

## **PART ONE: RURAL SOCIOLOGY**

### **Chapter One** **Subject matter of rural sociology**

#### **1. Definition**

Rural sociology is specialized field of sociology which is primarily concerned with rural people and the conditions under which they live and work and the natural resources and environment that are typical of non-urban. The field of Rural Sociology is a sub-field of sociology, the study of human societies and social groups. Rural sociologists focus on the study of social life in rural and non-metropolitan areas domestically and internationally. They continue to develop theory and knowledge and produce information relevant to public policy and local development.

Rural Sociology research focuses on environmental well-being, sustainable development of natural resources, social and community quality of life, and diffusion and impacts of technologies. Much of the research involves the Third World.

1. According to Sanderson, "Rural sociology is the sociology of rural life in the rural environment".
2. Bertand says, "Rural sociology is that study of human relationships in rural environment".
3. T.L. Smith, "Such sociological facts and principles as are derived from the study of rural social relationships may be referred to as rural sociology".
4. F.S Chapin, "The sociology of rural life is a study of rural population, rural social organization, and the rural social processes operative in rural society".
5. A.R Desai defines rural sociology as, "the science of rural society....It is the science of laws of the development of rural society".

The above definitions clearly justify that rural sociology studies the social interactions, institutions and activities and social changes that take place in the rural society. It studies the rural social organizations, structure and set up. In other words, it can be said that rural sociology acts as a reflection of the rural social life and provides the norms and values that govern the rural society. It provides a clear picture of the rural population and the difference they possess from the urban population.

Rural sociology is a field of sociology that is connected with the study of social life in rural areas and it is an active field in much of the world. Rural Sociology, as indicated by its name, studies rural society, rural social structures and institutions. The rural society is primarily dependent on agriculture and hence rural sociology also concerns itself on the peasant society. Rural sociology is centered on the rural community life. There is a stark difference between the social structure,

processes, social dynamics and social control in rural society. Hence, there is a difference between studying urban society and rural society, rural sociology studies the latter. Thus, rural sociology has been specially designed to study the rural phenomena and it is a systematic study of the varied aspects of the rural society. It is the study of the rural social networks and how they operate for the smooth functioning of the society. The rural society is generally rooted in the villages, and rural sociology studies the facets of the villages, the way it functions, the various problems it faces and the how it tackles to face the imminent challenges. Rural sociology offers viable solutions and ways of mitigating the problems that found over the villages.

## **1.2 The Concept of Rural and Difference between Rural and Urban**

### **1.2.1 What is rural?**

As we all know that **rural** is a sparsely populated area in which people depend on agricultural land and other natural resources. In rural area, population is spatially dispersed. It is an area that is far from the seat of the government.

In general, a rural area is a geographic area that is located outside cities and towns. The Health Resources and Services Administration of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services defines the word "rural" as encompassing "...all population, housing, and territory not included within an urban area. Whatever is not urban is considered rural."

Typical rural areas have a low population density and small settlements. Agricultural areas are commonly rural, though so are others such as forests. Different countries have varying definitions of "rural" for statistical and administrative purposes. There are various categorization of rural society

**1. Based on population size:** Different countries use different criteria to define rural areas:

- USA uses less than 2500 people
- Japan uses less than 50,000 people
- Norway uses 200 or less people
- Canada uses 1000 or less people
- Switzerland uses 10,000 or less people

**2. Based on economic production:** Most people who engaged in agrarian productivity are considered as rural and those people more than 50% who engaged in no farm activity considered as urban.

**3. Degree of isolation from or inability to participate in the programs of larger society-**

Access to services such as:

- ✓ Level of Education, quality of medical services, employment,
- ✓ Transportation and social services.

4. **Administrative and legal definition:** those areas defined as rural by the state or government as rural is considered as rural.

**Note that:** In Ethiopia, three main criteria are assumed to classify rural and urban according to Ethiopian land lease Proclamation No.721/2011: urban;

1. have municipality
2. 50% and more non -agriculture activity
3. More than 2000 residents; those areas who do not fulfill those three criteria are included under rural areas.

### **1.2.2 Characteristics of rural community that distinguish them from urban community**

**Size of the Community:** Size refers to areas actually inhabited rather than the total area of land available for use. Rural communities are usually smaller than urban communities. *The village communities are smaller in area than the urban communities. As the village communities are small, the population is also low.*

**Density of Population:** As rural areas have larger expanse of land with relatively small population, the population density (i.e. the number of people per unit area of land) is low. *As the density of population is low, the people have intimate relationships and face-to-face contacts with each other. In a village, everyone knows everyone.*

**Agriculture is the Main Occupation:** *Agriculture is the fundamental occupation of the rural people and forms the basis of rural economy. A farmer has to perform various agricultural activities for which he needs the cooperation of other members. Usually, these members are from his family. Thus, the members of the entire family share agricultural activities. That is the reason why Lowry Nelson has mentioned that farming is a family enterprise.*

**Close Contact with Nature:** The rural people are in close contact with nature as most of their daily activities revolve around the natural environment. This is the reason why a ruralite is more influenced by nature than an urbanite. The villagers consider land as their real mother as they depend on it for their food, clothing and shelter.

**Homogeneity of Population:** The village communities are homogenous in nature. Most of their inhabitants are connected with agriculture and its allied occupations, though there are people belonging to different castes, religions and classes.

**Social Stratification:** In rural society, social stratification is a traditional characteristic, based on caste, age, gender.

**Social Solidarity:** The degree of social solidarity is greater in villages as compared to urban areas. Common experience, purposes, customs and traditions form the basis of unity in the villages.

**Social Integration:** This refers to a patterned relationship of one person with another through expressions of ideas, thought and action aimed at achieving concrete goals. Social contacts are greater in quantity, quality and variety in urban than in rural areas. In rural area, interaction takes place at water sites, market days, religious worship areas, cultural, marriage and naming ceremonies. The quality and type of interaction among the urban dwellers is much more than that of rural dwellers.

**Social mobility:** This is the movement of an individual from one social class or group to another. People may move vertically from a lower to higher or from higher to lower class via specific achievements through success in economic pursuits, education, political change, or job creation. Improvements in social infrastructure are bound to be more in the urban areas than in the rural areas. Social mobility is rather slow in rural areas.

**Social Control:** The behavior of individuals in the rural areas tends to be guided more by the internalization of societal norms and values. Informal means such as ostracism and gossips are used or applied to effect control on violation while instant justice is determined in cases of the violation of mores. Urban areas tend to depend more on formal institutions such as the police, traffic wardens among others for the maintenance of law and order.

### **1.3 Scope or Subject-Matter of Rural Sociology**

In comparison to other social sciences, Rural Sociology is a novel branch of Sociology and is a separate science that possesses its own subject matter and method of study. By scope of the discipline, it is meant that what Rural Sociology refers to what it studies. To draw attention on the scope, N.L. Sims says, "The field of Rural Sociology is the study of association among people living by or immediately dependent upon agriculture. Open country and village groupings and groups behavior are its concern."

According to Lowry Nelson, "The scope of Rural Sociology is the description and analysis of progress of various groups as they exist in the rural environment. In the words of Bertrand and his associates: "In its broadest definition Rural Sociology is the study of human relationship in rural environment." On account of the opinions given by Sims, Nelson and Bertrand, it is observed that the scope of Rural Sociology revolves around rural people, their livelihood and social relationship in rural environment.

Though it studies society from the rural perspective, its main aim is concentrated on rural lives. The subjects that are included within the scope are very comprehensive in nature and we can say that its boundary is varying large. The scope of Rural Sociology may be clear from the analysis of the following subjects.

Apart from studying the rural society, Rural Sociology also studies its nature and primary components from the structural and functional stances. The most crucial objective of rural

sociology is to study rural social life. Rural social life encompasses the behavior patterns, web of relationship, social interactions, standard of living and socio-economic conditions of the rural people. Therefore, the scope of Rural Sociology expands where the boundary of Rural Society is expanded.

**Rural Population:** The population residing in the geographical rural area is the basic essence of Rural Sociology. The discipline studies the nature, characteristics, size, density and distribution of rural population from various angles. Rural Sociology aims at the study of the factors of growth of population, its evil effects of Rural Society, rural –urban migration for the greater interest of the country at large. It also tries to understand the behavioral patterns, prevailing customs and folklores that dominate the day to day lives of the rural population.

**Rural Community:** Rural community is considered as one of the primordial organizations of mankind. Hence, Rural Sociology is chiefly concerned with the origin, nature, characteristics, social attributes and human ecology of rural community. It also studies the homogenous trajectory of the rigid and conservative nature of hither to existing customs, traditions, folkways, mores, norms, values and so on in rural community.

**Rural Social Organization:** Social organization plays the backbone of every society as well as social life. The most imperative function of Rural Sociology, therefore, is to offer fundamental knowledge about rural social organization. Rural Social organization envelops the spiritual lives, religious activities, sacred relationship and divine notion of rebirth, Karmaphala etc. of the rural folk which intensely affects the entire rural social life. Rural sociology, thus, for the betterment of rural life, studies the future prospectus of rural social organization and governing laws for its development.

**Rural Social Institution:** Rural social institutions imply the known figures of processes that prevail among the relations between the rural people. Rural sociology, thus, studies the structure, characteristics and functions of rural social institutions. Rural social institutions comprise family, marriage, kinship, religion, caste. Rural Sociology studies the sociological significance of these institutions in the rural context.

**Rural Economy:** Agriculture is the backbone of rural economy and majority of the rural population are absorbed in it. They directly depend on agriculture for their livelihood and sustenance. Rural Sociology, therefore, studies the causes liable for the failure of agriculture and suggests various measures for the development of agriculture in villages. Besides, the acceptance of new agricultural technology among the farming centers, upgrading of old farming methods, formation of open markets and providing agricultural training to the farmers are the vital areas of the study of rural society.

**Rural social Process:** Rural Sociology also studies the two process of rural social interaction, namely, conjunctive and disjunctive. Rural conjunctive process includes co-operation, accommodation and assimilation. Rural disjunctive process, on the other hand, comprises competition and conflict. Thus, the nature, characteristics and social importance of these processes are to be appropriately considered by the scope of Rural Sociology.

**Rural Religion:** Religion plays a predominant role in the rural society, considered as the soul of rural people and it is regarded as the chief quintessence of rural life. The rural people blindly follow the religious ideas and values; consider worshipping as a prime duty. Rural Sociology, in this context, and studies the concept and social importance of rural religion and its impact on rural society.

**Rural Culture:** Culture refers to that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, moral law, art, custom and any other capabilities acquired by man as a member of society. Rural culture is firmly rooted in rigid and conservative dogmas and it is generally very stagnant in nature. It includes old customs, tradition, folkways, mores, norms, values and so on. Rural Sociology studies the complexities of rural culture, its different structural organizations, cultural patterns, cultural traits and cultural lag in the rural contexts.

**Rural Social Problems:** One of the important contents of rural sociology includes the study of problem engulfed in the rural life. These problems are centered on socio-economic conditions, political, cultural ethos and value based. The problems generally are poverty, unemployment, population growth, illiteracy, casteism, untouchability etc. Rural Sociology, therefore, studies the causes and evil effects of these problems and also suggests measures for their eradication for the greater interests of the country at large. As these problems are rooted in the rural societies that are also diverse from place to place, their causes, nature and remedies vary from one another. Rural sociology tries draw in the similarities as well as the differences between the problems that stem from various existing issues and also the discipline tries to provide viable remedies to it.

**Rural Social Control:** Social control is the control of society over an individual. In Rural Society, social control is in formal and rigid in nature. Rural Sociology considerably studies the informal means and agencies such as religions, customs, folkways, mores, norms etc, of social control. In rural society, the imperative primary groups like family and neighborhood play a vital role in social control.

**Rural Social Change:** Social change is meant only such alterations as occur in social organization, that is, structure and functions of society. Of late, the rural society is on the path of social change. Due to the impact of money modernizing forces, Rural Society is undergoing incredible transformations in the twentieth century. In order to pace up social change in the rural areas and also keep the momentum going, Rural Sociology undertakes necessary steps. Rural

Sociology also studies the diverse factors responsible for social changes in a systematic way. It also tries to provide possible solutions for any change ignited derailment in rural social life.

**Rural Urban Contrast:** The study of rural society remains incomplete unless the study of rural urban contrast is done in a proper and scientific manner. Both the village and city, hypothetically, are the two contrasting modes of community life. Rural Sociology studies the rural-urban contrast on the basis of social, economic, religious and cultural point of view. Besides, rural sociology also draws attention on the comparative study of these two societies. As a result, the concept of rural society and social institutions can be clear by this contrasting analysis.

**Rural Planning and Reconstruction:** Rural planning and reconstruction are very much necessary for under developed societies. In this context, the poor and backward condition of Ethiopian rural society requires planning and reconstruction in a systematic and planned manner. Rural Society is engulfed in plenty of issues and social problems. Therefore, for the eradication of these problems and for the betterment of rural life, proper planning and reconstruction should be made by the state as well the central government. A.R. Desai says, Rural Sociology studies all these subjects and provides proper guidelines in this direction.

It is obvious from the above analysis that the scope or subject matter of Rural Sociology, no doubt is very immense. Though, it is the youngest and progressive science, yet it studies the various aspects of rural society as well as rural life to a great extent.

#### **1.4 Origin and Development of Rural Sociology**

Sociology joined the family of social sciences relatively at a later stage i.e. in the 19th century, for it had no independent existence before. In fact, sociology began to emerge as an independent and separate discipline only around the middle of the 19th century. It took almost fifty years before the subject began to assume scientific character that it has today. Prior to the middle of the 18th century, the study of society was dominated by social philosophers rather than by social scientists. These philosophers were less concerned about what society actually like, than what they thought it ought to be like. But in a relatively short period this emphasis was completely reversed. Hence study of society became more scientific than philosophical.

