

# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1.1. Background to the Study

A formal process of creating the territory referred to as “Nigeria” can be traced to the amalgamation of Nigeria in 1914, by the then Governor of Northern Protectorate, who subsequently became the Governor of Nigeria; Sir Lord Lugard. This decision is not without its own immediate and later challenges and prospects. The immediate prospects include the setting up of a formal institution of governance, administered by the white officials and Nigerian non-officials. The steps that follow are; the provision of the first constitution of 1922 referred to as the Clifford Constitution, then the Richard Constitution of 1946, the Macpherson Constitution of 1951, the Lyttleton Constitution of 1954, and finally, the Independence Constitution of 1960.

One after the other, these governance regulations keep improving on the former structure of governance and facilitating the involvement of more Nigerians in government towards preparation for self-rule. The bigger challenge accompanying the 1914 decision has to do with resolving emerging and future issues peculiar to larger geographical and multi-ethnic territories; that is, how to consolidate and integrate all the ethnic units, and how governance can reach the grassroots. The 1953 and 1954 Constitutional Conferences made a bold decision towards addressing this by adopting a federal system of government for the territory, which has been the system in place since independence.

One major basic feature of a federal system of government is the existence of more than one level of government, recognised by the constitution. The strategy guiding the governance process is usually, encapsulated in policies, and by the constitution, policy formulation and implementation are within the purview of the executive arm of government; though with contributions from other arms of

government and other relevant government and non-government institutions, and where necessary with the approval of legislator. In the same vein, the Federal government is responsible for the planning and formulation of national public policy in Nigeria. The three tiers of government are involved in the implementation process, although in some situations the burden of implementation may weigh more on other levels.

The Nigerian constitution recognizes three levels of government with jurisdiction and responsibilities such as exclusive, concurrent, and residual jurisdiction. Most national public policies, especially as it affects development are products of the Top-Bottom process i.e. initiated by the federal government, even in responsibilities under concurrent jurisdiction like education and health, while other levels of government implements. Rural development policies largely concern the rural areas or local government areas, which are under the jurisdiction of local government, the third-tier government in Nigeria.

To what extent, is this tier of government involvement in policy formulation and implementation, and to what extent does it reflects on policy performance? This is what this study seeks to investigate. Relying on the triangulation research methodological process, it intends to come up with useful suggestions that can yield optimum public policy performance at the grassroots level.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The present developmental challenges confronting Nigeria favours new thinking, which focuses on rural development as an alternative national development model, with strong participation of the local government. It is clear that the constitution classifies the jurisdictional and responsibility areas of each level of government. Nevertheless, the same constitution provides for intergovernmental relations to achieve effective governance in Nigeria. Rural development policies and programmes are

usually, formulated nationally in Nigeria, and the objective principally is to improve the standard of living in the grassroots where the majority of Nigerians reside.

Whether a particular policy is effective or otherwise, would depend on elements of policy processes like, policy planning, formulation and implementation: Policy formulation vis-a-vis policy inputs, and policy implementation vis-a-vis policy outputs. The available findings from rural development studies and secondary statistics point to the fact that rural development policies in Nigeria performed below the stated target. Previous rural development programmes in Nigeria that have performed below expectation include; Operation Feed the Nation (1976), Green Revolution (1966-1976), Better Life Programme for Rural Women (1987) and the Poverty Alleviation Programme (2000). However, there is a huge difference between efforts expended on rural development and the observed realities in these communities. It is difficult to find a nexus between the millions of naira expended on rural development programmes and the present hardship in Nigeria. This reiterates the fact that Nigeria is yet to get right its rural development programmes<sup>1</sup>.

Despite the huge resources dedicated to rural development strategies and programmes, there is an increasing disparity in terms of standard of living between the urban and rural areas. This is due to the problems affecting rural development in Nigeria, which public policy on rural development is supposed to address. These include lack of national philosophical base, lack of integrated pilot demonstration, lack of cohesive identity, defective local economies, lack of core project leadership, inadequate community participation, lack of grassroots planning, inability to optimize local resources, and neglect of community structural approach<sup>2</sup>.

While there are pieces of literature available on development policies in general and rural development in Nigeria, in particular, there is little, which concentrates on investigation and interrogation of the level of involvement of the third tier of government as a critical agent or actor in

national public policy, that is, processes of planning, formulation and implementation. Rather, the concentration is on the policy performance of rural development policy. Therefore, adopting Howlett and Ramesh's five stages policy process, the focus of this study is to investigate the level of involvement of the third tier government, in the processes of national rural development policies in Nigeria, with the intention to determine its effects on rural policy performance.

### **1.3 Justification**

There is an ongoing national discourse on the need to restructure Nigeria Federation for governance effectiveness. Also, to facilitate the rapid development and growth of the grassroots, there is need to re-examine the current rural development strategies of Nigeria to empower Local Government as Local Institution and to enhance community participation in the process.

Therefore, this study intends to examine the issues concerning decentralization of government structure, to identify how it affects efficiency and effectiveness of public service delivery in Nigeria generally and rural areas in particular.

### **1.4 Aim and Objectives of the Study**

The aim of the study is to examine how decentralization can be strengthened to devolve more power, to enhance the capacity of local government in driving rural development in Nigeria.

Therefore the objectives of this study are, to:

- i. examine the centrality of public policy, as an instrument of public governance.
- ii. justify the relevance of Local Government, as a tier of government in Public Policy processes.
- iii. analyze the involvement and effect of Local Governments on the performance of National Public Policy on rural development, in some selected Local Governments of Oyo State.

- iv. identify the challenges hindering Local Governments' effectiveness on National Public Policy processes.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

The study addresses the following research questions:

- i. How essential is the Public Policy as an instrument of governance?
- ii. How relevant is the Local Government as a tier of government in national Public Policy Processes?
- iii. What are the effects of Local Governments Administration towards achieving higher rural development policy performance, in selected Local Governments of Oyo State, Nigeria?
- iv. What are the factors hindering the effective and efficient performance of Local Government on Public Policy Processes?

### **1.6 Hypotheses**

The following are the research hypotheses:

Ho1: Local Governments are not involved in the formulation process of the National Policy on Rural Development.

Ho2: Local Governments are not involved in the Implementation process of the National Policy on Rural Development.

Ho3: Local Governments are not involved in the Evaluation process of the National Policy on Rural Development.

### **1.7 Rationale for the Hypotheses**

The two variables in the study are; Local Government and Public Policy Performance. While local government is the independent variable, rural policy performance is the dependent variable. The study interrogates the relationship between the two, as it affects development at the local level. Therefore, hypotheses would assist in understanding the level of involvement of local governments, as a level of government in the stages of public policy processes in Nigeria. In addition, the results of test of hypothesis based on primary data would facilitate the interpretation of policies/programs performance based on secondary data. Also, it would justify the need or otherwise for intervening actions, to enhance capacity for more involvement at the local level.

### **1.8 Significance of the Study**

Public assessment of the two-decade of post-military democratic rule in Nigeria calls for various reforms, in order to improve service delivery at all levels of government. This has increased the agitation for restructuring of Nigeria's federal architecture. The rising wave of insecurity and ineffectiveness of the security apparatus also confirm the concern. Therefore, the result of this study would be a revelation to various agencies and organs of government empowered by the constitution, to initiate the needed reform as a matter of urgency. In addition, it would draw the attention of government at both federal and state levels to the importance of a bottom-up approach and involvement of all relevant stakeholders in achieving an effective Public Policy performance.

### **1.9 Scope of the Study**

The scope of the study would be limited to the issues between the two variables. It is clear that there are other actors in public policy processes, but this study would focus only on local government as a unit and its level of involvement and effects on each stage of the policy process as it affects policy performance. In addition, the analysis would be restricted to the information deduced from the primary data and secondary data between 2011-2020 relating to accessibility; as one of the

performance indexes, because of its reliability over other indexes within the context and ecological setting of the study. Furthermore, the study would be limited to selected local governments within the five administrative geo-political zones of Oyo State; Ibadan Areas, Oke Ogun Areas, Ogbomoso Areas, Oyo Areas, and Ibarapa Areas.

### **1.10 Limitations to the Study**

The following are limitations in the process of conducting this study:

i. Inadequate data: All the departments of the local governments cannot produce any performance data they generated in respect of all the reviewed programmes. However, the secondary data from the supervisory agencies were inadequate and this prevents the adoption of more than one parameter in assessing programme performance in relation to the local government involvement and outcomes.

ii. The large size of Oyo State and the distance of the rural areas with its logistic consequences make it inevitable for the study to depend on the Local Government Service Commission for the administration of the questionnaires through the assistance of courier officers.

iii. The researcher found it difficult to locate any general or holistic document relating to national policy on rural development in Nigeria.

### **1.11 Operational Definition of Terms**

#### **1.11.1 Public Policy**

Public policy is commonly referred to as what the government decides to do or not. It is a decision made by the government to either implement or not implement, in order to provide a solution to a problem. Public Policy is a course of action meant to determine the course of other ranges of related actions in a given field<sup>3</sup>.

Public policy can also be described as the overall framework within which government actions are undertaken to achieve public good; public policy is central and indicates the peculiarities of government in the committee of nations<sup>4</sup>.

### **1.11.2 Public Policy Performance Indicator**

Indicators are used to identify policy effects and to measure the attainment of policy objectives. They are used to measure the effectiveness of the policy change. Indicators help to explain the link between decisions and decision outcomes<sup>5</sup>.

Indicators are quantitative measures that can reveal the status and trends of specific development, based on monitoring data and expectations of relevant stakeholders. Adoption of the right indicators will lead to better decisions. Indicators drive the governance process, they are not exogenous factors<sup>6</sup>.

### **1.11.3 Local Government**

The Local government as a concept has different definitions by various scholars. No matter how differently the concept is defined, the focus is on the transfer of political powers to local areas by involving the inhabitants in the provision of basic needs in their respective communities<sup>7</sup>. Local government constitutes the most relevant level of government in the quest for sustainable national development, and is widely recognised as a vital instrument for rural transformation, as well as machinery for effective delivery of socio-economic services to the rural people<sup>8</sup>.

In Nigeria's context, Local government is the third tier and lowest level of government, recognized by the constitution with specific power and functions, within a jurisdictional geographical area. It is the closest to the grassroots.

#### **1.11.4 Development**

Development is an economic concept with positive connotations; it involves the application of certain economic and technical measures to optimize available resources, stimulate economic growth and improve people's quality of life<sup>9</sup>.

Development refers to qualitative or quantitative improvement or both in the optimization of available resources for social, political and economic advancement. Development is not peculiar to one particular perspective on social, political and economic advancement. Instead, it is a hybrid term for a myriad of strategies adopted for socio-economic and environmental transformation, from planning to the desired outcomes<sup>10</sup>.

#### **1.11.5 Development Policy**

Development policy refers to all political, economic and social measures taken by a country to achieve sustainable improvements in the living condition of the people, especially in rural, developing and transiting countries<sup>11</sup>.

In developing countries, a 21<sup>st</sup>-century development policy means supporting taxes, designing social protection, managing public services, and promoting human rights and freedom. Internationally, a 21<sup>st</sup>-century development policy means negotiating cooperative international frameworks on a wide range of issues, such as, reducing tax avoidance by multinational corporations, protecting a fair and open trading system, controlling the proliferation of weapons and limiting climate change. It means building and sustaining effective international institutions<sup>12</sup>.

### **1.11.6 Rural Areas**

The characteristics of rural areas differ across rural places. More important is that, it is acknowledge that any conception of rurality must reflect the undercurrents and consequent varying understanding of rurality, because the degree and intricacy of rural change in recent, determine their transformation.

The rural areas refer to areas of low population density, utilizing land extensively and exhibiting distinctive socio-cultural characteristics associated with the rural setting<sup>13</sup>.

The Federal Statistics Office in Nigeria classifies a settlement that has a population of 20,000 people or less as rural<sup>14</sup>.

Furthermore, the classification of rural areas can be by criteria such as, low infrastructural development level: roads, available water supply and insufficient or no electricity among others<sup>15</sup>.

Rural areas can also refer to the opposite of urban areas, whose population mainly engages in agriculture, as well as partial tertiary activities<sup>16</sup>.

### **1.11.7 Triangulation**

Triangulation research method is a technique usually adopted in validating data, through the process of multiple verifications in two or more sources. It can also be described as application and combination of several research methods in the study of a particular problem. Triangulation entails using multiple data sources in an investigation so as to avoid bias, ensuring validity and generalisation. It involves more than one method, theory, researcher and data collection and technique, to achieve valid, reliable and generalisable research finding<sup>17</sup>.

Triangulation also helps researchers to explore and interpret complex human behaviour through a variety of methods, for a more balanced view. It is a process that ensures the validation of data for the

purpose of both quantitative and qualitative studies<sup>18</sup>. Triangulation as a research tool offers alternative perspective in validating, challenging or extending existing findings.

There are four types of triangulation<sup>17, 18</sup>. They are: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and methodological triangulation. Data triangulation involves the collection of different sources of data and information through different sampling strategies, such as; collecting data at different times, in different contexts, and from different people<sup>19</sup>. It includes gathering data from both the affected people, and the experiences of the researcher concerning the issue. This type of triangulation is perhaps, the most popular and easiest to implement<sup>20</sup>. Investigator/Researcher Triangulation usually involves using several different investigators in an evaluation project, to enhance reliability and validity<sup>20</sup>. In order to triangulate, each different evaluator would study the programme using the same qualitative method, and the findings would be compared to determine the Validity. In addition, the Theory Triangulation involves utilizing more than one theoretical postulation in the interpretation of data and using multiple theoretical perspectives to examine and interpret a single set of data<sup>19</sup>. The rationale for this is that individuals from different disciplines or positions have different perspectives about an issue<sup>20</sup>. However, Methodological Triangulation is perhaps the most widely used type of triangulation. It involves the use of multiple qualitative and quantitative methods to gather data, so that the weaknesses of one method can be corrected with the strengths of another<sup>19</sup>.

Using multiple methods can help to facilitate deeper understanding, because a single method is inadequate to explain a phenomenon. Triangulation aids researchers in overcoming the error or inherent biases and the problems that come from single method, single-observer and single-theory studies, by combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and empirical materials. It helps the researchers to choose relevant data collection methods, minimizes uncertainty reduces bias, and minimizes personal effects on the research findings<sup>17</sup>.

It offers a variety of datasets, to explain different aspects of a phenomenon of interest<sup>18</sup>. It also helps to rebut, where one dataset invalidates a supposition generated by another, and confirmation of a hypothesis, where one set of findings confirms another set. Finally, triangulation can help to explain the results of a study<sup>20</sup>.

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## Endnotes

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## Chapter Two

### Literature Review

#### 2.1 Conceptual Clarifications

##### 2.1.1 The Nature of Local Governance

Governance is the exercise of power or authority to manage a country's political, economic, and administrative resources and affairs. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences<sup>1</sup>. It also involves the process of decision-making, participants in the process, and who should be accountable<sup>2</sup>. In sum, governance is the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented or otherwise.

Governance can be used in several contexts such as corporate governance, international governance, national governance and local governance. The focus of governance in this study refers to national and local governance. Actors involved vary, depending on the level of government under consideration. Aside from the notion of institution, Government is a group of individuals exercising legitimate authority or power to make and implement decisions in any society<sup>3</sup>. This group of individuals shares a defined responsibility for exercising power. Government can be at various levels: the national, regional, federal and local. Local indicates a level below the central or national level. This study however is concerned mainly with local government, an actor in the federal structure and local governance process.

Despite the fact that the discourse on local government has been on for years, there is no universally agreed definition. Though, there are divergent perspectives to the concept by practitioners, authors and academics, there are convergence concerning basic common concepts that can illustrate what

local government represents. The term can refer to many units including a county, municipality, district, township, a local public authority and regional or interstate government institution. Though, there is a reference to all the above units, the local government discourse in this study will centre on local public authorities that are mandated for the rural development of a specific geographic unit and its population by the constitution or enabling laws.

In literature, two basic approaches can be identified, to aid in explaining the concept. The first approach tries to define or explain it by considering the various levels of government. This approach views it as the type of government unit beneath a central government. It includes all sub-national forms of government structures as local government. This approach adopts administrative and political decentralization as a criterion in explaining local government. It also includes regional level, district authorities and local community councils and excludes decentralized departments of the central government.

The second approach attempts to define local government by certain identified characteristics. These include; legal personality, specified powers to perform a range of functions, effective citizen participation and substantial budgeting and staffing autonomy, though subject to limited central control<sup>4</sup>. In this case, any institution that has these characteristics can be classified as a form of local government. These two approaches, therefore, call for a careful analysis of some definitions given by various authors, as well as the purpose and rationale for local government. However, despite the differences in definition, what they have in common is a focus on the transfer of political powers to local areas by involving the inhabitants in the provision of basic needs in their respective communities. A local government is an institution or an agent for enhancing development and service delivery, improving governance and deepening democracy within its jurisdiction. Although this perspective focuses more on the transfer of powers from the federal and state government to the local

government, it does not interrogate the efficacy of these powers in promoting well-being of the people that the local government represents<sup>5</sup>.

### **2.1.2 Definitions of Local Government**

The UN defines local government as a political subdivision of a nation, constituted by law, with substantial control of local affairs, including the powers to impose taxes and to mobilise labour for prescribed purposes. The governing body of such an entity is elected, otherwise locally selected or appointed<sup>6</sup>. In addition, local government is viewed as a system of the territorial unit with defined boundaries, a legal identity, an institutional structure, powers, functions and limited autonomy as provided by an act of appropriate parliament<sup>7</sup>. Although local government is constitutionally empowered to raise and spend money for local purposes on its areas of responsibility at local level, constitutional interdependent fiscal relations still exist between the state and local government<sup>8</sup>.

All the definitions considered so far, combines the two approaches earlier discussed. From the foregoing discussions, local government is considered as all sub-national units of government below the central government, that have legal personality, specified powers to perform certain specified functions, involving effective citizens' participation, and substantial budgeting and staffing autonomy to promote the development of its area of jurisdiction. The local government is empowered to facilitate good local governance for peace sustenance, through effective and efficient service delivery and sustainable development, participatory governance and conflict resolution<sup>9</sup>.

Most concepts in social science have various usages and are fluid in interpretation, thus no generalised or single definition. In spite of different viewpoints offered by various scholars, the point of congruency shows that the local government system exists to promote rural development within the arrays of its administrative governance. This is in consonance with the philosophical principle of democratic participation in governance at the grassroots level.

Local government system is a government by the grassroots level of administration, to meet the peculiar needs of the grassroots people. By this, development at the third tier levels is guaranteed without depending on the other tiers of government. Unlike the other tiers (state and federal), it is closer to the grassroots dwellers. The local government system accords the rural people the platform of administration, since they are in tune with the need of their community<sup>10</sup>. They are able to prioritize better; their needs for development, within the resource at their disposal<sup>11</sup>.

Also, from a communal perspective, local government is a system that consists of local communities that are organised to maintain law and order, provides some limited range of social services, and cooperating with the inhabitants to accomplish joint endeavours. It centres on improving the people's condition of living<sup>12</sup>.

Further, local government from an institutional point of view provides the community with a formal organisational or institutional framework, which can enhance the effective management of their affairs, and in regulating the actions of members of the public<sup>13</sup>. The institutional framework with which the local government exists represents a structure, a unit or tier system, the organisational component, population and geographical size. This could be an all-purpose single-tier or multi-tier arrangement. In conceptualising local government, reference can be made to the level of privilege conferred on the local authorities in the Nigerian constitution to discharge their duties.

The local government can be described as an intermediate player between the federal authority and the grassroots in a given society. Local Government as an establishment contrasts with offices at a higher level refer to as the central government, national government, or where appropriate federal government. Local governments generally act within the power delegated to them by legislation or directives of the higher level of government. The main function of local government is to bring about meaningful development in the rural areas. As agents of rural development, local governments are to

utilize the funds obtained from Federal and State Governments and their internally generated revenue to improve the lives of the people within their areas of jurisdiction<sup>14</sup>.

The local government system is the administrative cornerstone of democratic people around the globe. As a people-oriented government, it supposes to be in constant touch with the grassroots population to enhance or promote their aspirations. In democratic governance, the views of the grassroots' people are of utmost interest in determining the policy choice or action of the government. It focuses on the transfer of political powers to local areas, where the inhabitants are saddled with the responsibility of providing the basic needs of their respective communities. It is vital to note that these responsibilities are done according to the political interests and policy-related agenda. The people-oriented governance and the provision of the basic needs within a democratic political system, make the local government system to be central in enhancing rural development in the country<sup>15</sup>.

Local Government is one of man's oldest institutions. The earliest form of Local governments in Nigeria exists in form of native authorities, transformed into local authorities and later reformed to local government. Democracy developed along the lines of local governance initiatives. This account for the success of indirect rule in some parts of Nigeria. Structurally, local government is one of the tiers of government that exists to provide public goods and services to the citizens<sup>16</sup>.

According to Section 7(1) of the 1999 Constitution, democratically elected officials are expected to effectively administer the local government and direct the Government of every state to ensure its existence under law, in line with Section 8 of the constitution which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finances and functions of such councils.

However, another view of the concept not from the functions they ought to carry out, but from the level of power they possess as a tier of government, is that local government is a form of decentralization that can be viewed from two perspectives; de-concentration and devolution. When a

local government or local administration is viewed as de-concentration, it lacks the financial autonomy on its budgetary decision. In addition, most of the key officials of its administrative machinery are appointees of state or central government, hence accountable to it, and for most of the period of its existence, people may be denied a council, in which they can elect democratically, at the local level by States and Federal Government. In this arrangement, local governments are merely appendages of superior levels as a unit.

However, devolution refers to the decentralisation of both political and administrative powers. While local administration refers to purely and only administrative aspects, local government refers to both political and administrative capabilities. Thus, the local government enjoys certain degree of autonomy from other tiers of government, to enable it to perform its functions within its jurisdiction<sup>17</sup>. This point of view does not only describe the local government as a tier of government that is closer to the grassroots, but also provides an insight into how the level of power contributes or hinders their efficacy while carrying out their functions.

As a tier of government that is nearest to the grassroots, and saddled with the responsibility of ensuring the economic, political and social development of its area and the people, the local government is perhaps, the best instrument for effective rural development.

As a political institution, local government is the tier of government closer to the people with vested powers to exercise control over the affairs of its domain. As a tier of government, its vested powers are backed by law, to facilitate development at the local level due to its closeness<sup>18</sup>.

Local government is also an authority. It is vested with the authority to determine and execute issues of interest within a restricted area, geographically smaller than the whole state. Local Government involves the administering of services on a local basis by local bodies<sup>19</sup>. From this viewpoint, it is clear that the purpose of establishing local government is to render beneficial services and

development activities, in accordance to local expectations and initiatives without prejudice to the interference of other tiers of government. Local government operates at the lowest level of society, and it is imperative for it to take into cognizance the peculiarity of people's needs.

The existence of local government is predicated on the services that are peculiar and important to the local people. It includes the provision of citizenship education, training ground for political leadership, documentation of information and data for the central government in meeting the needs of the localities, and minimization of abuse of political power in governance. It seeks to decongest the government at the centre, thereby reducing undue interference by the centre in local issues<sup>20</sup>. This implies that, without the establishment of local government there would be a high level of political apathy in the country. When the local people run local matters, it augments the stimulus for local participation of the people and gives room for rapid rural development. In addition, other tiers of government would be relieved of the complexity and burden peculiar to centralized<sup>21</sup>.

Another conception of local government is the perspective of development. The essence of local government in Nigeria is to ameliorate the deteriorating living conditions in various communities of the country. An effective local government will dispose favourably than the state or federal government, in stemming the tide of rising grassroots poverty, and also awaken the consciousness of local people towards mobilising and networking for purpose of managing and participating in all the programmes and projects that may impact on their life<sup>22</sup>.

Thus, the essence of any local government as an agent of development, should include; the reduction of poverty in the community, increasing the standard of living of the local dwellers, provision of social amenities, strengthening the participation of local citizens in political activities, building human capacity, promoting nationalism, inspiring creativity and innovation, as well as encouraging citizenship education. Local government is the societal platform to build and promote able and

conscientious citizenship<sup>23</sup>. The finding in the study of the relationship between local government administration and rural development in Enugu State, Nigeria, shows that, local government is the level of government that is supposed to have the greatest impact on people in the rural areas. It reveals further that since most of their problems are local in nature; local governments are better placed to address such problems, due to their closeness to the people. We can equally argue further that with the provision of the 1976 Guidelines for Local Government Reforms in Nigeria, local governments are expected to engage in provisions of rural infrastructure to engender development and effective governance at the grassroots. Local government ought to act as an efficient agent for providing services that are local in character. This analysis emphasises the position that local government as a level of government supposed to have the greatest impact on the people in rural areas, and prevent rural-urban drift by guaranteeing their political, economic and social wellbeing, which will engender overall national development. However, this position does not address the external factors hindering the autonomy required for the local government effectively<sup>23</sup>.

From the foregoing, we can describe the concept as a political design, aimed at uplifting the standard of living and advancement of the political, economic, socio-cultural and democratic participation of the rural populace. By this assertion, local government council with relative autonomy can provide needed machinery that would actualize the above responsibilities at the grassroots level, being the lowest unit of political organisation nearer to the people.

### **2.1.3 Characteristics of Local Government**

A prospective local government from the above definitions should have the following characteristics:

Government at the sub-national level: For a form of government to be referred to as local government, it should be below the national or central government. This level of government can be at the regional, district or at the community level. The unit should not be a unit of a central government

ministry or department at the local level, but a unit that has all the powers resembling a structure of government.

A legal personality: Local government as a specific institution or entity should be created by the national constitution or state constitution or by ordinary legislation of a higher level of central government or by provincial or state legislation or by an executive order to deliver a range of specified services to a relatively small geographically delineated area. The legal backing depends on forms of government practised in a particular country. This indicates that there should be a legal or constitutional provision and laws establishing and regulating this form of government. It should also have the power to sue, be sued, and enter into contracts.

Specific powers and legal jurisdiction: Local government is identified by the specified powers that enable it to undertake and carry out public functions and activities that can lead to the development of the local area under its jurisdiction. It also has the power to employ and disengage its staff, mobilise revenue in a manner that is accountable, and should be subject to limited central control.

Specific geographic area and population: A local government should have a defined spatial jurisdiction under its control and authority. It should also be in charge of the population where it is situated.

Elected or selected representatives: A local government should compose of elected and or appointed representatives of local people, to ensure effective citizen participation in that local government.

#### **2.1.4 Responsibilities of Local Governments**

Local governments are treated as subsidiaries of a higher-order government in Nigeria<sup>24</sup>. They are extensions of state or national government and act on behalf of these higher-level governments. In many cases, especially in a unitary state system, policy development, standards of service and policy

performance are determined at the national level. In such a climate, local governments only carry out oversight implementation at the local level. Local governments within this style promote local economic development by implementing policies, programmes and projects on behalf of these higher-order governments.

From the above, it could be deduced that local governments are not autonomous and only exist to advance the interest and wishes of higher-level governments. This may affect adversely the participation of local people and local institutions in local decision-making, and issues directly influencing the development of the local area. Also, programmes and projects that may be implemented may not be in the interest of the local people, as their needs may not be adequately captured in the process. This notwithstanding, the standards of service and policy performance determined by the centre may serve as a check on the activities of the local governments. This can keep the local governments on track, in pursuing agenda directly in agreement with the national interest.

Again, local governments have the responsibility as independent facilitators of public value<sup>24</sup>. This places significant emphasis on the government as an agent of the people to serve the public interest and create public value that would indicate measurable improvements in social outcomes and quality of life. The concept is directly relevant to local and municipal services, for ease of measuring such improvements. This is useful in evaluating conflicting and competing choices in the use of local resources and in defining the role of local governments. The role of public managers in local governments in this direction is to utilize local free resources in accelerating the advancement of social outcomes beyond what may be possible with meagre local revenues.

Thus, public managers create value by mobilising and facilitating a network of service providers beyond local government. This responsibility is central to the interest and welfare of local people.

This has the potential of facilitating bottom-up decision-making. In this sense, local leaders can be held more accountable for the use of resources and development of local areas.

Despite this, there are individual actors within this frame, impeding the effective functioning of this institution. A few elites within the local governments in many cases manipulate the use of available resources to their advantage, hence, neglecting the mass majority. In addition, the use of these resources to create public value is fraught with corrupt practices. Again, measurable improvements in social outcomes may be minimal, as local governments have inadequate capacity to provide adequate services. Therefore, there is a need to facilitate the stakeholder involvement in the development process.

Furthermore, local governments are supposed to facilitate network-based local governance<sup>24</sup>. They have the opportunity to play a catalytic role in facilitating both interest-based and hope-based networks, in improving social outcomes for local residents. To play such a role, local governments must develop a strategic vision of how such partnerships can be formed and sustained. In doing this, they should separate policy advice from programme implementation and assume the role of purchasers of public services and not necessarily as providers.

Local governments may have to outsource services with higher costs and subject in-house providers to competitive pressures from outside providers to lower transaction costs for citizens. We need to ask, whether in reality local governments are truly fulfilling these obligations as required? They assert themselves to an extent, but the excuses for their inadequacies were tied to non-cooperation of other actors, towards local level development. The other stakeholders perceive them as institutions filled with bureaucracy, corrupt practices and a lack of transparency. This may negatively hinder the ability of local governments in carrying out their responsibility. Though the responsibility necessitates local government to be a purchaser of public goods, it may turn out to be a wrong

decision in certain cases where local areas lack the kind of resources that may be attractive to private service providers. It is, therefore, necessary for local governments to consider their peculiar situations and decide appropriately.

Moreover, the local governments are to advance their self-interest. This is because, as an institution involved in policy formulation and implementation, it is expected to explore opportunities and deploy resources toward advancing it. This would enhance achieving the common good of the local area within its jurisdiction. However, on several occasions, the interest of local leaders in local governments overshadows that of their local areas.

Also, local governments tend to exploit local people through high taxation, leading to the collapse of smaller economic ventures. However, these responsibilities seem to be separate and distinct, though both are local governments' responsibilities. This leads us to the discussion on the rationale for the creation of local governments.

### **2.1.5 Rationale for Local Governments**

Decentralised decision-making and a strong role for local governments in local development are supported by many recognised theories on the grounds of efficiency, accountability, manageability, and autonomy<sup>24</sup>. We can identify two principles of jurisdictional design; the closer a representative government is to the people, the better it works. On the other hand, people have the right to vote for the kind and cost of public services they want<sup>25</sup>. In the light of these principles, decision-making should occur at the lowest level of government, in line with the goal of allocating efficiency.

Furthermore, the decentralisation theorem proposes that public service should be provided by the institution having jurisdiction and control over the minimum geographic area, to moderate the benefits and costs of such provision. This is because, local governments understand the concerns of local residents, and local decision-making is responsive to the people for whom the services are

intended, thus encouraging fiscal responsibility and efficiency, especially if the financing of services is also decentralised. It is also to eliminate unnecessary inter-jurisdiction conflict while enhancing inter-jurisdictional competition and innovation. An ideal decentralised system ensures that the level and combination of public services being provided are consistent with local people's preferences, with incentives for the efficient provision of such services<sup>26</sup>.

The final theoretical support in the discourse is based on the subsidiarity principle. By this principle, taxing, spending, and regulatory functions should be exercised by lower levels of government, unless a convincing case can be made for assigning them to higher levels of government. This principle evolved from the social teachings of the Roman Catholic Church and was first proposed by Pope Leo XIII in 1891. Subsequently, Pope Pius XI highlighted the principle of subsidiarity as a third way between dictatorship and a laissez-faire approach to governance. This principle is the opposite of the residuality principle typically adopts in a unitary country, where local governments are assigned functions that the central government is unwilling or thinks it is unable to perform.

The above supports the assertion that not all problems are general problems, and that the consequent of the problems not general, in this case, require a decision that is specific to the affected locality<sup>27</sup>. This suggests that local governments are established to address peculiar local specific problems. It is also envisaged to manage local affairs and ensuring that the basic needs of local people are met. The local government also provides the framework within which local human and material resources could be mobilised for development at the local level.

Another argument in Support of local governments is that achieving social and general economic growth, requires spreading of effort so that local communities and individuals can participate to bring under ideal conditions, energy, enthusiasm and most important of all, local initiatives to harness the available opportunities for local development activities<sup>28</sup>. In this sense, local authorities provide the

opportunity for local people to participate in local decisions and local schemes within the general national policies and above all, as local centres of initiative and activity can accelerate local development.

Historically, local government institutions have played a critical role in the global transformation of both developed and developing countries. They have the potential in raising agricultural and industrial production in developing countries, in the collective action of managing scarce resources, with other local institutions and the informal sector, by organising themselves for effective economic activities. They play an important role in meeting the needs of the informal and private sectors by creating the enabling environment for them to operate and create jobs for local people, which in a way may lead to reduction in the poverty levels of the local people. Some local governments are also into direct provisions of services that can create jobs and income for the local people<sup>4</sup>.

### **2.1.6 Performance of Local Government in Africa**

Advocates of decentralisation and local governance claim that it encourages ordinary people's participation in local development efforts<sup>29</sup>. By off-loading responsibilities to lower levels of government, decentralization creates opportunity for the participation of non-state actors, civil society and private businesses<sup>30</sup>. In some countries, local government projects are aimed at reducing poverty; an important goal that central government interventions have failed to achieve in most developing countries<sup>30</sup>. It is also believed that local government will not only foster socio-economic development at the local level but relevant public services will be delivered to meet local needs, and also implementation of national and global policies which have a direct impact on the locality, as reflected in the implementation of Millennium Development Goals<sup>31</sup>.

However, studies on local governments contribution to the improvement of public service delivery in Sub-Saharan Africa presents mixed results<sup>32</sup>. Some scholars have argued that decentralization has

failed to provide the enabling environment for efficient and effective delivery of essential services<sup>33</sup>. For example, a study in Tanzania found that majority of residents in local government areas in Tanzania were dissatisfied with service delivery<sup>34</sup>. Another also reported that 70 per cent of their respondents in Ghana claimed that local governments failed to satisfy their social needs<sup>35</sup>. About 54 per cent in Côte d'Ivoire expresses a similar view that its impact on the better condition of life is below satisfaction and further finding confirms that it has not improve the condition of the poor<sup>36</sup>. There are instances where evidence suggests positive results due to decentralization, though quantitatively, it impacts infrastructures to facilitate access to social services and less qualitatively on services, despite the central government's transfer of additional funds to local governments for health, education, agricultural extension, potable water and sanitation<sup>37</sup>.

In many countries, the inability of local government to provide effective public services has led to the adoption of alternative mechanisms such as developing partnerships with private sector agencies and non-governmental organisations to meet the needs of the public. In what appears to be the influence of neo-liberal market ideals, embedded in the new public management discourse, these relationships aim at achieving effective service delivery through co-production, contracting or out-sourcing, franchising, or a combination of these. However, not all of these arrangements have produced positive results such as improving service delivery, efficiency and value for money. Consequently, while local government suffers from issues relating to agent opportunism, agents equally suffer from dereliction of responsibilities in form of delayed payment<sup>32</sup>. This makes it imperative to understand the fundamentals that explain the overall performance of local authorities.

Several factors account for the performance of local governments, but commonly cited ones often include but are not limited to environmental factors, revenue, workforce, stability, accountability and Structures<sup>38</sup>. Previous studies on the determinants of local government in sub-Saharan Africa focused on contextual, environmental and political economy considerations. For example, a

comparative study on local governments in Lagos, Nigeria and another one in Gokwe, Zimbabwe reveals that the size of local government authorities is crucial for their revenue generation capacity as well as general performance<sup>39</sup>. In addition, it confirms that local governments in urban areas perform better than their rural counterparts due to level of revenue mobilized from the local base. Rural municipalities could only match when they are endowed with natural resources.

In spite of these, one key factor that has been arguably identified as having an overbearing influence on how local governments perform their statutory functions is related to the clarity of the legal framework within which they operate. Whilst the legal framework defines the roles, powers and responsibilities of local government, it is expected, under ideal circumstances, to reduce the central government's interference in local affairs. It is posited that central-local government relations that are progressive rather than being predaceous is a prerequisite for the effective performance of local government authorities<sup>40</sup>.

In addition, there is consensus in the public management literature that management plays a central role in organisational performance, and that effective performance management systems require proactive organisational leadership that is committed to accomplishing organisational goals. To corroborate this, it is held that local leadership that is dynamic can engender positive development, change the status quo for the better and advances the wellbeing of local people<sup>41</sup>. Designing administrative pattern that can monitor the Leadership at the local government level is core in achieving this objective<sup>42</sup>. In some jurisdictions, sustained leadership and political commitment are linked to high levels of local government performance especially when those local authorities are led by transformational and transactional leaders<sup>43</sup>.

### **2.1.7 Performance of Local Government in Nigeria**

The Nigerian Local Government system, like those of most African countries, is a reflection of the general nature of governance. Poor socio-economic performance, poverty, human rights abuses, political distrust, corrupt tendencies and instability, are not without human cost<sup>44</sup>. After 61 years and billions of dollars in oil revenue, the vast majority of Nigerians still live on less than a dollar a day. Nigerian political institutions have not changed, as they continue to adopt the patterns of former institutions created by colonial authorities with weak civil societies consisting of elites, concentrating in urban cities and depending more on protest as a weapon<sup>45</sup>. In addition, emphasis on central control by national central ministries weakens the service delivery at the local level<sup>46</sup>.

