the problems associated with research efforts during the period according to Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed)1995:216) was that of concentration on a limited number export crops to the neglect of others, including domestic food crops, Secondly, the results of agricultural research reached the farmer only with difficulty and were developed in a limited way. Similarly, little effort was made to organize the farmers into viable groups to reap the benefits of the researches. Meanwhile, by creating the Commodity Boards, the direct advantage to be derived by the farmers was sapped away in the guise of development finance, funds generated thus far, found their way to metropolitan development.

Generally, under colonial rule, rural development hardly featured in Government planning which regarded the country as important only for the exploitation of its raw materials. The few urban centres under that dispensation stood like oases in the vastness of under-development, thus giving adequate meaning to the expression of town and country meeting mathematically.

In the absence of any conscious programme for rural development, social amenities and services became concentrated in the urban areas, notwithstanding the fact that development of the urban centres was financed with the resources of the rural areas. Under that situation, the gains of the urban centres became the loss of the rural areas. Any semblance of development, like road construction, embarked upon in the rural areas was to increase their exploitation.

4.2.2 Post Colonial Era Rural Development Programme In Nigeria:

Inspite of the general neglect of the rural sector, some programmes and projects specifically directed at the rural sector were undertaken by various levels of government in Nigeria since independence. While some of these were instituted as measures which were overtly political responses to problems or were Urban-Centered in their perceptions of development needs, they nevertheless represented significant steps in the history of rural development in Nigeria. Some of the rural development programmes that made history in Nigeria discussed in this chapter are, National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP), River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) the Green Revolution and Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs).

(a) Community Development Efforts:

Community Development according to Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:216), was originally brought into the national planning arena only during the 1975-80 Third National Development plan. According to the Third National Development Plan, this is the first attempt to bring community Development activities within the framework of National Development plan (Third National Development Plan: p. 318). The main policy thrust of the plan was to raise the quality of life in rural communities by harnessing voluntary private effort to supplement government effort. The plan stated that there are several obstacles in the way of community development in the country. These include the small size of many rural communities and their locations, for they are often scattered and inaccessible, making it difficult to supply them with basic infrastructural and social amenities (Third National Development Plan p.319). Although, only meager amount was allocated, nevertheless, it signified the important

step taken by government to open up rural areas within the framework of the National Development Plan.

Unfortunately, the momentum gathered in the Third Plan could not be sustained during the Forth Plan and thereafter. This, according to Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:217) may be attributable to the lack of a comprehensive rural development policy founded on a sound and all embracing framework. The mobilization of the rural communities into Development Associations has been left to be voluntary, rather than to conscious effort and intervention. That is, efforts on the part of Government by mobilizing the rural communities through the provision of soft loans and establishment of skill acquisition centres.

(b) National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP):

The programme was essentially a minimum-package approach type, designed to provide improved practices like High-Yielding Varieties (HYV), fertilizers, pesticides, credit and management to farmers, through a coordinated package approach. The NAFPP launched during the second Plan period was to ensure that food supply kept pace with the growth in population and the rate of urbanization. It is also clear that the NAFPP, like the Farm Settlement, according to Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:217) was primarily designed to solve urban Problems rather than to address genuine rural development issues. For instance, the three components, of the programme: adoptive research, extension and agro-services were actually meant to accelerate agricultural production, and thus, growth.

In the words of Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) op cit), even though some progress and tangible achievements were recorded, particularly in the aspect of adoptive

research, which was based on farm trails, the programme suffered from many short comings and problems – both internally and externally. Perhaps the greatest failure of the programme was the lack of ecological and institutional focus and framework. Hence, the inability to organize farmers into distinct institutionalized groups, so as to make the maximum use of the opportunities provided. This manifested in the pilferage and diversion of the items of the package away from the intended targets.

(c) River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs):

Although the basin authorities were established to harness the water resources of the country for agricultural production, including crops, livestock and fisheries, to a large extent, they failed to achieve the laudable objective. Some of the reasons in the words of Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) (op cit) for the abysmal failure include:-

(i) Their capital intensiveness.

(ii) Over-reliance on international agribusiness for supply of heavy equipment, management and finance.

(iii) They had no clear and well tailored goals and operational objectives.

It is clear that the confusion and the failure that characterized the RBDAs are clear manifestation of the absence of a well-defined policy planning framework for rural development in the country. From this, argues Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:218), it is easy to establish that just like the Farm Settlement Scheme and other initiative discussed earlier, the lessons apparent are that capital intensive and costly projects are not solution to rural programmes in a developing country such as Nigeria. In other words, capital–intensive projects are not the answer to labour-intensive

problems. Rather, labour has to be mobilized and harnessed at the local level in order to solve local problems.

(d) Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) and the Green Revolution Programmes.

The Operation Feed the Nation Programme was just the NAFPP programme on a wider scale. It was essentially a political programme for the mobilization of the teaming population for the attainment of high agricultural production and better agricultural practices. It was a special programme instituted by the Military Government and therefore not rooted in the Third National Plan, which was being implemented at the time of its launching. This is one of the principal failures of the programme. Secondly, the OFN was criticized for upsetting the better and more systematic approach conceived in NAFPP programme. Thirdly, the OFN lacked the institutional capacity with it. There was also lack of proper role assignment and this militated against the continuation of the programme. It was also of course, a very extravagant programme, Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) op cit).

The Green Revolution in Nigeria unlike the movement in other parts of the world was actually a change of nomenclature from the OFN. It was therefore short-lived and suffered the same fate. The Green Revolution programme, being a tool for political propaganda by the then civilian administration, performed badly in terms of Mass mobilization because it lacked the push of the quasi-military touch employed by the OFN. It was therefore low-profile and also recorded low-aerial coverage and was also bedeviled by party political rivalries and priorities. The Green Revolution programme, like its predecessor, the OFN, suffered from rather disjointed, short-term and ad-hoc planning, which made no serious impact on either the agricultural sector in particular or the rural sector in general.

(e) Agricultural Development Programme (ADPs):

The ADP concept Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) op cit) has been extensively reviewed elsewhere, e.g, Mabogunje and Cara (1981), Abubakar (1982), Abba et al (1985) Abdu (1989) etc. The main objective of the programme was to increase the production of both food and industrial raw materials as well as the real incomes of the farmers. The ADPs got the necessary support and commitment of the Federal Government which acts as a leverage to obtain international finance. As such the ADPs have hitherto been well institutionalized and well funded. Funds were forthcoming from the World Bank, the Federal Government and the State Governments involved in the projects. This, in the words of Mohammed in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1992:219) has made it possible for innovations, particularly of the agricultural technology of the green-revolution type to be imported from abroad. In spite of all these, however, the ADPs fell victims to the growth-related "misfortunes" and therefore failed to change the existing agricultural practice significantly. Meanwhile the masses of the people continue to suffer deprivation and food and raw materials shortage continues in Nigeria.

As to how to explain the situation, according to Idachaba (1989) in Mohammed (1995:218), the philosophical attitudes shaped as they were by the political and economic realities of the period, left little scope for serious concern for the enhancement of the conditions of the rural people as such, except perhaps, only as a by-product of growth. Similar conclusion was earlier reached by Abubakar (1982) when he observed in Mohammed (1995:219), that though the cardinal aim of the programme was to raise the standard of living of farmers, no real efforts were made to

measure the success of the programme in this direction. In other words, efforts directed at only agricultural development cannot be expected to achieve the wider goals of rural development. Perhaps it is in realization of this that Government instituted and established the DFRRI programme.

4.2.3 Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures [DFRRI] As a Programme

In his 1986 budget speech, the President, Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces, General Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida, indicated that his Administration accord highest priority to rural development and announced the establishment in his office of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures [DFRRI], charged with the responsibility for rural development, Akeredolu-Ale [1993:38].

The President expressed his Administration's concern regarding the underdevelopment of the rural areas where 70% of Nigeria's population lives. In his address to military Governors and other participants at a DFRRI seminar on Integrated Rural Development, held in Lagos in October, 1986, the President gave the moral, social, cultural, political, economic and security reasons behind his Administration's emphasis on rural development. He stressed the need for the effective mobilization of rural communities, of all rural dwellers and of the enormous human agricultural, mineral and other natural resources in the rural areas for the improvement of the life quality of the rural dwellers themselves and for the acceleration of the nation's economic, social, political and cultural development, since, according to the President in Koinyan [1993:39], no self-sustaining development can take place in Nigeria without the masses of our people being

effectively mobilized, genuinely motivated and properly organized for productive activity, within the context of freedom, orderly progress and social justice.

Following this speech was the inauguration of DFRRI by the then chief of General staff, Commodore Ebitu Ukiwe on February 7th, 1986. State Governors were directed to establish in the office of the Governors a state equivalent of the Directorate and this was done in November 1987, Adamu, [1991:8]. The Directorate was administered at three levels, Federal, State and Local Government. According to Decree No4 of 1987, at the Federal Level the programme of the Directorate was formulated, guided and broadly supervised by a Board which comprised of a chairman, and not less than four, but not more than seven other members who were appointed by the President, Commander-in-chief of the Armed Forces.

-That the Chairman appointed as per sub-section

i] Was responsible for the day to day running of its affairs

-The Directorate shall liaise with the Federal Government Ministries and Agencies, Integrated Development Authorities, State Government, Local Communities and also co-operate with all other private and public organizations, institutions, enterprises and individuals concerned with development of the Rural Areas.

However, Kudu [1993-70] is of the view that rural development has many dimensions, the nature and interactions of which bear fundamentally on the final outline.

The first dimension is the institutional dimension: Who decides who acts, who is affected? In a national system, there is a hierarchy of power and authority from the

Head of State to the heads of households, with their associated agencies and instruments.

There are also multiplicities of interests for example, affecting their behaviours. Each of the institutions must not only take responsibility for its initiatives and reactions, but also relate to the impact of initiatives and reactions of others. There is also the external dimension which imprints' on all the levels. Clearly, the institutional and administrative structures-the number, types, powers and functions of development agencies, both formal and informal, and the relationship among them-very much affected the outcomes of each level.

Closely linked with the institutional dimension according to Ukwu [1993:70] is the spatial dimension, operations and relationships are also hierarchical. The perception of interests and outcomes depends very much on the level of observation, national, regional, local, anywhere in-between.

After who and where comes what: the sectoral dimension deals with the scope of action. Traditionally, rural development is most strongly associated with agriculture and with the provision of rural infrastructures. But rural industries have been shown to have a catalytic role to play, indeed development in every sector of the economy imprints significantly on the productivity and the quality of life in the rural areas. The issues of resource mobilization and utilization are also critically important.

A proper evaluation of the rural development effort must address these three dimensions as well as the interactions among them and the impact thereof on development, Ukwu (op cit).

4.2.3.1 DFRRI'S Objectives

DFRRI was mandated to move rural development away from past narrow pectoral preoccupation with the generation of food and fiber surpluses to the overall formulation of a national rural development strategy with emphasis on the alleviation of rural poverty and enhancement of the quality of rural life [Budget Speech, January, 1986].

According to Koinyan, in Akeredolu - Ale [ed]. 993:39], the DFRRI Decree [Decree No. 4 of 6 February, 1986, supplement to Official Gazette Extraordinary No. 19, Vol. 74, 10 April, 1987, Part A] identified eighteen [18] functions for the Directorate, the following being the most salient:

a] To identify, involve and support viable local community organizations in the effective mobilization of the rural population for sustained rural development activities, bearing in mind the need for promoting greater community participation and economic self-reliance of the rural community;

b] To identify areas of high production potential for the country's priority food and fiber requirements and to support production of such commodities along agro-ecological zones within the context of one national market with unimpeded interstate trade in farm produce;

c] To formulate and support a national rural feeder road network programme involving construction, rehabilitation, improvement and maintenance especially in relations to the nation's food self-sufficiency programme as well as general rural development;

d] To formulate and Support a national rural water supply programme together with a national on-farm storage programme with emphasis on full initial involvement of local Communities, local Government Personnel to ensure sustained maintenance of built infrastructures;

e] To identify and promote other programmes that would enhance greater productive economic activities in the rural areas as well as help to improve the quality of life and standard of living of the rural people;

g] To support the development of an information gathering, maintenance and evaluation of culture in rural development programming, with emphasis on utilization of existing agencies with demonstrated competence in the area of management information systems in agriculture and rural development, rural infrastructures, agronomy, agricultural extension including the continuous generation of basic data on rural infrastructures in each of the Local Government areas in Nigeria.;

h] To commission and support studies and research projects that was to facilitate the execution of the function of the directorate;

i] To define, encourage and support any activities calculated to enhance food production, road development, rural water supply, the provision of other infrastructures to rural areas and any other rural development activities;

[j] To do all such other things as to enable the Directorate more effectively perform its functions under this Decree.

Thus, from the start, the Directorate was given a very broad mandate, for the promotion of integrated rural development and transformation.

4.2.3.2 DFRRI's Implementation Strategies

As a matter of deliberate policy, the National Directorate did not execute any programmes directly. Usually, the National directorate, after extensive consultations, decides on specific programmes to be sponsored, the target to be achieved in each programme, and allocates funds as deemed necessary after due market research, to each programme thereafter, the appropriate agency or agencies that would implement each programme are identified. Extensive consultations are then held with these Programme Implementing Agencies [PIAs] to agree on the targets to be achieved by each PIA to execute the assigned target. In the words of Koinyan in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1993:45) State Governments, their Local Governments and benefiting communities and appropriate subject matter federal government Agencies constitute the bulk of PIAs that implement programmes sponsored by the Directorate.

A percentage of fund allocated to each PIA is given upfront to enable it start project execution. Subsequent drawings on the funds allocated were based on reports from the Directorate's Comprehensive Performance Monitoring and Evaluation [PME] System. When a PIA indicated that the task assigned to it was complete in all respects, a Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] team, usually led by an eminent citizen outside Government, was sent to confirm and report on project completion.