The main contributors to the development of rural sociology are-Charles Sanderson, Burtherfield, Ernast Bumholme, John Morris Gillin, Franklin H. Giddings and Thomas Nixon Carver.

**As a systematic science, rural sociology emerged in United States of America and the American society was facing severe disintegration from the period of 1890 to 1920.** The problems included mass poverty, economic crises, and no land rights with the cultivators etc. Such problems led to mass migration of the people from the rural hinterlands to the cities. As a result, there was severe shortage of food grains and also there was fear that the entire rural society was facing a threatening decay. *It was President Roosevelt who, through the appointment*

of 'Country Life Commission' gave a good encouragement to the development to the rural sociology in 1908. The report of this Commission encouraged the studies of rural society. **The Country Life Commission (CLC)** appointed in America to study the degrading situation of the rural society provided relevant data from the field and the findings were referred to the American Sociological Society in 1912. Reputed sociologists, such as James Michel Williams, Warren H. Wilson and Newell L. Sims contributed extensively to the study of American rural society. During those days, the rural sociologists used statistical and historical data along with field interview to find out empirical reality of the US country life. The works on rural sociology in America were discussed from humanist viewpoint and the solutions that it offered were highly revered in national level policy planning. The way general sociology emerged due to the problems in general life, similarly rural life problems necessitated the emergence of rural sociology.

**The Great Depression of 1930 provided another stimulus to the growth of rural sociology.** In 1937, 'Rural Sociological Society' was formed. It started publishing a professional journal 'Rural Sociology' containing results of rural sociological research. C. J. Galpin of University of Wisconsin developed techniques for defining and delimiting the rural community. His approach is still popular today.

**The Second World War gave yet another fillip to the growth of rural sociology.** The heavy destruction and damage to human society caused by the war demanded reconstruction. The reconstruction work brought further encouragement to the science. By 1958 there were about 1000 professional rural sociologists in America. Rural sociology crossed the boundaries of America and became popular in Europe. A European Society for Rural Sociology was formed in 1957, and a similar organization was started in Japan also. In developing countries, the role of the rural sociologists is primarily in the applied field of more effective planning and operation of rural community development programmes.

**The birth of rural sociology was due to the requirement of the study of different conditions and aspects of rural life and the prevailing problems that plague the rural society.** Earlier, many social sciences have strived to provide viable solutions for the challenges found in the rural society but have not been able to provide viable solutions to them. In order to provide a discipline for serious and focused study of the rural society, rural sociology was born. According to Charles R. Hoffer, "Like all sciences, Rural Sociology developed in response to a need. It is an elementary fact in the realm of scientific thought that a new science comes into existence whenever phenomena confronting the human mind are not, or cannot be understood satisfactorily by the existing disciplines or sciences". Though rural society exists since a long long time, but rural sociology had then not emerged due to the static and unchanged nature of the rural social life. In recent years, the components of dynamism and change have escalated the capability to comprehend the complex problems of life.



**During the 18th century, there was a major shift in the scientific inventions and discoveries that helped in transforming human thinking and life.** The exponential growth of industrialization and urbanization caused issues such as slums and overcrowding in the cities. Such grave concerns diverted the attention towards the villages and the migrating population. Rural people faced a lot of challenges and difficulties. Eventually, the streams of thought by the thinkers focused on issues such as poverty, unemployment, health and hygiene, education and disorganization etc. of rural people.

### **1.5 Why we study rural sociology**

Every study has certain aims and objects. These aims and objects are in consonance with the aims and objects of the society. No study is without aim. This is true of the rural sociology as well. One of the most important aims of the study of the Rural Sociology as seen in the study of the Rural Society or social complexities in the rural life. Professor Desai has explained this aim in a very detailed manner as reproduced below:- “The prime objective of Rural Sociology should be to make a scientific, systematic and comprehensive study of the rural social organisation of its structure, function and objective tendencies of development and on the basis of such study to discover the laws of its development”.

Since every science, social or natural, has its aims in the discovery of the hitherto hidden laws of development domain and the nature of society. The basic task of Rural Sociology is to discover the law of development of Rural Society. The aims of the study of Rural Sociology may therefore be enumerated as follows:

1. To study in a scientific and systematic manner, the Rural Society and its various aspects and complexities.
2. To study the structure, functions and objective tendencies of development of the Rural Society.
3. To discover the laws of the development of the Rural Society.
4. To make a scientific study of the Rural Society in order to help in the task of planning for the reconstruction of the rural social life.

The practical value of the study of rural sociology is widely recognized today. As long as the villages and the rural society assume importance, the rural sociology shall continue to acquire importance. The value of rural sociology can be understood by the following points:

1. Rural Population is in Majority: The world's is more rural than urban. More than two-third of people of the world live in villages. It is the village that forms the basis of society. Rural sociology is inevitable for the study of the majority of the population.
2. Intimate Relationship between the Land and Man: Man is born out of land and his entire culture depends on it. Land has been the part of and parcel of human life. Progress starts

from the village. The type of land partially conditions the type of society and the opportunities for human development. This close relationship between man and land has also been recognized by economists and political scientists.

3. Villages and Rural Life form the Source of urban Population: Cities normally grow out of towns and villages. No city can come into existence all of a sudden without having a rural background. A village, when improved and thickly populated, becomes a town or city. Thus it is the village population that forms the source of urban life.
4. Psychological Approach to the Rural Life: Rural progress, rural reconstruction or improvement of rural societies is possible only when the people have correct idea about the rural way of life and problems. Rural sociology touches upon the rural psychology and provides a good understanding of the rural people and their society.

Rural Sociology is a developing science which is very useful for Ethiopia, its main aim and object being making a scientific study of the Rural Society which would enable the country to make real progress, since the country is predominantly agrarian and majority of its population resides in villages. Dependence on agriculture forms the fundamental base of the Ethiopian rural life and it also acts as a backbone for the rural population. It not has an economic role to play but also helps in shaping the moral, psychological and ideological life of the rural people. But an urban bias has always been noticed among the scholars and researchers who have hitherto focused their attention on the study of phenomena and the challenges faced in the urban society.

### **1.6 Nature of Rural Sociology**

The nature of Rural Sociology generally implies whether it can be categorized under natural sciences or under arts. August Comte, the father of Sociology, called Sociology as the queen of sciences. Some sociologists have viewed sociology in terms of natural sciences. According to Pierre Bourdieu, "Sociology seems to have all the properties that define as science. All sociologists worthy of the name agree on a common heritage of concepts, methods and verification procedures". Most of the sociologists opine that Sociology has all the characteristics of science and it is, no doubt, a science. Since rural sociology is a specialized branch of Sociology, therefore it is also a science.

Nevertheless, before furthering to elaborate rural sociology as a science, it is essential to know what science is. Science is a method and way of looking at things consisting of systematic steps like observation, collection and classification of data, hypothesis, testing, theory and conclusion. Science possesses six basic ingredients.

Firstly, science employs the scientific method. The scientific method is a systematic, organized series of steps that ensures maximum objectivity and consistency in researching a problem.

Secondly; it is a study of facts. Thirdly scientific principles are universal. Fourthly, scientific laws are vertical. Its validity can be examined at any time and it proves true in every place. Fifthly, science discovers the cause-effect relationship in its subject-matter and in this connection

provides universal and valid laws. Finally, science can make predictions on the basis of universal and valid laws relating to the cause-effect relationship in any subject. The function of science is based upon a faith in causality. The nature of Rural Sociology as a science can be examined on the following grounds.

- a) **Scientific Methodology:** Rural Sociology utilizes scientific methodology and hence, all the methods used in rural sociology are scientific in nature. These methods are observation, interview, case study, schedule, and questionnaire etc. In these methods, the first step is collection of data through observation. On a stipulated data the results are brought out on the basis of accepted data. The validity of these results is verified and theories are formulated. Such rigorous methodology is assumed to produce dependable theoretical constructs.
- b) **Facts Accumulation:** Rural Sociology is always founded on factual study. It studies rural social relationship and activities in a factual manner. It makes a scientific study of facts, general principles and theories involved in them. It is also a known principle that science grows on the data collected from the field and that a sociologist stands on the shoulders of other sociologists as said by Robert Merton.
- c) **Empiricism:** Unlike natural sciences that carry out experiments in the closed laboratory for measurement and verification, rural sociology uses the empirical method in the form of fieldwork. For a rural sociologist going to the field carries immense significance as it helps him/her to gather relevant data on the basis of which he will formulate theories and also it provides an occasion for experimentation, observation and verification.
- d) **Precision and Accuracy:** Two of the important features of scientific investigation are precision and accuracy. The data that is collected should reflect the exact existing situation at the time of observation. The principles of rural sociology need to be proved true when verified. Their validity can be examined by any one.
- e) **Discovery of cause-effect relationship:** Like Sociology, Rural Sociology also discovers a cause effect relationship between the phenomena. For example, in the modern society, the rate of divorce increases rapidly due to the family disorganization. Similarly, due to the swift growth of population the rate of poverty and unemployment increases in the rural society. In these examples, family disorganization and population growth are two causes and divorce as well as poverty and unemployment are their effects. Rural Sociology has discovered a cause effect relation between the phenomena and population growth and divorce. Thus Rural Sociology finds the causal relationship in social disorganization and other incidents, activities and relationship in rural society and then forms laws concerning them.
- f) **Predictions:** Eventually, on the basis of cause-effect relationship rural sociology becomes capable of anticipating the future and make predictions concerning social relationship, activities, incidents etc. For example, if disorganization in the families becomes pronounced, it can make predictions concerning the number of divorces and many other things. Knowing the cause-effect relationship, rural sociology can conclude 'what will be' on the basis of 'what is'.

## 1.7 Tools of Data Collection in Rural Sociology

In the study of rural society and rural social life, rural sociologists use various sociological data collection methods or tools.

**Rural Survey:** A survey is always known as holistic in nature and it studies the village in its totality. The surveys generally aim at studying all the existing and already existent facets of the village. They study the socio-economic changes that the villages have undergone due to internal or external factors.

**Village Monographs:** The Census of India has habitually published village monographs every decade. The monographs basically portray the overall scenario in the villages and are non-intensive in nature. The researchers conduct a casual study of the village life and write up narratives on the villages as they exist and operate.

**Observation:** One of the most basic and essential methods to collect data from the village is observation. This method helps in making the researcher understand the occurring phenomena all by himself (i.e. in his presence). There are two types of observations: Participant and non-participant, while in the former the researcher identifies himself with the village, in the latter he doesn't participate in any of the activities and behaves like an outsider.

**Interview:** the technique of interview is essential because often it is not possible to understand the phenomenon just by observing it. Many a times, it becomes difficult for a non-villager researcher to simply reach to a conclusion just by observation. He needs to sit and ask questions to the villagers to comprehend the intricacies of a village social life and the underlying norms that govern the behavioral patterns of the rural people.

**Case Studies:** A deeper and intensive study of a village is done through case studies. By conducting case studies, the researchers try to find out any unique occurrence in the village that stands out from the rest of the findings. The case studies also help in throwing insights into the main study or body of work.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES IN RURAL SOCIOLOGY

#### Introduction

The idea of rural presupposes the presence of urban. The rural-urban dichotomy is not recent in origin. Early social thinkers were also preoccupied with the notion of urban, rural division even before the emergence of sociology because they are “fundamental Social Categories”. **Plato** gave a full focus for the two notions. His ideal republic was more or less compatible with our description of rural society today. His description of *oligarchic* society resembles to the characteristics of urban society. In the middle ages, **St Augustine** and **Ibn Khaldun** used similar comparison to make distinction between urban and rural community. The similar case is observed in the work of **Hegel**. During the 1920’s rural, urban specialists emerged in sociology.

*To sum up:*

- a. *Plato’s two types of societies:*
  - *Republic (personality traits/social regime) - rural*
  - *Oligarchic society and man – urban*
- b. *St Augustine’ description of two social types:*
  - *Church and city of god – characteristic of rural St Augustine’ description of two social types*
  - *Society and man – urban*
- c. *Khaldun also employed similar approach like*
- d. *Hegel adopted similar approach:*
  - *Family-society - rural*
  - *Civic society - urban*

**Smith** says that “rural and urban do not exist of themselves in a vacuum...that the principal characteristics of each may be found shedding in to, blending\mixing with the essential characteristics of the other ..Rather than consisting of mutually exclusive categories ,rural and urban the general society seems to resemble a spectrum in which the most remote back ground ,sub rural settlement blend in to rural and then gradually through all degrees of rural and sub urban into most urban and hyper–urban way of living .” It means, it is better to see the rural and urban in **continuum** than a dictum because the two share common characteristics. Four important theoretical orientations trying to explain rural –urban differences and relations are;

1. Traditional-modern dichotomy/rural-urban dichotomy
2. Rural-urban continuum
3. Political-economy of rural people and
4. Innovation-diffusion- adoption model

## 2.1 . Traditional-modern dichotomy

### Traditional and Modern Societies: A Comparative Look

“Traditional” refers to those societies or elements of societies that are small-scale, are derived from indigenous and often ancient cultural practices. “Modern” refers to those practices that relate to the industrial mode of production or the development of large-scale societies. These co-exist in the world today.

There is some controversy among rural sociologists as to whether rural–urban differences occur in dichotomous fashion or along a continuum. Proponents of rural-urban dichotomy theory hold that differences between the two populations are categorical in nature and direct opposition to one another.

Some of the classical sociologists like Durkheim, Tonnies, Weber, Maine believed that the rural is traditional in terms of cultural practices, religious rituals, mode of behaving, but the urban is modern. Maine gave a contrast between rural and urban based on the assignment of roles and position .