In the Nigerian constitution, a local government is a political subdivision of the state, constituted by law and has substantial control over local affairs, including the powers to impose taxes or to mobilize labour for prescribed purposes. The Leadership is constituted through election or selection by the state government<sup>47</sup>.

Many scholars have variedly defined what a local government system ought to be. Also worthy of mention is the descriptive conception of local government as: a given territory and population, an institutional structure for legislative, executive and administrative purposes, a recognized separate legal identity, a range of powers and functions authorized by a constituted central or intermediate legislature, and certain autonomy within the limitations of law<sup>48</sup>.

The word “local” is an indication that councils are to serve small communities and the word “government” means that they possess certain attributes of government<sup>49</sup>.

The local government reform of 1978 reduced the responsibility of local governments to only four key areas: works, education, agriculture and health while removing the jurisdiction on matters like water supply and prisons, which inevitably reduces public confidence in the abilities of local government<sup>50</sup>. The military governments that initiated these changes said, the goal of reducing the

role performed by the local authorities was to help them dedicate their entire resources to four key areas assigned to them. However, it became difficult for local administrators to generate community interest and support, as most of the responsibilities have been usurped by the state as a way to justify huge exploitation from the joint-revenue- account<sup>51</sup>.

In the public management literature, scholars have stressed the role of managerial quality on organisational performance. The quality of management theory posits that qualified management facilitates positive organisational performance. The public managers are the ones to determine the strategies suitable and relevant to the achievement of organisational objectives. These include policy adoption, finance and the human resources of public agencies. In addition, although local government performances are usually the outcome of collective management action, however, the quality of service is a function of administrative autonomy. It is posited that public employees in a managerial position should be granted administrative autonomy, to offer services that can guide their political counterpart properly for better organisational performance<sup>52</sup>.

In the Nigerian local context, the identifiable individual who heads the management of local government is referred to as Chairperson. Consequently, the quality of the Chairman is expected to impact on local government performance. However, literature on Nigerian local government human resource reveals lack of skills and leadership, with poor consequences on planning, implementation and performance. For example, a study on Nigerian local public servants shows that the problem of local governments in Nigeria is that of personnel. In addition, as more states were created, many of the staff at the local level transfers their services to the state and the federal governments, leaving localities with inadequate skilled labour to work at the local public service<sup>53</sup>. However, as economic recession dwindle local revenues and expenditures, many local employees were out of work. Therefore, the inability of local governments to attract and retain, or engage professional staff contributes to their poor performance<sup>51</sup>.

There are reasons for the poor performance of administrators at the local government level<sup>51</sup>. One of such reasons is the migration of people from rural to urban areas in search of jobs and better life, which has taken a toll on the current urban infrastructure (medical, educational and commercial), and the localities without the necessary human capacity for service delivery<sup>54</sup>. This lack of infrastructure is due to poor planning and poor implementation of projects on the part of local administrators. Local administrators' poor performance persists due to lack of accountability and monitoring mechanisms, weak relationship between local officials and residents, and inadequate local skilled labour<sup>54</sup>.

Given the lack of skilled labour, having qualified leaders in terms of education and experience should compensate in part for personnel deficiencies. In addition, a qualified chairperson is expected to select personnel that are more qualified in order to fulfill his or her political goals. Also, a qualified leader is expected to allocate revenue based on the priorities of the locality. This study assumes that primary education funding should be an area of high priority to every local Administrator, and how well they fund education is indicative of their commitment to citizen participation and development.

### **2.1.8 Rural Development**

The conceptualization of the term 'development' has been problematic because there is no unanimous acceptable definition of development among scholars. Development is a broad concept, hence various views and definitions of the concept. The emergence of the concept of development is a recent one dating back to the early nineteen fifties. The term 'development' is often confused with economic growth, which adds to the confusion in both policy and academic debates. Often, economic growth dominates the debate, with emphasis on an increase in population, employment, or total output, despite the fact that an increase in any or all of these could be associated with both improvements and declines in prosperity and quality of life.

Development has often been confused with economic growth, the reason being that there is too much emphasis on annual increases in per-capita income or gross national product, without adequate interpretation that reflects on its distribution and the level of people's involvement in effective growth<sup>55</sup>. Although, originally it connotes a process of societal change, the term 'development' has been primarily linked to economic modernization in the developing countries after the Second World War, where it was used to describe growth and industrialization.

The evolution in development thoughts gained more prominence with the declaration of the United Nations of the 1960s as Development Decade and further by the World Bank in the 1990s. Thus, it focusses on changes from holistic theorization of development to local 'participation' and 'empowerment'. There is now a shift in the emphasis on industrial and economic development alone as the determining factors of societal transformation. While the economic growth may bring material gain to the people, development encompasses the enrichment of lives of all the people in the society.

Another contribution to the discourse on the concept of development considers development to be the strengthening of autonomy and substantive freedoms, which allow individuals to participate fully in economic life. Hence, economic development occurs when individual agents have the opportunity to develop the capacities that allow them to actively engage and contribute to the economy<sup>56</sup>.

Similarly, development involves improvement both qualitatively and quantitatively in the use of available resources. Development does not refer to one particular perspective on social, political and economic improvement. Instead, it is a hybrid term for a myriad of strategies adopted for socio-economic and environmental transformation from current states to desired ones. These definitions prove that academic literature now interpretes the term 'Development' to be a process for the benefit of the society and that economic growth without societal progress cannot be termed as development. Development thus stands for improvement in quality of life and conditions of living<sup>57</sup>.

Development view in terms of capacity can be described as the expansion of capacities for the advancement of society through the realisation of individuals, firms and communities' potential. Development is a sustained increase in prosperity and quality of life realised through innovation, lowered transaction costs, and the utilization of capabilities towards responsible production of goods and services. Development requires effective institutions grounded in norms of openness, tolerance for risk, appreciation for diversity, and confidence in the realization of mutual gain for the public and the private sector. Economic development is essential in creating the conditions necessary for economic growth and actualising economic future<sup>58</sup>. This definition is all-encompassing because it conceptualizes the meaning of development, the role of economic growth in development, and necessary institutions needed for development to occur in an economy.

Development is a transformation vehicle. It is a process meant for equitable social and economic transformation of the society through institutionalized social structures, and people's positive attitudes towards accelerated growth and poverty eradication<sup>59</sup>. This definition emphasises development as the sustainable use of resources and points out the importance of positive attitude and cooperation of people for development. Many community development theories emphasise people's participation in decision-making as being important, particularly in respect of the initiation, planning, implementation and evaluation of a development programme.

Community development is often interchanged with rural development. Development is the gradual positive change among people within a given geographical area, towards self-determined ideals, with minimal outside interference. In short, community development entails putting people in a position to move their own goals. Community development that is not indigenous is not real community development and may not be sustainable. Once more, this perspective point to the importance of popular support and cooperation towards development, which should be within- driven, to ensure its sustainability<sup>60</sup>.

In the same vein, the success of rural development programmes depends on the support and involvement of the citizenry. Rural Development represents development that benefits rural populations. It is an indication of sustained improvement of the population's standards of living or welfare. Rural development is not an outside intervention, but the aspiration of local people living in rural areas, taking the challenge themselves and improving their life circumstances and their immediate environment. If the local people are final beneficiaries of development assistance, the aim of rural development can be defined as the improvement of sustainable livelihoods especially the rural poor, with careful attention paid to local characteristics. Therefore, this definition emphasizes the need to ensure that rural development is driven from within and sustainable, for benefit of future generations<sup>61</sup>.

The concept of rural development is often misconceived with agricultural development. On one hand, Agricultural development mainly aims at increasing agricultural products such as crops, livestock, fish etc. Human being, land and capital are simply, regarded as means of production. On the other hand, rural development mainly targets people and institutions. Rural development includes agricultural development activities; however, it is one of the means of economic revitalization for active farmers in rural villages.

The concept of rural development has generated much debate and little agreement. Its definition varies from one point of view to the other. These perspectives consider; economic, political and sociological templates in process of addressing the problem of rural poverty. For instance, from a sociological stance, it is a concept in which the rural poor represents a reservoir of untapped talent; a target group that should be given the opportunity to enjoy the benefits of development, through improved education, health, and nutrition that could provide the catalyst for rural areas' transformation.

Rural development is any effort that is geared towards the enhancement of rural livelihoods in the social and economic domains. It involves both the transformation of lives and landscape, to ensure a significant improvement in the quality of life of the rural residents. The rural poor; who represent an untapped productive potential, need to be provided with an appropriate policy and institutional framework, resource and technology support, and an enabling market environment that can guarantee their productivity, and provide other opportunities without necessarily depending on farm income-generating activities<sup>62</sup>.

Rural development is based on the need to balance the pattern and direction of government for the benefit of both the urban and rural sectors and provide technical requirements to accelerate economic growth in the development process. Implicit in this is that governments are stakeholders in the provision of technical expertise geared towards economic development. This should not be limited to the rural people but, to the urban dwellers as well<sup>63</sup>.

As rightly asserted, rural development is concerned with the improvement of the living standard of low-income people, living in rural area, on a self-sustaining basis, through transforming the socio-spatial structures of their productive activities. It implies a broad-based reorganisation and mobilisation of the rural masses and resources, to enhance the capacity of the rural populace to cope effectively with the daily tasks of their lives, and the consequent changes<sup>64</sup>.

The inference drawn from the above position is that rural development improves the living conditions of the populace, from a subsistence basis through mobilization and allocation of resources to achieve desirable welfare, and productive services available to the rural people. This implies that investment in basic infrastructure and social services, justice, equity and security among others would go a long way in enhancing their capacity.

Furthermore, rural development is concerned with the improvement and transformation of social, mental, economic, institutional and environmental conditions of the low-income rural dwellers. In addition, mobilizing and rational utilizing of human, natural and institutional resources at the rural areas would enhance their capacities to cope with the daily tasks of life and the demands of contemporary times. By this, there cannot be rural development without corresponding human capacity building<sup>65</sup>.

In essence, rural development involves programmes that are capable of eliminating the problems of poverty, ignorance, disease, and the provision of an environment conducive for people to grow. This would enable the rural populace to earn a living that can sustain their standard of living in a reasonable manner<sup>66</sup>.

Similarly, rural development is the ability of the local government or any agency to give a better lease of life to the local population who may be remote to political decisions that is affecting them. By this, rural development is said to be effective whenever people's living condition is improved<sup>67</sup>.

Rural development can be seen as the strategic efforts committed to improve the standard of living of the rural dwellers. The areas of improvement cut across social, cultural, political, religious, and economic development. When development focuses on these aspects, the rural populace's standard of living would appreciate and the issue of rural-urban migration would reduce.

### **2.1.9 Impacts of Local Government towards Effective Rural Development Policy Performance**

The existence of the local government system, among other tiers of government, is predicated on the need to bring government closer to people at the grassroots, with an intention to enhance their participation in governance. It also tends to facilitate rural development at that level. Across national frontiers, the local government system is practiced and patterned based on external and internal factors. The former is historical, based on colonial influence, while the latter is based on geographical, economic, sociological and institutional factors prevalent of the country. In Nigeria, the development of the local government system spans the pre-colonial era; greatly influenced by the traditional cultural setting; an indirect rule system, which was introduced first in Northern Nigeria before its extension to Southern Nigeria, and the liberal democratic stage; a system introduced due to resistance to the colonial experience and demand for the people's greater participation.

From the colonial era, the local government system in Nigeria has undergone various forms of transformation. Each form is directed towards actualizing the essence of its establishment, which includes; stimulating democratic self-government, promoting leadership initiatives, and mobilizing human and material resources for development at the local level<sup>68</sup>. The nature of changes differs among the regional components.

In Southern Nigeria, reforms were prompted due to criticisms of the elites against the Native Authority but in northern Nigeria, the Native Authority survived and remained very strong until the collapse of the First Republic in 1966. The 1966 military coup and subsequent collapsing of the then three regions to twelve (12) states in 1967 facilitates undue control by the federal and state governments.

The 1999 Constitution provides for democratization and devolution of powers or functions to local government in the country. The devolution of political authority to local government as prescribed by law, guarantees democratic participation and the provision of local services that can facilitate the

legitimacy of government and programmes, designed for people's welfare. In addition, autonomy and linguistic identities of minorities are preserved<sup>69</sup>.

The autonomy and democratic participation provided in the 1999 constitution have been ineffective. It turns the council into an appendage of the state government due to the provision of Sections 7 & 8 of the 1999 Constitution (as amended). In spite of the effort of local governments in Nigeria to enhance rural development; the interference of state governments militates against such effort. State governments' interference in governance and administration distracts most local government areas in the country. Usually, it may be in form of; delay in the issuance of receipts, approval of byelaws, approval of annual estimates, and remittance of statutory allocation among others.

Generally, a local government system exists to promote rural development within its jurisdiction. However, these expected roles in the provision of social amenities to improve the living standard of rural dwellers in Nigeria are more of deception than available performance evidences. Towards effort to actualize the effectiveness of local government, various reforms have been implemented by successive regimes.

The rural dwellers in various localities within the country experiences depressingly low annual per capita income, poor housing, and various forms of social and political sequestration in their domains, hence the creation of local government system to address these challenges.

There is a correlation between the concepts of the local government system and rural development. The correlation propels a critical discourse on interdependence among the three tiers of government; local, state, and federal government. Among the tiers of government, local government is at the bottom of pyramid of government institutions; with the central government at the top, and the state governments occupying the middle level.

Being the government nearer to the rural populace, it is a better option in initiating rural development through wider participation of the people. The elected or appointed officials of local governments are residents of the area, which usually in their collective decisions determine the policy actions of the council.

Local government is a developmental tool for good governance and in the long run, when the culture of probity and accountability are fully entrenched and adhered to in a holistic manner, the leadership at this level of governance would be more dedicated, responsive and responsible. This is underscored on the premise that probity and accountability are fundamentals of good governance, which consequently, translate to rural development.

#### **2.1.10 Factors Affecting Effective and Efficient Local Government Performance of Rural Developments' Roles**

The composition of democratically elected local government councils as provided under the 1999 Nigerian Constitution, section 7, contains provisions for the functions of the local council under its Fourth Schedule. In carrying out these functions, the local government system is recognized as an important institution for development at the grassroots level.

Like any other institution, it is not insulated from challenges affecting its operations. The factors inhibiting rural development are discussed below. They include:

**Corrupt Practices in Government:** Corruption is a global issue and has remained one of the fundamental problems of the contemporary Nigerian State. Corruption is considered as pervasion or change from good to bad, in terms of human conduct. It is a behavioural attitude that deviates from the prevalent norm in a given context where the private gain is secured at public expense<sup>70</sup>.

Corruption is thriving in the Nigerian local government system and has become institutionalised to an unacceptable level. This has inhibited development and good governance at the third-tier level of government. At the grassroots level, corrupt individuals are celebrated at will by the society. The manifestations of this dismal phenomenon are: inflation of prices of procured items; overestimated cost of projects; the ghost worker syndrome; award of contracts that are executed halfway or subsequent abandonment; patron-client syndrome; and misappropriation of funds among others.

**Lack of Autonomy in the Scheme of Governance:** The concept of autonomy refers to freedom, independence, and being free from external influence. The local government system in Nigeria cannot be said to be autonomous. This is underscored on the premise that the federal and state governments stifle the local government with funding and the state in particular, is not willing to devolve authority to the grassroots level. The 1999 constitution section 7(1) provides for a local government system by the democratically elected council leaders; and accordingly, the government of every state is mandated to ensure their existence under the law. The law provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils. This interaction would always make the local government an appendage of state governments. This has equally affected local government administration and rural development overtime in terms of financial relations between local government and other tiers of government. The state government often manipulates the council through the offices of local government affairs, the ministry of local government, and the local government service commission.

The state government's encroachment on the legitimate revenue sources of local government constrains its powers and responsibilities<sup>68</sup>.

**Paucity of Funds for Administrative Operation:** The monthly allocation from the Federation Account (20.6%) Statutory and the (10%) Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) contribution by the state

governments are inadequate to run the local government system; most especially, with the state governments being in charge of the funds, local government financial challenges would persist. This compounds the problem of the local government system in discharging its duties or realisation of its objectives<sup>71</sup>. There are advocacy on the need for the local governments to reduce dependence on external sources of revenue, and to improve more on their own internally generated revenue; taxes and user charges to stabilize governance at the local level. The strong financial base is fundamental for the proper functioning of local governments. A financially stable system would stimulate high executive capacity and effective leadership for rural governance<sup>72</sup>.

**Non-Periodic Conduct of Council Election:** The culture of refusal to conduct the council election as at when due by the state governors to various local governments in Nigeria is gradually coming to stay. Many state governors in Nigeria have turned themselves into law in respect to the conduct of local council elections. Instead of conducting the council elections and allowing the local government to carry out their constitutional responsibilities accordingly, they resort to the appointment of a caretaker committee to reward their political allies and the loyalists thereby, propagating patron-clientism in governance.

**Conflicts of Inter-Governmental Relations among Tiers of Government:** The prevalent interference in local governments' activities by states through the Ministry of Local Government affects the nature of inter-governmental relations between state and local government in Nigeria. Intergovernmental relations are a planned system where complex relationships are managed among layers of government in any given state<sup>73</sup>. The local government ought to be autonomous under a real federal arrangement but in Nigeria, this arrangement is more of a unitary state, empowers the state governments to determine LGs structure, finance, composition and function as encapsulated in Nigerian 1999 constitution (Section 7 & 8). The federal and state governments exercise superiority over local government councils in many aspects like; delay in the issuance of receipts, approval of

byelaws, and approval of annual estimates among others. State governments' attitude in their various policy circulars and regulations and the behaviour of their field staff towards local government contribute, to a large extent the poor performance of local government<sup>74</sup>.

Over-bloated Workforce in Local Government System: Without recourse to its budgetary provisions, most local governments have more workforce than requires for their operations. In terms of personnel development at the council levels, much financial burden is imposed on councils as a result of redundant staff whose services are duplicated. It is best practice to recruit or promote staff in line with the need of the government and budgetary provisions of the council. Contrary to this, the members of staff are recruited or promoted not necessarily as a result of the need but, as a political patronage to those that canvassed for the emergence of some council chairpersons during elections. This has equally delayed the payment of staff salaries as at when due. The Handbook on Local Government Administration (2012) provides among others that in compliance to regulations, the local government shall recruit into critical areas as required; although there is no substantial compliance by the council managements<sup>75</sup>.

High Level of Politicization in the Councils: This is a situation where politicians or political elites interfere and control the bureaucratic process of the council by manipulating recruitment, education, training and promotions to imbue bureaucracies with overt commitments to the political goals of the government of the day<sup>76</sup>. Aside from these, placements are highly politicized especially, in local government top management level where Directors, Permanent secretaries, Head of Service, and Head of Personnel Management are placed on the basis of loyalty to the government in power. This trend would entrench mediocrity at expense of meritocracy. The elites controlling government machinery place personal interest above official interest.

Joint Account Syndrome: This practice has made the local government to remain an appendage to the state hence, the paucity of fund for rural development in Nigeria. Most state governments deliberately manipulate budgetary allocation to local government through the state-local government joint account. Poor budgetary allocation affects the quality of development in most of the critical areas in rural areas, for political reasons or absolute corrupt tendencies by state governors. This contributes to poverty, high mortality rate, criminality, and rural-urban drift. This has great implications for rural development in Nigeria.

From the factors observed above, the essence of establishing local government has been defeated considering the wide gap between the political leadership and the followership, resulting to the underdevelopment of most rural areas.

#### **2.1.11 Public Policy**

As man interacts in different spheres of life; politically, economically, technologically, educationally, and otherwise; social problems diffuse and spread along with these sectors of life. It is in recognition of these social problems and in a bid to proffer durable and reliable solutions that government always formulates policies as a response to facilitate development, stability, growth, citizenry wellbeing and administrative efficiency. This is necessary because, if there are no attempts to address these problems as they arise, they may degenerate and could worsen the socio-economic growth and development of the society. Public policy can be defined as the integrated course and programmes of action which government designed as framework or guide to direct actions and practices in certain problem areas<sup>76</sup>. It refers to what the government does in order to meet the needs, yearnings and aspirations of the citizenry. This includes action taken in the course of distributing, regulating and redistributing resources in the society<sup>77</sup>.

Furthermore, from the view of the government as the sole actor, public policy is foremost a plan or direction of intended action, encapsulating the future expectation. The aim is to ameliorate societal challenges<sup>78</sup>. As a ‘plan or course of action’, a public policy can transform into “a law; a rule; a statute; a regulation or an order”<sup>79</sup>. This ‘plan of action’ must epitomize rational decision-making, which will subsequently lead to rational action<sup>80</sup>. Public policy relates to the process or series of actions undertaken by the government<sup>81</sup> in order to remedy a certain already identified societal problem<sup>77</sup>.

However, the above definitions limit public policies to actions exclusively initiated by the government. These actions do not necessarily have to emanate exclusively from the government, the citizenry or private stakeholders can also initiate them. Nevertheless, no matter who the initiator of a public policy is, the government is going to process the initiative, for such actions to be labelled appropriately as public policy.

Unlike the above definitions, public policy represents the learning outcome among individuals, organisations, and larger societies, concerning analysis of the societal problems, managing and engaging these problems with the involvement of government, to solve the identified problems within the society or institutional system. Policy agenda can be proposed as a product of micro, meso, and macro levels of engagement. Public policy affects everyday life. It is the pivot of daily civic engagement<sup>82</sup>.

As a framework of public governance, Public policy represent the overall framework with which government actions are undertaken to achieve public goals, including government decisions and actions designed to deal with matters of public concern. Policies are purposive courses of action devised as a response to identified problem. Public policies usually pass through a specific policy process, then adopted and implemented through laws, regulatory measures, and funding priorities.

Individuals and groups attempt to shape public policy, by mobilising interest groups, advocacy education, and political lobbying. The official policy provides guidance to governments over a range of actions, and process to evaluate governance by both the government and citizens<sup>83</sup>. In a way, this conceptualisation breaches the gap between government and other stakeholders by including the roles of non-governmental actors in public policy-making and even the processes involved in public policy.

Public policy enhances effective democratic governance. Public policy is the direction and identity of governments globally. The nature, stability and development of any government depend on public policy. Elected officials are voted into power by the sovereign citizens of a country due to their desire to influence public policy. The proposed policies as contained in the manifesto of candidates and the party during the election campaigns, as well as implementation or otherwise of previous policies of the party in power, influences voting patterns and outcome during statewide elections.

Policy analysis can be described as the investigations that produce accurate and useful information for decision-makers<sup>83</sup>. Thus; the importance of sound public policy analyses in achieving various goals, relating to the growth and development of a nation and its citizens cannot be overemphasized.

Furthermore, public policies are not a day process. The policy-making process is a sequential pattern of action involving a number of functional categories of activities. This necessitates a process perspective in policy discourse. Therefore, Public policy is seen as a process or cycle that has numerous stages that must be followed, before the objectives of a policy can be realized. There are generally four or five phases depending on the school of thought: Problem identification; Agenda setting; Policy-making or formulation; Policy implementation, and Evaluation of the policy. The stages of policy depend on the particular approach adopted<sup>84</sup>. Further, in another attempt to describe the policy implementation process; it has been postulated that the public policy process embodies; the formulation, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and new agenda-setting<sup>85</sup>. Moreover, there is an

opinion that the core function of the entire process of public policy is to prioritize public policy implementation, because public policy implementation is at the heart of the entire public policy process. It plays a pivotal and salient role in the potency and magnitude of the entire public policy process<sup>85</sup>. Although, there is no consensus in the literature regarding stages involved in the policy cycle, most scholarly articles agree on four main stages or processes in public policy cycle, because the four functional stages or phases are the route that any public policy is expected to go through<sup>85</sup>. However, it must be emphasised that the essence of the policy process is to transform inputs into expected outputs.

#### **2.1.12 Public Policy as an Instrument of Governance**

Public policy is a familiar concept used on a daily basis by virtually everybody; but owing to the diversity of circumstances in which the term is applied, coupled with the fact that human beings by nature vary in their perceptions of things, there is a variety of meanings attached to the concept. Nonetheless, there is still a common reference point by all users of the concept from various disciplines. It is used mainly in reference to what the government does in order to meet the yearnings and aspirations of the citizenry. This could be in form of actions taken in the course of distributing, regulating and redistributing resources in the society. However, these actions do not necessarily have to emanate exclusively from the government, as the citizenry can initiate them as well. Nevertheless, these people's initiatives would have to be acted upon by the government before such actions could appropriately be labelled as public policy<sup>86</sup>.

The concept, therefore, is central to governments, private organisations and individuals. Government commits much time, energy and resources to the development of policies. Officials in both public and private organisations spend much time in enunciating policies and explaining how actions fit into existing policies. Infact, the impression the ordinary man derives from the policy is nothing more

than the government's daily official pronouncements, activities and programmes. The more the reference to concept of public policy in public discourse, the more ambiguity and misrepresentation.

Individuals, families, clubs, cultural groups, communities, government departments, small business organizations, as well as large ones, have their respective organizational policies<sup>87</sup>. However, the concern is always on government policies because it is government policies that usually direct the economy and repositions the society in a manner by which law and order can be achieved.

Public policymaking is part of the governance process in Nigeria like in other nations of the world; however, like in other developing nations, implementation remains a challenge.

Different environments, geography and the nature of subject matter influence perspectives of public policies. For instance, from the perspective of goal attainment and power configuration; public policy-making process can be described as a series of steps taken by a government to solve problems, make decisions, allocate resources or values, implement policies and generally, respond to the expectations of their constituencies<sup>87</sup>.

In a democratic environment, the role of the political class and other stakeholders in agenda-setting of public policy is highly indispensable. Based on this, public policy can be seen as a set of interrelated decisions by a political actor or group of actors in the process of identifying desirable goals and the requirement for achieving them, within the context and power as contained in relevant regulations<sup>88</sup>.

On the other hand, the conception of public policy may be controversial. For instance, Policy is referred to as "a proposal, an on-going programme, or the goals of a programme, major decisions or the refusal to make a certain decision"<sup>89</sup>. This definition gives credence to inaction on the part of the government as policy.

Our major concern here is not the inaction of the government but the actions taken by the government towards policy directions, as they affect health, agriculture, education, poverty reduction and security. Public policy therefore can be a decision taken by the government in the areas affecting socio-economic and social development.

Public discourse today is saturated with the advocacy or criticism of various policies of the government. It is common to hear of foreign policy, defence policy, economic policy, educational policy and policies in almost every area of government and private activities. We also hear of policy statements, enactment of policies, and declaration of policy intentions, and the commitments of millions of naira to the implementation of certain policies. Our lives are in fact affected and influenced by policies made by governments and communities, social organisations, churches, labour groups, educational businesses and service organizations. The provision of social services, the cost of fuel, the availability or non-availability of imported goods, the scope of our economic activities, the availability of agricultural loans and employment opportunities, the security of our jobs and how much tax we pay or rate to pay, are all determined by or are the outcome of policies<sup>87</sup>.

However, a policy is a purposive statement of intention formulated through designed political process, adopted and implemented by legitimate governance structure. Policy specifies intention, objectives and guidelines as desired by the people<sup>90</sup>.

Another definition seeks to analyse the characteristics of policy by positing it as follows; first, as a core guideline for official action. The key characteristic of a policy is that, it involves a choice; it is an important choice or a critical or major decision taken by individuals, groups or organizations. This means that there has to be several policy alternatives. Secondly, policies are proposed courses of action or a projected set of decisions. Policies are prospective or are statements of future actions. Policies state what is going to be done or would be done. It outlines a course of contemplated or

desired action in relation to certain desired objects or events in the real world. Third, a policy is goal-oriented. It is directed at the attainment of certain ends or more simply objectives. A policy has certain purposes or intentions. Fourth, policies have to do with particular problems or problem areas. They are not abstracts, but rather relate to and connect to the challenges and pressures arising from an environment. In fact, often times, policies are designed and targeted at resolving existing or future problems or satisfying certain needs. Finally, a policy is a course-setting action. It provides the direction, the guide and the way to the achievement of certain goals. It provides the framework within which present and future actions are taken<sup>91</sup>.

After looking at what policy is, our attention now should be focused on public policy. Public policy, as a concept has a variety of usages. Systematic analysis of issues requires wider and comparative views, because the focus is more on analysis of issues and behaviour rather than a perspective preference, though, the interdisciplinary nature of the concept, constitutes another problem<sup>92</sup>. However, the only way by which we can demarcate one from another is to qualify it with our area of interest; for instance, economists talk of economic policies, while educationists often refer to policies relating to education as educational policies. But when used in either way, it portrays different meanings. In addition to this, there is controversy in existing literatures in political science over the boundary of what constitutes public policy<sup>93</sup>.

What the above position suggests is that the focus on public policy may not necessarily be all the stages of policy-making process, rather; may be devoted to only a stage<sup>89</sup>. Consequently, it is argued that, public policy means, deciding at any time or place the objectives and substantive measures to be chosen in order to deal with a particular problem, issue or innovation<sup>95</sup>. It includes the justification for the option adopted. Public policy refers to the strategic use of resources to alleviate national problems or governmental concerns<sup>96</sup>.

The above represents the management point of view of public policy; first, there is the awareness on the part of the policy-makers that human wants (problems) are insatiable. Two, the available resources to these want are inadequate. Consequently, this problem calls for prudent management of the meager resources to meet some of the pressing demands of the populace<sup>94</sup>.

It is also postulated that planning is basic to public policy<sup>95</sup>. Planning refers to, conceiving meaningful goals, and developing alternatives for future action to achieve these goals<sup>96</sup>. Planning involves a systematic procedure for the reduction of many alternatives to an approved course of action. It determines not only goals but also the sequential order in which they are pursued; the need for coordination and the standards for maintaining control<sup>96</sup>. In essence, anything that involves planning has a goal to achieve. Therefore, we can argue that the concept of public policy from the perspective of planning is not far from the point of view of goal attainment<sup>94</sup>.

## **2.2 Theoretical Review**

### **2.2.1 Theories of Public Policy**

#### **2.2.1.1 Policy Theory**

A policy instrument is part of the subject of intervention theory. It can be clarified further by differentiating the various forms of intervention; a policy, a program and a reform. In this context, we need to bring to discourse policy theory; the set of assumptions underlying a policy. A policy theory, following Andries Hoogerwerf, consists of assumptions about three kinds of relations; Normative relations between what 'is' and what 'ought'; Final relations between objectives and means to accomplish these objectives; Causal relations between causes and effects.

The study of policy instruments is geared toward the construction of final and causal relations. To put it differently, goal attainment is considered to be the dependent variable while instruments are seen as

one of the independent variables. It should be underscored though that a policy theory does not reflect a scientific theory in the traditional sense of a universal law that has been put to an empirical test.

A policy theory provides guidelines for action and is rather, idiographic than nomothetic in nature. Being utilization-focused, a policy theory should meet both academic and practical standards criteria. A policy theory is often the outcome of a trade-off and consequently sub-optimal in nature, calling to question the quality of policy theory; coherence, reliability and validity.

Political and social scientists have developed many theories, models and approaches for analysing policy-making. These theories explain policy flow or who controls policy-making powers in the society. The postulated theoretical approaches include elite theory, group theory, political systems theory, institutionalism, incremental theory and rational-choice theory, which are primarily concerned with the public policy-making process. PolicyMakers consider adopting multi-theory approaches in policy processes to achieve preferable and enduring outcomes. Most of the policies are the product of harmonization of “rational planning; incrementalism; group interest; elite preferences; systemic forces; game-playing; political processes as well as institutional influences”<sup>97</sup>.

#### **2.2.1.2 Elite Theory**

The elite theory was propounded and developed by Vilfredo Pareto (1848 –1923), Gaetano Mosca (1858 – 1941), Karl Marx, Robert Michel, Wright .C. Mills etc. The theory posits that a small minority consisting of members of the economic elite and the policy-planning networks control the power and that this power is independent of the state democratic election process; thus creating a bourgeoisie-proletariat society. This implies that the society is stratified with the masses at the bottom and the ruling class elite at the top<sup>98</sup>. These elites are the strong individuals of the society, they are wealthy and share common belief; they have strong political influence whether they are in

politics or not, hence, they exerts strong influence on public policies process. Deductively, any policy that is contrary to the interest of this class would end up with challenges<sup>99</sup>.

It was further, clarified that the elitist doctrine holds that in every society, there exist inevitably a small proportion of the population who dominate the decision-making process in that society; and the majority regardless of the democratic mechanisms that exist cannot control this dominant minority. The status of the elites enables them to potentially explore their power in serving the interests of elites. Finding on the study involving Wall Street lawyers, Ivy League scholars and government officials shows that they influence key decisions in political systems. As explained above, these individuals are ideologically conditioned, strongly connected in the corporate network, and eventually dominate the governmental decision-making process<sup>100</sup>.

The theory holds that these elites usually manipulate the citizenry with philanthropic acts. Philanthropy then becomes an instrument with which they reduce the threat of the masses and demand for more people-oriented policies. This stimulates misinformation and ill-informed public opinion in favour of the government<sup>101</sup>.

The cardinal basic of elite theory is that the demands and actions of the people or the masses have little influence in the public policy process compared to the preference of ruling elites, which affects political officials and agencies. The elites are of opinion that they are endowed with the ability to determine and implement policies to promote the welfare of the masses. Thus, policies flow downward from the elite to the masses. The policies made by the elites reflect elite values and they prefer the status quo to radical changes. Therefore we can adduce that, elite class activities have a causal effect on the relationship between the state and the citizens. However, the fundamental assumptions of this theory constitute its weakness. The elite theory is a provocative theory of policy

formulation because policy-making is the product of elites, reflecting their values and serving their ends, rather than promoting the welfare of the masses<sup>93</sup>.

In the same vein, another weakness is that elite theory is anti-democratic as it posits democracy as a fraud and a utopian ideal. It does not depend upon the majority or the willingness of a sufficient part of the citizenry, to demand accountability and transformation, through a free and fair election. Rather, it relies upon the virtues and other standards of the self-appointed political elite for securing responsible conduct to perpetuate or maintain power<sup>102</sup>.

One other limitation of this theory is that it assumes a highly structured and stratified society, which is not the case in some societies. In structurally diffused societies, elite values and elite identity are relatively undeveloped<sup>93</sup>. This leads to the use of ethnicity and religion as instruments, employed to influence policies in their favour when there is discord among the elites. The theory abhors equality and thrives more on inequality. It is therefore predicated on the inequalities that exist among the people and in the various segments of the society<sup>102</sup>.

Despite the limitations above, the elite theory is still very much relevant in explaining the rationale behind policy-making, as it holds an accurate view of the reality of power relationships in the contemporary society<sup>93</sup>. The elite theory as a framework helps in illuminating and throwing more light on politics and other related concepts such as elite circulation, re-cycling of leaders and regime elongation, and “godfatherism”. It further sheds more light on political elite recruitment and the disturbing struggle for political power in societies<sup>102</sup>.

Elite consensus as the frame for policy agenda is historical. In typical traditional community management and decision-making, it is the responsibility of the king, chiefs and recognized elders within the community. Society is stratified and the strata with more influencing power on community

life form the elite group. Agreement among the elite on societal direction is elite consensus. It has to be positive for it to be developmental and impactful<sup>103</sup>.

### **2.2.1.3 Group Theory**

This theory attempts to analyse how each of the various groups in a society tries to influence the public policy process to its advantage. The central assumption of this theory is that interaction among groups is a critical ingredient in politics. Individual opinion or desire in the policy process is only relevant and meaningful to the extent that it acts in the group's interest. Public policy is thus, a temporary point of a compromise reached in the course of competition between numerous groups interests<sup>102</sup>.

According to the Group theory of politics, public policy is the product of group struggle. The pendulum of power in the society swings, from time to time, depending upon the group that succeeds in exerting its own supremacy over the others. The ability of the group that is favoured at a point to sustain its gain depends, on its power to counter the powers of other groups that are attempting to tilt decisions in their favour. It is this type of competition between groups that determine the pattern of allocation of societal resources<sup>104</sup>. Elite consensus exist both in democratic and non-democratic systems. Whichever applies, what is common is that they rely on tripod assumptions that; there are positive and developmental policies to be made, some people have the wherewithal to make such decisions, and that only the opinion of such people must be considered for policy adoption<sup>105</sup>.

Thus, the power to determine policy direction is an indication of the change in the fortunes of each or a combination of these groups. Thus, there is flexibility and fluidity of the power base in the society, as what we regard as public policy is in reality, a temporary equilibrium reached in the course of power struggle between certain groups in the society. As soon as the equilibrium point is altered in

favour of new groups, another policy will emerge or the old policy will be modified to suit the interests of the newly favoured group<sup>93</sup>.

Another point of view, argues that the tenets of the group theory can also be located within the pluralist perspective of liberal democracy, which holds that power should be distributed among different groups in the society based on how they pursue their interests<sup>104</sup>. Since politics entails a power struggle among different groups, conflict is inevitable, thus, the political system should resolve the ensuing group conflict by establishing the rules of the game in the group struggle, arranging compromises and balancing interests, enacting compromises in the form of public policy, and implementing these compromises<sup>106</sup>.

In the same vein, it is adduced that Politics entails a dynamic equilibrium. The Political struggle among different groups produces consensual equilibrium, which is accompanied by terms, conditions, offer and acceptance that each group perceived as fair or willing to compromise<sup>93</sup>. The Statutes or Bills enacted by legislatures are products of equilibrium arrived at as consensus through inter-group struggles. Since the power to dominate policy decision is dependent on group solidarity and power, the dynamics of the policy process is expected to be more engaging and volatile in plural societies than in homogenous settings<sup>107</sup>.

