

**COURSE
GUIDE**

DES 111

INTRODUCTION TO DEVELOPMENT STUDIES I

Course Team

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INTRODUCTION

The course, *Introduction to Development Studies I (DES 111)* is a core course which carries two credit units for first year economics students in the Faculty of Social Sciences at the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). It is prepared and made available to all undergraduate students in B.Sc. Development programme. The course is very useful to you in your academic pursuit and will help you to gain an in-depth knowledge of how the development studies evolved over time and space.

This Course Guide introduces you what development studies entails. It also provides you with the necessary information about the course, the nature of the materials you will be using and how to make the best use of them towards ensuring adequate success in your programme. Also included in this Course Guide are instructions on how to make use of your time and instructions on how to tackle the tutor-marked assignment (TMA). There will be tutorial session during which your facilitator will take you through your difficult areas and at the same time have meaningful interaction with your fellow learners.

WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE

The course is made up of twelve units, covering areas such as:

- Definition and meaning of Development and Development Studies
- Importance of Development Studies
- Development Countries and Factor that influenced Development of Developed Countries
- Overview of Development Theories
- Colonisation and Industrialisation
- Rural Development and Urbanisation
- Gender
- Health
- Education
- The Environment
- How Education and Environment enhance human wellbeing in Developing Countries in Africa and Asia
- How Education and Environment enhance human wellbeing in Developing Countries in the Pacific and Nigeria.

COURSE CONTENT

This course introduces students to definition and meaning of ‘development’ as well as ‘development studies’; Importance of development studies; Development of countries and factors that influenced development of developed countries; Overview of development theories; Colonisation; Industrialisation; Rural Development; Urbanisation; Gender; Health; Education and the Environment and how they enhance human wellbeing in developing countries in Africa, Asia, the Pacific and Latin America.

COURSE AIMS

The overall aims of this course include:

- To introduce you to definition and meaning of ‘development’ as well as ‘development studies’;
- To teach you the importance of development studies;
- To expose you to development of countries and factors that influenced development of developed countries;
- To teach you overview of development theories;
- To introduce you to the concepts of colonisation, industrialisation, rural development, urbanisation, gender, health, education and the environment and how they enhance human wellbeing in developing countries in Africa, Asia, the Pacific and particularly, Nigeria.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

There are twelve study units in the course and each unit has its own objectives. You should read the objectives of each unit and assimilate them. In addition to the objectives of each unit, the main objective of the course is to equip you with adequate information on development studies and to enable you acquire enough professional competence to apply such knowledge to current theories and ways of thinking on development issues.

The objectives of the course will be achieved by:

- ✓ Explaining the definition and meaning of ‘development’ as well as ‘development studies’;
- ✓ Discussing the importance of development studies;
- ✓ Identifying developed countries and factors that influenced development of developed countries;
- ✓ Explaining the overview of development theories;
- ✓ Discussing the concepts of colonisation, industrialisation, rural development, urbanisation, gender, health, education and the environment and how they enhance human wellbeing in developing countries in Africa, Asia, the Pacific and Nigeria.

WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE

To successfully complete this course, you are required to read the study units, referenced books and other materials on the course.

Each unit contains self-assessment exercises in addition to Tutor-Marked Assessments (TMAs). At some points in the course, you will be required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. At the end of the course there is a final examination. This course should take about 12 weeks to complete and some components of the course are outlined under the course material subsection.

COURSE MATERIALS

The major component of the course, what you have to do and how you should allocate your time to each unit in order to complete the course successfully on time are listed as follows:

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

STUDY UNITS

There are three modules of 12 units in this course, which should be studied carefully.

Module 1: Meaning and Importance of Development Studies

Unit 1: Definition and Meaning of Development and Development Studies

Unit 2: Importance of Development Studies

Unit 3: Development Countries and Factor that influenced their Development

Unit 4: Overview of Development Theories

Module 2: Colonisation, Industrialisation and Development

Unit 1 Colonisation and Industrialisation

Unit 2: Rural Development and Urbanisation

Unit 3: Gender Issues in Development

Unit 4: Health Issues in Development

Module 3: Education and Environment

Unit 1: Education

Unit 2: The Environment

Unit 3: The How Education and Environment Enhance Human Wellbeing in Developing Countries in Africa and Asia

Unit 4: How Education and Environment Enhance Human Wellbeing in Developing Countries in The Pacific and Nigeria

REFERENCES AND OTHER RESOURCES

Every unit contains a list of References/Further reading. Try to get as many as possible of those textbooks and materials listed. The textbooks and materials are meant to deepen your knowledge of the course.

ASSIGNMENT FILE

There are many assignments in this course and you are expected to do all of them by following the schedule prescribed for them in terms of when to attempt the homework and submit same for grading by your tutor.

There will be 3 assignments which will cover the following areas:

1. Definition and meaning of Development and Development Studies, Importance of Development Studies, Development Countries and Factor that influenced Development of Developed Countries, Overview of Development Theories (Units 1, 2, 3, and 4 of Module 1)
2. Colonisation and Industrialisation, Rural Development and Urbanisation, Gender, Health (Units 1, 2, 3, and 4 of Module 2)
3. Education, The Environment, How Education and Environment enhance human wellbeing in Developing Countries in Africa and Asia, How Education and Environment enhance human wellbeing in Developing Countries in the Pacific and Nigeria. (Units 1, 2, 3, and 4 of Module 3)

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The Presentation Schedule included in your course materials gives you the important dates for the completion of tutor-marked assignments and attending tutorials. Remember, you are required to submit all your assignments by the due date. You should guard against falling behind in your work.

ASSESSMENT

Your assessment will be based on tutor-marked assignments (TMAs) and a final examination which you will write at the end of the course.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMAs)

Assignment questions for the 12 units in this course are contained in the Assignment File. You will be able to complete your assignments from the information and materials contained in your set books, reading and study units. However, it is desirable that you demonstrate that you have read and researched more widely than the required minimum. You should use other references to have a broad viewpoint of the subject and also to give you a deeper understanding of the subject.

When you have completed each assignment, send it, together with a TMA form, to your tutor. Make sure that each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline given in the Presentation File. If for any reason, you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extensions will not be granted after the due date unless there are exceptional circumstances. The TMAs usually constitute 30% of the total score for the course.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination will be of three hours' duration and have a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions which reflect the types of self-assessment practice exercises and tutor-marked problems you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed

You should use the time between finishing the last unit and sitting for the examination to revise the entire course material. You might find it useful to review your self-assessment exercises, tutor-marked assignments and comments on them before the examination. The final examination covers information from all parts of the course.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

The table presented below indicates the total marks (100%) allocation.

Assessment Marks

Assignment (Best three assignment out of the four marked)
30%

Final Examination 70%

Total 100%

COURSE OVERVIEW

The table presented below indicates the units, number of weeks and assignments to be taken by you to successfully complete the course, Introduction to Development Studies (DES 111).

Unit	Title of Work	Weekly Activity	Assessment End of Unit
1	Definition and meaning of Development and Development Studies.		
2	Importance of Development Studies.		
3	Development Countries and Factor that influenced Development of Developed Countries.		
4	Overview of Development Theories.		1 ST Assignment

5	Colonisation and Industrialisation.		
6	Rural Development and Urbanisation.		
7	Gender		
8	Health		2 nd Assignment
9	Education		
10	The Environment		
11	How Education and Environment enhance human wellbeing in Developing Countries in Africa and Asia		
12	How Education and Environment enhance human wellbeing in Developing Countries in the Pacific and Nigeria.		3 rd Assignment

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning the study units replace the university lecturer. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace and at a time and place that suit you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to a lecturer. In the same way that a lecturer might set you some reading to do, the study units tell you when to read your books or other material, and when to embark on discussion with your colleagues. Just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise, your study units provides exercises for you to do at appropriate points.

Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit.

You should use these objectives to guide your study. When you have finished the unit you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If you make a habit of doing this, you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course and getting the best grade.

The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your set books or from a readings section. Self-assessments are interspersed throughout the units, and answers are given at the ends of the units. Working through these tests will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignments and the examination. You should do each self-assessment exercises as you come to it in the study unit. Also, ensure to master some major historical dates and events during the course of studying the material.

The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, consult your Tutor. Remember that your Tutor's job is to help you. When you need help, don't hesitate to call and ask your Tutor to provide the help.

1. Read this Course Guide thoroughly.
2. Organize a study schedule. Refer to the 'Course overview' for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information, e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the semester is available from study centre. You need to gather together all this information in one place, such as your dairy, a wall calendar, an iPad or a handset. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates for working each unit.
3. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your Tutor know before it is too late for help.
4. Turn to Unit 1 and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.
5. Assemble the study materials. Information about what you need for a unit is given in the 'Overview' at the beginning of each unit. You will also need both the study unit you are working on and one of your set books on your desk at the same time.
6. Work through the unit. The content of the unit itself has been arranged to provide a sequence for you to follow. As you work through the unit you will be instructed to read sections from your set books or other articles. Use the unit to guide your reading.
7. Up-to-date course information will be continuously delivered to you at the study centre.
8. Work before the relevant due date (about 4 weeks before due dates), get the Assignment File for the next required assignment. Keep in mind that you will

learn a lot by doing the assignments carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the exam. Submit all assignments no later than the due date.

9. Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study material or consult your Tutor.

10. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can then start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to space your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.

11. When you have submitted an assignment to your Tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next units. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your Tutor's comments, both on the tutor-marked assignment form and also written on the assignment. Consult your Tutor as soon as possible if you have any questions or problems.

12. After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in this Course Guide).

TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

There are some hours of tutorials (2-hours sessions) provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of these tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your Tutor, as soon as you are allocated a Tutorial group.

Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter, and provide assistance to you during the course. You must mail your tutor-marked assignments to your tutor well before the due date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your Tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your Tutor by telephone, e-mail, or discussion board if you need help. The following might be circumstances in which you would find help necessary. Contact your Tutor if.

- You do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings
- You have difficulty with the self-assessment exercises
- You have a question or problem with an assignment, with your Tutor's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

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

CONCLUSION

On successful completion of the course, you would have developed critical thinking skills (from the material) for efficient and effective discussion of development issues. However, to gain a lot from the course please try to apply everything you learn in the course to term paper writing in other related courses. We wish you success with the course and hope that you will find it both interesting and useful.

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Unit 2: Importance of Development Studies.....
Unit 3: Development Countries and Factor that influenced their Development
Unit 4: Overview of Development Theories

Module 2: Colonisation, Industrialisation and Development

Unit 1 Colonisation and Industrialisation

Unit 2: Rural Development and Urbanisation

Unit 3: Gender Issues in Development.....

Unit 4: Health Issues in Development.....

Module 3: Education and Environment

Unit 1: Education

Unit 2: The Environment

Unit 3: The How Education and Environment Enhance Human Wellbeing
in Developing Countries in Africa and Asia

Unit 4: How Education and Environment Enhance Human Wellbeing
in Developing Countries in The Pacific and Nigeria

MODULE ONE: MEANING AND IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Unit 1: Definition and meaning of Development and Development Studies

Unit 2: Importance of Development Studies

Unit 3: Development Countries and Factor that influenced Development of Developed Countries

Unit 4: Overview of Development Theories

UNIT 1: NATURE AND MEANING OF DEVELOPMENT AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

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1.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Definition of Development

3.2 Nature and Meaning of Development Studies

3.3 Development Economics versus Development Studies

3.4 Identities of Development

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study unit is to look into the meaning of development and analysis of related concepts. However, this unit introduces learners to fundamental rudiments of development scope and meaning of the development studies.

In addition to the meaning of development and development studies, students are also exposed to the nature and features of development studies.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the definitions and meaning of development.

- discuss the definitions and meaning of development studies
- explain the characteristics and nature of development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Development

For almost every writer a different definition of development exists. It is important to first distinguish between:

- i. Development as a state or condition-static
- ii. Development as a process or course of change- dynamic.
 - Development is not purely only an economic phenomenon but rather a multi-dimensional process involving reorganisation and reorientation of entire economic and social system.
 - Development is a process of improving the quality of all human lives with three equally important aspects. These are sustenance, self-esteem, and freedom from servitude

Literarily, development is an off-shoot of growth which implies a sustained increase in the size of any organism and enriched wellbeing. In economics development means improvement in country's economic (an increase in National output, identifiable with a sustainable increase in average income of citizenry of that economy) and social conditions. It could also be referred to as an enhancement in the way(s) in which country's natural, human and productive resources are managed, in order to create wealth and improve people's lives.

While elaborating on the meaning of development Dudley Seers suggests that there can be a value judgment on what development is, and what is not, but there should be a universally acceptable aim of development to make for conditions that lead to a realisation of the potentials of human personality.

Seers however, outlined several conditions that can make for achievement of this aim, which include the following:

- i. The capacity to obtain physical necessities, particularly food;
- ii. A job (not necessarily paid employment) but including studying, working on a family farm or keeping house;
- iii. Equality, which should be considered an objective in its own right;
- iv. Participating in government;
- v. Belonging to a nation that is truly independent, both economically and politically; and

vi. Adequate educational levels (especially literacy).

The challenge of human scale development has explained earlier is to nurture diversity instead of being threatened by it, to develop processes of political and economic decentralisation, to strengthen democratic, indigenous traditions and institutions and to encourage rather than repress emerging social movements which reflect the people's need for autonomy and space.

If the challenges are overcome then the fruits of economic development may be distributed more equitably with the condition of protecting local space, recognize and represent micro-organisations and the diverse collective identities that make up the social body. In fact, this concept of development seeks for the civil society rather than the state to own up and nurture development, so that the role of social actors is enhanced.

However, it is pertinent to note that development should imply social amonisation, peacefulness co-existence, security and justice, and meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Explain the Dudley Seers conditions for meeting potential human personality.
- ii. What are the basic developmental core values?

3.2 Nature and Meaning of Development Studies

The emergence of development studies as an academic discipline in the second half of the twentieth century is largely due to increasing concern about economic prospects for the third-world countries after **decolonisation**. Development Economics, a branch of economics arose out of previous studies in colonial economies in the post-war era (Abbott, 2003). However, by the end of 1960s, an increasing number of development economists felt that economics alone could not fully address issues such as political effectiveness and educational provision. Therefore, development studies arose as a result of this initiative which was aiming at integrating ideas of politics and economics. Since then, it has become an increasingly inter- and multi-disciplinary subject, encompassing a variety of social scientific fields. In recent years, the use of political economy analysis- the application of the analytical techniques of economics- to try and assess and explain political and social factors that either enhance or limit development has become increasingly widespread as a way of explaining the success or failure of reform processes.

But development studies has since also taken an interest in lessons of past development experiences of Western countries. More recently, the emergence of human security – a new, people-oriented approach to understanding and addressing global security threats – has led to a growing recognition of a relationship between security and development. Human security argues that inequalities and insecurity in one state or region have

consequences for global security and that it is thus in the interest of all states to address underlying development issues. This relationship with studies of human security is but one example of the interdisciplinary nature of development studies

Development Studies could be defined as a multi- and interdisciplinary field of study that seeks to understand social, economic, political, technological, ecological, gender and cultural aspects of societal change at the local, national, regional and global levels, and the interplay among these parts. Also, it should be noted that the discipline of development studies examines development, poverty, inequality as well as social, political, environmental and cultural changes and continuities in the Global South from a multidisciplinary perspective. Development studies have expanded from being strictly centred on the developing countries to include diverse South-North relations in our globalising world.

However, the nature is the general outlook of what made the discipline development studies, which encompasses the characterisation of the discipline as body of knowledge, and its evolution.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. In detail, explain the historical development of development studies.
- ii. Does the failure of Economics as a discipline give rise to development studies?

3.3 Development Economics versus Development Studies

The emergence of development studies as an academic discipline in the second half of the twentieth century is largely due to increasing concern about economic prospects for the third-world after decolonisation. In the immediate post-war period, development economics, a branch of economics, arose out of previous studies in colonial economies and curiosity to solve the economic problems in most emerging and developing countries.

From the above argument one can deduced that development studies as a discipline metamorphoses from economics, and inadequacy of economics as a discipline to resolve most socio-political economic problems. In sum development studies came through economics to development economics, then political economy and finally to development studies. It is a child of necessities because it was developed due to the curiosity to solve the seemingly intractable economic and political problems which was unresolved through other discipline or a combination of disciplines.

Apart from the fact that the development studies metamorphoses through economics and political science, the following are the other comparism between development economics and development studies;

- i. Development focuses on economic development problems and policies while development studies is all-encompasses discipline that emphasize all problems and solutions to human endeavours.
- ii. Development studies is an inter and multidisciplinary discipline because it cut across all socio-political and economic areas and beyond, but development economics is just a branch of economics as a discipline.
- iii. Development studies emerges through economics while economics came through philosophy.
- iv. Development economics is primarily concerned with socio-economic development, while development studies intend to resolve a wide range of problems, vary from economics to socio-political issues, communication, and securities.
- v. Development studies and development economics are both geared towards solve human problems and essentially to increase wellbeing of individual in any economy.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Succinctly, explain difference(s) between development economics and development studies.

3.4 Identities of Development

There are three basic components or core values that serve as a conceptual basis and practical guidelines for understanding the inner meaning of development. These **core values** are; Sustenance Self-esteem and Freedom These **core values** relate to the fundamental human needs and also represents common goals sort by all individuals and societies.

- Raising peoples' living levels, i.e. incomes and consumption, levels of food, medical services, education through relevant growth processes
- Creating conditions conducive to the growth of peoples' self-esteem through the establishment of social, political and economic systems and institutions which promote human dignity and respect
- Increasing peoples' freedom to choose by enlarging the range of their choice variables, e.g. varieties of goods and services

Self-Assessment Exercise

- i. Explain in the detail, the characterisation of macroeconomics.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we conclude that in everyday usage, development should involve a face lift, it should trickle down to the down trodden in the society. This is well captured under the core values of development.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit vividly looked at development holistically, and differentiate between development economics and development studies. It equally discusses the core values of development as identified by Todaro (Kothari, 2007).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Vividly explain the meaning of development, and the nature of development studies.
2. List and explain the three core values of development.
3. Is there any difference between development economic and development studies?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

1. Kothari, U. (ed). *A Radical History of Development Studies: Individuals, Institutions and Ideologies* – but see *The Journal of Peasant Studies* 34/1 (2007) for an alternative view.
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UNIT 2: IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Development Studies: An Overview
 - 3.2 Why Development Studies?
 - 3.3 Expectation of development studies
 - 3.4 Development Studies and the Society
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This study unit examines the historical overview of development studies as well as mainstreaming it to reflect its importance, and the urgent need for it. The study also showcases expectation of development studies, the societal view of it and the relevance of it the larger society.

In addition to the above mentioned impact, the limitation of the development studies is also reviewed

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the Historical overview of term development studies
- discuss the expected value of the study of development studies to the society and student (graduate)
- analyse the reasons why development studies should be studied.

3.0 CONTENTS

3.1 Development Studies: An Overview

Historically, in the last few decades the word ‘development’ has come back as a buzzword among large segment of many societies. In today reality, every public discussion is incomplete without reference to development. However, the foundation of development studies is few decades old and started a while after the Second World War. Development studies is a multidisciplinary branch of social science and it has grown in popularity as a subject of study since the early 1990s, and has been most widely taught

and researched in the developing and underdeveloped countries and also in countries with a colonial history.

Anyone (learners) who chose development studies as a discipline could choose careers in international organisations such as the United Nations, World Bank, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), media and journalism houses, private sector development consultancy firms, corporate social responsibility (CSR) bodies and research centers. They could also belong to the different professional bodies for development studies that have been founded throughout the world such as Europe: European Association of Development Research and Training Institutes (EADI); Latin America: Consejo Latino-Americano de Ciencias Sociales (CLACSO) ; Asia: Asian Political and International Studies Association (APISA) ; Africa: Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) and Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA) ; Arabic world: Arab Institutes and Centers for Economic and Social Development Research (AICARDES)

The common umbrella organisation of these association is the Inter-regional Coordinating Committee of Development Associations (ICCDA). In the UK and Ireland, the Development Studies Association is a major source of information for research on and studying in development studies. Its mission is to connect and promote those working on development research.

Development Studies is a multi- and interdisciplinary field of study that seeks to understand social, economic, political, technological, ecological, gender and cultural aspects of societal change at the local, national, regional and global levels, and the interplay. Therefore, development studies is a multidisciplinary field with contribution from ecology, demography, anthropology, geography, international relations, political science, history, sociology and public administration and management. It is noteworthy that development studies is more of problem oriented than discipline oriented. This implies that the field of development studies is established to focus and address development issues that have been seemingly intractable for many years. Development issues include: Area studies; Community development; Demography; Development communication; Development theory; Diaspora studies; Ecology; Economic development.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. In detail, explain the evolution of development studies.
- ii. Development studies is problem centred discuss.