He argued that;

- Societies based on ascription and traditions are predominantly rural. But
- Societies based on achieved status and contract are urban.

According to **Ferdinand Tonnies** (*Gemeinschaft* *Gesellschaft* according to Nature of relationship)<sup>1</sup>, a society which is based on blood, common place of origin, kinship, common beliefs and sentiments is rural. But a society based on profit making, commodity production, contractual relation is urban. He is interested in the nature of social relation between urban and rural areas.

On the other hand, **Durkheim** was interested to see division of labor in society. According to him there is a difference in the nature, complexity of the division of labor in rural and urban societies. He proposed that in **mechanical solidarity** there is very little difference between the individuals. What we have is a diffused relationship. People hold common belief and have collective conscience. In **organic solidarity** the density of interaction is increased because people involved are increasing, the division of labor is specialized, integrative force is division of labor instead of belief system and values which are declining. Organic solidarity is the characteristics of urban. But mechanical solidarity is the characteristics of rural area.

**Weber; Traditional vs Modern/Rational** : **Max Weber** has a tendency towards the notion of traditional and modern society. His main interest was to see **authority** on the above contexts i.e.

---

<sup>1</sup>**Gemeinschaft** (community) which is maintained by traditional rules and a universal sense of solidarity and which fits the organic theory of social union on the other hand, *Gemeinschaft* tends to change into (society), in which rational self-interest is the stronger element *Gesellschaft* (society). *Gesellschaft* must be held together by deliberately formulated prescriptions and may be explained in terms of the social-contract / instrumental theory. In practice, all societies show elements of both kinds of will, because man's conduct is neither wholly instinctive nor wholly reasoned.

traditional authority and rational authority .in between them there is charismatic authority .For Weber, the traditional is pre -industrial, non-illiterate, small scale, technologically simple society\ authority.

But the rational authority\ society is capitalist, bureaucratic, dominated by state control. In such society human action is subject to calculation, measurement, and a system of control. But not all urban societies exhibit all these characteristics.

Continuum: - Continuous stages from rural to urban.

-Rurality develops to urbanity

Dichotomy: - Clear distinction between the two

Even though there is no such thing as a completely traditional or completely modern society at the present time, the difference between the two forms of organization has great significance for everyone alive today.

Even the idea of separating society or daily life into ‘components’ (economy, religion, political organization, social relations, etc.) does not make sense in the modern worldview, in which they are all inter-penetrated or a Gestalt/organized whole that is perceived as more than the sum of its parts. The domination of Western ways and thought of all others, by military and economic force, may be a historical fact, but is not necessarily a permanent state of affairs.

### **Subsistence and economy**

Traditional:

- Production for use or subsistence.
- Simple division of labor (age, sex); cooperation.
- Units of production are family, clan, village, age-set.
- Units of distribution and consumption socially-based (family, etc.).
- Consumption to satisfy basic needs.
- Little transformation of production (crafts, metallurgy, cooking...)

Modern:

- Production for profit/growth.
- Complex division of labor (specialization, differentiation)
- Units of distribution and production can be individuals, mechanized, commercial, corporate.
- More competition and over consumerism.
- High degree of transportation of commodities.
- Dependence on others’ skills, knowledge/profession.

### **Material culture**

Traditional:

- Accumulation for redistribution/exchange for prestige in social ends.
- Collective ownership.
- No distinct economic sphere; inter-penetrated with kinship, age, ritual.
- No work for pay; no formal contract; no “labor” or “shadow”.
- Few possessions; similar standard of living.

Modern:

- Resources not always used for social ends. Cult of wealth for self.
- Private ownership.
- Distinct economic sphere, with distinct domains.
- Pay for goods and services; contract-based; shadow work.

- Many possessions; inequitable distribution of resources and wealth.

### **Cultural ecology.**

#### Traditional:

- Subsistence strategy related to ecology, population size and structure, settlement pattern
- Sacred land and commons
- Use value of environment. Transport by human or animal energy
- Individuals have variety of skills; make tools and control them
- Human, plant, animal and solar energy
- Migration and diverse settlement
- Limited diet

#### Modern:

- Techno-economic system unrelated to environmental, social and cultural factors
- Few sacred places or commons
- Resource exploitation, domination of nature
- Machine transportation, chemical energy, Expertise replaces general knowledge
- Varied but questionable diet (commercialized)

### **Political and social features**

#### Traditional:

- Public goals (for the good of group over individual)
- No bureaucracy
- Kin and gender dominance
- Face-to-face relations, everything negotiable; consensus important
- Family important.

#### Modern:

- Some public and personal goals
- Bureaucratic
- Conquest, commerce, assimilation, colonialism
- stratified hierarchy of elites and Social separation
- Little sense of community/impersonal, distance communication/
- everything pre-defined

### **Lifestyle**

#### Traditional:

- More leisure, more time; time means lived life
- Spiritual focus
- Mythological (OLD belief) basis for taboos and rules. Informal social control
- People entertain themselves. Conversation is an art

#### Modern:

- Less leisure, no time; time is independent of life; time is money
- Secular or religious
- Legalistic or doctrinal. Formal social control
- People are entertained by specialists
- Consumption replaces conversation



## 2.2 Rural - Urban continuum

Some sociologists have used the concept of rural-urban continuum to stress the idea that there are no sharp breakingpoints to be found in the degree or quantity of rural-urban differences. Maclver remarks that though the communities are normally divided into rural and urban, the line of demarcation is not always clear between these two types of communities. There is no sharp demarcation to tell where the city ends and country begins. Every village possesses some elements of the city and every city carries some features of the village. Rural-urban continuum refers to the concept that communities cannot be put into two types of categories but should be seen to represent various modernization stages on a linear scale.

### I Robert Redfield

He has given the concept of rural -urban continuum on the basis of his study of Mexican peasants of Tepoztlain. The rapid process of urbanization through the establishment of industries, urban traits and facilities have decreased the differences between villages and cities. He conducted a series of empirical studies and developed what he calls *folk-urbanorientation*. The folk being traditional, homogenous village community while the urban being modern city. Although he introduced the two, his interest was on identifying basic characteristics of folk (rural society).

His model is used to see and explain the transformation from folk to urban. Some characteristics of the transformation are loss of isolation and loss of homogeneity which finally results in cultural disorganization \disorientation and heterogeneity. The first two are independent factors which make folk society to transform to urban life. Notably, the consequences of transformation are accompanied by *secularization* (clear cut division between the state and religion) and *individualism*.

Folk /rural society	Urban society
Small size of population	Large population
Isolated, non-literate, homogenous	Literate and heterogeneous
Strong sense of group solidarity	More individualistic, Social disorganization
Traditional/spontaneous nature of behavior	Greater division of labor
Prevalence of kinship	Less group solidarity
Dominance of sacred	Prevalence of secular

In general, R-U continuum consists of a series of gradations from supposedly:

- o Semi-rural to
- o Rural through
- o Semi-urban to
- o Urban and
- o Hyper urban

## II. Sorokin and Zimmerman

They were rural sociologists interested in the role of occupational difference on distinguishing rural from urban. They identified eight features that distinguish urban from rural.

- ✓ **Occupational Difference**; Agriculture is a predominant occupation in rural area and non-farm activities are limited; work is performed in an open field and near to residence. Most of the training about farming also occurs at home.
- ✓ **Environmental differences**: in rural area nature predominates over the social and the anthropological environment i.e. People are closely related to the physical environment/nature. the rural area is characterized by lack of infrastructure
- ✓ **Difference in the size of the community and the pattern of settlement**; in rural area communities are small in size and are scattered
- ✓ **Population density**: rural areas are less dense than urban ones.
- ✓ **Homogeneity of the population**: people in rural areas are homogenous in terms of behavior, culture, belief and language.
- ✓ **Social differentiation**; in rural areas there is less differentiation of people in relation to occupation ,education ,wealth
- ✓ **Spatial and social mobility**: rural people are characterized by less mobility ,physically/spatially ,occupationally ,less mobile in terms of social stratification .Their class position seems to be permanent because most of them belong to the class which is peasantry.
- ✓ **System of interaction**: in rural area we have contacts per person, narrow area of interaction, primary personal contacts predominate over secondary impersonal contact of urban. Contacts in rural areas are durable emotion loaded, strong in quality but the quantitative aspect of contact is limited.

III. **Louis Wirth: Ruralism and urbanism as ways of life**• this theoretical perspective was developed by **Wirth** who was interested in developing theory of urbanism and ruralism as opposed to Redfield. He argued that “basic differences in environment produce difference in way of life “.he believe that the two ways of life are represent two different environments. For wirth, the city is distinguished from rural community because of greater size and high degree of heterogeneity .These together produce urbanism as a way of life or determines the degree of urbanism in a particular society. Their development is accompanied by **secularization** and **individualism**, breaking down of **normative order** and replacement by **legal order**.

He defined the **city** for sociological purpose as “a relatively large ,dense and permanent settlement of heterogeneous individuals “.on the other hand rural is characterized by small size ,low density of population ,homogeneity ,presence of primary \ affectual relationship as opposed to instrumental relation ,high social control.

To sum up;

Ruralism as a way of life	Urbanism as a way of life
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ <b>Small size, low density homogeneity</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Strong social control</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Low division of labor</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Affective interpersonal relations</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Primary relations</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ <b>Large size, high density, heterogeneity</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Weak social control</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Greater division of labor</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Instrumental interpersonal</b></li> <li>✓ <b>Secondary relations</b></li> </ul>

### Criticisms of rural-urban conceptual theories

Redfield's theory:

- Glosses over apparent heterogeneity in rural areas
- Assumes rigid distinction between rural and urban
- Underestimates existence of great deal of mixture

Wirth's theory:

- Ignores existence of many and different forms of rural and urban life, varying from culture to culture
- Difficult to derive all aspects of rural & urban ways of life from only demographic and social composition

Overall, there is an element of idealization & glorification of rural life as peaceful & egalitarian.

## 2.3 Political economy of rural people

Governments in most developing countries have adopted policies that discriminate against agriculture. Interventions take a variety of forms, including the pricing and distribution of agricultural commodities making agricultural price low to support industries and inputs, and fiscal and credit policies that favor the industrial sector.

Governments also use indirect instruments, such as trade regimes and exchange rate policies; when exchange rate is low export cost is low which often amplify the discriminatory impacts against the countryside. The results of a large body of research indicate that these interventions introduce distortions in the economic systems, because large income transfers away from the rural sector, and, ultimately, lead to slower agricultural and overall economic growth.

While urban bias is virtually universal in the process of economic development, there are primarily two competing analytical paradigms for explaining policy formations. One theory, associated primarily with the work of Michael Lipton (1977) and Robert Bates (1981), finds answers in the political structure of those countries, arguing that agriculture is disfavored in development because *urban groups are politically powerful*. The second theory emphasizes the development strategy of the modernizing elites who, as evidence shows, believe that *industry rather than agriculture is the catalyst sector for rapid growth* and that taxing agriculture provides the much needed financial support for industrialization. Despite the clarity of views at

the conceptual level, empirical assessments of these two hypotheses is difficult because of an identification problem.

The coexistence of political activities of urban groups and the belief of the modernizing elites in industrialization complicates the measurement of the two causes, making it hard to separate the individual effects of the causes on policy formation. As a consequence, the explanatory power of the two hypotheses remains largely untested.

#### A. **The Urban Bias Thesis: Michael Lipton**

Most of the theories listed above focus on socio-cultural features to explain rural and urban differences. But this theory focuses on *political economy*. This one was very controversial and influential during the 1970's. His main work was "*why poor people stay poor*". He explained the difference in terms of power, exploitation, and domination of urban people over the rural (urban bias). Urban bias argument is related specially with the third world in terms of resource physically, financially, human labor are systematically and deliberately allocated. Urban are getting much resource than rural as a result there is a conflict between the two. Lipton said "the most important class conflict in poor countries of the world today is not between labor and capital. Nor is it between foreign and national interests. It is between the rural and the urban classes. There are two ways in which urban bias is manifested;

a. **Surplus extraction**; this also has two ways in which the urban extract surplus from rural.

These are;

(1) Heavy direct taxation, the rural are heavily taxed than the urban on per capital base which intended to transfer surplus from rural to urban.

(2) Through unequal exchange of goods and services; He believed there is a distorted inter-sectoral terms of trade. The term of trade involve farm produce versus industrial product through what is called price twists, products of rural people are underpriced over the reverse. The consequence of this trade relation is *cheap food policy*. Then the urban will be satisfied so that it will not revolt against the government. Thus the issue is political in nature.

b. **Neglect and biased allocation of resources**; has two ways

(1) Biased productive investment. In most third world countries resource allocated to rural people and agricultural sector is insignificant compared to the urban or industrialized sector. Because, in those days there was a belief that a rural household is insignificant in the process of development. But, latter it was realized that it is better than large industries in the efficient use of resources.

(2) biased infrastructure facility; the urban get better infrastructure both qualitatively and quantitatively than the rural areas though the rural cover 80% of the population 60% of GDP and 80% of employment opportunities. The root of bias can be traced to politically and ideologically charged idea of industrialization by squeezing agriculture in 1960's and 1970's. But it was found to be negative development or counterproductive grounds of *equity* and *efficiency*.