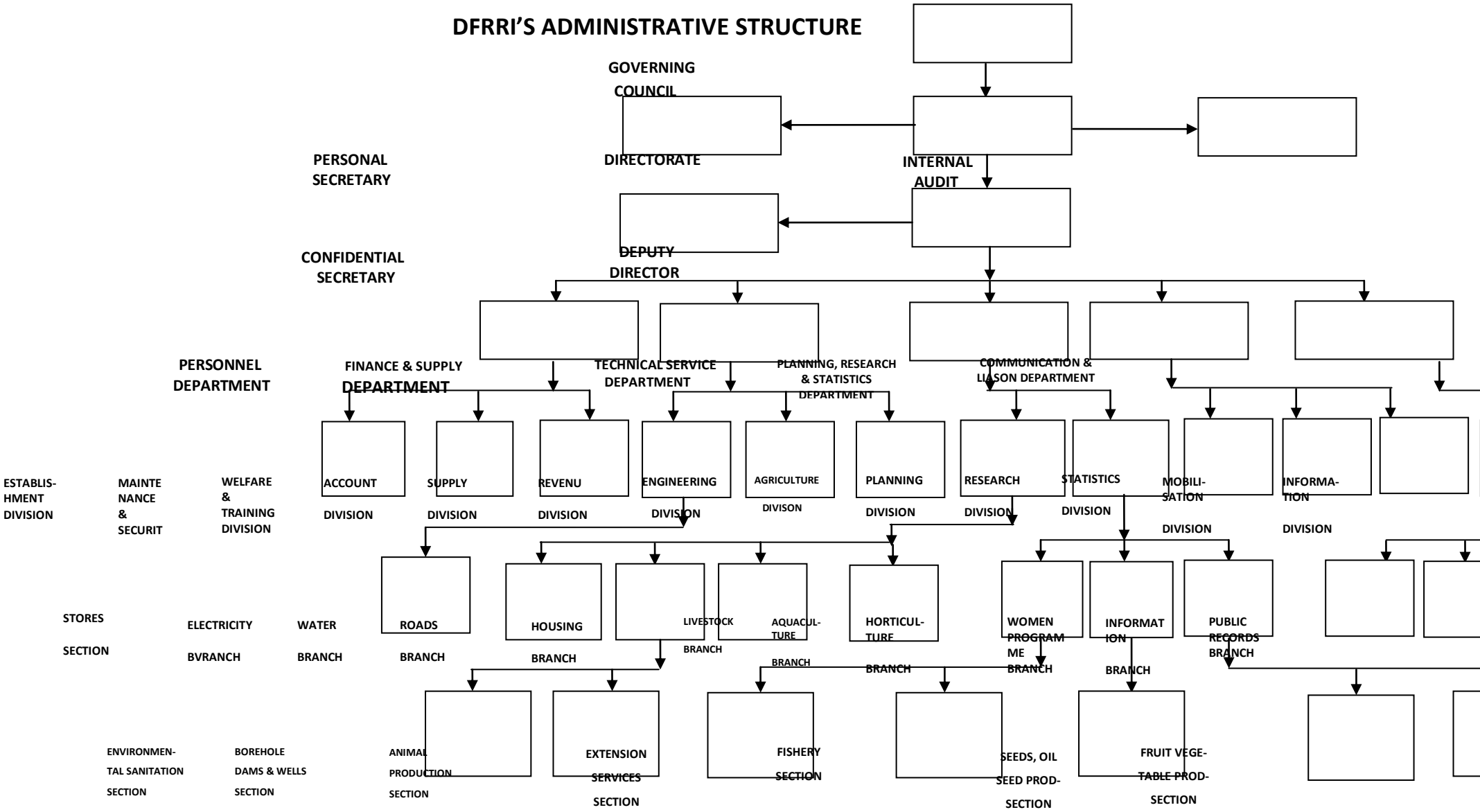
The FCI was part of the Directorate's PME system. Other components of the PME system include comprehensive In-House Inspections [IHIs] and the permanent posting to each state of a Performance Monitoring and Evaluation director and appropriate staff that included five NYSC members for each local government area in the state. FCI reports were usually summarized and sent to the Commander-in-Chief and the Vice-President. The reports of outstanding performances and of performances on the

other end of the spectrum were usually copied to the appropriate service Chief or the military Governor. FCI reports were also routinely made available to the media for public information. The media was also routinely represented in each FCI team, Koinya in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1993:45].

4.2.3.4 DFRRI's Administrative Structure

DFRRI at the National level was organized in the following offices and departments as presented in DFRRI administrative structure on the table above (in this chapter).

In line with section 4 of Decree No. 4 of 1987 which stipulates that in a state office equivalent of the directorate be established in the office of each state governor and to perform similar functions in the state. The then Military Administrator in Sokoto State established in November 1987 an Agency for Rural Development which was responsible for carrying out the Directorates functions. This equally was the same with Imo and Plateau States. Structurally, the three states, Sokoto [Zamfara was part of it] Imo and Plateau Directorate had a governing Council which had the Governor as the chairman. The Council which was the highest decision making body consisted of persons appointed by the Governor to represent the public and private sectors participation in the formulation and implementation of the Rural Development Programme.



Source: Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure, Lagos, 1986

At the local Government Level, section 6 [2] of the Decree had the Local Government Councils constituted into committees for the development of Rural Areas. In accordance with the provision of section 6 [3], the chairman of the Local Government Council was the chairman of the committee, Kornberg, [1970:11]. This, in Ahiazu, Jos South and Gusau Local government Areas the chairman of the Local Government Areas were also the chairman of the Rural Development Committee and this gave the Directorate a boast in the formulation and implementation of their policies in their Local Government Areas.

Down to the three Local Government Areas, [Gusau, Ahiazu and Jos South], District Village level, the Directorate employed traditional organizational structure such as Dagaci [Village Heads], and Hakimi [District Heads], as the primary unit for the reorganization of the Rural Areas.

4.2.3.5 The Programmes Implemented/Executed by DFRRI:

The budget speech of 1986 by General Ibrahim Babangida Badamosi during which the creation of DFRRI was announced marked not only a departure from the status quo, but seemed to form a watershed for the development of rural Nigeria in a proper direction. That was the first time in the history of rural development in Nigeria that such a body was established specifically to undertake rural development.

DFRRI was empowered by law to co-operate with and utilize the relevant arms of the Federal Government ministries and agencies, integrated Rural Development Authorities, institutions, enterprises and individuals concerned with the development of rural areas. The organization of the Directorate reflected the type of programme to be executed, namely; provision of rural infrastructures, enhancing agricultural and industrial production, mass mobilization and the promotion of relevant technology.

The major intended programmes of DFRRI are:-

i) Organization and mobilization

ii) Provision of Rural Infrastructures

iii) Promotion of productive activities (the central care).

iv) Other programmes like intra and inter community cohesion activities.

As was expected, there were considerable scholarly interests in DFRRI. Much of it focused on the very wide scope of DFFRI activities and the problems of coordination and integration with other agencies. Others questioned the rationale for the choice of type, size and local population in both the choice and location of projects.

Relationship of the official levels was problematic. DFRRI was an arm of Federal Government. Although its planning and management involved several executive ministries who indeed participated in the execution of relevant DFRRI projects. The non-DFRRI programmes of these ministries appear to run on parallel courses to the DFRRI projects and there was much room for conflict.

On inter-Governmental relationship, it was clear that certain problems existed. DFRRI Ukwu (1993:84) says related to the states through the state Governors who were Chairmen of the Local Government Level. From published reports and statements, it appeared that some Governors regard the DFRRI programme as separate assignment, a welcome addition to, or substitution for their own programmes, while other Governors made a greater effort at integrating the DFRRI programme into a general framework of action. Thus in Local Government mobilization to support the attainment of its DFRRI quota of boreholes when better access to Local springs, would provide portable water more cheaply and reliably, or it may settle for some kilometers of road when what it really wants most were bridges on existing roads but

these were not provided for in the DFRRI programme. Local Governments also tended to think of roads, boreholes, etc in the DFRRI programme as DFRRI roads, boreholes etc rather than as integral parts of the rural infrastructural system for which they were responsible. The dichotomy was sometimes encouraged by the different approval and control procedures for DFRRI and non-DFRRI products and particularly by the severe limitations on the role of the Local Government in DFRRI projects.

It is significant to note that there were calls from various quarters on the Federal Government to provide money for the maintenance of DFRRI infrastructures presumably to be kept in a special category distinct from the less privileged facilities which were the responsibilities of mere Local Government. However, Ukwu (1993:85) argues that the question of role specification, coordination and integration goes beyond the operation of DFRRI into the general problems of the structure and organization of the entire machinery of government and their implications for the management of rural development.

4.3 Report from interview conducted with Government/DFRRI officials and Benefiting Communities

Report from DFRRI officials

This segment of the study is concerned with the responses of former officials of DFRRI in an interview. The former officials interviewed are Dr. Silas Onuoha and Hon. Nze Eugene Okoro - Ahiazu Local Government Area of Imo state, Alh. Musa Garba - Gusau Local Government Area of Zamfara state and Mr. Christ Mancha – Jos-South Local Government Area of Plateau state.

According to Dr. Silas Onuoha who was the chairman of Ahiazu Local Government Area of Imo state, DFRRI programmes and activities are still fresh in his memories notwithstanding the fact that some of the projects are dilapidating.

Hon. Nze Eugene Okoro a former DFRRI official in Ahiazu Local Government Area of Imo state on the other hand is of the view that the most critical problems of DFRRI were finance, fairness and functionality in the distribution of amenities. He added that the services were abused that the benefits were almost going to the middlemen, local elites and relations of the officials to the detriment of those who needed them most. However, he is of the opinion that these did not deter the Directorate from achieving its set goals and objectives.

On the strategy adopted by DFRRI and its contribution to success, Alh. Musa Garba who was the chairman, Gusau Local Government Area of Zamfara state says that the Directorate implemented its programmes through the apparatus of the state Government, Local Government, benefiting communities and appropriate subject matter Federal Government agencies. This helped the Directorate to achieve its objectives because according to Alh. Musa Garba, it was highly decentralized.

On the area DFRRI made its most impact, Alh. Musa Garba said that generally DFRRI was a success but its impact was mostly felt in the areas of provision of portable water and construction of access roads. This, Alh. Musa Garba said was as a result of the fact that water and access roads were the most needed by farmers in the rural areas. This he said, is not to say that DFRRI did not make frantic efforts at the provision of electricity.

It was the consensus of Mr. Christ Mancha, chairman, Jos-South Local Government, Area of Plateau state that DFRRI policy was jointly implemented by them at state,

federal and Local Government levels. According to him state Government, their Local Government Authorities, the communities that were to benefit from the programme and the concerned Federal Government Ministries joined together to form the programme implementing Agencies.

On funding of DFRRI projects, Mr. Christ Mancha agreed that under the funding guidelines of DFRRI projects, the National Directorate contributed 75% of the cost, state Government 15% and Local Government 10%. He added that it was only the National Directorate that redeemed its contribution regularly and this actually affected the qualities of projects executed from time to time.

Report from communities

The following six communities were interviewed.

1. Ogbor Ihitteafoukwu and Umuoni communities in Ahiazu Local Government Area of Imo state.
2. Bukuru and Gyel/Tanchol communities in Jos-South Local Government Area of Plateau state and
3. Magami and Wanke communities in Gusau Local Government Area of Zamfara state.

The communities who were mostly male youths were mobilized through the President General of the town council in Ogbor Ihitteafoukwu and Umuoni communities in Ahiazu Local Government Area of Imo state, and the District Heads in Gyel/Tanchol community of Jos-South Local Government Area of Plateau state and, Magami and Wanke communities in Gusau Local Government Area of Zamfara state.

The communities agreed that they are aware of the existence of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures as a result of the projects it executed in their areas.

Some unsatisfactory responses notwithstanding, it was the consensus of the six communities interviewed that DFRRI succeeded in providing services to them. For instance, Gyel/Tanchol community in Jos-South Local Government Area of Plateau state agreed that DFRRI erected 3 phase 3 wire 3.87km phase 4 wire, 415 volts TDN and 1No. 200KVA, 110.415KV light mounted transformer sourced from NEPA along Jos-Bukuru feeder road for them.

According to the interviewed communities, DFRRI provided for them such services like access roads, portable water and rural electricity. For instance Magami and Wanke communities in Gusau Local Government Area of Zamfara state accepted that they benefited from DFRRI's 1389km phase II target rural feeder roads construction rehabilitation designed to open up previously locked rural communities in order to facilitate transportation of food products by the farmers and rehabilitate roads and tracks which were left in deplorable condition over the years.

The communities interviewed equally agreed that they were involved in the provision of the facilities by DFRRI at the level of implementation. For instance, Ogbor Ihitteafoukwu and Umuoni communities in Ahiazu Local Government Area of Imo state agreed that as benefiting communities, they were members of Programme Implementing Agencies (PIAs) which had other members as the state Governments, Local Governments, and appropriate subject matter federal agencies.

The interviewed communities are of the consensus that the facilities and infrastructures provided by DFRRI improved their living standard going by the facts,

that they can now move their farm products easily to urban areas for disposal as a result of the access roads constructed by DFRRI. They can also be entrepreneurs like welder, hair dressing salooner etc since there is rural electricity provided by DFRRI. These, they said are in addition to the provision of portable water which has prevented them from drinking and making use of stagnant water which hitherto was detrimental to their health.

For instance, Ogbor Ihitteafoukwu and Umuoni communities in Ahiazu Local Government Area of Imo state are of the view that with the provision of the facilities which has assisted in engaging a reasonable percentage of their youths, the migration from rural to urban areas has reduced.

All communities interviewed agreed that the problems they have been facing in the maintenance and sustenance of the facilities provided by DFRRI has been that of inadequate maintenance by the three levels of Government.

The communities are advocating for a permanent national rural development programme which will take into account the level of ruralness and allocate resources to the rural areas for development on the basis of their rating with the hope of developing both the human and material resources in the rural areas.

It addition, the communities are of the view that competent indigenes should be considered to handle DFRRI related programmes (in future) in their areas to ensure commitment, efficiency, and accountability. That is to say, these are the better ways of providing such services and structures outside approach used by DFRRI.

CHAPTER FIVE:

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

The first segment of this chapter is concerned with people's views and assessment of DFRRI in rural development during this period (1986-1993), while the second segment deals with qualitative data assessment (from secondary source) of the achievements of DFRRI under the military regime.

5.2 Data Analysis

This part of the chapter deals with data analysis and test of the assumption stated earlier in chapter one of this work. The questionnaires were administered in three states, Zamfara, Plateau and Imo plus Abuja as stated earlier in this study.