The group theory model is relevant and necessary in public policy. This is because these groups enrich policy-making as well as assist in upholding already adopted or passed laws such as the Constitution. Groups influence public policy, whether it is the policy relating to environmental conditions or the well-being of the masses. Furthermore, the group theory has certain implications for political decisions. For instance, it is very relevant in explaining the dynamics of cabinet of government, and how it can be influenced<sup>77</sup>.

Despite its relevance in public policy analysis, the theory is thumped down on two bases. Firstly, the group theorists did not really define in clear terms what they mean by the two key concepts in the analysis; groups and interests. Thus, while Bentley sees groups as a relation between men, a process of adding man to man, Truman defines it as any collection of individuals who have some characteristics in common. None of these definitions clearly tells us what a group really is, and what their relevance to politics and decision-making is.

Secondly, the theory was so concerned with the role of groups that it leaves out the individuals and society in their analysis. While not disputing the fact that politics is a struggle between and among groups, one can also not forget that the role of particular individuals is also a key variable within the group dynamics. This is particularly important in third-world countries, where a one-man dictatorship has proved that an individual could indeed hold a whole country to ransom and dictate what happens mostly after decimating all competing groups. Also, the role of the society in this competition for power is completely left out, which is also a defect of the theory.

#### **2.2.1.4 Rational-choice Theory**

The rational-choice theory, which is sometimes referred to as social-choice, public-choice, or formal theory, originated with economists and involves applying the principles of microeconomic theory to the analysis and explanation of political behaviour (or non market related decision-making)<sup>93</sup>. The Rational choice theory evolved in the 1960s with George Homans, Gary Becker, William Stanley and Jevons amongst others as its proponents. They hold that individuals always make prudent and logical decisions. These decisions provide people with the greatest benefit or satisfaction, in their highest self-interest given the choices available. The implication of this is that policy influencers, initiators, makers and implementers pursue their self-interest instead of national interest in the process of policy formulation and implementation<sup>101</sup>.

Rational choice theory is an economic principle, which emphasises that individuals always make prudent and logical decisions, and also formulate policies based on their own goals. This model alerts us to the importance of self-interest in policy making<sup>99</sup>.

Rational choice models are desirable because of their influence on political outcomes and public policy, clarity and utility functions. They are relevant and suitable in resolving wide range challenges because social phenomena are complex<sup>108</sup>. This rationality is contextual because it depends on the interplay of experience and expertise, available resources, values, pressure groups and habits<sup>109</sup>.

The rationalist model is said to be conceptually simple in application to public policy formulation, because it aligns with policy process tools. Public policy analyses entail the following essential steps:

- Identifying all the value preferences currently existing in a society.
- Assigning to each value a relative weight,
- Discovering all the alternative policies available to accomplish these values,
- Knowing all the costs and consequences of each alternative policy,
- Selecting the best alternative, that is most efficient, in terms of costs and benefits of the social values.

The rationalist model deals with the construction of public policies. Thus, it aims at improving the public policy-making process. It is the opposite of incrementalism. The Rational-choice theory is very much significant to public policy analysis, as it reiterates the importance of self-interest as a motivating force in politics and policy-making, and provides a better understanding of decision-making processes. However, many contend that politics is not as devoid of altruism and concern for the public interest as the rational-choice theorists assume. In most cases, public-interest groups, such as environmentalists, are motivated by more than immediate self-interest.

Although the simplicity of the theory is appealing, contrarily, its implementation could pose some problems in public policy. Rational-choice studies of political behaviour are usually characterized by rigid and narrow assumptions, mathematical equations, abstractions, and remoteness from reality. For instance, it lacks explicit concern for the political environment of public policy implementations. The prospects of a successful application of this model in developing countries are very dim, given the paucity of data (in coverage and quality) needed for policy-making<sup>93</sup>. Some scholars have argued that the average developing country has neither the technology, nor the resources and time to effectively apply the model to policy-making.

#### **2.2.1.5 Systems Theory**

The systems theory developed from the General Systems theory, which first originated from the pure sciences (Biology), and later, it was adopted in Anthropology and Sociology, before it was finally adopted as a theory of political science. The systems theory in political science owes its origin to David Easton who is reputed to be the scholar that attempted to analyze politics from the perspective of systems in his famous work; *The Political System* in 1953. His work was regarded as the foundation of the behaviourist revolution in political science.

In his endogenous and inter-relationist political model, Easton contends that the society cannot exist without a political system, which is capable of handling the increasing complexity by continuously changing and differentiating itself, and its relationship to the relevant environment. The persistence of a political system depends on its members' capacities for learning and changing their system, and its environment or both. Thus, the critical issue of political existence is how to provide coupling mechanisms between political authorities and ordinary members inside the political system (internal response and feedback), and between the political system and its relevant environment (external

response and feedback). Without such coupling mechanisms, a political system could not be effective in the face of unceasing stress or conflicts<sup>110</sup>.

A political system is identified by its general capacity to make and implement authoritative decisions that are accepted and considered binding by most members of the society, at least most of the time. Therefore, political authority and people's recognition are at the core of any kind of political system, from the tribal to the global. Hence, the political system consists of those institutions found in the economic, social, cultural and international systems that make authoritative allocation of values binding on the society as a whole.

The political system model is a model that simply portrays the manner in which government responds to the demands from the public or society at large. The political systems model as posited, enables the institutions and activities of government to translate 'inputs' (demands which arises from the environment; public opinion and interest group pressures) from the public into policy 'outputs'<sup>111</sup>. Further, many scholars on the literature of system model are of the view, that this is how the system model should operate in a democracy, because it was designed to encourage awareness of policies; for the public to have a platform where they can air their grievances, thus creating a platform for issues to arise on the policy agenda of government<sup>111</sup>. Similarly, another contention was that Liberal democracy was originally found on the idea that a viable connection between political authorities, political regime and political community must exist to manage conflicts, risk and problems in a democratic manner. The political condition of living together as a group of people, with different perceptions on how values are to be distributed, sometimes lead to conflicts and problems, which often necessitate immediate political decisions and actions<sup>110</sup>.

Furthermore, the four-functions model of systems theory by Easton; inputs of demand and support and output of decision and action are applicable to the public policy analysis. According to the model,

the political system receives inputs from its environment and converts them into outputs. The inputs are in the form of demands from groups or individuals for specific policy outcomes. The policy outcomes may be in form of, the determination of societal values and allocation of resources. Feedbacks initiate the process by which outputs transform into future inputs. The concept of feedback indicates that public policies (or outputs) made at a given time may subsequently alter the environment and consequent demands, as well as the character of the political system itself. Policy outputs may produce new demands, which lead to further outputs, and so on in a circular process.

The usefulness of the systems theory in studying public policy is limited by its highly general and abstract nature<sup>93</sup>. Also, it fails to emphasise the procedures and processes by which decisions are made, and that policy develops within an enclosed political system. Indeed, systems theory analyses are sometimes characterised as input-output studies.

#### **2.2.1.6 Institutional Theory**

Scholars of political science and public administration have often been concerned with the study of government institutions, as political life generally revolves around them. These institutions include legislatures, executives and the judiciary. The study of these institutions is essential since the public policy is authoritatively formulated and executed by them. Traditionally, the institutional approach concentrates on describing the formal and legal aspects of government institutions: their formal structure, legal powers, procedural rules, and functions. Formal relationships within the institutions might also be considered, such as legislative-executive relations<sup>93</sup>.

The institutional approach emerges as awareness grew of the importance of entrenching public policy-making within the context of institutions<sup>84</sup>. It stresses the fact that the continuity and the stability of government are of utmost priority. This position is further strengthened by the assertion

that institutional theory of politics and policy studies, emphasise formal and legally recognised structures of the government<sup>112</sup>.

Basically, the institutional theory model proposes that the structures and the code of conduct that governs the government and its departments play a major role in different kinds of existing policy processes and eventually how the policy actors influence those policy processes.

The theory is further adjudged as a tool used by political and policy analysts to measure the performance of different actors in the public policy process. Also, they make use of this theory to assess the rules, norms and strategies that are implemented by various stakeholders in the policy-making process.

Institutional theory is considered as inadequate because it can only provide partial explanations of policy, by focusing on the organizational chart of government. However, this model has shown little concern about the nexus between a department and the public policy emanating from it. Also, little was done in comparing; how institutions operate as opposed to how they were supposed to be operating, in analyzing public policies produced by the institutions, and in identifying the relationships between institutional structure and public policies<sup>93</sup>. The theory has been described as being more static and formalistic compared to the likes of the System theory that have been described to be dynamic and more process-oriented.

However, despite its limitations, the institutional approach is beneficial to public policy processes. In sum, institutional structures, arrangements, and procedures have important consequences on the public policies content and adoption. It is part of governance fundamental, which must be considered along with the more dynamic aspects of politics, such as political parties, groups, and public opinion in policy study.

Institutional theory is suitable in providing universality, coercion and legitimacy to public policies. This is evident in regulatory policies where publics dutifully abide by such policies as they discharge various legal obligations<sup>77</sup>. Hence, the economic and social conditions are inadequate to determine the relevance of the institutional model; thus, the effectiveness of structural and political institutions are basic<sup>113</sup>.

## **2.2.2 Theories of Local Government**

Many authors, as well as schools, have posited that there is no one general theory of local government; instead, the formulation of any theory on local government depends on the functions of the aspect being studied. However, different theories or models of local government that underpin the existence of local government, or that explain the frameworks for establishment, purpose, function and philosophy of local government, have been developed by scholars in the field of public administration and local government studies<sup>114</sup>.

Some of the major theories include; the democratic-participatory theory, the efficiency-services theory, the developmental theory and the locality theory<sup>115</sup>. These theories do not fundamentally contradict other perspectives; instead, they exemplify key aspects of what the local government represents.

### **2.2.2.1 The Democratic-participatory Theory**

This theory is closely associated with scholars such as Sharpe (1970), Mill (1912), Laski (1949:411); Maddick (1963). They contend that local government facilitates democracy and affords the citizens opportunities for political participation, as well as socialising them politically. According to this theory, local government is superior to other levels of government at the level of municipality. Individuals are given the opportunity to participate in the governance of their local government, to

show that government is truly democratic. Three related aspects of the democratic value of local government need to be emphasized;

The first describes the role of local government as facilitating political education and civilization, through the medium of self-government. The second role is that, it offers opportunity for training on democracy<sup>116</sup>. Local government is a training ground for lawmakers on legislative responsibilities.

The third sees local government as essential towards building a stable and harmonious nation-state, and better societies. The only reliable way to achieve sense of belonging and appreciate democratic government is through participation in governance at the local level<sup>117</sup>. Thus; this theory posits the role of local government to include political education, the platform for self-government, and serving as a training ground for higher levels of government<sup>116</sup>.

#### **2.2.2.2 The Efficiency Theory**

The efficiency theory which is also known as the efficiency service delivery theory, justifies the existence of the local government as an agent for provision of services that are local in nature. Thus, the government at higher level should empower local governments for such services, and this role should be the basis for assessing local government<sup>118</sup>.

The performance of local governments can be interrogated through the efficiency theory. This is premised on the fact that local government is the closest tier of government to the grassroots, hence it is expected that they will impact on the populace better than others. The main arguments of this theory can be enumerated as follows<sup>21</sup>.

- Local government is an efficient agent for providing services that are local in character.
- Local government exists to provide services and it must be evaluated on basis of the quality of services in line with the standard prescribed by national or state inspectorates.

- In view of its proximity to the grassroots, local government can provide some services more efficiently than the federal or state governments.
- The efficient performance of these services makes the existence of local government very compelling.

### **2.2.2.3 The Developmental Theory**

This school of thought combines the central assumptions of both the Efficiency theory and the Democratic-participatory theories. This is because development entails effective provision of essential services, as well as actively engaging the local population in democratic participation. The thrust of this school is that the local government serves as the agent of development to the local populace most especially in the developing countries. The improvement of the quality of life and standard of living of the local population becomes a responsibility of the local government<sup>119</sup>.

Developmental theorists see local government as an instrument of development especially in the developing countries. The local government being the closer level of government to the people is in the best position of being aware and acquainted with the needs of the local population<sup>120</sup>. Therefore, if all the local governments adhere to developmental principles and practices, it would translate to even national development. Thus, local governments can be engaged in the implementation of socio-economic programmes that can facilitate and restructure the infrastructure that are essential, in improving the quality of life<sup>115</sup>.

### **2.2.2.4 The Locality Theory**

Localism refers to a systematic approach in organising a national government, to retain local autonomy rather than adhering to the usual pattern of government and centralised political power. Jones and Stewart who are strong proponents of the localist perspective established a strong defense

for the local government on the following grounds: first, that local government is grounded on the belief that there is value in the spread of power and involvement of many decision-makers in many different localities. Second, there is strength in the diversity of responses. Needs vary according to respective locality and local government accommodates these differences. Local authorities therefore, can exchange ideas on different patterns of provisions, experiments and innovations<sup>121</sup>.

Furthermore, the theory holds that since resources vary, they should be exploited in the best manner suitable to the need of local people. This theory apparently advocates any local government model that suits each local area, in contrast to a uniform system model<sup>118</sup>.

The theory of localism supports a devolved model of government that focused on the delivery of better services to citizens, stronger democracy, and enabling the right incentives for balanced economic growth. Localism aligns with the goal of achieving local democracy, empowering the community and national development<sup>122</sup>. One of the main goals of localism theory is to create an effective subordinate structure at the local levels that can handle the responsibility of governance, as well as the provision of social services. The tenets of localism go against the centralization of power at the federal level; development will be effectively achieved when prioritized by local authorities due to closeness to the people. The relevance of this theory to Nigeria lies in the recognition that for development to occur, the local entities must be prioritized and empowered with efficient manpower and material resources required for adequate development of the localities. Furthermore, local government is local; consequently, it is accessible and responsive to local needs. The officials are equally affected by their decisions, they are closer to the people whose lives they affect, and to the area whose environment they shaped. Its localness and visibility expose it to pressure, when it fails to meet the needs of people who reside in the area<sup>123</sup>.

The localist theory explicitly recognises that the existing local authorities do not always act in a way that is responsive to changing local needs. This is because organisational arrangements associated with service delivery and bureaucratic impediments, constrain the capacity at the local level, which makes reform of the local government system inevitable. It is important to mention here that these various theories of local government are not mutually exclusive but complements each other. Together, they provide very good justification for local government.

#### **2.2.2.5 The Holistic Integration Theory**

The practical implication of this theory is that local government exists to contribute toward achieving national integration, national evolution and national consciousness<sup>124</sup>. According to integrationists; local governments perform the following holistic integration functions:

- i. Decongesting government at the centre, thereby relieving national leaders from the burden of unnecessary involvement in local issues.
- ii. Increasing people's understanding and enlightening about economic and community development.
- iii. Training people in the art of self-government.
- iv. Providing realistic socio-economic programmes that can improve the quality of life at the local level.

It also reduces congestion at the centre, by involving in implementing socio-economic programmes of the central government, either as agents or as bodies to which these functions are delegated. Obvious examples are capital-intensive items such as the establishment of a public transportation system, the building of schools, the dispensaries and health clinics, the building of main and feeder roads and modern recreational centres. All these; facilitated at the local level with the support and

encouragement of the national government, will not only decongest government at the centre, but will gradually engender strong support for national consciousness.

Another compelling argument of this school is that local government, if properly managed, is in a better position than the national government to stimulate initiatives, and inculcate national consciousness in the people. This is because it can easily identify available local skills, interests and capabilities, and quickly explore them. Such local talents, if well encouraged, are very likely to contribute to the task of enlightening and educating the masses.

For the purpose of this study, it would be meaningful to integrate the above schools of thought to arrive at an integrated framework, to serve as the basis for analysing and interpreting the research data. The holistic-integrationist school is more concerned with the pragmatic approach of how local government areas can be an effective agent of a better life, and how it can bring about an improved means of living and developing people's consciousness of communal interdependence.

Interestingly, democratic participating schools, the efficiency-service school and developmental school are built on basic values that are in any way not contradictory to the ideals of the holistic school. Analysts, therefore, suggest that since there is no marked dichotomy among these four schools, an integration of their ideals would provide a theoretical framework which can fit into the operation of both developed and the developing administrations, and to stimulate needed progress through other aspects; political participation, political education and the socialization of the masses to the ideal of freedom and liberty, as well as national integration and stability.

Generally, the functional criteria derivable from the propositions of the four schools can be categorized into two major headings; the general category and the development category<sup>125</sup>.

The general category sums up the ideals of democratic-participatory schools and efficiency service schools. The major functional items under this head are: democratic ideals, political participation, protective services, and infrastructural services.

The development category consists mainly of development and holistic-integrationist ideal. Summarized briefly, we can put them under major functional items like: National integration, Socio-economic development, and Manpower resource development.

The contention in this theoretical framework is that local government, as a subsystem must function in the local areas. The suggestion is not that local government can, or should take over these areas exclusively; rather, that in a political system where local government is properly placed a form of voluntary co-operation and partnership will exist with the national government, for which local government will be required to perform some aspects of these functional responsibilities.

Applying this approach to local governments areas, it is pertinent for local government to integrate the community development groups in the initiation, planning, and execution of programmes, since one of the primary functions of local government is to provide social services; including health facilities, water supply, rural electrification, feeder roads and primary education at the grass-root level. This idea will enable integration between these groups and the local government.

### **2.2.3 Theories of Rural Development**

A study of the role of local governments in local economic development promotion must be guided by a clear understanding of various theories and strategies underlying the concepts. Despite the increasing popularity of local economic development as a tool for economic restructuring and regeneration, an overall theory that wholly explains and supports this position is yet to be propounded. Though there are no single and specific theories concerning this study area, there are

bodies of theoretical work that are relevant which can explain the major concepts and their interrelationships.

### **2.2.3.1 Good Governance Theory**

Good Governance is the expected outcome of any development policy. The theories of development graduate from economic growth to poverty reduction, and to human welfare. This is a departure from the previous approach that neglects political and social life for economic development. Development from modernization perspective is about the process of transforming traditional societies into rich and modern societies. The approaches emphasised the nexus between economy on one hand and on the other; democracy, equality, redistribution, human right, gender, participation, and empowerment<sup>126</sup>.

However, there are various perspectives on the concept of governance. The simple perspective is to describe it in terms of management, legal and administrative competence of the public sector. In a broad sense, it includes the exercise of political power, general administration, government-people relations, conflict management, interest aggregation, and rights. Therefore, it relates to politics, public policies, public institutions, economic relationships, and nongovernmental organisations. Good governance therefore, is the predominance of the aforementioned variables on how we run the society<sup>127</sup>. Rural development policy is an initiative envisaged to promote good governance by extending participatory governance to the grassroots.

### **2.2.3.2 Endogenous Growth Theory**

The theory is introduced into the discourse for purpose of describing rural areas or local areas as an economic unit of a larger federal economic structure. It introduces an economic perspective to local government, which hitherto is only the subject of politics. Endogenous growth theory is an economic theory, which posits that economic growth is within and depends on internal processes. Economic growth depends on the level of investment in human capital and the development of technology that

can enhance effective and efficient production processes. The endogenous growth theory is one of the theories associated with an imbalance in regional development. Technological progress is an endogenous variable in this model which introduces increasing returns into the production function in order to determine the long-term growth rate.

The concern for this unhealthy inequality stems from three assumptions: that unabated uneven economic prosperity would engender political rivalry and discontent; the situation can be exacerbated in regions with differences in race, religion, language and culture; and lastly, inequalities are not limited to the economy but other related issues like employment, social and political opportunities.

There are divergent views on this theory, Classical economists are of the opinion that capital flow and market forces would equilibrate the process. The outflow of labour and inflow of capital would further strengthen this position. Marxists are of the view that the inequalities are manifestation of pulls and pushes of capitalism, compounded by the rivalry and struggle to maximize profit by private owners of means of production. Perrouxian view, rides on three basics; that growth is not simultaneous everywhere; the intensity of growth varies wherever it occurs; and that it is aided by different factors with a different effect on the economy. Once growth is activated at any place, it keeps growing as an economic center with spiral effect on dependent regions<sup>128</sup>.

Another view is the cumulative causation model or Myrdal's model<sup>129</sup>. According to this view, once development starts at any place it continues and strengthens through market forces at the expense of others. The impact of the growth on the economy is determined by the "spread effect" referred to as growth-inducing variables like technology and inflow of raw material, and "backwash effect" which has to do with negative effect inducing variables like migration. Closely related to the above is Hirschman's view. This view holds that, economic growth promotes inter-regional inequality through

the “trickling down effect” and the “polarization effect”, similar to the spread effect and backwash effect respectively<sup>130</sup>.

The theory is relevant to the study of local economic development. The endogenous growth theory can be classified into two categories: these are; endogenous broad capital, and innovation models. The broad capital model holds that capital investments generate externalities and ascribes human capital and related technological changes to learning-by-doing and knowledge spillovers<sup>131</sup>.

It modifies the neo classical production function by associating externalities with investments. It adds that, capital stock generates learning-by-doing and spillovers of knowledge, which eventually transform technology into a public good. Technological advancement therefore becomes an endogenous factor in the growth process. All the issues are greatly influenced by government policies on spending and taxation<sup>132</sup>.

The endogenous development innovation model on the other hand places emphasis on the returns from the technological improvements, arising from deliberate and intentional innovation by producers and other stakeholders involved in the process. It is a product of intentional research and education, to integrate the human capital into production function. Therefore, investments in human capital will catalyse spillover effects, to increase the productivity of both physical capital and the wider labour force.

These growth theories consequently stimulate a debate on the relevance of local institutions and state intervention in local-regional development. It is held that, an increase in the income of a region or local area is dependent on the role of the state, its local units and agencies, and their capacities to generate the needed outcomes as postulated by the growth theories.

Also the theory has a direct bearing on local development because it tries to explain the uneven rates of regional convergence and spatial clustering of high and slow-growth regions. These theories

influence the orientation of local, regional and rural development policies. These policies seek to raise the economic performance of underperforming regions or rural areas in contributing to the growth of their regions or national economies.

The growth perspective and the perspective of endogenous development share the vision that productive systems consist of a group of material and non-material variables which allow local and regional economies to adopt differentiated paths towards growth with the potential for development, and space for regional and industrial policies.

The rates of economic growth in different areas and in the levels of income and production are due to differences not only in the stocks of capital-work but also in educational levels, the capacity to generate research and development, and definitively in the economic progress generated by public enterprises and administrations.

Accordingly, economic development would be a process of growth and structural change in which the forms of organization, the system of relations and the dynamics of learning play strategically important roles. It is also characterized by its territorial dimension, not only because of the spatial effect of the organizational and technological processes involved, but also because each place or region is a result of the history in which the institutional, economic and organizational system was set up.

Also, the endogenous development perspective, integrates social development into the economic dimension. Within the context of endogenous development, the distribution of income and wealth on one hand and economic growth on the other, acquires a common dynamic trend due to the fact that public and private actors take investment decisions, oriented towards resolving the problems facing local society. The local area therefore, becomes the space in which the initiatives of different sectors of organized society are realized<sup>133</sup>.

So far, it is evident that the endogenous development strategy and the new endogenous growth theory have a number of practical implications for the design of programmes to stimulate economic growth at both the national and local levels. It brings to the fore the importance of the history of a particular area in shaping its development path, the role of institutions in providing the framework for growth, and stresses the relevance of space or place to development. It facilitates a new perspective to analyze the roles of institutions in creating necessary conditions for growth in an economy that is driven by knowledge.

It sees institutions as the rules of the game and processes by which these rules are determined and enforced. Knowledge creation is not purely seen as the product of market forces only, but non-market forces as institutions can also influence the kind of knowledge created. Therefore, different institutional arrangements play a critical role in economic development. It goes on to emphasize that, idea creation, new business development and economic changes, all take place within specific places or spaces and therefore economic development conceptualization should take into account spatial locations.

It also emerges that the endogenous growth model provides a strong justification for public policy intervention. The implied divergence between private and social benefits means that a case can be made for policy interventions to facilitate a chosen growth factor, be it human capital development, research and development or public infrastructure. In sum, the above analysis has yielded the following key characteristics of the local economic development promotional process: the active participation of local actors and institutions, the utilization of local resources, and the existence of territorial identity. Others are importance of advances in useful knowledge, and generating positive growth externalities driven by combinations of growth factors which are defined within a wider concept of investment.

In conclusion, the endogenous growth theory would assist in understanding uneven growth challenges amongst the rural areas and towards adopting desirable policies, if we situate local governments in the position of regions with uneven growth within the entire nation.

### **2.2.3.3 Sectoral Theory**

This approach is one of the oldest and most popular theoretical approaches usually adopted by policymakers for rural development. This approach seeks to achieve rural development by addressing the issues in each sector of the economy. Hence, annual budgets and plans are drawn up by each sector based on the projects of each ministry and agency. The sectoral approach entails a comprehensive plan that subsequently splits into phases. Targets are set, and financial provisions are made or expected to be made according to schedules<sup>134</sup>. Thus, it is not uncommon to see such plans accommodating all the sectors such as agriculture, industry, transport, education, health, administrative, and service sectors.

The sector approach advocates a compartmentalized mode of development in different sectors, rather than an integrated form of development in rural areas, thereby giving the impression that they are watertight compartments without interdependence<sup>135</sup>. Little attempts are made to integrate the sectors, and this hinders the overall development of rural areas.

In Nigeria, policymakers have consciously or unconsciously adopted this approach in the bid to address rural underdevelopment since independence. Governments at all levels propose yearly budgets and draw plans on how to achieve advancement in each sector. The plans and budget for rural development are included under each sector as provisions to be executed by the relevant authorities. Some sectors often form the policy thrust of an administration, and are thereby given preference on resources allocation over other sectors. This would consequently, represent the rural policies and strategies that are adopted and implemented at the grassroots.

In the first and Second National Development Plans (1962-68 and 1970-74) period, agricultural development was substituted for rural development, thus, emphasis was placed on agricultural development in encouraging and sustaining community self-help efforts, to achieve rural development. It was believed that if more efforts were deployed and enough incentives were provided, farmers would be eager to produce more and this would consequently boost rural development. The Nigeria Third and Fourth Development Plans recognized the fact that agricultural development can not alone achieve significant rural development. Hence, they broaden the development objectives to include; providing employment opportunities, self-reliance in basic food production, higher per capita real income, foreign exchange earnings and the provision of raw materials as basic benefits for the development of the agricultural sector<sup>134</sup>.

However, despite the good intentions behind these developments and the resource allocated to necessary sectors, there were a huge gap between policies made and their implementation. Rather than the rural areas undergoing an immense transformation in the agricultural sector, and other sectors, it is the elites that benefit from these policies and the resources allocated. They have not been significantly implemented; instead budgetary allocations were diverted and siphoned by those whose responsibility is to implement this change.

#### **2.2.3.4 Structural Theory**

The structural approach focuses on the transformation of the major institutions and structures of the society<sup>134</sup>. This theoretical approach believes that if these structures are transformed in line with modern or western democratic ideals, the society will develop. When it comes to rural development, this model believes in the restructuring of the major structures and institutions of the society, in order to meet the basic needs of the people to improve their standards of living.

The structural approach also seeks to transform the societal structures and institutions designed to enforce certain political, economic and social relationships, such that those that are disadvantaged find their positions improved. These relationships include the landlord-tenant relationship, the relationship between poor peasant farmers and the middlemen, the relationship between money lenders and poor peasant farmers and other small-scale enterprises<sup>136</sup>. These could be addressed through agricultural reforms, friendly interest rates on loans to SMEs, and regulating tenancy rates and laws.

When it comes to the transformation of the institutions in the society, the smallest unit; the family is not left out. The structural approach seeks to reform institutionalized structures like those preventing women from fully contributing their quota to the society<sup>134</sup>. Women constitute almost half of the population and should therefore be central to the development of society. Hence, government attempted implementing this by establishing rural development policies and programmes that would give women access to resources, which would enable them, to contribute towards improvement in their life and family, and consequently boosting rural development.

An assessment of rural development policies of Nigeria shows that a number of rural development policies were aimed at changing the well-being of women in the rural areas. The “Better Life Programme” of 1987 initiated by Mariam Babangida sought to improve the living standards of women in key areas of health and nutrition, education, rural industrialization, social welfare and agriculture. The programme was specifically aimed at addressing the fortunes of women in terms of supplying facilities, accessibility to credit facilities, increase in literacy rates, and accessibility to primary healthcare through mass mobilization of women for immunizations and establishment of small pharmacies and training of mid-wives<sup>137</sup>. However, as stated earlier, the benefits were reaped not by the intended population, but by the privileged elites. Instead of the women benefitting from this programme, it was diverted to the wives of the rich in the urban centres for a different purpose.

Hence, rather than an efficient redistribution of wealth and improvement in the level of welfare of the common man, it further worsen the existing inequalities and creates more undesirable structures.

### **2.2.3.5 Integrated Rural Development Theory**

This is a fairly novel approach adopted by the government to address the salient issues concerning rural development. This approach emerged due to the inadequacies of previous approaches to significantly improve the living standards of the rural poor. The two key issues believed to be retarding rural productivity and growth are; the need for action simultaneously on both several non agricultural products and efforts to increase agricultural production, and the need to provide inputs to the neglected small producer. This suggests the need for a new approach that is more rural and comprehensive, rather than only agricultural rural development. Hence, it makes an integrated approach quite attractive to development practitioners at the time<sup>138</sup>.

The integrated rural development approach recognizes that agricultural development alone is not sufficient for the comprehensive development of rural areas<sup>134</sup>. It further acknowledges the need for economic growth and technological advancement in these areas. Consequently, this model places a huge emphasis on the mobilization and development of human resources potential to achieve a more equitable access to resources and equitable distribution of income.

Also, this theoretical approach advocates a multipurpose thrust for rural development planning and implementation. It proposes multiple facets to rural development, and thus, the need to take into account all necessary factors required to devise a comprehensive development strategy suitable for an encompassing development and improvement of the people in the rural areas. The various aspects of rural life should be taken into consideration to facilitate the development of an integrated development plan. These include; the growth of agriculture and its allied activities, rural

industrialization, education, health, public works, poverty alleviation and other necessary rural development programmes.

The concept of an integrated approach to rural development is not restricted to only the multi-sectorial aspect, but also the broad range of actors involved. This approach recognises that rural development efforts ought not to be restricted to the government alone, rather, other actors including: International governmental organizations like the UN and its agencies, multilateral financial institutions like the WTO, IMF and the World Bank, regional and sub-regional organisations, private sector, and donors, international individuals, local governments, communities, families, and individuals, all have a role to play in integrated rural development process<sup>139</sup>.

The Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) introduced by the Babangida Administration in 1986, adopted the integrated rural development policy. The DFRRI was charged with providing feeder roads, rural water supply, and electrification in the rural areas. As it lasted, the rural poor hived a sigh of relief as the quasi-ministerial agency attempted to ensure a deeply rooted and sustaining development process in rural areas through the mobilization of mass participation<sup>140</sup>. Compared to other rural development programmes, this programme recorded more success; however, it wasn't without its own hindrances. The programme was riddled with problems of misappropriation of funds which seriously affected the implementation of the programme. Also, the people in the rural areas were not familiar with some of the facilities provided, and this affected the achievement of the objectives. In 1994, the DFRRI was abandoned, and no programme or policy has been structured to sustain its gains.

#### **2.2.3.6 Humanistic Theory**

Unlike the other theoretical approaches to rural development planning, this approach is hinged on consciousness-raising and empowerment of the people. It is a purely educational approach which

entails the improvement of the society's capacity to understand, manage and control its environment; and not merely exploiting it. It involves improving individual and group consciousness towards meaningful co-operation with other human groups for the good of all. It is to change people's attitudes, perceptions, and behaviour in order to achieve development.

Humanism is described as a system, centred on man, his integrity, development, dignity, and liberty. It stands on the principle that man is not a means to reach any end, but that he himself is the bearer of his own end<sup>141</sup>. The humanistic approach to rural planning believes that enlightening or changing man's perception of his environment will provide him with a new vision and a new tool with which to shape communal space, thereby shaping his life and his fortune. Thus, for rural development to be more encompassing and successful, the people need to be educated in order to change their attitudes toward programmes or projects. The perceptions of people towards the difference between rural areas and urban centres have to be transformed too, to enhance people's interest in contributing their quota to community development.

The creation of War Against Indiscipline (WAI) in 1984, Mass Mobilisation for Social and Economic Reliance (MAMSER) in 1987, National Orientation Movement (NOM) in 1986, and the National Rebirth Campaign (1999), are a few among other programmes created by different governments to raise peoples' consciousness both in urban and rural areas. These programmes and policies were created to educate the people to appreciate and participate in government programmes and policies. They are aimed at attitudinal and behavioural change, to set the stage for development, though, the programmes were often limited or more active in urban centres, thereby defeating their purpose, because the rural areas remained uninformed or not properly integrated into those government policies and plans.

In conclusion, rural development policies and programmes have failed to achieve sustainably and significantly its stated objectives. It shows that something is fundamentally wrong with the way development has been conceptualized, planned and implemented. The failure of the rural development programs in Nigeria can be attributed to the top-down approach adopted by the government, which does not take into cognizance the interests and needs of the rural poor, rather, that of those controlling the machinery of government<sup>140</sup>. Therefore, a new approach that can transform the rural poor is essential. It should be an approach that would take into consideration all the various dimensions and stakeholders of rural development.

This approach should also ensure participatory development by carrying along the rural poor at every step from policy making to policy implementation and evaluation. The approach that would advocate a bottom-up approach to development, rather than the top-down approaches that have been adopted and unsuccessful. The promotion of the development of both human and physical resources in the rural areas requires recognizing the fact that local people themselves should be the main implementers of development projects<sup>142</sup>. When people are actively involved in the development process, it will boost regional and local self-reliance, thereby enhancing local independence and sustainable development of rural areas.

There are several views on this; one of such suggests adopting the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Conscientization methodologies to properly integrate local people (rural people) into development programmes. By this, development planners or researchers would go to the villages more as learners, conveners, catalysts, and facilitators. This approach helps to discover local knowledge and understanding. The goal of the approach is to enable rural people to do their own investigations and share their knowledge, teach others to do the analysis and presentations, and planning to own the outcome. This approach is more likely to succeed because the local people are involved and understand the policies formulated for them. Rural development policies and

programmes would have a higher prospect of achieving its focus when the people are willing to accept and participate in initiating and implementing the policies and programmes<sup>140</sup>. Also, it would further boost regional self-reliance as policies would be formulated to suit each community, rather than the generalised one-fit-all policies and programmes.

As further argued, Conscientization on the other hand, is more educational and dialectical. Conscientization refers to a type of learning which focuses on perceiving and exposing social, political and economic contradictions and injustices. The concept was first introduced by a theorist; Paulo Freire (1921-1997) in his 1970 seminal work, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. He defines the concept as the learning to perceive social, political and economic contradictions and appropriate response to address it.

People's conscientization is key to the sustenance of development of the poor and marginalized. This argument implies that true conscientization process has the all-encompassing potential to set an empowerment process in motion, thereby transforming human deprivation into human development; through which poor and marginalized people's agency role in development is realized; and through which they can become pro-active rights activist rather than passive recipients of right-based services<sup>143</sup>.

This model will be used to expose rural dwellers to see women and children as partners in the development of the society; and the need to create a society that is free from prejudices, injustices, discrimination and oppression of women, the overriding objective is the humanistic transformation of the society<sup>143</sup>. Conscientization would enable the people to recognize those institutions and structures hindering them from actualizing their full potential and contributing their effort to community development.

## **2.3 Review of Empirical Studies**

### **2.3.1 Local Government**

In a research to examine the concept of local government development in relation to rural areas in Uganda, the study examines the question of social, political and economic factors that influences public policy decisions in Uganda's local governments. Since local government is decentralized, the study explores these factors within this arrangement in order to find out how public policy decisions are made, considering many actors that the policy incorporated from within and outside government. It explores the institutional and structural set-up of local government and how it works, the process through which decisions are made, which actors are involved and the dynamics that come into play. In addition, it examines the environment under which local government operates using a qualitative method to analyse the empirical data collected in four districts. The study observes that the complex nature of decentralization facilitated the establishment of power centres, which then serves as avenues of dominion. On the other hand, the involvement of non-state actors such as religious and traditional leaders did not only diversify the groups of actors involved, but also granted them the opportunity to penetrate the decision-making cycle. Often times, each of these actors represent different interests. Decentralization thus created opportunities and possibilities that previously might not have been available to some of the actors. Therefore, understanding how public policy decisions are designed necessitates knowledge of socio-political and economic factors surrounding decision-making. Politically, the atmosphere is characterized by power struggles, arbitrary use of power, patronage networks, and concentration of power in the executive. The economic environment is characterized by heavy dependence, where local governments rely on remittances from the central government, which also relies on foreign aid. The local government council which is the decision-making body is incapable of making policy decisions which it can implement because of insufficient funding.

The weak economy of the country implies that politicians too are not exempted from the poverty cycle; hence, they have to depend on external sources to fund their access or sustenance of power. The social environment is occupied by resilient non-state actors who command high social acceptance. The amalgamation of actors from within and outside government amid weak formal institutions translates into uncertainty. It can be adduced that local government in Uganda operates under an unpredictable social, political and economic environment making the process of decision-making equally volatile. As a result, public policy decisions take the form of neo-x patrimonialism as actors endeavour to accommodate each actor's interests. Although legal instruments such as the Local Government Act and the constitutional provision grant local government the authority to make policy decisions within their area of jurisdiction, the conditions under which they operate do not enable this autonomy. Findings also contradict the argument that through redistribution of power, decentralization empowers the local government to make policy decisions and facilitates inclusive decision-making. Such arguments underplay the discrepancy between the legal provisions and the practice; hence they do not have a universal application. As illustrated in Uganda, public policy decisions are a prerogative of a few powerful actors within and outside government<sup>144</sup>.