Regarding equity, Lipton, though don't oppose industrialization said so far as the goal of development is to eradicate poverty. It is logical to give priority to the sector where the rural poor engaged (agriculture). Regarding efficiency he said capital investment on agriculture gives higher returns in terms of employment, more goods per unit of land etc. But industry is capital intensive so that no employment opportunity and importing it has danger on foreign currency. In addition the poor countries are not competitive in the industry market. The consequence of urban bias was mostly increase in poverty, inequality, wide gap b/n rural and urban areas. In general,

- Power & exploitation at the root of urban bias
- Resources are deliberately allocated to urban areas
- Rural areas receive less and less of resources
- Give rise to conflict between rural & urban areas
- Exploitation of rural by urban
- Industrialization by squeezing agriculture is at the root of urban bias – counterproductive strategy

## 2.4 Diffusion of Innovation Theory

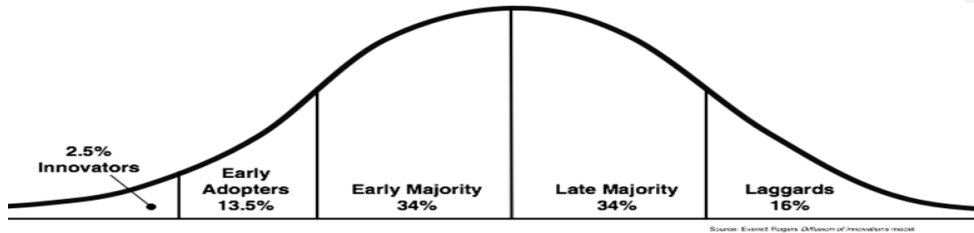
Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) Theory, developed by E.M. Rogers in 1962, is one of the oldest social science theories. It originated in communication to explain how, over time, an idea or product gains momentum and diffuses (or spreads) through a specific population or social system. The end result of this diffusion is that people, as part of a social system, adopt a new idea, behavior, or product. Adoption means that a person does something differently than what they had previously (i.e., purchase or use a new product, acquire and perform a new behavior, etc.). The key to adoption is that the person must perceive the idea, behavior, or product as new or innovative. It is through this that diffusion is possible. **Diffusion scholars (e.g. Rogers, 1995) have identified main elements in the diffusion of innovation:**

- ✓ **An innovation:** Innovation refers to: Idea, Practice, or Object, that is perceived as new by an individual.
- ✓ **Communication channel:** Communication is the process by which participants create and, share information to reach mutual understanding which can be communicated through mass media but more effective in creating awareness is interpersonal communication in forming and changing attitudes towards a new idea.
- ✓ **Time:** The time dimension is involved in different ways: first, in the innovation diffusion process, mental process passing that is first knowledge of an innovation, to forming an attitude toward the innovation, to decision to adopt, to implementation of new idea, to confirmation of this decision. Second, Time is also involved in the innovativeness of an individual (degree to which an individual is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas.)
- ✓ **Social System:** Rate of diffusion of innovation is affected by social structure (conservative/broad-minded society), social norms (e.g. group norms), opinion leadership (degree to which an individual is able to influence informally other individuals' attitude,

types of innovation-decisions (whether individual adoption decisions or organization decisions) and consequences of innovation.

Adoption of a new idea, behavior, or product (i.e., "innovation") does not happen simultaneously in a social system; rather it is a process whereby some people are more apt to adopt the innovation than others. Researchers have found that people who adopt an innovation early have different characteristics than people who adopt an innovation later. When promoting an innovation to a target population, it is important to understand the characteristics of the target population that will help or hinder adoption of the innovation. There are **five established adopter categories**, and while the majority of the general population tends to fall in the middle categories, it is still necessary to understand the characteristics of the target population. When promoting an innovation, there are different strategies used to appeal to the different adopter categories.

1. **Innovators** - These are people who want to be the first to try the innovation. They are venturesome and interested in new ideas. These people are very willing to take risks, and are often the first to develop new ideas. Very little, if anything, needs to be done to appeal to this population.
2. **Early Adopters** - These are people who represent opinion leaders. They enjoy leadership roles, and embrace change opportunities. They are already aware of the need to change and so are very comfortable adopting new ideas. Strategies to appeal to this population include how-to manuals and information sheets on implementation. They do not need information to convince them to change.
3. **Early Majority** - These people are rarely leaders, but they do adopt new ideas before the average person. That said, they typically need to see evidence that the innovation works before they are willing to adopt it. Strategies to appeal to this population include success stories and evidence of the innovation's effectiveness.
4. **Late Majority** - These people are skeptical of change, and will only adopt an innovation after it has been tried by the majority. Strategies to appeal to this population include information on how many other people have tried the innovation and have adopted it successfully.
5. **Laggards** - These people are bound by tradition and very conservative. They are very skeptical of change and are the hardest group to bring on board. Strategies to appeal to this population include statistics, fear appeals, and pressure from people in the other adopter groups.



The stages by which a person adopts an innovation, and whereby diffusion is accomplished, include awareness of the need for an innovation, decision to adopt (or reject) the innovation, initial use of the innovation to test it, and continued use of the innovation. There are **five main factors that influence adoption of an innovation**, and each of these factors is at play to a different extent in the five adopter categories.

1. Relative Advantage - The degree to which an innovation is seen as better than the idea, program, or product it replaces.
2. Compatibility - How consistent the innovation is with the values, experiences, and needs of the potential adopters.
3. Complexity - How difficult the innovation is to understand and/or use.
4. Triability - The extent to which the innovation can be tested or experimented with before a commitment to adopt is made.
5. Observability - The extent to which the innovation provides tangible results.

This theory has been used successfully in many fields including communication, agriculture, public health, criminal justice, social work, and marketing. In public health, Diffusion of Innovation Theory is used to accelerate the adoption of important public health programs that typically aim to change the behavior of a social system. For example, an intervention to address a public health problem is developed, and the intervention is promoted to people in a social system with the goal of adoption (based on Diffusion of Innovation Theory). The most successful adoption of a public health program results from understanding the target population and the factors influencing their rate of adoption.

### **Rural-Urban Differences: Closing the gap**

The rural –urban difference is declining and is believed to continue declining due to

- Rapid increase in communication :there is growing contacts physically , in values, norms and institutions of rural and urban people through print media ,electronic media transportation etc
- Progressive breaking down of the isolation of rural areas and consequent borrowing and diffusion of ideas and information.
- The narrowing of rural-urban differences especially in developed countries is accompanied by decline in rural population arising from increased farm productivity and

subsequent migration of farmers in to the nearby urban centers. There is also a close link b\n farm and non-farm sector especially agro-industry and food processing in the USA which make farmers closely linked to the urban through market system.

- The farmer is highly specialized in production so that he adopted an urban agricultural type\mode
- Rapid change in the social organization of people

### chapter Three

## RURAL SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

The modern civilized society is characterized by a number of organizations. Our society in any ways is organizational society. We not only live in, belong to or work through organizations but satisfy most of our desires and fulfill our aspirations through organizations.

The term “organization” is used in different ways to mean different things. The term is generally used to mean an “association” or an “associational group”. In a restricted sense, it refers to one of the attributes of an association (to mean an arrangement of statuses and roles).

The term is used in sociological studies and researches today to stress the importance of arrangement of parts and their interdependence in groups and in societies. The concept is of help in understanding the way in which the parts of society are related to each other and how each is related to the whole society. It is now widely recognized that social organization is required for the survival and the effective function of groups and societies. The term organization is in sociology sometimes used interchangeably with the term institution, as when referring to a formal organization like a hospital or a prison. In other parts of sociology, such as the sociology of organizations, 'organization' and 'institution' refer to two different phenomena. **Organizations are a group of individuals pursuing a set of collective goals with established roles, methods of coordination, procedures, culture and space.**

Organizations can include:



1. Political Bodies (Political Parties, Congress, Department of Corrections),
2. Social Groups (Churches, Clubs, Athletic Associations, Households, Communities),
3. Economic Bodies (Unions, Cooperatives, Corporations), And
4. Educational Bodies (Schools, Training Centers, Colleges).

Institutions are ideas about how something should be done, look or be constituted in order to be viewed as legitimate. Institutions are also “stable collection of social practices consisting of easily recognized roles coupled with underlying norms and a set of rules or conventions defining appropriate behavior for, and governing relations among, occupants of these roles” (Horton and Hunt, 2004).

Organizations are different in different societies. The fundamental organizations in the foraging(hunting) and gathering type of society are based on family, marriage, kinship and gender. The organizations in this type of societies are simple and more or less personal, whereas in the tribal society organizations are more complex. The tribal societies produce most of their subsistence foods through small-scale cultivation and the domestication of animals. The evolution of food producing subsistence corresponds to the development of new forms of social organizations. When it comes to the agrarian societies that are similar to Ethiopian case, they are with more complex social organizations. Because Agricultural states were more complex and highly organized than pre-state societies, they could not rely solely in kinship for recruitment to different status position.

In highly centralized agricultural societies the state itself replaces kin groups as a major integrating principle in society. The agrarian structure mode of production is different from the previous type of societies. They are diverse and advanced. New and diverse forms of social organizations have enabled rural societies to adjust to the new economic conditions. Rural societies have had to develop social relations that are more fixed and permanent.

In general, *social organization in rural areas of a group includes how people interact, the kinship systems they use, marriage residency patterns, how they divide up the various tasks that need to be completed, which has access to specific goods and knowledge, what ranking strategy is being used.*

In Ethiopia rural social organizations can be categorized into two. The fundamental or primary one is *kinship/locality-based organizations* whereas the secondary are *function-based organizations*. The former is to refer the Rural Household and Rural Communities and the latter is to mean voluntary and other local organizations that are established intentionally or unintentionally for some purpose.

### 3.1 Rural Households

At the most basic local level, rural societies are organized on the basis of a network of households and communities. Rural households and communities are the building blocks of sociological analysis of rural society. The rural household is usually characterized as the basic economic and social cell of rural communities. The concept of household is preferable to the concept of family. Family implies marriage, kinship and/or blood relationships, but household does not necessarily imply blood relationship. In rural areas, the so-called household is a basic unit of production and consumption; and it is not only a biological, social or kinship doing. Generally, a household refers to people who share certain important characteristics: shared residence, shared consumption, and common economic & social activity. The most important characteristic of the rural household is the fact that it is both a unit of production and consumption. This is the most general characteristics of the household that directly or indirectly affects other features of the household. This distinguishes the rural household from the urban household. The rural household is engaged in pooling and sharing of resources such as labor, land, livestock, etc... to undertake production, distribution and exchange. For example, in peasant farming households, labor is provided by household members and production is mainly distributed towards household consumption. This fact indicates that the household and its farms are virtually inseparable from each other.

#### 3.1.1 The Social Organization of the Rural Household

The social organization of the rural household can be explained in two ways: the institution of the patriarchy and age and gender division of labor.

***Institution of the Patriarchy:*** patriarchy as institution is an old concept that has got two meaning. First, it describes the domination of men over women in general. Second, it is used to describe the type of household organization in which an elder man (patriarchy) dominates the household organization including his possession of resources. In most peasant agrarian societies, the authority of the patriarchy is based on and reinforced by two foundations: control over economic resources and socio-cultural (social, religious and ideological) values.

***Age and Gender Division of Labor:*** the internal principle of the rural household is that there should be division of labor based on sex and age. In sub-Saharan Africa, some scholars say that, a major change in the nature of the rural household and division of labor has occurred due to two changes: -

1. The introduction of cash crop production that brought about an important change in the gender division of labor mainly in agricultural production. In many regions of sub-Saharan region, cash-crop production became a men domain whereas food crop production became the women's domain. The distinctive feature of cash crop production is that it provided direct access to cash income which is controlled and disposed by men. It became a prestigious activity supplying cash income while controlling the decision-making process within the household. As a result of men's control over cash crop, women became the main producers of food crop.
2. Migrant wage labor: the introduction of wage labor brought about even more complicated change in rural areas. In the absence of men, women were obliged to shoulder all the household responsibilities. That is in the fact terms they became the household heads.

### **Size of the rural households**

It is fact that the rural household is both production and consumption unit. It is also fact that the rural household's activity is based on gender and age division of labor. These facts drive for everyone to perceive that a complete household is essential for its proper function. A completed house hold includes married couples and children to bring about gender and age division of labor. The production and reproduction logic of the house hold has been argued to push the house hold a self towards a larger house hold size as ideal desirable situation. Therefore, the tendency towards higher fertility and larger house hold size is usually explained in terms of the rules, the patterns or the logic of production of the house hold. This logic usually revolves

Comment [H1]: test

around the question of children as assets. There are two general arguments for viewing children as assets.

- a. **The labor power logic:** children play a vital role in the production and reproduction activities of the house hold. They provide the needed labor for domestic as well as outdoor activities from an early age and once they start contributing house hold labor, children become assets rather than burdens on the house hold.
- b. **Security and welfare:** here there are two arguments.
  - ❖ High infant and child mortality in many rural areas means fertility should also be high so that out of many children some will survive.
  - ❖ In the absence of formal insurance and welfare security, kinship networks are the only means of support for the elderly, the sick, and the disabled in rural areas in developing countries.

Comment [H2]: test

It is very true that children in rural areas are assets, but we should be careful in our analysis of this issue because parents in rural areas do not merely give children to full fill their economic interest as deliberate and calculated rational strategy. The correct argument is that the socio-economic rules as surrounded by religious and social norms in terms of which biological reproduction is justified. That why many rural development projects such as family planning or formal schooling in rural areas face much more obstacles, for example, competition for labor because of household activity.

### 3.2 **Rural Communities**

Comment [H3]: test

The social life people lead is affected by the kind of community in which they live. The community is as old as humanity-or even older, for our subhuman ancestors probably shared a community life. A community can be defined either as a human group (town, city, and village) or as a body of sentiment (sense of commitment, loyalty), but there is no uniformity in the use of the term. One widely quoted definition reads: “a community is a local grouping within which people carry out a full round of life activities.”(Horton and Hunt, 2004). When this definition is seen in a greater detail a community includes (1) a grouping of people, (2) within a geographical area, (3) with a division of labor into specialized and interdependent functions, (4) with a common culture and a social system which organizes their activities, (5) whose members

are conscious of their unity and belongingness to the community, and (6) whose members act collectively in an organized manner. For it to qualify as a true community, its members would need to experience all or nearly all of the culture within the community's boundaries. In addition to this, the word community can be seen in a way that a group of people with common concerns and interests. There are four conceptions for the term community.