Interviews were also conducted by the researcher with few former officials of Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures [DFRRI].

The sample population consisted of 420 officials such characteristics as geographical distribution, sex, age and others [which affect the attitude and opinions of respondents were taken into consideration in the administration of questionnaire. A total of 420 questionnaires were distributed out of which 356 were filled and returned. The returned questionnaires were examined to determine the accuracy and the rate at which they were answered. Out of the 356 returned questionnaires, 256 were accepted and they were used in testing the assumption. The questions on the questionnaires were open ended as respondents were asked to rate the statements by ticking the number that corresponds with their opinions.

Classification of Respondents according to their opinions on statements concerning military authoritative approach to policy implementation and DFRRI success in Section B of the questionnaire.

Table 5.3.1 The military authoritative style to programme implementation is more effective.

Responses	**Number of respondents**	**Percentage**
Strongly Agreed	84	33
Agreed	68	27
Undecided	41	16
Disagreed	39	15
Strongly Disagreed	24	09
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

From the above table, 33% of the respondents strongly agreed that the military authoritative style to programme implementation is more effective. 27% agreed that the military authoritative style to programme implementation is more effective. 16% were undecided, 15% of the respondents disagreed while 09% strongly disagreed. This shows that military authoritative style to programme implementation is more effective.

Table 5.3.2 The military style is effective in Nigeria

Responses	Number of respondents	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	91	36
Agreed	67	26
Undecided	19	07
Disagreed	48	19
Strongly Disagreed	31	12
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

The above table 5.3.2 shows that 36% of the respondents strongly agreed that military style is effective in Nigeria, while on the other hands 26% agreed, 7% were undecided, 19% disagreed and 12% strongly disagreed. This shows that military style is effective in Nigeria**.**

Table 5.3.3 Military style ensured effective implementation of DFRRI programme.

Responses	Number of respondents	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	101	40
Agreed	69	27
Undecided	47	18
Disagreed	23	09
Strongly Disagreed	23	06
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

The above table 5.3.3, 40% and 27% stood at strongly agreed and agreed respectively while those that are undecided and disagreed stood at 18% and 09%, 06% strongly

disagreed. This shows that military style ensured effective implementation of DFRRI programme.

This is exemplified in the report of the presidential monitoring team on the Final Comprehensive Inspection (FCI) of phase III, Rural Feeder Roads programme in Imo state, 1992 (see table 5.9) which indicate that in 21 local government areas of Imo state then, total km of roads physically inspected and accepted were 927.8km while percentage of total length was 100%.

Also Ogbor ihitteafukwu and Umuoni communities in Imo state interviewed (see Report from communities in chapter four) has it that with the provision of the facilities which have assisted in engaging a reasonable percentage of their youths, the migration from rural to urban has reduced.

Classification of respondents according to their opinions on statements concerning DFFRI programme implementation and success in electricity supply in section C of the questionnaire

Table 5.3.4 DFRRI provided electricity in your community

Responses	**Number of respondents**	**Percentage**
Strongly Agreed	96	37
Agreed	68	27
Undecided	20	08
Disagreed	49	19
Strongly Disagreed	23	09
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

From the above table 5.3.4, 37% and 27% stood at strongly agreed and agreed respectively. While 08% and 19% stood at undecided and disagreed, 09% stood at strongly disagreed. This shows that DFRRI provided electricity in their (beneficiaries) communities.

This is evidence in the provision of electricity in the rural areas. For example, Final Comprehensive Inspection Report of the first phase of the Rural Electrification in Plateau state 1989, (table 5.20) has it that DFRRI targets for substation a.m. ssx pmss was 22.8km but the state achievement was 23 No.

Table 5.3.5 DFRRI's style of providing electricity is effective

Responses	**Number of respondents**	**Percentage**
Strongly Agreed	110	43
Agreed	71	28
Undecided	13	05
Disagreed	45	17
Strongly Disagreed	17	07
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

The table 5.3.5 above shows that 43% strongly agreed that DFRRI's style of providing electricity is effective. 28% agreed while 05% were undecided. 17% and 07% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively.

Table 5.3.6 DFRRI style of providing electricity improved electricity supply in the rural areas.

Responses	Number of respondents	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	99	39
Agreed	68	27
Undecided	32	12
Disagreed	47	18
Strongly Disagreed	10	04
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

Table 5.3.6 above shows that 39% strongly agreed that DFRRI style of providing electricity improved electricity supply in the rural areas. 27% agreed while 12% and 18% were undecided and disagreed respectively. 04% of the respondent strongly disagreed.

Classification of Respondents according to their opinions on statements concerning DFRRI programme implementation and improved water supply in section D of the questionnaire.

Table 5.3.7 DFRRI provided water for your communities

Responses	Number of respondents	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	74	29
Agreed	56	22
Undecided	50	20
Disagreed	49	19
Strongly Disagreed	27	10
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

The table 5.3.7 above shows that 29% of the respondents strongly agreed that DFRRI provided water for your communities. 22% agreed, 20% were undecided, 19% disagreed while 10% strongly disagreed.

Table 5.3.8 DFRRI style of providing water is effective.

Responses	**Number of respondents**	**Percentage**
Strongly Agreed	98	38
Agreed	51	20
Undecided	16	06
Disagreed	55	22
Strongly Disagreed	36	14
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

The table 5.3.8 above shows that 38% of the population strongly agreed that DFRRI style of providing water was effective. While 20% and 06% disagreed and were undecided respectively. 22% disagreed and 14% strongly disagreed.

Table 5.3.9 DFRRI formal guidelines for the behaviour of staff contributed to provision of amenities (e.g. water).

Responses	**Number of respondents**	**Percentage**
Strongly Agreed	108	42
Agreed	71	28
Undecided	02	01
Disagreed	49	19
Strongly Disagreed	26	10
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

From the above table 5.3.9, 42% strongly agreed that DFRRI formal guidelines for the behaviour of staff contributed to provision of amenities (e.g. water). 28% and 01% agreed and were undecided respectively. 19% disagreed while 10% strongly disagreed.

Classification of respondents according to their opinions on statements concerning DFRRI programme implementation strategy and improved feeder roads in section E of the questionnaire

Table 5.3.10 DFRRI constructed feeder roads in your communities.

Responses	**Number of respondents**	**Percentage**
Strongly Agreed	103	40
Agreed	83	32
Undecided	25	10
Disagreed	28	11
Strongly Disagreed	17	07
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

The above table 5.3.10 shows that 40% strongly agreed that DFRRI constructed feeder roads in their communities, while 32% agreed. 10% were undecided, 11% and 07% disagreed and strongly disagreed.

Table 5.3.11 DFRRI specialization of tasks contributed to construction of feeder roads and other amenities.

Responses	Number of respondents	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	96	37
Agreed	68	27
Undecided	33	13
Disagreed	35	14
Strongly Disagreed	24	09
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

Table 5.3.11 above shows that 37% of the respondents strongly agreed that DFRRI specialization of tasks contributed to construction of feeder roads and other amenities, while 27% and 13% agreed and were undecided, 14% disagreed while 09% strongly disagreed.

Table 5.3.12 DFRRI used the most efficient means to construct feeder roads.

Responses	Number of respondents	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	99	39
Agreed	78	30
Undecided	0	0
Disagreed	46	18
Strongly Disagreed	33	13
Total	256	100%

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher, 2010.*

Table 5.3.12 above shows that 39% strongly agreed that DFRRI used the most efficient means to construct feeder roads. While 30% agreed and 0% were undecided. 18% disagreed while 13% strongly disagreed.

5.3 Test of Assumptions

The four assumptions in this research work were stated in chapter one. The data obtained through questionnaire, personal interviews and secondary sources were structured according to the assumptions. That is to say that the data analysis in this chapter was done under each assumption according to relevance.

5.3.1 Empirical Test of Assumption I

One of the objectives of a sound grassroots government is how to succeed in developing rural areas which this study assumed was the target of the military regime for establishing DFRRI in 1986. Following this assumption, the first assumption was formulated that military authoritative approach to policy implementation informed the success of DFRRI. To Test this assumption, the responses of the respondents on statements dealing with military authoritative approach to policy implementation on DFRRI success in section B of the questionnaire and the comments of informants interviewed as scheduled were analyzed.

The responses of the respondents on statements in the section of the questionnaire that has to do with military authoritative approach to policy implementation on DFRRI success are analysed above.

Tables 5.3.1 – 5.3.3 above show that on the average, 165 [or 64 percent] of the respondents agreed that military authoritative approach to policy implementation informed the success of DFRRI while 63 [or 25 percent] disagreed with this view. The opinions of the number and percentages of respondents on each of the statements regarding military authoritative approach to policy implementation and DFRRI success can be seen on the tables as analyzed.

The views of the respondents in the questionnaire were supported by information gotten from other officials (staff involved in DFRRI programme) interviewed by the researcher during the interview. According to one of such officials, the military regime succeeded in their rural development efforts through the Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures as a result of its assertion that rural development was yet to be achieved in Nigeria despite several efforts by past regimes or administrations.

Just to sight an example, the officials (staff involved in DFRRI programme) told the researcher that before the inception of the rural development programme agency of the military regime in 1986 rural areas like Ogbor Ihitteafukwu Ekwerazu community in Ahiazu Mbaise Local Government of Imo State and Magami community in Gusau L.G.A. now in Zamfara State (but was then in Sokoto State) were all not developed, but with the inception of DFRRI, that led to the provision of pipe-borne water, electricity and access roads, the impact of development began to be felt there.

Going by the above analyses, it can be said that the military regime (1986-1993) introduced DFRRI programme as a result of its assumption that the previous rural development programmes by past regimes did not yield the needed result. Therefore, the only way out to development at rural areas level was to institute DFRRI. In the words of the officials, this development at the rural areas of Nigeria enhanced the living standards of the rural dwellers who prior to this time been suffering from lack of portable water, access roads and electricity. Thus it is argued that the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures [DFRRI] was established to transform rural Nigeria and improve the lot of the peasants, Newswatch, March 28, (1988:15).

Though, facts about the true performance of this rural development programme (DFRRI), was subject of claims and counter-claims by the beneficiaries. It is a story amongst rural communities (the beneficiaries).

However, those who think the programme was a failure are unfair in their assessment, and those who argue that there has been success are generous in their assessment.

It is vividly clear from the above analyses that the successful implementation of rural development programme was as a result of military authoritative approach to policy implementation. To this end and in addition to tables 5.3.1, 5.3.2, and 5.3.3 analysed above, the first assumption that states that, military authoritative approach to policy implementation informed the success of DFRRI is accepted.

5.3.2 Empirical Test of Assumption II

In any activity, strategy is necessary to ensure that the objectives of an institution or establishment are achieved by adhering to what is supposed to be done in the process of execution/implementation of policies/programmes. On this note, this work assumed that DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved electricity supply in the rural areas of the selected states.

To test this assumption, the respondents' responses on statements they were requested to comment on in section C of the questionnaire concerning DFRRI progremme implementation and improved electricity supply, and the views of other informants on the same statements dealing with section C of the same questionnaire were analyzed.

The comments of the respondents on the statements in section C of the questionnaire dealing with DFRRI programme implementation and improved electricity supply are analysed above.

Tables 5.3.4 – 5.3.6 above show that on the average 162 [or 63%] of the respondents agreed that DFRRI implementation strategy led to improve electricity supply in the rural areas, while 69 [or 27%] of the respondents disagreed with the view. The breakdown of the number and percentages of respondents on each of the statements in the questionnaire that concerns, successful implementation and effective unity of direction by the military in DFRRI programme can be observed on the tables analysed above.

Supporting the results as analyzed on the above tables, an official of DFRRI then was of the opinion that facts abound to indicate that the success of DFRRI (1986 – 1993) was as a result of the implementation strategy of the military regime. To further buttress his point, the informant explained that all the projects executed by DFRRI, bore relations with the policy objectives of the programme, [DFRRI]. For instance, the former DFRRI official says that in Imo State, in the implementation plan, it was expected that in the three zones of Imo state the number of electricity projects phase II to be executed were, Owerri 2, (18.2%), Orlu 6, (54.5%), and Okigwe 3, (27.3%) total, 100%.

The above input from the official was supported by another who was asked about the relationship between Imo State and the Federal Government in terms of the implementation of the strategy of the programmes. In his responses, he argues that the strategy was jointly formulated by officials of states and Federal Government and are being implemented jointly as well.

Notwithstanding, from the responses of the respondents and the information given by the interviewee, it is clear that the success of DFRRI (1986 – 1993) was as a result of the implementation strategy adopted. On this note and in addition with the analysis on

tables 5.3.4, 5.3.5, and 5.3.6 above therefore, the second assumption which states that DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved electricity supply in the rural areas is accepted.

5.3.3 Empirical Test of Assumption III

Successfully implemented policies of any programme holistically hinges on the strategies adopted. That is to say, effective division of work is important in the course of implementing policies. According to Anyebe [1994:104], One fundamental issue to consider is how to put in place a control mechanism to ensure some measure of plan discipline because a plan is as effective as the discipline that sustains it.

The manner of execution is likely to affect policies output, and this necessitated the third assumption that DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved water supply in the rural areas of the selected states.

To test this assumption the views of respondents on raised statements in section D of the questionnaire dealing with DFRRI programme implementation strategy and improved water supply were analysed.

The responses of the respondents concerning the statements on DFRRI programme implementation strategy and improved water supply in section D of the questionnaire are analysed above.

Tables 5.3.7 – 5.3.9 above indicate that on the average 187 [or 73%] of the respondents agreed that DFRRI programme implementation strategy improved water supply while on the other hand, 54 [or 21%] of the same respondents disagreed with the view. The detailed breakdown of the number and percentage of respondents regarding each statement posed on DFRRI programme implementation strategy and

improved water supply in the rural areas can be studied on the tables regarding their views/opinions.

The above analysed result was supported by some information on the way and manner of implementing DFRRI programmes (1986 – 1993) by the military regime. And most of the information indicates that DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved water supply in rural areas. For example, an interviewee who was an official of Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure [DFRRI] informed the researcher that he can identify four broad categories/levels of intervention by DFRRI in the context of rural development programmes:

i) intervention to alleviate poverty, especially among the vulnerable groups;
ii) rural infrastructural and productive capacities development across the board, with or without emphasis on agricultural production;
iii) rural human resources development; and
iv) rural reorganization and institutional transformation.