Furthermore, another study examined the concept of local government development in rural areas, by focusing on responses to local disadvantaged areas within the context of place-based governance theory. The empirical data was derived from the qualitative analysis of secondary data, drawn from the implementation of the first phase of Community Renewal Program (CRP) over the period 2008 – 2011. The research produced a number of findings. First, it is clear that government has a central role to play in the governance of local renewal efforts. Second, is the challenge of government in achieving optimal integration of institutional arrangements at multiple levels; from local, through regional and then to the central government. Third, genuine community participation, particularly by residents of these local areas is required and this can only be achieved through ongoing interaction

and communication amongst stakeholders. These findings are to develop a set of place-based governance principles as a contribution to theory development. The intention of these principles is to contribute to future policy and program in addressing spatial disadvantage<sup>145</sup>.

The study on the role of Victorian local government is another study carried out in relation to community perspective. The study examines potential of local government to positively impact on residents' quality of life, opportunities for citizen engagement, and participation in key issues within diverse activities. As a level of government, it is contended that Victorian local government has six roles: democratic; governance; service provision; community building; advocacy and community planning roles. These roles are reviewed base on the following perspectives: the context within which Victorian local government undertakes these roles; the limitations or barriers that impede the achievement of these roles; how these roles benefit the community and what proposals could be introduced to enhance their implementation. The qualitative examination of Victorian local government's role was undertaken on the basis of historical, political and financial context. On the basis of findings, key recommendations for the effectiveness of the role of Victorian local government include; enhancing the image of the local government, more citizens engagement, review of legal and political framework within which local government operates especially, the relationship of the local government with the state government, enhancement of the financial capacity of the local government, reforming the electoral structure, additional training for elected representatives and senior officers, the development of a range of performance indicators, the need for local government to operate on a more regional basis and a general review of organisational structures<sup>146</sup>.

In the same vein, another researcher examined the concept of Australian local government development. Australian local government continues to struggle to find a distinctive role in Australia's federal democracy. It is conceptualized more as an instrumental, rather than a political

institution by both state and federal tiers of the Australian government. This thesis argues that, by way of comparative analysis, place-shaping as developed by the Lyons Inquiry into local government in England points the way to a reinvigorated Australian local government sector, entailing not merely instrumental responsibilities and roles of political representation, but also ideational roles in form of history, locale and identity which can significantly assist the local government in fulfilling its potential. This does not necessarily entail that in contemplating options for reform, the preference must be for widening leadership opportunities by the state and federal governments at the local level, but by increasing devolution to the local level of political authority. On the contrary: as the analysis of the thesis suggests, there is room for caution; as the thesis demonstrates, reforms in Australian local government should incorporate some elements of place-shaping. Nevertheless, it is the ideational and symbolic elements of local government that can enable the realization of this ideals<sup>147</sup>.

From another perspective, in a research on the role of local government and the concept of community governance, it was asserted that local government was typically viewed by governments and citizens as a conservative sector, valued for its dependability rather than for innovation and its role in promoting community well-being. Public sector reform, globalization and increasing demands by citizens have increased awareness and appreciation of the potential in local governments in cooperating with other organizations toward addressing complex policy and management issues. These pressures have compelled the sector to innovate, and venture into areas that were previously considered to be outside its limit. Therefore, at the global level, Local governments have undergone extensive reform to reorient councils on broad roles concerning community well-being, strengthening community leadership, and steering local and regional service providers towards local goals and strategic objectives<sup>148</sup>. This trend has been characterized as a shift from local government to ‘community governance’<sup>149</sup>.

The local government in New Zealand is no exception. The study on local government reforms in New Zealand over the last two decades, specifically on the role of community governance, assesses available options for strengthening community governance indicates that The Local Government Act 2002 (LGA 2002) broadens local government's powers and purposes by introducing a collaborative citizen-centred style of governance, with a framework oriented toward securing community well-being and sustainable development<sup>150</sup>.

Furthermore, another investigation was on the role of local government on local economic development (LED). Local governments in the developed world have been promoting the LED of areas under their control for decades unlike their counterparts in the developing world. With the advent of decentralization in many developing countries, most of their local governments have also been involving in promoting LED. Despite this, their contributions have been negligible if not totally absent. As the implementation and practice of decentralization deepen in Ghana, local governments, locally called District Assemblies have the responsibility of ensuring the comprehensive development of the areas under their jurisdiction. Despite the ample evidence indicating their increasing effectiveness in delivering social services, they have not been able to effectively promote LED. This assertion is strengthened by findings of a study on LED in the Ejisu-Juaben Municipal Assembly (local government) of the Ejisu-Juaben Municipality of the Republic of Ghana. Findings reveal that, though the local government played several roles in LED, these were mainly traditional and not directly effective in rapidly addressing the LED needs of the municipality. The various strategies and tools applied were limited in scope with little commitment to the implementation of beneficial programmes and projects approved in the development plans, due to the inadequate capacity in terms of funds, logistics and human resources, hence over reliance on the central government. In addition, it depends, to a larger extent, on the central government for most of its capacity needs. Furthermore it was not properly integrated into the local government's

development plan due to weak institutional set-up. Moreover, its engagement with other stakeholders is not beyond informing and consulting, without a clear platform for stakeholder engagement and absence of a national policy framework<sup>151</sup>.

### **2.3.2 Local Government Administration as an Institution for Rural Development in Nigeria**

The concept of community development is not new; rather, it is an old ideology. The reality is that communities throughout history constructed and maintains their roads, bridges, and provides their well for water supply. Also, they construct their markets, village churches and village halls through community efforts<sup>152</sup>.

Community development is not new in Nigeria, instead what is actually new nowadays in community development are techniques and methods through which a new pattern of leadership emerges within the neighbourhood<sup>153</sup>.

One outstanding way is through the local government system. Although, findings from studies indicate that most local government have not impacted significantly on their communities; it still remain an indispensable vehicle for community development<sup>154</sup>.

The following factors are attributed to the low performance of local government; inadequate revenue, low executive capacity, poor and inadequate working materials, incompetence and ineptitude of existing staff and excessive interference by the state government which result in delays and red-tapism<sup>155</sup>.

The idea of local government is deeply rooted in the quest for rural or community development and the spread of counties have raised the awareness among rural dwellers on the concept and process of community development, after it was developed by the United Nations Organization thirty years ago. Community developments draw greater inspiration from the desire for change and in the ability of

man to learn and change voluntarily, through the participation of individuals and groups in the development process<sup>156</sup>.

Successive Nigerian governments have been criticized for not doing enough to develop the rural areas, and this reflects the general pattern all over the third-world countries. Strategies such as planning and provision of facilities by the centre have been tried in the past, in an attempt to solve rural poverty in Nigeria, but are not successful. Equally identified rural development obstacles include lack of coordinated community development programmes, manpower, problems of infrastructure, and the problem of relevant rural education.

However, various Suggested solutions by scholars on way forward include: clear understanding of the concept of community development, an integrated development programmes, provision of infrastructure, and rural education that is peculiar to the need and aspirations of rural areas<sup>154</sup>.

### **2.3.3 Historical Background of Local Government Administration in Nigeria**

#### **2.3.3.1 Introduction**

To understand contemporary local government, it is essential to grasp the pattern of its historical development and evolution. Historically, local government administration and development in Nigeria have undergone several phases from the pre-colonial era to the post-colonial era. This section seeks to examine the evolving nature of the local government system in Nigeria; from the native authority system during the pre-colonial period to the present democratic system in the post-independence era.

#### **2.3.3.2 Local Government System in the Pre-colonial Era**

The evolution of the local government system in Nigeria is as old as history itself, even prior to the incursion of the British colonial rule. Before the colonization and formal birth of Nigeria, several

kingdoms existed and different forms of traditional local rulership govern these communities. Thus, local governance in Nigeria predates the colonial era, as different entities that made up the nation had a unique and effective system in place<sup>17</sup>.

Before colonialism, the societies that make up Nigeria include; empires, caliphates, kingdoms, chiefdoms and villages, that were governed by the rulers who exercised absolute authority over them<sup>17</sup>. Such empires include; Borno Empire, Sokoto Caliphate, and Oyo Empire among several others. These empires have other smaller districts, wards, towns and villages that are controlled by ward or area leaders appointed by the Emir or King who were the authorities of these kingdoms; operating in a way suitable and peculiar to their cultural and religious aspirations<sup>157</sup>.

It should be noted that administrations in pre-colonial societies in Nigeria were independent of each other. Various regions administered their communities according to their culture and traditional institutions. During this era, governance was based on the traditional and religious practices of the people, since there was no constituted government by law with specific functions to control the affairs of the local communities.

### **2.3.3.3 Local Government System in Colonial Era**

The British government at the time of colonization decided to govern the territory through the existing traditional institutions i.e. the Native Authority System, because it was cheaper, amongst other reasons. The second phase in the evolution of local government in Nigeria was established by the colonial government in accordance with the purpose of local government structures already existing in the institutions of various ethnic groups; hence, the heterogeneous nature of the structure and operation of local government. The Native Authority was charged with the collection of taxes, maintenance of law and order, road construction and maintenance, and sanitary inspection, especially

in township areas<sup>14</sup>. Until date, these functions are still being performed by the local government and remain a prominent feature of Nigeria's political system.

The adopted administrative system was referred to as the Indirect Rule system. The idea of this form of local government administration was to preserve and maintain the authority of the native rulers, the local institutions, the traditions and the habits, rather than an attempt to impose totally new unfamiliar ideas from outside. However, this was not so, as the structure of local government in Nigeria ended up serving the colonial interests and intense exploitation of the people and resources<sup>17</sup>. Not only did the British economy benefit immensely, the colonial masters were also able to administer colonies at a lesser cost, because it was inefficient to employ British personnel to administer the colonies.

The local administration has four main features; The British Resident Officer who directs and controls, the Native Authority usually headed by a Chief, The Native Treasury and The Native Court. Thereafter, the Nigerian local government administration experienced transformation in name, structure, and composition, depending on the regime in power, and the nature and level of interest of such government in the local government system.

The Native Authority System was built on the strength of the Chief; however, the strength of the Chief varied among the societies, and this determines, the success of the Sole Native Authority System. Thus, while the Hausa emirates had a very strong autocratic ruler, the South-West had semi-democratic Chiefs and the South East societies were highly decentralized and egalitarian in nature. This variance in the strength of the Chiefs necessitated the establishment of three types of native authorities during the indirect rule era; the Chief, the Chief-in-Council, and the Chief and the Council.

By the late 1930s, the native authority system put in place by the colonialists gradually became unsuitable. Gradually, resistance started emanating from the nationalists, educated Nigerians, the

people and other pressure groups. The rulers were perceived by the people as mere administrative errands to the colonial officers, as they lacked the formal western education needed to understand the logic and the rationale behind the policies they transmitted to their people, for compliance and enforcement<sup>158</sup>. The Native Authority System was faulted because it lacked the mandate to provide any social welfare services to the people; consequently, they only engage the staff essentially for their rudimentary administrative purposes. Thus, the communities were not granted the sense of belonging and communal participation in the system called local government<sup>159</sup>. This precipitated several reforms that were put in place in the 40s and 50s.

The indirect rule system had the least success in the Eastern Region of Nigeria, due to the highly decentralized and egalitarian nature of their societies. Thus, it was not surprising that the region was the first to initiate local government reforms. The Eastern region was the first to demand for a change in the administration and operation of local government, not only in Nigeria, but the whole of West Africa. The Eastern region local government Ordinance of 1950 came into place to address the limitations of the Native Authority System. The 1950 local government ordinance of the Eastern region introduced the British model of County Council, District Council and Local Council, except Enugu and Port Harcourt, which operated Municipal Councils. The implication is that local governance has gone beyond the involvement of the Chiefs and the Councils, and now resides in the hand of the local populace, who participates in the selection of their leaders and representatives; consequently, this precipitates the leaders to acknowledge the value of their local people<sup>160</sup>.

However, the 1950 local government ordinance had to be reformed in 1955 due to its defects in addressing the inadequacies of the Native Authority System. The limitations of the 1950 Local Government Ordinance include; being too ambitious, too complex to operate by the councillors and staff, corruption, and the inadequate preparation for its implementation<sup>161</sup>. Thus, the local government law was enacted in 1955 to replace the 1950 ordinance in order to improve the local

government administration. The law prescribed specific local government areas, their internal divisions or wards, and the number of Councilors to be appointed or elected or a mixture of the two. This status quo remained until independence in 1960.

In Western Region, the call for local government reforms was not effective until the early 1950s due to semi-democratic rulership in place. The Western Region's Local Government Law of 1952 was similar to the 1950 local government law of the Eastern Region, as there were provisions for a three-tier structure of the Divisional, District and Local Councils<sup>17</sup>. In the reforms, operation and administration of local government became more democratic as councils were made up of elected and traditional rulers, with a minimum of three elected councillors for each traditional ruler. Furthermore, councils were regarded or classified either as Chiefs- in- Council or Chief-and-Council.

The 1957 law, enacted to replace the 1952 reform broaden participation in local government, because it recognized the inclusion of local representatives of the people, women, traditional rulers and chiefs, which the law still permitted to act as the chairmen of the local government councils<sup>158</sup>. However, despite the prospects in the 1957 reform, it failed in the administration of the local councils, particularly in the improvement of socio-economic services; the expectation that local authorities would enable more equitable access to modern benefits did not come to fruition either. Thus, by 1957, it was obvious that these experiments had run their course, just like in the Eastern Region.

On the other hand, the situation in the Northern region was different to that of the Southern regions. Due to the autocratic nature of its rulership, even in the pre-colonial era, the indirect rule system recorded a huge success in the north. Thus, the agitations for reforms were not rife and there was no exigency for radical reforms. There was no significant reform in the North until 1954, through the enactment of the native law of 1954, which provided for democratic reforms. However, rather than making a departure from the previous mode of governance, this reform favours consolidation. While

the reform led to the abolition of sole native authorities, it was replaced with the Chiefs-in-Council and Chiefs-and-Council native authorities, which still gave the Emir relative power. In the Chief-in-Council, an Emir or Chief was obliged to consult with his Councilors in all decision-making, but could override the decision of the councillors. On the other hand, in the Chief-and Council, the Emir would have to go along with the decision of the councilors<sup>17</sup>. This status quo was maintained until 1960, when the country became independent, and till 1966 when the military intervened in Nigeria politics.

#### **2.3.3.4 Local Government in Post-colonial Era**

##### **2.3.3.4.1 Local Government Administration (1960-1965)**

With the eradication of colonialism in 1960, a post-colonial phase in the evolution of local government emerged. The independence was heralded with high expectations from Nigerians, particularly the desire for participatory democracy at the local government level. Unfortunately, the first republic inherited the colonial local government structure with deficient administrative structure, finances, and democratic activities.

The setback in the democratic governance of local government during the period can be attributed to the regionalization structure and operation of local government, and the emergence of regional politics and the over-regionalization of parties at the local level<sup>158</sup>. On one hand, the establishment of the Provincial Administrative Law of 1962 by the Northern region led to the re-emergence of the Native Authority system with the traditional rulers simultaneously acting as regional political actors; Western Region on the other hand, established the local government Law of 1960 that abolished most powers of the local government councils, and reduced their functions, with the Local Government Service Board as a supervising agent of the region. The Western region crisis of 1962-65, which resulted in anarchy and collapse of the administrative structure in the region, worsen the development. Similarly, the local government system in the Eastern Region empowers the ministry of local

government to regulate the activities of local government councils, thereby reducing the council to a mere appendage of the region<sup>13</sup>.

The Local Government Service Board and Ministry of Local Government as obtainable in different regions, were serving as regional agents to regulate local government activities. These bodies were controlled by different political parties in power at the regions ; Action Group (AG) in the West, Northern People Congress (NPC) in the North, and National Council of Nigeria and Cameroon (NCNC) in the East. Over-politicization of the regional political parties and regionalization of local governments weaken the democratic governance of local governments within the period. Thus, confirming the argument that there was no functional local government council in Nigeria within this period; rather, what was in operation was local administration<sup>158</sup>.

#### **2.3.2.4.2 Local Government in Early Military Rule (1966-1976)**

The emergence of military rule in Nigerian politics on 15th January, 1967 via the coup d'état led by Major Chukuma Nzeogwu brought General Johnson Thomas Aguyi-Ironsi as the first military Head of State. After the 1966 military coup and civil war, the local governments witnessed fundamental reform in their structures, functions, revenue allocations, and democratic activities. Due to the military intervention in politics, policy direction at the local level was targeted at administrative restructuring and consolidation, and not broadening political participation. On assumption of office, the military government dissolved the existing local government councils and replaced them with caretaker committees to run the affairs of the councils in the country. The implication is that local government councils lost their democratic structures and functions, as they were answerable to the military governors and not the rural people. The local people were deprived of democratic activities, as they had no say on who ruled them and how they were ruled. Authority flows from the military governor while the local people were forced to comply<sup>13</sup>. The period witnessed a lot of changes in the

structure and operation of local government throughout the country, including the creation of 12 states by the military governor in 1967 which returned Nigeria to an era of full centralization.

#### **2.3.2.4.3 Local Government in Nigeria during Military Rule (1976-1983)**

The local government structure and administration in Nigeria took a different turn during the General Murtala Mohammed/General Olusegun Obasanjo military regime of 1975-1979. The regime was significant in terms of local government reform and that makes the 1976 local government reform a reference point in local government administration in Nigeria. This reform was seen as a means of bringing government closer to the people, hence, the introduction of a homogenous local government in all the regions.

The reforms introduced a constitutionally recognized multi-purpose single-tier local government system with the five features by which the uniformity of local governments can be discerned; structure of local government, functions of local government, financial resources of local government, relationship with state governments, and law enforcement<sup>162</sup>. These reforms formed the basis for the present-day local government system, as local government was created as a transformational political tool for the development of local areas. Furthermore, the 1976 reforms contain special features such as the recognition of local government as a third tier of government, establishment of the Local Government Service Board, recognition of traditional institutions, establishment of the Police-Community Relations Committee, and establishment of the Local Government Peace and Security Committee.

The reform spelt out in specific terms the responsibilities of local government as follows; adapting appropriate services and development activities to local wishes and initiatives, devolving and delegating them to local government representative bodies; facilitating the exercise of democratic self-government in the grassroots and developing initiative and leadership potentials; mobilising human material resources through the involvement of members of the public in their local

development; and providing a two-way channel of communication between local communities and higher governments<sup>17</sup>.

Remarkably, the reform created an opportunity for discussion of local government democracy and development in the 1977-78 Constituent Assembly, and further inclusion in the 1979 Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria. In addition, this is the first opportunity of entrenching local government in Nigerian Constitution; with defined status and functions as a third tier of government, as contained in Section 7 (1) of the 1979 Constitution:

*“The system of democratically elected local government councils is under this constitution guaranteed and accordingly, the government of every state shall ensure their existence under law, which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and function of such councils”*<sup>163</sup>.

However, it must be understood, that the military intervention of 1984 truncated the existence of local government as envisaged by the 1979 constitution.

#### **2.3.3.4.4 Local Government in Post Second Republic (1984-1999)**

The second republic abused the constitutional provisions for local democratic government. State governments created more local governments, but such local governments were not recognized by the federal government, thereby exposing the local government system to more democratic and constitutional insecurity in Nigeria. Secondly, the regime could not conduct a democratic election in any council in Nigeria throughout. Councils were operated by either appointed sole administrators or care-taker committees, thereby depriving the local people of the opportunity of participating in choosing their leaders.

The re-emergence of the military in politics in 1984 witnessed another set of reforms for local government, with implications on local government democracy in Nigeria. These include, increasing the local governments recognized by the federal government to 453 in 1989 and 500 in 1991, which enable more democratic participation of the local people in politics of the state; introducing the practice of separation of power and democracy at the local government; and the conduct of local government elections, where the elected chairmen became the accounting officers of the council, and answerable to the local people<sup>158</sup>.

The local government experienced another reform during the era of General Abdulsalami Abubakar government (1998 – 1999). The military government reversed the parliamentary system to presidential system at the local government, and conducted successful elections in all the local government councils in December, 1998. Furthermore, the 1976 local government reform was also modified, and enshrined in the 1999 constitution of Nigeria. The 1999 constitution consolidates the existence of tripartite organs of government; executive, legislature and judiciary, at grassroots level. Consequently, executive powers are vested in the Chairman, vice chairman, Supervisor or Supervisory councillors, as well as the structure of local government bureaucracy. The legislative functions are to be performed by the councillors, who represent the wards, which make up the local government area. The judiciary on the other hand, is streamlined with the federal and state governments, while local government avails itself of the judicial process available to it<sup>164</sup>.

#### **2.3.3.4.5 Local Government under Democratic Rule (1999-till date)**

This is the period of civil rule in Nigeria, operating on the basis of provisions of the 1999 Constitution. The provision of the local government in the 1999 constitution empowers the local government to function as a third tier government with specific constitutional schedules for democratic development. However, the 1999 constitution gave much power to the state governments

to control the local governments within their jurisprudence. The 1999 constitution brought the local government into another inter-governmental dispute that undermined its democratic functions and activities in Nigeria. The local governments suffered from constitutional tussle and power conflict between the Federal and State Governments on the control of local government<sup>7</sup>.

An instance of this was the power tussle between the federal government and Lagos state government in 2003 prior to the elections, when the federal government decides not to release funds from the federation account to LGAs that were not constitutionally recognized. While this non-release of funds forced the concerned state governments to dissolve the new LGAs, Lagos State government refused to be coerced, enduring the non-release of funds for LGAs for several months, prior to resolution by the Supreme Court. Lagos was able to sustain the resistance because it is the only state with the largest non-oil internally generated revenue<sup>165</sup>.

Despite several reforms that local governments in Nigeria have undergone, with the intention of empowering the councils for effective democratic governance, the implementation process has created more challenges than prospects for democratic governance of LGs. These challenges have in several measures constituted a democratic set-back to the local government administration in Nigeria, as the LGs lacks the autonomy to operate independently of the influence of state and federal governments. In most cases, the LGs have been reduced to local administration, thereby encouraging the autocratic involvement of the state actors, and depriving the local people of the opportunity to choose their leaders.

#### **2.3.4 Structure and Functions of Local Government in Nigeria**

In accordance with the 1999 Constitution, Nigeria has a single tier of local government<sup>166</sup>. One other significant provision on local government in the constitution is a clear provision for separation of

powers. Thus, the structure of local government in Nigeria can be categorized into two; Political and Administrative structures<sup>167</sup>.

#### **2.3.4.1. The Political Structure**

The political structure of Local Government is meant for policy-makers i.e. the political office holders. This mainly consists of the elected and appointed members of the local government council<sup>167</sup>. The structure comprises two arms:

- i. The Executive Arm
- ii. The Legislative Arm

##### **2.3.4.1.1 The Executive Arm**

The Executive arm consists of the Chairman, the Vice-Chairman, the Secretary and Supervisors (Supervisory Councilors)<sup>168</sup>. They constitute the Executive Committee of the Local Government.

#### **A. The Chairman**

The Chairman performs the duties of a Chief Accounting Officer and Chief Executive Officer. Even though, he is an accounting officer, he can only authorize payments; but cannot sign vouchers and cheques<sup>169</sup>. His functions include:

- Directing the affairs of the local government.
- Observing and complying fully with the checks and balances spelt out in the existing guidelines and financial regulations.
- Allocating responsibilities to the vice-chairman, supervisors and the secretary to the local government.
- Ensuring accountability; as he can be held accountable while in office and even after the end of his tenure.

- Rendering monetary statements of income and expenditure and annual reports to the local government council for consideration and debates.
- Conducting the meeting of the executives of the local government with the vice-chairman, supervisors and the secretary; at least once a week.
- Maintaining liaison with the legislative arm of local government.
- Presenting his annual budget to the Local Government Council at the beginning of the year for consideration and approval.
- Addressing the Local Government Council, at least once a year, during which he has to give an account of his achievements and challenges encountered in the year<sup>169</sup>.

#### **B. The Vice-chairman**

The vice-chairman of the local government is assigned the responsibility of administering departments of the local government. He also acts for the chairman in his absence<sup>169</sup>.

#### **C. The Secretary to the Local Government**

The secretary is an appointee of the Chairman. The functions of the Secretary include:

- Coordination of the activities of departments in the local government
- Liasing on behalf of the Chairman, with the local government legislative council, through the leader of the council.
- Acting as the Secretary, at the meetings of the Executive Committee of the local government, and keeping the records of the meetings.
- Liasing with the appropriate officers of the state government on state-local government relations.
- Carrying out other duties that may be assigned to him from time to time<sup>168</sup>.

#### **D. The Supervisors (Supervisory Councilors)**

These are political appointees of the local government. Upon appointment, they are assigned a department each for supervision. They perform the following functions:

- Serving as political heads of their respective departments.
- Serving as members of the Executive Committee of local government.
- Giving directives to the professional heads of their respective departments on policy issues.
- Assisting the Chairman to supervise the execution of local government projects within their respective departments.
- Carrying out other duties or functions as the Chairman may assign from time to time<sup>168</sup>.

#### **2.3.4.1.2. The Legislative Arm**

This arm of the local government is the Council. It consists of the Leader, the Deputy Leader and the councillors. All councilors are elected while the Leader and Deputy Leader are chosen among the Councillors<sup>166</sup>. The duties of the Council include:

- Correcting and approving the annual budget of local authorities. A Veto of the Chairman is taken into consideration, which can be cancelled by two-third of the members of the Council.
- Exercising oversight on the implementation of projects and programs envisaged in the annual budget.
- Studying of reports on monthly expenses and incomes.
- Consulting and working with the heads of local governments. Laws adopted by local authorities are called bye-laws. After approval of the council, the Chairman must approve the law, for it to become effective<sup>166</sup>.

#### **2.3.4.2 The Administrative Structure**

The administrative structure consists of departments, and how the personnel of local governments use these to provide services to the people. Thus, the administrative structure of local government

comprises civil servants or the administrative and technical personnel. It is actually the Local Government Bureaucracy<sup>167</sup>.

In running the affairs of local government, the Executive arm is assisted by some key staff. These are; the Head of Local Government Administration and Directors heading various departments of the council. They include the Head of Personnel Management (Director of Administration) and the Local Government Treasurer (Director of Finance)<sup>168</sup>.

#### **2.3.4.2.1 Head of Local Government Administration**

The administrative head of local government in some states is usually referred to as Head of Local Government Administration (HLGA) or Council Manager and in some others; Head of the personnel department double as the administrative head. He coordinates the administrative functions of local government and advises the political officers on issues of policy and guidelines.

#### **2.3.4.2.2 Departments in the Local Government and their Functions**

##### **A. Administration and General Services Department**

This is the hub in which the wheels of administration of the local government revolve. The following are its responsibilities:

- Adequate record keeping of the affairs of local government in relation to personnel and non-personnel matters.
- In charge of appointment matters, placement, transfer, promotion and discipline among others.

The Administration and General Services Department is headed by the Director of Administration and General Services, who in turn has other subordinate officers that are responsible to him.

##### **B. Agriculture and Natural Resources Department**

The department is in charge of agricultural matters and it is sub-divided further into units such as:

- I. Agriculture Extension Unit
- II. Farm Mechanization Unit

III. Animal Husbandry Unit

IV. Crop Unit and so on.

This department is headed by the Director of Agriculture and Natural Resources. The department is tasked with the following:

- Engaging in farming activities (Crop and Animal).
- Providing extension services to farmers.
- Aiding access to farm input, such as; fertilizers, seeds and implements.

#### **C. Budget, Planning, Research and Statistics Department**

The department is headed by its own director. As the name implies, the department is saddled with the responsibilities of preparing finance and budgeting for the Local Government every fiscal year.

Also, it apportions votes to any expenditure of the Council.

#### **D. Educational and Social Services Department**

The department has within its fold the under-listed units and sections;

- I. The Information and Photography Unit
- II Education, Youths and Sport Unit
- III Women and Community Development Unit

The Director of Education and Social Services is the departmental head. The functions of the department include:

- Supervising educational activities within its jurisdiction.
- Providing orientation on security issues.
- Organizing social activities.
- Publicizing of local government programmes.
- Providing social welfare schemes, such as the Management of the motherless homes.

### **E. Environmental and Health Services Department**

The functions and responsibilities of the above department among others are to oversee the environmental health and hygienic conditions of people in and around the jurisdiction of the local government. It is headed by the Director of Environmental Health Services. They perform the following functions:

- Burial of Unclaimed bodies.
- Health education for the populace on environmental health issues.
- Waste management; Collection of refuse and disposal of the refuse sanitarily.
- Training of food handlers and owners of regulated premises.
- Routine house-to-house inspection to detect and abate nuisances.
- Post-mortem inspection of meat.
- Control of communicable diseases.

### **F. Primary Health Care Department**

The Primary Health Care department is headed by qualified medical personnel who are assisted by other medical officers in different health and medical professions. The department oversees health and medical issues at the local level, in accordance with what obtains at the state and national levels.

Their responsibilities include:

- Immunization of children between 0-5 years against six killer diseases through routine immunization and National Immunization Days.
- Provision of essential drugs
- Maternal and child health care through antenatal and child welfare clinic.
- Provision of treatments for the aged through the Aged Clinic.
- Collection and compilation of patients' data through Monitoring Information System.
- Control of communicable diseases.

- Notification of the State's Ministry of Health on the outbreak of diseases.

### **G. Finance and Supplies Department**

This department comprises personnel who are mainly accountants or professionals in other accounting-related courses. The finance department sees to financial records of revenues and expenditures of the local government and it is headed by the Director of Finance and Supplies. The function of this department includes:

- Generating revenue (both internal revenue and allocation from the Federation's account).
- Keeping the local government's account.
- Advising the management of the local government on financial matters.
- Reconciling the local government accounts.

### **H. Works, Lands, Housing, Transport and Survey Department**

This department among other functions is assigned the responsibility of providing utility services to the people at the grassroots. The department has the following units and sections:

- i. Electronics Unit
- ii. Water and Hydrological Unit
- iii. Estate and Valuation Unit
- iv. Lands and Quantity Surveying Unit
- v. Mechanical/ Engineering Unit

This department is headed by the Director of Works, Lands, Housing, Transport and Survey. The department performs the following functions:

- Constructing and maintaining feeder roads.
- Providing electricity at the rural level.
- Providing portable water.
- Clearing of drainages.

- Maintenance of car parks and markets.

### **2.3.5 Rural Development in Nigeria**

The government approach to rural development in Nigeria is ineffective<sup>70</sup>. The government is accused of imposing development programme on the rural masses, which often benefit only a few rich and powerful urban elite. However, a model of rural development, which involves the genuine participation of the rural people, is being advocated; such a model will be relatively independent of a centralized urban-oriented bureaucratic structure<sup>171</sup>.

Government impositions of rural development programmes on the communities have been identified as a clog in the wheel of rural development. As argued, governments have often set community development priorities without the participation of target or relevant communities. Since communities are the engines of growth; government should reduce its excessive control that hinders the achievement of stated development goals and priorities<sup>171</sup>.

Also, adopting Self-help as a strategy for rural development is criticized for being a form of exploitation, because the rural people resort to it as an option for their survival due to government neglect. Community development initiative arises due to the necessity for social welfare services by the rural population, the unwillingness of the rural class to provide these amenities, exploitation of the ruling class, competition among communities for those social artefacts required for social progress, and tendency by Nigerians to invest more time, energy and resources on those tasks approved by their communities than those recommended for national interest<sup>172</sup>.

Rural development as community development from a critical perspective is seen as the British colonialist's ideology introduced in order to under develop the people through its negative manipulative strategy. However, the strategy continues to be employed by indigenous rulers in the post-colonial state despite being predicated upon the colonial policy of economic exploitation of the

local area. It is an instrument used to sustain the self-interest of the ruling classes, while the rural communities suffer under poor, harsh and stagnated conditions<sup>173</sup>.

One of such development programmes designed by successive governments, with the aim at developing the rural communities, was the River Basin and Rural Development Authorities established in 1975 to promote rural development. In reality the scheme only expanded bureaucracies and created multimillion naira contract opportunities on irrigation and other agricultural projects for cronies, with little impacts on the target<sup>174</sup>.

From the extensive review of literature, it is obvious that some scholars regretted that rural development activities and programmes of the past decades since national independence have not transformed the country's rural areas; because a prosperous population is an indication of national sovereignty<sup>175</sup>.

Those Scholars, concluded that in terms of the number of programmes executed, rural development in Nigeria has made little transformative impact, citing; basic social services, public utilities and essential infrastructure, as still being inadequate in almost all parts of the country.

In a research to assess the impact of local government on rural development in Soba and Zaria Local Government areas, in Kaduna State of Nigeria, it was posited that if local governments were primarily designed to meet the basic needs and aspirations of the rural communities, then, the government needs to place rural development at the top of the agenda for national development, to realize the fact that enhanced rural development is a prerequisite for meaningful and sustainable overall national development policies and programmes, through the local government.

However, rural communities in Nigeria, specifically Soba and Zaria local government are still facing difficulties in terms of infrastructural deficiency and poor human development, which has made rural development initiatives imperative. This imbalance has subjected the rural areas to a disadvantaged

economic position. With this, the study tries to examine the level of capital funding and community mobilization and participation in efforts of rural development.

The research work, which covers the period between 2006 and 2011, discovers that inadequate funding has been the bane of rural development in study areas. This is attributable to a lot of drawbacks arising from observed interruptions and control by the higher tiers of governments. It was recommended that, to bring about a more realistic rural development in Nigeria, specifically Soba and Zaria local governments, the local government should minimize their total dependence on the federal allocation, and increase their effort towards generating more revenue by diversifying their internal revenue. Rural development is all-embracing and multi-dimensional, encompassing farm practice, rural education, cottage industry, health care training centre, housing and infrastructure, skill acquisition and human capacity development. The strategy must address technological, physical, social, economic, and institutional deficiencies<sup>176</sup>.

One outstanding problem hindering national economic growth and development is the unequal access to opportunities between the urban and rural areas. While only a handful of privileged individuals have unlimited access and can afford the basic necessity of life and resources associated with urban centres where government investment is concentrated, the majority of Nigerians wallow in abject poverty because they are denied access to the good things of life in the rural areas<sup>177</sup>.

Part of the consequents of rural development failure as revealed by the study is increase in crime, due to rural-urban migration. Many of these peasant migrants who cannot secure white collar jobs in the cities become an urban nuisance and take to all forms of socially unacceptable behaviours. The rural poor are the specific target of the rural development strategy and the focus is on how to improve their social and economic life<sup>178</sup>. The group includes the peasant farmers, tenants, and dependents.

The rural development strategy attempt to address three assumptions: that the rate at which poor people move out of the agrarian sector to more rewarding opportunities is slow, poverty level would worsen with population increase, and thirdly, there must be a deliberate strategy to reverse the trend by harnessing the local available opportunities and resources<sup>179</sup>.

It involves extending the benefits of development to the poorest among those in the rural areas. The group includes small-scale farmers, tenants and the landless. Strategy in most cases is country and contextual specific. It can be driven from within or externally imposed by development support institutions.

A study on Tanzania Ujamaa development strategy describes it as an example of within-driven model. Document for Tanzania Ujamaa development strategy was prepared in 1967 but the implementation process commence around 1969-70. There are two perspectives to Ujamazation. From the perspective of farmers, it is development-integrated strategy, planning, decision making and production, and marketing model. From the government and ruling party's perspective it is an agenda by which the rural populace becomes part of the socialist structure to facilitate development, discourage class formation and redistribution of income. In addition, two models exist; Villagization in which new and uncultivated area is deliberately created as Ujamaa settlement with the government responsible for necessary amenities. The other is Voluntarism in which the existing villages either voluntarily or through persuasion convert to the Ujamma unit. It is an empowering strategy towards self-help and self-reliance with government-committed resources. Each has its own structure and democratically elected leaders and it is capable of deciding and implementing its own development project<sup>180</sup>.

As seen above, it has been adduced that the participatory rural appraisal is one important methodology for achieving rural development because it emphasize the issues of broad participation of the rural and poor populace in planning and executing the rural development projects.

In line with the above, the strategy represents the notion of development from below or rural development as against the existing top-down approach to development initiative<sup>181</sup>.

Rural development essentially facilitates community development. UNESOC depicts community development as the process by which efforts of the people are integrated with those of the governmental authorities, to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the communities, to integrate those communities into the national development, and also to ensure they contribute fully to national progress<sup>182</sup>. The basic is people's participation through support that can motivate effective self-help initiative.

Another position is that rural development is an aggregate social, economic and political activity of a given community, which can enhance its standard of living from a state of being rural to a more and prosperous state, with a resultant operation of new cultural and productive work<sup>183</sup>.

Rural development is also conceived as a comprehensive mode of social transformation, a socio-economic progress, seeking to bring about a more equitable distribution of resources within the society, and a veritable acceptance of the principles of growth, from below<sup>184</sup>.

In what appears as a definition of pre-industrial society, a rural area is described as a small settlement with few buildings, people, and low population density, in farms, ranches, villages and towns. More people settle in rural areas than urban globally<sup>185</sup>.

As posited, local government would impact significantly if given due attention and the people are properly sensitized on its responsibility<sup>183</sup>.