3.2 Why Development Studies?

According to the UN definition, 783 million people live below the international poverty line of \$1.90 a day (United Nation, 2019). And inequality is no longer a simple case of

contrasting the first world with the third world. For instance, in the USA, the top 1% of income earners are paid more than the bottom 40%, with many people struggling to meet basic living costs despite working 40-50 hours per week. This kind of inequalities is found in almost all economies around the world. Yet it is more pronounced in the developing and underdeveloped countries.

However, it's easy for many of us to accept this status quo, convincing ourselves there's a certain inevitability to today's economic and political situation, making any significant change feel almost impossible. But development studies takes an entirely different approach, through examination of the past, present, and the future, development studies finds causal links between cultural and political institutions and the lives of ordinary people all over the world. More importantly, its students and graduates propose and enact practical, real-world solutions designed to build fairer societies in which we all have the chance to live dignified and meaningful lives.

Development studies is a multidisciplinary subject that focuses on the evolution of nations from political, cultural, geographical, and socio-economic perspectives. It emerged as an academic discipline during the late part of the 20th century amid growing concerns for third world economies struggling to establish themselves in the postcolonial era. More recently, academics turned their attention towards Western states, seeking to address today's (and tomorrow's) most pressing issues by studying their cultural and political development. In other words, development studies is about understanding the current political landscape by examining their origins, which then enables academics, politicians, and world charity organisations to make better plans for the future.

Course content varies depending on where you study, with some universities offering specific programs such as international development with Non-Government Organisation (NGO) management, designed to prepare students for a career in organisations such as Oxfam or Save the Children. However, the core modules of any development studies degree tend to focus on an introduction to political ideas such as liberalism and conservatism, economic analysis, and colonialism's impact on the third world.

Development studies graduates have a wide range of career options. Many go on to work for development research organisations, charities, think tanks, lobby groups, conservation projects, while others opt for roles in government, academia, or the civil service. So if you're interested in a career where you can enact some real-world change, then development studies might be the course for you.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. In detail, what are the foci areas of development studies?
- ii. List and explain the career areas applicable to development studies

3.3 Expectation of Development Studies

Development Studies is research committed to improvement. Knowledge generation is not an end in itself ... An implication of this is that Development Studies addresses current, actual problems, focusing on solving them – it tends to be applied and action – or policy-orientated. (Molteberg and Bergstrøm, 2000).

In the light of the above statement by Molteberg and Bergstrom (2000) development could not only be seen as programme policy actions geared towards addressing a peculiar societal problem but also include the inherent research studies through which such developmental problem is established.

Development studies is a global industry with huge support from big business, government, and influential organisations like the EU and the UN. And with the population set to soar in the coming decades, there will always be fresh challenges to overcome in the pursuit of meeting fundamental human needs of people all over the globe. Development studies will also help emerging economies build strong and stable societies, creating more opportunities for their citizens.

As an undergraduate of development studies, once you qualified, the most ambitious one among you can go on to work as high-profile government officials or in senior positions within NGOs and charity organisations. Others can pursue meaningful careers in work in local government, helping to tackle income disparities in their own communities through educational or extra-curricular programs. And these are just a handful of the career options for graduates - additional job paths include policy analysts, ecotourism guide, diplomacy, immigration officer, aid worker, and many more.

Development studies is on course to become one of the most influential academic disciplines as we look for ever more innovative ways to tackle poverty, diseases, prejudice, and discrimination. So if you would like to join the fight for a fairer world, then enrolling on a development studies program is the perfect way to start.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Succinctly, explain the motivation behind the study of development studies.

3.4 Development Studies and the Society

Since development studies is more of problem solving oriented than being a discipline, then the society gain enormously because the society comprises of the people and its environment which is the foci point of the development studies.

The area of focus of development studies is primarily concern with bringing intellectuals power and prowess to solve major societal problems by selecting suitable theory, techniques, and methods as a foundation for studies which improve our understanding. It

is a normative and It's not just concerned with knowledge generation for its own sake, but with knowledge creation as an influential tool to improve social and natural conditions. The goals and objectives of development studies are human and environmental centred because its primary focus is the societal development. They include the following among others;

- i. Development studies is an interdisciplinary and multi-disciplinary field of study that seeks to understand economic, political, social, culture, and technological facets of societal change, mainly in the developing and underdeveloped countries.
- ii. It is typified also by regulating and policy concern: it focuses on contributing to potential solutions to resolve societal issues which development and its absence may create
- iii. Development studies is context sensitive in hunt of its goals: it evaluates societal changes within a comparative, historical and global point of view. It intends to take into account the peculiarities of diverse society in terms of ecology, history, culture, and technology, and how these variations often transform into different local responses to regional or global processes and difference strategies of development.
- iv. Development studies is an ever evolving and ever changing field of study, at present covering concerns and topics such as environmental and socio-political sustainability, poverty, gender equity and women empowerment, sustainable development, globalisation and human development.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Why is development studies important?

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit concludes that in everyday usage, development should involve a face lift, it should trickle down to the down trodden in the society and deals directly with the human development and dignity.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit vividly looked at development studies' contribution to the society holistically and emphasised that development studies is problem oriented and solution driven.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are the goals of development studies?
2. Explain the phrase "development studies is problem centred".
3. Evaluate development studies as discipline and applied studies.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Kothari, U. (ed). *A Radical History of Development Studies: Individuals, Institutions and Ideologies* – but see *The Journal of Peasant Studies* 34/1 (2007) for an alternative view.

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UNIT 3: DEVELOPED COUNTRIES AND FACTOR THAT INFLUENCED THEIR DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Process of Development
 - 3.2 Development of Developed Countries: An Historical Overview
 - 3.3 Reason for Non-developed of developing countries
 - 3.4 A way forward for developing Countries.
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This study unit examines the process of development of the developed countries and reason why the developing and underdeveloped countries could borrow a leaf from the developed counterpart to co-existence in the global village, while providing the way forward for the growth of the developing countries and eventual development.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the historical review of the development processes of developed countries
- explain the reasons for undeveloped of developing countries
- proffer way forwards for the developing Nations
- explain the development processes of the developed countries.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1: Process of Development

Development as Modernisation emphasizes process of social change which is required to produce economic advancement; examines changes in social, psychological and political processes. Development process can also be seen as stepwise procedures that combine social, cultural, and technological transformation to create growth, progress, positive change or the addition of physical, economic, environmental, social and demographic components. It could also be regarded as the process of economic and social

transformation that is based on complex cultural and environmental factors and their interactions.

Furthermore, development is a process that creates growth, progress, positive change or the addition of physical, economic, environmental, social and demographic components. It is the process through which a nation develops wealth oriented behaviour and value chain in individuals; profit seeking rather than subsistence and self-sufficiency and a paradigm Shift from commodity to human approach with investment in education and skill training.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Examine the process of development as it were.
- ii. Assess the environmental impact on development process.
- iii. Show the relevancy of the environment on development.

3.2: Development of Developed Countries: An Historical Overview

Theoretically, Walt Rostow argued that the economies of all countries could be placed within one of five different stages of economic growth and development. These stages include traditional society, preconditions to take off, take-off, drive to maturity, and age of high mass consumption. He argued further that each of the developed countries has one way or the other passed through these stages. You should also note that the traditional and preconditions to take off stages were coincidence with the slave trade and when technological advancement came up, the slave trade was abolished for improved international trade for excess output in the then nascent industrialised united kingdom could be sold to the colonies. Also the take-off and drive to maturity stages were also coincident with industrial revolution in the United Kingdom which later developed further period mass consumption. However, one thing that is obvious here is that no policy, programme or special strategy were put-up before the realisation of economic development. But, for the last two decades or so, the developing countries have been under great pressure from the developed countries and the international institutions that they control - such as the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, the World Trade Organisation - to adopt a set of 'good policies', especially free trade, and 'good institutions', such as strong patent law, in order to foster their economic development.

The historical fact is that, today's developed countries did not develop on the basis of the policies and the institutions that they now recommend to, or even force upon, the developing countries. Virtually all of today's developed countries used tariff protection and subsidies to develop their industries, and in the earlier stages of their development, they did not even have such 'basic' institutions as democracy, central banks, patent law, or professional civil services. Given that the adoption of 'good policies' and 'good institutions' has failed to generate the promised acceleration of economic development in

the developing world, and has in some cases even led to economic and social collapses, a radical re-thinking of the development orthodoxy is required.

Self-Assessment Exercise

- iii. Explain the process of development as given by W. Rostow.
- iv. Does the development of developed countries built on special policies, programme or strategies?

3.3: Reasons for Under-development of Developing Countries

According to Bakare (1998), economic development is a gradual process and as such one can discuss it in terms of relativity. It is on this basis that countries over the world are classified into developed, developing or Less Developed Countries (LDC).

The circumstances or situation whereby economic growth will fail to promote economic development can be stated and explained below:

- Inadequate growth in comparison with population.
- Widening inequality in the distribution of income.
- Imbalance in inter-sectoral development.
- Environmental degradation and ecological disturbances,
- Moral, intellectual, spiritual and social decadence.
- Economic dependence.

Inadequate Growth in Comparison with Population

If economic growth is not growing significantly relative to population, it may fail to promote economic development. For example, an economic growth of 3 - 4% in comparison with population growth of 10% due to relaxation of immigration law may not enhance development. Summarily:

$G(\text{GNP}) > G(\text{POP}) = \text{Development}$.

$G(\text{GNP}) = G(\text{POP}) = \text{No Development}$.

$G(\text{GNP}) < G(\text{POP}) = \text{Under Development}$

Where:

G	Growth
GNP	Gross National Product
POP	Population
>	Greater than
<	Less than

Income Distribution: Even if the growth in GDP exceeds the population growth and income is not well distributed, the unequal income distribution will lead to widening gap between the rich and the poor, therefore, violating one of the objectives of economic development.

Imbalance in Sectorial Development

The industrial sector, the oil sector among others may be in a country, but when facilities such as housing, health, water, law and order, among others are not developing, the country may not witness development. Moreover, if the per capita increases from expansion in the oil and industrial sectors, development cannot be said to have occurred because poor health could lead to dehumanising ailments such as typhoid and tuberculosis which hinder development.

Environmental Degradation and Ecological Disturbances

When ecological balance is disturbed, through oil spillage, air, water and land pollution and industrial pollution of the environment through pumping of toxic gas, carbon monoxide, lead, etc., it may cause health problems such as migraine, high blood pressure and cancer. When there is ecological disturbance such as blockage of water canals, etc., it makes it impossible for water to enter the drainage system and this may cause flooding. Cutting of too many trees also causes desert encroachment.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- ii. Succinctly, explain the motivation behind the study of development studies.

3.4 A Way Forward for Developing Countries

Correcting those problems noted in 3.3 above, through policies and strategy programmes such as birth control, provision of basic infrastructure facilities to boost national output, balance development strategy, taken care of ecology and environment, income redistribution, stabilising the polity security wise, and provide social safety net. Also, the conditions attached to bilateral and multilateral financial assistance to developing

countries should be radically changed, on the recognition that the orthodox recipe is not working, and that there can be no single recipe of 'best practice' policies that everyone should use, one size fit all policies.

It should equally be noted that, the World Trade Organisation (WTO) rules should be re-written so that the developing countries can more actively use tariffs and subsidies for industrial development. And, improvements in institutions should be encouraged, but this should not be equated with imposing a fixed set of today's - not even yesterday's - Anglo-American institutions on all countries; nor should it be attempted in haste, as institutional development is a lengthy and costly process. It is indeed important to point out that the developed countries in earlier times were institutionally less advanced compared to today's developing countries at similar stages of development. Needless to say, the quality of their institutions fell well short of the 'global standards' institutions that today's developing countries are expected to install.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Proffer solution to the intractable development problems to developing countries?

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit concludes that development of developed countries was spontaneous and not achievable base on some selected orthodox economic policies or set of programmes, and that less developed countries have to rise up to the challenges of development and must not accept all specified antidote to underdevelopment by the world power and their accomplice (International Organisation) but rather filter and remove seed from shaft because they never went through and policy design and programmes for them to developed.

5.0 SUMMARY

This emphasised the historical development of developed countries and reiterates that there is no straight jacket panacea to development issues, and no developed country passes through a certain development programme or policies before they became developed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the generic steps to be followed to achieve development status.

- ii. Do you agree with W. Rostow's stages of Growth?
- iii. Examine the reasons why developing Nations remain developing after continuous growth.
- iv. Justify the reasons why development does not have a single anti-dote.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4: OVERVIEW OF DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Development theories
 - 3.2 Evolution of Development theories
 - 3.3 Some selected theories of Development
 - 3.3.1 Mercantilism Theory
 - 3.3.2 Classical Growth Theories
 - 3.3.3 Neo-Classical Growth Theories
 - 3.3.4 Harrod-Domar Growth Model
 - 3.3.5 Endogeneous Growth Model
 - 3.4 Applicability of these theories to Nigerian Economy
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This study unit discusses the evolution and meaning developmental theories as tool or mechanism of growth and development, it also examines their applicability to the domestic economy due to different characterisation of every single economy in the World.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the historical evolution of the development processes
- discuss the meaning of development theory
- discuss some development and growth theories
- examine the applicability of these development and growth theory to the African Nations, especially Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1: Meaning of Development Theories

Development theories seek to explain development processes and development inequalities based on particular characterisations of development. Development theory could also be seen as a collection of models about how desirable change in society is best achieved. Such models draw on a variety of social science disciplines and approaches.

It should be noted that development theories came-up as result of global yearnings for development of developing and underdeveloped countries, then, some developed nations became a template or caveat upon which the development models were built for other to learn. For instance, W. Rostow five (5) stages model of growth was an inspiration from the historical review of some selected developed economies, and became acceptable model of growth despites its shortcomings.

It is also important to note that, these developed countries that served as template for development of growth theories or models are themselves didn't go through special programmes or policies as could be embedded in the modern or old growth model, rather their pattern of growth serves as models themselves. In sum, building propositions, theses, models or theories should not only base on success recorded in some countries but rather should include some salient characteristics of those countries for whom the model or policies programmes were being built.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Examine the process of model building.
- ii. What do you understand by theory?
- iii. What are the basic important of development theories to the society?

3.2: Evolution of Development Theories

Under the theories of economic growth, economists have explained economic factors and their impact on economic growth. The evolution of economic theory or model of growth could be traced back to the work mercantilists in the beginning of industrial revolution. Mercantilism is an economics theory Popular at the start of the industrial revolution, although was not really a theory of economic growth but provided an insight to economic growth model through it policy which argued that a country could be made better off (growth) by seeking to accumulate gold and increasing exports (positive balance of trade and reservation of foreign reserves (in modern parlance)).

The modern evolution of economic growth theories can be drawn back from Adam Smith's book (The father of classical economists), *Wealth of Nation* (1776), in his book, he emphasised a view that the growth of an economy depends principally on division of labour. He argued further that though there are other factors which enable increased economic growth such as; the role of markets in determining supply and demand; the productivity of labour. Smith argued income per capita was determined by "*the state of the skill, dexterity, and judgment with which labour is applied in any nation*"; the role of trade in enabling greater specialisation and the Increasing returns to scale, for instance ,specialisation in modern factories and the economies of scale of increased production;

Other theories of growth include; David Ricardo and Malthus developed (another classical model). The model assumed technological change was constant and increasing inputs could lead to diminishing returns. This led to the gloomy predictions of Malthus – that the population would grow faster than the world's capacity to feed itself.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Evaluate the evolution of economic grow theories.
- ii. What justified the Mercantilist proposition as a model of growth?

3.3 Some Selected Theories of Development: An Introduction

There are hundreds of growth theory in the literature but most commonly discussed would briefly explained here. The different models of economic growth stress alternative causes of economic growth. The principal theories of economic growth include:

- i. Mercantilism – Wealth of a nation determined by accumulation of gold and running trade surplus
- ii. Classical theory – Adam Smith placed emphasis on the role of increasing returns to scale (economies of scale/specialisation)
- iii. Neo-classical-theory – Growth based on supply-side factors such as: labour productivity, size of the workforce, factor inputs.
- iv. Endogenous growth theories – Rate of economic growth strongly influenced by human capital and rate of indigenous technological innovation.
- v. Keynesian demand-side – Keynes argued that aggregate demand could play a role in influencing economic growth in the short and medium-term. Though most growth theories ignore the role of aggregate demand, some economists argue recessions can cause hysteresis effects and lower long-term economic growth.

3.3.1 Mercantilism

The work of mercantilists came-up in the beginning of industrial revolution. Mercantilism is an economics theory Popular at the start of the industrial revolution, although was not really a theory of economic growth (or growth model) but provided an insight to economic growth model through it policy which argued that a country could be made better off (growth) by seeking to accumulate gold and increasing exports (positive balance of trade and conservation of foreign reserves (in modern parlance)). That if gold was well accumulated and export is well promoted and achieved the economy will have more and more gold from sales of export and economy will be better off.

3.3.2 Classical Growth Model

The growth model was developed by Adam Smith in his book entitled the Wealth of Nations (1776), Smith argued there are several factors which enable increased economic growth.

- i. Role of markets in determining supply and demand.
- ii. The productivity of labour. Smith argued income per capita was determined by *“the state of the skill, dexterity, and judgment with which labour is applied in any nation”* (Wealth of Nations I.6).
- iii. Role of trade in enabling greater specialisation.
- iv. Increasing returns to scale – e.g. specialisation we see in modern factories and the economies of scale of increased production.

Ricardo and Malthus further improved the classical model by introducing capital which was assumed to be constant. They argued that technological change was constant and increasing inputs could lead to diminishing returns. This led to the gloomy predictions of Malthus – that the population would grow faster than the world’s capacity to feed itself. Malthus under-predicted the capacity of technological improvements to increase food yields.

3.3.3 Neo-Classical Theory

This was the result of collective work of economists such as Tobin, Swan, Solow, Meade, Phelps and Johnson is termed as neo-classical theory of economic growth. The assumptions adopted by these theorists in the neo-classical theory are based on the views and norms given by neo- classical economists, such as Alfred Marshall, Wicksell, and Pigou.

Following are some of the assumptions of the neo-classical theory:

- a. Assuming perfect competition in commodity as well as factor markets

b. Making factor payments equal to the marginal revenue productivity

c. Maintaining a variable ratio between capital and output

d. Assuming full employment condition

According to the neo-classical theory, the economic growth is determined with the help of certain factors, such as stock of capital, supply of labour, and technological development over time.

The production function for the neo-classical theory can be expressed as follows:

$$Y = F(K, L, T)$$

Where, Y = National output; K = Capital stock; L = Labour supply; T = Scale of technological development

According to the assumption of constant return to scale, increase in national output (Y) would be equal to the marginal productivity (MP) times AK and L. Therefore,

$$Y = K \cdot MP_k + L \cdot MP_l$$

Where, MP_k = marginal physical product of capital, and MP_l = marginal physical product of labour. When the equation of increase in national output is divided by Y, then we get the following equation:

$$Y/Y = K (MP_k/Y) + L (MP_l/Y)$$

The first term in the R.H.S is multiplied by K/K and second term by L/L; the resultant equation would be as follows:

$$Y/Y = K/Y (K \cdot MP_k/Y) + L/Y (L \cdot MP_l/Y)$$

The $K \cdot MP_k$ and $L \cdot MP_l$ represent the total stake of capital and labour in the national output, whereas $K/Y \cdot MP_k$ and $L/Y \cdot MP_l$ represent the relative stake of capital and labour in the national output. Therefore,

$$(K \cdot MP_k/Y) + (L \cdot MP_l/Y) = 1$$

Let us assume that $(K \cdot MP_k/Y) = b$, then

$$(L \cdot MP_l/Y) = 1 - b$$

Putting the value of $(K \cdot MP_k/Y)$ and $(L \cdot MP_l/Y)$ in the following equation, we get:

$$Y/Y = K/Y (K \cdot MP_k/Y) + L/Y (L \cdot MP_l/Y)$$

$$Y/Y = b \cdot K/K + (1 - b) \cdot L/L$$

In the preceding equation, the values of b and $1 - b$ represents the elasticity of output with reference to the capital and labour respectively.

Therefore, according to the neo-classical theory, the economic growth rate is represented as follows:

Economic growth (at a given level of technology) = Elasticity of output with reference to the increase in capital stock + Elasticity of output with reference to the increase in labour

However, in case of technological change, the change in national output can be represented as follows:

$$Y/Y = b \quad K/K + (1 - b) \quad T/T$$

Therefore, in case of technological development, the economic growth rate can be represented as follows:

Economic growth (at a given level of technology) = Elasticity of output with reference to the increase in capital stock + Elasticity of output with reference to the increase in technological progress.