The informant added that the master strategy for the above identified categories was:
Stage i: Provision of the critical minimum level of rural infrastructures, thus providing a basis for the transition to new forms of economic production dynamics and improving the level of human motivation;
Stage ii: Promotion of economic production activities;
Stage iii: More deliberate and stronger focus on human resources development and mobilization including the strengthening of certain local institutions which can help facilitate and/or accelerate rural development processes.
The informant further added that as a result of its adherence to specified implementation strategies, DFRRI was able to:

a) improve the quality of life and standard of living of the majority of the people in rural areas by providing potable water.
b) use the enormous resources of the rural areas to lay a solid foundation for the security, socio-cultural, political and economic growth and development of the nation by linking the growth and development activities of the rural areas to those of the Local Government areas, the states and the nation; and
c) ensure a deeply rooted and self-sustaining development process based on effectively mobilized mass participation starting from the grassroots and encompassing the entire nation.

The claim of the official that DFRRI realized its stated objectives as a result of adherence to implementation strategies strengthens the assumption that DFRRI programme implementation strategies successfully improved water supply in the rural areas of the selected states.

From the above analysis therefore, it is clear that DFRRI succeeded in realizing its objectives sequel to its programme implementation strategy. To this end, and in addition with the analysis on tables 5.3.7, 5.3.8, and 5.3.9 above, as a matter of fact, the third assumption that states that DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved water supply in the rural areas of the selected states is accepted.

5.3.4 Empirical Test of Assumption IV

In any programme to be executed the success of such programme depends on how it is able to solve the problems of the beneficiaries, and the ability of the implementation strategies adopted to ensure the achievement of higher success in more relevant areas like provision of water, electricity and roads. As a result, this

work stated the fourth assumption that the DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved the construction of feeder roads in the rural areas of the selected states.

In order to test this assumption, the views of respondents on statements in section E of the questionnaire concerning DFRRI programme implementation strategy and improved feeder roads, and comments of informants on the relevant section of the interview schedule were analyzed. The responses of the respondents dealing with the statements in Section E of the questionnaire which concerns DFRRI programme implementation strategy and improved feeder roads are analysed above.

Tables 5.3.10 –5.3.12 analyzed above indicate that on the average [195] or 76% of the respondents agreed that DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved the construction of feeder roads in the rural areas while 48 or 19% disagreed with the view. In totality, the number and percentage of respondents on each of the statements relating to DFRRI programme implementation and improved feeder roads can be read from the tables with a view to seeing their opinions comprehensively.

The above result was complemented by an informant who argues that the Directorate was involved in the provision and improvement of Rural Infrastructures to enhance the operational environment of rural dwellers. That in this Directorate's involvement, emphasis was led on:

i) constructing new rural feeder roads or rehabilitating existing ones;

ii) providing rural communities with improved water supply; and

iii) providing rural communities with electricity.

The informant further added that:

a) in the first phase of DFRRI's execution of its infrastructural development programmes, nearly 30,000 kilometres of rural feeder roads were completed to agreed rural road grade C specifications;
b) the first phase of providing 5,000 rural communities with portable water was completed and the number overshot, and
c) more than 200 rural communities were provided with electricity in the first phase of the programme.

Having examined some responses of the respondents and some comments of the informants who were former officials of the programme [DFRRI], it is clear that the DFRRI programme implementation strategy improved the construction of feeder roads in the rural areas. Going by this, the fourth assumption which states that, DFRRI programme implementation strategy successfully improved the construction of feeder roads in the rural areas of the selected states is accepted.

5.4 Discussion

5.4.1 Reports on DFRRI's Achievements in Imo, Plateau and Zamfara States.

A brief look at DFRRI's performance generally reveals that the Directorate achieved some significant success but confronted some pernicious problems. These would need to be kept in view not only in fashioning a national rural development policy but also in effectively prosecuting such a policy, Mabogunje in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995:50). With this in mind and before considering the reports of DFRRI from the three states above, it is pertinent to examine achievements from the perspective of [a] infrastructural Development, and [b] Community mobilization.

[a] Infrastructural Development:

Over the four year period, according to Mabogunje in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) op cit) the first of three phases of the rural feeder roads programme was completed. This involved completing nearly 30,000 kilometers of such roads to agreed rural road grade C specifications. The second phase involving another 30,000 kilometers of rural feeder roads was in various stages of completion by state Governments.

The first phase of providing 5,000 rural communities with potable water was completed and the number overshot. The number of communities provided with potable water in the second phase was substantially increased because of outbreak of guinea-worms. States were at various stages of completing this phase.

More than 200 rural communities were provided with electricity in the first phase of the programme whilst well over 2,000 individuals were trained and equipped with skills to build the improved type of rural housing, Mabogunje.

[b] Community Mobilization:

Quite early, in the life of the Directorate, attempt was made to understand the community organizational pattern in all parts of the country. It was found that everywhere this pattern was alive and active even though hardly recognized by government. In most of former northern Nigeria, it existed as village areas, in the Igbo areas, it was known as Obodo, in the Yoruba Areas as Ilu, in most other areas in Southern Nigeria as clans.

The DFRRI, though the State and Local Governments assisted it with resource persons from the universities, undertook the complete listing of settlements under these various community organizations. It also launched a programme of encouraging

communities to form development associations. These associations were expected to serve as the fulcrum for promoting, not only the establishment of community banks but also the overall development of the communities.

DFRRI also, according to Mabogunje in Akeredolu-Ale (ed) 1995-:52] encouraged each Local Government to set up a Rural Development Coordinators office manned by a staff of the Local Government. This RDC had the responsibility for ensuring that communities form their development associations and for assisting the associations in promoting various development activities.

It is also important to examine the performance monitoring and evaluation Unit of DFRRI before presenting the reports on the achievements in the three states enumerated above.

In each State, DFRRI established an office for Performance Monitoring and Evaluation headed by a Director who was not an indigene of the State concerned. The PME Directors undertake continuous monitoring and report directly to the headquarters.

At the completion of a phase in any of the programme, a comprehensive evaluation of State Performance was undertaken in what was referred to as a Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI]. The FCI team was usually led by a highly respected citizen of the country and was supported by relevant professionals and media personnel. They had the mandate to evaluate in detail what a state claimed to have achieved and to accept or reject any unit that did not meet the specifications agreed to.

The report of FCI teams formed the basis of data from DFRRI and helped to determine when a state was funded to proceed to the next phase of construction or activities.

Tables 5.5 and 5.6 in Appendix V explains the Feeder Roads Programme executed in each L.G.A. of Imo State during Phase I Rural Feeder Roads Projects.

Still on rural Feeder Roads, according to Koinyan, L.D. [1990:1], in the case of the Rural Feeder Roads Programme where the Directorate was mandated to construct/reconstruct/rehabilitate 90,000km, nation-wide, the programme was divided into three phases of 30,000 km, per phase. To accomplish the goal for phase II, each state of the Federation including the Federal Capital Territory [FCT, Abuja] was allocated a specific target on a pro-rata basis.

Table 5.7 in Appendix V is the breakdown of Rural Feeder Roads Project executed in each L.G.A. of Imo State during Phase II Feeder Roads Programme.

With the completion of the phases I and II Rural Feeder Roads Programmes on the former Imo State [now known and called Imo and Abia States] and the subsequent final comprehensive inspections by the Presidential Monitoring Teams in April 1988 and in July 1990, respectively, the state Directorate for Rural Development [S.D.R.D] moved on to implement the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures [DFRRI] Phase III Rural Feeder Roads Programme. In a summary, the DFRRI targets and the S.D.R.D. achievements, under Phase I and II Rural Roads Programmes are statistically represented in table 5.8 in Appendix V.

Under the Phase III Rural Feeder Roads Programme, the target for the former Imo State was to construct/reconstruct/rehabilitate another 1,377km of Rural Feeder roads.

Due to the split of the former Imo State into two states [Imo and Abia], 82.2km of DFRRI target were reported located in Abia State.

In order to achieve its proportional in Abia State 862.2km from the DFRRI target of 1,377km, under the phase III rural feeder roads programme, the Imo State Directorate for Rural Development presented for final Comprehensive Inspection some 967.7km of rural feeder roads. A total of over eighteen million naira (N18million) was spent on this programme in Imo and Abia States, out of which N10.427 million was provided by DFRRI while the State Governments [Imo and Abia] and the Local Government/Communities provided the balance.

According to Report of the Presidential Monitoring Team on the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] of phase III, rural Feeder Roads Programme in Imo State [1992:27], the State Directorate for Rural Development [SDRD] rehabilitated 927.8km of rural feeder roads in DFRRI phase III road construction projects (as presented on table 5.9 and 5.10 in Appendix V), the DFRRI target for old Imo State [now split into Imo and Abia States] in the Phase III is 1,377.0km. This was an excellent Kilometric performance by the state for what remains to be gotten in Abia State is only 449.2km in order for (now split into Imo and Abia States) to achieve the DFRRI target of 1,377km under Phase III rural feeder roads programme.

5.4.2 DFRRI's Achievements in Rural Water Supply in Imo State:

Under the First Phase of the Directorate's Rural Water Programme, a minimum of 5,000 rural communities were to be provided with potable water, Koinyan [1990:1]. In view of this, the achievement is examined in tables 5.11 in Appendix V.

5.4.3 DFRRI's Achievements in Rural Electrification Programme in Imo State:

The target under the Phase II rural electrification programme for the former Imo State was to electrify fifteen [15] towns/villages [projects] of 5.5km of inter-town connection lines [ITC] of town distribution network Lines [TDN] and eleven [11] transformer sub-stations, though the initial target before the creation of Abia State was to electrify twelve [12] towns/ villages. In order to achieve this objective, the Imo and Abia States Directorate jointly presented seventeen [17] projects, 4.7km of HT lines, 37.2km of LT lines and eight [8] sub-stations for the final comprehensive inspection.

Out of the seventeen [17] projects executed in both Imo and Abia States, eleven [11] were executed in Imo State (as presented in table 5.12 in Appendix V) and Six [6] in Abia State. The Imo and Abia Directorates for Rural Development spent a total of N8.25 million for the construction of the seventeen [17] projects out of which N5,68 million came from DFRRI headquarters while the state Governments [Imo and Abia states] provided N1.76 million while the benefiting communities contributed N0.81million, FCI, Phase II rural Electrification Report In Imo State [1990:2].

Tables (5.13 and 5.14 in Appendix V) report on the final comprehensive inspection of phase II Rural Electrification Programme in Imo State (1990) DFRRI shows that the sum of N4,922,203.20 was spent in providing electricity for II Communities in II L.G.A. On the other hand, report on the final comprehensive inspection of phase II Rural Electrification Programme in Imo state (1990), reveals that the sum of N8,247,755.20 was spent in providing electricity in Imo and Abia (Formerly in Imo state).

According to a report on Rural Electrification Programme Phase three sponsored by Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure and Imo State Government [1993:1], the former Imo State Directorate for Rural Development commenced the Phase I Rural Electrification Programme in 1987. In the Phase I Programme, 17 [Seventeen] Communities benefitted.

The Directorate embarked on the Phase II Rural Electrification Programme in 1990 and achieved much in the Local Government Areas of the former Imo State.

The Phase III Rural Electrification Programme took off in 1992 with a target of 12 [twelve] projects. The in-House inspection team from the National DFRRI, Lagos inspected all the Phase III Projects in August 1993 and scored the performance of the Directorate 96%, Rural Electricity Programme report in Imo State [1993:1] a total of 8 [eight] projects were presented for Phase III rural electrification programme summarized below.

[i] 8[eight] projects located in 7 [seven] Local Government Areas of the State.

[ii] 15.8km of high tension lines and 28.2km of low tension lines were executed.

[iii] 8 [eight] transformer sub-stations were built

Table 5.15 in Appendix V - statistical Summary of Benefitting Communities on Phase II Rural Electrification in Imo and Abia (in former Imo) reveals that a Total number of 35 communities benefited from the phase II Rural Electrification Programme. That is to say that, 21 communities benefited from Imo State while 14 communities benefited from Abia State (Part of Old Imo state).

Table 5.16 in Appendix V reveals that on Rural Electrification Programme phase III, Eight communities in Eight L.G.A. benefited and most of the projects were commissioned.

5.4.4 DFRRI's Achievements in Rural Road and Electricity in Plateau State:

According to Federal Republic of Nigeria, Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure, Final Comprehensive Inspection Report on Phase Iv Rural Feeder Roads Programme in Plateau State, Vol. I [1992:4], in all, out of a total of 613.9 Kilometers of roads finally offered for Inspection by the State Directorate 2,249.00km was measured and 1,846.50KM was accepted by the team.

Table 5.17 (in Appendix V) on DFRRI's achievements on Rural Feeder Roads in Plateau State Phase I, 1991 reveals that 14 communities benefited from 1606.1 KM roads constructed.

While table 5.18 in Appendix V reveals that in phase I, rural roads target for Plateau state was 1,509.0km, total km offered for inspector by the state was 1,606.1km while the total km measured by FCI team was 1,606.1km and the total km accepted by FCI team was 1,382.7km.

Table 5.19 (in Appendix V) reveal that 23 communities in Plateau state benefited from phase IV Rural Feeder Roads totaling 1846.50KM either newly constructed, Reconstructed, Rehabilitated or Surface Dressed.

Under the funding guidelines of DFRRI Projects, the National Directorate contributes 75% of the cost, State Government 15% and Local Government 10% part of the Construction of the State Government to the Fourth Phase of DFRRI roads was the construction of three tarred roads at the cost of N8.55 million.

5.4.5 DFRRI's Achievements in Rural Electrification Project Phase I in Plateau State:

DFRRI was to liaise with appropriate Federal, State, and Local Governments, for the provision of electricity to Nigeria's rural area. DFRRI's Rural Electrification [R.E] programme was aimed at achieving the following:

[a] to increase agricultural productivity by means of adequate irrigation and easy mechanization;

[b] to make the processing of agricultural products and, the storage and preservation of primary crops simpler;

[c] to promote the establishment of small-scale ventures in agriculture, productive industry, and crafts, which would generally assist in raising the standard of living of the rural dwellers; and

[d] to reduce migration from rural to urban areas and rapidly achieve a balance population distribution, and services between the urban and rural areas of the country.