Rural development goes with amenities. Thus, it is described as the transforming of the nation's rural communities through the provision of required amenities such as adequate food supply, decent shelter, health facilities, mass education, water supply, communication, electrification, roads, and industries, so that members of those communities might enjoy amenities that are not affordable.

In other words, it is any form of local uplift that is achieved willingly by the people living together in identified and recognized areas or jointly with those of governmental agencies to improve their economic, social and cultural conditions.

Usual complaints have always been shortage of funds, lack of technical manpower, lack of autonomy to make and implement policies and lack of popular participation in both governance and in the development process<sup>186</sup>.

Local government over the years suffers from the undue interference in the local government administration by the state government on area of responsibilities that are constitutionally preserves of local governments<sup>187</sup>.

To corroborate the above, it has been observed that, irrespective of the outcome of various commissions, it would be practically impossible for the local government to perform their statutorily assigned functions, principally because of inadequate revenue. The efficiency and effectiveness expected of local governments have been unrealistically low because both federal and state governments have consistently given additional responsibilities to these local governments without commensurate additional finances<sup>188</sup>.

### **2.3.6 Effects of Local Government on Rural Development Policy Performance in Nigeria**

A Study of the reforms of Public bureaucracy and the role it has played in the process of rural development in defunct Bendel state, Nigeria submits that the development of rural areas where

majority of people live, remained largely underdeveloped. The central hypothesis of the conventional view that Bureaucracy remains the principal agent for effective rural development was rejected. The study established that on the contrary, there are other factors which are more important and one of such factors is “Mass Participation”, which enables the people to participate fully in the activities intended for their own development. The study reveals that, undue dependence on public bureaucracy is not the solution to the problems of rural development; rather it is part of the problem. It argues further, that while so much money was spent on the development of urban centres, the rural areas were relatively neglected on the premise that by adopting the superstructure of a technological society, a “developing” country could be modernized and the benefits would “trickle-down” to the rural communities. The study further reveals that the emphasis on improving the capacities of the bureaucracy to serve as a principal agent for effective rural development is attempted through administrative reforms, but rather than increasing efficiency and effectiveness in rural development, it largely resulted in more centralization and bureaucratization<sup>189</sup>. The study concludes that only a shift of emphasis on urban to the rural development in government investment; could bring about a national ideology capable of mobilising the people for mass participation in the planning and execution of rural development projects will result in effective rural development<sup>189</sup>.

In a related study on the problem of creating structures for rural development in Nigeria, using agriculture as an example, it was adduced that while the problems, stem mostly from traditionalism, resistance to change, and the use of outdated techniques; the claims may be partly untrue, because they are based not on empirical findings about the Nigerian farmers but with the facts based on western biased extrapolations from anthropological works with questionable validity<sup>190</sup>. However, the study was criticized for not considering political and administrative impediments, associated with rural development in Nigeria.

It was observed in another study that the ineffectiveness of our bureaucracy in stimulating rural development was due to the assumption that; since centralization is generally emphasized, competent hands would always aspire to be at the centre where decision-making powers reside, and higher salaries and better conditions of service are guaranteed to the neglect of rural areas<sup>189</sup>.

In addition it was posited that, it is not out of place to say that local government councils serves largely as conduit pipes by which few people enrich themselves to the detriment of the large society, as most funds generated from various sources are usually diverted into private bank accounts<sup>183</sup>.

Furthermore, there was a comparative study of local government autonomy in Britain and Sweden within the local economic development policy area. As part of the suggestion for effectiveness, the study advocates local government autonomy viewed in terms of both a vertical dimension concerning local government's autonomy vis-à-vis national government (national context) and a horizontal dimension relating to its autonomy vis-à-vis local social and economic forces (local context).

A policy area approach is advocated as a balance between factors influencing local government autonomy, both vertically and horizontally that can be modified in accordance with the characteristics of a particular policy area. For example, the local economic development policy area is a zone that is characterized by the recognition for intergovernmental relations and the public-private sector relations.

The concept of autonomy is classified into policy-making independence and capacity for action. The dominant trend in both countries is that the more local authorities intervene in the local economy (extend their capacity for action), the greater their cooperation with other actors (the more restricted their policy-making independence)<sup>191</sup>.

### **2.3.7 Factors Hindering Effective and Efficient Local Government Administration of Rural Development**

Decades after the advent of local government in Nigeria and several reforms by different regimes to address the hindrances to the local governance, local governments in Nigeria are yet to accomplish the functions for which they were established. This section seeks to review related literatures that have investigated the hindrances to effective service delivery of local governments in Nigeria.

A study of Intsika Yethu municipal rural communities, to determine and analyze the issues that are responsible for the delay in the pace of rural development, and way out for improvement, reveals that unemployment and poverty of the people residing in rural communities have been one of the major challenges in need of serious consideration.

The infrastructural situation of the rural communities is instrumental to the level of poor socio-economic development, which contributed to the pace of rural development. The research found that the slow pace in the development of rural communities has an impact on the situation they found themselves; therefore, there must be intervention strategies to improve the pace of service delivery in rural communities with the intention of enforcing accountability and responsibility on rural municipalities<sup>192</sup>.

Also, another effort toward resolving impediments to the local government's role in rural development identifies four points of historical reference in the development of local government administration in Nigeria. The study examines the reasons for the establishment of local government, functions and characteristics of good governance and accountability. Factors militating against the performance of local government administration in Nigeria were articulated, and areas of contribution to development were also identified. The study concludes that the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria should be amended to reduce the interference of state governments and

various State Houses of Assembly on the local governments, in order to empower the local government authorities for impactful service delivery<sup>193</sup>.

The role of Community Development Associations in rural development cannot be ignored; especially in countries that the government has underperformed. A study of the perceptions of local stakeholders on the factors that have contributed to the policy failure, adopting Benet's theory of polarities of democracy as a framework in the Khana Local Government Area of Rivers State, Nigeria was conducted. The results from the study reveal that community development associations mainly protect the personal and political interests of the elites, excluding the voice of the local citizens, lacking minority representation, and mismanaging funds and resources by officials. To reverse the trend, it advocates that community development association must be more inclusive, the leadership needs to work closely with all local stakeholders; for the whole community to benefit from policies and programs designed for rural development<sup>194</sup>.

An appraisal on the Nigerian experience with local government administration and the factors militating against effective and efficient social service delivery at the grassroots level was also initiated. The analysis was systematically prosecuted under select themes designed to address the objectives of the study. The paper identifies lack of funds, corruption, and undue political interference amongst others as major constraints to local government service delivery. The paper suggests some measures to achieve efficient and effective social service delivery at the local level, Such as; constitutional reforms to ensure total autonomy of local government, enhance revenue allocation, as well as capacity and institutional building, which can produce the human capital that is committed to the principles of good governance at local level<sup>114</sup>.

Finding from another study aligns with the above suggestions. It holds that implementation of the above measures would improve the provision of essential social services to the people at local level.

Local Government Administration in Nigeria is confronted with myriad of problems, such as; sourcing for adequate revenue from the federal and state governments, and those associated with internally generated revenue. Worthy of mention are the problems of dishonesty on the part of revenue officers who often times, divert council's money for personal use, and interference of other levels of government by diverting local government funds. Therefore, there is an urgent need to review local government revenue generation<sup>186</sup>.

Furthermore, a study on the Local Government financial autonomy in Nigeria investigated Ojo local government of Lagos state, Nigeria and the findings show that, ineffectiveness and inefficiency of service delivery to the people at the local level in Nigeria is a product of state and local government joint account, which denies the local governments' full control of federal allocation funds. The local governments in Nigeria lack control over their financial resources, and cannot discharge their responsibilities without the approval of the structure that controls the fund. Thus, lack of financial autonomy and undue interference in local government finance by the state government is a huge factor that has hindered the efficiency and effectiveness of local governments in Nigeria<sup>195</sup>.

In the same vein, another study posits that various reforms before 1976 only gave more recognition to the local administration. For instance, the 1976 reforms and the 1979 Constitution that brought the local government into existence and recognised it as the third tier of government failed to give it the necessary powers needed to function effectively. The study analyzed various local government reforms from both the colonial era to the present, and identifies the challenging issues in the various local government reforms and how they have hindered the efficiency of local governments in Nigeria. It concludes that, despite the intentions of the various regimes to empower the local government councils with the necessary powers for effective democratic governance, the implementation process ended up creating more challenges, than prospects. This is because, in most instances, local

governments have been relegated to local administration, thereby encouraging the autocratic dominance of the state actors, and depriving the local people choice of leadership<sup>160</sup>.

Corroborating the above, another finding indicates that bureaucratic control is particularly incompatible with the cardinal principles of rural and community development. The study concludes that political leadership should strive to take decisive action, which can result to shift of emphasis from urban to the rural development in government investment; capable of mobilizing the people for mass participation in the planning and execution of projects that can drive effective rural development<sup>196</sup>.

However, the study is adjudged as mainly focusing on the prescribed role of the ministry, towards improving the lot of the rural populace, instead of assessing rural areas vis-à-vis the impact of the ministry in implementing broad government policy.

Drawing lessons from other climes; also relevant to this discourse is the study on challenges of managing rural development in East Africa with reference to Kenya's Special Rural Development Programme. The focus is to address the shortcomings of those policies that are exacerbating rural inequalities.

The study holds that too much attention is devoted to planning functions in Kenya's rural development without enough to programming and implementation procedures. It advocates more effective management procedures which entail; central planning, with improvements in the amount of discretion and flexibility granted to field officers, hinged on the hypothesis that increased efficiency of the field staff is the basic answer to the alleviation of rural inequalities. The advocated mechanism for achieving this goal is the Programming and Implementation Management (PIM) System adopted for Kenya's Special Rural Development Programme<sup>197</sup>.

The system involves a simplified model of Management by Objective (MBO) and includes the initial setting up of a programming exercise by central planners and field administrators. The process involves several stages of coordination and free exchange of ideas; the coordination stages are followed by an action report document, which identified and communicates the responsibilities of everyone involved in the project.

However, a contrary opinion to the above queries is its over-reliance on bureaucratic approach by focusing on behaviour and organisational structures. It argues that PIM and MBO as suggested above negate the impacts of mass participation in the task of development<sup>189</sup>.

A related study on the problem of structures in Nigeria's rural development process suggests that, Nigeria's agricultural problems stem mostly from traditionalism, resistance to change, and the use of outmoded techniques. However, the position is criticized for reliance on foreign data that does not take into consideration the political and administrative dilemmas associated with the rural development in Nigeria<sup>190</sup>.

Concern for rural neglect stimulates a study on Nigeria neglected rural majority. It asserts that despite about seventy to eighty per cent (70%- 80%) of the people of Nigeria lives in the rural areas, most government investments are concentrated at the urban areas. It observes further that; for sector that constitute 80.7 % of the total population and contributes about eighty per cent (80%) of the total population; the total percentage of expenditure in rural sector represents only about twenty percent (20%) of the government total expenditure between 1960 and 1974. This distribution of government expenditure was to the advantage of the urban communities. It concludes that meaningful or effective development must be directed at the rural population, and that a radical change in priorities and commitment towards the rural sector is an economic and social necessity<sup>198</sup>.

It strongly recommends the need for improved social amenities, emphasis on agriculture, and increased income and agro-based industries in the rural areas of the country. In addition, it designs an Integrated Rural Development Strategy to link the rural farm with the rural non-farm sub-sectors. However this depends on political and administrative will, with dedicated leadership, an informed and articulated public support, and dedication of those who are responsible for formulating and implementing a conscious, sustained and coordinated rural programme. Nevertheless, the study was criticized for failing to examine the political and administrative field of rural development, as well as issues around uneven modern-rural development.

### **2.3.8 Essentials to Enhance the Impact of Local Government on Rural Development Policy Performance in Nigeria**

The justification for local government creation stems from the need to facilitate development at the grassroots level. However, certain challenges impede its realization. Against this backdrop, a study was conducted to proffer a way forward. The paper reveals that there is no confusion as far as the original functions of local government is concerned, especially that of grassroots accelerated development, but its operation is largely affected by the activities of higher governments. Despite all these, as a way out, the study recommends the retention of local governments subject to thorough reforms, with reasonable autonomy, as well as sufficient empowerment<sup>196</sup>.

Furthermore, there was an empirical study on the performance of local governments in Nigeria, especially in the fourth republic with the efficiency services theory as a framework. The kernel of this theory is that local government acts as an efficient agent for providing services that are local in character. The finding shows that the leading personnel, policy outcomes, and political and administrative environments of local government administration in Nigeria (within the period of study) indicate that they are failed institutions. The study therefore recommends a synergy and

collaborative approach to community development, and reform initiatives anchored on “theory to practice” policy inclination<sup>199</sup>.

How effective and efficient were previous local government reforms in Nigeria? This was the focus of another empirical study on 1976 local government reforms and the objectives of decentralization in Nigeria. The study argues that service delivery is strongly administered at the federal and state government levels respectively, while in most cases the local governments are marginalized, and treated as mere appendages or machinery of the state. However, the finding confirms that there is an incremental effect of service delivery when policies address the felt-needs of the local people through local governments, resulting in improved well-being and human resource development, accelerative productivity and income generation, market expansion, and rapid decline in rural-urban migration. In addition there was a reduction in crime rates, less dependent on foreign aid and imported goods, popular participation, effective decision making and political stability. Therefore, for local government to be effective in its rural development roles; policies on rural development must focus on the felt need of the people in local areas<sup>200</sup>.

### **2.3.9 Public Policy as an Instrument of Governance**

A study to investigate the efficacy of public policy as an instrument of governance applies the concept of technological efficacy derived from ecological psychology and design studies, to offer an alternative way of analyzing how policy instruments affect change. Reasoning from this, the paper outlines a framework for analyzing policy instruments in terms of their affordances. It defines affordances as the means through which an instrument exerts influence on its intended target audience. A policy instrument, therefore, depicts an interface that organises social relations and creates structures of opportunity or restricts possibilities for action. A proper examination and illustration of the process through which instruments afford or constrain action is a central task for policy analysis. The study argues that instruments yield effects by facilitating action and learning.

Therefore, it submits that the actions an instrument can facilitate or inhibit would be subject to specific affordance modalities of the instrument in conjunction with contingencies of the actor and the policy environment<sup>201</sup>.

Furthermore, policy instruments have gained more currency in many policy fields due to their theoretical and empirical relevance (overall policies are made and their goals pursued through policy instruments)<sup>202</sup>.

In an empirical work to analyse the complexity of contemporary policy-making such as, the way in which a society and its political processes are organized and implemented, governance is seen as a general concept within political analysis, and usually adopted as a necessary heuristic tool to describe some of the complexity of political processes<sup>203</sup>.

Similarly, New Governance Arrangements (NGAs) have emerged in comparative policy studies and are often proposed as solutions to complex policy problems like environmental or health protection. However, assessing the merits and demerits of particular arrangements or instrument mixes is difficult. Therefore, a study in this direction proposes a variety of tools to tackle the often-overlooked problem of identifying and inventorying the instruments found in instrument mixes and assessing their likelihood of producing optimal results. A framework is developed for evaluating the likelihood of successful implementation of NGAs and it alludes to the fact that new policy development is usually constrained by previous policy choices, which have become institutionalised. The degree to which this institutionalization has occurred is seen as variable and the implementation depends on a number of well-understood processes such as increasing returns and other kinds of positive feedback; sunk costs; and incremental policy learning<sup>204</sup>.

A similar study outside Nigeria to investigate the trend in the mode of policy and governance in the European Union; interrogates the policy instruments and modes of governance in environmental

policies of the European Union. The study did not only define governance, but also describe typology of modes of governance and policy instruments. It identifies three major trends in policy instruments and policy modes of the EU based on the available literature and analysis of five EU environmental directives, regulations or policies; (Habitats Directive, Renewable Energy Directive, Timber Regulation, and Water Framework Directive & Common Agricultural Policy). The trends are: a move from strict compulsory settings to due diligence in new legislation, a move from regulatory to networking, information and knowledge-based instruments, and an increasing reliance on self-governance<sup>205</sup>.

### **2.3.10 National Policy on Rural Development in Nigeria**

Rural development policy is a form of public policy that seeks to restructure the national economy by addressing the issues and concerns regarding the living conditions and socio-economic situation in rural areas. Public policies on rural development refer to those strategies and actions of the government that are formulated and implemented in order to improve the economic and social life of rural dwellers<sup>206</sup>.

The analysis of rural development policy can be on the basis of the objectives, programmes and projects designed to achieve the overall goals. Whilst Nigeria does not have a comprehensive national policy on rural development, most of the implemented programmes and strategies on rural development in Nigeria are informed by the policy thrust and priorities of each regime. In Nigeria, rural development programmes and projects are usually implemented under other Public policies, which part of its objectives focus on rural development. Also, government usually initiates intervention programmes and projects with rural development as the objective. Public policies on rural economic development are embeds in various rural development programmes with projects such as the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) of 1972, Green Revolution

(1976), Operation Feed the Nation(1975), Better Life for Rural Women (1987) and so on. These programmes and their structures constitute parts of the policy instruments on sustainable rural economic development<sup>207</sup>.

Numerous public policies and programmes on rural development have been formulated and implemented by various governments in Nigeria since independence. However, the development of rural areas remains a challenge to policymakers, because studies show that a number of such programmes and policies initiated and executed tend to serve the interests of the political elites and their allies, to the detriment of the welfare of the people that these programmes and policies are meant for<sup>134</sup>. Rural development programmes like The Better Life Programme for Rural Women which was initiated by Mrs Mariam Babangida failed to produce maximum results because the programme was hijacked by wives of privileged few and consequently worsen the socio-economic conditions of women in rural areas.

Despite the huge amount of resources that successive governments have expended on improving the socio-economic situation of the rural poor, there still remains a wide gap in terms of wealth distribution and standard of living between the rural poor and the privileged few.

Hence, there is a need for an alternative approach to drive public policies on rural development in Nigeria; the approach that would enable the people to recognize and exercise control on domineering traditional institutions<sup>143</sup>. Thus, the new approach should adopt a bottom-up method such that the rural poor would be involved in all stages of the policy process; and also, the policy instruments designed for each area should reflect their specific needs.

### **2.3.11 Rural Development Programmes in Nigeria**

The focus of this section is to discuss some of the national programmes initiated for rural development in Nigeria involving the local government departments considered relevant to rural

development implementations. These departments are; Education, Agriculture, Health, Environment, and Works.

**(A). Agriculture: National Fadama Development Project (NFDP)**

Agriculture is the major pre-occupation of rural areas in Nigeria, and it is in light of this that the Federal government of Nigeria over the years introduced and implemented several policies and programmes aimed at improving agricultural production. In light of available agricultural potential, the First National Fadama Development project (NFDP 1) was designed in the early 1990s to promote simple and low-cost improved irrigation technology under World Bank Finance. "Fadama" is a Hausa name for irrigable low land, usually low-lying plains that overlay shallow aquifers that straddle Nigeria's major river system. The World Bank supported the FADAMA-I project to help develop irrigable Fadama land. Since then, the World Bank has supported a series of successive projects under the FADAMA Series (Fadama I, II and III). In all the three phases, the principal aim has been to raise farmers' incomes, with the secondary goal of helping to alleviate food insecurity and poverty.

Fadama I focused mainly on crop production and largely neglected support of post-production activities such as commodity processing, storage and marketing. The emphasis was on providing boreholes and pumps to crop farmers through simple credit arrangements aimed at boosting aggregate crop output<sup>208</sup>. It was initially introduced as a regional pilot with seven arid northern states, Fadama I (1992-1999) focused on developing small-scale irrigation and included a component to help farmers organise into beneficiary farmer groups; Fadama Users Associations (FUAs) to support irrigation management, cost recovery, and access to credit, marketing, and other services. Fadama I recorded a huge success as the programme was widely accepted by farmers who participated enthusiastically in the project. The profitability of Fadama farming became widely known and other

regions clamoured for the programme to be expanded. However, certain limitations affected the first phase of the programme. These include; inadequate involvement of farmers, local authorities and NGOs in implementation, delay of fund release and key inputs, contract and service delivery delays on the part of some suppliers; and, more important, inter-community conflicts between pastoralists and farmers. These conflicts arose because Fadama I helped in extending the farming season by several months each year, thereby precluding herders from using traditional grazing lands<sup>209</sup>.

Fadama II (2003-2009) was initiated during the democratic era where citizens canvassed for more inclusion and participation in governance, and also it is the period when community development assistance started to include the people in the economic development of their areas. Fadama II started with 18 states and aimed to strengthen the capacity of Fadama Community Associations (FCAs) and their constituent Fadama User Groups, and also provides finance directly to communities for small-scale infrastructure and asset acquisition<sup>209</sup>. This project was widely demanded for by farmers and the local populace as they had seen the benefits of the Fadama I. By adopting a Community-Driven development approach and introducing institutional capacity building at the local level, Fadama II helped to strengthen communities' existing social capital by enhancing collaboration and cooperation among different groups, to ensure inclusiveness and accountability while avoiding the potential for conflict. Also, the design of Fadama II gave local governments an important role to play in reviewing community requests for project support through the Local Fadama Desk (LFD), which was placed in the local government council. Like the previous, Fadama II also exceeded expectations because as a Community-Driven development approach it ensures social cohesion in rural areas and ensured effective conflict avoidance and resolution.

The proven track record of Fadama I and II brought about the clamour for the expansion of the project to all the states and FCT in Nigeria. Finally, Fadama III (2008–17) extended to all 36 states of Nigeria, as well as the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). Additional financing (2013–17) for Fadama

III was approved subsequently to extend the program once again, this time as another pilot of new approaches<sup>209</sup>.

The Fadama III project design takes into consideration major lessons and experiences observed in the implementation of Fadama II. It was designed to increase the intervention of the Fadama II project in additional states while deepening the approach and coverage of the existing states. Fadama II introduced an innovative local development planning (LDP) tool and built on the success of the community-driven development mechanisms<sup>208</sup>. The design of the project further built on the CDD approach which was successful in the implementation of Fadama II and also introduced an innovative savings mechanism called Fadama Users' Equity Fund (FUEF).

However, despite that the programme achieved some of its objectives; the same cannot be said in the process of replicating the model nationwide. The Boko Haram insurgency happens to be one of the constraints in the North eastern parts of the country, and also agitations in the Niger Delta region is another. Also, the programme seems to be battling with stretched capacity as there have been indications of other challenges such as: the inability to reach Fadama project personnel promptly when they are needed, lack of funds, irregular training and poor communication channel, and delaying responses by the delivery agency<sup>210</sup>.

**(B) Works: Rural Electrification (Nigerian Electrification Project (NEP))**

The Rural Electrification goal of the Federal Government of Nigeria is to increase access to electricity to 75% and 90% by 2020 and 2030 respectively and at least 10% of renewable energy mix by 2025 as contained in the National Electric Power Policy (NEPP) of 2001 and the Rural Electrification Policy of 2005 respectively<sup>211</sup>. The Rural Electrification Agency, with the support of the World Bank, launched the Nigerian Electrification Project, a comprehensive project that seeks to

accelerate electricity access in rural communities in Nigeria. The project is a \$350 million facility from the World Bank for national off-grid development.

The objective of the Nigerian Electrification Project (NEP) is to increase electricity access to households and Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs), students, and patients at federal universities and university teaching hospitals throughout Nigeria. To achieve this, the project was broken down into four components: Component 1; Solar Hybrid Mini-Grids for Rural Economic Development, Component 2; Standalone Solar Systems for Homes, Farms and Enterprises, Component 3; Power systems for public universities and teaching hospitals, and Component 4; Technical assistance<sup>212</sup>.

**(C) Education: Universal Basic Education (UBE)**

The Universal Basic Education (UBE) was launched on 30<sup>th</sup> September, 1999 by the Federal government of Nigeria to replace the former Universal Primary Education (UPE). The UBE programme is an education policy formulated to represent Nigeria's government strategy for achieving Education for All (EFA) accord. The Universal Basic Education Act (2004) provides for basic education comprising, primary and junior secondary education. The financing of basic education is the responsibility of states and local governments. However, the federal government has decided to intervene in the provision of basic education with 2% of its Consolidated Revenue Fund. The Act also provides for the establishment of the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) to coordinate the implementation of the programme in the states and local governments, through the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) of each state and Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs)<sup>213</sup>.

According to UBE Act 2004, the objectives of UBE are;

- (1) Developing in the entire citizenry a strong consciousness for education and a strong commitment to its vigorous promotion.
- (2) Providing free, universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school age.
- (3) Reducing drastically the incidence of drop-out from the formal school system (through improved relevance, quality and efficiency).
- (4) Providing for the learning needs of young persons, through appropriate forms of complementary approaches to the provision and promotion of basic education to those who for one reason or another, have had to interrupt their education.
- (5) Ensuring the acquisition of an appropriate level of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life skills as well as the ethical, moral and civic values needed for laying solid foundation for life-long learning<sup>214</sup>.

However, despite the guidelines on what the UBE programme ought to be, the relationships between the structures of UBE policy implementation in Nigeria and the realization of education outcome as it relates to the implementation of basic education policy are not consistent. For instance, the EFA deadline of 2015 to achieve education for all through the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) target did not correlate with the UBE Programme's of action. This could be attributed to several factors such as; poor budget for the education sector, poverty, ignorance among the people, poor learning environment and culture, lack of competent teachers, poor motivation of the teaching personnel, poor infrastructural facilities, none or inadequate supply of learning materials, poor attention to sports and recreational activities, non-existent of special education programme or inadequate facilities for learning. In addition, poor mobilization of partners, corruption, poor policy

planning and implementation strategies, insincerity in government practices, inadequate statistical data for planning, poor logistic supply from the closer government, total neglect of the teaching profession, lack of trust for government promises, and instability in the polity leading to an incessant change in leadership amongst others<sup>215</sup>.

**(D) Health: (PHC) Maternal and Child Health Care**

Poor maternal and child health indicators have been reported in Nigeria since the 1990s. Nigeria has the highest maternal death count globally, and this signifies poor access to quality maternal health care services. Many policies and interventions have been instituted by both the federal and state governments, to reverse the trend and to ensure that Nigeria is on track to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. One notable intervention is the Free Maternal and Child Healthcare Programme (FMCHCP).

In 2005, Nigeria was granted debt relief by the Paris Club under the World Bank's Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative. The critical argument for the debt relief was that a significant part of the debt reduction would be devoted to improving welfare for the most vulnerable groups. In response to the poor health profile of the Nigerian population in general, women and children in particular, the government of Nigeria decided to invest part of the funds from the HIPC initiative on health as part of the plans to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). A Free Maternal and Child Health programme (FMCHP) was implemented in 12 states in Nigeria by the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS), between 2009 and 2015, using funds from the debt relief. It was called the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) NHIS -MDG FMCHP. The programme however ended with the termination of the MDG in 2015, and the inability of the state governments to sustain the programme<sup>216</sup>.

While the programme ran its course, the rate of maternal and neonatal deaths witnessed a significant reduction. Studies show that the programme was an efficient way of utilizing public resources to provide access to critical interventions for vulnerable populations. Also, the programme was seen as pro-poor and targeted vulnerable women and children, and effectively delivering critical interventions to pregnant women and children. Overall, beneficiaries considered the services as of high quality, despite the fact that the services were not provided by Physicians. The improvement in healthcare facilities also led to more patronage, because access by patients is free, and health workers were adequately compensated.

With the introduction of the Basic Health Care Provision Fund (BHCPF), there has been demand for the return to FMCHP and its extension to all 36 states and FCT. The federal government has been urged to embark on an initiative that would maximise the gains.

**(E). Environment:** Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH)

The following are data on the state of WASH in Nigeria:

- 116 million people do not have basic sanitation.
- 37.8 million People practices open defecation.
- 55 million people are without clean water.
- 110 million do not have basic hygiene facilities.
- Sub-Saharan Africa ranks lowest in the world for access to improved drinking water and sanitation. This is linked to the region's under-five mortality rate which is one of the highest in the world.
- Around 60,000 children in Nigeria under the age of five die from diseases caused by the nation's poor levels of access to water, sanitation and hygiene.

In rural areas, only about 53% of households have access to safe water<sup>238</sup>.

Objective: The main objective in water supply and sanitation include: increasing service coverage for water supply and sanitation nationwide to meet the level of socio-economic demand of the nation through; new projects designed carefully to meet the real demand of the population, avoiding over sizing, combating leakages and losses, and reducing unaccounted for water.

Strategies: The following strategies are pursued in observing the principles and in the process of achieving the objectives stated above:

- Establishing a data management system on water supply and sanitation, including information on the expansion of schemes and extension of distribution networks, rehabilitation and modernisation of existing schemes
- Preventing wasteful water use and control water leakages through special awareness campaigns and standards set for the water supply service providers.
- Promoting universal metering of water consumption in existing projects and enforcing it in new projects of urban and small-town supply systems.
- Carrying out programmes to combat illegal connections
- Carrying out programmes to reduce “commercial losses” on private, industrial and administrative consumption
- Promoting social marketing of water-saving devices.
- Establish a national water quality reference laboratory.
- Encouraging private and community ownership of water supply and sanitation facilities.
- Encouraging local manufacturing of water supply and sanitation equipment and treatment chemicals.
- Strengthening water supply and sanitation training institutions.
- Granting operational autonomy to water supply and sanitation agencies.
- Adopting cost-sharing formulae, for capital investment operation and maintenance, rehabilitation and reinvestment as proposed in the National Water Supply and Sanitation Policy (2000) for the three tiers of government and the community.
- Enhancing national capacity in the operation and management of water supply and sanitation undertaking.
- Ensuring that good quality standards (including WHO standards for water quality) are maintained by water supply undertakings.
- Monitoring the performance of the sector for sound policy adjustment and development for water supply and sanitation<sup>238</sup>.

### **2.3.12 Appraising Public Policies Performance in Nigeria**

The problem of public policy in Nigeria is not lack of conceptualization or formulation of good policies; rather, the translation of good policies into good outputs and expected outcomes has remained a serious issue in discourse on the public policy process in the country. Many policies objectives have not been actualized in Nigeria, mainly because of what transpires in the policy process among the policymakers, implementers and beneficiaries.

A study in this regard analyzes the role of the state in the implementation of public policy in Nigeria using the National Youth Policy as a point of reference. It posited that after granting independence to Nigeria, the British left behind a capitalist state that promotes the interest of the bourgeoisie (the ruling class) who are leaders like other capitalist states. To complicate the issue, the state administrative structures lack internal autonomy for control; hence, it is being used as an instrument for the pursuit of parochial interests, instead of the pursuit of public good. The Nigerian Youth Policy (2001) and its subsequent reviewed version (2009) clearly enunciate the objectives of the policy, a framework of implementation and the expected outputs and outcomes. These objectives are geared toward the total development and empowerment of the youth in Nigeria through various programmes. However, the problem of implementation impedes the achievement of the stated objectives<sup>217</sup>.

To buttress the above notion, finding from a study on the obstacles to effective policy implementation by the public bureaucracy in developing nations reveals that the Nigerian public bureaucracy enabled by the corrupt political system hinders effective implementation of public policies. In Nigeria, the bureaucracy appears to be far from being reliable, efficient, fast, dependable and effective, when public policy implementation is involved. The factors that enable the inefficiency of the public bureaucracy in Nigeria include; an ineffective and corrupt political leadership. Leadership corruption and ineptitude affect the content and quality of policy at the formulation stage.

Sometimes policies are initiated only to attract public applause and attention with little regard to their appropriateness and possibility of effective practical implementation by the public bureaucracy<sup>218</sup>.

Another critical factor inhibiting effective implementation of policies in Nigeria is the lack of requisite workforce and financial resources to effectively implement them by relevant agencies or institutions vested with the responsibility of implementation.

On the issue of inadequate resources, for instance, Government, sometimes, does not budget adequately for public bureaucracy to implement formulated policies and where adequate resources are available, corrupt activities within the public bureaucratic organisations hinder diligent execution of the policy programs.

Furthermore, a factor that constitutes an obstacle for the bureaucracy in effectively implementing policies is the over-ambitious nature of some public policies in Nigeria. In most cases, the formulations of such policies are not induced by genuine or sincere efforts to bring about rapid and radical development, but just for ulterior intentions of the political leaders. For instance, the policies of free education and free health services for all in some states in Nigeria result in poor outcomes due to poor implementation.

Performance evaluation has become a key element in the public sector reform of many countries. Recently, the reform in the public sector has placed significant emphasis on policy and program evaluation as a central element of “managing for results” which has become one of the public sector focus<sup>219</sup>. The use of Performance indicators stimulates critical analysis of public policy decision-making and implementation in public administration<sup>220</sup>.

The performance indexes are indicated by the effect/ratio between the measuring parameters. These parameters are considered as determinants in performance indicators, in relation to the objectives, resources and outcomes. For instance, as demonstrated in another study, the performance of the

Public Relations Office can be expressed by the number of information requests; the resources indicated the number of office opening hours for citizens, and the outcomes can be calculated as the number of real information accomplished.

Performance Measurement Indicators can be classified as follows; Efficiency, Quality and Effectiveness<sup>221</sup>. However, the values or significance ascribed to these indicators depend on the preference of stakeholders and groups. For example, users might focus on service quality and quantity; staff in public organizations might be more concerned with how a service is provided than with what is provided, and taxpayers are likely to place much emphasis on cost and effectiveness.

Some authors prefer performance monitoring when the focus is on efficiency issues (the relationship between outputs and the inputs used in producing them). This is because the focus is placed on quantitative measures which are more objective than the norm, compared to qualitative measures which tend to be subjective. Another reason is that it is easier to develop performance measures of efficiency rather than having to rely on performance indicators of quality and effectiveness, due to its quantitative and more objective measures.

Quality is even more difficult to measure. Quality refers to the extent to which the nature of the output and the delivery of the output service meet the organizations' objectives and the users' needs. Comparative analysis is complex because quality measures are more subjective than efficiency measure. A comparative analysis is more difficult because there are many attributes that can be used in relation to the quality of performance of public administrators; hence, it is essential to classify certain attribute or sets of attributes depending on the circumstances while evaluating public performance. The attributes necessary to measure quality might include: accuracy, comprehensiveness, responsiveness, clarity; practicality, appropriateness, fairness, and cost-effectiveness.

Effectiveness refers to the extent to which the objectives have been achieved or the relationship between the intended and actual effect of outputs on objectives.

However, the preferred performance indicators are described as the traditional 3Es; economy (minimizing the consumption of inputs), efficiency (the relationship between inputs and outputs) and effectiveness (outcomes achieved as compared to outputs)<sup>221</sup>.

Measures in those three areas reflect the costs of acquiring inputs, the level of outputs achieved with those inputs and the contribution of outputs to produce outcomes. The progression from allocated resources through inputs and outputs, to outcomes, means that each link has a direct influence on the next, and the three areas of performance measurement depend on how these influences relates<sup>222</sup>.

Therefore, Performance evaluation can be measured based on the following indexes- effectiveness (Ec), efficiency (Ez) and adequacy (Ad); representing objectives, resources, and outcome parameters. Effectiveness is calculated by the outcomes/objectives ratio, Efficiency can be expressed by outcomes/resources ratio, while Adequacy is the resources/objectives ratio. It compares the consistency of resources to the achievement of planned objectives<sup>222</sup>.

The application of these indexes to performance evaluation measurement in public administration depends on the context. While it is easier to apply demographic and environmental indicators, as well as financial indicators in an organization, the case differs when performance indexes such as effectiveness and efficiency, adequacy, quality, ethics, and rating are adopted.

Therefore, for effective performance evaluation measurement, it is important to define measures, which expresses the level of general needs satisfaction. In addition, it is desirable for public administrations to adopt a system that considers indicators of quality, cost and service.

So far, from available literatures, it is clear that the challenges and prospects of rural development in Nigeria have been of great concern to different tiers of government as revealed by the rate of rural-urban migration. The reasons for these include; the level of economic development, quality of life, access to opportunities, facilities and amenities, and standard of living. The uneven rural-urban advancement leads to rural-urban migration, hence, the rural areas have become qualitatively depopulated and progressively less attractive for social and economic investments, while the urban areas are becoming physically congested, socially unhealthy and generally uneconomic to maintain.

Several regimes in Nigeria have attempted to tackle rural development by initiating programmes to improve the living condition in the rural areas, with a view to reverse rural-urban migration. The pressure on different governments and non-government organizations (NGOs) explains the proliferation of development agencies. Despite the number of rural development policies introduced at different times by successive governments with huge financial and material resources, often, each policy dies with the government that initiated it.

Finding from the study on some of these projects, shows that Rural Development Programmes that seek to promote Agricultural development end up marginalizing the small-scale farmers. The policy pursued by the government since the mid-1970s with the intention to boost agriculture started with Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) launched in 1976, the Green Revolution in the Second Republic and various budgetary incentives in large-scale agriculture. Similarly, the Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs) and big irrigation dam schemes were ostensibly introduced to improve rural development. All these projects which are scattered in different parts of the country and jointly financed by the World Bank and the Nigerian government did little in improving the living standards of the rural populace. Rather, it deprives peasants of their lands as happened in the Bakolori project in Sokoto State. The beneficiaries of these capital-intensive agricultural programmes and schemes were the elites in the urban area, who diverts the fund to other purpose<sup>223</sup>.

However on the contrary, another investigation on the rural development in Nigeria posits that many of the programmes had some positive effects. The study argues that the development programmes such as OFN, Green Revolution, Free and compulsory primary education, and low-cost housing schemes impact positively on the rural dwellers but due to lack of political will and commitment, policy instability and insufficient involvement of the intended beneficiaries, most of them could not be sustained. Thus, the problem was not with the programmes themselves, but the implementation process, hence, these programmes died with the regimes that initiated them<sup>224</sup>.