3.3.4 Harrod-Domar Growth Model

Harrod-Domar emphasised that capital accumulation not only generates income, but also increases the production capacity of the economy. For instance, if a construction plant is established, it would generate income for suppliers of different materials, such as cement, bricks, steel, and machinery with simultaneous increase in capital and production capacity of the economy.

The newly generated income from capital accumulation produces demand for goods and services. According to this theory, the most necessary condition for the growth of an economy is that the demand created due to newly generated income should be sufficient enough, so that the output produced by the new investment (increase in capital) should be fully absorbed. If the output is not fully absorbed, there would be excess or idle production capacity. This condition should be satisfied consecutively to maintain full employment level and achieve steady economic growth in the long run.

Following are the main assumptions of Harrod-Domar model:

(a) Constant Capital-Output Ratio: this assumes that the relationship between capital and output always remains the same. According to this assumption, the national output (which is equal to national income) is directly proportional to capital stock, which is expressed as follows:

$$Y = Kk, (k > 0)$$

Where, Y = national output; K = total capital stock; k = output/capital ratio (constant)

As Harrod-Domar model has assumed that the output/capital ratio is constant, therefore, any type of increase in the national output would result in the k time increase in capital stock, which is as follows:

$$Y = k \quad K$$

Therefore, the increase in the growth of national output per unit time is equal to the increase in the growth of capital stock per unit time. In case the economy is in equilibrium and the capital stock is utilised completely, then the capital/output ratio (k) can be easily determined. After that, the extra capital required to produce the extra output can also be obtained. The capital stock and net investment (I) are equal to each other. Therefore, the change in national output can be represented as follows:

$$Y = kI$$

(b) Constant Saving-Income Ratio: this assumes that society saves a constant proportion of national income. Therefore, saving is a function of income, and saving function can be written as follows:

$$S = sY, (s > 0)$$

Where, S = saving per unit time; s = constant propensity to save; Y = national income

At equilibrium, savings get equal to investment, which is as follows:

$S = I = sY$ determined the growth rate, which is as follows:

$$Y_t = kI_t$$

In such case, Y_t can be calculated with the help of following formula:

$$Y_t = Y_t - Y_{t-1} \quad \text{Or} \quad Y_t - Y_{t-1} = kI_t$$

Where, Y_t = income in time period t and , Y_{t-1} = income in lime period $t - 1$

According to the assumption of this model, at equilibrium in time period t :

$$I_t = S_t = sY_t$$

3.3.5: Endogenous Growth Models

Endogenous growth models was developed by Paul Romer and Robert Lucas, they placed greater emphasis on the concept of human capital development. That is, how workers with greater knowledge, education and training can help to increase rates of technological advancement. The duo employed greater importance on the need for governments to actively encourage technological innovation. They argued that in the free market classical view, firms may have no incentive to invest in new technologies because

they will struggle to benefit in competitive markets. The model then places emphases on the following;

- Increasing both capital and labour productivity.
- That increasing labour productivity does not have diminishing returns, but, may have increasing returns
- That increasing capital does not necessarily lead to diminishing returns as Solow predicts. They say it is more complicated; it depends on the type of capital investment.
- Increased importance of spillover benefits from a knowledge-based economy.
- Free-markets, reducing regulation and subsidies. The argument is that we need to keep economies open to the forces of change.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Succinctly differentiate between theoretical argument of Classical and Neo Classical.

3.4 Applicability of these Theories to Nigerian Economy

The most applicable theory to the Nigerian situation is the endogenous growth theory which borrow its mechanism from the weaknesses of previous growth model. Such weaknesses which includes the unrealistic assumptions of constant income-saving proportion, constant output ratio, constant level of technology, saving-capital ratio also assumed to be constant.

All these unrealistic assumptions are being jettison in the new economic growth model that gives growth to capability of the endogenous factor such as labour, indigenous capital, technological innovation, this is done in line with the salient characteristic of the intending economy, unlike the other exogeneous model of growth that place credence on the external factor not controllable by the domestic economy.

However, this applicable model of growth got its strength from other exogeneous models which imply that we cannot reject all other model in its entirety because they have contributed to the body of knowledge and could still be applied to a limited extent.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Relate any two models of choice to Nigeria situation for developmental purpose.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit concludes that evolution of growth theory is dated back the period of mercantilism, but was well orchestrated in the work of Adam Smith (classical School of thought). The unit equally discussed different growth models and their applicability to the Nigerian situation.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit laid emphases on the evolution of growth theory as it was dated back the period of mercantilism and the beginning of modern growth was credited to Adam Smith. The unit equally discussed different growth models and their applicability to the Nigerian situation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the evolution of economic Growth model.
- ii. Do you agree with W. Rostow's stages of Growth?
- iii. Examine the contribution of the Classical School to growth theory.
- iv. Justify the acceptance of Endogenous growth model.

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MODULE TWO: COLONISATION, INDUSTRIALISATION AND DEVELOPMENT

UNIT 1: Colonisation and Industrialisation

UNIT 2: Rural Development and Urbanisation

UNIT 3: Gender Issues in Development

UNIT 4: Health Issues in Development

UNIT 1: COLONISATION AND INDUSTRIALISATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

4.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Meaning and definition of Colonisation

3.2 Meaning and definition of industrialisation

3.3 The links between Colonisation and Industrialisation

1.4 Problems of Industrialisation in Nigeria

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study unit is to look into the meaning of colonisation and industrialisation. The unit further tries to establish the link between colonisation and industrialisation, and the applicability of the nexus on the Nigerian economy, while providing solutions to problems of industrialisation in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the definitions and meaning of colonisation
- discuss the definitions and meaning of industrialisation
- explain the linkages between colonisation and industrialisation
- proffer solution to problem of industrialisation in Nigeria.

3.0 CONTENTS

3.1: Meaning and Definition of Colonisation

Colonisation is a process by which a central system of power dominates the surrounding land and its components. Colonisation refers strictly to migration, for example, to settler colonies in America or Australia, trading posts, and plantations, while colonialism to the existing indigenous peoples of styled "new territories".

Colonisation is the act of setting up a colony away from one's place of origin. ... With humans, colonisation is sometimes seen as a negative act because it tends to involve an invading culture establishing political control over an indigenous population (the people living there before the arrival of the settlers).

Historically, colonisation could be divided to three major era, namely Classical Era; Middle Age Era; and Modern Colonisation.

3.1.1 The Classical Colonisation Era

In ancient times, maritime nations such as the city-states of Greece and Phoenicia often established colonies to farm what they believed was uninhabited land. Land suitable for farming was often occupied by migratory 'barbarian tribes' who lived by hunting and gathering. To ancient Greeks and Phoenicians, these lands were regarded as simply vacant. However, this did not mean that conflict did not exist between the colonizers and local/native peoples. Greeks and Phoenicians also established colonies with the intent of regulating and expanding trade throughout the Mediterranean and Middle East.

Another period of colonisation in ancient times was during the Roman Empire. The Roman Empire conquered large parts of Western Europe, North Africa and West Asia. In North Africa and West Asia, the Romans often conquered what they regarded as 'civilised' peoples. As they moved north into Europe, they mostly encountered rural peoples/tribes with very little in the way of cities. In these areas, waves of Roman colonisation often followed the conquest of the areas. Many of the current cities throughout Europe began as Roman colonies, such as Cologne, Germany, originally called *Colonia Claudia Ara Agrippinensium* by the Romans, and the British capital city of London, which the Romans founded as *Londinium*.

3.1.2 Middle Age Colonisation Era

The decline and collapse of the Roman Empire saw (and was partly caused by) the large-scale movement of people in Eastern Europe and Asia. This is largely seen as beginning with nomadic horsemen from Asia (specifically the Huns) moving into the richer pasture

land to the west, thus forcing the local people there to move further west and so on until eventually the Goths were forced to cross into the Roman Empire, resulting in continuous war with Rome which played a major role in the fall of the Roman Empire. During this period there were the large-scale movements of peoples establishing new colonies all over western Europe. The events of this time saw the development of many of the modern day nations of Europe like the Franks in France and Germany and the Anglo-Saxons in England.

In West Asia, during Sassanid Empire, some Persians established colonies in Yemen and Oman. The Arabs also established colonies in Northern Africa, Mesopotamia, and the Levant, and remain the dominant majority to this day

3.1.3 Modern “Colonial Era”.

"Colonialism" in this context refers mostly to Western European countries' colonisation of lands mainly in the Americas, Africa, Asia and Oceania; The main European countries active in this form of colonisation included Spain, Portugal, France, the Kingdom of England (later Great Britain), the Netherlands, and the Kingdom of Prussia (now Germany), and, beginning in the 18th century, the United States. Most of these countries had a period of almost complete power in world trade at some stage in the period from roughly 1500 to 1900. Beginning in the late 19th century, Imperial Japan also engaged in settler colonisation, most notably in Hokkaido and Korea. Also, some reports characterize Chinese activities in Tibet as colonisation.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Explain the term Colonisation.
- ii. What are the major reasons for Colonisation?

3.2 Meaning and Definition of Industrialisation

Industrialisation is a sustained economic development based on factory production, division of labour, concentration of industries and population in certain geographical areas, and urbanisation. An industrialised nation is a country with a large manufacturing sector concentrated in a geographical area commonly referred to as industrial area. Such economy is the one in which productive capacity is so enormous that they can produce for more nation, thereby gaining the international competitive advantage.

Industrialisation could also be seen as the process by which traditionally non-industrial sectors (such as agriculture, education, health) of an economy become increasingly

similar to the manufacturing sector of the economy through technological innovation, that make increase efficiency and output (national income)

Industrialisation is also the process through which an economy is transformed from primarily agricultural to one based on the manufacturing of goods. Individual manual labour is often replaced by mechanised mass production, and craftsmen are replaced by assembly lines.

Lastly, industrialisation is the period of social and economic change that transforms a human group from an agrarian society into an industrial society, involving the extensive re-organisation of an economy for the purpose of manufacturing through complex technological innovation. Industrialisation could also mean development since developed countries are often referred to as industrialised countries. There industrialisation could involve process of development, that is, process of economic and social transformation that is based on complex cultural, production, and environmental factors and their interactions.

Characteristics of a Developed/or industrialised Country

- Education (Access to Education)
- Industrialisation: (An industrialised nation is a country with a large manufacturing sector)
- Service Economy: (The service economy is a nation's output of services)
- Knowledge Economy
- Infrastructure
- Quality of Life.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is industrialisation?
- ii. Industrialisation and development are two sides of same coin. Discuss?

3.3 The Links between Colonisation and Industrialisation

The industrial revolution in Britain, a la Lewis (1977: 7), offered two options to the rest of the world: they could imitate Britain's example, or trade their primary products for Britain's manufactures. The first option was available only to countries that were free to promote and protect their manufacturing sectors. Most countries in Asia and Africa had this ability taken away-they became colonies, quasi-colonies or dependencies – before they could exercise this choice. In the event, they took the latter route and proceeded to trade their primary exports against manufactures from advanced countries.

The dependent countries were "an ocean of liberalism" during the century and a half preceding 1950. A policy of free or nearly-free trade was the norm in the colonies until the start of Second World War. Import tariffs were levied only for revenue purposes, and these remained very modest and were often accompanied by offsetting taxes on domestic

production. The quasi-colonies were not in a visibly more envious position with regard to tariff autonomy. The open-door policies imposed on them during the first half of the nineteenth century placed severe limits on the tariffs they could impose.

In sum the industrial revolution in Europe was spurred by the African and Asian colonies because both men and materials for their then nascent industries were taken majorly from these two continents. Even African men were used to fight the world wars and many could not return (see Walter Rodney: How Europe Underdeveloped Africa)

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Succinctly, explain link between colonisation and industrialisation.

3.4 Problems of Industrialisation in Nigeria

Generally, three sets of explanations for the unequal spread of industrialisation have been proposed. For a long time, it was maintained that barriers to the spread of industrialisation were cultural. Some societies simply did not possess those attitudes to work, savings, risk taking or cooperation which are necessary for the efficient operation of markets and modern industries. Since the 1950s, the emphasis has shifted to economic obstacles, including narrow markets, poor infrastructure, weak financial institutions, falling terms of trade, and rapid population growth. A third set of radical theories seeks to explain backwardness as the result of dis-equalizing tendencies emanating from world capitalism.

The Nigerian problem of industrialisation could be fixed within the second and third set of reasons in first paragraph, but in addition to that, the influence of colonial masters, slave trade and annexation of Africa (Nigeria inclusive) raw materials and men to developed their (Europeans) economic can never be down played (see also Walter Rodney: How Europe Underdeveloped Africa).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are the factors limiting Nigeria's industrialisation?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we conclude that colonisation was part of the problem of industrialisation in Nigeria.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit vividly looked at the term colonisation, industrialisation, and their linkages as well as the reason for the failure of industrialisation in Nigeria.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Vividly explain the meaning of colonisation.
2. List and explain the reasons for the failed industrialisation in Nigeria.
3. Explain the link between colonisation and industrialisation?

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UNIT 2: RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND URBANISATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Rural Area and Rural Development
 - 3.2 Meaning of Urban Area and Urbanisation
 - 3.3 Rural-Urban Migrations
 - 3.4 Factors that lead to problem of Urbanisation and Solutions to Problems associated with Urbanisation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study unit is to analyse the reason for rural-urban migration as well as issues in urbanisation and to reduce the rural-urban drift. The unit also includes the resolution to fix the problem of urbanisation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- define the meaning of rural area
- define urban area
- discuss the term urbanisation
- proffer solution to problem of urbanisation in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Rural Area and Rural Development

In general, a **rural area** or countryside is a geographic **area** that is located outside towns and cities. Whatever is not urban is considered rural. A typical rural area has the following characteristics; a low population density, small settlements and mostly agricultural areas.

A rural area can also be conceived as an area of land outside the densely populated urban areas in a town or city. Rural areas are traditionally areas not included in the urban definition, and are usually large, open areas with few houses and few people, as opposed to urban areas which have larger populations.

While rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic prosperity of rural dwellers, often relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. However, rural development has traditionally centered on the utilisation of land-intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry. However, change in the world production and increased urbanisation have changed the character of rural areas. Increasingly tourism, vocation manufacturers, and recreation have replaced resource extraction and agriculture as dominant economic drivers. The need for rural communities to approach development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentive for agricultural or resource based businesses. Education, entrepreneurship, physical infrastructure, and social infrastructure all play an important role in developing rural regions. Rural development is also characterised by its emphasis on locally produced economic development strategies.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

- i. Describe the term rural area.

3.2 Meaning of Urban Area and Urbanisation

Urban Area is a human settlement with high population density and infrastructure of built environment. Urban areas are created through Urbanisation and are categorised by urban morphology as cities, towns, conurbations, or suburbs.

Therefore, urbanisation refers to the increasing number of people that live in urban areas, and it is predominantly results in the physical growth of urban areas, be it horizontal or vertical. The United Nations projected that half of the world's population would live in urban areas at the end of 2008 and that by 2050 it is predicted that 64.1% and 85.9% of the developing and developed world respectively will be urbanised (United Nation, 2008).

Urbanisation is closely linked to modernisation, industrialisation, and the sociological process of rationalisation. It can be described as a specific condition at a set time, i.e. the proportion of total population or area in cities or towns, or the term can describe the increase of this proportion over time. So the term urbanisation can also represent the level of urban development relative to overall population, or it can represent the rate at which the urban proportion is increasing.

It is pertinent to note that urbanisation is not merely a modern phenomenon, but a rapid and historic transformation of human social roots on a global scale, whereby predominantly rural culture is being rapidly replaced by predominantly urban culture.

The last major change in settlement patterns was the accumulation of hunter-gatherers into villages many thousand years ago and other village culture is characterised by common bloodlines, intimate relationships, and communal behaviour whereas urban culture is characterised by distant bloodlines, unfamiliar relations, and competitive behaviour.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What do you understand by urbanisation?
- ii. Urban area and urbanisation is the same. Discuss.

3.3 Rural-Urban Migration

Rural-Urban migration is the movement of people from the countryside to the city. This causes three things to happen:

1. Urban growth - towns and cities are expanding, covering a greater area of land.
2. Urbanisation - an increasing proportion of people living in towns and cities. (and Mega cities - those with over 10 million people).
3. Rural depopulation is usually when numbers of working age people migrate from the countryside to earn more money in the city. They leave behind the old and the young.

A number of factors are responsible for rural–urban migration or urbanisation itself. These factors could be divided into two parts namely, the push factors and the pull factors.

The Push Factors include the following among others;

- i. Natural disasters (Such as Famine, drought, flooding etc.)
- ii. Poor living conditions (Poverty of different dimension)
- iii. Housing, Education and Healthcare
- iv. Agricultural change (changes in Agricultural policy and technological revolution that made machine took-over the jobs of human).
- v. Unemployment (Seeking for white collar jobs)
- vi. War and conflict (intermittent communal crises)

The Pull Factors include the following among others

- i. Employment (Employment opportunities)
- ii. Higher incomes (higher income could be easily earned in the cities than village)

- iii. Better healthcare and education (Urban setting affords dwellers with good healthcare delivery and educational system)
- iv. Urban facilities and way of life (Westernisation is well pronounced in urban setting)
- v. Protection from conflict (Presence of police station and other securities apparatus)
- vi. Access to Security and Social Justice
- vii. Attraction to the urban areas (People are attracted to urban areas because they think that they will have greater opportunities there. For many, life is better but some end up in poverty).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Discuss two each of Pull and Push Factors of urbanisation.

3.4 Factors that lead to problem of Urbanisation and Solution to problem of Urbanisation

More than half of the world's population lives in urban areas. Due to the ongoing urbanisation and growth of the world's population, there will be about 2.5 billion more people added to the urban population by 2050, mainly in the global south (Africa and Asia). The factors that lead to influx of people from rural area to urban cities is explained in **3.3 above** further created another set of problems in the urban area which did not exclude any urban cities around the world. The world's urban areas are highly varied, but many cities and towns are facing problems such as a lack of jobs, homelessness and expanding squatter settlements, inadequate services and infrastructure, poor health and educational services and high levels of pollution.

Solutions to Urbanisation

1. Building sustainable and environmentally friendly cities

Governments should pass laws that plan and provide environmentally sound cities and smart growth techniques, considering that people should not reside in unsafe and polluted areas. The objective here is to build sustainable cities that embrace improved environmental conditions and safe habitats for all urban populations. Governments should also encourage sustainable use of urban resources and support an economy based on sustainable environment such as investment in green infrastructure, sustainable industries, recycling and environmental campaigns, pollution management.

2. Provision of essential services

Urban stakeholders must ensure all populations within the urban areas have access to adequate essential social services namely education, health, sanitation and clean water, technology, electricity, and food. The objective here is to provide and implement employment opportunities and wealth creation activities so that people can earn a living to pay for the maintenance of the services. Subsidies can also be availed by the government to lower the costs of basic healthcare, basic education, energy, public transportation, communication systems.

3. Creation of more jobs and skills development

To lessen the negative effects of rapid urbanisation while at the same time conserving natural ecosystems, private investments should be encouraged so as to utilize natural resources and create more job opportunities. Tourism promotion and the sustainable exploitation of natural resources can create more jobs for the urban populations.

4. Population control

Key stakeholders in urban areas must provide campaigns and counseling for effective medical health clinics and family planning to help reduce the high rates of population growth. Medical health clinics oriented towards family planning options must be made accessible across the entire urban area with the objective of controlling diseases and population growth.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- ii. List and explain the factors that could create problem of urbanisation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit concludes that rural-urban migration came to being because of the neglect of rural areas and also as result of technological innovation that foster industrialisation in the urban setting. However, problem was also created from in-flux of people from rural area and must be addressed by the Government.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit really emphasised the issue of movement of people from rural areas to urban setting (urbanisation), and this movement resulted to yet another problem that the rural

migrant did not envisage which must be solved by the government or else there would be anarchy.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Vividly explain the meaning of rural area.
- ii. How does rural area differ from urban area?
- iii. Migrant from rural to urban area. creates some salient problems, what are these problems and how can it be resolved?