During Phase I of the programme, efforts were primarily directed towards the extension of grid lines at 33kv and 11kv to hook up reticulated villages. No isolated generation option was considered appropriate during the first stage of the programme. According to the First Phase of the Rural Electrification Programme Report on Plateau State [1989:3], the targets for all states and Abuja FCT, under the Phase I of the R.E Programme were the following:

[a] 550KM of 33KV lines

[b] 150KM of 11KV lines

[c] 188KM HV/MV lines

[d] 393 KM of MC/LV lines

[e] 28B No. step-down transformer substations.

The total costs of the Phase I of the Programme was estimated at N70, 821.807 as at [June 1987]. The Directorate N55, 000,000.00 i.e N2.5 million for each State. The States, benefiting Local Governments, and the benefitting communities were expected to contribute a combined minimum of N15.82, 807.00 or approximately N719, 173.00 per state. These contributions form the basis for setting up project targets for each state.

Table 5.20 (in Appendix V) summarized DFRRI's project, target and Plateau state's achievements in rural electrification in 1989

Table 5.21 (in Appendix V) reveals that 13 villages were electrified in Plateau state under First Phase, Rural Electrification Scheme. The 13 Villages were in 13 L.G.A. and the projects were completed and commissioned.

5.4.6 DFFRI's Achievements in Rural Electrification Projects Phase II in Plateau State.

In establishing DFRRI, the Military President directed that accountability should form one of the corner stones of its operations. For this reason the continuous monitoring and evaluation of the performance of all project implementation Agencies was a feature of the Directorate. The Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] of all DFRRI Projects when completed was the apex of the Performance, Monitoring and Evaluation.

According to Report on the Final Comprehensive Inspection of Phase II rural Electrification Programme in Plateau state [1992:5], the following are the projects executed in various Local Governments in Plateau state:

[a] Dawaki/Lungwa-Pankshin L.G.A:

The projects executed comprised of the erection of a 3 phase, 3 wire 5.59km Inter Township Connection [ITC] 33KV, 6.50KM 3 Phase, 4 wire 4.5 volts Township Distribution Network [TDN] and 1No. 200KVA, 33/0.415KV plingth-mounted Transformer. They were inspected and certified by the Federal Ministry of Power and Steel, and NEPA. The Projects were commissioned by the State government. The cost of the projects was N1, 419,266.00 out of which the community contributed N80,000.00 worth of materials.

[b] Heip and-Barakin Ladi-L.G.A:

This project's power source was from the existing NEPA 11KV Airport-Plateau Polytechnic Line. The project comprised of the erection of a 1No. 200KVA, 3 Phase 4 Wire, 415Volts TDN. It was inspected and certified by the Federal/Ministry of power and steel and NEPA. This project was commissioned by the State Government. The cost of the project was N1, 011.400.00.

[c] Gyel/Tanchol-Jos South L.G.A:

These projects power source were from NEPA 11KV Jos-Bukuru Roads feeder. The Projects comprised of the erection of 3 phase 3-wire 3.87KM 11KV ITC 6.15KM 3 Phase 4-wire, 415volts TDN, 1No. 500KVA; 11KV/0.415KV ground mounted and 1No. 200KVA, 110.415KV plight mounted Transformer. They were inspected and certified by the Federal Ministry of Power and Steel, and NEPA. The whole projects combined costs was N960.336.00 and they were awaiting commissioning.

[d] Lainga-Nassarawa L.G.A:

This projects power source was from NEPA 33KV Jekko-Nassarawa, line. Work involved erection of a 3-phase 3-wire 0.20KM 33KV Plingth mounted Transformer.

The project was inspected and certified by the Federal Ministry of Power and Steel and NEPA. The project whose cost was put at N995, 838.00 awaited commissioning.

[e] Shabu-Lafi L.G.A:

This project's power source was from the NEPA 33KV Jekko-Lafia line. Work done include the erection of a 3 phase 3-wire 0.70km 33KM ITC, 2.15KM 3 phase 4-wire 415vVolts TDN and 1No. 200KVA, 33/0.415KV plingth mounted Transformer. They were inspected and certified by the Federal Ministry of Power and steel, and NEPA. The project was commissioned on 2/10/1991. Its cost was put at N887, 629.00 out of which the community contributed N100, 000.00.

[f] Akurba, Anguwan Rere, Akoko, Bakin Rijiya, Sabon Dale and Adogi-Lafia L.G.A:

These projects power source was from NEPA 1x7.5MVA Lafia Injection Substation. The projects involved the erection of 28.1km 3 phase 3-wire 33KV ITC 20.05KM 3 phase 4-wire, 415Volts TDN, 2No. 200; 3No 100KVA; 33/0.415KV Transformers. These projects were inspected and certified by the Federal Ministry of Power and Steel, and NEPA and they waited commissioning.

The cost of the projects were N3, 559.836.00 out of which the said communities made a total contribution of N36,000,00 worth of poles.

5.4.7 DFRRI Achievements in Rural Feeder Roads in Zamfara State [then part of Sokoto State]

Final Comprehensive Inspection Report on Phase III Feeder Roads Construction and Rehabilitation Programme in Sokoto State [Zamfara Part of it then [1991:2] has it that one of the various programmes being implemented by the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures, since its inception, is Rural Feeder Roads Construction and

Rehabilitation, which was introduced to open up previously Land-locked rural communities with a view to facilitating easy transportation of food products by the farmers, and rehabilitate roads and tracks which were left in deplorable condition over the years.

In addition, the same report is of the stand that this programme was designed to be implemented in phases, and under the phase II of the programme, Sokoto State [Zamfara part of it then] had a target of 1389KM. This was part of the target 30,000KM earmarked for phase II of the programme nationwide.

Having completed the construction/rehabilitation of the set target, the state called for the Final Comprehensive Inspection of the programme so as to ascertain the States achievement in this regard and proceed to the next phase. Summary of the achievements are on table 5.2.5 (in Appendix V).

Further on achievements of DFRRI in rural Feeder roads in Sokoto State [Zamfara State part of it then], and the rural feeder roads that were categorized as access roads or farm roads.

The minimum DFRRI specifications for this type of roads were according to the report:

[a]	Right of way	=	10metres
[b]	Pavements with	=	6metres
[c]	Culvert length	=	6metres
[d]	Sub-base thickness	=	Nil
[e]	Base-course Thickness	=	150mm

Target for the state according to the same report was that, under the phase II of the programme, Sokoto State [Zamfara part of it then], had a set target of 1167.3km to

achieve. Moreover, a total of 222.5Km was carried over from the implementation of the Phase I of the programme. This made the total target to be achieved up to 1389.8Km.

Table 5.23 (in Appendix V) reveal that a total number of 1450.1km roads were offered in Sokoto State (Zamfara part of it then) for either construction or reconstruction and only 1369.5km roads were accepted. While 80.6km was rejected as reported by Final Comprehensive Inspection Report on phase II Feeder Roads construction and Rehabilitation programme in Sokoto state (1991), DFRRI.

From the summary tables, Sokoto State [Zamfara State part of it then] Offered 136 roads totaling 1450.1km for inspection. This comprised of 1405.6km new construction, 2.0Km reconstructed Roads and 42.5Km rehabilitated roads. Out of this, a total of 1369.5KM made up N1325KM new construction, 2.0KM reconstructed and 42.5KM rehabilitated roads were found by the team to have met the minimum DFFRI standard and specifications and were consequently accepted.

The 1369.5KM accepted by the team was short of the target of 1389.8Km by 20.3Km. This enabled the scale to score an aggregate of 98.50% achievement over the target.

Table 5.24 (in Appendix V) reveals that Sokoto state had 1739.0km roads for construction across the state, but at the end, 90.64% of the target was achieved in DFRRI Feeder Roads programme phase one.

Table 5.25 (in Appendix V) reveals that the 19 L.G.A. of Old Sokoto State (Zamfara State part of it then) benefited from either the construction or reconstruction of 1576.2km roads measured during DFRRI Rural Feeder Road Programme phase one in each L.G.A. of Sokoto State.

5.4.8 Problems Faced by the Programme-DFRRI:

The Problems encountered by Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures while executing its projects were numerous going by reports of Final comprehensive Inspection on various Phases of electricity, water supply and rural roads projects of various states especially Imo State, Plateau State and Zamfara [in former Sokoto State]. Therefore, some of the problems according to the reports were:

[a] Financial contributions from the state and Local Government.

Under the funding guidelines of DFRRI Projects, the National Directorate contributes 75% of the cost, State Government 15% and Local Government 10%. The Final Comprehensive Inspection Team on Phase iv Rural Feeder Roads Programmes in Plateau State [1992:6] noted that only the National DFRRI lived up to its financial responsibilities while the state and Local Governments did not meet their obligations. As a result of this and the general inflationary trend the quality of roads constructed fails each successive phase. The team therefore gave the opinion that both the state and Local Governments should meet their financial commitments to DFRRI projects so as to give DFRRI enough scope to embark on more qualitative projects.

[b] Poor Execution of Projects:

In another report, Final Comprehensive Inspection Phase II Feeder Roads Construction and Rehabilitation Programme in Sokoto State [Zamfara State in it then] [1991:8], it was reported that some portions of the roads inspected had been "washed out" either by river floods or surface run-off due to the absence of culverts, drifts or small bridges on the affected portions of the roads.

[c] Non-Maintenance of Constructed Roads

The same report said that many Local Governments had not been maintaining the roads within their areas because the roads were not handed over to them.

[d] Prices of Electrical Materials:

Another report of Final Comprehensive Inspection of the Phase I of rural electrification programme in Plateau State [1989:9] is of the view that prices of electrical materials had shot up many time over. Consequently the existing DFRRI rates for reticulation and purchase of transformers of whatever capacity were no longer found to be realistic-The professionals in the Presidential Team testified to this and it was therefore resolved that an appeal should be made to DFRRI Headquarters in Lagos to review the existing rates so as to enable the implementing agencies carry out their tasks hitch free.

[e] Geographical Spread:

The same report [op cit] argues that the geographical spread of the location of the rural electrification projects in Plateau State was apparently lopsided. The reason was quite obvious. Unlike roads, well or boreholes, electricity cannot be tapped without the availability of national grid within a reasonable distance. The geographical spread of DFRRI rural electrification in Plateau State was therefore influenced by this factor.

[f] Level of Community Participation; Plateau State:

The same report [Op cit] added that, the level of community participation in the DFRRI rural electrification programme was virtually nil. The only exception was the case of Dorowa Gindin Dutse community which purchases a pole mounted 100KVA transformer and consequently linked up the village with NEPA.

[g] Chronic low voltage situation:

Report on: The Final Comprehensive Inspection of Phase II Rural Electrification Programme in Plateau State [1992:6] had it that the chronic low voltage situation in Lafia Local Government Area made it impossible for six communities in this area viz:

Akurba, Unguwan Bere, Akoko, Bakin Rijiya Sabon Dale and Adogi not to be serviced despite the fact that the projects had been fully completed and energized.

[h] Level of Local Government:

Furthermore, the report [op cit] said that the Inspection team noted with dismay that the level of Local Governments Participation was very low. This does not augur well for the smooth actualization of DFRRI programmes since as the third tier of government Local Government Councils link with communities are closer than any other organization. The Inspection Team sincerely hopes that in future this tier of government should be consulted and involved in projects identification and implementation by the State Directorate.

[i] Financially contributing communities not benefiting:

The same report [op cit] has it that, the Inspection Team noted that N100,000.00 was contributed by both the Shabu and Sabon Pegi communities in the Lafia L.G.A; but that the electricity project only took care of Shabu community. The Sabon Pegi Community was sent to meet the Team. The State Directorate should as a matter of course include this community in its third phase to ward off aggravation of the ill feeling that had built up in addition to the above geographical spread problem observed, this same report on phase II [op cit] has it that the geographical spread of the project under this phase was lopsided. Even though this was as a result of the high level of community participation in these areas in future, the State Directorate must ensure even spread of projects to accommodate the less privileged.

[j] Sign Board not placed at the appropriate portions:

According to the reports, the State Directorate identified most of the projects in line with DFRRI guidelines. However, such signboards should be placed at the appropriate portions for easy identification.

Koinyan in Akeradolu-Ale, (ed) op cit) talking about the problems faced by DFRRI is of the view that the last three to four years gave them at DFRRI an opportunity to tackle as vigorously as possible some major challenges which stood in the way of greater achievements in rural development. In his words, I can only mention and discuss briefly in the following paragraphs the most important of such challenges which include:

i] Problem arising from the sheer scope of operations [programme range, geographical expanse, interstate and inter-regional variations in needs, constraints, etc.].

ii] Other operational problems like, the rising cost of programmes and the inability of funding to keep pace with such cost increase; inadequate motivation and efficiency of implementing agencies etc.]

iii] The lukewarm attitude of the organized private sector to rural development.

iv] The limited organizational and other capacities for development action at the grassroots level, especially;

a] Weak development orientation and limited development capacity on the part of the Local Governments;

b] Weak community organization;

c] Illiteracy;

d] Poverty;

e] Low morale on the part of the people

v] The chronic problem of rural credit

vi] The rural development information gap

vii] The fluid nature of the political situation.

The First National Rolling Plan [1990-92:85] Vol.I. generally Summarizes the problems of rural development thus; the constraints to the development of the rural sector in Nigeria are essentially identical with those of the development of the agricultural sector as a whole.

Basically, the problems of the rural areas can be summarized as those of poverty and poor living and working environment, and productivity attributable to low levels of technology and health delivery services. The problems have been associated with the gross inadequacies of basic social and economic infrastructures such as roads, schools, hospitals, electricity, water and decent accommodation and recreational facilities. As a result of low labour productivity and low quality of life in the rural areas, vis-à-vis the urban areas, there existed a strong tendency towards rural-urban migration resulting in undue pressure on the urban infrastructures and decline output from the rural sector-persistent efforts have however, been made to reverse this trend through the recent policies and back-up programmes that are being effectively implemented, by government.