- ✓ Community as a geographical expression refers to a collection of people in a bounded physical location;
- ✓ Community as a self-sufficient and self-contained entity;
- ✓ Community as a special kind of human association having common spirit; and
- ✓ Community as a social system is viewed as a local social system and primary arena in which social and economic activities take place. This is somewhat similar to the above mentioned about community

It has been traditional to classify communities as rural or urban, depending upon whether their populations were small and agricultural, or larger and industrial or commercial. The classification was never entirely satisfactory, for it made no provision for the fishing village, the mining camp, the trading post, or many other special types of communities. Modern transportation has so eroded the boundaries between city and country that we actually have a shading of one community in the other and not two distinct communities.

### **3.3 Traditional Characteristics of Rural Life**

Rural Communities are not all alike. Yet certain characteristics are common to nearly all kinds of rural communities.

**1. Isolation:** Perhaps the most conspicuous feature of rural life (particularly in the past) is its isolation. Throughout much of the world, rural people are clustered into small villages, within walking distance of the surrounding farmland. Not only has been the local group isolated from other groups, but each family was isolated from other families. With a thinly scattered population, personal contacts have been few. Each contact involved the perception of an individual as a complete person not simply as a functionary. Impersonal contacts are few in rural societies. The rural communities said as self-contained. They are thought as they are complete for themselves. Every type of social relations and interactions can do within

themselves. That could be another reason that makes them isolated.

- 2. Homogeneity:** The rural communities are thought as homogeneous within the given locality. Rural communities are homogeneous with regard to different aspects such as in economic, occupation, religion and so on. This homogeneity, together with the comparative isolation of settlements from one another, helped to encourage the conservatism, traditionalism, and ethnocentrism of rural communities.
- 3. Farming:** Nearly all are farmers and hired hands, while even the health worker, priest, teacher, storekeeper, the agricultural extension worker and blacksmith have been deeply involved in agricultural way of life. All have faced common problems, performed common tasks, and shared common helplessness before the awesome natural forces which lie beyond the human control.
- 4. Subsistence Economy:** The traditional rural homestead has tried to produce nearly everything it consumed. The bulging smoke-house and the shelves sagging with home prepared goods have been sources of pride to the farm family. In a rapidly expanding economy with shortage of money and credit, a subsistence and barter economy is a socially useful adaptation. Thrift is an honored value; conspicuous consumption has been seen as an urban vice. A farm couple's status was measured by their land, herds, barns, crops and the inheritance they could pass on to their children.

These above characteristics are not something that has to be seen strictly. In some communities they can be observable and also followed whereas in some other communities many of them are eroded due to different reasons. In practice, it's true that Communities share agro-ecological communalities like residence, water supply, kinship, and religious affiliation. In most cases it is implied that members of a community act jointly in respect of these communalities. In reality communities are not homogenous in composition or in concerns as well as not completely isolated. But it is usual to see a community being treated administratively as a homogenous unit.

Rural communities differ greatly with respect to a range of factors including: Ethnicity (affiliations to a given ethnic group), affiliation to political party, Agro ecological conditions, Socio-economic status, Network, Wealth, Dependence on common pool resources, Degree of reliance on farming for livelihood (off farm + remittance), Degree of integration into the

market economy and proximity to urban centers, Degree of dependence on self-production versus processed food and exposure to ideas from others – in the market driven world. In rural sociology, the idea of a rural community has been considered as an important intermediate social organization mainly linking the rural household with the larger society. However the nature of the rural community and its relations with the larger society has not been always clear. Generally, there are two contrasting model of the rural community: - closed rural communities versus open rural community.

Closed communities have the following features: homogeneity in composition, clear boundary between local community and the external world, collective responsibility among members with restrictions of land ownership by outsider because of the tendency of ownership & management of land and other resources by the community (i.e. communal land tenure),strong control and regulation of the behavior of members.

On the contrary, open rural communities are heterogeneous, with individual and household responsibility; there is the tendency towards individualization of land tenure and private ownership of land (private proprietorship of land), weak control and regulation of the behavior of members.

### **The Rural Community: Myth and Reality**

The idea of rural community is very misleading because there are value judgments included. For example, it is assumed that the rural community is homogenous and egalitarian, stable and harmonious, self-sufficient and self-contained entity. Today, it is argued that the characterization of the rural community in terms of these features is based on a romantic view of the rural as an embodiment of the “good life”. The origin of this problem is that in order to highlight the artificial, impersonal, individualistic and disorganized nature of urban industrial society, sociologists developed and exaggerated, one-sided and idealized view of the rural community.

The elaborate this point we take the generalization that the rural community is homogenous and egalitarian. This generalization involves two aspects. First, socioeconomic differences between households are small and that people are uniformly poor. Second, there are local customers and

traditions, which generate and maintain a homogenous and egalitarian population in rural community. To what extent are rural communities homogeneous and egalitarian? Poly Hill argues that socio-economic inequality and differentiation is innate/ inherent in almost all- rural community in developing countries. This feature is not something that is accidental or imposed.

One of the few important socio-economic generalizations, which may safely be made about rural community, is that a significant degree of socio-economic inequality exists within any rural community in which cash circulates. Poly Hill explores two factors why socio-economic inequality is inherent in rural area.

1. Commutative advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, for reasons of chances alone, not all households may be affected equality rather some households are more vulnerable to shocks and misfortunes. This has the implication that even if all households have equal resources some household is found to perform better than others.
2. Commutative advantages and disadvantages- here she argues that rural household and community are part of a broader socio-economic system and they are not isolated. For example, they participate in cash based market economy. This has an important implication for socio-economic differentiation working through cumulative advantages and disadvantages. In this case, better off household tend to have the ability to store grain for a seasonal price rise. In contrast, poor household are more likely to sell their grain immediately after harvest when prices are low. Additionally, better off household are in a better position to raise resources for a more efficient and market oriented productions,. They also engage in profitable off-farm income generating activities (trade, transportation). Here basic point is that the ideas of homogeneity and equality of rural community obscures conditions, which is important to the rural people. However, this does not mean that there is no egalitarian philosophy in rural community.

### **The Changing Rural Community**

As mentioned above traditionally rural communities may be characterized by isolation, subsistence, farming and soon. However, today's rural communities have not practicing their life in a similar way to communities 50 years ago. The changes are happening due to different reasons:



**Reduced Isolation:** Two generations ago the isolation of rural life could be measured by the contrast between the styles. Today the styles are similar. The automobile and good roads have brought a transformation of rural and village life which is difficult for the present generations of students to appreciate. Thousands of small villages are no longer self-contained communities, as good roads have carried their trade, their store-keepers, their professionals, and their recreation to a nearby city. Transportation plus the press, radio, and television have now ending the social isolation of rural areas.

**Commercialization and Rationalization of Agriculture:** Without a revolution in agricultural productivity, there could have been little urban growth. Farming used to be a way of life which called for no special knowledge beyond that which farm youth absorbed unavoidable as they grew up. Today farming is a highly complex operation demanding substantial capital and specialized knowledge. The most successful farmers today not only use the latest farm technology but also study market trends and trade in commodities future actively.

**Urbanization of Rural life:** Although there are still some differences between the modal personalities, life-styles, and value systems of rural and urban dwellers, all the historic rural-urban differences are shrinking. Every rural activity from agriculture to mate selection has been urbanized in that the values and norms governing the activity do not differ significantly between rural and urban people. This process is wide spread but uneven. Rural areas closer to large cities, and those where agriculture is mostly rationalized and commercialized show the highest degree of urbanization: more isolated areas and areas where farm practices are more traditional show fewer urban influences.

### **3.4 Rural Local Organizations**

Organizations are group or association, formal or informal, in which there are defined and accepted roles, positions and responsibilities structured in some relationship to each other in order to achieve specific objectives. Local organizations are different from other organizations in type, in function as well as in purpose. Local organizations sometimes are called bona fide or genuine organizations. A “local organization” can be defined as any autonomous body of persons established or purposes directed wholly or mainly for the benefit of the district in which it is set up. Rural people often form groups to achieve individual interests. These collective activities are carried out through formal and informal organizations and groups. Some organizations carry out

purely economic activities while others carry out non-economic activities. Some organizations have flexible membership. Other groups may have limited or even exclusive membership.

There are many types of organizations existing in the rural communities/villages. The local organizations can be grouped into two: local organizations which are *established and authorized by the government or some outside agents for their own purpose*, and the others are *formed voluntarily by the community/villagers themselves*. There are many variations between these categories in structure, rules, purpose, and membership.

Local organizations which are authorized and supported government are more or less formal and legally recognized organizations. These are organization with missions given from the regional or central governments. These are Peasant Associations (PA), Credit Institutions, farmers groups, youth societies and some political groups. The PAs are responsible to the communities administration, Tax collection, Conflict resolution and soon. PAs are officially established administrative unit in the rural community which is run by the villagers. The PAs are also a representation of the central as well as the regional governments. They are government functionaries. The Finance and Credit institutions are also in the rural areas to support financially the farming community's activity. More importantly is the cooperative societies. A cooperative is an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise. Cooperatives are people-centre business enterprises which operate in all areas of economic activity and in almost all countries of the world. Cooperatives can be large enterprises with millions of members or small community enterprises. However, common to all are the **cooperative values** of *self-help, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, equity and solidarity*. Cooperatives also believe in *social responsibility* and include as one of their principles the concern for the community in which they operate.

The other types of local organizations are that are initiated and set up by local people themselves out of emerging social and economic problems or needs. Or sometimes they are called informal voluntary organizations. These institutions are of different kinds with distinct purposes, functions, membership structures and management. Some are: religious, economic, political and labor associations.

**Religious associations:** *Mahber* and *Senbete* are religious associations founded by a group of people who belong to the same church. *Mahber* is associated with the names of particular saints. The saint's day is celebrated every month with a feast. Each member is responsible for the feast in his or her turn. Guests who are not members are invited from the neighborhood. People from neighbouring PAs (Peasant association) can belong to the *Mahber*. The other type is known as *Senbete* and is prepared by each member in turn in the compound of the church. There are no religious associations among Muslims similar to the Christian *Mahber*.

*Idir* is a sort of religious burial association which is established in order to share the burdens of individual households when close relatives die. Members contribute regularly in order to cover the expenses of funeral ceremonies, and the food and drinks needed. *Idir* are also used to collect money for members during moments of heavy loss, like the death of cattle or the loss of a house due to fire. *Idir* (for both Christians and Muslims) is a prominent association in Northern Ethiopia, as is the case in most parts of Ethiopia. Usually each parish has one *Idir*. Sometimes *Idirs* may involve followers of both Christian and Muslim religions. In addition to contribution of money monthly, members also contribute labor and food at the time of the death of a member or a close relative of a member. In case of failure to fulfill one's obligations there is a fine. People who are not members of *Idir* also help each other in times of crisis. Actually *Idirs* are more common in the urban areas because other social ties are very weak in the urban areas. In the rural people, *Idir* is there but it is not as strong as the urban areas. It's usually supported by some other social ties.

**Economic Associations:** *Equb* is a major economic institution that primarily serves to save cash. It is a formalized association with a secretary and a judge and usually a board of three persons. Each member has to find a guarantor of the *equb* member to ensure that the member does not fail in his duties after he or she has received a lot. Sometimes people join *equb* to buy something that they could not afford from their own pocket. These include clothing, food, household equipment, livestock, to pay tax, etc. Today, this *equb* is being replaced by more formal one that is called saving and credit cooperatives; this is strong and formal because it is supported by the government sectors.

**Political Associations:** The *Council of elders* is an institution where people appeal when they are involved in conflict with their neighbors. Certain individuals respected for their experience

and wisdom play a significant role in conflict resolution. The moral authority they assume helps them solve a number of problems. In this respect a council of elders has much more acceptance than a local justice department sponsored by the Peasant Association. The role of *spirit possession cults* in conflict resolution is not something to be underestimated in this regard. Spirit possession is closely intertwined with the elements of the wider cultural fabric of the study.

**Labour agreements:** No man works alone. All activities are done in *Gisso* (works the same way as *Debo*). *Gisso* is one of the work arrangements temporarily arranged to share the agricultural work in the field. The activities include ploughing, manure spreading, threshing. Members of the *Debo* are required to work on the other members plot when requested. Food and drinks are offered on the day of the *Debo* so that the participants could work the whole day. The most important factor for the participation in *Debo* is neighborhood. Partnership is also based on kinship relationships. *Wonfel* is anything from just lending a hand to a neighbor for a short time. It does not involve food and drinks. Another type of labor organization is *Wefri* which is practiced mostly in the Tigray region. This is also similar to others mentioned in the exchange of labors. This happens in a way that when a farmer is in shortage of labor power, he invite neighbors to work in his fields. In return, he also works some other day and spends equivalent time in each of the people who engaged in his field.

### **Stages of rural household formation**

In order to identify how they are related we can take a simplified assumption that the rural household passes through four stages in its full life cycle and its economic reproduction. Therefore, in some rural social analysis this relationship occupies a very important position. It is central and controversial in the analysis of rural household economy and rural society.

- 1. Formation of the household-** both the consumption needs as well as the resources of the household are limited. The division of labor and decision making power is simplified.
- 2. The birth of children-** it implies that the consumption needs of the family increases and the household is under pressure to increase labor and its resources including the amount of land cultivated. This is a somewhat unfavorable stage in terms of the labor, worker and consumer ratio. There are more mouths than labor to produce.
- 3. Labor increase.** Here following the growing up of children and making of labor contribution to the various activities of the household, the labor constraints are significantly reduced.