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UNIT 3: GENDER ISSUES IN DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Gender
 - 3.2 Gender and household income
 - 3.3 Problems of gender inequality
 - 3.4 Solutions to gender inequality
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit, that is, Unit 2 of Module 2, we learnt the importance of development studies. In this present unit, which is Unit 3 of our Module 2, we shall discuss the meaning of meaning of gender, gender and household income, problems of gender inequality and solutions to gender inequality.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the meaning of gender
- analyse gender and household income
- discuss problems of gender inequality
- proffer solutions to gender inequality.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Gender

Gender is defined as the different social and cultural roles, expectations and constraints placed upon girls/women and boys/men because of their sex (the biological differences between them). Gender refers to the socially constructed characteristics of women and men – such as norms, roles and relationships of and between groups of

women and men (WHO, 2019). It varies from society to society and can be changed. While most people are born either male or female, they are taught appropriate norms and behaviours – including how they should interact with others of the same or opposite sex within households, communities and work places. When individuals or groups do not “fit” established gender norms they often face stigma, discriminatory practices or social exclusion – all of which adversely affect health. It is important to be sensitive to different identities that do not necessarily fit into binary male or female sex categories. Gender norms, roles and relations influence people’s susceptibility to different health conditions and diseases and affect their enjoyment of good mental, physical health and wellbeing. They also have a bearing on people’s access to and uptake of health services and on the health outcomes they experience throughout the life-course.

Gender is the range of characteristics pertaining to, and differentiating between, masculinity and femininity. Depending on the context, these characteristics may include biological sex (i.e., the state of being male, female, or an intersex variation), sex-based social structures (i.e., gender roles), or gender identity (Udry, 1994; Haig, 2004; WHO, 2015). Most cultures use a gender binary, having two genders (boys/men and girls/women); (Kelvin, 2017) those who exist outside these groups fall under the umbrella term *non-binary* or *genderqueer*. Some societies have specific genders besides "man" and "woman", such as the hijras of South Asia; these are often referred to as *third genders* (and *fourth genders*, etc.).

Sexologist John Money introduced the terminological distinction between biological sex and gender as a role in 1955. Before his work, it was uncommon to use the word *gender* to refer to anything but grammatical categories (Udry, 1994; Haig, 2004). However, Money's meaning of the word did not become widespread until the 1970s, when feminist theory embraced the concept of a distinction between biological sex and the social construct of gender. Today, the distinction is followed in some contexts, especially the social sciences (Social Science Dictionary, 2015; Lindsey, 2010) and documents written by the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2015).

In other contexts, including some areas of the social sciences, *gender* includes *sex* or replaces it (Udry, 1994; Haig, 2004). For instance, in non-human animal research, *gender* is commonly used to refer to the biological sex of the animals (Haig, 2004). This change in the meaning of gender can be traced to the 1980s. In 1993, the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) started to use *gender* instead of *sex*. Later, in 2011, the FDA reversed its position and began using *sex* as the biological classification and *gender* as "a person's self-representation as male or female, or how that person is responded to by social institutions based on the individual's gender presentation." (U.S. food and Drug Administration. (2019).

3.1.1 Key Concepts and Terminology

There are often misconceptions about terms related to gender. The followings are key concepts and terminologies relating to gender:

Gender: The different social and cultural roles, expectations and constraints placed upon girls/women and boys/men because of their sex (the biological differences between them).

Gender analysis: Looking at the impact of development on girls/women and boys/men by separating data by sex, and understanding how work, for example, is divided, valued and rewarded. It examines how an activity; decision or plan will affect each gender.

Gender audit: Analysing and evaluating policies, programmes and institutions in terms of how institutions have made changes based on gender considerations and whether they are successfully meeting gender-related criteria.

Gender awareness: Understanding that socially and culturally determined differences between girls/women and boys/men based on learned behaviour affect their ability to access and control resources.

Gender balance (or gender parity): The equal participation of women and men at all levels of an organisation and in all areas of work.

Gender blindness: Failing to recognise that the roles and responsibilities of girls/women and boys/men are often determined by gender, which can affect quality of life.

Gender champions: In the workplace, managers and staff who spearhead, support and sustain gender equality and gender equality initiatives in their organisation, and support staff who focus on its technical aspects.

Gender equality: Equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities for everyone, regardless of their sex. It does not mean that girls/women and boys/men will become the same but that their interests, needs and priorities are considered equally important, while recognising the diversity of different groups of girls/women and boys/men. It is considered a human rights issue and a precondition and indicator of sustainable people-centred development.

Gender mainstreaming: The process of assessing the implications for girls/women and boys/men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for integrating the concerns and experiences of both genders into the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and

programmes so that everyone benefits equally. Its ultimate goal is gender equality.

Gender sensitive: Being sensitive to the different needs and experiences of male and female users of a programme. In an ODL context, it means producing courses or learning materials to meet the needs of all learners.

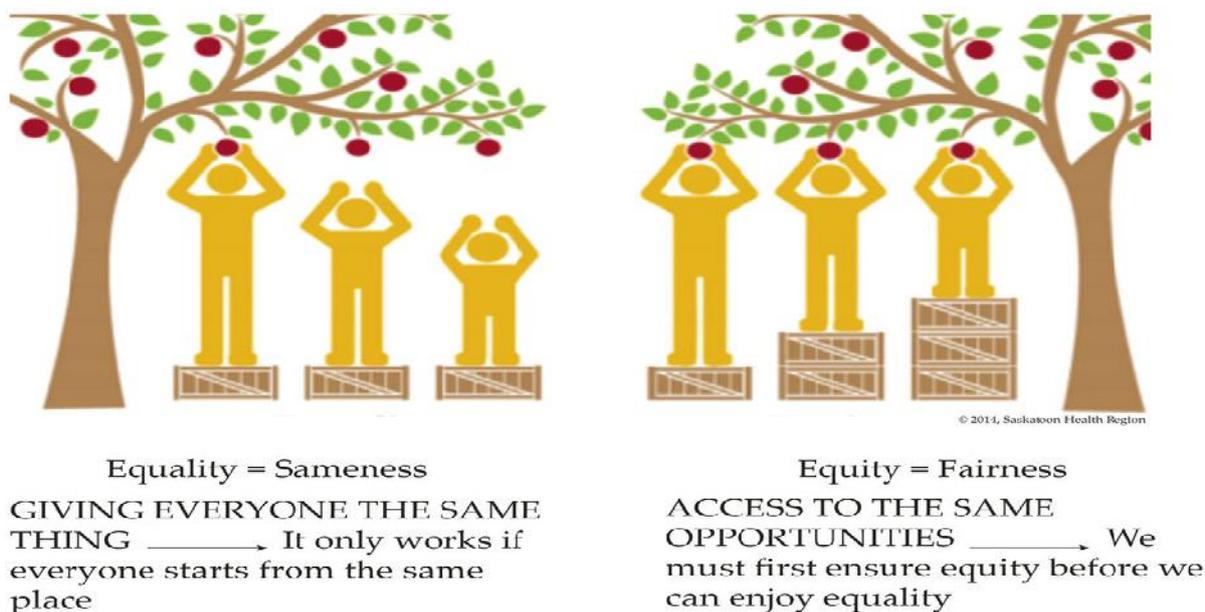
Knowledge Management (KM): A set of principles, tools and practices that enable the creation of knowledge and allow people in a specific context to share, translate and apply what they know to create value and improve effectiveness.

Knowledge Management Systems: Tools and practices to organise store and make accessible the combined knowledge of an organisation. Logical Framework Analysis (LFA): A planning and management tool used to present the key components of a plan, project or programme in a table or framework format.

3.1.2 The Difference between Gender Equity and Gender Equality

Many of us have heard the terms gender equality and gender equity but might not know what these terms mean, the difference between the two, or how they relate to men's violence against women. In short, gender equality describes the achievement of equal outcomes for women, men and gender diverse people. Gender equity describes the process we need to undertake to achieve gender equality, by being fair to women and men. This approach recognises that, due to historical and social disadvantages women and gender diverse people are not in the same 'starting position' as men. As such, treating women, gender diverse people and men equally might not actually be fair, and can create further disadvantage. Gender equity measures are often required to redress the imbalance and level the playing field.

This illustration demonstrates the difference between equality and equity.



Equity image credit: Please note, this image was adapted from an image © 2014, Saskatoon Health Region

Fig 1: Gender inequality is recognised internationally as a root cause of men’s violence against women

Source: Commonwealth of Learning. (CoL, 2019)

3.2 Gender and Household Income

Women within poor households tend to be more vulnerable than men. In terms of income, they usually have access to fewer assets, face a different set of constraints, adopt different strategies from men, and pursue different outcomes. One cannot assume that the wants and needs of men and women will be the same. The livelihood strategies of women often focus on meeting the basic needs of their children for whom they often bear a disproportionate share of the responsibility within the household. Indeed, the vulnerability of women is often matched by the vulnerability of their children.

In development, weaknesses in the unitary household model have focused increasing attention on intra-household gender issues, including gender roles, inequalities in the distribution of power and resources, and the vulnerability of women. It is now widely recognised that poverty studies and poverty reduction initiatives that treat the household as a homogenous unit may fail to recognize or address the true nature of poverty within the household.

Gender inequality is most common in women dealing with poverty. Many women must shoulder all the responsibility of the household because they must take care of the family.

Oftentimes this may include tasks such as tilling land, grinding grain, carrying water and cooking (UNDP, 2014). Also, women are more likely to earn low incomes because of gender discrimination, as men are more likely to receive higher pay, have more opportunities, and have overall more political and social capital than women (Peterson, 1987). Approximately 75% of world's women are unable to obtain bank loans because they have unstable jobs (UNDP, 2014). It shows that there are many women in the world's population but only a few represent world's wealth. In many countries, the financial sector largely neglects women even though they play an important role in the economy, as Nena Stoiljkovic pointed out in *D+C Development and Cooperation* (Stoiljkovic, 2019).

Across the board, a number of industries are stratified across the genders. This is the result of a variety of factors. These include differences in education choices, preferred job and industry, work experience, number of hours worked, and breaks in employment (such as for bearing and raising children). Men also typically go into higher paid and higher risk jobs when compared to women. These factors result in 60% to 75% difference between men's and women's average aggregate wages or salaries, depending on the source. Various explanations for the remaining 25% to 40% have been suggested, including women's lower willingness and ability to negotiate salary and sexual discrimination. According to the European Commission direct discrimination only explains a small part of gender wage differences.

Human capital theories refer to the education, knowledge, training, experience, or skill of a person which makes them potentially valuable to an employer. This has historically been understood as a cause of the gendered wage and income gap but is no longer a predominant cause as women and men in certain occupations tend to have similar education levels or other credentials. Even when such characteristics of jobs and workers are controlled for, the presence of women within a certain occupation leads to lower wages. This earnings discrimination is considered to be a part of pollution theory. This theory suggests that jobs which are predominated by women offer lower wages than do jobs simply because of the presence of women within the occupation. As women enter an occupation, this reduces the amount of prestige associated with the job and men subsequently leave these occupations. The entering of women into specific occupations suggests that less competent workers have begun to be hired or that the occupation is becoming deskilled. Men are reluctant to enter female-dominated occupations because of this and similarly resist the entrance of women into male-dominated occupations.

The gendered income disparity can also be attributed in part to occupational segregation, where groups of people are distributed across occupations according to ascribed characteristics; in this case, gender. Occupational gender segregation can be understood to contain two components or dimensions; horizontal segregation and vertical segregation. With horizontal segregation, occupational sex segregation occurs as men and women are thought to possess different physical, emotional, and mental capabilities. These different capabilities make the genders vary in the types of jobs they are suited for.

This can be specifically viewed with the gendered division between manual and non-manual labour. With vertical segregation, occupational sex segregation occurs as occupations are stratified according to the power, authority, income, and prestige associated with the occupation and women are excluded from holding such jobs.

Note: You should on your own study the issue of Sharia and women in purdah.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define the following concepts:

- i. Gender mainstreaming
- ii. Gender blindness
- iii. Gender Champions
- iv. Gender sensitive
- v. Knowledge management

3.3 Problems of Gender Inequality

The subordination and subjugation of women is sanctified by our deep rooted Indian traditions. Patriarchy, dowry and commoditisation of women are institutions which reinforces gender discrimination. Therefore, gender equality cannot be achieved through affirmative action alone, until there is major transformation in both social ideas and institutions. To achieve this, our education system should be made gender sensitive. Obviously, discrimination with respect to gender inequality in globally is at the apex in the contemporary era. Gender inequality is a socio-cultural phenomenon that divides people into various categories such as male and female with a very high bias placing one specifically less than the other. Here attention is given to the sorry and pitiable state of women in the world under marginalisation and suppression from the men in a bid to continually exercise undue superiority over them. Gender inequality in our society today, is among the most prevalent forms of social inequality which exists all over the world, with different effects in different regions. These differences are primarily due to cultural legacies, historical development, geographical location and religious norms which predominate the society. Religion plays a vital role in the cultural life of different spaces. It is deeply rooted in peoples' experiences and influences the socio-economic and political direction of the society. The status of women in the society is an outcome of the interpretation of religious text and the cultural and the institutional set-up of religious communities. The role of religion is obviously complex and it varies across time and space.

The problems of gender inequality have been on for decades, as the modern society has redefined the role of a woman, which is vastly different from what it's used to be in the middle ages. However, patriarchy and gender inequality is always a touchy topic when it comes to Africa because it is largely influenced by religious beliefs and the diverse cultures. Nigeria is not left out. In the Northern Part of Nigeria, Women are still largely

considered to be lowly to men, as women are only seen fit to be home keepers and child bearers. Moreover, some would argue that the idea that women are inferior to men is not limited to the northern part of Nigeria alone, but rather, it's all over the country. This notion was, in some ways, re-enacted when the President of Nigeria, Muhammadu Buhari, said in a press conference that took place in Germany that a woman's role doesn't go beyond the kitchen and the "other room." Though this statement was made regarding his wife, the whole world conceded that it's probably the way Nigeria, as a country, sees her women, and who wouldn't agree?

3.3.1 Causes of Gender Inequality in Nigeria

There are ideologies behind gender inequality in Nigeria, whether it's cultural or religious, it stems from somewhere, and its lengthy existence simply means the causes are as strong as the impacts. Below are some of the common causes of gender inequality in Nigeria.

i. Improper Education: "Knowledge is power." It might not be a strong point, but this is pointing more towards some parts of Nigeria that are rejecting western views on women, to stick to cultural ones. Education is nothing if you leave all you learn in school and still behave like a savage when you get back home. In other words, it must be obvious that you are educated. There are two ways to this, a community that's poorly educated can never know the worth of women and a woman that is not educated cannot know her rights, talk less of the myriad of things she's capable of contributing to the modern society. Gender Institutions and Development Data Base (GID-DB) statistics show that about 65% of women are educated in Africa, behind a higher percentage of 70% of men. It has also been noticed that parents don't usually encourage the education of their female children because they believe it will be of no benefit to them, as any money or success she earns in the future, due to her education, will be of her husband's, not theirs.

ii. Tradition and Culture: Tradition is said to be the custom of a particular society, while culture is simply the way of life. When was the last time you heard about a female traditional ruler among the ethnic groups? The reason it has never happened is that it is deemed an abomination in almost every ethnic group. "Why should a woman be leading when there are able men to that could lead?" such is the typical cultural dogma that has plagued many thrones and political seats in Nigeria. Don't even dare suggest female leadership to the elders of the community, you might lose your head.

iii. Mentality

It's hard to keep "mentality" as a standalone point, as it is largely influenced by culture and tradition. However, if you look at it from a subjectively, from a woman's view, it stands alone, how? Many women are not ambitious because they believe top positions aren't meant for men. Even some ladies complain about having a female boss simply

because are used to having a male boss. It almost seems clandestine for women to want to occupy a political position or the hot sit in a company. Such a mentality is usually created and forged by a woman's immediate environment. If you've never seen a woman lead, you would think that it is normal for women not lead even if you weren't directly told, right?

iv. Religion: It's not a secret that religion is one of the top contributors to gender inequality in the world. Should religion be erased? No. In fact, religion is one of the many things that guide the masses in living a good and peaceful life. Religion is one of the biggest contributors to peace on earth. However, some religions or religious practices restrict the role of women to just domestic roles, making it impossible for them to even think about holding a political post.

v. The absence of Empowerment: Many societies really don't do much to encourage its women, not feeding the potential in every woman in the community, leaving it lying dormant. Every government needs to see the importance of empowering young women. There are only a few seminars out there for this particular cause. When was the last time a programme about women's rights was held in your community? Gender inequality affects everyone. There are certain problems with gender inequality that shouldn't be ignored by any society. Though usually viewed as a human rights problem, gender equality is vital for the attaining of progressive and sustainable economic development and a peaceful environment. This is even truer about Nigeria because women are about 50% of the population of the country; therefore, not allowing women to contribute to the country's prosperity may as well become an economic self-termination.

3.4 Solutions to Gender Inequality

However, it is pertinent for societal development that gender equality and the emancipation of women should be considered as important factors for the economic, social and democratic progress of women worldwide. This process can be influenced by institutional norms, as well as culture and tradition, which are both determined by religion. As the relationship between religion and society is reciprocal, religious systems are expected to advocate for women liberation and freedom. It is apparently, that the status of the study of women in religion also reflects the status of women in the society as a whole, while considering this fact. Addressing gender inequality through social protection programmes designed to increase equity would be an effective way of reducing gender inequality, according to the Overseas Development Institute (ODI). Researchers at the ODI argue for the need to develop the following in social protection in order to reduce gender inequality and increase growth:

- Community childcare to give women greater opportunities to seek employment.
- Support parents with the care costs (e.g. South African child/disability grants).

- Education stipends for girls (e.g. Bangladesh's Girls Education Stipend scheme).
- Awareness-raising regarding gender-based violence, and other preventive measures, such as financial support for women and children escaping abusive environments (e.g. NGO pilot initiatives in Ghana).
- Inclusion of programme participants (women and men) in designing and evaluating social protection programmes.
- Gender-awareness and analysis training for programme staff.
- Collect and distribute information on coordinated care and service facilities (e.g. access to micro-credit and micro-entrepreneurial training for women).
- Developing monitoring and evaluation systems that include sex-disaggregated data.

The ODI maintains that society limits governments' ability to act on economic incentives. NGOs tend to protect women against gender inequality and structural violence. During war, combatants primarily target men. Both sexes die however, due to disease, malnutrition and incidental crime and violence, as well as the battlefield injuries which predominately affect men. A 2009 review of papers and data covering war related deaths disaggregated by gender concluded "It appears to be difficult to say whether more men or women die from conflict conditions overall." The ratio also depends on the type of war, for example in the Falklands War 904 of the 907 dead were men. Conversely figures for war deaths in 1990, almost all relating to civil war, gave ratios in the order of 1.3 males per female.

Another opportunity to tackle gender inequality is presented by modern information and communication technologies. In a carefully controlled study, it has been shown that women embrace digital technology more than men. Given that digital information and communication technologies have the potential to provide access to employment, education, income, health services, participation, protection, and safety, among others (ICT4D), the natural affinity of women with these new communication tools provide women with a tangible bootstrapping opportunity to tackle social discrimination.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, men and women have increasingly similar educational backgrounds and demographics, which tend to narrow career outcomes. Nonetheless, women continue to show systematic differences in labour force participation, full-time status, and the effect of children on careers. An equal society begins with women reclaiming their strong voice, and then gender wouldn't be as much of a relation of power. Aside from a few biological differences, men and women are equal. For well-balanced and sustainable social development, men and women must have equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit, the meaning of gender, gender and household income, problems of gender inequality and solutions to gender inequality. We shall discuss health in the next unit that is Unit 4 of Modules 2 which addresses the meaning of health and health education, healthcare and healthcare outcome, healthcare delivery system in Nigeria, and healthcare policy and programme in Nigeria.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

List and discuss five (5) causes of gender inequality in Nigeria.

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UNIT 4 HEALTH ISSUES IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit, that is, Unit 3 of Module 2, we learnt the meaning of gender, gender and household income, problems of gender inequality and solutions to gender inequality. In this present unit, which is Unit 4 of our Module 2, we shall discuss the meaning of health and health education, healthcare and healthcare outcomes, healthcare delivery system in Nigeria, healthcare policy and programme in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the meaning of health and health education
- analyse healthcare and healthcare outcomes
- discuss healthcare delivery system in Nigeria
- evaluate healthcare policy and programme in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Health and Health Education

Historically, the word health appeared approximately in the year 1000 A. D. Dolfman (1973) and Balog (1978) studied the roots of the concept of health. The word originally came from Old English and it meant the state and the condition of being sound or whole.

More precisely, health was associated not only with the physiological functioning, but with mental and moral soundness, and spiritual salvation, as well. Though the word health has often been preceded by both positive and negative qualifiers such as good, bad or poor, it has always been regarded as a positive entity. For the ancient Greeks, health was always an attribute of paramount importance. Their initial ideas of health as a divine responsibility and illness as a supernatural phenomenon were replaced by their recognition of the relevance of personal life habits and environmental factors for men's health status. The Greeks' ideas of health and illness have undoubtedly exerted a major impact on the Western views of health. However, with advances in the fields of medicine, science, sociology, psychology, and politics, the more philosophical theories of health began to be challenged and substituted by more scientific ones. Insofar as researchers agree that individuals' ideas of health and illness have an impact on their health attitudes and behaviour, people's thoughts of health and health – related issues are increasingly being investigated.