In a way, the rural development programme of DFRRI were multi-sectoral, designed to complement the programmes of the various sectoral ministries and agencies with a view to achieving a more comprehensive and integrated approach to rural development and pursuit of improvement in the general welfare and living standards of the rural populace-since its inception, the Directorate placed emphasis on roads construction, electricity provision and water supply in the rural areas, etc.

Thus, at the end of the programme [DFRRI], it was able to make some positive impacts on the lives of the rural people by way of providing electricity, water and constructing or rehabilitating rural roads. Though there were arguments and counter

arguments regarding the achievements and or impact of DFRRI on the lives of the rural people, it might be a fact to submit that going by the objectives and targets of DFRRI seen so far, the programme was intended to mean good to rural dwellers.

5.5 Major Findings

Based on the data collected, presented and anlaysed the test of formulated assumptions for this work led to the following findings:

The research established that military authoritative approach to policy/programme implementation contributed to the success of the Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI).

The study reveals that DFRRI provided electricity in the rural areas of the selected states. This was corroborated by Final Comprehensive Inspection (FCI) Report on villages electrified under first phase DFRRI rural electrification scheme, Plateau state (1989) which reveals that 13 rural areas in 13 local Government Areas were designated for rural electrification and the projects were successfully completed - (Appendix iv – Table 5.21). Also Rural Electrification programme phase III, sponsored by DFRRI and Imo State Government (1993) reveals that eight communities in eight Local Government Areas were designated for rural electrification provision and the eight of them benefited in accordance with the plan, while near 100% completion were recorded - (Appendix iv – Table 5.16).

The study found out that the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures provided potable water in the rural areas of the selected states. This also was corroborated with the Report of Final Comprehensive Inspection (FCI) on DFRRI Rural Water and Sanitation Programme which reveals that according to the plan, DFRRI had the target of 123communities to be provided with rural water at the end of

implementation. At the end of implementation proper, 282 watering points were provided while 282 communities were served. This indicates that DFRRI even provided water beyond its target - (Appendix IV – Table 5.11).

The research also established that the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures constructed rural feeder roads in the rural areas of the selected states. This was corroborated by Final Comprehensive Inspection (FCI) on DFRRI feeder roads programme phase I (1991) in Sokoto State (Zamfara was part of Sokoto State then) which reveals that 1739km of rural feeder roads were targeted for the state in phase I, but at the end of implementation, 90.64% was measured by (FCI), - (Appendix iv – Table 5.24).

The study equally established that the facilities provided by the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) enhanced the living standards of the rural dwellers in the selected states. This was corroborated by the benefiting communities interviewed in the selected states. According to them, "the facilities provided for them by DFRRI improved their living standards going by the fact that they could move their farm products easily to the urban areas for disposal as a result of access roads constructed by DFRRI. The communities also confessed that they became entrepreneurs like welders, hair dressing saloon owners etc with the rural electricity provided by DFRRI. The communities as well agreed that the provision of potable water exposed them to drinking clean water and farming in large quantities with the use of irrigation - (chapter 4 – Report from communities).

The study further reveals that the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) involved and supported viable Local Community Organizations and effectively mobilized the rural population for sustained rural

development activities, and this promoted greater community participation and economic self reliance of the rural community. This was corroborated by the communities interviewed in the selected states as they "agreed that they were involved in the provision of the facilities (water and electricity supply, and feeder roads construction) by DFFRI at the level of implementation" - (chapter 4 – Report from communities).

Lastly, this study established that DFRRI's success in rural development was within the context of the implementation strategies adopted.

CHAPTER SIX:

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS:

6.1 Introduction

This Chapter summarizes the major points of the proceeding chapters and also proffers recommendations for improvement in rural development programmes of subsequent regimes/administrations in Nigeria. The recommendations in this chapter could as well serve other countries that have related rural areas under-development problem. The chapter concludes with suggestion that could assist research works.

6.2 Summary

The focus of this study was on Rural Development Programme under military regime: A study of Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI).

The problem of this work was to study Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) and find out the extent to which it was able to achieve its objectives and the type of impact the programme (DFRRI) generated on rural dwellers.

To do this, the study examined among others whether or not the successful implementation of DFRRI programme was as a result of the implementation strategies.

The study revealed how Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures embarked upon, enhancement of rural poverty, water (potable water and irrigation construction) feeder/access roads (transportation) and electricity (storage).

To source the relevant data, formal interview methods were used, for others the researcher employed the survey method. Simple statistical methods with percentages were employed as tools for analysis.

6.3 Conclusion

What has emerged from this work so far is that the mandate of DFRRI to move rural development away from past narrow sectoral preoccupation with the generation of food and fibre surpluses of the overall formulation of a national rural development strategy with emphasis on the alleviation of rural poverty and enhancement of the quality of rural life (Military President Budget Speech, January 1986), was met. Evidence of this could be seen in classification of respondents according to their opinions indicated in the responses the respondents offered.

That is to say that most of the salient functions (the 18 objectives) for the Directorate enshrined in the Decree (Decree No. 4 of 6 February, 1986, supplement to official Gazzette extraordinary No. 19, Vol. 74, 10 April, 1987, part A) were accomplished.

From the above therefore, it is deduced that rural development efforts of DFRRI was derived from immediate needs and aspirations of the rural dwellers and not in response to the needs of the urban political economy. However, it is the conclusion of this work that going by the findings, the Directorate was given a very broad mandate for the promotion of rural development and transformation and it was able to achieve its mandate.

6.4 Recommendations

The establishment of Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI), by the Federal Government was informed by the belief of the military that rural development and improvement of the standard of living of the rural people holds a

greater promise as a strategy for promoting sound economic growth of the nation. This research has shown that the successful implementation of DFRRI programme was predicated on the strategies adopted. Having considered the findings from the study, the following measures are recommended for improving the performance of future rural development programmes in Nigeria.

Previous efforts at developing rural areas by various administrations in the past failed. The General Ibrahim Babangida military administration introduced the Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) in 1986 and succeeded in enhancing the living standards of the rural dwellers using military authoritative approach. Government and research scholars should carry out further researches on this Military Authoritative Approach with a view to seeing how it can be integrated in future rural development programmes in Nigeria.

Though electricity, potable water and feeder roads were provided by DFRRI more better than the previous rural development programmes, government should make more efforts at going beyond the level of electricity, potable water and rural feeder roads provided by the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures. Such efforts should be by way of policy and programme continuity because past experiences have shown that development programmes in Nigeria tend to vanish with the administration that initiates them which is not the best for any country wishing to develop its rural areas.

To provide more electricity, potable water and rural feeder roads therefore, government should establish a Permanent National Rural Development Programme (PNRDP) which will take into account the level of ruralness and allocate resources to

the rural areas for development on the basis of their rating with the hope of developing both human and material resources in the rural areas.

Government should involve the rural communities (the beneficiaries) not only at the implementation stage, but from policy formulation stage to enable them make inputs as regards the basic needs of their communities that will not be in conflict with their culture/ways of life. More so, the benefiting communities should be the flag bearers in the quest for rural development to eliminate paternalistic view which assumes, rural dwellers are passive and totalistic, uninterested in improvement of their lives, and incapable of making initiative for improvement.

Having established that a contributing factor to the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) success in rural development was the implementation strategy (Management and Mobilization) it adopted, government should draw lessons from DFRRI programme by way of study everything about it, having been the most successful rural development in Nigeria so far.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE ADMINISTERED TO OFFICIALS OF DFRRI IN PLATEAU, IMO AND ZAMFARA STATES, AND ABUJA

Department of Public Administration,
Faculty of Administration,
Ahmadu Bello University,
Zaria.

_____

_____

_____

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is part of a study on, Rural Development Programme under Military Regime: A Study of Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI).

The Researcher is a PhD Public Administration student in the Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

The nature of the study includes rural development programme under military regime and its impacts on the lives of Rural Nigerians. The questionnaire is designed to seek your opinion/perception on the overall impact rather than information about one particular aspect of DFRRI as an institution assigned the Role of Rural Development in Nigeria.

Read each of the statement carefully and use the 5-point scale below to rate the statement as truthfully as possible by ticking the number that corresponds with your rating.

1._____ Strongly Agree (SA)

2. _____ Agree (A)

3. _____ Undecided (UD)

4. _____ Disagree (D)

5. _____ Strongly Disagree (SD)

Your responses will be highly appreciated and treated confidentially.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Anokwuru, Innocent .C.

SECTION A:

PERSONAL DATA

Please write your name and tick (√) the appropriate answers as they apply to you.

i.) Name:_____

_____

ii.) Sex: (a) Male ( ) (b) Female ( )

iii.) Age: (a) 18-25 years ( ) (b) 26-35 years ( ) (c) 36-45 years ( ) (d) 46-55 years ( ) (e) 56-65 years

iv.) Marital status: (a) Married ( ) (b) Single ( )

v.) Educational Qualifications: (a) WAEC and its equivalents ( ) (b) ND ( ) (c) First degree/HND ( ) (d) Master degree ( ) (e) Ph.D ( )

vi.) Rank: (a) Assistant Director ( )(b) Director ( ) (c)Others ( )

B. MILITARY AUTHORITATVE APPROACH TO POLICY IMPLEMENTATION AND DFRRI SUCCESS

i) Military authoritative style to programme implementation is more effective

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

ii) Military style is effective in Nigeria 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

iii) Military style ensure effective implementation of DFRRI programme

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

C. DFRRI PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGY AND SUCCESS IN ELECTRICITY SUPPLY IN RURAL AREAS

i) DFRRI provided electricity in your communities.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

ii) DFRRI style of providing electricity is effective.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

iii) DFRRI style of providing electricity improved electricity supply in rural areas. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

D. DFRRI PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGY AND IMPROVED WATER SUPPLY IN THE RURAL AREAS

i) DFRRI provided water for your community

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

ii) DFRRI style of providing water is effective

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

iii) DFRRI formal guidelines for the behaviour of staff contributed to provision of electricity and other amenities.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

E. DFRRI PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGY AND IMPROVED FEEDER ROADS

i) DFRRI constructed feeder roads in your communities.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

ii) DFRRI specialization of tasks contributed to the construction of feeder roads and provision of other amenities. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

iii) DFRRI used the most efficient means to construct feeder roads.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DFRRI OFFICIALS

Department of Public Administration,
Faculty of Administration,
Ahmadu Bello University,
Zaria.

_____

_____

_____

Dear Respondent,

This interview is part of a study on, Rural Development Programme under Military Regime: A Study of Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI).

The Researcher is a Ph.D Public Administration student in the Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

The nature of the study includes rural development programme under military regime and its impacts on the lives of Rural Nigerians. The interview is designed to seek your view on DFRRI activities and their impact on Rural Development.

As an official during DFRRI programme, you may kindly grant me an interview on the attached questions.

Your responses will be appreciated and treated confidentially.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Anokwuru, Innocent .C.

SECTION A:

PERSONAL DATA

Name:

Sex: Male ( ) Female ( )

Age:

Marital Status: Married ( ) Single ( )

Educational Qualification/s:

Rank:

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How much of DFRRI programmes do you still remember?
2. What were the problems of DFRRI?
3. How did the strategy adopted by DFRRI help it to achieve its objectives?
4. In what area do you think DFRRI made the most impact and why? (Please choose from the three areas of water, electricity and access roads).
5. Was the policy jointly formulated and implemented by officials of DFRRI at states and federal levels.
6. How was DFRRI projects funded?

APPENDIX III

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR BENEFITING COMMUNITIES

Department of Public Administration,
Faculty of Administration,
Ahmadu Bello University,
Zaria.

_____

_____

_____

Dear Respondent,

This interview is part of a study on, Rural Development Programme under Military Regime: A Study of Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI).

The Researcher is a Ph.D Public Administration student in the Faculty of Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

The nature of the study includes rural development programme under military regime and its impacts on the lives of Rural Nigerians. The interview is designed to seek your view on DFRRI activities and their impact on Rural Development.

As a community that benefiting from DFRRI programme, you may wish to grant me an interview on the attached questions.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Anokwuru, Innocent .C.

SECTION A:

PERSONAL DATA

Name of communities:

Sex: Male ( ) Female ( )

Age:

Marital Status: Married ( ) Single ( )

Educational Qualification/s:

Occupation:

SECTION B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Was the community aware of the existence of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures?
2. To what extent did DFRRI succeed in providing services to the community?
3. What were the services provided by DFRRI in the community?
4. At what level was the community involved in the provision of the facilities by DFRRI?
5. How did these facilities and infrastructures help to improve the living standard of the community?
6. What are the problems the community has been having in the maintenance and sustenance of the infrastructures provided by DFRRI?
7. Can the community think of any better way of providing such services and infrastructures outside the approach used by DFRRI?

APPENDIX IV

Table 5.5: Summary of the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] on DFRRI Rural Feeder Roads Programme Phase One in Imo State:

1.	Target for the state	945.0km
2.	Total km offered for Inspection by the state	1311.8km
3.	Total km measured by the FCI team	1311.8km
4.	Total Number of Roads	124 Roads
5.	Total km Accepted by the FCI team	1307.0km
5.1	% of accepted Roads that was newly constructed	0.91%
5.2	% of accepted Roads that was Reconstructed	4.58%
5.3	% of accepted Roads that was Rehabilitated	94.51%
6.	km Requiring further work [Based on km measured]	4.8km
6.1	% of Roads Requiring Further Work Newly constructed	0.0%
6.2	% of Roads Requiring Further Work Reconstructed	0.0%
6.3	% of Roads Requiring further work Rehabilitated	100.0%
7.	Distance by which state has not met the target	Nil
8.	Percentage of total km Accepted by FCI over Target	138.31%
9.	Percentage of total km measured by FCC over Target	138.87%

Source: A National statistical Digest of DFRRI's Achievements on the Rural Feeder Roads Programme, [Phase I]. DFRRI, Lagos.