4. **The maturity of children-** the maturity and eventual marriage of children and partition of property (land) to the new household, leads to the dissolutions of the original parental household and formations of new household.

Comment [H4]: test

### 3.5. Neighborhood

Neighborhood is a smaller unit than the community .a community often is composed of several neighborhoods .**Carl Taylor** has described the community as **“the first social group in modern life that approaches self-sufficiency”**.

An important distinction b\ n it and neighborhood is that the latter is not self sufficient as the former. Neighborhoods have been described as **“limited geographic areas in which the individuals and families are known to each other and carry on intimate associations together.”**

A neighborhood may hence be characterized by

- a. A locality group of people
- b. Limited geographical area
- c. Frequent face-to –face contacts
- d. Frequent participation in common activities
- e. Presence of some service or supply agency, organization or institution.

Neighborhoods are hence more sociable entities based on personal relationships than are communities which are based on social and economic requirements of residents and the satisfaction of them. Neighborhoods usually have homogeneity. There exists a physical closeness of dwelling places and greater inter-personal contacts among those living in the same neighborhood. Thus, the neighborhood is important because of the effects of inter-personal relationships and social interaction on decision making process both in families and the community.

### 3.6. Land Tenure as a Social Institution

**What is Land Tenure?**

Land tenure is the *relationship, whether legally or customarily defined*, among people, as individuals or groups, with respect to land. (For convenience, “land” is used here to include other natural resources such as water and trees.) Land tenure is an *institution, i.e., rules invented by societies to regulate behavior*. Rules of tenure define how property rights to land are to be allocated within societies. They define how access is granted to rights to use, control, and transfer land, as well as associated responsibilities and restraints. In simple terms, land tenure systems determine who can use what resources for how long, and under what conditions.

Land tenure is an important part of social, political and economic structures. It is multi-dimensional, bringing into play, social, technical, economic, institutional, legal and political aspects that are often ignored but must be taken into account. Land tenure relationships may be well-defined and enforceable in a formal court of law or through customary structures in a community.

### 3.6.1. Types of land tenure

Land tenure is often categorized as:

- **Private:** the assignment of rights to a private party who may be an individual, a married couple, a group of people, or a corporate body such as a commercial entity or non-profit organization. For example, within a community, individual families may have exclusive rights to **residential parcels, agricultural parcels and certain trees**. Other members of the community can be excluded from using these resources without the consent of those who hold the rights.
- **Communal:** a right of commons may exist within a community where each member has a right to use independently the **holdings of the community**. For example, members of a community may have the right to **graze cattle** on a common pasture.
- **Open access:** specific rights are not assigned to anyone and no-one can be excluded. This typically includes **marine tenure** where access to the high seas is generally open to anyone; it may include **rangelands, forests**, etc, where there may be free access to the resources for all. (An important difference between open access and communal systems is that, under a

Comment [H5]: test

**communal system, non-members of the community are excluded from using the common areas.)**

- **State:** property rights are assigned to **some authority in the public sector**. For example, in some countries, **forest lands** may fall under the mandate of the state, whether at a central or decentralized level of government.

In practice, most forms of holdings may be found within a given society, for example, common grazing rights, private residential and agricultural holdings, and state ownership of forests. Customary tenure typically includes communal rights to pastures and exclusive private rights to agricultural and residential parcels. In some countries, formally recognized rights to such customary lands are vested in the nation state or the President “in trust” for the citizens.

The right that a person has in an object such as land may be considered as property. The range of property is extensive and includes, for example, intellectual property. In the case of land tenure, it is sometimes described more precisely as property rights to land. A distinction is often made between “real property” or “immovable property” on the one hand, and “personal property” or “movable property” on the other hand. In the first case, property would include land and fixtures (buildings, trees, etc) that would be regarded as immovable. In the second case, property would include objects not considered fixed to the land, such as cattle, etc.

*However, most discussions about land tenure systems are polarized into two, especially in Ethiopia:*

- **Communal**
- **Private, but issues dealing with land tenure system are much more than that and in a given society it is possible to find diversity**

The FDRE constitution states that government has the duty to hold land and other natural resources and to deploy for the common benefit of the Ethiopian people. The rationale for public ownership of land are:

- Population pressure
- Need to protect small peasant family farm
- Need to prevent conflict among different group

Comment [H6]: test

In practice, multiple rights can be held by several different persons or groups. This has given rise to the concept of “a bundle of rights”. Different rights to the same parcel of land, such as the right to sell the land, the right to use the land through a lease, or the right to travel across the land, may be pictured as “sticks in the bundle”. Each right may be held by a different party. The bundle of rights, for example, may be shared between the owner and a tenant to create a leasing or sharecropping arrangement allowing the tenant or share cropper the right to use the land on specified terms and conditions. Tenancies may range from formal leaseholds of 999 years to informal seasonal agreements. If the farm is mortgaged, the creditor may hold a right from the “bundle” to recover the unpaid loan through a sale of the mortgaged property in the case of default. A neighboring farmer may have the right from the “bundle” to drive cattle across the land to obtain water at the river.

At times it may be useful to simplify the representation of property rights by identifying:

- ✓ **Use rights:** rights to use the land for grazing, growing subsistence crops, gathering minor forestry products, etc.
- ✓ **Control rights:** rights to make decisions how the land should be used including deciding what crops should be planted, and to benefit financially from the sale of crops, etc.
- ✓ **Transfer rights:** right to sell or mortgage the land, to convey the land to others through intra-community reallocations, to transmit the land to heirs through inheritance, and to reallocate use and control rights.

Very often, the poor in a community have only use rights. A woman, for example, may have the right to use some land to grow crops to feed the family, while her husband may collect the profits from selling any crops at the market. While such simplifications can be useful, it should be noted that the exact manner in which rights to land are actually distributed and enjoyed can be very complex.

In broad terms, land tenure rights are often classified according to whether they are “formal” or “informal”. There can be perceptual problems with this approach because, for example, some so-called informal rights may, in practice, be quite formal and secure in their own context. Despite these perceptual problems, the classification of formal and informal tenure can sometimes



provide the basis for useful analysis. Formal property rights may be regarded as those that are explicitly acknowledged by the state and which may be protected using legal means.

Informal property rights are those that lack official recognition and protection. In some cases, informal property rights are illegal, i.e., held in direct violation of the law. An extreme case is when squatters occupy a site in contravention of an eviction notice. In many countries, illegal property holdings arise because of inappropriate laws. For example, the minimum size of a farm may be defined by law whereas in practice farms may be much smaller as a result of informal subdivisions among heirs. Property rights may also be illegal because of their use, e.g., the illegal conversion of agricultural land for urban purposes.

### 3.6.2. Access to Land

Access to land for the rural poor is **often based on custom. Customary rights to land in indigenous societies**, for example, are usually created following their traditions and through the ways in which community leaders assign land use rights to the community members. These rights of access may have their origin in the use of the land over a long period. They are often rights developed by ancestral occupation and by the use of land by ancestral societies. In such cases, it is through the act of original clearance of the land and settlement by ancestors that rights are claimed. **People also use a wide range of strategies to gain access to land. These include:**

- ✓ **Purchase**, often using capital accumulated while working as migrants in urban areas.
- ✓ **Leasing**, obtaining access to land by paying rent to the owner.
- ✓ **Sharecropping**, obtaining access to land in return *for paying the owner a percentage of the production*.
- ✓ **Inheritance** or gaining access to land as an heir.
- ✓ **Squatting illegally** on land. E.g. Rural investment land in Ethiopia occupied by deforestations.

In addition to such individual strategies, access to land can be provided systematically through land reform interventions by national governments, often as a result of policies to correct historic injustices and to distribute land more equitably. Such land reforms usually

Comment [H7]: test

occur in situations where much of the land **is owned by a relatively small number of land owners and the land is idle or under-utilized** (although it should be noted that determining whether land is under-utilized depends on the criteria selected for the assessment). *In some countries, land restitution has been an important type of land reform.* Other land reform interventions include land redistribution programmes which aim at providing the rural poor with access to land and promoting efficiency and investment in agriculture. These programmes are often, but not always, accompanied by provision of subsidized agricultural services such as extension and credit. In some cases, the state has provided access to idle or under-utilized public land but most often private land holdings have been the source of land for resettlement purposes.

In **imposed redistributive land reforms**, *land is taken from large land holders by the State and transferred to landless and land-poor farmers. Compensation has been paid to the original owners in some reforms but not in others.* In some cases, the reforms have benefitted the tenants who worked the land. Such reforms change the structure of land ownership by transforming tenants into owners but do not change the operational holdings. In other cases, the reforms have involved the resettlement of beneficiaries on the expropriated lands and the creation of new farming operations. Some recent land reform initiatives have been designed so that beneficiaries negotiate with land owners to purchase land using funds provided by the State in the form of grants and/or loans. Beneficiaries are usually required to form a group which identifies suitable land, negotiates the purchase from the seller, formulates a project eligible for state grants and/credit, and determines how the land will be allocated among the members of the group and what their corresponding payment obligations will be.

While there is broad consensus that land reform plays an important role in **rural development where land concentration is high, great controversy surrounds the choice** of mechanisms to transfer land from large land owners to the landless and land poor. However, this debate is well beyond the scope of this guide to address.

### 3.6.3. Tenure security

Security of tenure is the certainty that a **person's rights to land will be recognized by**

*others and protected in cases of specific challenges.* People with insecure tenure face the risk that their rights to land will be threatened by *competing claims*, and even lost as a result of eviction. Without security of tenure, households are significantly impaired in their ability to secure sufficient food and to enjoy sustainable rural livelihoods. Security of tenure cannot be measured directly and, to a large extent, it is what people perceive it to be. The attributes of security of tenure may change from context to context. For example, a person may have a right to use a parcel of land for a 6month growing season, and if that person is safe from eviction during the season, the tenure is secure. By extension, tenure security can relate to the length of tenure, in the context of the time needed to recover the cost of investment. *Thus the person with use rights for 6 months will not plant trees, or invest in irrigation works or take measures to prevent soil erosion as the time is too short for that person to benefit from the investment.* **The tenure is insecure for long-term investments even if it is secure for short-term ones.**

The importance of long-term security has led some to argue that full security can arise only when there is full private ownership (e.g., freehold) as, under such tenure, the time for which the rights can be held is not limited to a fixed period. It is argued that only an owner enjoy secure rights, and holders of lesser rights, such as tenants, have insecure tenure because they are dependent on the will of the owner. It is then implied that security of tenure comes only with holding transfer rights such as the rights to sell and mortgage. Equating security with transfer rights to sell and mortgage is true for some parts of the world but it is not true in many others. People in parts of the world where there are strong community-based tenure regimes may enjoy tenure security without wishing to sell their land, or without having the right to do so, or having strictly limited rights to transfer (e.g., transfers maybe limited to heirs through inheritance, or sales may be restricted to members of the community).

The sources of security may also vary from context to context:

- ✓ An important source is the **community and its specific groups such as local farmers' organizations and water users' associations.** When neighbors recognize and enforce a person's rights, that person's security increases. In many customary tenure arrangements, people gain property rights through membership

of social communities. Maintaining property rights validates membership in the group just as much as membership facilitates the acquisition and safeguarding of property rights.

- ✓ **Governments represent another source of security as they may provide political recognition of some rights.** *For example, a government may accept the illegal encroachment and settlement of a community on state forest lands and undertake not to evict it.* However, in doing so, a government usually recognizes the right of the community to occupy the land, but does not go as far as recognizing the rights of individual people within the community.
- ✓ **Another source may be the administrative state and the formal legal system.** The state may provide security in general by affirming the rights that people hold as well as through specific measures such as providing protection against trespass. Security is often seen to come from protections provided through land registration and cadastral systems, with adjudication of disputes taking place in the formal court system.
- ✓ **In some countries, security can also be provided by coercive structures** such as “warlords” that emerge in the absence of an effective state during periods of civil unrest. Of course, this is not a desirable source of security as these structures may in turn prevent the development of strong communities and legal systems necessary for good governance.

A person’s security of tenure may be threatened in many ways. Ironically, attempts to increase the legal security of some may result in others losing their rights. For example, titling and registration projects, if poorly designed, can reduce security of many rural residents by failing to recognize certain rights, often held by women and the poor, and allowing them to be merged into simplistically conceived “ownership” rights. The rights to important uses of the land, for example, to gather minor forest products or to obtain water, may not be recognized by the legal system and may be effectively destroyed as a result. Of course, other types of development projects can also result in the **loss of rights to land**.

Rights may also be reduced or eliminated if the state starts to enforce existing rules that prevent access to resources. For example, more rigid enforcement of state policy

on forest conservation may result in villagers being evicted from land which they have been using for agricultural and grazing purposes.

Tenure insecurity may be caused by social changes. HIV/AIDS, for example, is impacting the security of women in parts of Africa. Widows may lose access to land in a legal sense if they are unable to inherit rights from their husbands and in a practical sense if they are forced off the farms by male relatives. People may lose rights when others ignore land tenure rules. *Exploitation of unequal power relationships within communities, for example, may result in some members fencing off portions of communal lands for their own exclusive use, thereby denying access by other members of the community to shared grazing lands.*

**Landlessness may occur**, of course, for reasons other than insecure tenure. Some may sell their land through “**distress sales**” (forced sales) in order to survive in times of crises such as famine, sickness or other calamities. Other reasons for selling land may include the need to meet **social pressures such as providing a dowry for daughters upon their marriage.**

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RURAL LIVELIHOOD: BEYOND SUBSISTENCE FARMING

Is rural = agriculture? Or is there any difference between the notion of rural and agriculture?