The Meaning of Health as suggested by Balog (1978), three major views of health have emerged in more recent time: (a) the traditional medical concept, (b) the World Health Organisation concept, and (c) the ecological concept. A description of these views, as well as their major assumptions and problems will be presented next.

The Traditional Health Concept: The earliest notion of health as a disease-free state represents the traditional medical concept. This view of health was largely accepted during the first half of the twentieth century, mainly between physicians and medical personnel. As described by Balog (1978), such a traditional medical concept of health was based on the assumption that health and disease were objective and observable phenomena. Developments in the areas of anatomy, bacteriology and physiology contributed to this view. Rather than representing the presence of certain attributes, health was therefore defined solely in terms of the lack of disease, symptoms, signs or problems. Major pitfalls of this view of health were both that it conceptualised health emphasising illness, and that it neglected the individual as a whole by overemphasising specific diseases and parts of the body. Additionally, this traditional view of health assumed there is a dichotomy between health and illness which according to Hinkle (1961) may not be necessarily the case. To be healthy, individuals do not necessary need to be in an absolute disease-free state, but they probably will have less disease than unhealthy people. Thus, the absence of disease, symptoms or problems may not be strong enough delimiters of a healthy state.

The World Health Organisation Concept of Health: In the late 1940's, the World Health Organisation developed a more holistic concept of health as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely as the absence of disease or infirmity" (WHO, 1947; p. 1-2). Rather than restricting health to an absence of illness, health was conceptualised more in terms of the presence of absolute and positive qualities. This holistic and more utopian view of health encompasses and extends the traditional medical view by conceiving health as a positive state of well-being in which

physical health is only one of the aspects involved. Along with that, social, psychological, physical, economic and political aspects were incorporated in the definition of health, and regarded as components of paramount importance for health and well-being. By adding the psychological and social criteria, the authors of the World Health Organisation concept of health not only acknowledged that health and illness are essentially multicausal, but also shifted the focus from a strictly medical perspective in which absence of illness was the criteria used to evaluate a person's status. The new view of health, however also presents some drawbacks since the qualities of well-being and wellness have not been clearly defined yet. By being so broad and vague, the World Health Organisation concept, according to Lewis (1953), lacks specificity enough to be defined operationally and to be applied to practical situations. Moreover, the WHO definition implies an idea of a complete perfect state which is unrealistic and unreachable (Segre & Ferraz, 1997). Nevertheless, the WHO's definition of health is the most important recognised definition globally.

The Ecological Concept of Health: More ecological and relative notions of health emerged in the 1960s and 1970s. Such perspectives differed from the previous medical and holistic approaches mainly in two aspects: first, by conceiving health as a more relative sort of concept and, second, by placing a greater emphasis on the interrelationships between the environment and the individual's quality of life. These ecological and relative definitions of health tended to be heavily based on an evaluation of the person's level of functioning and adaptation to the environment. Within the more function-oriented perspectives, health has been defined either in terms of an adequate functional capacity which allows the individuals to carry out their duties and responsibilities (Oberteuffer, 1960), or in terms of a certain quality of life which enables individuals to live happily, successfully, fruitfully, and creatively (Williams, 1946; Bauer & Schaller, 1955; Hoyman, 1962). Parsons (1958) differentiated between physical and mental health functioning. Mental health level was defined in terms of individual's ability to carry out institutionalised social roles, while the evaluation of somatic health was based on the individual's effectiveness in accomplishing valued tasks.

Health education is any combination of learning process and experiences designed to help individuals and communities improve their health, by increasing their knowledge or influencing their attitudes (WHO, 2019). The education which is related to health is also known as health education. Health education is a profession of educating people about health (McKenzie, Neiger, & Thackeray, 2009). Areas within this profession encompass environmental health, physical health, social health, emotional health, intellectual health, and spiritual health, as well as sexual and reproductive health education. (Donatelle, 2009; UNESCO, 2018).

Health education can be defined as the principle by which individuals and groups of people, learn to behave in a manner conducive to the promotion, maintenance, or restoration of health. However, as there are multiple definitions of health, there are also multiple definitions of health education. The Joint Committee on Health Education and

Promotion Terminology of 2001 defined Health Education as "any combination of planned learning experiences based on sound theories that provide individuals, groups, and communities the opportunity to acquire information and the skills needed to make quality health decisions." (Joint Committee on Terminology, 2001). The World Health Organisation defined Health Education as "comprising of consciously constructed opportunities for learning involving some form of communication designed to improve health literacy, including improving knowledge, and developing life skills which are conducive to individual and community health." (WHO, 1998).

3.2 Healthcare and Healthcare Outcomes

Health care, health-care, or healthcare is the maintenance or improvement of health via the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of disease, illness, injury, and other physical and mental impairments in people. Health care is delivered by health professionals in allied health fields. Physicians and physician associates are a part of these health professionals. Dentistry, midwifery, nursing, medicine, optometry, audiology, pharmacy, psychology, occupational therapy, physical therapy and other health professions are all part of health care. It includes work done in providing primary care, secondary care, and tertiary care, as well as in public health.

On the other hand, as explained in sub-section 3.1 above, WHO developed a more holistic concept of health as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely as the absence of disease or infirmity" (WHO, 1947; p. 1-2). Access to health care may vary across countries, communities, and individuals, largely influenced by social and economic conditions as well as health policies. Providing health care services means "the timely use of personal health services to achieve the best possible health outcomes." (USNASEM, 1993). Factors to consider in terms of healthcare access include financial limitations (such as insurance coverage), geographic barriers (such as additional transportation costs, possibility to take paid time off of work to use such services), and personal limitations (lack of ability to communicate with healthcare providers, poor health literacy, low income) (RHIH, 2019). Limitations to health care services affect negatively the use of medical services, efficacy of treatments, and overall outcome (well-being, mortality rates).

Health care systems are organisations established to meet the health needs of targeted populations. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), a well-functioning health care system requires a financing mechanism, a well-trained and adequately paid workforce, reliable information on which to base decisions and policies, and well maintained health facilities to deliver quality medicines and technologies (WHO, 2013).

An efficient health care system can contribute to a significant part of a country's economy, development and industrialisation. Health care is conventionally regarded as an important determinant in promoting the general physical and mental health and well-being of people around the world. An example of this was the worldwide eradication of smallpox in 1980, declared by the WHO as the first disease in

human history to be completely eliminated by deliberate health care interventions. (WHO, 2010)

Health **outcomes** are changes in health that result from measures or specific **health care** investments or interventions. Health **outcomes** include preventing death after a heart attack through in-hospital care. Defining health outcomes can be a major hurdle in progressing to collecting and using outcomes data. There is, as yet, no standard definition of health outcomes in the UK or internationally. It is important to distinguish outcomes from outputs. Health outputs have been the traditional way to quantify healthcare delivery and are an important source of data but do not provide the information required to measure value and improve healthcare. Outcomes include patient-reported measures about patients' care and specific data about the efficacy of the treatment patients receive in addressing their condition. Health outcomes, although not defined precisely by clinicians, are understood in a similar way. According to Australia's New South Wales Health Department a health outcome is the: 'change in the health of an individual, group of people or population which is attributable to an intervention or series of interventions'

This definition is helpful because it makes clear that determining health outcomes, first and foremost, involves measuring a change. Secondly, they can relate to individual patients or entire populations and finally, the outcomes are related to specific interventions. ICHOM defines health outcomes simply as 'the results of treatment that patients care about most'. ICHOM says, 'when seeking treatment, patients want to know what their life will be like after treatment: will I return to work, will I be able to take care of myself, and will my symptoms improve? Helping patients answer these questions is why we formed ICHOM'. The ICHOM focus on what matters to patients in determining outcomes comes from the work of one of its founders, Professor Michael Porter. Porter says, 'in any field, quality should be measured from the customer's perspective, not the supplier's. In health care, outcomes should be centred on the patient, not the individual units or specialties involved in care'. Porter points out that this means outcomes measures ought to consider the success of all the acute care, related complications, rehabilitation and reoccurrences a patient experiences for a particular condition or as part of preventive care, rather the outcome of a single intervention that is part of ongoing care. This is because a single intervention, such as a surgical procedure, may be successful in its aims but if the patient's subsequent rehabilitation fails, for example, the outcome is poor. Porter sums this up as 'patient satisfaction with care is a process measure, not an outcome. Patient satisfaction with health is an outcome measure'. Health outcomes, according to Porter and the work of ICHOM, can be defined according to health status, process of recovery and sustainability of health. These should be defined specifically for each medical condition ICHOM aims to create a worldwide standard for health outcomes, just as there are worldwide standards for clinical coding. To do this ICHOM plans to develop 'standard sets' of patient-centred health outcomes and, crucially, a standard methodology for measuring outcomes.

As explained in HFMA's Healthcare Finance magazine, 'each set includes baseline conditions and risk factors to enable case-mix adjustment, so that comparisons of outcomes can take into account the differences in patient populations. It also includes high-level treatment variables to allow stratification of outcomes by major treatment types, a data dictionary and scoring guides for patient-reported outcomes'. By way of example, the article notes the standard set for hip and knee osteoarthritis, 'broadly identifies 10 outcome measures broken into three broad categories: acute complications of treatment (such as mortality or readmissions); patient-reported measures (such as pain and work status); and disease control (including need for surgery or reoperation). It lists surgical and non-surgical treatment approaches ranging from physiotherapy and medication to joint replacement. It also sets out the case-mix variables that should be collected, so that data can be adjusted for like-for-like comparison. These include body mass index; surgical history; physical activity; smoking status; and comorbidities'. The final part of the ICHOM definition lists the data sources and methodology for measuring the health outcomes. This ensures that health outcomes can be measured more easily and benchmarked, in the knowledge that other organisations' outcomes have been recorded in the same way.

3.3 Healthcare Delivery System in Nigeria

Healthcare provision in Nigeria is a concurrent responsibility of the three tiers of government in the country (Akhtar, 1991). Private providers of healthcare have a visible role to play in health care delivery. The use of traditional medicine (TM) and complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) has increased significantly over the past few years. The federal government's role is mostly limited to coordinating the affairs of the university teaching hospitals, Federal Medical Centres (tertiary healthcare) while the state government manages the various general hospitals (secondary healthcare) and the local government focus on dispensaries (primary healthcare), (Vogel, 1993) which are regulated by the federal government through the NPHCDA. The total expenditure on healthcare as % of GDP is 4.6, while the percentage of federal government expenditure on healthcare is about 1.5%. (Vogel, 1993). A long run indicator of the ability of the country to provide food sustenance and avoid malnutrition is the rate of growth of per capita food production; from 1970–1990, the rate for Nigeria was 0.25%. (Vogel, 1993). Though small, the positive rate of per capita may be due to Nigeria's importation of food products.

In Nigeria, health services are delivered through primary, secondary and tertiary health facilities by both the public and private sectors. Although primary health care is the fulcrum of the Nigerian health system, the provision, financing and management of primary health care services, as well as secondary health care services, leaves much to be desired. The availability of health facilities does not translate into the availability of quality healthcare services. Certain services are not generally available to a large percentage of the population. There is consistent disruption of health care services, due to incessant industrial action by all cadres of health care providers in public facilities. Even

though the private sector has played a vital role in making health services available, there is still poor integration of the private sector in the Nigerian health system. Many health facilities are situated far away from the people, especially in rural and hard-to-reach areas. The most common barriers to accessing health services by the population are the cost of services, distance to the health facility, and the attitude of health workers. The quality of health services is generally poor and does not instil confidence in the people. This has led to some people seeking care outside the country, or bypassing the primary and secondary health facilities to seek health care at tertiary health institutions. Competence in the diagnosis and management of clinical illnesses is disproportionate, while adherence to clinical guidelines is low. Even where quality may be high, the perception of service users may not correlate with the actual quality of care delivered. These may be due to the poor attitude of health workers, lack of clarity of standards and protocols, as well as inadequate implementation of these guidelines and other regulations (SDI, 2014). While State Ministries of Health (SMOH) issue licences to ensure that facilities comply with standards, the monitoring of quality of services provided by the private sector is limited. There is no institutional framework for regulating quality and standards. While the National Health Act 2014 provides that health facilities are required to obtain a certificate of standards, the requirements for this certificate are not specified in the Act. Regulations that would provide these requirements have also not yet been enacted. Service coverage is still low, showing little progress in the past ten years. This can be seen in Table 2

Table 2: Coverage Levels of Some Key Maternal New-born and Child Health (MNCH) Services in Nigeria

Indicator	2003	2008	2013
Percentage of married women aged 15-49 who are currently using contraceptives (any method)	13	15	15
Antenatal care attendance by skilled provider during pregnancy for most recent births	58	58	61
Delivery in a health facility	33	35	36
Delivery assisted by skilled provider	35	38	39
Trends in vaccination coverage			
BCG	48	50	51
DPT3	21	35	38
Polio 3	29	39	54
Measles	36	41	42
All	13	23	25
None	27	29	21

Source: Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS, 2003, 2008, 2013)

3.4 Healthcare Policy and Programme in Nigeria

Nigeria is governed by the provisions of the 1999 Constitution. Unfortunately, it does not lay emphasis on health and fails to clearly indicate the roles and responsibilities of the three tiers of Government in health systems management and delivery. The National Health Act 2014 is the first legislative framework for the health system, though it has not properly addressed the gaps in the Constitution. The country has several sub-sectoral policies and plans, including the Reproductive Health Policy, the National Human Resources for Health (HRH) Policy and Plan, the National Health Promotion Policy, the Health Financing Policy, and the National Strategic Plan of Action for Nutrition, amongst others. There is an existing framework for the oversight of programme implementation, starting with the National Council on Health, at the highest level. There are various national coordination platforms, including the Health Partners Coordinating Committee, chaired by the Minister of Health, the Development Partners Group for Health, and different thematic technical Groups and Task Teams. However, poor coordination and harmonisation of these groups leads to duplication of functions and waste of scarce resources. There is lack of transparency in the budgetary process. While the federal budget appropriation is published, information on the state budget appropriations is not usually publicly available. In addition, budget execution is also not made public. Other challenges related to leadership and governance include: inadequate political will and commitment to health, as evidenced by low budgetary allocation to health; constant change in leadership of the FMOH and the SMOHs; high level of corruption and fraud; inadequate level of accountability and transparency; ineffective coordination among the three levels of government, as well as between the private and public sectors; lack of effective mechanisms for engaging consumers in policy and plan development and implementation; and weak donor coordination and harmonisation of donor aid.

The Nigerian health system has been evolving over the years through health care reforms aiming to address the public health challenges confronting it. (Scott-Emuakpor, 2010). This includes:

- National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS),
- National Immunisation Coverage Scheme (NICS),
- Midwives Service Scheme (MSS)
- Nigerian Pay for Performance scheme (P4P).

Even so, the inability to effectively address the country's numerous public health challenges has contributed to the persistent and high level of poverty and the weakness of the health system. *Political instability, corruption, limited institutional capacity and an unstable economy are major factors responsible for the poor development of health services in Nigeria.* Households and individuals in Nigeria bear the burden of a

dysfunctional and inequitable health system – delaying or not seeking health care and having to pay out of pocket for health care services that are not affordable.

After many attempts at implementing legislation on health insurance since 1960, NHIS, although established in 1999, was eventually launched only in 2005. The goals of the NHIS were to:

- ensure access to quality health care services,
- provide financial risk protection,
- reduce rising costs of health care services and
- ensure efficiency in health care through programmes such as the:
 - Formal Sector Social Health Insurance Programme (FSSHIP),
 - Mobile Health,
 - Voluntary Contributors Social Health Insurance Programme (VCSHIP),
 - Tertiary Institution Social Health Insurance Programme (TISHIP),
 - Community Based Social Health Insurance Programme (CBSHIP),
 - Public Primary Pupils Social Health Insurance Programme (PPPSHIP),
 - and the provision of health care services for children under 5 years, prison inmates, disabled persons, retirees and the elderly.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. List and explain import of health care to economic development.

4.0: CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Nigeria is governed by the provisions of the 1999 Constitution. Unfortunately, it does not lay emphasis on health and fails to clearly indicate the roles and responsibilities of the three tiers of Government in health systems management and delivery. The National Health Act 2014 is the first legislative framework for the health system, though it has not properly addressed the gaps in the Constitution. The country has several sub-sectoral policies and plans, including the Reproductive Health Policy, the National Human Resources for Health (HRH) Policy and Plan, the National Health Promotion Policy, the Health Financing Policy, and the National Strategic Plan of Action for Nutrition, amongst others. For well-balanced and sustainable development, people-oriented health policies and programmes should be designed and implemented.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit, the meaning of health and health education, healthcare and healthcare outcomes, healthcare delivery system in Nigeria, healthcare policy and programme in Nigeria. In the next unit, which is Unit 1 of our Module 3, we shall discuss the meaning of education, types of education as well as importance of education and evaluation of educational system in Nigeria.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Distinguish between health and healthcare.
2. Give a critique of Nigeria Healthcare policies and programmes.

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MODULE THREE: EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENT

Unit 1: Education

Unit 2: The Environment

Unit 3: The How Education and Environment Enhance Human Wellbeing In Developing Countries in Africa And Asia

Unit 4: How Education And Environment Enhance Human Wellbeing In Developing Countries in The Pacific And Latin America.

UNIT 1: EDUCATION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit, that is, unit 4 of module 2, we learnt the meaning of health and health education, healthcare and healthcare outcomes, healthcare delivery system in Nigeria, healthcare policy and programme in Nigeria. In this present unit, which is Unit 1 of our Module 3, we shall discuss the meaning of education, types of education as well as importance of education and evaluation of educational system in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the meaning of education
- enumerate types of education
- discuss importance of education
- evaluate Nigerian educational system.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Education

Education is the process of facilitating learning, or the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values, beliefs, and habits. Educational methods include storytelling, discussion, teaching, training, and directed research. Education frequently takes place under the guidance of educators, however learners may also educate themselves (Dewey, 1944). Education can take place in formal or informal settings and any experience that has a formative effect on the way one thinks, feels, or acts may be considered educational. The methodology of teaching is called pedagogy.

You should take note that formal education is commonly divided formally into such stages as preschool or kindergarten, primary school, secondary school and then college, university, or apprenticeship. A right to education has been recognised by some governments and the United Nations (1966). In most regions, education is compulsory up to a certain age. There is a movement for education reform, and in particular for the evidence-based education.

Etymologically, the word "education" is derived from the Latin word *ducere* ("A breeding, a bringing up, a rearing") from *ducere* ("I educate, I train") which is related to the homonym *ducere* ("I lead forth, I take out; I raise up, I erect") from *de* ("from, out of") and *ducere* ("I lead, I conduct"). (Etymonline.com, 2011).

Education began in prehistory, as adults trained the young in the knowledge and skills deemed necessary in their society. In pre-literate societies, this was achieved orally and through imitation. Story-telling passed knowledge, values, and skills from one generation to the next. As cultures began to extend their knowledge beyond skills that could be readily learned through imitation, formal education developed. Schools existed in Egypt at the time of the Middle Kingdom (Assmann, 2002).

Plato founded the Academy in Athens, the first institution of higher learning in Europe (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2002). The city of Alexandria in Egypt, established in 330 BCE, became the successor to Athens as the intellectual cradle of Ancient Greece. There, the great Library of Alexandria was built in the 3rd century BCE. European civilisations

suffered a collapse of literacy and organisation following the fall of Rome in CE 476 (Geoffrey, 2004).

In China, Confucius (551–479 BCE), of the State of Lu, was the country's most influential ancient philosopher, whose educational outlook continues to influence the societies of China and neighbours like Korea, Japan, and Vietnam. Confucius gathered disciples and searched in vain for a ruler who would adopt his ideals for good governance, but his Analects were written down by followers and have continued to influence education in East Asia into the modern era (National geographic, 2015).

3.2 Types of Education

Education, as a process of gaining different knowledge, skills and values, is marked by its diversity. There are many learning methods, goals and education types which are a vital part of different education systems. Within the Nigerian education system one can differentiate between four types: indigenous, formal, informal and non-formal education.

3.2.1 Indigenous Education

Indigenous education focuses on spreading knowledge of cultural beliefs, rules and customs and its oral transmission from one generation to another. Indigenous education can be seen as a response to a strong wave of globalisation. This type of education is more accepted and valued in some systems than in others, but in African context it is seen as a vital part of protecting and maintaining a nation's cultural spirit.