After a critical appraisal of the rural development in Nigeria, an alternative approach to rural development, that is, the participatory approach infused with elements of conscientization essential to the success of development policies is advocated by another study. Findings have shown that despite numerous policies, and programmes initiated and executed, little has been achieved and not sustainable<sup>134</sup>.

## **2.4 The Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework includes one or more formal theories, which may be in part, or whole as well as other concepts and empirical findings from literature to explain the relationships among these ideas and relevance to the research study<sup>225</sup>. The conceptual framework for this study is the Theory of Decentralization: Decentralization is a process by which the central government formally devolves power to actors and institutions at sub-national levels. Decentralization ceded to local governments the power to govern their own affairs, for development at the local level<sup>226</sup>.

Classical Theorists argue that decentralization accelerates the responses of government to the local needs<sup>227</sup>. Political and Administrative leaders at the subnational levels of government due to their closeness and access to information are more aware of the needs of their community and will respond quickly and precisely than the national government<sup>228</sup>. Decentralization implies that the sub-national

level government's policy decisions and actions, and measures for service delivery would be determined by peculiarities and characteristics of subnational service recipients<sup>229</sup>.

However, there are three categories of decentralization policies. These include: Administrative, Fiscal and Political Decentralization. Administrative decentralization represents a set of policies that devolves to subnational governments the administration and delivery of social services such as sanitation, education, rural amenities, health, and social welfare to the grassroots. Fiscal decentralization refers to the set of policies designed to transfer power to generate revenues internally or fiscal autonomy to the subnational governments. Also, Political decentralization is the set of constitutional amendments to facilitate more civil participation in political and representative democratic processes in subnational polities<sup>230</sup>.

There are different perspectives to the theory of decentralization. According to Soufflé's theory of decentralization, to achieve local government development there must be devolution of an appropriate combination of political, fiscal and institutional elements. The model was conceptualized from the idea that a soufflé depends on an appropriate combination of milk, eggs, and heat to rise. Hence, each of the different forms of decentralization facilitates improved social services delivery, based on the extent of devolution<sup>231</sup>.

Another perspective is the Sequential theory of decentralization. It posits that, the evolution and nature of the intergovernmental balance of power in the state depend on the sequencing pattern of various types of decentralization (fiscal, administrative, and political). Further, the type of decentralization that first evolved and the interplay of the intergovernmental balance of power are greatly influenced by the level of government whose territorial interests at the beginning are paramount. Thus, a greater degree of autonomy is ceded to subnational officials, if subnationals' interests are the most paramount at the initial stage; political decentralization will be pre-eminent and

followed by demands for fiscal decentralization, while administrative decentralization would be the last. However, if the national interests are paramount at beginning of the process; reverse would be the case. Thus, the reform would only protect the interest of national authorities at expense of redistribution of power to the subnational authorities<sup>230</sup>.

A decentralized system of governance enhances the grassroots participation in decision-making processes for sustainable and equitable growth, and effective public service delivery<sup>232</sup>.

Political decentralization facilitates public accountability by deepening political competition<sup>229</sup>. Also, the candidates position themselves for election by aligning their policies with the preference of voters<sup>233</sup>. Decentralization enhances accountability, as re-election of candidates depends on the public assessment of the quality and quantity of services provided in their constituencies. In the past two decades, developing nations have been embracing more decentralized systems because of its benefits compared to top-down hierarchical and centralized systems and the acceptance of the fact that a positive relationship exists between decentralization and effective service delivery, and good governance<sup>234</sup>.

However, there are contrary views that it has negative effects in developing countries on public accountability and effective service delivery<sup>235</sup>. Decentralization enables misappropriation of financial resources by subnational leaders and usually they are more accountable to the central government that disburses funds than the constituents that elected them<sup>236</sup>.

Nevertheless, the advocates of decentralization still reiterate that, it is more effective, except the fundamentals are missing. Decentralization is context and time-specific, and varies across regions. Its suitability and performance depend on factors such as; the nature of the relationship among political forces at both the central and local levels, citizens' involvement in decision-making, the level of political competition, and organizational structures at the grassroots<sup>234</sup>.

Its effectiveness in national policy and program implementation is a function of institutional designs, the mechanisms, and the implementation<sup>235</sup>.

Thus, local government must be designed deliberately as the major local service provider<sup>237</sup>.

## **2.5 Gaps in Literatures Reviewed**

It is clear that literature on local government, public policy, and rural developments in Nigeria abounds. It is also important to note that there is no consensus on any issue among the researchers. Therefore this study is intended to contribute toward developing a concept that can adequately and specifically describe the concepts within this context.

Furthermore, available theories on public policies are too general to relate precisely the place of local government in the national public policy process in a decentralized structure like Nigeria; therefore this study would contribute toward developing a new framework to contextualize the local government system in national public policy processes in Nigeria.

In addition, there are divergent debates and research publications concerning the existing form and structure of Nigeria's local government system, hence, this study would contribute towards agenda for local government reforms in Nigeria.

Finally, various discourses did not attempt to come up with a distinct proposal on the structure and processes, towards developing a holistic national public policy on rural development in Nigeria, because what exists are various rural development programmes initiated by different regimes as dictated by their priorities, thus, the study would attempt to address this gap.

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## **Chapter Three**

### **Methodology**

#### **3.1 Research Design**

The research type is a Case study. Oyo State is the case of study and data collection. The reason for choosing this case is that, it is one of the states in Nigeria with significant rural areas. In addition, it is accessible and convenient for fieldwork. The State land mass is about 27,249 Square Kilometers, the population is 5,580,894 (2006, Census Figure) and has 33 Local Government with 28 of them having both urban and rural communities<sup>1</sup>.

#### **3.2 Population of the Study**

The population of the study are Employees of Local Governments in Oyo State, and Community Leaders.

#### **3.3 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

The Sample is from among the relevant local government employees and community leaders within the departments of local governments chosen for field investigation.

Oyo State has administrative structure divided into five geopolitical zones with an uneven number of local governments<sup>2</sup>. Ten local governments participated in this exercise: two Local Governments per zone together with the Local Council Development Areas (LCDA) within each Local Government. The study selects five departments in each local government and their respective LCDAs because their services directly relate to rural development programmes .They are Education, Health, Works, Agriculture and Environment.

The Officers that are selected in each of the relevant departments to respond to research instruments are the three most Senior. Also, selected are three community leaders that are actively involved in the community relations programme of local government.

The sample size of the study is 366 out of 378 respondents from relevant departments in the following selected local governments.

### **Selected Local Governments and Local Council Development Areas (LCDAs)**

#### Zone 1: Ibadan Areas

1. Egbeda: 1, Egbeda LG- Egbeda. II, Ajorosun LCDA- Olodo.
2. Akinyele: 1, Akinyele LG- Moniya. II, Akinyele South LCDA- Ikereku. III, Akinyele West LCDA- Igbo Oloyin

#### Zone 2: Oke Ogun Areas

1. Atisbo: 1, Atisbo LG-Tede. II, Atisbo South LCDA- Ago Are
2. Itesiwaju: 1, Itesiwaju LG- Otu

#### Zone 3: Ogbomoso Areas

1. Surulere: 1, Surulere LG- Iresaadu. II, Surulere North LCDA- Orile Igbon. III, Surulere South LCDA - Oko

2. Oriire: 1, Oriire LG- Ikoyi-Ile. II, Oriire South LCDA- Ahoro Dada. III, Oriire North LCDA- Olokoto

Zone 4: Oyo Areas

1. Afijio: 1, Afijio LG- Jobele. II, Afijio West LCDA- Ilora
2. Atiba: 1, Atiba LG- Offa Meta. II, Soro LCDA- Oke Isunwin

Zone 5: Ibarapa Areas

1. Ibarapa North: 1, Ibarapa N. LG- Ayete. II, Ibarapa, N/W- Igangan
2. Ibarapa Central: 1, Ibarapa Central

Total= 21 x 18 (Respondents per Council) = 378

The Sampling Technique is the statistical techniques or definite plan used in selecting samples for a study. The study adopts multi-stage sampling because, it entails primary sampling units (PSU) and the secondary sampling units (SSU)<sup>3</sup>. At stage 1, the study adopts the Stratified Sampling technique to group the local government areas into geopolitical zones. Stage 2 adopts Simple Random Sampling for the selection of the two local governments per zone. Finally, Stage3 adopts purposive sampling to select three officials per department and three community elders.

### 3.4 Research Instrument

The study adopts questionnaire as a research instrument. It contains a set of structured questions; arranged in a logical sequence. The design ensures that the information and data collected are relevant to the objectives, research questions and hypotheses. It is in two parts; part one classifies the

respondents because it seeks information about the respondents, while part two seeks information on the subject under investigation. The questionnaire, which is in Likert Five Scale format, contains the elements or activities required in each of the five stages, as adapted from Benoit<sup>4</sup>.

### **3.5 Validity and Reliability of Instrument**

#### **3.5.1 Validity:**

The study validates the research instrument to eliminate unrelated issues and to ensure that the research instrument covers essential issues. The study adopts a judgemental approach in validating the instrument by relying on opinions expressed by various experts in relevant reviewed literatures<sup>5</sup>. In addition, it adapts questions proposed for each of the stages as contained in the Stages Model of Howlett and Ramesh's five stages policy process<sup>6</sup>.

#### **3.5.2 Pilot Study**

The study conducts a pilot study to serve as a pre-test of instrument and major construct of the main study. Ten local governments representing the Five Zones are selected for the main study and 10% of it is one local government, hence, Oluyole local government and her LCDAs was selected for the pilot study.

### **3.6 Reliability**

The study adopts Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which is 7.0. It is usually consider as the most suitable in checking the internal consistency reliability of an instrument, which is in likert format. An instrument is reliable if the internal consistency coefficient is within 7.0 and above<sup>7</sup>.

### **3.7 Administration of Research Instrument and Method of Data Collection**

The study utilizes both primary and secondary data. Questionnaire is the instrument utilized to generate primary data while the Oyo State Government relevant supervisory agencies provide Secondary data.

The study used Primary data to validate hypotheses designed to confirm the extent of local government employees' involvement in public policy process and the interpretation of responses to focal questions, while the secondary data facilitate the analysis of the effect of involvement on the public policy/programmes performance at the local government level, based on policy programme outcomes.

### **3.8 Data Analysis Method**

The study adopts Triangulated Data Analysis method involving both quantitative analysis and qualitative data analysis<sup>8</sup>. The quantitative data generated from the questionnaires, using percentage and chi-square assist in testing the hypotheses. While the confidence interval is 95%, the alpha level of significance is 0.05<sup>9</sup>. In addition, it facilitates the analysis and interpretation of secondary data.

On the other hand, qualitative data analysis describes the relationship between primary data and secondary data and facilitates interpretation of the policy performance. The result of responses by the selected sample departments to the selected focal questions on the questionnaire determines the classification of their level of involvement into the following; (a). Poor involvement (b) Moderate involvement (c) Strong involvement

The secondary data generated by supervisory agencies on the implementation outcomes of the examined policies/programmes are used to interpret the effect of involvement of the samples on the

policy outcomes based on the following classification ; ( a) Poor performance (b) Moderate performance (c) Strong performance

The interpretation of policy/programme performance is determined by the level of relationship between the result of hypothesis testing, result of responses to focal questions by units, and the implementation outcome. The analysis follows the sequential effect model below:

Hypotheses Results ---- Focal Questions Results----- Outcomes ---- Policy Performance

- Hypotheses Results: shows the relationship between the policy processes and Sample involvement
- Focal Questions Results: describes extent of each department's involvement in each critical area of the processes (Primary data)
- Outcomes: shows the Policy Output from all the Inputs (Secondary data)
- Policy Performance: Interpretes performances based on the trend and pattern of outcomes over the duration of years focussed on this study

### **3.9 The Pilot Study**

#### **3.9.1 Definition**

A pilot study is a mini-study meant to evaluate the feasibility of an approach that is intended for the proposed main study. The purpose of the pilot study is not for hypothesis testing, but to enhance the successful conduct of the main study. Therefore, no inferential statistical tests should be proposed in a pilot study design. Since inferential statistical tests are not involved, a pilot study cannot provide *p*-values because; the test of inferential statistics is not the priority. It is often interchanged with the concepts of feasibility studies and proof of concept studies in various literatures<sup>10</sup>.

However, the distinction is that, while all pilot studies can be referred to as feasibility studies not all feasibility studies can be referred to as pilot studies<sup>11</sup>. Samples for pilot studies are usually similar to or part of the target population, for the main study<sup>12</sup>. Pilot study assists in identifying and addressing inherent procedural inadequacies observe in result analysis before commencing the main research<sup>13</sup>. It also aids in estimating the appropriate time and cost for the final research<sup>14</sup>. It is the last stage in planning process to validate the design of main study<sup>15</sup>.

### **3.9.2 Methodology**

The case study for pilot testing is Oluyole Local government, Ibadan (LCDAs inclusive), which represents 10% of the proposed 10 LGs selected for the final study. The sample was drawn among the personnel based on earlier stated criteria. 50 respondents eventually participated out of the 54 expected personnel. The Oyo State Local Government Service Commission assists in administering and retrieving the research questionnaires through the LGs Courier Officers. Respondents were expected to respond to two sets of questionnaires; the questionnaire which was designed for the main study and the other; pilot study questionnaire meant to validate the construct of the main instrument. The validating questions were adapted from the Pilot testing questionnaire example as designed by Formplus (2021). However, the findings were deduced on the basis of criteria already identified in the relevant literatures as follows:

### **3.9.3 Findings**

The analysis of findings of the pilot study on the suitability and adequacy of the instrument for the main study according to the *established components of pilot studies* as posited in literatures are tabulated as follows<sup>16</sup>:

<b>Components of a Pilot Study</b>	<b>---</b>	<b>Findings</b>
1. Sample size and selection.	--	Suitable
2. Determining the criteria for successful pilot study based on objectives of the study	--	Suitable
3. The process of recruiting subjects or collecting samples is practical and manageable.	--	Suitable
4. Testing the measurement instrument.	--	Adequate
5. Data entry and analysis.	--	Adequate

**Source:** Field Study, 2021

Furthermore, the finding of the pilot study can also be determined base on its *main research purpose*.

The purposes are; theoretical development, research design, improving measurement, sampling considerations, evaluating logistics, pre-planning analysis, weighing ethical considerations, and communicating one's research<sup>17</sup>.

Therefore, findings on the suitability and adequacy of pilot study for validating the design of the main study are juxtaposed with the *research purposes* as follows:

<b>Purposes of Pilot Testing</b>		<b>Findings</b>
1. Theory development: in relation to research questions and hypotheses, plausibility, exploring unknowns	--	Adequate
2. Research design: suitability of study context, feasibility of incorporating data from other sources	--	Suitable
3. Measurement: improve clarity, validity, and reliability; successful data collection and data entry, use of combined measures	--	Adequate
4. Sampling: determining sample size for main study, procedures and eligibility criteria, understanding of research tools and procedures, response rate, quality.	--	Suitable
5. Logistics: time and resources needed, team understanding of protocols and procedures.	--	Adequate

- |   |    |          |
|---|----|----------|
| 6. Analysis: Statistical techniques, preparing analysis procedures for the main study, responses to data.   | -- | Suitable |
| 7. Ethical considerations: privacy and confidentiality procedures, security of data, participant time and burdens, acceptability of study elements. | -- | Adequate |
| 8. Communicating research: collecting preliminary data, leveraging Pilot results to design main study, research team capacity and competence.       | -- | Suitable |
- 

**Source:** Field Study, 2021

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## Endnotes

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## Chapter Four

### Results and Discussion of Findings

#### 4.1 Demographic Data Analysis (Primary Data)

**Table 4.1 Departments**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agric	64	17.5	17.5	17.5
	Education/Community Devt Inspectorate	16	4.4	4.4	21.9
	Education	96	26.2	26.2	48.1
	Environment	69	18.9	18.9	66.9
	Health	37	10.1	10.1	77.0
	Works	84	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

Table 4.1 shows that 18% of the respondents have experiences with FADAMA programme, 45% of Education/Community Devt Inspectorate have experiences in programmes implementation, 26% have with UBE, 19% have with WASH, 10% have with MCHCP, while 23% of the respondents have experiences with Rural Electrification.

**Table 4.2: Status**

				Valid	Cumulative
		Frequency	Percent	Percent	Percent
Valid	Directors	66	18.0	18.0	18.0
	Deputies	51	13.9	13.9	32.0
	Others	249	68.0	68.0	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

Table 4.2 shows that 18% of the respondents are Directors, 14% are Deputies, while 68% of the respondents are others.

## 4.2. Data Presentation

### 4.2.1 Responses to Questionnaire (Primary Data)

**Table 4.3 How the problem was initially addressed**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	42	11.5	11.5	11.5
	Partially Involved	54	14.8	14.8	26.2
	Indifferent	13	3.6	3.6	29.8
	Involved	131	35.8	35.8	65.6
	Strongly Involved	126	34.4	34.4	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.4 Acknowledgement of significance of the problem**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	38	10.4	10.4	10.4
	Partially Involved	54	14.8	14.8	25.1
	Indifferent	31	8.5	8.5	33.6
	Involved	156	42.6	42.6	76.2
	Strongly Involved	87	23.8	23.8	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.5 Identification of social norms relevant to this problem**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	43	11.7	11.7	11.7
	Partially Involved	82	22.4	22.4	34.2
	Indifferent	34	9.3	9.3	43.4
	Involved	122	33.3	33.3	76.8
	Strongly Involved	85	23.2	23.2	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.6 Identifying the social groups that benefit from the situation**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	45	12.3	12.3	12.3
	Partially Involved	77	21.0	21.0	33.3
	Indifferent	28	7.7	7.7	41.0
	Involved	131	35.8	35.8	76.8
	Strongly Involved	85	23.2	23.2	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.7 Identifying the social groups that lose from the situation**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	65	17.8	17.8	17.8
	Partially Involved	65	17.8	17.8	35.5
	Indifferent	52	14.2	14.2	49.7
	Involved	109	29.8	29.8	79.5
	Strongly Involved	75	20.5	20.5	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.8 Proffering public policy as a means of action**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	50	13.7	13.7	13.7
	Partially Involved	83	22.7	22.7	36.3
	Indifferent	28	7.7	7.7	44.0
	Involved	137	37.4	37.4	81.4
	Strongly Involved	68	18.6	18.6	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.9 Identifying those responsible for the problem**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	61	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Partially Involved	82	22.4	22.4	39.1
	Indifferent	37	10.1	10.1	49.2
	Involved	98	26.8	26.8	76.0
	Strongly Involved	88	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.10 Means of action as considered desirable and feasible by the actors**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	42	11.5	11.5	11.5
	Partially Involved	63	17.2	17.2	28.7
	Indifferent	38	10.4	10.4	39.1
	Involved	141	38.5	38.5	77.6
	Strongly Involved	82	22.4	22.4	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.11 Effects they have on the rural development programme**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved				
		31	8.5	8.5	8.5
	Partially Involved	58	15.8	15.8	24.3
	Indifferent	38	10.4	10.4	34.7
	Involved	115	31.4	31.4	66.1
	Strongly Involved	124	33.9	33.9	100.0
Total	366	100.0	100.0		

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.12 Ensuring that the means of action is fair to all social groups**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	41	11.2	11.2	11.2
	Partially Involved	68	18.6	18.6	29.8
	Indifferent	37	10.1	10.1	39.9
	Involved	118	32.2	32.2	72.1
	Strongly Involved	102	27.9	27.9	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.13 Deciding the choice of policy option**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	79	21.6	21.6	21.6
	Partially Involved	83	22.7	22.7	44.3
	Indifferent	43	11.7	11.7	56.0
	Involved	83	22.7	22.7	78.7
	Strongly Involved	78	21.3	21.3	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.14 Identifying visibility and consequent political costs of with each option**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	85	23.2	23.2	23.2
	Partially Involved	78	21.3	21.3	44.5
	Indifferent	35	9.6	9.6	54.1
	Involved	88	24.0	24.0	78.1
	Strongly Involved	80	21.9	21.9	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.15 Interacting with various advocacy groups**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	50	13.7	13.7	13.7
	Partially Involved	59	16.1	16.1	29.8
	Indifferent	36	9.8	9.8	39.6
	Involved	145	39.6	39.6	79.2
	Strongly Involved	76	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.16 Identifying the influence and value of these groups**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	37	10.1	10.1	10.1
	Partially Involved	72	19.7	19.7	29.8
	Indifferent	44	12.0	12.0	41.8
	Involved	127	34.7	34.7	76.5
	Strongly Involved	86	23.5	23.5	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.17 Identifying the tactics and support base of these social group**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	48	13.1	13.1	13.1
	Partially Involved	62	16.9	16.9	30.1
	Indifferent	39	10.7	10.7	40.7
	Involved	141	38.5	38.5	79.2
	Strongly Involved	76	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.18 Identifying groups that are affected by the policy adoption**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	41	11.2	11.2	11.2
	Partially Involved	83	22.7	22.7	33.9
	Indifferent	35	9.6	9.6	43.4
	Involved	120	32.8	32.8	76.2
	Strongly Involved	87	23.8	23.8	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.19 Determining the policy option that is being adopted**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	75	20.5	20.5	20.5
	Partially Involved	97	26.5	26.5	47.0
	Indifferent	28	7.7	7.7	54.6
	Involved	111	30.3	30.3	85.0
	Strongly Involved	55	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.20 Examining the political, scientific, Administrative, and Financial Factors Influencing the Government's Choice of Policy/Program to be Adopted**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	88	24.0	24.0	24.0
	Partially Involved	81	22.1	22.1	46.2
	Indifferent	35	9.6	9.6	55.7
	Involved	93	25.4	25.4	81.1
	Strongly Involved	69	18.9	18.9	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.21 Determining the Direction of Policy Adoption Process**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	87	23.8	23.8	23.8
	Partially Involved	83	22.7	22.7	46.4
	Indifferent	24	6.6	6.6	53.0
	Involved	111	30.3	30.3	83.3
	Strongly Involved	61	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.22 Involvement in Monitoring**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	48	13.1	13.1	13.1
	Partially Involved	73	19.9	19.9	33.1
	Indifferent	61	16.7	16.7	49.7
	Involved	112	30.6	30.6	80.3
	Strongly Involved	72	19.7	19.7	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.23 Examining how Achievable and Implementable is the Policy/Program**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	43	11.7	11.7	11.7
	Partially Involved	90	24.6	24.6	36.3
	Indifferent	31	8.5	8.5	44.8
	Involved	118	32.2	32.2	77.0
	Strongly Involved	84	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.24 The Mode of Implementation of the Policy/Program**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	59	16.1	16.1	16.1
	Partially Involved	68	18.6	18.6	34.7
	Indifferent	42	11.5	11.5	46.2
	Involved	137	37.4	37.4	83.6
	Strongly Involved	60	16.4	16.4	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.25 Identifying Existing and New Organizations that could be Involved in Implementation**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	60	16.4	16.4	16.4
	Partially Involved	82	22.4	22.4	38.8
	Indifferent	25	6.8	6.8	45.6
	Involved	123	33.6	33.6	79.2
	Strongly Involved	76	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.26 Determining Adequacy of Resources for Policy/Program Implementation**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	72	19.7	19.7	19.7
	Partially Involved	98	26.8	26.8	46.4
	Indifferent	36	9.8	9.8	56.3
	Involved	93	25.4	25.4	81.7
	Strongly Involved	67	18.3	18.3	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.27 Identifying the Discrepancies between the Policy’s Expected and Actual Outcomes**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	83	22.7	22.7	22.7
	Partially Involved	83	22.7	22.7	45.4
	Indifferent	43	11.7	11.7	57.1
	Involved	97	26.5	26.5	83.6
	Strongly Involved	60	16.4	16.4	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.28 Determining the Extent to which the Policy has Addressed the Problem**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	77	21.0	21.0	21.0
	Partially Involved	68	18.6	18.6	39.6
	Indifferent	45	12.3	12.3	51.9
	Involved	112	30.6	30.6	82.5
	Strongly Involved	64	17.5	17.5	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.29 Assessing the Suitability of the Adopted Method of Intervention**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not involved	73	19.9	19.9	19.9
	Partially Involved	88	24.0	24.0	44.0
	Indifferent	27	7.4	7.4	51.4
	Involved	96	26.2	26.2	77.6
	Strongly Involved	82	22.4	22.4	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.30 Determining the Continuity or Discontinuity of the Policy**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	2	.5	.5	.5
	Not involved	84	23.0	23.0	23.5
	Partially Involved	73	19.9	19.9	43.4
	Indifferent	37	10.1	10.1	53.6
	Involved	102	27.9	27.9	81.4
	Strongly Involved	68	18.6	18.6	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.31 Proposing more Involvement of Local Government**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	1	.3	.3	.3
	Not involved	71	19.4	19.4	19.7
	Partially Involved	64	17.5	17.5	37.2
	Indifferent	21	5.7	5.7	42.9
	Involved	90	24.6	24.6	67.5
	Strongly Involved	119	32.5	32.5	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.32 Responses of Each Unit to Focal Questions**

Questions	Units	Agreed (SI + I) %	Indif %	Disagree(PI+ NI) %
6	Agriculture	42.3	7.69	50
	Comm Devt	60	6.67	33.3
	Education	57	9.41	32.63
	Environment	57.97	4.35	37.68
	PHC	52.94	2.94	44.12
	Works	66.20	8.45	25.35

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

8	Agriculture	56.25	6.25	37.5
	Comm Devt	60	33.3	6
	Education	55.80	15.80	28.4
	Environment	57.58	9.09	33.33
	PHC	51.35	10.81	37.84
	Works	74.07	7.41	18.52

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

12	Agriculture	45.3	9.38	45.3
	Community Devt	46.67	6.67	46.64
	Education	46.79	10.87	42.39
	Environment	37.88	61	1.12
	PHC	44.4	2.78	52.68
	Works	54.12	15.3	30.59

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

17	Agriculture	46.03	7.94	46.03
	Comm Devt	50	6.25	43.75
	Education	39.08	2.3	58.62
	Environment	35.29	2.94	61.76
	PHC	41.18	14.71	44.12
	Works	66.49	12.34	27.16

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

22	Agriculture	60.32	3.17	36.51
	Comm Devt	50	18.75	31.25
	Education	46.74	10.87	42.39
	Environment	51.47	5.88	32.35
	PHC	47.1	11.77	41.13
	Works	54.32	16.05	29.63

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

24	Agriculture	41.30	14.29	44.41
	Comm Devt	26.67	0	73.33
	Education	45.26	11.58	43.16
	Environment	36.36	3.03	60.61
	PHC	56.76	5.41	37.84
	Works	46.34	13.42	40.24

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

26	Agriculture	51.56	10.94	37.5
	Comm Devt	37.5	6.25	56.25
	Education	54.74	10.53	34.74
	Environment	44.29	2.9	52.9
	PHC	0	8.3	44.4
	Works	42.9	26.2	30.95

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

29	Agriculture	45.90	11.48	42.62
	Comm Devt	64.71	0	35.3
	Education	60.63	4.26	35.11
	Environment	59.42	8.69	31.9
	PHC	43.2	5.41	51.35
	Works	58.67	9.33	32

*Source: Field Study, 2021*

#### **4.2.2 Secondary Data**

##### **Summary of FADAMA Program Performance in Oyo State**

A). - Fadama III Project operated under six components

- Implemented in 20 Local Government Areas (LGAs).
- Additional Financing extended to all the 33 LGAs in the state.

- FCAs federated vertically up to the state level (Federated Fadama Community Association) and federated horizontally (organized based on their economic interest).
  - 1. 106 Fadama Community Associations (FCAs) and 1,247 Fadama User Groups (FUGs) registered to participate under Fadama III.
- B). - The Oyo state government paid a sum of N85.872 million for the implementation of Fadama III in the state.
- Paid N70.7 million for the Additional Financing Phase.
  - Participating LGAs paid N120.0 million, as their contributions to the project.
  - Oyo state had drawn down a sum of \$3,992,187.35, i.e. 96% of her IDA allocation for Fadama III.
  - To date, Oyo state has received a sum of N492.854 million as support to finance the various activities under the Additional Financing Phase.
  - N241.52 million was released for the implementation of cassava and rice BPs
  - Unemployed youths under the GUYS programme received N251.334 million.
- C). - 3. 370 Business Plans (BPs) involving 713 Rice Farmers and 1,036 cassava Farmers were prepared and approved for the Additional Financing Phase.
- Implemented 57% out of the 100 rice production BPs involving 853 hectares
  - Implemented 30.4% of 270 Cassava Production BPs involving 1,405 hectares.
  - Additional Financing Project contributed 3,156.1mt of rice and 36,811mt of cassava to the national food basket.
  - Improved access of 1,749 beneficiaries and 139 Production Groups in the state to a total of 1,451 productive assets, agricultural inputs and advisory services.
- D). - Capacity-building of 40 LGs staff on Computer Application and MIS
- Review of Local Development Plan, Cost-benefit analysis of projects, Electronic data management, and Project Management skills.

- Effective coordination and integration of Local Development Plans into the annual plans of 12 out of the 20 participating LGs.

E). - Implementation of Project activities was aided by the Communication Unit

- Adequate documentation and publicity of project activities in electronic and print media, reports, pictures, etc.
- ADP set up and equipped the ICT clinic with generators, UPS, anti-virus, and Modem for the 5 computer systems.

F). - SFCO collaborated with some institutions in Nigeria for innovative purposes.

- Assist farmers to attain sustainable improvements in productivity.
- Promote SLM's best activities and ensure all year-round crop production activities.
- State Sustainable Land Management (SLM) was inaugurated.
- 28 FUGs involved in agro-forestry implemented the SLM practices to mitigate deforestation.
- 92 FCAs, 1288 FUGs, 139 PGs and 251 Fadama GUYS beneficiaries submitted Land agreements to SFCO to ensure documentation of land titles.
- All the sub-projects sites of the projects beneficiaries were geo-referenced with information on their location, coordinate and distance from SFCO.

**Source:** Compendium of Fadama III & Fadama III Additional Financing (AF) Projects Achievements in Oyo State, 2009-2019 [www.facebook.com/oyo\\_fadama](http://www.facebook.com/oyo_fadama), [oysfado@yahoo.com](mailto:oysfado@yahoo.com)

**Table 4.33 UBE: Total Number of Primary Pupils ( Basic 1-6 ) From 2011 To 2021**

S/N	LGUBEA	2011/12 ENROL	2012/13 ENROL	2013/14 ENROL	2014/15 ENROL	2015/16 ENROL	2016/17 ENROL	2017/18 ENROL	2018/19 ENROL	2019/20 ENROL	2020/21 ENROL
1	AFIJO	26,533	30,430	32,358	41,678	46,907	41,341	48,341	48,665	51,697	54,427
2	AKINYELE	30,940	36,294	38,643	52,322	57,551	49,551	61,551	62,051	65,431	67,273
3	ATIBA	29,558	32,358	39,981	45,391	50,594	44,626	53,626	54,126	57,506	59,348
4	ATISBO	23,378	31,615	32,103	38,672	43,901	41,605	52,605	53,105	55,961	58,327
5	EGBEDA	30,342	34,924	36,294	45,972	50,200	48,363	57,363	57,863	61,243	63,085
6	IBARAPA CENTRAL	21,944	25,829	27,514	42,823	48,052	35,052	44,052	45,431	47,932	49,774
7	IBARAPA NORTH	19,067	22,409	26,173	41,781	47,714	41,781	50,781	51,281	54,661	56,503
8	ITESIWAJU	20,496	25,624	27,001	37,942	43,166	37,166	46,166	41,860	49,522	51,888
9	OLUYOLE	35,188	36,199	38,712	49,763	61,741	46,725	57,725	61,642	61,605	63,447
10	ORIIRE	28,254	32,103	37,013	49,231	54,460	48,460	59,460	59,926	63,340	72,549
11	SURULERE	53,716	30,204	45,018	52,862	58,091	52,091	61,091	61,591	64,971	66,813
	TOTAL	319,416	337,989	380,810	498,437	562,377	486,761	592,761	597,541	633,869	663,434

**Source:** Oyo State Universal Basic Education Board, 2021

**Table 4.34 Enrolment For Basic 7-9**

S/NO	LGUBEA	2015/2016 ENROLMENT	2016/2017 ENROLMENT	2017/2018 ENROLMENT	2018/2019 ENROLME NT	2019/2020 ENROLM ENT
1	AFIJO	3,771	3,652	3,461	3,441	4,468
2	AKINYELE	11,537	11,039	10,146	9,813	13,158
3	ATIBA	5,962	6,123	5,756	6,135	8,168
4	ATISBO	2,224	2,059	2,095	1,954	2,424
5	EGBEDA	13,143	12,126	10,989	10,915	14,577
6	IBARAPA CENTRAL	3,076	2,817	2,724	3,094	3,924
7	IBARAPA NORTH	2,213	1,894	1,741	1,890	2,304
8	ITESIWAJU	1,676	1,612	1,678	1,731	1,920
9	OLUYOLE	11,794	11,929	10,440	10,037	15,288
10	ORIIRE	2,663	2,518	2,237	2,348	3,052
11	SURULERE	3,463	3,076	3,050	3,085	3,840
	TOTAL	61,522	58,845	54,317	54,443	73,123

**Source:** Oyo State Ministry of Science and Education

**Table 4.35 Access to Sanitation in Orire LG**

1. Percentage of houses with toilet alone	15%
2. Percentage of houses with water supply alone	13%
3. Percentage of houses with toilet and water supply	14%
4. Percentage of houses without toilet & water supply	100%

**Source:** RUWASAN, Oyo State, 2021

**Table 4.36 Access Maternal and Child Health Care ( % )**

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Afijio	3	7	2	7	1
Akinyele	9	15	10	13	8
Atiba	6	8	4	5	2
Atisbo	5	8	12	37	3
Egbeda	7	6	8	9	6
Ibarapa Central	3	3	2	2	1
Ibarapa North	0	1	1	1	0
Itesiwaju	5	7	6	6	3
Oluyole	8	7	7	8	4
Oriire	9	10	7	6	3
Surulere	4	6	7	9	2

**Source:** Oyo State Primary Health Care Board, 2021

**Table 4.37 Number of people that accessed Maternal and Child Health Care**

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	TOTAL
Afijio	281	678	580	725	651	2915
Akinyele	1325	2287	1578	2122	1861	9173
Atiba	710	979	4507	655	1881	8732
Atisbo	386	639	993	3166	999	6183
Egbeda	1374	1219	1682	1739	2675	8689
Ibarapa Central	215	223	154	159	755	1506
Ibarapa North	68	120	175	178	455	996
Itesiwaju	448	650	576	596	764	3034
Oriire	945	1087	787	698	539	4056
Surulere	396	615	743	987	456	3197
TOTAL	6148	8497	11775	11025	11036	48481

**Source:** Oyo State Primary Health Board, 2021

**Table 4.38 List of Electrification Projects Executed by Oyo State Rural Electrification Board Between 2010 to 2020**

S	Local Govt	No. of project	Community	Year of Execution	Date of Completion	Details of projects, construction, installation and electricity
	Akinyele	2	Omonnigbehin community, Iwokoto/Akuko kitibi	2010	2011	Construction, installation and Extension of Electricity
	Afijio		Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
	Atiba	1	Federal Girl's College	2010	2011	Construction, installation and Extension of electricity
	Atisbo		Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
	Egbeda	5	Ile Titun Aladun Arigba-Oja Salawu Oko Tapa Community Imorele/Kare community Oke-omi community, olodo	2010	2011	Construction and installation of transformer
	Ibarapa North		Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
	Ibarapa Central		Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
	Itesiwaju Oluyole	6	Nil Bolorunduro Idiseke Papa Eleyele Akano Community Aba Kasumu Aba Epo Lagos Toll-Gate Market	2010	2011	Extension of electricity
	Orire	1	Fapote community	2010	2011	Improvement of electricity
	Surulere	1	Onipanu community	2010	2011	Construction and installation of transformer

**Source:** Oyo State Rural Electrification Board, 2021

### 4.2.3 Research Questions

The findings focus on the following research questions;

- i. How essential is the Public Policy as an instrument of governance in Nigeria?
- ii. How relevant is the Local Government as a tier of government in the National Public Policy Processes in Nigeria?
- iii. What are the effects of Local Governments towards achieving higher rural development policy performance, in the Selected Local Governments of Oyo State, Nigeria?
- iv. What are the factors hindering the effective and efficient performance of the Local Government on Public Policy Processes?

### 4.2.4 Hypotheses

The generated data (both primary and secondary) are meant to test the following research hypotheses:

Ho1: Local Governments are not involved in the formulation process of National policy on rural development.

Ho2: Local Governments are not involved in the implementation process of National policy on rural development.

Ho3: Local Governments are not involved in the evaluation process of National policy on rural development.

### 4.2.5 Hypotheses Testing

#### Hypothesis One

Ho1: Local Governments are not involved in the formulation process of National Policy on rural development.

Level of significance,  $\alpha = 5\%$

Decision rule: Reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) only if the p-value is less than the level of significance

( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

Test statistic: Chi Square Test.