The answer is the notion of rural is not the same with agriculture because not all rural areas depend on agriculture or other rural areas engaged on nonagricultural activities and there is diversification but traditionally there is a tendency to refer agriculture and rural as related thing. Agriculture is a means of living in rural areas because of this they are related but they are not one and the same. However, in order to understand rural areas we have to see agriculture, because there is logical connection between the two. But generally the notion of rural is not equivalent with agriculture because of:

- A. In rural areas there are communities who engaged on non-farming activities
- B. Nowadays households use the issue of diversification of livelihood.

**Diversification:** is a process whereby rural farming households engaged on more than one income generating farming or non-farming activities. Or diversification is the ability to pursue

Comment [H8]: test

more than one livelihood strategy simultaneously. Perhaps this diversification is highly depending on the human capital and knowledge of the household, on the material asset of the household and the kinship network (social relationship) of the household. The above 3 factors determined the issue of diversification in rural areas.

Diversification is not a new-phenomenon among rural households i.e. since ancient times rural households have had a tendency to diversifying their means of survival (livelihood). But in recent time because of the increase of rural population and rural households, there is high tendency of following the issue of diversification. But the scope and degree of diversification is varies from society to society (country to country) i.e. because of difference in access to resources, capital etc. we have different diversification from region to region, from community to community and from household to household.

**Regarding this diversification rural population besides farming engaged in different types of non-farming activities such as:**

- A. Rural non-farming enterprise e.g. Oil processing, flour milling
- B. Rural petty commodity production e.g. Production of cash crops
- C. Informal business (economies) e.g. Petty trade
- D. Rural industrialization e.g. Cottage industry (weaving), handicrafts etc.

Diversification can be both a *survival and accumulation strategy*. By survival we mean that it is a strategy by which rural households used as subsistence or modes of existence (as a survival mechanism). But by accumulation we mean that, rural population used it as a strategy to accumulate resources (not as a survival mechanism).

In most cases poorer rural households use diversification as a survival strategy. I.e. most poorer rural households forced to engage on non-farming activities because their farming activity is not enough for survival it is subsistence farming.

But for better rural household diversification is not a question of survival, it is accumulation strategy used to accumulate or increase their household assets (capital).As a general rural households follow 3 major things for making livelihood; these are:

- A. Agriculture intensification
- B. Other livelihood interests (diversification)
- C. Migration

But from the 3 farming is the most dominant form of livelihood strategy in developing countries and the most dominant type of farming in developing countries is *peasant farming*. Due to government and NGO's efforts peasant farming shows fundamental changes.

### 1. Peasant production and peasant farming

In order to understand peasant production and peasant farming first we have to understand to concept peasant, perhaps this concept is outdated and now replaced by the concept farmer.

**Peasants** they are farm households with the access to their means of livelihood in land and utilizing mainly family or households labour. In farm production always located in a larger economic system but fundamentally characterized by partial integration in fragmented market.

**The most defining characteristics of peasants are:**

- Their livelihood depends on land
- They utilize family labor
- They use farming as subsistence (for survival) i.e. they are partially (imperfectly) integrated
- They operate within the economic system of a given country (with in larger economic system) i.e. they are dependent on the government economic system.
- Peasants are rural people their production is for subsistence or for survival.

**Farmers** are rural people their production is for market. If up to 50% or more production consume at home it is a subsistence economy. So usually peasants' production is subsistence economy. However farmers production is market oriented i.e. farmers are highly guided by market principles like price, demand and supply.

Peasant production is labor intensive as oppose to capital intensive i.e. capitalist production. Sociologist and other social scientists are interested on peasant production. Sociologist want to study the structure and household arrangements of peasant society i.e. they study how social factors affect peasant production. But other social science disciplines study peasant production, to know how economic factors affect peasant production.

**Characteristics of peasant production**

1. *The dominant economic activity of peasants is farming:* i.e. farming primarily refers to cultivation but it also includes other activities like dairy farming, bee farming, and floury culture (flour farming) etc. i.e. when diversification increases its specialization also increases.
2. *Access to land and level of differentiation:* i.e. in a majority cases peasants in rural area all of them have access to land because for agriculture land is mandatory. So this access to land

differentiate peasants from non-peasants like teachers, other civil servants etc. and peasants differentiate among each other through ownership of land, so land is the basic criteria to form different social classes within peasants. I.e. in peasants social stratification formed on the basis of land ownership. So based on the amount of land they occupy there are 3 peasant classes, these are:

- A. *Poor peasants*
- B. Middle peasants and
- C. Rich peasants

Here land is the single criteria to classify the above classes.

- A. ***Poor peasants:*** are those who do not own or they own very small plot of land, b/c of this they have limited production capacity and in most cases their production is not satisfy the needs of the household, consequently they forced to engage in non-farming activities (adapt diversification).
  - B. ***Middle peasants:*** they are peasants who have large enough plots of their own to assure their family maintenance (subsistence). Here their plot of land is not enough for extra labor, it is enough only for family members; so they are only self-sufficient.
  - C. ***Rich peasants:*** these are rural households whose farming is very large i.e. it is beyond the labor power of the family members i.e. they need extra labor force to cultivate their plot of land. So they have higher outside labor force. But they are small minority, they constitute only (5-7%) of rural population.
3. *Family labor:* it is widely agreed that reliance (dependency) on household labor is a basic defining economic characteristics of peasant production i.e. in their production process peasant production is highly depend on family labor, except only 5% rich peasants. So this is the unique characteristics of peasant production.
4. *Capital and ambiguity of profit:* one of the argument against peasant production is peasants are not motivated by the drive to make profit, b/c their derive or motive is to satisfy the consumption need of their member (it is their primary focus). But there is a problem to attach profit category into peasant production b/c most peasant production is done by using family labor. So it creates ambiguity to attach the profit margin with peasant production b/c their production activity is consumption oriented, and they use family labor.



5. *Consumption oriented*: their production activity is consumption oriented (it is subsistence economy) only aimed to satisfy the needs of members. So this high interest in consumption contributes for less market interest of peasants.

But now because of different factors peasants become farmers i.e. they become market oriented. In the 19<sup>th</sup>c a number of writers argued that peasants have politically conservative role i.e. peasants have very little interest on politics (on changes) or they are inhibitors of change.

But in 20<sup>th</sup>c peasants began to play high political and economic roles. Eg. Peasant rebellion in USSR, in Ethiopia Gojjam, Bale etc. consequently the current peasants are interested on politics, because of the following factors:

1. *Population pressure*: i.e. because of population growth (pressure) peasants become mobile and they are aware of other societies' activities, consequently they become politically active.
2. *The development of capitalist farming in a country side*: i.e. this situation create high social interaction between peasants and educated individuals who engaged a capitalist farming, so this interaction increase their awareness and they become active politically.
3. *The government policy*: i.e. now developing countries governments have suitable policies and agendas for peasants and they encourage peasants, because of this now they become active at various levels of political spectrum.

So because of these conditions the 19<sup>th</sup> c conservation idea about peasants is collapsed.

## 2. Family farming

It is the 2<sup>nd</sup> type of farming next to peasant farming. As livelihood strategy it is located in developed countries, family farming is undertaken agricultural enterprise owned and operated by family units in developed nations and it combines family labor and management and it is operate in capitalist environment where corporate business is dominant feature, so it has to be competitive and profit oriented otherwise it will not survived.

- Peasant farming = developing nations
- Family farming = developed nations

Similarities between peasant farming and family farming

1. Both rely on family labor
2. Both operate within a given institutional setting, although the institutions are varied from country to country.

3. Both have choices with regard to resource allocations. But family farming has a wider choice, than peasant farming. Both have choices to make decision regarding resources.
4. Both face vagaries of nature like drought, and they also face the problem of *vacillation of price*. But this vacillation of price is mostly common in peasant farming. B/c of lack of information.

### Peasant farming

1. Capital market is fragmentary (non-existence) and credit is obtained from local land lords (merchants) who usually charged high interest rate.
2. Production inputs such as fertilizers and seeds may be erotically available (entirely un-available) when they are available it requires formal or informal rational.
3. Information on prices of inputs and outputs is very poor and incomplete as markets are either lacking or not-integrated well.
4. The free hold market for the landless does not always exist and when it does; non-market right of access e.g. inheritance right is likely to be predominant. (Rigid system)
5. Input use is determined by blanket recommendations without adequate analysis of the nutrient requirement of the soil.
6. It is consumption oriented.

### Family farming

1. Capital market is highly developed and credit is available from developed financial institutions such as banks at competitive interest rate.
2. Various production inputs are available at high quantity and quantity.
3. Market information is available usually on a nationwide basis reflecting high degree of integration of market
4. There is a free hold market in land, so that; the potential new entries can start new business and unsuccessful farmers may exist (change) to peasants.
5. Fertilizers application rates are based on detail analysis of soil types to determine types and quantities of inputs squired for a particular soil.
6. It is profit oriented

Comment [H9]: test

### **Differences between the two**

**Generally they differ in degree of market integration and in types of technology they use.**

### **3. Corporate farming /mechanized or industrial agriculture**

Sometimes called as capitalist farming, here we have division of labor or specialization i.e. labor, land, capital, and management are belongs to different groups these are workers, land owners, capital owners, and professional managers.

Sometimes land and capital owner become the same. Basically corporate agriculture is not different from capitalist industries. The basic different is capitalist agriculture requires a large expensive of land whereas industries usually confined to very limited land, consequently capitalist agriculture sometimes called as *open factory* (the factory in the open field).

The inputs that corporate agriculture uses are different from the inputs that urban industries use. Eg. Corporate agriculture uses anti-pests, fertilizers and seeds which is not the case in urban industries.

- Developing countries also have *plantation agriculture*. It is one type of agriculture which is similar to corporate agriculture. But it is under state (government) control and another difference is corporate agriculture uses highly sophisticated technologies and machines, but plantation agriculture still uses animate power and less complex technologies and machines.

#### **Major characteristic of corporate agriculture**

1. It is highly mechanized which implies that the intimate uses of inanimate (non-human) power or machines.
2. It is capital intensive
3. It is highly competitive not only national but also internationally. They become competitive because the farmers in developed countries are highly supported by the government various *price support mechanisms* or they are *subsidized* by their government because of this, they become competent both nationally and internationally. In contrary b/c of lack of support from the government of developing nations towards their peasants (farmers), developing countries farmers are not competitive both nationally and internationally.
4. It applies the latest technology now days there is a type of farming called *precision farming* (developing nation), here farmers are in position to exactly determine the requirement of seeds, fertilizers, pest sides, and water on each piece of land. This knowledge is so detail, it is possible to determine input requirements for every meter or centimeter of soil (i.e. by measuring every size of plot they can determine how much pest, seeds, fertilizes would be required.

Its advantage is it encourages efficient use of inputs and they can also determine the amount of yield they will acquire. So here there is great efficiency in use of inputs.

Other feature of corporate agriculture is, it is production oriented and there is a tendency to be homogenous in terms of production of groups.

### **Crisis of rural livelihood: poverty, Drought and famine**

**Poverty:** it is a form of deprivation from access to resources which are vital for survival (life)

#### **Categorization of poverty:**

Poverty can be *physical poverty* which comes due to malnutrition. *Poverty of infrastructure* refers to lack of infrastructure. So there are different ways through which we can identify different types of poverty.

***Social (cultural poverty)*** i.e. deprivation of values, norms, anomie (a state of normlessness) so here we see poverty at a social level.

***Psychological poverty*** i.e. deprivation of hope, feeling of dissatisfaction or worthlessness etc. so here we see poverty at micro (individual level).

**Drought:** it is the worse environmental condition (weather) characterized by high temperature and high shortage of rain (water) for a long period of time. So one of the major factor that Aggravate rural poverty is drought. If drought becomes severe it evolves into hunger which eventually evolves to famine.

Comment [H10]: test

**Hunger:** it is related with drought and famine. Hunger is not acute starvation, but it is nutritional deficiency or malnutrition. So by hunger we mean that less quality of food (lack of better nutritional food). Hunger is common both in rural and urban areas, when hunger extended relatively for a longer period of time it becomes famine.

**Famine:** it is acute (sever) starvation which usually associated with high death rate and it usually happens in rural areas (it confined to rural areas).

Comment [H11]: test

#### **Approaches regarding analysis of famine**

There are two major approaches regarding analysis of famine these are:

1. Food availability decline approach and
2. Entitlement approach

#### **1. Food availability decline approach**

This approach explains the **imbalance between population growth & food production**, as Thomas Malthus explained that population grows geometrically & food production goes arithmetically. I.e. because of different socio-environmental factors; food production decline, while population tremendously grows. So this condition creates famine in developing nation.

2. **The entitlement approach:** it tries to explain famine in terms of decline in the ability of the population to access food & that decline due to the fact that a particular region or community may not be accessible to resources or food.

Or they just lack the ability of purchasing. i.e. Based on this approach famine occur nor because of the scarcity of food, but because of lack of access to food or lack of purchasing capacity to buy food while food is available. So this approach considers the purchasing power (Access) of the households to food instead of the availability (scarcity) of food.

In order to cope up with the problem of famine peasants use different coping strategies, but in order to cope up with the problem of famine peasants use different coping strategies, but mainly rural households use *4 common coping strategies* to tackle down the problem of famine; these are:

1. **They try to augment their current fragile** (they try to collect small amount of income by selling of less productive assets e.g. small stock, ornaments, small house materials etc. i.e. they sale & try to gain small income to gain food, if the 1<sup>st</sup> strategy fail they move to the next strategy.
2. **They choose to starve:** they try to eat only once per day in order to face the problem, but when it becomes beyond; they pass to the next strategy.
3. **Selling of more productive assets:** like selling of oxen, & land or their plot of land. So when they adapt this strategy their subsistence system or livelihood strategies face many problems & become discarded, b/c these large assets are very important assets for rural livelihood. I.e. during the first strategy or by selling small assets they protected their subsistence system. But now it destroyed because they sale assets which are the base for their livelihood system.
4. **Migration:** the last coping mechanism is migration; here they prefer to migrate to other areas especially to urban areas.