3.2.2 Formal Education, as a prototype of the picture we have of education, is set in a formal, school environment with professional teachers, who follow a specific and planned teaching program. This program concentrates on specific skills, knowledge and education goals. Formal education is in most countries fully-funded by the state and in Nigeria there are different levels of formal education system: kindergarten, primary, secondary (divided in junior and senior secondary school) and tertiary education. Children would spend 6 years in a primary school, 3 in a junior secondary and 3 in senior secondary school, and at the end 4 years in a tertiary institution i.e. institution of the third level education such as university.

3.2.3 Informal Education

As the name says, takes place in an informal setting and is a lifelong process. People learn from each other in everyday situations about various topic. This can be illustrated as a parent teaching his/her child how to determinate sides of the world or how to cook a family meal. There are no specific teaching/learning methods when it comes to informal education and a person can gain informal knowledge by visiting museums, reading books in library or being a part of a local community.

3.2.4 The Non-Formal Education

The last form of education is the **non-formal education**. This form mostly focuses on specific needs and goals of a group. Students of the non-formal education can be from different age and this system and its program, although pre-planned, takes place outside the institutional system. Non-formal education aims often adult literacy problems and other continuing education and skill programs such as, for example, swimming lessons for children. Methods used in non-formal education are very flexible and can last for different period of times, depending on the goals and the student group.

Through different types and methods it is easy to use children's natural curiosity. And although different, every type of education is a part of a puzzle, which leads to youth having good career opportunities and living conditions in the future.

Note: You should on your own study concepts of Education.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define education and differentiate between four types in Nigeria.

3.3 Importance of Education

The following are reasons why education is important:

i. For a Happy and Stable life

If you want to lead a happy life and enjoy the good things the world has to offer, you certainly need to get educated. A great job, a good social reputation are few of the many benefits of being an educated person. Education is a must for a promising and secure future and a stable life.

ii. Money

An educated person has more chances of landing up a good high paying job. Everybody wants a good life but the good life!. It may be called as the "root of all evil" but most people will agree that money is important for survival in today's world. The more educated you are, the better career options you have!

iii. Equality

If we want to see the world as a just and fair place where everyone is given equal opportunities, education is what we require. Education is a must if we want to do away with the existing differences between different social classes and genders. It opens a whole world of opportunities for the poor so that they may have an equal shot at well-paying jobs. Education also plays a major role in women empowerment.

iv. Makes you self-dependent

Education is very important if you want to be a self-dependent person. It helps you become financially independent but that is not all. Education also makes you wiser so that you can make your own decisions

v. Turns your dreams into reality

What is your dream, your aim in life? Do you want to become rich? Do you want to be popular? Do you want to be an extremely successful person who is respected by people? Well, the key to all this is education. Of course there are exceptions, like sportsmen who don't really owe their success to their education. However in most cases, your degree is what helps you realize all your dreams.

vi. Makes the world a safer and more peaceful place

Education majorly affects our understanding of the difference between right and wrong. An educated person is well aware of the consequences of wrong/illegal actions and he is less likely to get influenced and do something which is not legally/morally right. Also, a number of uneducated people who live a poverty stricken life owing to lack of opportunities often turn to illegal ways such as theft and robbery to solve their problems. If you are educated, you are well aware of your rights, the law and your responsibilities towards the society. Hence, education is an important factor which contributes in social harmony and peace.

vii. Makes you confident

Your educational degree is considered as a proof of your knowledge by many. If you are educated you have more chances of being heard and taken seriously. Generally, an uneducated man will find it harder to express his views and opinions owing to lack of confidence. Even if he does so, people may not take him seriously. Education gives you the confidence to express your views and opinions.

viii. Society

We all live in a society which has its own set spoken/unspoken rules and one of them is education. The society expects you to go to school followed by college, get a job, settle down etc. In fact, education helps you become a useful member of the society. An educated member certainly has a greater chance to contribute to his community. Education helps you become an active member of the society and participate in the ongoing changes and developments.

ix. For economic growth of the nation

Australia, USA and Japan are few countries with very high literacy rates. These countries are extremely prosperous and the citizens have a high per capita income. On the other hand, in underdeveloped and developing nations, where literacy rate is not as high, a number of people are still living below the poverty line. Education is vital for the economic prosperity of a nation!

x. Saves you from being fooled/cheated

Education saves you from being exploited and fooled. We live in a country where we enjoy a number of rights and freedom. It is easier to take advantage of innocent and illiterate people. They may be trapped into signing false documents or be deprived of some right which they have because unlike an educated person they are not well aware of their rights and freedoms.

3.4 Evaluation of the Educational System in Nigeria

Education in Nigeria is overseen by the Ministry of Education. Local authorities take responsibility for implementing state-controlled policy regarding public education and state schools. Nigeria's education system encompasses three different sectors: basic education (nine years), post-basic/senior secondary education (three years), and tertiary education (four to six years, depending on the program of study). Nigeria's central government has been dominated by instability since declaring independence from Britain, and, as a result, a unified set of education policies has not yet been successfully implemented. Regional differences in quality, curriculum, and funding characterize the education system in Nigeria. Currently, Nigeria possesses the largest population of out-of-school learning youth in the world (Etymonline.com, 2011).

According to Nigeria's latest National Policy on Education (2014), basic education covers nine years of formal (compulsory) schooling consisting of six years of elementary and three years of junior secondary education. Post-basic education includes three years of senior secondary education. At the tertiary level, the system consists of a university sector and a non-university sector. The latter is composed of polytechnics, monotechnics, and colleges of education. The tertiary sector as a whole offers opportunities for undergraduate, graduate, and vocational and technical education. The academic year typically runs from September to July. Most universities use a semester system of 18 – 20 weeks. Others run from January to December, divided into 3 terms of 10 -12 weeks.

3.4.1 Basic Education

Elementary education covers grades one through six. As per the most recent Universal Basic Education guidelines implemented in 2014, the curriculum includes: English, Mathematics, Nigerian language, basic science and technology, religion and national values, and cultural and creative arts, Arabic language (optional). Pre-vocational studies (home economics, agriculture, and entrepreneurship) and French language are introduced in grade 4.

Nigeria's national policy on education stipulates that the language of instruction for the first three years should be the "indigenous language of the child or the language of his/her immediate environment", most commonly Hausa, Ibo, or Yoruba. This policy

may, however, not always be followed at schools throughout the country, and instruction may instead be delivered in English. English is commonly the language of instruction for the last three years of elementary school. Students are awarded the *Primary School Leaving Certificate* on completion of Grade 6, based on continuous assessment.

Progression to junior secondary education is automatic and compulsory. It lasts three years and covers grades seven through nine, completing the basic stage of education. The curriculum includes the same subjects as the elementary stage, but adds the subject of business studies.

At the end of grade 9, pupils are awarded the *Basic Education Certificate (BEC)*, also known as *Junior School Certificate*, based on their performance in final examinations administered by Nigeria's state governments. The BEC examinations take place nationwide in June each year and usually last for a week. Students are expected to take a minimum of ten subjects and a maximum of thirteen. Students must achieve passes in six subjects, including English and mathematics, to pass the Basic Education Certificate Examination.

3.4.2 Crisis in Elementary Schooling

Like the country's education system as a whole, Nigeria's basic education sector is overburdened by strong population growth. A full *44 percent of the country's population* was below the age of 15 in 2015, and the system fails to integrate large parts of this burgeoning youth population. According to the *United Nations*, 8.73 million elementary school-aged children in 2010 did not participate in education at all, making Nigeria the country with the highest number of out-of-school children in the world.

The lack of adequate education for its children weakens the Nigerian system at its foundation. To address the problem, thousands of new schools have been built in recent years. The Nigerian government has the official goal to universalize free basic education for all children. Yet, despite recent improvements in total enrollment numbers in elementary schools, the basic education system remains underfunded; facilities are often poor, teachers inadequately trained, and participation rates are low by international standards.

In 2010, the net enrollment rate at the elementary level was *63.8 percent* compared to a global average of 88.8 percent. According to recent statistics on *completion rates*, approximately one quarter of current pupils drop out of elementary school. These low participation rates perpetuate illiteracy rates in Nigeria, which, while relatively high compared to other Sub-Saharan countries, are well below the global average. The country in 2015 had a youth literacy rate of 72.8 percent and an adult literacy rate of 59.6 percent compared to global rates of 90.6 percent (2010) and 85.3 percent (2010), respectively (data reported by the *World Bank*). Within Nigeria, there is a distinct regional difference

in participation rates in education between the oil-rich South and the impoverished North of the country, in some parts of which elementary enrollment rates were reportedly below 25 percent in 2010.

3.4.3 Senior Secondary Education

Private secondary schools in Nigeria tend to be quite expensive with average annual fees averaging from two hundred and fifty thousand naira to One million naira (\$1000.00 – \$4000.00). These schools have smaller classes (approximately twenty to thirty students per class), modern equipment and a better learning environment. Most teachers in these institutions possess at least a bachelor's degree in a specific course area and are sent for workshops or short term programs on a regular basis.

With the introduction of the 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria, the recipient of the education would spend six years in primary school, three years in junior secondary school, three years in senior secondary school, and four years in a tertiary institution. The six years spent in primary school and the three years spent in junior secondary school are merged to form the nine in the 9-3-4 system. Altogether, the students must spend a minimum period of six years in Secondary School. During this period, students are expected to spend three years in Junior Secondary School and three years in Senior Secondary School.[6].

Reforms implemented in 2014 have led to a restructuring of the national curriculum. Students are currently required to study four compulsory “cross-cutting” core subjects, and to choose additional electives in four available areas of concentration. Compulsory subjects are: English language, mathematics, civic education, and one trade/entrepreneurship subject. The available concentration subjects are: Humanities, science and mathematics, technology, and business studies. The new curriculum has a stronger focus on vocational training than previous curricula, and is intended to increase employability of high school graduates in light of high youth unemployment in Nigeria.

In addition to public schools, there are a large number of private secondary schools, most of them expensive and located in urban centers. Many private schools include U.S. K-12, International Baccalaureate or Cambridge International Examination curricula, allowing students to take international examinations like the **International General Certificate of Secondary Education** (IGSCE) during their final year in high school.

3.4.4 Vocational and Technical Education

The Nigerian education system offers a variety of options for vocational and technical education at both the secondary and post-secondary levels. To combat chronic youth unemployment, the Federal Ministry of Education presently supports a number of reform projects to advance vocational training, including the “vocationalisation” of secondary education and the development of a National Vocational Qualifications Framework by

the National Board for Technical Education, similar to the qualifications frameworks found in other British Commonwealth countries.

A two-tier system of nationally certified programs is offered at science technical schools, leading to the award of *National Technical/Commercial Certificates (NTC/NCC)* and *Advanced National Technical/Business Certificates*. The lower-level program lasts three years after Junior Secondary School and is considered by the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board as equivalent to the SSC.

The advanced program requires two years of pre-entry industrial work experience and one year of full-time study in addition to the NTT/NCC. All certificates are awarded by the National Business and Technical Examinations Board (NABTEB).

Another type of – relatively new – vocational training institution are the so-called “Vocational Enterprise Institutions” (VEIs) and “Innovation Enterprise Institutions” (IEIs), established to provide employment-gear education in the private sector. At the secondary level, VEIs offer programs for graduates of junior secondary school leading to a *National Vocational Certificate (NVC)*. Programs are between one and three years in length and conclude with the award of the NVC Part 1, Part 2 and Final.

At the post-secondary level, IEIs offer diploma programs for holders of the SSC. Programs are two years in length (3-4 years part-time) and lead to the so-called *National Innovation Diploma*. As of 2017, there were 137 approved IIEs and 72 approved VEIs listed on the website of the National Board for Technical Education.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This education profile describes recent trends in Nigerian education and provides an overview of the structure of the education system of Nigeria. Education is administered by the federal, state and local governments. The Federal Ministry of Education is responsible for overall policy formation and ensuring quality control, but is primarily involved with tertiary education. School education is largely the responsibility of state (secondary) and local (elementary) governments. The country is multilingual, and home to more than 250 different ethnic groups. The languages of the three largest groups, the Yoruba, the Ibo, and the Hausa, are the language of instruction in the earliest years of basic instruction; they are replaced by English in Grade 4. Nigeria’s education system encompasses three different sectors: basic education (nine years), post-basic/senior secondary education (three years), and tertiary education (four to six years, depending on the program of study).

Education is a social concept that assumes change. Learning is about change. It is concerned with the acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes. It enables the individual to make both personal and social adjustments. Education is intended to change

behaviour – without change, education is useless. Sen describes education as both instrumental to development and constitutive of development. Increased educational opportunities drive development and with development come greater educational opportunities.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit, the meaning of education, types and importance of education as well as an evaluation of the Nigerian educational system. We shall continue with our discussion on education in the next unit that is Unit 2 which addresses the concept of environment.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

List and discuss ten reasons why education is very important.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2: THE ENVIRONMENT

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit, that is, Unit 1 of Module 3, we learnt the meaning of the meaning of education, types of education as well as importance of education and evaluation of educational system in Nigeria. In this present unit, which is Unit 2 of our Module 3, we shall discuss the meaning of environment, types of environment, importance of environment and evaluation of environmental management in Nigeria.

For the last four decades, several environmental problems—such as pollution, global warming, ozone layer depletion, acid rain, deforestation, and desertification—have remained a major focus of scientists, policy makers, and common public across the world. These problems are perceived as the major threats to the life-supporting environment of the earth, thus making our survival on the planet increasingly unsafe. In order to tackle these challenges, holistic knowledge about working of our life-supporting environment and thorough understanding of the dynamics of these problems become imperative.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the meaning of environment
- enumerate types of environment
- discuss importance of environment
- evaluate environmental management in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Environment

The word Environment is derived from the French word “Environ” which means “surrounding”. Our surrounding includes biotic factors like human beings, Plants, animals, microbes, etc. and abiotic factors such as light, air, water, soil, etc. Environment is a complex of many variables, which surrounds man as well as the living organisms. Environment includes water, air and land and the interrelationships which exist among and between water, air and land and human beings and other living creatures such as plants, animals and microorganisms (Kalavathy, 2004). She suggested that environment consists of an inseparable whole system constituted by physical, chemical, biological, social and cultural elements, which are interlinked individually and collectively in myriad ways. Environment, which means surroundings, is the sum of all external factors (biotic and abiotic) that influence the life of an organism. Biotic factors include all living beings (for example, humans, animals, plants, and microorganisms), whereas abiotic factors include all physico-chemical entities (such as air, water, soil, rocks, minerals, and mountains). The natural environment consists of four interlinking systems namely, the atmosphere, the hydrosphere, the lithosphere and the biosphere. These four systems are in constant change and such changes are affected by human activities and vice versa. (Kumarasamy, Nahar, Byres, Delazar, & Sarker, 2005).

3.2 Types of Environment

Environment can be natural, human engineered, or even abstract (nonmaterial). Owing to such vagueness, the term “environment” has been used in various ways or in various perspectives. For example, terms such as natural environment, extra-terrestrial environment, human engineered environment, socio-political-cultural environment, business environment, family environment, and workplace environment are used in general conversation. Although using the word “environment” in all these contexts is not wrong, due to a variety of meanings of the same word, people often get confused about the basic concept of the subject “environmental sciences”. As a result, often some questions are raised: What is the definition of environment in the domain of environmental sciences? What exactly do we study under the subject “environmental

sciences”? If environment means surroundings, then environmental science should mean scientific study of everything that surrounds us. This implies that environmental science is the study of not only air and water but also every insect, every chemical, and every human-made article, such as computer, building, furniture, as well as every relation at home, office, and so on. Thus, environmental science is a sum of all sciences, all engineering subjects, all social sciences, and so on. This cannot be true, as a single subject cannot replace all others; therefore, the concept of environment needs to be understood more precisely. For the purpose of conceptual clarification, different uses of the word environment have been classified into the following two broad groups:

i. Essential life-supporting biophysical environment: It includes all the biophysical entities as well as the processes that contribute to providing all humans and other living beings the basic material needs of life, that is, oxygen, water, food, and habitat. In fact, the concepts of environmental sciences are based on this meaning. The “essential life-supporting biophysical environment” is also termed as “environment”, “natural environment”, “biophysical environment”, “biosphere”, or “ecological system”. These words are used almost synonymously.

ii. Non-essential life-assisting environment: It includes all the entities or processes that assist human life in various ways, but cannot be considered essential for the physical survival of life on this planet. It includes social systems, language, technology, economic system, education, and various aspects of human civilisation. Although we can survive physically, without these entities the life will be largely in wild or natural form. “Non-essential life-assisting environment” is also known as “anthropogenic environment”, “social environment”, “man-made environment”, or “built environment”.

3.2.1 Components of Environment

Our environment has been classified into four major components:

i. Hydrosphere: It includes all water bodies such as lakes, ponds, rivers, streams and ocean etc. Hydrosphere functions in a cyclic nature, which is termed as hydrological cycle or water cycle.

ii. Lithosphere: It means the mantle of rocks constituting the earth’s crust. The earth is a cold spherical solid planet of the solar system, which spins in its axis and revolves around the sun at a certain constant distance. Lithosphere mainly, contains soil, earth rocks, mountain etc. Lithosphere is divided into three layers-crusts, mantle and core (outer and inner). Atmosphere The cover of the air, that envelope the earth is known as the atmosphere.

iii. Atmosphere: It is a thin layer which contains gases like oxygen, carbon dioxide etc. and which protects the solid earth and human beings from the harmful radiations of the

sun. There are five concentric layers within the atmosphere, which can be differentiated on the basis of temperature and each layer has its own characteristics. These include the troposphere, the stratosphere, the mesosphere, the thermosphere and the exosphere (Kalavathy, 2004).

iv. **Biosphere.** It is otherwise known as the life layer, it refers to all organisms on the earth's surface and their interaction with water and air. It consists of plants, animals and micro-organisms, ranging from the tiniest microscopic organism to the largest whales in the sea. Biology is concerned with how millions of species of animals, plants and other organisms grow, feed, move, reproduce and evolve over long periods of time in different environments. Its subject matter is useful to other sciences and professions that deal with life, such as agriculture, forestry and medicine. The richness of biosphere depends upon a number of factors like rainfall, temperature, geographical reference etc. Apart from the physical environmental factors, the man made environment includes human groups, the material infrastructures built by man, the production relationships and institutional systems that he has devised. The social environment shows the way in which human societies have organised themselves and how they function in order to satisfy their needs (Kumarasamy et al., 2004).

3.3 Importance of the Environment

Today, the world is facing numerous environmental problems, ranging from local problems such as ground water depletion to global problems such as climate change. These problems can be solved only when everyone cares for the environment; for that everyone needs to be informed about the causes, consequences, and remedial measures of different environmental problems. Environment is everything that is around. It can be living or non-living things. It includes physical, chemicals and other natural forces. Living things live in their environment. They constantly interact with it and change in response to conditions in their environment

- i. Environment plays an important role in the healthy living of human beings.
- ii. It matters because it is the only home that humans have, and it provides air, food, and other needs.
- iii. Humanity's entire life support system depends on the well-being of all the environmental factors.
- iv. Environment plays an important role in regulating air and climate.
- v. Another reason the environment is so important is because it is a source of natural beauty, and it is necessary for proper physical and mental health too.
- vi. To have a healthy life we need fresh air, clean water, and surrounding
- vii. Soil is one of the components of environment. It is useful for the growth of plants which are source of food to the animals around.
- viii. Food materials are obtained from plants, animals and other natural sources.
- ix. The clothing requirements like wool, cotton are obtained from plants and animals.
- x. We obtain many medicines from the nature which cause no side effects than artificial drugs.

- xi. The natural environment is a free gift of nature and we need to conserve it for the benefit of life in future. So it's our responsible to take precautions against the pollution

Note: You should on your own study concepts of environmental sciences.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

Why is environment so important to human beings?

3.4 Evaluation of Environmental Management in Nigeria

Taking issues of environmental management serious is a recent development in Nigeria. Issues relating to environmental consciousness started in the 1970s during General Buhari/Idiagbon's military rule. The regime started War against Indiscipline (WAI) in 1977. People all over the country would stay indoors and take care of their immediate environment and clear their drainages every last Saturday of the month between the hours of 7 am and 10 am before going out. Except those on essential duties such as military men or medical personnel on emergency cases, all vehicular movements and commercial activities are suspended between 7 am and 10 am to allow for this very intensive cleaning. Most states of the federation did not initially take this serious until some form of enforcements commenced. However, the paradigm shift in environmental sanitation now in Nigeria is that it is no more a monthly routine; rather, it is now a daily household decision to see that one's environment is clean. Various forms of environmental sensitisation programs and jingles from the government and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) now air almost daily in the media which propel people to take care of their environment every day and also conserve the grassland to prevent sheet and gully erosions so that we can all live in green and aesthetic environment. Effective strategies for environmental management in Nigeria are described below from sub-sections 3.4.1 to 3.4.5. as advocated by Adekola and Ogundipe (2017).