**Table 4.39 Local Governments Involvement in the Formulation process of National Policy on Rural Development**

Count

		Formulation process of National Policy on Rural Development					
		Not Involved	Partially Involved	Indifferent	Involved	Strongly Involved	Total
Local Government	Not Involved	26	2	0	3	0	31
	Partially Involved	22	20	8	4	4	58
	Indifferent	3	14	9	8	4	38
	Involved	15	26	11	35	28	115
	Strongly Involved	13	21	15	33	42	124
Total		79	83	43	83	78	366

*Source: Field Study 2021*

**Table 4.40 Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	135.062 <sup>a</sup>	16	.000
N of Valid Cases	366		

Table 4.40 shows the Local Governments involved in the formulation process of National Policy on Rural Development since the p-value = 0.000 < 0.05). Hence, the null hypothesis rejected.

## Hypothesis Two

Ho2: Local Governments does not involve in the Implementation process of the National Policy on Rural Development.

Level of significance,  $\alpha = 5\%$

Decision rule: Reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) only if the p-value is less than the level of significance ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

Test statistic: Chi Square Test.

**Table 4.41 Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	135.062 <sup>a</sup>	16	.000
N of Valid Cases	366		

a. 2 cells (8.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.64.

Table 4.41 shows the Local Governments involved in implementation process of National Policy on Rural Development since p-value = 0.000 < 0.05. Hence, the null hypothesis rejected.

## Hypothesis Three

Ho3: Local Governments does not involve in Evaluation process of the National Policy on Rural Development.

Level of significance,  $\alpha = 5\%$

Decision rule: Reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) only if the p-value is less that the level of significance ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

Test statistic: Chi Square Test.

**Table 4.42 Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	278.332 <sup>a</sup>	80	.000
Likelihood Ratio	282.786	80	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	97.944	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	366		

a. 76 cells (72.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .17.

Table 4.42 shows the Local Governments involves in Evaluation process of National Policy on Rural Development since  $p\text{-value} = 0.000 < 0.05$ . Hence, the null hypothesis rejected

### 4.3 Results and Discussion of Findings

The following are references for analysis and discussion of findings:

- i. Primary data generated from responses to the questionnaires
- ii. The Secondary data obtained from the various *programmes' Supervisory Agencies* in Oyo State (in relation to adopted performance indicators)
- iii. The results of hypotheses testing
- iv. The research questions and objectives
- v. The findings of other related studies
- vi. The data relating to responses of the Samples of various departments to *selected focal questions* (in the questionnaire)

### 4.3.1 Public Policy in Governance

Finding from the study confirms the relevance of public policy in governance. Each programme intends to achieve a specific policy objective in relation to the broader aim of improving rural wellbeing. Each program design focuses on achieving the three core stages of policy process: formulation, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. Relevant actors at various tiers of government participated. The results of the test of the three hypotheses confirms that the Oyo State LGs personnel are involved in the policy processes<sup>1</sup>. In addition, the preference of the study is the *Effectiveness* of the programs, with a focus on *Accessibility* of the targeted beneficiaries (rural dwellers or grassroots people) *as an indicator of policy performance*. Therefore, we can posit that there are policy achievements<sup>2</sup>. However, there are findings and conclusions from other studies that confirm the findings, though, their opinions reflect the indicator focussed upon by the various researchers and the nature of the involvement and perspective of the samples of their studies. For instance, 56.0% indicate they are involved, while 36.4% indicate they are not involved in proffering public policies as a means of action. 53.8% of sample respondents indicate that they are involved, while 34.7% indicate that they are not involve in the mode of implementation of policies and programmes. In contrast, 42.9% indicate that they are involved, while 45.4% indicate that they are not involve in identifying the discrepancies between policy expected and actual outcomes.

The finding of a study on the role of good governance and development administration in National development shows that Public policy and public governance are interrelated, because while public policy is an instrument of public governance, its achievement depends on the extent of effective application of good governance. Effective public governance can result in a higher standard of living, which can facilitate active citizens' political participation to achieve good governance<sup>3</sup>.

Also, it is referred to as the instrument for developing an economic-social system and a mechanism for future development projection<sup>4</sup>. Where public policies are effectively implemented it serves as a catalyst for change and improvement in the lives of people<sup>5</sup>.

In developing countries, Nigeria for instance, improperly planned and implemented public policies are causes of ineffective public governance, which is the root of underdevelopment<sup>6</sup>.

Furthermore, public policy is the key determinant of the efficacy of public governance, because it enhances the designing of realistic and sustainable solutions to governmental issues<sup>7</sup>.

It is a technological and social tool meant to implement the social contract between the state and people as indicated in its objectives and strategies. It is also adduced that public policy is central to public governance and impacts on all tiers of governance<sup>8</sup>. However, its effect is more on the local governments that are close to the grassroots because it facilitates the achievement of the three concepts of good governance: accountability, transparency and citizen participation<sup>9</sup>.

Another view affirms that the means and processes determine policy implementation and performance, therefore, public governance as an implementation instrument affects policy implementation and performance<sup>10</sup>.

In addition, although there are cases of conflicting public policy and policy governance in both developed and developing countries, it is more prevalent in developing countries especially in Africa<sup>11</sup>. Specifically, as rightly observed, in countries like Nigeria, the performance of public governance has not been impressive due to failed public policies, as evident in the inability to provide life-enhancing services and a fall in the standard of living<sup>12</sup>. Most public policies over the years in Nigeria, though well-formulated, have challenges of effective implementation<sup>11</sup>.

In another study to underpin the place of public policy in governance process it was adduced that public policies are usually formulated to establish the legitimacy of the political regime. Such policies are implemented to provide tangible evidence of improving the standard of living, although they may suffer poor implementation<sup>13</sup>. This view may confirm that the main challenge of the development of less developed countries like Nigeria is an ineffective implementation of plans, programmes and projects.

#### **4.3.2 Local Governments as a Tier of Government in Public Policy Processes**

In decentralisation by devolution, the relevance of local government in national public policy processes cannot be underestimated. Results of the study show that local governments of Oyo State are involved in the policy processes relating to the five national programmes considered in this study. The result of the three hypotheses tested confirms the involvement of local governments' personnel. Result confirms that 54.4% indicates that they are involved, while 38.8 % indicates that they are not involve in the process of identifying existing and new organisations that could be involved in implementation. In addition, 57.1% indicates that they need more involvement, while 36.9 % indicates that they are not of the view that local governments need more involvement in future national public policy processes<sup>1</sup>. Furthermore, while the finding confirms the relevance of local governments as an institution of government at the grassroots in national policy processes, opinions and findings of other related studies vary. The divergence reflects performance indicators apply in each study.

As posited, the local governments in Nigeria are instituted to serve as the grassroots organ, for facilitating integrated rural development programs that can address the poor quality of lives<sup>14</sup>. They are the engines of national development because development is growth within. The state of development at the local level is a key determinant of national development<sup>15</sup>.

The finding in a study to determine whether the devolution of provision of health and education service to the sub-national government improve outcomes shows that, not only that the outcomes are positive, but there is a need for stronger autonomy to strengthen the decentralized structure for effectiveness<sup>16</sup>. Also, the result of a study to examine the role of LGs in rural development in Lafia Local Government area over a period of 2015 to 2019 confirms the hypothesis that, there is a significant contribution of local government to the development of rural areas<sup>17</sup>.

Furthermore, in another study to examine the role of local government in community development in Nsukka Local Government Area of Enugu State, Nigeria; the result indicates that, the local government performs in the support of community development projects as part of their responsibility toward effective community development needs<sup>18</sup>.

In the same vein, the conclusion of a study to examine the impact of local government administration on rural development and its impediments in Ogba/Egbema/Ndoni local government council, in Rivers State, after analysis of impactful projects executed by successive administration in the area between 2011 – 2020, finding confirms the assumption that the essence for establishing the third tier is principally to bring development to the grassroots in every state of the federation<sup>19</sup>.

In a study on how the fiscal decentralization influenced the quality of life in Sub-Saharan Africa, by adapting the World Bank decentralization tool kit, the conclusion from empirical evidence from the Eastern region of Nigeria indicate that apart from reducing the pressure on the central government, one key benefit of decentralization is that it facilitates more effective response to the felt-need of the rapidly growing population especially in rural areas as provided in the constitution<sup>20</sup>.

The Nigerian Federal Government and few other countries like Brazil are those that have upgraded the status of local government to the third tier of government with distinct power and responsibilities<sup>21</sup>. Local government system is desirable in developing larger states like Nigeria

because the centralized states are usually expensive to run, they are cumbersome in operation, inflexible in accommodating the diversity, and are subject to being abused by the dominant groups<sup>22</sup>. Very relevant to this is the constitutional principle of federal supremacy in Nigeria in which the federal government is expected to influence the overall direction in policy processes from the formulation stage to the implementation and final evaluation stages<sup>23</sup>. This practice erodes the autonomy and effectiveness of local councils in national policy processes in particular and governance in general.

#### **4.3.3 Effect of Local Governments on Performance of National Rural Development Programs**

**FADAMA:** According to the primary data, 42.3%, 50.0 %, and 7.69% of the sample confirm they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in proffering public policy as means of action. Also, 56.25%, 37.5%, and 6,25% of the respondents agree that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining means of action as considered desirable and feasible by the various actors. 45.3%, 45.3%, 9.38% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in identifying visible and consequent political costs associated with each policy option. In determining the policy option that is being adopted, the data shows that 46.03%, 46.03%, and 7.94% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively. In addition, 60.32%, 36.51%, and 3.17% indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in identifying the mode of implementation of the policy/programme. About 41.39%, 44.41%, and 14.29% confirm that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in determining the adequacy of resources for policy/programme implementation. In a similar question, to determine the extent to which the policy has addressed the problem, 51.56%, 37.5%, 10.84%, agree that they are involved, not involved, and indifferent respectively. About 45.90%, 42.62%, 11.48%, indicate they are involved, not involved, and indifferent respectively, in advancing more involvement of local government in national public policy processes<sup>24</sup>.

Although the result of hypotheses testing based on general primary data indicates the involvement of the Agriculture department of the study's local government areas, in national rural development public policy processes, however, the result of responses to focal questions and secondary data on performances of the programme indicate moderate effect on performances of the programmes<sup>25</sup>. There are similar findings of related studies.

In an attempt to investigate the impact of FADAMA on beneficiaries, a study was conducted to analyse the Poverty Status of both Fadama II and non- Fadama II beneficiaries in rural Oyo State, Southwestern Nigeria. The findings show higher poverty indicators among non-beneficiaries than beneficiaries, hence, the need to extend the programme to non-benefitting communities as a poverty alleviation programme<sup>26</sup>. Another attempt was made to appraise the FADAMA II Policy's benefits and challenges in Nigeria. Findings reveal that the project which was implemented in 18 states including Adamawa, Bauchi, Gombe, FCT, Imo, Kaduna, Kebbi, Lagos, Niger, Ogun, Oyo and Taraba; is highly beneficial and empowering. By mid-term, it has increased by about 25% the income of an estimated 2.3 million Fadama households, created about 126, 000 permanent jobs, and more than \$40.8 million savings were generated by the participating states<sup>27</sup>.

Similarly, finding of a study to examine the economic impact of Fadama-II on poverty reduction and food security among farmers in Geidam local government of Yobe State, Nigeria, shows that the project has a positive impact on poverty reduction, despite technical, institutional, and economic problems<sup>28</sup>. As corroboration, finding on study to examine the sustenance of the Fadama III agricultural project in the Niger Delta area of Nigeria Since the withdrawal of World Bank's assistance to Nigeria indicates high performance in terms of increase in household instruments, mobility equipment, farm inputs, farm yield, financial capital and land acquisition<sup>29</sup>.

**Community Development:** 60.0%, 33.3%, and 6.67% indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in proffering public policy as a means of action. Similarly, 60.0%, 6.7%, and 33.3% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in determining means of action as considered desirable and feasible by the various actors. 46.66%, 46.66%, and 6.66% confirm they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in identifying visibility and consequent political costs associated with each policy option. Also, 50.0%, 43.75%, 6.25% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the policy option that is being adopted. 50.0%, 31.25%, and 18.75% indicate that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the mode of implementation of the policy/program. In determining adequacy of resources for policy/program implementation, about 26.67%, 73.33%, and 0% confirm they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively. Similarly, about 37.5%, 56.25%, and 6.25%, are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in determining the extent to which the policy has addressed the problem. However, 64.71%, 35.3%, and 0% indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in proposing more involvement of local government in national public policy processes<sup>24</sup>.

Although the result of hypotheses testing based on general primary data indicates community involvement in national public policy processes in the study of local government areas, however, the result of responses to focal questions and secondary data on performances of the programmes indicates a moderate effect on performances of the projects. There are similar findings in related studies.

Community participation is one major instrument for the effectiveness of community development projects in Nigeria. In a study on community participation and beneficiaries' perceived sustainability of the community and social development projects in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria, the findings indicate that 55.4% respondents highly participated in CSDP, 26.8% participated moderately, while

17.9% shows low participation. The finding infers that the sustainability of CSDP is higher because of community perception of ownership of the projects, as their participation ensures continuous sustainability of the rural development projects<sup>30</sup>.

About 120 youths from three villages were involved in another study to investigate rural youth participation in infrastructural development of the Ibarapa East Local Government area of Oyo State. The results reveal that majority of youths with formal education are involved in infrastructural development of their communities in areas such as, the building of town halls, construction of health centres, schools, markets and roads, due to the desire to improve their communities, reduce rural-urban migration, and to improve their income generation<sup>31</sup>.

In an attempt to examine the effects of Community's participation in community development in Nigeria, the Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Program (LEEMP) beneficiaries, in Benue State, are interrogated in another study. The LEEMP was a community-driven project that adopted methods in which projects are built around the felt needs of the people, through the citizen's mobilization of both human and material resources among themselves. The findings indicate a strong correlation between the level of participation of beneficiaries and the success of the project<sup>32</sup>.

Similarly, finding of a qualitative study to examine the relevance of bottom-up approach to the impact of community participation on projects' success in Africa, reveals how majority of aids from developed countries to Africa in the 1980s and 1990s for development projects but were unsuccessful, due to lack of adoption of bottom-up approach to development in Africa, because many projects were imposed on local communities without their participation and involvement in resource management, as stakeholders and beneficiaries<sup>33</sup>.

**UBE:** 57.0%, 32.63%, and 9.47% indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in proffering public policy as a means of action. Also, 55.80%, 28.4%, and 15.80% are

involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in determining means of action considered desirable and feasible by the various actors. On identifying visibility and consequent political costs associated with each policy option; about 46.79%, 42.39%, and 10.87% confirms they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively. 39.08%, 58.62%, and 2.3% expressed that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in determining the policy option that is being adopted. In determining how achievable and implementable the policy/program is, about 46.74%, 42.39%, and 10.87%, indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent, respectively. In the same vein, 45.26%, 43.16%, and 11.58% are involved, not involve, and indifferent, respectively in determining the adequacy of resources for policy/program implementation. 54.74%, 34.74%, and 10.53% indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in determining the extent to which the policy has addressed the problem. In proposing more involvement of local government in national public policy processes, about 60.63%, 35.11%, and 4.26% respectively confirm they are involved, not involve, and indifferent, respectively<sup>24</sup>.

Secondary data for UBE was categorized into two by the supervisory agency, Oyo State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB); Basic 1-6 (Primary) and Basic 7-9 (Junior Secondary). While the data for primary covers the year 2011-2020, Junior Secondary covers the year 2015-2020. The lowest enrolment year for primary is the 2011/2012 academic session with 284,228 students' enrolment, while the highest is 599,987 students enrolment in the year 2020/2021 academic session. Also, the least single local government enrolment is 19,067 from Ibarapa North local government in the year 2010/2011 academic session, while the highest single local government enrolment is 72,549 from Oriire local government in the year 2020/2021 academic session. Similarly, the lowest enrolment year for Junior Secondary is 2017/2018 with 43,877 total students' enrolment, while the highest is the 2019/2020 session with 57,835 students' enrolment. Also, the least single local government secondary enrolment is 1,612 enrolments from Itesiwaju local government in the year 2016/2017

academic session, while the highest enrolment is 14,577 enrolments in the year 2019/2020 session from Egbeda local government<sup>25</sup>. Generally, the result shows positive improvement throughout the study years. Therefore, we can conclude that by the results of hypotheses testing, based on general primary data, the Education department involves in national public policy processes. However, while results on responses to focal questions reveal moderate involvement, the finding base on secondary data also indicates that involvement impact strongly on performance. The conclusion can be correlated with the findings of the following related studies:

A study was conducted to investigate the impact of the UBE programme on social, cultural and political development in Nigeria compared to the former UPE programme. Findings reveal that there is an improvement in UBE in terms of infrastructure and funding, and contributes more to national development, however, lack of transparency in the disbursement of UBE funds constrains its operation<sup>34</sup>.

Similar to this is another finding on the role of education on national development with focus on UBE in Nigeria. The findings confirm that the UBE programme, significantly aided in rural and national development in terms of quality education, employment, reducing indiscipline, minimizing gender imbalance, and poverty reduction. However, hindrances include inadequate funding, inaccurate data, poor monitoring, poor public enlightenment, and insufficient competent personnel<sup>35</sup>.

The need to reposition UBE for global competitiveness is the focus of another study. The finding identifies the following implementation hindrances; quota policy, resources, intergovernmental communication, and inefficient implementing agencies<sup>36</sup>.

Furthermore, an analysis of UBE policy implementation strategies for effectiveness is the objective of another investigation. Finding confirms that the policy and strategies as contained in the document are good, but the implementation is weak<sup>37</sup>.

Predictor of policy performance is very central in policy implementation and this is the focus of a study which examines the effects of school facilities in public junior schools in the Ibadan South West Local Government area of Oyo State. The finding shows that school facilities are basic predictors of enrollment into JSS1, but over-stretched due to over-enrolment. Thus, it remains a serious constraint to policy performance<sup>38</sup>.

Similarly, system management was examined as another predictor of achieving the goals of UBE in Oyo state. The finding of the study indicates a moderate level of system management in terms of planning and supervision in relation to facilities<sup>39</sup>.

**WASH:** Access to water and sanitation is another rural development program considered. Findings from responses to focal questions posed to samples indicate that 57.77%, 37.68%, and 4.35% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively on proffering public policy as a means of action. 57.56%, 33.33%, and 9.09% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining means of action as considered desirable and feasible by the various actors. Also, 37.88%, 56.1%, and 6.1% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in identifying visibility and consequent political costs associated with each option. Similarly, 35.29%, 61.76%, and 2.94% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the policy option that is being adopted. In addition, 51.47%, 32.35%, and 5.88% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the mode of implementation of the policy/program. While 36.36%, 40.0%, and 2.0% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the adequacy of resources for policy/program implementation; in respect of determining the extent to which the program has addressed the problem, 44.29%, 52.9%, and 2.9% indicate that they are involved, not involved, and indifferent respectively. In proposing more involvement of local government in national policy processes, 59.42%, 31.9%, and 8.69% indicate that they are involved, not involved, and indifferent respectively<sup>1</sup>.

Finding from secondary data on sanitation from the supervisory agency reveals that, there is no available data neither from the sample local governments nor the supervisory agency on the implementation and performance of the program, which supposed to be the third stage of the policy process, except two local governments. The reports cover only two and one years respectively which is 20% and 10% respectively of years under study. We can deduce that unavailable data confirms why responses to 50% of focal questions indicate partial involvement, and why others are moderate.

Also, the data on water indicates that there is no clear strategy and the program was poorly implemented in few local governments with few boreholes.

Therefore, while result of hypotheses based on general primary data indicates that local government including the environment department involves in policy processes, the result on responses to focal questions in relation to secondary data indicates poor involvement and poor performance. There are various perspectives to this in relation to findings from other studies<sup>25</sup>.

In a study to assess the level at which stakeholders adopt and implement sustainable cost-effective and environment-friendly management options for water resources in selected rural areas of Oyo state, Nigeria, the findings include; that water supply management in Nigeria and Oyo State, in particular, is constrained with a lot of problems, the adequacy of water in rural areas is very low despite the year 2000 National Water Supply and Sanitation Policy's provision that government shall sponsor capital investments for rural water supply, ineffective structure to implement policies, and worse is the inefficient bureaucracies in the Oyo State Ministry of Environment, Water Resources and the State's Water Corporation<sup>40</sup>.

In order to provide a more reliable data that is required for policy formulation, planning and monitoring of the WASH program in Nigeria, a survey was conducted in 2019. The findings in WASH II reveal poor performance in relation to SDG targets of 6.1 and 6.2 by 2030. About 14% of

the population has access to safely managed drinking water supply services, while about 171 million people are off the SDG target; 44% of the population has access to basic sanitation services in 2019 in contrast to 42% in 2018, 16% of the population has basic hygiene services in 2019 in contrast to 21% in 2018<sup>41</sup>.

Findings in a World Bank's report on Water Supply, Sanitation, and Hygiene in Nigeria, show that Nigeria underperforms in relation to both African and global averages considering most water utility indicators and water infrastructures such as staff productivity, total consumption, service continuity, and cost recovery. An assessment of the performance of Nigerian water agencies in 2011 - 2015, reveals a deficiency in a technical capacity for exploration, operation, and management of surface and groundwater. These include poor knowledge of the Nigerian geological terrain, inadequate infrastructural facilities, non functional water pumps and an inefficient legislative body to guide the process<sup>42</sup>.

In the study to evaluate the impact of Nigerian policy trend and practices on Water Supply and Sanitation Services, the finding shows that the citizens' access to water supply and sanitation facilities is low, there is a lack of political will to address the constraints, and sanitation policies are ad hoc responses to emergencies and international pressures<sup>43</sup>.

There was also an attempt to examine the inequalities in access to water and sanitation in rural settlements using Apa, Ikoga, Ibeshe, Itori, Eruwa, and Lanlate, Oyo State, Southwest Nigeria, which happens to be part of the study area. The result indicates a poor sanitary condition in the study area; demographic, environmental and water source determines access; about 50.8% depends on borehole for water; while 48.1% of the households have access to improved sanitation<sup>44</sup>.

Similarly, the finding of a study on promoting WASH intervention in rural settlements using Agele and Mogba Communities of Ibarapa-East Local Government, which are areas of study reveals that,

the lack of modern toilet facilities is responsible for the high rate of open defecation in rural communities due to poverty and inadequate government support<sup>45</sup>.

To corroborate the above, finding of a cross-sectional survey to examine the household WASH facilities in remote villages in Southwestern, Nigeria, reveals that 95.7% of the sample practices open defecation when they are not within the vicinity of their household latrines, 90% depend on pit latrine with slab, while 10% shared facilities with other households<sup>46</sup>.

Findings from other states are not impressive as well. In a study to examine the state of sanitation facilities and hygiene behaviour in a semi-urban community in Rivers State, South-South Nigeria, the findings of the study revealed that, access to sanitation facilities and hand washing behaviour in the study community were poor; due to no provision for space, children are restricted in making use of available latrines, children excrement are regularly dumped into sanitation facility with faeces around the compound<sup>47</sup>.

Also, access to sanitation facilities in Nigeria was examined. The finding of the survey indicates that there is a decline in access to improved sanitation facilities from 36.0% in 1995 to 32.2% in 2005, and about 29.0% in 2015. About 44.2% of households depend on pit latrines, 10.3% flush to septic tanks, and 5.3% of sample links their toilets to sewer systems. In addition, the result shows that socio-economic determinants influence the choice of sanitary facilities by respondents, like; education, wealth status, family size, gender and electricity etc<sup>48</sup>.

**MCHCP:** 52.94%, 44.12%, and 2.94% indicate that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in proffering public policy as means of action. 51.35%, 37.84%, and 10.81% confirm that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in identifying means of action as considered desirable and feasible by various actors concerning maternal and child care. 44.9%, 52.7%, and 2.78% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in identifying visibility and

political costs associated with each option. Also, 41.18%, 44.12%, and 14.71% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the policy option that is being adopted. In addition, 47.1%, 41.13%, and 11.77% indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the mode of implementing the policy/program. In respect of the process of determining the adequacy of resources for maternal and child care policy/program implementation, about 56.76%, 37.64%, and 5.41% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively. Also, 47.2%, 44.4%, and 5.3% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in determining the extent to which the policy has addressed the problem. Above all, 43.2%, 51.35%, and 5.41% indicate they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in advancing more involvement of local government in national public policy processes<sup>24</sup>.

Secondary data from the supervisory agency, Oyo State Primary Health Care Board covers the years 2016-2020. Findings indicate the total of 48,481 beneficiaries' accessed maternal and child health care within the study years in all the sample local governments, with the highest access of 11,775 in the year 2018, and the lowest access of 6,148 in the year 2016. In addition, the lowest access in a single local government is 68 beneficiaries in the year 2016 from Ibarapa North local government, while the highest single local government access is 4,507 in 2018 from Atiba local government<sup>25</sup>. Findings of the study indicate steady positive improvement in access to maternal health and child care in Oyo state in the years under review.

Therefore, we can conclude that, results of the hypotheses based on general primary data reveal the involvement of health officials of sample local governments in national public policy processes. Responses to focal questions indicate moderate involvement in respect to maternal and child care, while the finding from secondary data indicates the moderate effect of involvement on performance. Findings from other related studies reveal divergent conclusions.

In a study to evaluate the performance of the primary health care system in Nigeria, using the primary health care performance indicators, the findings show that despite the availability of significant PHC centres, reasonable geographic access to PHC, and relatively high availability of health workers, when compared with peer African countries; Nigeria ranks relatively low on nearly all PHC performance indicators, due to Segmented supply chains, lack of financial access to PHC, poor infrastructure and equipment, insufficient drugs and vaccines, and poor service delivery<sup>49</sup>.

Another program that was promoted to service maternal and child care is the Midwives Service Scheme (MSS), which was established by the Federal Government of Nigeria in 2009. Finding from a study, using the multi-stage sampling procedure, to examine its perceived effectiveness among beneficiaries in Oyo State, Nigeria, shows that the sample beneficiaries perceived the MSS to be effective in Oyo state, despite the constraints of erratic power supply and access to ambulances<sup>50</sup>. Similarly, another result on MSS corroborates that the scheme had the potential to reduce the challenges of maternal and child health care in Nigeria, like reduction in child mortality<sup>51</sup>.

Aside of MSS, the antenatal care centre is another service meant to strengthen maternal and child care programmes. The conclusion of a study to assess the utilization of antenatal care centres among childbearing women in Ibadan North Local Government Area, Oyo State, Nigeria, reveals that, as a result of the combination of socio-economic and demographic variables, utilization was low, which results into high mortality and morbidity rate in the state<sup>52</sup>.

Furthermore, the assessment of emergency obstetric care services also reveals reservations. Finding of a cross-sectional study to assess the availability and accessibility of emergency obstetric care services in the Ibadan-Ibarapa health zone, Oyo State, shows comprehensive emergency obstetric care (CEmOC) facilities, but inadequate basic emergency obstetric care (BEmOC) facilities, adequate secondary health care facilities, but utilization of EmOC services below the recommended UN

guideline. Also, facilities are clustered around Ibadan Metropolis with inadequate facilities in rural settlements<sup>53</sup>.

The perception of beneficiaries on the quality of services rendered by Primary Healthcare Centres (PHCs) in Oyo state, Nigeria, is the focus of another study. The result indicates that the perception differs across locations. The proportion of clinic patrons in rural areas that indicated inaccessibility to the following services are; expanded programmes on immunization (60.9%), maternal and child health (70.7%), nutrition (60.9%) and treatment of communicable diseases (73.2%)<sup>54</sup>.

For reference at the national level, there was a study to investigate the status and trends in key maternal and child health interventions and outcomes within the years 2000–2013 across the state. The finding reveals that there is progress in some indicators. However, Nigeria's general levels of intervention coverage remained relatively low especially in under-5 mortality, malaria intervention, immunization coverage and maternal care<sup>55</sup>.

**Rural Electrification:** The results of responses to focal questions show that 66.20%, 25.35%, and 8.45% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in proffering public policy as means of action. Also, 74.07%, 18.52%, and 7.41% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in considering means of action as considered desirable and feasible by various actors. 54.12%, 30.5%, and 15.3% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in identifying visibility and consequent political cost associated with each policy option. More importantly, 66.49%, 27.16%, and 12.34% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the direction of the policy adoption process. While 54.32%, 29.63%, and 16.06% are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively, in deciding the mode of implementation of the policy/program; 46.34%, 13.42%, and 40.24% indicate that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in determining the adequacy of resources for implementation. On determining the extent to which the

policy has addressed the problem 42.9%, 30.95%, and 26.2% indicate that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively. Moreover, 58.67%, 24.32%, and 9.33% indicate that they are involved, not involve, and indifferent respectively in proposing more involvement of local government in national public policy processes.

The goal of Rural Electrification in Nigeria is to increase access to 75% and 90% by 2020 and 2030 respectively and at least 10% of renewable energy mix by 2025 as contained in the National Electric Power Policy (NEPP) of 2001 and the Rural Electrification Policy of 2005 respectively<sup>56</sup>. The finding from Secondary data shows that five of the ten (50%) sample local governments are covered by activities of the Oyo State rural electrification board, for two years only out of the years of the study; 2010 -2020. The data does not reveal the coverage in terms of cost, ratio, percentage and quality of spread within the affected local governments<sup>56</sup>.

Therefore, in line with the performance indicator adopted in the study, and the available secondary data from the supervisory agency, we can conclude that hypotheses testing confirm the involvement of the Works department at the three stages of the policy process concerning the national rural electrification program. However, while the result of responses to focal questions on primary data indicates moderate involvement, secondary data indicates that involvement impacts poorly on policy/programme performance.

There are different opinions in respect of the state of rural electrification in Nigeria as reflected in the findings of various related studies. In a study to investigate the effect of Oyo State Rural Electrification on household welfare indicators such as monthly income and per capita expenditure; the findings of the study show that Expenditure and Access to grid electricity has a positive impact on income but on the contrary, electricity supply remains grossly inadequate to meet the required

demand, because the current rate of electricity supply in Nigeria fluctuates between 3,500 MW to 4,000 MW<sup>57</sup>.

In a similar study to evaluate rural electrification in Nigeria, using the Ibogun community as a case study, the findings include; that Rural electrification (RE) has not been effectively pursued in Nigeria, especially due to insufficient funding of RE infrastructure, no diligent assessment of the current situation of RE of many Nigerian communities even with the deregulation of the electricity sector, it impacted negatively on residents' businesses and communication because almost 70% of the residents were affected by poor electricity supply, and that residents perception of government role in electricity supply is considered marginal<sup>58</sup>.

Also in Ekiti, a study to evaluate the relevance of rural electrification on households' poverty using Ikole Local Government Area as a case study reveals that access to electricity reduces the poverty incidence among households living in electrified communities. Thus, households in non-electrified communities were poorer than their counterpart in electrified communities because, the rural areas in Nigeria suffer neglect and inadequate rural infrastructural development. Also, households living in non-electrified communities spend more on alternative sources of energy than their counterpart in electrified communities<sup>59</sup>.

In an attempt to investigate the potential impacts of the Nigerian government's rural electrification fund on the development of rural communities, using a gender-aware modelling approach to assess the policy's differential impacts on men's and women's employment and income, the findings show that expanding the supply of electricity through the government programme increases development and gender empowerment in rural communities<sup>60</sup>.

However, effort to identify the appropriate least-cost electrification supply mode (grid, mini-grid and/or off-grid) and attempt to determine cost estimates for achieving universal energy access in

Nigeria by 2030 is another focus. The findings reveal that about 50% of the people in about 50% of states in Nigeria do not have access to electricity. Lack of access to electricity especially in the rural areas is due to lack of executable electrification plans, and since electricity is now privatized; electricity expansion plans are concentrated on areas already covered by the grid or close to the grid for investment convenience<sup>61</sup>.

#### 4.3.4 Challenges of the Local Governments

Despite the fact that LGs in Nigeria are constitutionally recognized and statutorily responsibilities are specified, there are challenges hindering their efficiency and effective service delivery. The following are identified in this study:

**Inadequate Data:** Availability of data is central to policy formulation, implementation and evaluation. However, unavailable, inadequate and unreliable data prevalent in most local governments constrain effective policy performance evaluation in study areas in particular and Nigeria in general. This hinders the adoption of other indicators in evaluating the policy performance aside effectiveness based on the Accessibility indicator. From the result of this study, it is more prevalent in the WASH program and rural electrification programmes. The finding of a study on Public Policy implementation challenges in Nigeria reveals that, inadequate and poor data are responsible for adequate planning and projection difficulties, which affect expected outcomes, needs and equipment provision by the government<sup>5</sup>.

**Human Resource Constraints:** Personnel are the driver of public policy processes. Findings of the study indicate that personnel are inadequate, some inefficient, and unevenly spread in terms of status among local councils, especially in the environmental health departments. This affects the degree and quality of participation in the processes and data collection by each local government, as reflected in responses to focal questions. In Oyo State, Local government development areas (LCDA) were

carved from existing local government by the state Legislative Assembly without additional personnel, which critically affects the capability of both the mother councils and development areas in discharging their responsibilities.

In a study of the utilization of personnel in Nigeria's local governments, findings reveal that, the inefficient and ineffective manpower to initiate and sustain the grassroots development, equally affects national development. It includes low pay, poor incentives and motivation, and disparity between the state and local government staff. Others are; low executive capacity due to unavailable or inadequate specialists, technicians, and engineers. Also, state political interference and neglect of meritocracy for political patronage militates against local government efficiency<sup>62</sup>.

Furthermore, findings on examination of Staffing in the Nigerian Local Government system indicate that poor selection of staff for recruitment, training and inadequate training needs assessment hinder the effective realisation of local government objectives. In addition, staffing is affected by favouritism, political interference by politicians and political heads of councils, which have negative consequential effects on human resource competence, capability, quality decisions and service delivery<sup>63</sup>.

Studies on how personnel constitute challenges to Nigeria's local government show that though, Local government in Nigeria has the authority to deploy his personnel efficiently and effectively towards achieving the developmental needs at the local level, it fails to deliver due to ineffective personnel policies, unclear job description, lack of developmental orientation and innovation, and over staffing in units that are not critical<sup>64</sup>.

Furthermore, finding on the effect of over-recruitment and accumulation of unskilled employees on the efficiency of local governments indicates that more competent specialized personnel prefers the

private sector or higher tiers of government due to issues of esteem caused by disparity, job satisfaction, and poor motivation<sup>65</sup>.

In the same vein, the study on how employees' attitude to work affects their performance by examining the implications of negative work ethics on productivity in the Local Government System in Nigeria corroborates the above. The findings show that, local government employees' attitude to work is characterized by such factors as corruption, lateness to duty, lack of dedication to duty, insubordination, indiscipline and dereliction of duty, which militates against higher productivity required for rural development<sup>66</sup>.

**Inadequate Funding:** Funding of national rural development projects are usually a top-bottom process in Nigeria and this is not without its consequences. Local governments are not in control of finance, which in most cases is not sufficient, not available or inappropriately prioritized. To worsen the situation, the state of local government finances due to effects of poor IGR and state – local governments' joint account, weakens funding support of each local government for national programmes; and in most cases, hinders implementation logistics in rural areas. The consequence is that projects are either abandon or implemented as it appears.

The undue interference of the state government in local government financial autonomy is another challenge. Findings of a related study reveal that states manipulate the State/local government joint account to undermine local government financial autonomy<sup>67</sup>. In effect; it hinders effective and efficient service delivery at the local level, and ties local governments to the state control. Therefore, inadequate finance hinders the implementation of various rural developmental programmes due to mismanagement of joint accounts, diversion of funds for election campaign and phony projects<sup>68</sup>.

Also, it has been established that there is an interrelationship between financial autonomy and the acceleration of rural development. In a cross-sectional survey on the stakeholder's perspective on the

effect of financial autonomy on rural development in Ogun State, Nigeria, the result confirms that the diversion of joint accounts affects local government financial autonomy and funding of rural development projects<sup>69</sup>.

Furthermore, evaluation of various patterns of interference in the local government autonomy by the state governments and their effects on the capacity for service delivery of local governments and implications for national development show that, other higher tiers of government interfere in the financial autonomy of local governments. Also, it frustrates the ability of local governments in initiating and executing development programmes or projects<sup>6</sup>. Another submission on local government autonomy reiterates that the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria created fundamental contradictions, being exploited by other higher tiers at the detriment of local governments, which negatively affects the performance of local government in terms of its constitutional responsibilities<sup>70</sup>.

However, another perspective to the issue of inadequate funds of local government and challenges of revenue generation reveal that, the poor performance of local governments stem from poor finances, due to inadequate revenue generation drive. Also, local Governments lack aggressive revenue collection to augment their monthly allocations from the federation account, which is often aggravated by the dishonesty of the council revenue collectors, who in most cases, divert and misappropriate collections made on behalf of the council<sup>71</sup>.

Finding of the study on the relationship between revenue generation and service delivery in Ibarapa Central Local Government, Igboora, Oyo State (2010–2014) stresses further that the statutory allocations from the federation account represents 52.5% of local government revenue, with 51% of expenditure profile on recurrent expenses. Hence, little can be done on social services, development projects and infrastructure, to improve the standard of living of the grassroots people<sup>72</sup>.

Also, in a similar study of the effect of internally generated revenue on the development of Local Governments in Kaduna State, with a focus on Chikum Local Government, the finding indicates that poor internally generated revenue hinders effective and efficient local government administration and development in most states across the Country<sup>73</sup>.

The study on the challenges and way forward for local government and development concludes that local governments in Nigeria are contented with the federal and state allocations, thus, doing little to explore other internal sources of revenue generation to execute the implementation of rural projects<sup>74</sup>.

Also relevant is the analysis of the impact of internally generated revenue on the performance of LGs in Rivers State based on data from the financial statement of the Council from 2006 to 2013. The finding reveals that, Local Government underperforms due to poor internally generated revenue caused by poor tax remittances, corruption inherent in the system, and lack of effective bye-laws that can improve revenue generation<sup>75</sup>.