Table 5.6: Summary of the FCI Report on DFRRI Rural Feeder Road Programme Phase I in each Local Government Area of Imo State

S/No	LGA-Names	Total KM Accepted				KM FOR FURTHER WORK				TOTAL KM MEASURED
		NC [a]	RC [b]	RH [c]	Total [d]	NC [e]	RC [f]	RH [g]	TOTAL [h]	[d + h]
1.	Aba	0.0	0.0	32.1	32.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	32.1
2.	Aboh Mbaise	1.95	59.95	61.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	61.9
3.	Afikpo	0.0	0.0	56.4	56.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	56.4
4.	Ahiazu Mbaise	5.0	0.0	43.3	48.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	48.3
5.	Arochukwu/Ohafia	0.0	0.0	80.5	80.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	80.5
6.	Bende	0.0	0.0	129.5	129.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	129.5
7.	Etiti	2.7	10.4	31.0	44.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	44.1
8.	Ideato	0.0	0.0	66.6	66.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	66.6
9.	Ikwuano/Umuahia	0.0	5.45	42.15	47.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	47.6
10.	Isiala Ngwa	0.0	0.0	63.2	63.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	63.2
11	Isuikwuato/Okigwe	0.0	10.1	52.4	62.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	62.5
12.	Mbaitoli/Ikeduru	0.0	0.0	43.2	43.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	43.2
13.	Mbano	0.0	0.0	59.4	59.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	59.4
14.	Nkwerre/Isu	4.2	0.0	42.8	47.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	47.0
15.	Obioma/Ngwa	0.0	0.0	77.0	77.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	77.0
16.	Ohaji/Egbema/Oguta	0.0	0.0	101.7	101/7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	101.7
17.	Ohaozara	0.0	0.0	52.9	52.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	52.9
18.	Orlu	0.0	0.0	42.1	42.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	42.1
19.	Oru	0.0	10.0	53.7	63.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	63.7
20.	Owerri	0.0	22.0	39.5	61.5	0.0	0.0	4.8	4.8	66.3
21.	Ukwa	0.0	0.0	65.8	65.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	65.8
	TOTAL	11.9	59.9	1235.2	1307.0	0.0	0.0	4.8	4.8	1311.8

Source: A National Statistical Digest of DFRR's Achievement on the Rural Feeder Roads Programme [Phase I]

Table 5.7: Summary Table for FCI Report on DFRRI Rural Feeder Road Programme Phase II in each Local-Govt-Area of Imo State.

S/No	L G A	Total of Roads [a]	Total-km of-roads offered by state [b]	Total-KM of Roads measured by FCI [c]	Total-km of Roads Accepted by FCI [d]	Total-KM Requiring Further Work [e]
1.	Aba	7	20.8	20.4	20.4	0.0
2.	A-Mbaise/Ezinihitte	13	66-7	68.5	68.5	00
3.	AFikpo	10	54.3	62.0	62.0	0.0
4.	Ahiazu Mbaise	10	62.8	62.5	62.5	0.0
5.	Arochukwu Ohafia	10	73.6	70.2	70.2	0.0
6.	Bende	8	56.2	52.6	52.6	0.0
7.	Ideato	14	82.6	85.0	85.0	0.0
8.	Ihitte Uboma & Obowo	9	53.1	52.6	52.6	0.0
9.	Ikwuano/Umuahia	7	56.42	58.9	58.9	0.0
10.	Isiala & Ehime Mbano	14	88.8	88.3	88.3	0.0
11.	Isiala Ngwa	9	70.6	71.6	71.9	0.0
12.	Isuikwato/Okigwe	13	100.5	98.3	98.3	0.0
13.	Mbaitoli & Ikeduru	14	92.82	91.3	91.3	0.0
14.	Nkirere/Isu	16	62.8	64.0	64.0	0.0
15.	Obioma Ngwa	9	57.6	56.5	56.5	0.0
16.	Ohaji/Egbema Oguta	14	116.3	113.7	113.7	0.0
17.	Ohaozaralonicha	10	66.2	63.5	63.5	0.0
18.	Orlu	12	59.9	59.4	59.4	0.0
19.	Oru	10	57.0	51.1	51.1	0.0
20	Owerri/Ngar Okpala	13	96.4	92.3	92.3	0.0
21.	Ukwa	11	52.3	57.9	56.3	1.6
	Grand Total	**233**	**1447.74**	**1440.9**	**1439.3**	**1.6**

Source: Summary Tables of DFRR's Achievements on Rural Feeder Roads Programme Phase II in Imo State.

Table 5.8: Statistics Representing DFRRI's targets and the S.D.R.D achievements under Phase I and II, Rural Feeder Road Programme in Imo State.

Phase	**DFRRI Target**	**S.D.R.D Achievement**	**Remarks**
1.	945km	1,300.6km	S.D.R.D exceeded DFRRI target by 355.6km or 37.6%
2.	1,377km	1,393.9km	S.D.R.D exceeded DFRRI target by 16.9km or 1.2%

Source: Report of the Presidential Monitoring Team on the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] of Phase III Rural Feeder Roads Programme in Imo State.

Table 5.9: Geographical Spread of DFRRI Roads in Imo State.

S/No	Local Government	Total Km physically Inspected Accepted	Percentage of Total Length
1.	Abo Mbaise	53.6	5.8
2.	Ezinihitte Mbaise	56.8	6.1
3.	Ahiazu Mbaise	48.9	5.3
4.	Ehime Mbano	62.6	6.8
5.	Isiala Mbano	65.8	7.1
6.	Ihitte Ubomo	46.8	5.0
7.	Obowo	37.5	4.0
8.	Isu	46.9	5.1
9.	Mbaitoli	42.1	4.5
10	Ikeduru	45.3	4.9
11.	Oru	53.9	5.8
12.	Ideato South	18.4	2.0
13.	Orlu	31.5	3.4
14.	Oru	10.2	1.1
15.	Nkwere	59.8	6.4
16.	Ngor Okpala	82.6	8.9
17.	Oguta	15.7	1.7
18.	Ohaji/Egbema	22.3	2.4
20.	Okigwe	53.2	5.7
21	Owerri	39.4	4.3
	Total	927.8	100.0%

Source: Report of the Presidential Monitoring Team on the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] of Phase III, Rural Feeder Roads Programme in Imo State, 1992.

Table 5.10: Statistical Grand Summary Performance [in kilometers] for Imo and Abia States, Phase III Rural Feeder Roads.

S/No	**State**	**F.C.I [km] Accepted** **927.8**
1.	Imo	927.8
2.	Abia	461.8
	Grand Total Imo & Abia States	**1,389.6**

Source: Report of the Presidential monitoring Team on the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] of Phase III, Rural Feeder Road Programme in Imo State, 1992.

Table 5.11: Summary Table on DFRRI Rural water and sanitation Programme Phase I in Imo State Based on FCI Report:

S/NO	L.G.A	NO. OF PROJECT LOCATIONS	NO. OF WATERING POINTS	NO. OF COMM[S] SERVED	NO. REQ. FURTHER WORK
1.	Aba	4	4	4	-
2.	Abo-Mbaise	14	21	21	2
3.	Afikpo	8	8	8	-
4.	Ahiazu-Mbaise	1	15	15	-
5.	Arochukwu/Ohafia	1	9	9	-
6.	Bende	2	6	6	-
7.	Etiti	1	12	12	-
8.	Ideato	2	2	2	-
9.	Ikwuano/Umuahia	2	20	20	-
10.	Isiala-Ngwa	12	11	11	1
11.	Isuikwuato/Okigwe	1	6	6	-
12.	Mbaitoli/Ikeduru	18	33	33	1
13.	.Mbano	1	10	10	-
14.	Nkwerre/Isu	1	6	6	-
15.	Obioma Ngwa	13	13	13	-
16.	Ohaji/Egbema/Oguta	12	12	12	-
17.	Ohaozara	-	-	-	-
18.	Orlu	1	20	20	-
19.	Oru	1	15	15	-
20.	Owerri	16	47	47	-
21.	Ukwa	12	12	12	-
	Totals:	**123**	**282**	**282**	**4**

Comments:-

Target: *123 Communities*

Achievements: *282Communities*

Source: *Summary tables of DFRRI's Achievements on Rural Water and Sanitation [RUWATSAN] Programme [Phase I] in Imo State. Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures, Lagos. 1990.*

Table 5.12: Electrification project in Imo state:

S/No	SENATORIAL ZONE	NO.OF ELECTRICITY PROJECTS, PHASE II EXECUTIED	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
1.	Owerri	2	18.2
2.	Orlu	6	54.5
3.	Okigwe	3	27.3
Total		11	100.0%2

Source: Report on the Final Comprehensive Inspection of Phase II Rural Electrification Programme in Imo State [1990], Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure, Lagos.

Table 5.13: SUMMARY ACHIEVEMENTS BY S.D.R.D

S/No	Project Location	L.G.A	33KV HT Lines		L.T.Lines KM	Sub-stations		Status [Energized/Not Energized]	Remarks/ Observations	Project costs [N]	Further work to be done
			T.D.N KM	I.T.C. KM		Pole Mounted [No.]	Ground Mounted [No.]				
1.	Egberede	Abo Mbaise	Nil	Nil	1.20	Nil	Nil	Energized	Well constructed	115,434.24	None
2.	Amakpaka Nnarambia	Ahiazu Mbaise	Nil	Nil	3.75	Nil	Nil	Energized	Satisfactory	328,349.53	Nil
3.	Umuoparanya	Ehime Mbano	Nil	Nil	1.10	Nil	Nil	Energized	Ok.	123,616.80	Nil
4.	Umualumuku	Ehime Mbano	Nil	Nil	1.00	Nil	Nil	Energized	Satisfactory	127,986.72	Nil
5.	Amurie Omanze	Isu	Nil	Nil	5.8	Nil	Nil	Energized	Good but long	829.732.47	Nil
6.	Ubaha Awo/Idemili	Orsu	1.5	-	2.8	-	1No 200KVA S/N 539926	Energized	Good	1,069.204.10	Nil
7.	Omuma	Oru	1.0	-	2.2	1No. 1ooKVA S/N 799045	-	Energized	1No. 200KVA donated by DFRRI yet to be completed by community	914,319.50	Nil
8.	Umudioko Owerri	Orlu	Nil	Nil	1.44	Nil	Nil	Energized	Ok	255,150.12	Nil
9.	Umnunze Eziachi	Orlu	0.7	-	2.45	-	200KVA S/N 1174.13	Energized	Very good	687,107.03	Nil
10.	Umuochoke Amaigbo	Nkwerre	Nil	Nil	0.8	Nil	Nil	Energized	Good	77,006.89	Nil
11.	Okpuala Osuama	Isiala Mbano	Nil	Nil	3.4	Nil	Nil	Energized	Very good	394,296.00	Nil
Total			3.2	Nil	25.94	1No.	2No.	Completely Energized	1No. 200KVA substation yet to be completed	4,922,203.20	

Source: Report on the Final Comprehensive Inspection of Phase II Rural Electrification Programme in Imo State [1990]. DFRRI

Table 5.14: Statistical Grand Summary of Achievements for Imo and Abia States

S/No	State	No of Projects Executed	33/11KV KV HT Lines		L.T. Lines	Sub-stations		Status Energized/Not Energized	Remarks/ Observations	Project costs [N]	Further work to be done
			T.D.N [KM]	I.T.C. [KM] [11KV]		Pole Mounted [No.]	Ground Mounted [No.]				
1.	Imo	11	3.2	-	25.94	1No.	2No	Completely Energized	Good	4,922,203.20	-
2.	Abia	6	3.9	3.5	13.65	-	4No.	Completely Energized	Good	3,325,532.20	Nil
Total		17	7.1	3.5	39.59	1No	6No.	Completely Energized	Good	8,247.755.20	Nil

Source: Report on: The Final Comprehensive Inspection of Phase II Rural Electrification Programme in Imo State [1990].

DFRRI, Lagos.

Table 5.15: Statistical Summary of Benefitting Communities for Imo and Abia States:

S/No	State	No. of benefitting Communities
1.	Imo	21
2.	Abia	14
Total		**35**

Source: Report on: The Final Comprehensive Inspection of Phase II Rural Electrification Programme in Imo Rural Infrastructure, Lagos.

Table 5.16: Status and Achievements of Rural Electrification Programme Phase III in Imo State (1993).

S/NO	Location	LGA	Scope of Project			Substation	Remarks
			ITC KM	TDN KM	LT KM		
1.	Aru	Owerri	1.7	0.6	1.2	1x200KVA 11/0.415KV	Energized & Officially Commissioned 5/2/93
2.	Nnerim	Isu	-	1.6	5.8	1x100KVA 1x200KVA	Energized and Officially Commissioned 1/2/93
3.	Umuebie Ugiri	Isiala Mbano	-	-	3.0	1x100KVA 33/0.415KV	Energized and Officially Commissioned 2/2/93
4.	Amuzi Ikenanzizi	Obowo	1.6	-	1.0	1x100KVA 33/0.415KV	Energized and Officially Commissioned 2/2/93
5.	Ohuala Owerre	Ikeduru	-	-	.7	-	Energized and was to be Officially Commissioned
6.	Akubor Ihenwurie	Mbaise	-	4.0	2.0	1x200KVA 33/0.415KV	Energized and Officially Commissioned 20/6/93
7.	Owu Amakohia	Ikeduru	-	3.8	2.0	1x200KVA 11/0.415KV	Energized and Officially Commissioned 6/8/93
8.	Seat of Wisdon Seminarry, Ulakwo	Ngor Okpala	-	2.5	-	1x200KVA 33/0.415KV	Energized and was to be Officially Commissioned

Source: Rural Electrification Programme Phase III, sponsored by Directorate of Food, Roads and rural Infrastructures and Imo State Government, Owerri [1993].

Table 5.17: Summary of the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] on DFRRI Rural Feeder Roads Programme Phase one in Plateau State.

1.	Target for the State	1.509.0km
2.	Total km offered for inspection by the state	1,606.1km
3.	Total Km Measured by the FCI Team	1,606.1km
4.	Total No of Roads	95 roads
5.	Total Km. Accepted by the FCI Team	1,382.7km
5.1	% of Accepted Roads that was newly constructed	13.79%
5.2	% of Accepted Roads that was Recosntructed	41.12%
5.3	% of Accepted Roads that was Rehabilitated	45.09%
6.	KM. Requiring further work [Based on Km-Measured]	223.4Km
6.1	% of Newly constructed Roads Requiring further work	45.80%
6.2	% of Reconstructed Roads Requiring further work	11.32%
6.3	% of Rehabilitated Roads Requiring Further Work	42.88%
7.	Distance by which state has not met target	Nil
8.	% of Total Km Accepted by FCI over Target	91.66%
9.	% of Total KM measured by FCI over Target	106.43%

Source: A National Statistical Digest of DFRRI's Achievement on the Rural Feeder Roads Programme [Phase I], Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures, Lagos (1991).