3.4.1 Effective and Efficient Waste Management Board (WMB)

Having an effective and efficient waste management board is a sign-qua-non to achieving a clean environment. Research has shown that settlements that are environment conscious are keen in ensuring an effective WMB (Tipping, Adom, Tibaijuka, 2005). Lagos, Benue and Kwara States are front liners in this essential service-oriented board in Nigeria. Abuja municipal waste management board also ensures that daily parking of solid waste around town for onward recycling. In addition, most states in the Southeast though have this ministry but are not very efficient.

3.4.2 Non-Moribund Ministry of Environment

Ministry of environment in many states in Nigeria are mere a bunch of workers who are mainly concerned about collecting salary at the end of the month. In fact, besides Lagos State, Kwara State, Niger State and FCT (Abuja) most other ministry of environment can

be described as ‘moribund’. This ministry among other functions should ensure consistent cleaning of the environment, ensure that solid wastes are moved to the appropriate place for recycling or buried, clean city drainages for free flow of water, and ensure that city roads, especially access roads are in good condition and so on. However, there are ministries of environment where these functions are not reflected in their immediate vicinity let alone other cities within a state. Apart from Lagos State which can be rated at the best state in Nigeria in this regard, Oyo State ministry of environment is putting up her best in the last few years but the resources available is not commensurate to the volume of work in Ibadan being the largest city in West Africa.

3.4.3 Embracing Effective Horticulture and Greening of the Environment

For any state that will be called environment friendly, horticulture and greening can never be over-emphasised and this is where states like Lagos, Oyo and FCT have the edge. This is reflected in the United Nations in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 11 (eleven) which advocates building inclusive, safe and sustainable cities and human settlements for all citizens. Effective horticulture and greening should be implemented in all states in Nigeria if this is to be achieved. Greening implies that recreation areas should be preserved and kept green for its purpose while trees should be planted to provide shade in major streets in cities as well as serving as cover to buildings during heavy rainfall and strong wind. Lagos, Ogun and Oyo States invest a lot of millions in this regard in the last few years as well as the FCT. Nasarawa State has geared up recently in this regard as the present administration invested several millions in tree planting. In fact, in some states, it is a crime to tread on flowers or cut down trees in town. However, most states have not done enough to qualify for being referred to as environment-friendly especially states in the Southeast and Northwest.

3.4.4 Effective and Efficient Transport Management Agency/Authority

Having an effective and efficient transport management agency is closely linked to having a good environment. If vehicles are allowed to load and off-load passengers at any time and in any place within a city, it will not only be polluted but also be rowdy (Ogunbodede, 2005). A city without effective transport management will be a noisy and unfriendly, as air and noise pollutions will be the order of the day (Morenike, 2008) has linked this essential service to contribute to urban slum if not properly managed. This is where Lagos, Niger and Benue States rank the highest in the country because they have the best transport management board in Nigeria and that is why Makurdi and Minna rank high among the cleanest cities in Nigeria. States such as Imo and Abia in the Southeast are also doing well in this regard, but states in the north and Southwest need to intensify efforts in this direction, especially Ogun State.

3.4.5 A Central and Well-Managed Motor Park

Loading and offloading goods and passengers anywhere in town is one of the highest indicators of urban pollution, congestion and ugliness in many big cities of Nigeria

(Babanyara, Usman, & Saleh, 2010; Morenike, 2008). Lagos used to be a perfect example of where this ugly trend was visible. However, the immediate past administration put a stop to that by creating central motor parks and garages where vehicles can load and offload goods and passengers. Other states are trying to follow in the footsteps of Lagos; however, only Kwara, Benue, Niger and the FCT are getting it right. Until a city achieves this, there is no way it can be environment friendly because the natural ecosystem of the city will be tampered with if every car can be parked everywhere and drivers can pick passengers in any part of the city. In fact, it is now a crime in Lagos State for any driver to park and pick passengers just anywhere in town. Having explained the above in the mirror of the selected indicators, apart from Abuja, the Federal Capital Territory (FCT); only four state capitals, namely; Lagos Metropolis, Makurdi (Benue State Capital), Ilorin (Kwara State Capital) and Minna (Niger State Capital) made the cut. Kano, Ibadan and Port Harcourt though are part of the five metropolitan cities in Nigeria but could not make the cut because not all the criteria were met.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Why do you think indiscriminate location of motor parks constitute environmental nuisance?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Human beings use the environment in three basic ways. One, as a resource bank – the environment supplies them with raw materials needed to maintain their existence as well as their social and technological structures. Two, as a habitat – people require more space per individual than any other species and three, and thirdly as sink for wastes – human beings produce more waste than other species. As people migrate to towns and development expands, these three important uses of the environment manifest in various dimensions both positively and negatively. The most common challenges of rapid urban growth in Nigeria include urban congestion, increase in crime waves, unemployment, massive deforestation, increase in industrial activities leading to increasing greenhouse effect and particularly environmental degradation which is the thrust of this paper. When urban centres grow without proper planning, it causes growth of slums.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt the meaning of environment, types and importance of environment as well as an evaluation of the environmental management in Nigerian. We shall continue with our discussion on environment in the next unit that is Unit 3 which assesses how

education and environment enhanced human wellbeing in developing countries in Africa and Asia.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss in details five effective strategies for environmental management in Nigeria.

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UNIT 3: HOW EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENT ENHANCE HUMAN WELLBEING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES IN AFRICA AND ASIA

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7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit, that is, Unit 2 of Module 3, we learnt the meaning of environment, types and importance of environment as well as an evaluation of the environmental management in Nigerian. In the present unit, we shall discuss how education and environment enhanced human wellbeing in developing countries in Africa and Asia. To achieve this, we shall discuss education and human capital development in Africa, education and human capital development in Asia, environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in Africa, environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in Asia

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss education and human capital development in Africa
- assess education and human capital development in Asia
- evaluate environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in Africa
- discuss environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in Asia.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Education and Human Capital Development in Africa

The process of human capital development could be thought of as involving two basic economic agents- individuals or households and firms, pursuing their own self-interest, but with positive spillovers for the entire society. For individuals, educational enhancement and skill acquisition are prerequisites for success in the labour market and better quality of life. For firms, providing training to their workforce is a mechanism for improving their basic, technical and managerial skills, and in the end ensuring profitability. The externality outcomes from the human capital investment decisions and actions of households and firms bring in public policy makers or government (a third economic agent) whose goal, among others, is to improve national competitiveness, and standards of living. Globally, the structure of production is changing. Increasingly, it is becoming knowledge intensive, and this is accompanied by a demand for high quality human capital (Kumar, 2006).

3.1.1 Overview of Human Capital Base in Africa

The weak human capital base of Africa is reflected in low literacy rate of many countries in the region. Inadequate institutions and support mechanisms for education and skill development continue to limit access to institutions of training and learning. As shown in Table 1, the average adult literacy rate in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) in 2010 was marginally higher than South Asia at 63% compared to 98% in Europe and Central Asia, 99% in High Income OECD and at least 91% in East Asia and the Pacific as well as Latin America and the Caribbean regions. (Baah-Boateng, 2013). The rate among the youth was similarly lowest among all the regions in the world. The continent also has the lowest enrolment rate which is an indication of poor or weak human capital base on the continent. In 2010-2011, the net primary school enrolment rate in SSA was estimated at 76% as against 88% in South Asia and at least 93% in other regions of the world. Similarly net secondary school enrolment rate was remarkably low at 25% in SSA as against 71% in East Asia and the Pacific and 92% in High income OECD countries (Table 1).

Table1: Literacy and Enrolment Rates across Regions in the World

Region	2010		2010-2011		2010			2010	
	Literacy Rates		Net Enrolment		Educational attainment			Mean years of	
	Adult	Youth	Primary	Sec.	Non	Primary	Secondary	Higher	Schooling
SSA	63.0	72.0	76.0	25*	32.6	37.9	26.9	2.5	5.23
Middle East & North Africa	76.0	91.0	93.0	68	24.5	24.4	39.6	11.6	7.12
East Asia & the Pacific	94.0	99.0	96.0	71.0	7.9	30.1	51.7	10.3	7.94
Latin America & Caribbean	91.0	97.0	94.0	76.0	7.7	34.5	45.1	12.6	8.26
South Asia	62.0	79.0	88.0	50.0*	33.2	21.5	39.8	5.5	5.24
Europe & Central Asia	98.0	99.0	94.0	84.0	1,3	16.4	65.5	16.9	9.65
High Income OECD	99.1	100	97.0	92.0	-	-	-	-	-

Source: World Bank (2013) and Barro and Lee (2010)

Weak human capital base in Africa is also reflected in the educational attainment of adult population. A greater amount of educational attainment indicates more skilled and productive workers to facilitate economic growth and transformation. The abundance of well- educated human resources also helps to facilitate the absorption of advanced technologies from developed economies. In 2010, the average number of years of schooling achieved by the average person aged 15 years and over in SSA was estimated at 5.23 years compared with 7.94 years and 8.26 years in East Asia and Pacific and Latin America and Caribbean respectively (Table 1). In advanced and transitional economies, the average number of years of schooling was 9.76 and 9.68 years (Barro and Lee, 2010),. In terms of educational attainment of adult population, only 27% of adults in SSA

had tasted or completed secondary education or better compared with 52% in East Asia and Pacific, 45% in Latin America and Pacific and 40% in South Asia. In terms of higher education, only 2.5% in SSA has had some level of higher education compared with 5.5% in South Asia and at least 10% in other regions (Table 1).

Note: You should on your own study the student-teacher ratios in Africa.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Why is there low human capital base in Africa?

3.2 Education and Human Capital Development in Asia

Nelson Mandela once said, "Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world." Education does not just enable individuals to improve their lot in life; it enriches an economy's human capital, which is vital to prosperity and social progress. Nowhere is the value of human capital to development more apparent than in East Asia. The top four (of 157) spots in the World Bank's recently introduced Human Capital Index -- a composite measure of survival, learning-adjusted years of schooling and health -- are occupied by East Asian economies: Singapore, South Korea, Japan and Hong Kong. The index estimates that a child born today in Singapore will be 88% as productive when she grows up as she could be if she enjoyed complete education and full health. In Sub-Saharan Africa, by contrast, a child will be only 40% as productive. Globally, 57% of all children born today will grow up to be, at best, half as productive as they could be.

Given the effect of human capital on productive and development capacities, developing countries should be placing a high priority -- as East Asia's most prosperous economies have -- on boosting human capital, as they pursue sustainable and equitable growth. What lessons can East Asia's experience provide? From the early 1960s to the late 1990s, when many East Asian economies were undergoing rapid industrialisation, the development of a well-educated and skilled labour force, combined with well-directed economic policies, was key to enabling the diversification and upgrading of export industries. In a virtuous cycle, rising incomes and industrial upgrading stimulated continuous investment in education and skills, which contributed to productivity increases, technological progress and the achievement of equitable growth? Public policy was central to this success, with East Asian leaders ensuring that economic-development plans and associated measures always accounted for human-capital objectives. In South Korea, each of the five-year development plans carried out from 1962 to 1996 contained action plans for manpower development, including education and training policies. Such policies -- designed and

implemented in close coordination with industrial and trade policies -- enabled East Asian countries to meet evolving economic demands in a cost-effective manner as the industrial structure continued to be upgraded. The key was a sequential approach. Faced with a growing school-age population, weak educational infrastructure and limited funding, owing to low levels of national income, the East Asian economies could not simply overhaul the entire system at once. So, early in the development process, as governments promoted labour-intensive industry, they focused on basic education. Later, when governments were promoting heavy manufacturing and technology-intensive industries, they focused on developing upper-secondary and tertiary education, vocational education and training programmes. Another component of the East Asian economies' strategies for developing human capital was a gradual shift in focus from quantity to quality. At first, when primary education was the emphasis, policymakers sought to get every child in school, even if it meant accepting lower-quality inputs, such as large class sizes.

They then began to invest more in improving the quality of primary schooling, for example by reducing class size and improving resources, from books to teachers. When the focus shifted to secondary and tertiary education, the same sequence was followed. Of course, even with this sequential approach, considerable -- and expanding -- financial resources had to be directed toward education and skill development. From the start, governments allocated large shares of their budgets to these objectives. As national income rose and birth rates dropped, total and per capita educational expenditures increased continuously. In the earlier stages of human-capital investment in East Asia, countries also relied on foreign aid. External financial and technical assistance was a great help to South Korea and Singapore, for example, as they established their education and training systems. Later, the private sector played a significant role in educational and skills development, especially at the upper-secondary and tertiary levels. In South Korea, for example, about 60% of upper-secondary students were enrolled in private schools in the 1980s. The private sector was also encouraged to provide training: in Singapore, employers contributed to a skills-development fund to promote upskilling and retraining workers. Learning from these experiences, developing countries today should move to invest a substantial and growing amount of the public budget -- augmented by foreign assistance -- into education and skills development, while working to attract private investment into higher education and skills training. They should take a more cost-effective sequential approach to upgrading their education and training structures, which complements their stage of development. And they should enshrine human-capital development in policy. Many developing countries today boast rapidly growing young populations that could be a boon for economic growth and dynamism. But, to meet their potential, these young people need strong educational and employment opportunities. Without deliberate and practical human-capital strategies, that will be virtually impossible to deliver.

3.3 Environment and Enhancement of Human Wellbeing in Africa

The term human well-being refers to people's ability to live a life they value and can comprise cultural heritage, health, access to land and natural resources as well as more material factors such as income-generating opportunities. What constitutes human wellbeing differs for each group and will reflect its history, local culture and norms, political and socio-economic conditions, geography and ecological circumstances. Discussions or research about wellbeing can therefore reveal different perspectives, experiences, values, concerns and aspirations, which in turn can stimulate improved understanding of people's changing relationships with nature and possible innovations in policies or processes to benefit both nature and people.

Environment is the foundation and support of human existence and survival and the guarantee of sustainable human development; environmental protection has undoubtedly become a common understanding and development strategy of all countries of the world. Now humankind is striving into the historical process of postindustrial society and is trying to reach rebalance with environment in later stage of development. All countries need to perform respective duties and obligations in environment governance, in joint efforts to plan economic development, social progresses and environment protection to realize mutual wins and sustainable development of the world and to create an Earth homeland for harmonious co-existence of humankind and environment. Reports show that they are good policies for addressing environmental challenges affecting human health, but weak implementation. Environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in Africa are linked through factors such as air quality, biodiversity and climate change and variability, among others.

Air quality: Outdoor and indoor air pollution poses considerable health problems in Africa. Outdoor pollution is a challenge in Africa's rapidly urbanizing countries. The transport sector is a major contributor to outdoor air pollution in large African cities such as Addis Ababa, Cairo, Dakar, Johannesburg, Kinshasa, Lagos and Nairobi. The rapidly growing number of second-hand vehicles and poor road infrastructure lead to traffic congestion and air pollution. Forest fires and dust, especially during desert dust storms, are also important sources of outdoor air pollution. Other sources include mining and cement production. Morocco, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe contribute significantly to the region's air pollution mainly through dust and CO₂ from cement production and coal combustion. Outdoor air pollution is estimated to kill 800 000 people per year in the world, mainly in the urban areas, with 40 000 of these deaths occurring in Africa. The impact of outdoor air pollution on health includes respiratory illnesses, allergies and skin diseases, which are experienced mostly by children. Indoor air pollution predominates in the rural and low and middle income urban areas where solid fuels are used for cooking and heating. Wood, animal waste, charcoal and coal are often burnt on open fires or in traditional stoves. The low combustion efficiency of these fuels and poor ventilation of the kitchens often results in high concentrations of indoor air pollutants, often 10-30 times higher than WHO limits (Larsen, Hutton, & Khanna, 2008).

Women and children are disproportionately exposed to this type of pollution. Acute respiratory infections (ARIs), such as rhinitis, laryngitis, asthma and bronchitis, are among the human diseases associated with indoor air pollution. ARIs rank fourth in the share of total burden of diseases in Africa, where they kill 22 per cent of an estimated global figure of 1.6–2.2 million children under the age of 5 years.

Biodiversity: Africa's rich and varied biological diversity has considerable potential to boost the agriculture, construction, industry, pharmaceutical production and tourism sectors. Figure 5 shows the number of biodiversity hotspots in Africa relative to the rest of the world. Biodiversity supports human health in many ways, including being major sources of food and medicine. The dependence of 80 per cent of Africa's rural population on traditional medicine attests to the importance of biodiversity to human health (WHO 2009). The oils of cedar, cypress, licorice, myrrh and poppy are important traditional medicines while *Prunus africana* is used in the treatment of prostate cancer (Chivian & Bernstein 2008). A variety of fruits, vegetables, honey, spices, oils, bush meat, fish, edible worms and mushrooms found in Africa's ecosystems contribute to food and nutrition security on the continent. For example, in Zimbabwe, 50 mushroom, 25 fruit and 50 vegetable species are harvested from the wild (Jumbe, Bwalya, & Husselman, (n. d.) while in Mozambique, marine invertebrates are an important food source (MICOA 2009). Further, Africa's genetic diversity offers opportunities for crop and livestock improvements, especially in enabling breeding varieties that are resistant to drought, pests and diseases that are projected to increase with climate change. It also offers opportunities for the development of pharmaceutical industries in African region.

Climate change and variability: Evidence from the Fourth Assessment of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reveals that Africa is warming faster than the global average and that it is likely to warm by an average 3°C to 4°C this century. This makes climate change a considerable health and economic challenge for the continent. Weather-sensitive diseases are likely to spread faster with global warming (Guernier, Hochberg, & Guegan, 2004). These include Rift Valley Fever, which affects both people and livestock; cholera, which is associated with wet conditions such as floods; meningitis, which spreads faster in warm temperatures, and malaria, which is increasingly occurring in the warming highlands of Kenya, Rwanda and Tanzania which were previously disease free. In some areas, warming is likely to translate into reduced crop yields and livestock productivity and water scarcity, concomitantly imperiling human health and nutrition. Another potential impact of increasing average temperatures and changing weather patterns is the loss of biodiversity and associated decrease in the availability of medicinal plants that some of the populations depend on for treatment of ailments. Extreme weather events (EWEs) such as droughts and floods are also projected to be more frequent, with dire consequences for human life and health.

3.4 Environment and Enhancement of Human Wellbeing in Asia

The focus on environmental problems in South Asia as in the case of other developing

countries is more on local and regional systems such as cropland, forests, water and marine resources on which the bulk of the population depends for its livelihood. In prioritizing the shared environmental concerns for the region the following emerge as the most prominent:

Land degradation: Land degradation and soil erosion in the region are largely a result of the land use practices, rapid rates of deforestation, poor irrigation and drainage practices, inadequate soil conservation, steep slopes and overgrazing. Water erosion is severe throughout the Himalayas and in India alone, about 13 million hectares is affected by water erosion. In the dry belt that extends across the Thar Desert in Pakistan and India, an estimated 59 million hectares of land is affected by wind erosion. In India, for instance, it is estimated that 45 million tons of agricultural production is lost due to soil erosion annually. Soil salinity and acidification also affect large areas under cultivation in Bangladesh and the northern region of India. Similarly, in Pakistan salinity is known to reduce crop yields by as much as 30%. Mining in the region, which is largely unorganised and unscientific is also known to cause land degradation with significant trans-boundary impacts.

Deforestation and loss in biodiversity: Industrialisation, agricultural expansion and a large dependence on forest products for meeting the energy needs have resulted in large-scale deforestation in most countries of the region. In an effort to increase agricultural production farmers have encroached upon forests and other environmentally fragile areas. Deforestation has also resulted in the loss in biodiversity in both in the terrestrial and coastal ecosystems. Biodiversity losses have also resulted from trade in forest products, introduction of non-native species, improper use of agro-chemicals, and uncontrolled tourism. Loss in the coastal habitats includes a substantial loss in mangrove forests, largely as a result of shrimp ponds and paddy cultivation, with adverse impacts on commercial fisheries that rely on the mangroves as nurseries for fish breeding.