**Official Corruption:** Corruption perverts the planning and implementation process. Local government is one of the institutions in Nigeria enmeshed in official corruption in form of misappropriation, outright embezzlement, substandard projects and locating projects as political patronage in low-impact areas. While the other tiers of government cannot be absolved from mismanagement of funds voted for project planning and implementations, local government officials on their part either directly collaborate or indirectly divert funds earmarked for local operations.

Examination of the issue of corruption in Nigerian local government administration also reveals that corruption is one of the problems impeding effective local government administration in Nigeria, and further, it points at financial recklessness in local government councils as reason for deprivation of basic amenities and lack of trust in government by the people<sup>76</sup>.

In addition, a critical study of the effect of corruption on grassroots democracy and development in Nigeria confirms that corruption is widespread among heads of local government in Nigeria and this destroys democratic values, subverts the rule of law and hinders grassroots development<sup>77</sup>.

Moreover, other identified challenges of corruption in local government Administration in Nigeria include; inflation of procurement estimate and cost of projects, the 'ghost worker syndrome', award of contracts to sub-standard organisation and abandoning of contracts after mobilising, and lack of accountability<sup>65</sup>.

**Centralizing and Unifying Implementation Strategies:** Autonomy is a critical issue constraining the effectiveness of local governments on one hand and involvement in national public policy processes on the other. Each local government has its own rural towns and villages with its peculiarities. The unified model and one-fix-all national development strategy hinder the local government from evolving creative implementation processes suitable to their respective jurisdiction. While policy statements may be similar, adopting uniform implementation strategies across the country without recourse to individual local specifics and resources militates against quality policy performances in each local government area. Local government autonomy entails administrative, political and financial freedom to plan and implement policy and programs according to their uniqueness. This reflects in the performances of rural electrification, water and sanitation, and agricultural programs in the study LGs.

It has been submitted that, although the Constitution of Nigeria describes the Local Government Council as a public institution of governance in Nigeria, indirectly it did not treat it as part of the federating units. Among the findings of the study on benefits and constitutional Constraints of LGs as a constituent of the Nigerian federation considers Section 7 of the 1999 Constitution as the first impediment to the autonomy, by subjecting them to the State Government's authority. Also, Section

162 (6) of the Constitution empowers each State to maintain a special account, referred to as State-Joint- Local Government Account, where local government councils' allocation from the federation account and state Government 10% are paid. The present arrangement does not guarantee local governments' financial viability because some state governments manipulate it to short-change their local councils<sup>78</sup>.

Also, while appraising the devolution of power to Local Governments under the Nigerian federation, findings indicate that Nigerian constitutional provisions on local governments are responsible for the unhealthy interference of both the federal and states' governments on local government's administration and erosion of autonomy. Thus, the LGs underperform by placing them under the direct control of the state government pursuant to the law of the state house of assembly in respect of the establishment, structure, composition, functions and finances of the LGs<sup>79</sup>.

#### **4.3.5 Implications of the Findings**

The following are the implications of the findings in respect of their effects on the main variables:

**4.3.5.1 Rural Development:** The implication of findings on rural development is that, there is no macro policy on rural development in Nigeria, rather there are micro policies embedded in other related policies and programmes. Also, there is no a holistic coordinating structural institution, established to drive rural development policy processes or programmes. At the federal level and state level, rural development is merged with the Ministry of Agriculture, which is an indication that Nigeria aligns with the misconception that equated rural development with Agricultural development. In addition, those managing the policy processes are either urban or city-based foreign experts or technical officials. The programmes and strategies are nationally unified without consideration for peculiarities. With these structural deficiencies policies and programmes are not contextualised, local

experts are not properly integrated, resources are wasted and policy performance is ineffective at the end.

The scope or description of the term or concept of 'rural areas', varies by country and region. However, the general goal is continuous improvement of wellbeing in rural areas<sup>80</sup>. Rural development refers to strategies designed to advance and uplift the wellbeing of a particular group of people, mostly the rural poor<sup>81</sup>. It facilitates and broadens 'retention, growth, and expansion' in towns and villages that are not urban<sup>82</sup>.

The focus of improvement include; infrastructure, education, health care and medical, employment opportunities, agriculture and farming practices, administration and management, environmental conditions and civic amenities<sup>82</sup>. Rural development goal attainment is a long-term, progressing gradually until the final goals are achieved<sup>83</sup>.

Rural development can be described as both a policy and a process. As a policy, it emanates as a field of policy studies, practice and research, and as a response to 'a new strategy for development planning' being propagated by the World Bank and UN agencies. It is a development approach in which the states in developing countries directly intervene in economies to correct previous development planning approaches. On the other hand, as processes, it refers to 'processes of change' in rural areas in which government actions are merely component<sup>84</sup>.

The following are basic approaches for systematic planning of development programmes; Improvement of economic capabilities, Improvement of human capabilities, Improvement of protective (natural environment) capabilities, and Improvement of political capabilities (decentralization and policy-making)<sup>80</sup>.

However, the conception, strategies, policy and coordination depend on the preferred approach. Generally, development initiatives overtime has gone through three approaches to intervene in the

rural sector. They are; Agricultural green revolution; which is used to describe ‘technology and strategy for agricultural development’ in rural areas. The second is Integrated Rural Development Approach; which emphasizes the state’s coordination of interventions to reduce poverty among the poor. The third is the Basic needs approach; which focuses on the wider redistribution of resources for purpose of providing the basic needs of the poorest of society<sup>84</sup>.

It should be emphasized that the Integrated Rural Development (IRD) remains an approach mostly embraced for rural development by most NGOs as an approach for their projects and programs, for effective co-ordination of planning and rural services by many economists, and by governments; in resolving issues of effective prioritization, co-ordination of interventions due to liberalization, and decentralization of public sector planning. The Integrated rural development approach encompasses various human and material elements relevant to rural development goals and implementation<sup>85</sup>.

It is a top-down approach in which various public services involved in poverty alleviation are combined to implement rural development programs. It integrates multiple sectors and related techniques to facilitate multidisciplinary anti-poverty measures in rural areas, resolving regional problems affecting the poorest groups, and enhancing local participation of people, administrative organizations, and the civil society. It replaces previous national agriculture strategies, which developing countries consider ineffective because it fails to significantly add value to the productivity and incomes of poor rural farmers; and unable to provide employment and incomes for those not engaging in farming<sup>84</sup>.

In Integrated rural development, the following can be combined for planning and coordination: multi-sectoral planning, decentralising planning to the local or regional level, planning for a specific geographical area, and empowering a government institution to co-ordinate and drive rural development initiatives. However, integrated rural development is not without its own deficiencies;

traditional sector-based agencies compete with new coordinating institutions for power and resources, duplication of activities and in most cases the central governments are unwilling to grant autonomy to local level administrations to strengthen decentralization<sup>84</sup>.

Attempt to strengthen integrated rural development motivates propagation of its transformation into the Integral approach, which is not a blueprint, but a process approach to address the rural peculiarities. In line with this re-modelled for rural development activities to be effective, the process must be integral. Therefore, to achieve this, there must be an emphasis on decentralization, community participation, territorial approach, improved environmental and social services, and coordinating mechanisms with strong institutions to take over some of the responsibilities hitherto, under the control of government<sup>86</sup>.

**4.3.5.2 Local Governments:** The implications of the findings on local government involvement in national public policy on rural development are that local governments in Nigeria lack autonomy, which is fundamental in any decentralized federation; and that the national public policy process (rural development) is structurally centralized, thereby weakening local participation with serious consequence on output and evaluation process.

The following are the fundamentals of local governments; possession of distinct legal personality, specified powers and functions, operating with discretions, power to make laws, rules and regulations as required to guide its responsibilities and most important, in managing its policies and bureaucracies<sup>87</sup>.

The autonomy of local communities can be described as the legitimate right of the local communities to manage their own affairs and issues concerning local interests and the future of the community, by their leaders or its elected representatives in line with established relations with higher authority<sup>88</sup>.

Local Government autonomy connotes freedom from undue interference in discretion to mobilize resources to carry out responsibilities in clearly defined areas as prescribed by law<sup>87</sup>.

The extent of autonomy granted by the constitution of each country varies. Moreover, in pluralized developing countries like Nigeria, local government cannot be granted absolute discretion for decision-making without checks and balances<sup>89</sup>. Therefore, in emerging nations, the expectation should be ‘incremental’ or ‘relative’ autonomy and not unchecked ‘absolute’ autonomy, due to the fact that decentralized federation comprised multi-level tiers that are interrelating in governing the same country. This would strengthen local ‘action – not verbal- institutionalization’ for grassroots development<sup>90</sup>.

The extent to which the following basics are addressed in a country’s constitution and its sub-national laws, and the extent to which violations can be challenged in competent court determine the extent of local autonomy<sup>89</sup>:

- 1- The establishment of local government should be enshrined in the Constitution
- 2- Protected from arbitrary boundary alteration or total abolition by the national government.
- 3- Election of the local government’s political leadership by the grassroots people.
- 4- Local governments’ powers and responsibilities must be clearly stated in the constitution or sub-national laws, as well as provision of enabling power to adopt local policies and by-laws.
- 5- Checks and balances to prevent abuse of power of control and supervision by the national or regional governments.
- 6- Discretion in preparing, prioritizing, and adopting its financial budget.

7- Mobilising resources independently for self-sufficiency at the local level with little reliance on the centre.

8- The organisational structure and bureaucracies at the local level as determined by local governments.

A close examination of the Nigerian local government system reveals that, it is a creation of the fourth schedule of the 1999 constitution, stemming from the provision of 1976 local government reform, which officially declared LG as the third tier of government, while the enabling law by respective State House of Assembly specifies its operations<sup>87</sup>.

Furthermore, all the existing local councils in Nigeria today are enlisted in the constitution, thereby making alteration and abolition impossible for the central government. Also, there exist enabling laws to mandate democratic election at the local level in constituting local council leadership. The 1999 constitution clearly states the power and responsibilities of local governments, with provisions empowering the regional governments to provide checks and balances. In addition, local governments prepare their budget but approval resides in the state houses of Assembly. Although it enjoys limited power to generate internal revenue within its jurisdiction; nevertheless, the states local governments service commission recruits, places, transfers, promotes and disciplines the personnel.

Invariably, there are some provisions that hinder the extent of local governments autonomy in Nigeria. This includes; the conduct of election to local councils leadership by the state, establishment of state-local governments joint account, empowering local governments service commission to control local councils bureaucracies, and power to dissolve local councils by state governments with approval of states assembly on financial allegations.

Local governance have been weakened in Nigeria by the state governors who hide under the provisions for oversight; which manifest in their open resistance to financial autonomy granted to

local councils, state legislatures and judiciaries by President Buhari , through Executive Order 10 of 2020.

Local governments can only be effective if efforts are geared toward a functional decentralization; to enhance local participatory democracy, and efficient traditional institutions, and provide grassroots security, and economic empowerment. Furthermore, section 7, 1999 constitution which unifies local government functions, and Schedule 1, which lists the number and names of local governments in each state, negates the local autonomy, principle of decentralization, and accommodation of local peculiarities<sup>91</sup>.

The Nigeria federation entails the autonomy of constituent units. Local autonomy presupposes that local government policies and programs are beneficial to the intended grassroots<sup>92</sup>.

Strong structure and institutions are fundamental to effective governance because they are responsible for rules, regulations and policy processes, otherwise, resources committed would be a waste. Institutions have been classified into inclusive and extractive, on the basis of the extent of political power and economic benefits enjoyed by social groups. While Inclusive institutions facilitate income equality, wider societal empowerment, and equal political opportunity, Extractive on the other hand enables the narrow spread of political power and empowerment of extractive economic institutions. Nevertheless, inclusive institutions are more associated with inclusive economic growth required for the rural areas. From another perspective, institutions are also typified on the basis of the nature of their services into; providers of goods and services, and enabling agencies. Enabling institutions facilitates inclusive transformation by providing policy and legal frameworks that enables the rural poor to access political and economic opportunities, and participation in social processes<sup>93</sup>.

It has been deduced that, it is more suitable for countries to adopt multiple paths to developing strong institutions, than fanatically adopting western norms, donor-sponsored or global best practices that are not context-specific. Contexts are peculiar and varies, thus, it is those experts and bureaucrats in the target local areas' institutions that can effectively drive the local context. Therefore, a strong local structure and Institutions that can manage rural development policies and programs requires: jettisoning dependence on definition and determination of local context by experts from industrialized countries, problem-driven; as determined by affected local areas, and collaborating with other experts in the local institutions for effective national planning and implementation of rural development programmes<sup>94</sup>.

**4.3.5.3 Public Policy:** The findings so far indicate that policies and programmes considered in the study, either lacks a framework and model or the adopted model are poorly applied to the policy analyses and processes, with serious consequences on the orientation of policy Planners/Managers/Entrepreneur. It reveals that the programmes as designed and implemented are in furtherance of the centrality of public policy as an instrument of public governance because each of the programs has specific objectives that will contribute to the achievement of a broader goal of rural development. The finding reveals that it is a state-centred model, structurally centralized and top-down process model with an observed inconsistent framework. There is an established central institution for each programme to coordinate planning, implementation, and evaluation by the federal government, which is responsible for the management of the funds and strategies. The institution, in most cases, either manage the process at all levels or in conjunction with the structure at state levels, and where local governments' personnels are involved, they are more or less engaged as 'ad-hoc' officials for pre-determined responsibilities. This reflects in the quality of data available to determine the degree and quality of performances of each programme. There is no reasonable performance data on WASH, and Rural electrifications, which indicates that, the few activities undertaken by the

government are without conformity to programme designs and strategies. UBE and Maternal health can only provide number of access population usually in public institutions without elaborating on the quality of services. Fadama prescribes one fix strategy and uniform activities across participating states without regard to peculiarities.

All of the above indicate that there are no regard for processes and operational demands of the federation structure and Nigeria's diversities, especially at the grassroots. This has a negative effect on the implementation processes and evaluation.

Decentralisation in the classical sense refers to the transfer of authority, responsibility and resources from the central government to local governments. It stresses the decisive role for the central government and local government<sup>95</sup>.

In the same vein, most governments adopt decentralisation for the purpose of empowering the local population for political, economic, social, management, administration, and technological acquisition. Different countries have their own peculiar decentralised sub-national governments, which facilitate the participation of grassroots people in the planning and management of rural development processes and decision-making<sup>96</sup>.

The conclusion of a study by the World Bank was that, the concern should not be decentralisation in general but identifying what functions to decentralise, required sectors, and desired regions. Also, the emphasis is not supposed to be on whether a certain service should be rendered by a central, regional, or local government, but how to initiate and execute joint production of service by the various levels<sup>97</sup>.

For emphasis, Public policy is described as that policy developed and being implemented by government agency and officials, without excluding the influence of non-state actors and other factors in its process<sup>98</sup>.

Policy analysis is in two parts; Analysis of existing policy, which is the process of analyzing and describing existing policies and their development. The other is the Analysis for new policy, which refers to process of formulating new policies and proposals<sup>99</sup>. However, the two depends on appropriate frame, that can determine specifically, how policy problems are defined, input to be included and those to be excluded from consideration<sup>100</sup>. The policy process is the study of change and development of policy and the related actors, events, and contexts<sup>101</sup>.

Scholars in recent times accord the political characteristic of public policy prominence by stressing that it involves more than a governmental decision<sup>102</sup>. It involves public-private interaction, within the structure of political system by which policy actors influences the policy process. The structure of political system varies between the developed and developing countries. This explains why it is inappropriate to generalize the existing theories or models of public policy in developed countries on the policy making process of developing countries<sup>103</sup>.

The system of government and ideology varies amongst countries and this influences the scope and content of public policies that is suitable for each country. Public policies are usually more encompassing and broad in developing countries because government actions cover nearly all aspects of life of the citizens, due to over dependence on government by the people<sup>98</sup>.

The submission of a study to examine different approaches to public policy posits that, it would not be accurate to rate one theoretical approach over others as the most satisfactory because, all the approaches explain and measure different aspects of policy-making process and each is suitable for different situations. Hence, it is inadequate to fanatically over rely on a particular approach; rather, policy makers should be flexible and creative to harmonize all relevant theories and models that can enhance policy analysis and processes suitable to the achievement of their policy objectives<sup>98</sup>.

However, in line with the position that all the theories, approaches and models are suitable contextually, it is imperative to develop and propose new models that can harmonize and integrate various aspects of the existing ones into one that can accommodate and address peculiarities<sup>104</sup>. Experience has shown that an inwardly focused, ‘business as usual’ approach will fall short of achieving the intended results<sup>100</sup>.

Public policies on rural development in Nigeria desire such a peculiar new model which this study refers to as the Structural-Stages Process Model that can address Nigeria’s policy context, in terms of both the institutional and process requirement. It is such a ‘smart policy/program’ that can attract ‘political legitimacy’ to validate its performance<sup>105</sup>.

**4.3.5.4 Structural-Stages Process Model:** The logic behind this proposed model is that, where a responsibility or function is identified and adopted for necessary actions, a structure must be identified, created or established to drive or implement it, and at the same time there must be an adoption of a peculiar process that can lead to expected outcomes (goal). Also, where the structure is in multiple, layers, or tiers, there must be proper differentiation of authority, power and delineated functions, for easier evaluation. However, there must be ‘shake-of hands’ within the structures or sub-structures for effective coordination and collective performance.

The management of public policy processes is both structural (the organization responsible for decision making) and procedural (the processes or rules of engagement)<sup>106</sup>.

**Structure:** Structuralism is one of the conceptual and methodological approaches for analyzing and framing the public policy processes<sup>107</sup>. Structuralism as a theoretical framework entails four basics; that each system can be described by a structure; the structure determines position of each unit of the components; focusing on relationship, interdependence and coexistence; and that structures are the fundamentals on which other actions depends<sup>108</sup>. Analysts usually prefers structural functionalism for

the purpose of propagating emphasis on efficient outcomes and organisations of public policies<sup>109</sup>. Structural Functional approach deals with macro perspective of coexistence among the structures or institutions of government to ensure societal stability and development<sup>110</sup>.

Public policy sequential processes could be more revealing when analyzing the actions of institutions within the structure of government than adopting individualist approach<sup>111</sup>. The structure represents institutions and pattern of actions; however, effects of patterns of actions describe the functions. Social structures can be concrete and analytic. It is the former when government institutions, agencies and policy community are referred to, while it is the latter if reference is on structure of power or authority involved in the policy processes<sup>112</sup>.

Furthermore, a nation-state can be described as the political system interacting with various environmental variables. The essence of the analysis, therefore, is to determine how the interactions of various actors affect the national political system by adopting a particular framework model<sup>113</sup>. There are divergent views on adequacy of the existing policy models including; structural functional approach; nevertheless, structural model is still more suitable in developing countries, because of their peculiar existing challenge in harmonizing the position of various policy communities and networks<sup>100</sup>.

In public policy processes, two sets of actors can be identified; state actors that are officially recognized by the constitution and unofficial non-governmental actors. Drawing from Pluralist perspective, the State is an impartial and unbiased policy maker, with responsibility to initiate and coordinate actions that can uplift the wellbeing of entire citizens<sup>114</sup>.

Also, similarly, there are two sets of views on state actors; the first emphasizes bureaucratic political actors within the state machinery who are motivated by individual career progression, government ministries and departments that are interested in controlling the processes, and the executive, with

each relying on its hierarchy and position, information, and decision-making tools to influence and manipulate policy processes. The second group is the state-interests view. Its emphasis is on the specific interests the state is attempting to achieve as policy outcomes, which may include retention of state control. State is considered as an authority expected to pursue collective interest and not necessarily that of dominant groups or individuals<sup>100</sup>.

As observed, policy experts or outsiders usually own and influence the development policy process at the expense of local and indigenous groups, which in most cases affects poorly, the performance of rural and agricultural development policies that are usually rural-centered<sup>100</sup>.

Also, government institutions have been described as 'systems of collectively binding working rules that are essential for decision-making and implementation<sup>109</sup>. However, as posited, the extent to which an authority is centralised and consolidated in a particular political system determines the ineffectiveness of policy process and outcomes, and the way out is to differentiate structures for efficiency and effectiveness.

In most countries, decentralisation is usually adopted as an instrument of governance to facilitate structural administrative efficiency by reducing the burden on central government, and enhancing the administrative capacities of grassroots for self-governance.

For purpose of efficient governance, decentralisation grants the local bodies some authority due to closeness to their jurisdictions, to identify, adopt and implement development program that can address local challenges<sup>115</sup>. Advocates of decentralisation hold that the wider the participation in public affairs and the more articulate peculiar strategies which can improve people's wellbeing; the more effective is the public policy<sup>116</sup>. Decentralisation foregrounds clear constitutional differentiation of authority between the national and sub-national governments to promote democratic stability. It is anchored on competitive politics, and strengthened by the civil society<sup>117</sup>.

However, in policy processes, the structure of government is described by either its institutions (means of its formal and informal rules) or its hierarchical order (means of its organisational features)<sup>118</sup>.

**Process:** Public policies in general are formulated and implemented at either macro or micro levels, while the former focuses on a broader range, the latter focuses on a particular problem at a time<sup>119</sup>. However, the concept of policy process stresses the position that, public policies are influenced by a network of actors and institutions at every stage, and that their actions are determined by beliefs, interests, the context, and external events<sup>102</sup>.

Process component in public policy emphasizes the procedural aspect of public policy, describing the general sequence of steps or actions that are entailed from the point at which policy need is proposed till when the whole exercise is concluded. The focus is more on procedure than outcomes<sup>104</sup>.

Process models which are variously referred to as stages model, policy circle, heuristic model, and linear model, reiterate that individual actors have identified interests, contributions and impacts. Therefore, public policy analysis tries to focus on the roles and effects of each actor at every stage<sup>119</sup>.

Besides, it also examines the actors' frames or orientation, resources deployed and strategies adopted in the process. Moreover, it simplifies the analysis and understanding of usually complex public policy processes<sup>120</sup>. It delineates the process into specific stages for clear analysis and observation, concerning the effects of complicated structures, political conflicts, and actors' interests on the process<sup>121</sup>.

Furthermore, the results and outputs of the policies can be evaluated and measured as indicated earlier in the policy goals<sup>119</sup>.

The stages model is preferable in developing countries where policies are usually conditioned by the donors, because it is always the case that after a policy is adopted it has to be implemented<sup>122</sup>. Also, the stages model or framework simplifies the process of public policy analysis in developing countries, where the policy process is quite complicated and time consuming<sup>25</sup>. More so, the factors militating against achieving policy goals can be identified clearly after completing the stages process<sup>100</sup>.

However, since scholars have posited that there is no any policy model or approach without its weakness, the stages model/ approach remains preferably for developing nations like Nigeria<sup>123</sup>.

Nigeria as a nation is a federation. By implication, the structure of the Nigerian government indicates that, there are a set of individuals who are granted the task of taking action to manage public affairs and protecting the citizens' interests. It also implies that some of them are actors at larger nationwide levels, while some are operating at sub-national levels with various responsibilities. By the provision of the Nigerian constitution, it is a presidential republic, a federal state with three levels of state power; federal, state and local levels of government<sup>124</sup>.

In a federation, powers and authority are shared in the constitution between both the federal (centre) and its regions (federating units). The federal government has the authority to perform some responsibilities across the nation, while federating units exercise authority as provided in the constitution over their respective regions.

Generally, federation can be classified into two; integrated federation, which has been described as national, majoritarian and centralised federation, while the other is pluralist federation, which is also described as multi-national, consensual and decentralised federation. Also, while national federation resembles a unitary state, a pluralist federation resembles a confederation. Factors determining the

classifications include; decision-making in the federal structure, ethno-territorial structure, conflict-regulation goal, and allocation of powers (legal supremacy, fiscal and security)<sup>125</sup>.

American federation of which Nigeria is patterned is more decentralised. States are granted power for more responsibilities than the centre. Each state has its own written constitution that is more comprehensive than the federal government. In addition, LGs are also decentralised into two tiers that are structured differently as provided by each constitution<sup>126</sup>.

Nigerian federation though more decentralised in constitution's structural differentiation, it also encompasses some elements of integration in terms of functions and processes, and therefore, it is neither a complete pluralist nor a complete integrated federation. Moreover, Nigeria's National public policies are more centralised both structurally and in process.

The Nigerian federal structure as constituted today is not efficient for high-impact national public policy on rural development. It is an outcome of the power struggle among the elites and actors within and outside government to acquire more power for resource control. Thus, there is a need for structure and process that can facilitate additional decentralisation measures that can guarantee innovative and effective national public policy on rural development performance<sup>127</sup>.

The question then is, how can the proposed model strengthen the national public policy on rural development processes in Nigeria?

The structural-stages process model as being advocated proposes an integration of both structural and stages process because; both the structure to take actions and processes to implement actions are fundamental.

The federation structure must be clearly differentiated along the three tiers of governments and the whole policy actions must be concretely differentiated and attached to each stratum clearly. The

preferred process in this proposal is five stages process as developed by Howlett and Ramesh because it is compact, but each tier should be assigned actions at every stage of the process for participatory decision process.

Institutions within each tier and non-state actors, policy communities and policy networks should restrict their involvement to one tier that is relevant to their interest and specialization, but should participate in the process involved at all the stages as it concerns their preferred tier through the local government. The entire processes, for efficiency and openness should be coordinated by constituted policy entrepreneur, Planning entrepreneur or manager that would be responsible for coordinating both resources and various actors (state and non-state) towards driving the process and actions that can facilitate the achievement of stated goals<sup>128</sup>. The Local Government should be central in the processes as the actor directly concern with the rural development, hence; all activities should routed through it.

The differentiation would enhance more participation, a harmonious interface among actors within each tier, and allows flexibility at each level in adopting strategies that can facilitate innovative decisions.

The capacity of Local government (both human and material) whose actions would be felt more than other tiers at the grassroots and whose people are the beneficiaries of rural development policies should be enhanced to participate meaningfully at every stage of the process. The approach should be flexible to enable each local government to adopt approach that can accommodate local substructure, and policy environment that is suitable to their respective policy context.

Structural-Stages model would be of particular relevance to local government, by strengthening local administrative autonomy that is ineffective in Nigeria's federal structure but essential in decentralized federation. Also, it would engender community participation and ownership of the



countries, donor agencies are other major policy actors in developing countries, due to inadequate resources to finance the implementation<sup>103</sup>.

As posited, it would be inappropriate to rely on a single theory, model, approach or framework in public policy on rural development processes in Nigeria. Therefore, there is a need to draw continuously from the logic, patterns, and principles espoused differently by various scholars and schools of thought to evolve a model that is suitable and compatible with the contextual background of each public policy in Nigeria<sup>101</sup>.

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## **Chapter Five**

### **Conclusion**

#### **5.1 Summary of Findings**

The general goal of the study is to examine the relevance of local government to the achievement of national policies on rural development in Nigeria. In the process, the study attempts to address the objectives and hypotheses that concern the following: Public policy as a public governance tool; Local governments' relevance in public policy processes; Local government involvement in identified national rural development programmes; and the constraints impeding effectiveness and performance of local governments in national public policy on rural development processes.

For the purpose of clarity and knowledge-based assessment, the study reveals various relevant conceptual perspectives in respect of public policy, local government, and rural development and illustrates with other empirical perspectives. The conclusion deduced from this exercise indicates that there is no general or one fixed concept, theory or research method that can address a research focus like this. Thus, while the study explores conceptual, theoretical, and research methodological triangulations in the process, it generally adopts theory of decentralisation as the conceptual framework for the study.

The study case was the ten selected local governments in Oyo state; representing the five geopolitical zones in the state. The samples were drawn using a multilevel sampling technique among the employees in six of the departments of local governments namely: Agriculture, Community Development, Education, Environment, Health (Primary Health Care), and Works, who have participated or are still participating in different national programmes initiated by the federal government to achieve national policy on rural development. The programmes are FADAMA, WASH, UBE, Maternal and Child Health care, and Rural Electrification projects respectively.

Findings deduced from the primary data and test of hypotheses in three key areas; Policy Formulation, Policy Implementation, and Policy Evaluation indicate that local governments are involved in the three stages of the policy process. However, findings from secondary data on the performances of the

programmes based on outcomes indicate that their involvements are moderate in others, but poor in two programmes; WASH and Rural Electrification.

Furthermore, the study reveals from further discussions of the findings that public policy is an instrument of public governance in Nigeria. In addition, local government, by constitutional provisions is the third tier of government in Nigeria. Hence, it usually involves in national development programmes; however, its employees involve more or less as adhoc personnel. More importantly, certain constraints impeding the effectiveness and performance of local government in public policy processes were identified.

However, all the findings have policy implications. On rural development, it implies that there is no central or general rural development policy in Nigeria, although it exists in different forms in related development policies and programmes. Also, on local government, it implies that decentralisation of the Nigerian federal structure is not adequate, inefficient and ineffective at the local level due to various constitutional constraints on local government autonomy, thereby creating a weak developmental institution at the rural level. On public policy, it implies that public policies as it affects rural development in Nigeria, lack a suitable framework that can address Nigeria's peculiarity. Its centralisation indicates that it did not take into consideration the decentralized federal structure of Nigeria.

The study attempts to address the issue of lack of suitable framework, model, or approach by proposing a structural-stages process model. The model integrates both the structure and process simultaneously in policy processes, making each tier of government prominent and relevant as autonomous institutions at every policy stage, and enables placement and accommodation of other nongovernment policy actors at any of the structure or sub-structure and stages relevant to their

interests. However, various recommendations of the study would attempt to address the various policy implications.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

The essence of devolved decentralization is to empower the government that is closer to the people at the grassroots to add value to governance. However, the identified various constraints affect the benefits derivable in decentralization, which include constitutional provisions in Nigeria. This study tries to examine this anomaly by examining how selected local governments in Nigeria; as part of the devolved structure, affect the performance of national public policies/programmes on rural development in their respective council areas.

The findings and discussions clearly reveal why rural development strategies as alternative development strategies and a way out for Nigeria's development challenges have not been yielding optimally. Also, various implications indicate why lawmakers and policy managers in Nigeria have not been significantly influencing national development in general and grassroots development in particular.

The identified constraints are no doubt very critical to local government relevance and effectiveness in public policy processes. These range from autonomy issues, financial inadequacy, poor community participation, and corruption, to an inadequate and incompetent workforce, which requires urgent attention. Therefore, the conclusion from the study is that, a well-framed public policy would redirect Nigeria's development strategy, and a properly devolved local government devoid of all forms of encumbrances would be an effective development institution at the grassroots. Finally, the national development programmes that are flexible in terms of strategies and processes would allow for accommodation of peculiarities at the grassroots.

## **5.3 Recommendations**

- i. There is a need for constitutional reform by the lawmakers to enhance decentralization by devolving more power to the federating units or sub-national levels for efficiency and effectiveness.
- ii. There must be a careful and sincere effort by the policy managers/entrepreneur to adopt a framework model like the structural-stages process model as proposed in the study for conceptual clarity and theoretical direction that is contextual and indigenous to address Nigeria's peculiarity.
- iii. There must be capacity building for the grassroots actors by relevant stakeholders to strengthen local governance and effective local participation in the policy processes.

#### **5.4 Contributions to Knowledge**

The findings of the study, the identified implications, and the recommendations, offer opportunities to enrich knowledge on the nature and process of national public policy on rural development in Nigeria, local government administration and rural development in the following ways:

- i. It contributes to the understanding of public policy in Nigeria, the essence of developing a new appropriate framework, and models that can address peculiar challenges by proposing a new policy framework model: Structural-Stages Process Model that can address contextual issues in Nigeria rural development policy challenges.
- ii. Scholars, practitioners, public officials and civil society in Nigeria are presently agitating for restructuring and constitutional reforms without clearer conception. This study would contribute toward the conceptual repositioning of local government as devolved third tier of government and grassroots development institutions.
- iii. The findings of the study indicate that Nigeria's present development strategies are not performing effectively; hence, the need for an alternative decentralized development strategy. Thus, the study

contributes toward re-conceptualizing and re-strategizing rural development as an alternative and prioritized development model in Nigeria.

- iv. The study contributes toward conceptual clarification of decentralization, as basis of the proposals for restructuring of Nigeria.
- v. The various empirical reviews and analyses of related findings will facilitate comparisons of policies and programmes of other countries and other public policies related to rural development in Nigeria.

### **5.5 Suggested Areas for Further Research**

Findings and conclusion of the study reveal that there are areas for further research. They are:

- i. Although, the proposed structural-stages process model is not yet perfect as a model, but it is a starting point for new thinking towards the direction of the appropriate public policy framework that is suitable for Nigeria's rural development process peculiarities. Thus, it would require further research.
- ii. Also, there is the need for further research on how to achieve "Autonomy-capacity-ready" local government, otherwise a fully decentralized local government could become a burden and a curse instead of a blessing to the grassroots.

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## Annexures

### Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Ma,

The aim of this study is to determine the extent of Local Government Involment in National Public Policy Processes in Nigeria, using Oyo State as a case.

Your responses are expected to reflect your experiences in one of the following rural development programs.

- Primary Health Care
- Universal Basic Education
- Rural Electrification
- Fadama
- Water and Sanitation

Please, be assured that your responses would be treated with all confidentiality it deserves.

#### Section A

Department  Status

**Keys:** Strongly Involved (SI), Involved (I), Indifferent (IN), Partially Involved (PI),

Not involved (NI)

## Section B

s/n	<b>Involvement in the Problem Structuring</b>	SI	I	IN	PI	NI
1.	How the problem was initially addressed					
2.	Acknowledgement of significance of the problem					
3.	Identification of social norms relevant to this problem					
4.	Identifying the social groups that benefit from the situation					
5.	Identifying the social groups that lose from the situation					
6.	Proffering public policy as a means of action					
7.	Identifying those responsible for the problem					
8.	Supporting the coalition and actors defending the point of view					
	<b>Involvement in Discussion of the Following Intervention</b>					
9.	Means of action as considered desirable by the various actors					
10.	Means of action considered feasible					
11.	Effects they have on the rural development programme					
12.	Ensuring that the means of action is fair to all social groups					
13.	Deciding the choice of policy option					
14.	Identifying visibility and consequent political costs associated with each option					
15.	Interacting with various advocacy groups					
16.	Identifying the influence of these groups					
17.	Identifying the value of these groups					

18. Identifying the support base of social group
19. Identifying the tactics of these groups
20. Identifying groups that are affected by the policy adoption

#### **Involvement in Decision Making in Policy Adoption**

21. Determining the policy option that is being adopted
22. Examining the political, scientific, administrative, and financial factors influencing the government's choice of policy/programme to be adopted
23. Determining the direction of policy adoption process
24. **Involvement in Monitoring**
25. Examining how achievable and implementable is the policy/programme
26. The mode of implementation of the policy/programme
27. Identifying existing and new organizations that could be involved in implementation
28. Determining adequacy of resources for policy/programme implementation

#### **Involvement in Evaluation**

29. Identifying the discrepancies between the policy's expected and actual outcomes
30. Determining the extent to which the policy has addressed the problem
31. Assessing the suitability of the adopted method of intervention
32. Determining the continuity or discontinuity of the policy
33. Proposing more involvement of Local Government

## Bio-Data

### A Personal Data

#### 1. Full Names:

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#### 2. Date and Place of Birth:

06, January, 1966 Tema, Republic of Ghana

#### 3. Nationality:

Nigerian

#### 4. Name and Address of Next of Kin:

Adepeju ADEROGBA

Department of Environmental Services, Local Government Service Commission,  
Oyo State Government Secretariat, Ibadan

### B Educational Background

**Primary:** L.A.Primary School, Taba, Saki, Oyo State, 1978

**Secondary:** Ansar Ud Deen High School, Saki, Oyo State, WASC, 1983

Ansar Ud Deen High School, Saki, Oyo State, HSC, 1985

**Tertiary:** Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, B.Ed (Social Studies), 1990

Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, M.IR (International Relations), 1993

Lagos State University, Ojo MPA (Public Administration), 2003

Imo State University, M.Sc (Public Administration), 2018

National Open University of Nigeria, LLB (Law), 2021

### C Working Experience:

Lecturing, Lagos State University of Science and Technology (formerly

Lagos State Polytechnic), Ikorodu, 1994 to date

**D. Membership of Academic Professional Bodies:**

- i. Member, Institute of Entrepreneur of Nigeria.
- ii. Fellow, Institute of Certified Professional Managers.
- iii. Fellow, Chartered Institute of Local Government and Public Administration of Nigeria
- iv. Member, Society for Peace Studies and Practice
- v. Fellow, Institute of Certified Professional Managers of Nigeria

**E. Publications:**

- i. Social Media and Participatory Democracy in Nigeria. ESCAE Journal of Management Security Studies (EJMSS) Vol.2, No.1. January-June, 2022. ISSN: 1659-5734 A Journal Publication of the Faculty of Social Sciences, ESCAE University, Cotonou, Benin Republic, 2022. <https://independent.academia.edu/EJMSS/ESCAEJOURNAL>
- ii. Local Government and Management of Insecurity for Rural Development in Nigeria. Journal of Economic Growth & Transformation. Vol 3 No 3, May/June, 2022, Institute of Economists of Nigeria

**Date & Signature**

## University Compliance Certificate

This is to certify that the thesis by **Ademola Aderogba** in the Department of Politics and International Relations, Faculty of Management and Social Sciences, Lead City University, Ibadan is in full compliance with the approved University Format and Style.

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**Signature**

**Date**

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