Table 5.18: DFRRI's Achievements on Rural Feeder Roads In Plateau State (Now Split Into Nassarawa And Plateau States) Phase I, 1991.

S/No	LGA	Total KM NC [a]	KM RC [b]	Accepted		KM NC [e]	For Further Work			Total KM Measured [d + h]
				RH [c]	TOTAL [d]		RC [f]	RH [g]	Total [h]	
1.	Akwanga	0.0	56.3	42.7	99.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	99.0
2.	Awe	12.5	71.7	98.0	182.2	0.0	9.2	40.4	49.6	231.0
3.	Barkin Ladi	0.0.	59.0	70.8	129.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	129.8
4.	Basa	7.0	32.0	3.8	42.8	9.4	0.0	0.0	9.4	52.2
5.	Jos	16.2	40.2	66.7	123.1	0.0	0.0	15.8	15.8	138.9
6.	Akanam	0.0	0.0	52.4	52.4	0.0	0.0	10.6	10.6	63.0
7.	Keffi	0.0	105.4	17.0	122.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	122.4
8.	Laffia	0.0	27.2	96.5	123.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	127.4
9.	Lantang	35.5	37.5	70.9	143.9	18.7	0.0	0.0	18.7	162.6
10.	Mangu	20.1	58.8	9.0	87.9	5.3	9.4	18.8	33.5	121.4
11.	Nassarawa	0.0	32.0	30.8	62.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	62.8
12.	Pankshin	6.8	29.7	0.0	36.5	0.0	6.7	0.0	6.7	43.2
13.	Shendam	12.6	18.7	64.9	96.2	26.5	0.0	6.5	33.0	129.2
14.	Wase	80.0	0.0	0.0	80.0	42.4	0.0	0.0	42.4	122.4
Total		190.7	568.5	623.5	1382.7	102.3	25.3	95.8	223.4	1606.1

Source: A National Statistical Digest of DFRRI's Achievements on the Rural Feeder Roads Programme Phase I [1991], Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures, Lagos.

Table 5.19: Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] of Phase Iv Rural Feeder Roads in Plateau State, -State Summary.

S/No	L.G	New Construction	Recon-struction	Rehabili-tation	Surface Dressed	Total	Spread %
1.	Akwanga	-	44.80	43.70	-	108.50	5.9
2.	Awe	-	25.00	29.50	-	54.50	3.0
3.	B/Ladi	7.0	54.40	43.40	-	1-4.80	5.7
4.	Basa	12.80	60.80	11.50	-	85.10	4.6
5.	Bokkos	24.50	72.60	56.80	-	153.90	8.3
6.	Doma	-	-	124.00	-	124.00	6.7
7.	Jos North	6.80	22.20	12.00	0.80	41.80	2.3
8.	Jos South	-	39.30	29.40	-	68.70	3.7
9.	Kanam	-	14.50	17.00	-	31.50	1.7
10.	Karu	-	-	57.00	-	57.00	3.1
11.	Keffi	-	118.00	20.20	-	138.20	2.5
12.	Lafia	-	29.30	65.70	-	95.00	7.5
13.	L/North	-	34.00	22.10	10.00	66.10	3.6
14.	L South	-	37.50	37.00	-	74.50	4.0
15.	Mangu	15.6	46.30	12.50	2.50	76.90	4.2
16.	Nasarawa	-	23.00	23.00	-	46.00	2.5
17.	N/Eggon	-	-	52.00	-	52.00	2.8
18.	Obi	-	28.00	25.00	-	53.00	2.9
19.	Pankshin	24.00	70.10	23.20	-	117.30	6.4
20.	Z/Pan	10.00	29.00	53.20		-92.20	5.0
21.	Shendam	-	91.80	11.00	-	102.80	5.6
22.	Toto	-	57.10	30.00	-	87.10	4.7
23.	Wase	-	15.60	-	-	15.60	0.8
Total		**100.70**	**933.30**	**799.20**	**13.30**	**1846.50**	**100%**

Source: Final Comprehensive Inspection Report on Phase Iv Rural Feeder Roads Programme in Plateau State, Vol. I [1992] DFRRI.

Table 5.20: Summary of DFRRI's Project, target and Plateau State's Achievements in Rural Electrification: (1989)

Project Components	**DFRRI Target**	**State Achievements**
33KV [ITC]	2.2KM	2.75KM
11KV [ITC]	21.6KM	22.45Km
33KV[TDN]	NA	0.3km
11kv/mv[tdn]	2.7km	7.95km
Mv/lv[tdn]	24.8km	32.3km
Substation a.m.ss x pmss	22,8km	23No.

Source: Final comprehensive Inspection Report of the First Phase of the Rural Electrification Programme in Plateau State [1989]. DFRRI, Lagos.

Table 5.21: Villages Electrified under First Phase, Rural Electrification Scheme, Summary, Plateau State, DFRRI

S/N	L.G.A	Names of Villages	33KV ITC		11KV ITC		33KV/MVTDN		11KV/MVTDN		MV/LVTDN		Substation		Work Done Remarks
			Target KM	Work Done KM	Target KM	Work done KM	Target KM	Work Done Km	Target KM	Work Done Km	Target KM	Work Done Km	Target No	Work Done No	
1.	Akwanga	Andaha	N/A	N/A	15	15.5	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	2	2	100% completed
2.	Akwanga	N.Eggon	0.1	0.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1.0	1.5	4	1	Installed additional 4 Transformers bought by State Utility Board
3.	Bassa	Kwall	N/A	N/A	-	0.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1	1	100% completed & Commissioned
4.	Bassa	Mista Ali	0.3	0.2	N/A	N/A	-	0.1	N/A	N/A	3.00	4.05	1	1	-do-
5.	Jos	Dilimi	1.5	2.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	2.00	2.05	1	1	-do-
6.	Jos	Du/Zawan	N/A	N/A	3.00	3.4	N/A	N/A	2.70	7.6	7.0	7.8	7	7	-do-
`7.	Jos	Rabin	N/A	N/A	-	1.2	N/A	N/A	-	0.15	-	1	-	1	-do-
8.	Jos	Dorowa Korana	N/A	N/A	-	1.5	N/A	N/A	-	0.15	-	2.2	-	2	-do-
9.	Jos	Babale	-	0.05	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	-	1.95	-	1	-do-
10.	Keffi	Geraku	0.1	-	-	0.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1	1	-do-
11.	Lantang	Dadur	-	2.0	-	-	N/A	N/A	-	0.05	3.8	4.4	1	3	-do-
12.	Lantang	Zamko	0.2	-	-	0.05	3.8	4.4	1	3					
13.	Pankshin	Dawaki	N/A	6	3.6	N/A	-	-	N/A	N/A	3.5	4.85	1	-	-do-

Source: Final Comprehensive Inspection Report of the First Phase of the Rural Electrification Programme in Plateau State [1989], DFRRI, Lagos

Table 5.22: Summary of Achievement; Phase II Feeder Roads Construction and Rehabilitation Programme in Sokoto State (Zamfara State part of it then), 1991, DFRRI.

1.	Target for the State =1389.8Km
2.	Total Km offered for Inspection =1450.1km
3.	Total KM Measured by the Team =1450.1km
4.	Total Km Accepted by the Team =1369.5km
5.	Total Km Required Further Work =80.6Km
6.	Has the State Met the target: =No
7.	Distance by which state has not met target =20.3km
8	PERCENTAGE OF:
	[i] Total KM accepted by the team over target =98.50%
	[ii] New construction over total KM accepted by team =96.75%
	[iii] Reconstructed road over total KM accepted by team =015%
	[iv] Rehabilitated road over total KM accepted by team =3.10%
	Total Amount Spent =N26,243,800.00

Source: Final Comprehensive Inspection report on Phase II Feeder Roads construction and Rehabilitation Programme in Sokoto State [Zamfara State part of it then], [1991], DFRRI.

Table 5.23: Report of the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] of Phase II Rural Feeder Roads Programme in Sokoto State [Zamfara State Part of it then], summary Table.

S/N	L.G.A	No. of Roads	K i l o m e t e r			Status
			Total Offered	Total Accepted	Total Rejected	
1.	Anka	4	77.0	77.0	-	NC
2.	Bakura	-	-	-	-	-
3.	Binji	3	21.5	20.5	1.0	NC
4.	Bodinga	8	39.4	39.0	0.4	NC/RH
5.	Bukkuyum	2	27.0	20.0	7.0	NC
6.	Bungudu	8	71.0	71.0	-	NC
7.	Dange/Shuni	12	104.8	76.8	28.0	NC/RH
8.	Gada	5	48.1	48.1	-	NC
9.	Gorongo	1	6.3	6.3	-	NC
10.	Gummi	3	56.0	55.0	1.0	NC
11.	Gusau	2	60.0	60.0	-	NC
12.	Gwadabawa	4	60.3	52.3	8.0	NC
13.	Illela	7	83.0	80.0	3.0	Nc
14.	Isa	2	9.0	9.0	-	RC/Rh
15.	Kaura Namoda	5	69.0	58.0	11.0	NC
16.	Kware	8	51.2	48.0	3.2	NC
17.	Maradun	3	67.5	67.5	-	NC
18.	Rabah	9	54.4	52.4	2.0	NC/R11
19.	Sabon Birni	3	56.2	56.2	-	NC
20.	Silame	3	24.0	24.0	-	NC
21	Sokoto	4	9.6	9.6	-	NC
22.	Talata Mafara	4	41.0	35.0	6.0	NC
23.	Tambawal	5	110.0	110.0	-	NC
24.	Tangaza	-	-	-	-	-
25.	Tsafe	6	63.8	63.8	-	NC
26.	Wammako	5	25.5	25.5	-	NC
27.	Wurno	10	79.6	69.6	10	NC/RH
28.	Yabo	4	68.3	68.3	-	NC
29.	Zurmi	6	66.6	66.6	-	NC
Total		**136**	**1450.1**	**1369.5**	**80.6**	

Note: NC=New construction; Rc=Reconstruction

RH=Rehabilitation

Source: Final Comprehensive Inspection Report on Phase II Feeder Roads Construction and Rehabilitation Programme in Sokoto State [1991] DFRRI

Table 5.24: Summary of the Final Comprehensive Inspection [FCI] on DFRRI Feeder Roads Programme Phase one in Sokoto State .

1.	Target for the State	1739.0KM
2.	Total Km Offered for Inspection by the State	1576.2Km
3.	Total KM Measured by the FCI Team	1576.2KM
4.	Total No. of Roads	81 roads
5	Total KM Accepted by the FCI Team	1365.8KM
5.1	% of Accepted Roads that was newly constructed	70.10%
5.2	% of Accepted Roads that was Reconstructed	o.o%
5.3	% of Accepted Roads that was Rehabilitated	29.90%
6.	KM Requiring further work [Based on KM Measured]	210.4KM
7.	% of Newly constructed Roads Requiring Further Work	91.44%
6.2	% of Reconstructed Roads Requiring Further Work	0.0%
6.3	% of Rehabilitated Roads Requiring further work	8.56%
7.	Distance by which state did not meet the Target	373.2KM
8.	Percentage of Total KM Accepted by FCI over Target	78.54%
9.	% of Total Km measured by FCI over Target	90.64%

Source: A National Statistical Digest of DFRRI's Achievements on the Rural Feeder Roads Programme [Phase I]. DFRRI [1991].

Table 5.25: Summary Table for FCI Report on DFRRI Rural Feeder Road Programme Phase One in each Local –Govt-Area of Sokoto State (Zamfara State part of it then).

S/No	LGA	Total NC [a]	KM RC [b]	Accepted RH [c]	Accepted TOTAL [d]	KM NC [e]	For Further Work RC [f]	For Further Work RH [g]	For Further Work Total [h]	Total KM Measured [d + h]
1.	Anka	25.2	0.0	29.0	64.2	6.2	0.0	0.0	6.2	70.4
2.	Argungu	58.6	0.0	17.3	75.9	1.7	0.0	0.0	1.7	77.6
3.	Bagudo	211.5	0.0	26.7	238.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	238.2
4.	Birnin Kebbi	14.7	0.0	11.3	26.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	26.0
5	Bodinga/Dange	33.8	0.0	27.7	61.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	61.5
6.	Bunza	87.2	0.0	0.0	87.2	40.0	0.0	0.0	40.0	127.2
7.	Gwadabawa	36.1	0.0	3.6	39.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	39.7
8.	Gumi	49.0	0.0	0.0	49.0	19.0	0.0	0.0	19.0	68.0
9.	Gusau	68.2	0.0	10.6	78.8	10.8	0.0	0.0	10.8	89.6
10.	Isa	4.6	0.0	56.1	60.7	15.4	0.0	0.0	15.4	76.1
11.	Jega	22.3	0.0	29.7	52.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	52.0
12.	K/Namoda	16.5	0.0	30.9	47.4	18.7	0.0	0.0	18.7	66.1
13.	Silame	97.3	0.0	0.0	97.3	27.6	0.0	0.0	27.6	124.9
14.	Sokoto	34.5	0.0	35.8	70.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	73.3
15.	T.Mafara	14.4	0.0	26.6	41.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	41.0
16.	Wurno	44.3	0.0	0.0	44.3	18.4	0.0	0.0	18.4	62.7
17.	Yabo	44.0	0.0	10.0	54.0	7.7	0.0	0.0	7.7	61.7
18.	Yauri	0.0	0.0	47.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.0	18.0	65.0
19.	Zurmi	85.2	0.0	46.1	131.3	23.9	0.0	0.0	23.9	155.2
Total		**957.4**	**0.0**	**408.4**	**1365.8**	**192.4**	**0.0**	**18.0**	**210.4**	**1576.2**

Note: NC =New construction, RC=Reconstruction
RH =Rehabilitation

Source: A National Statistical Digest of DFRRI's Achievement on the Rural Feeder Roads Programme Phase [I]. DFRRI, Lagos.