Water availability and quality: Resource scarcity as a result of population pressures is particularly acute in the region as is evident from the gradual decline in the water stress index that is defined as the total internal renewable water availability per capita. In India, for instance, the per capita water availability declined from 6,000 cubic meters per annum in 1947 to about 1898 cubic meters per annum in 1998 and is expected to decline further to 1600 cubic meters by the year 2017. Groundwater depletion has emerged as a major concern in India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. It is estimated that as much as 70%-80% of the agricultural production in India depends on groundwater irrigation. The aquifers in the Mehsana and Coimbatore districts in the southern region have been permanently depleted as a result of insufficient re-charging. In other states including Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab and Gujarat the extent of over exploitation of ground water ranges from 100%-260% as compared to the critical level of 85%. With agricultural production accounting for roughly 29% of India's GDP, a large proportion of India's GDP could

actually be viewed to depend on groundwater. In addition, groundwater accounts for about 80 % of the domestic water supply in the rural areas and almost 50% of the urban and industrial supply. Moreover, in periods of drought groundwater provides the only reliable source of irrigation. Similarly, in Bangladesh, a fall in the water table in the northern and central parts of Bangladesh has resulted in severe water shortages. Decline in water quality as a result of untreated sewage and industrial effluents is a growing concern in the South Asian region. **Atmospheric pollution:** Given that the two most populous countries of the world, namely China and India, have substantial reserves of coal, large quantities of coal would continue to be used to meet the energy demand in these countries. The anthropogenic sources of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emissions that result in acid rain, include coal based power generation, vehicular emissions and household 13 energy use for cooking. The effects of coal burning tend to be spread over large areas, resulting in acid rain and fly ash deposits in areas near the coal burning plants as well as further away. Even though the sulfur content of the Indian coal is lower compared to that in China, the transboundary movement of air masses would carry the emissions in China to other parts of Asia as well. In addition to SO₂ emissions, in India alone, coal burning is estimated to generate 35-40 million tons of fly ash each year, of which only 2%-3% is utilised. Fly ash results in an increase in the suspended particulate matter content and hence a deterioration in the air quality.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

How does environment enhance human wellbeing in Asia?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The linkages between environment and health are largely because of the recognition that environmental factors contribute about 20 per cent of Africa's and Asian disease burden. This disease burden is dominated by diarrhea, respiratory infections and malaria which collectively account for 60 per cent of the known environmental health impacts in Africa and Asia.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt the relationship between education and human capital development in Africa and Asia. You also learnt how environment enhanced human wellbeing in Africa and Asia. We shall continue with our discussion on environment with focus on Pacific and Latin America in the next unit that is Unit 4 which is the last unit of our Module 3 and also the last in the course.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Why is the environment very important to human wellbeing?

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UNIT 4: HOW EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENT ENHANCE HUMAN WELLBEING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES IN THE PACIFIC AND LATIN AMERICA

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- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit, that is, Unit 3 of Module 3, we learnt how education and environment enhanced human wellbeing in developing countries in Africa and Asia. In the present unit, we shall discuss how education and environment enhanced human wellbeing in developing countries in the Pacific and Latin America. To achieve this, we shall discuss education and human capital development in the Pacific Latin America, environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in the Pacific and environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in Latin America.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss education and human capital development in the Pacific
- assess education and human capital development in Latin America
- evaluate environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in the Pacific
- discuss environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in Latin America.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Education and Human Capital Development in the Pacific

Human capital theory rests on the assumption that formal education is highly instrumental and necessary to improve the productive capacity of a population. In short,

human capital theorists argue that an educated population is a productive population. Human capital theory emphasizes how education increases the productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of cognitive stock of economically productive human capability, which is a product of innate abilities and investment in human beings. The provision of formal education is seen as an investment in human capital, which proponents of the theory have considered as equally or even more worthwhile than that of physical capital (Woodhall, 1997).

The Pacific islands refer to those islands that lie immediately to the North and South of the equator in the Pacific Ocean which were settled, though not exclusively, by people of Melanesian, Polynesian and Micronesian descents. Since the settlement of these islands by the Melanesians, Micronesians and Polynesians, a lot of other racial groups have also moved into them, such as the Indians in Fiji, French Caucasians in New Caledonia, Chinese in Tahiti, Japanese and American Caucasians as well as other Asian groups in Hawaii. This makes the Pacific islands a very diverse region ethnically, culturally, and linguistically. The Pacific islands may be grouped in terms of their political affiliation and status. First, there are those that are affiliated to or associated with the United States these are often called the American Pacific and the group includes the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, North Marianas, Guam and Marshalls in the North Pacific and American Samoa in the South Pacific--with a total population of about 294,000. The second group is affiliated to France--the 'French Pacific'--it consisting of the French colonies of New Caledonia, Wallis and Futuna and French Polynesia, with a total population of about 303,000. The third group consists of the independent and/or self-governing islands of the South Pacific. This group was administered either by United Kingdom, Australia or New Zealand and stretches from Papua New Guinea in the west to Cook Islands in the east; Nauru in the north to Tonga in the south, and has a total population of 4.5 million.

Education is defined broadly as initiation into the ways of life of a community or society (Peters, 1966) and includes both the informal initiation that takes place in the home and formal schooling. A great deal of change has taken place in the Pacific islands particularly during this century and the Pacific islanders have had to change correspondingly fast in order to keep pace. The Pacific islanders, in the words of Papua New Guinea's Ambassador to the United Nations, Mr. Renagi Lohia, "have had to run in order to remain on the same spot." Because of the rate of change, education itself--its goals, content and form--had to change in order to be effective in initiating people into their communities. Perhaps the greatest amount of change has taken place in the educational systems of the independent or self-governing islands of the South Pacific, as they have had to meet the required manpower demands of independence for their countries in a very short time and satisfy the rising education aspirations of their populace. The French Pacific group, although gradually moving towards self-rule, are still very much in a colonial situation; their schools' curricula and goals are still tied to that of metropolitan France. The islands which are a part of the American Pacific group are still very much under the influence of the American educational system, but there

appears to be a growing realisation among them, especially those that have achieved some degree of self-independence like Northern Marianas, Palau and the Federated States of Micronesia, of the importance of developing their own identities in which education must play a significant part.

Participation in primary education is relatively high, with net enrolment rates varying from 63 to 98%. There has been mixed progress, however, on increasing the number of children who complete school, with primary school completion rates declining most significantly in Papua New Guinea and Vanuatu, and to a lesser extent in Fiji, but improving in Samoa and Tonga. Gender parity in primary schools has improved in Tuvalu, Samoa, Niue, Kiribati and Solomon Islands, but slightly worsened in Papua New Guinea and Tonga during 1999 to 2004.

An emerging gender trend is that girls stay at school longer and are more successful than their male counterparts in external examinations. This is also reflected in the higher education level at the University of the South Pacific (USP), where the enrolment and programme completion rates for girls and women outdo those of their male counterparts. Adult literacy in the Pacific remains a challenge in some of the very few countries in the region with available data, varying between 57% in Vanuatu and 99% in Tonga and Samoa.

3.1.1 Education for Continuity and Development

Education, unlike schooling, was not introduced to the Pacific islands; it was carried out in villages by older members of society prior to the coming of the missionaries. A number of early studies by anthropologists³ have captured some of the ways in which societies in the islands ensured that their values, skills and attitudes were passed on to the younger generation. This type of education is referred to as 'informal' to differentiate it from 'formal' education which takes place in a school setting. Informal education was (and is) concerned with the continuity of society in which adult members passed on to the younger generation what they acquired through experience. Much of the learning took place in practical situations in which young members of society would observe and imitate the adults and, with adult supervision, would learn to develop appropriate skills in various fields. Similarly, by observing adults or those older than themselves, the young people would learn appropriate attitudes towards their elders, peers and members of outside groups. The elders of the tribe or group would relate legends and stories to the young which would explain their history, their origins, their value systems and their view of the universe. Learning was pragmatic and practical; its outcomes were easily observable in terms of the acquisition of food and other necessary materials and comforts for the family, and the demonstration of acceptable attitudes, values and behaviour for community survival. Today, informal education exists side by side with formal education and it plays an important role in teaching survival skills, particularly in rural areas where the extended family is still largely intact and the economy predominantly at the subsistence level. In towns, many functions performed by informal education are passed

on to the schools, but because of the inability of schools to perform such tasks much is lost. The parents and elders of the present generation in the South Pacific did not receive as much schooling as their children, but when and if they move from their villages to towns to join their children and relatives who may work there, they might be able to continue to play some role in the informal education of the young people in that setting. At best, they could pass on to the young in the new setting the cultures of their group and thereby maintain some continuity.

3.2 Education and Human Capital Development in Nigeria

Human Capital Development implies the acquisition of knowledge and intellectual stock through the means of education, for expansion of productivity, efficiency, performance and output. Education is an extremely important element in the organisation of modern society. There is now growing awareness in both developed and developing countries of the role of education. According to Adawo (2011) Nigeria had the fastest growing educational industry in the African continent. Today, the total number of universities in Nigeria has increased geometrically without a corresponding increase in funding and undermines the place of education on the current legislative list in the 1999 constitution that provided the legal framework for educational management in Nigeria.

The success of every educational system depends on the quality and quantity of factors of production, that is, human and material resources. According to Nakpodia (2010), all of the factors, the human resources appear to be the most important because without human efforts, all other factors are inept. Accordingly, Nigeria should invest strategically on education so as to develop her human capital. Education and human capital development are catalysts to national development, which will impact positively on the country's economy, infrastructural development, and other facets of the social system. The more people are highly educated, the more positive impact they will make in the country's development. This is because through education, specific human capital abilities would be acquired. This will include acquisition of conceptual knowledge, development of capabilities, development of skills attitudes and orientation. In the light of the above, the success of our education depends on the level of human capital development, and utilisation of information machinery and services. Aniekwu and Ozochi (2010) explain that education is the key to creating, adopting and spreading knowledge. Basic education increases people's capacity to learn and to interpret information. However, in Nigeria, the standard of education is dropping. Blumende (2001) reported that the decline in the quality of education cannot be ignored by anyone who is aware of the significant role of education as an instrument of social transformation and development. In Nigeria, school enrolment has continued to increase without a corresponding increase in facilities for effective teaching and learning as a result of underfunding of education in Nigeria (Asiya, 2012). The above situation, suggests that education is accorded secondary value in Nigeria's value system.

Human capital is strategic to the development of any nation; this includes education, health, labour and employment. Human capital according to World Bank cited in Igun

(2006), is the total stock of knowledge, skills, competencies and innovative abilities possessed by the population. Among the most important changes that characterize the 21st century is the increasing importance of knowledge of economic growth and the advent of the world wide labour market and the global social and political transformation. Human capital development are talents, skills, competencies and other advantages which people possess, and can be put to better use to give organisation and nations more benefits. Human capital can be understood from the perspective of the masses that have acquired the relevant education and skills that can be put to positive use toward the development of the nation. Apparently, human capital represents the fundamental infrastructure from technological development and by extension economic development. However, it is important to note that the higher human capital of a society is the higher will be the potentials for economic development. For example, Korea has no outstanding material resources except her human capital which has been supremely important for the growth of the Korean economy. This means that her human capital is a catalyst to economic development. The concept of human capital formulation according to Adawo (2011) refers to a conscious and continuous process of acquiring and increasing the number of people with requisite knowledge, education, skills, and experience that are crucial for the economic development of a country. Investing in education raises per capita GNP, reduces poverty and supports the expansion of knowledge. From their views, it means that for any nation to be fully developed, it must give priority to human capital development. This will impact positively on all sectors of a nation 's economy, education, and even the social strata. Human capital development is something that must exist or happen for national development to take place. In addition, human capital development teaches people how to utilise the power of diverse thinking styles (analytical and intuitive) so that we can achieve holistic best practical solution. Human capital development, training and development are basically the same. This is about development that supports investment in human capital, coaching, training, internship and human capital management. Human capital development is about investments, activities, and processes that produce knowledge, health and skills. It means building the balanced human resources base and providing an enabling environment for all individuals to fully engage and contribute to the achievement of the goals of an organisation or nation. It is an effort to increase human knowledge, enhance skills, productivity and stimulate resourcefulness of individuals

Note: You should on your own study the list of countries that made up Latin America.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Assess the role of education in human capital development in Nigeria.

3.3 Environment and Enhancement of Human Wellbeing in the Pacific

As countries of the Pacific island region enter the 1990s they face a range of environmental problems more extensive and more serious than ever before. Many of the potentially most damaging problems are caused predominantly by the activities of countries outside the region. Problems of ozone depletion, climate change, hazardous waste dumping, and driftnet fishing fall into this category. But particularly during the last two decades a range of environmental problems have arisen associated with economic development in most if not all Pacific island countries. It is hard to find any observers who believe that the natural environment has been managed on a sustainable basis let alone improved over this period. The general impression is one of environmental decline (Dahl, & Baumgart, 1982). However, it is important to keep this in perspective. Environmental problems in the South Pacific are by no means as severe as in other parts of the world. Nevertheless, environmental issues are likely to be amongst the major domestic challenges for South Pacific governments over the coming decade, as well as continuing to be a major element of regional politics.

The traditional subsistence societies of the Pacific islands generally practiced sensible environmental management of their resources. Many traditional practices are based on a sound knowledge of natural processes. The conservation ethic was expressed in customs and taboos. There were restrictions to protect marine life or access to land and crops, such as the *ra'ui* or customary prohibition by the appropriate chief in the Cook Islands. But modern economic development, with the advent of cash economies, has introduced new technologies and practices, some of which can place unsustainable demands on natural resources. Population growth and growing pressure on resources such as agricultural land has further weakened the traditional conservation ethic. It has often appeared in the Pacific islands, as elsewhere in the world, as a choice between the environment or development. This is not to say that Pacific island governments have been unaware of threats to their environment. Indeed, regional governments have usually demonstrated impressive unity on environmental issues where they have perceived outside activities likely to damage the environment. The importance of nuclear testing in developing the region's environmental consciousness can hardly be exaggerated. Twelve years of United States atmospheric testing in the Marshall Islands atolls of Bikini and Eniwetak and its aftermath, followed by French testing in the atmosphere from 1966 to 1974 and underground since then, have served to make the governments and peoples of the region very aware of the potential for their environment to be abused by large powers. Opposition to nuclear testing and to nuclear waste disposal has led to discussion of other environmental problems. It provided the stimulus for the creation of regional agreements such as the South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone Treaty and the Convention for the Protection of Natural Resources and Environment of the South Pacific (or the SPREP Convention). While the former is of course primarily political and strategic in motivation and content, it also has important environmental provisions on the prevention of radioactive dumping. And the SPREP Convention, while also prohibiting radioactive waste dumping in 200-mile zones in the South Pacific and the high sea enclaves they surround, aims "to take all

appropriate measures ... to prevent, reduce and control pollution of the Convention Area, from any source, and to ensure sound environmental management and development of natural resources." Nuclear testing was an issue on the margin of meetings of the South Pacific Commission (SPC) and one on which the newly independent members of the South Pacific Forum could combine after its establishment in 1971. Unity on this environmental issue (though of course opposition to nuclear testing is based on more than environmental concerns) led to discussion of other environmental issues. The South Pacific Commission had sponsored conservation active.

3.4 Environment and Enhancement of Human Wellbeing in Latin America

The Pacific is a diverse region made up of countries and territories with varying land size, population, natural resource base, economy and cultures. The region contains 15 small islands developing states (SIDS): the Cook Islands; the Federated States of Micronesia; Fiji; Kiribati; Nauru; Niue; Palau; Papua New Guinea; the Republic of the Marshall Islands; Samoa; Solomon Islands; Tonga; Tuvalu; and Vanuatu. The Pacific Ocean covers one-third of the earth's surface and is one of nature's greatest active carbon sinks, even more so than the Amazon forest. It has an immense biodiversity and it is estimated that as little as 20% of the Pacific Ocean's flora and fauna has been properly researched. Pacific SIDS are characterised by extremes in physical geography and remoteness. The environmental profile of the region is one of high degrees of endemism and levels of biodiversity, but relatively small numbers of species.

There is a degree of economic and cultural dependence on the natural environment and a clear vulnerability to climate change and a wide range of natural disasters. The Pacific region is blessed with its coral reefs, and their ecosystems and biodiversity. More than 80% of Pacific islanders live in or near coastal areas and draw from the coral reef for their livelihood (United Nations, 2010). The coral reef supports approximately 25% of all marine life, including over 4,000 species of fish, providing valuable spawning, nursery, and refuge and feeding areas for large varieties of organisms. Coral reefs also play vital roles as natural breakwaters, minimizing wave impacts during storms and cyclones. Hence, the motto for the Second Pacific Year of the Coral Reef 2008 was "Strong reefs, strong islands). Given that most of the region's population is settled in coastal areas, changes in population density combined with new technology and changing development priorities have had a significant impact on coastal environments in the last decade.

Pacific SIDS suffer from diseconomies of scale in production and exchange of goods and services, remoteness from export markets and a high vulnerability to natural disasters and climate change. Uses of the coastal zone and activities taking place within it (for example, coastal construction, port development, forestry and agriculture.

sewage and waste disposal, coastal protection, fishing, sewage/waste treatment, agriculture,

logging, mining) pose the following threats, amongst others, to marine and coastal resources: eutrophication, soil erosion, sedimentation, degradation and bleaching of coral reefs and mangroves, coastal erosion, physical environmental alterations, and over exploitation of fisheries.

Climate change is already affecting the Pacific and its critical importance. Climate variations and extremes have disrupted food production, water supply and the economies of Pacific countries.

Climate projections for the future, although coarse for islands, are bleak and indicate reduced food security, especially at household level.

The primary food sources (agriculture, fisheries and forests) and water will all be impacted by climate change and, in most cases, these impacts will be negative. A scarcity of fresh water resources poses several problems in the Pacific region. Despite high levels of total rainfall, water is sometimes not available in the high islands due to rainfall seasonality and inadequate storage. Localised pollution, excessive sedimentation due to uncontrolled watershed development and water wastage are common problems reported in Fiji, Samoa and Solomon Islands.

Water shortages force some atoll communities to use polluted or salty ground water for drinking and cooking, thus giving rise to serious health problems. The protection, conservation, management of supply/quality of water is expected to become an increasingly important issue in the Pacific, given the impact of climate change in increasing rainfall variability. The main types of pollution within the region are shipping-related pollution, hazardous chemicals and hazardous wastes and solid waste management and disposal. The region's coastal and marine resources are threatened by introduced marine species, shipwrecks, marine accidents and spills, ships' waste and antifouling paints on vessels. Increasing quantities of solid waste, poor control of chemicals imported into the region and the lack of capacity to manage pollutants are primary problems. All Pacific SIDS share the problems of waste disposal and pollution prevention. These problems have been exacerbated by the small size, remoteness and rapid urbanisation of many islands. Environmental contamination is a consequence of the increasing population pressure.

The majority of household waste is recyclable material and organic waste. Unfortunately, only a very limited amount is recycled as there are very limited recycling operators and no market for recyclable material. Waste is generally burned or dumped in the sea or in mangroves. Consequently, non-organic waste management is expected to become an ever more critical environmental challenge in the Pacific region.

Water disposal and pollution is also impacting adversely on the Pacific region's health and tourism potential for sustainable development. The atoll nations of Tuvalu, Kiribati

and the Marshall Islands are particularly constrained by limited land area for use as landfill sites. Pacific SIDS rank among the most vulnerable in the world to natural disasters. Between 1950 and 2004, extreme natural disasters, such as cyclones, droughts and tsunamis, accounted for 65 percent of total economic impact from disasters on the region's economies. Tens of the fifteen most extreme events reported over the past half century have occurred in the last fifteen years. Notwithstanding these challenges, the environment, culture and uniqueness produced by isolation has created a strong tourism industry with prospects for continued growth. Isolation has also produced resilient communities with strong traditions, cultures and coping capacity. Paradoxically, Pacific SIDS may be described as resilient social systems which can succumb to a 'knock-out' event at any time.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Note: You should on your own study the role of education in human capital development in any developing country.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Human capital theory emphasizes how education increases the productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of cognitive stock of economically productive human capability, which is a product of innate abilities and investment in human beings. The ultimate goal is the attainment of human wellbeing. On the other hand, human well-being and progress toward sustainable development are vitally dependent upon improving the management of Earth's ecosystems to ensure their conservation and sustainable use. But while demands for ecosystem services such as food and clean water are growing, human actions are at the same time diminishing the capability of many ecosystems to meet these demands. Sound policy and management interventions can often reverse ecosystem degradation and enhance the contributions of ecosystems to human well-being, but knowing when and how to intervene requires substantial understanding of both the ecological and the social systems involved. Better information cannot guarantee improved decisions, but it is a prerequisite for sound decision-making.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt how education and environment enhanced human wellbeing in developing countries in the Pacific and Latin America. To achieve this, we discussed education and human capital development in the Pacific and Nigeria, environment and enhancement of human wellbeing in the Pacific and Latin America. This unit that is unit

4 is the last unit of our Module 3 and also the last in the course.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Why is education and environment very important to human wellbeing in Latin America?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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