The above coping strategies are not random they are sequentially occur. Now days because of problems like global warming, environmental depletion and others rural household are vulnerable to rural poverty, drought and famine, especially in developing countries.

## Part Two: Rural Development

Comment [H12]: test

## Chapter Five: Understanding Rural Development

### 5.1. The Meaning of Rural Development

Rural development is “Transformation of the rural community into socially, economically, politically, educationally, orderly and materially desirable conditions, with the aim of improving the quality of life of the rural population.” The workshop on Rural Development in Africa and the workshop group on integrated approach to Rural Development (1996) defined Rural Development in terms of **uniform distribution of national resources**. It conceived of Rural Development as a **comprehensive** way of social transformation which recognizes that national development must involve all parts of the population. Furthermore, it was defined as a socioeconomic process which seeks to bring about a more **equitable distribution of resources and incomes within a society**.

This definition of rural development, however, has to be further qualified. In the 1960's and early 1970's the consensus was that intense industrialization was the main characteristic of the perceived development path. Later, during the 70's, mostly based on equity considerations, the focus and definition of rural development turned to the provision of social services to the rural poor. Since the 1970's rural development as a concept has been highly associated with the promotion of standards of living and as a precondition for reducing rural poverty. **Rural Development** refers to a complex phenomenon that can be explained in terms of:

- I. **Economic growth, which** implies a quantitative concept that might be measurable in terms of increasing national income or per capita income. Economic growth is necessary but not sufficient condition for development, it is narrow assumption.
- II. **Wellbeing** that can be understood in qualitative concept, since it indicates **population a higher standard of living**. It is a complex notion difficult to quantify as it encompasses a varied number of factors such as the **level of satisfaction of the needs of the population in terms of recreation security, and spiritual satisfaction etc.**

Therefore, generally Rural Development is: the outcome of a series of quantitative and qualitative changes occurring among a given rural population; a rise in the standard of living and favourable changes in the way of life of the people. *In general, Rural Development:*

- ✓ There is no universally accepted definition of rural development

- ✓ As a **CONCEPT**, it connotes overall development of rural areas with a view to improve the quality of life rural people.
- ✓ As a **PHENOMENON**, it is the result of various physical, technological, economic, sociocultural and institutional factors.
- ✓ As a **DISCIPLINE**, it is multi-disciplinary in nature representing an intersection of agricultural, social, behavioral and management of sciences.

*In short, rural development is a process that aims at improving the standard of living of the people living in the rural areas.* It is an integrated process, which includes social, economic, political and spiritual development of the poorer sections of the society.

### **5.1.1. What factors affects rural development/components of RD**

- I. **Natural resources:** comprises all natural components like land, animals, minerals, climate, etc.
- II. **Technology:** refers to information that is employed to make use of natural resources and other resources to achieve development purposes.
- III. **Demographic factors:** comprises density of population and trends of population growth.
- IV. **Economic factors:** level production, markets, and connection of the rural economy, overall national economy and world markets.
- V. **Social structures:** of rural society and producers along with values or culture (landlessness or landownership).

### **5.1.2. The objectives of rural development**

- A. **Increasing per capita income:** In rural area there is a wide gap between the incomes of workers. Therefore, there is a need to diversify their sources of income through, Access to credit, Attracting foreign and local investors and Create employment opportunity.
- B. **Reduction of the rural-urban migration/reduction of rural exodus:** The current force which is driving the young rural population towards the towns is not only economic, but



social problem. Unless the economic and social problems facing them are resolved they cannot be induced to stay in their rural environment.

- C. **Promoting the transition from the status of "peasant" to that of "farmer":** The transition from a subsistence economy to that of specialized farming must be paramount. There are three major stages in the evolution of agricultural production. The **first** and most primitive is the pure, "low productivity subsistence farming." The **second** stage might be called "diversified or mixed agriculture" where part of the produce is grown for self-consumption and part for sale to the commercial sector. Finally, the **third** stage represents the "modern farm" which is exclusively engaged in high productivity, specialised agriculture for the market.
- D. **The re-orientation and diversification of rural activities:** The rural sector has been defined as essentially made up of agriculture (including farming, livestock rising, forestry and fishery. The income diversification activities are necessity and should be achieved once the basic conditions are fulfilled to create wider opportunities of employment and raise the income the HH.

Comment [H13]: test

### 5.1.3. Development Values

Values: are desired conditions in a society (e.g. health, fame, long life, high income, etc.). Todaro (1992) classifies development values into three categories: (i) life sustenance; (ii) self –esteem, and (iii) freedom.

- I. **Life sustenance:** It is a basic value that life be sustained through fulfilling the basic needs of human beings. The basic needs include food, shelter, clothing, and health and protection. Economic activities characterized with growth are necessary to attain this value. Economic growth is a necessary but insufficient condition of development. Raising per capita income, elimination of absolute poverty, greater employment opportunities and lessening income inequalities are as well necessary. Without improving the levels of living (life sustenance) the prospect for development is non-existent. The first priority of moving from a chronic state of underdevelopment to one of development must be raising people's level of living in terms of food, shelter, clothing, footwear, education, health, employment and other social services.
- II. **Self-esteem:** Self-esteem is an inherent value of human beings. Self-esteem features in the sense of worth and self-respect. A sense of not to be used by others for their own ends. It is difficult to feel

Comment [H14]: test

Comment [H15]: test

self-esteem without development, which includes better material welfare. From this natural value of human being, development is legitimized as a goal of gaining self-esteem.

- III. **Freedom:** Freedom is a broad value. It encompasses freedom from social servitudes of man to nature, ignorance, other man, misery, institutions and dogmatic and harmful beliefs. Development is expected to endow people with ability of choosing. Development in wealth increases happiness, control over nature and physical environment.

Comment [H16]: test

## 5.2. Sustainable Rural Development

The issue of **sustainable development**<sup>2</sup> since the early 1970s, the extent to which rural and global environments are able to support development has been a growing area of debate. For a long time, it was assumed that the natural environment had the capacity to regenerate more or less indefinitely without specific measures to enable this process. Today, this optimism has largely been replaced by concerns over the effects of overpopulation and pollution on the environment's capacity to withstand and support economic development. Climate change, in particular, is now high on the international agenda with scientists trying to better understand climate change causes and effects and governments coming together to find ways of addressing them – with varied success.

Environmental sustainability and climate are especially important in rural development. Poor people in rural areas rely heavily on natural resources to meet their basic needs, such as food, water, shelter, and energy. Moreover, they often live in areas where natural resources are especially vulnerable to degradation and global warming – eg in arid zones, or mountainous areas at risk from soil erosion. Because poor people are unable to invest in environmentally sustainable technologies, short-term necessity often forces them to degrade the resources upon which their long-term future depends – especially as population pressure on land and resources increases. This makes them even poorer and fuels a vicious cycle of escalating poverty and environmental degradation.

That is not to blame all rural environmental degradation on the poor. The rich also cause environmental damage – especially via global warming. Nevertheless, there is evidence to suggest that poverty can exacerbate certain types of environmental damage (for example, soil

erosion and the loss of soil fertility), and that reducing poverty can help solve some of these problems, as well as helping the poor to cope with climatic changes that are beyond their control. Environmental sustainability is now a central concern in rural development and the search for technological and institutional solutions to poverty and environmental problems is a major part of rural development efforts. In the future, rural development will also be affected by global efforts to tackle climate change, not only in terms of how effective it is, but in other ways too.

### **5.2.1. Agriculture and Rural Development**

To what extent is rural development the same as agricultural development? In other words, in which case does a sectoral (agricultural) driver to rural growth is indispensable? To answer this question we need to have an idea of the importance of agriculture within the rural world. There is no direct measurement to uncover the importance of agriculture within the rural economy, but we will show alternative roads which indirectly point to that measure. Agriculture is an important component of most rural economies especially in the developing countries. It was shown above that the size of agriculture within the local economy is sometimes used to define rurality. Therefore, any successful rural development strategy will contain an agricultural development component; but they are not the same thing. While agricultural development aims at improving the welfare of populations through sustained improvements in the productivity of the agricultural sector, rural development aims at the improvement of welfare of rural populations through the sustained growth of the rural economy, which includes agriculture, but may not be its only component and not necessarily the most dynamic.

Ideally, if we wanted to know the importance of agriculture within a rural area, we would look at the GDP or output figure for that region, and measure the share of agricultural output within the total value added of the region. Unfortunately only few countries have aggregate output figures available by region (state or province), and even at this regional level, output is aggregated for both rural and urban areas. We show above that the importance of agriculture within the national economy falls with development, but this does not necessarily mean that the relative importance of agriculture in the rural economy also falls with development (given that rurality also falls with development). Poorer countries, with lower per capita income, and with higher incidence of poverty, not only are more rural, but in their economies agriculture has a higher relative weight.

Thus, the poorer the economy, the more important agriculture is for its rural and overall development. Another road to measure the value of agriculture in the rural economy is to examine the share of income from agriculture to total rural income. In the past, organizations and experts define agricultural development as the increase in agricultural production, while rural development as the improvement of the quality of rural life.

Rural development is broader than agricultural development, encompassing many sectors and addressing links between the social, technical, economic, political, institutional and ecological dimensions of rural change. Its **goal** is essentially achieving equitable growth to benefit the poor in rural areas. The **means** include investment in agriculture, improved rural services and infrastructure, institutional reform, technological change, economic change, political reform – all combined with measures to ensure environmental sustainability. It requires a truly multi-disciplinary approach.

### 5.2.2. Rural development as a cyclic process

Four stages can be found in all kinds of development processes. They can also be found at different scales from the initiative of an individual to the programmes of a national or international development agency. They are typically repeated many times to fine adjust a development process, according to Jibowo (1992), which consists of five stages of a rural development programme as follows:

- 1) **Enquiry:** obtaining reliable and valid information about the target community (Availability of Rural Rapid Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PPR) tools have been found to be effective to achieve this in recent time).
- 2) **Planning:** base on information obtained from enquiry. It should involve interventionists (administrators), local change agents, representatives of the rural people and related agencies' officials as stakeholders.
- 3) **Implementation:** action time for all concerned as stakeholders in systematic manner toward realizing the stated goals of the intervention.
- 4) **Adjustment:** necessary institutionalization and change resulting from the intervention.

Comment [H17]: test

5) **Evaluation:** adequate attention should be given to monitoring and review of the process to accommodate in process modifications and at the end to determine how far the set goals have been realized and provide a basis for further action.

○ **Major Strategies of Rural Development**

A rural development strategy is a systematic, comprehensive and reliable tool aimed at bringing about desirable rural transformation. A strategy for rural development is expected to produce results; therefore it is tested and found effective under certain circumstances before being introduced under similar circumstances in another setting. Its expected effectiveness could be due to the fact that it is developed from testing variables. It could also be because it is developed on the basis of experience which had worked. A review of various rural developments programs and policies in many developing countries reveals four general strategies of rural development. These are;

1/ Growth-oriented Strategy

2/ Welfare-oriented Strategy

3/ Responsive Strategy

4/ Integrated or Holistic Strategy

**1/ Growth-oriented Strategy**

This is based on the philosophy that rural people, like any other people, are *rational decision makers*, who, when given adequate opportunity and a proper environment, will try to maximize their incomes. The role of the state in this strategy is to build infrastructure, and maintain a favorable climate to stimulate the growth of rural enterprises. The critical assumption of this strategy is that the benefits of increased production will gradually 'trickle down' to the poor. The regulation and coordination of the activities of private and public agencies is primarily through market mechanisms. But this paradigm failed to make any dent on the basic problems of poverty, unemployment and inequality in many developing countries and was abandoned.

**2. Welfare-oriented strategy**

This seeks to promote the well-being of the rural population in general, and the rural poor in particular through various programs. The primary means used in this strategy are free provision/distribution of goods, services and civic amenities in rural areas.

The critical assumptions of this strategy are that people are *not competent* to identify and resolve their problems, and that government specialists can identify their needs and meet them with the

financial and administrative resources available within the government. The role of villagers is that of *passive receptors* of services. This strategy has a *paternalistic orientation*. The performance of the programs is judged by the quantity of goods, services, and civic amenities delivered. The welfare oriented programs present a mixed picture; the rural poor have benefited significantly through some programs in a few areas, but not in others. There are two major criticisms of this strategy, namely a/ *it has created dependence* b/ *it requires resources that are beyond the means of government*.

### **3. Responsive Strategy**

This is aimed at helping rural people help themselves through their own organizations and other support systems. Its concern is with responding to the felt needs of the rural people, as defined by *them*. The role of the government is to facilitate the self-help efforts of the rural people by providing technologies and resources that are not locally available. The critical assumption of this strategy is that *the rural poor will identify and resolve their problems if provided with minimal support and otherwise left to their own devices and initiatives*. *Community participation* in, and control of, project activities is the primary performance indicator of this strategy. Many voluntary agencies are also following this strategy.

### **4. Integrated or Holistic Strategy**

This combines all the positive features of the earlier three strategies, and is designed to simultaneously achieve the *goals of growth, welfare, equity and community participation*. This paradigm takes a very *comprehensive but integrated view of the basic problems of poverty, unemployment, and inequality, and seeks to address the physical, economic, technological, social motivational, organizational and political bases of these problems*.

The multiple goals of this strategy are sought to be achieved by building the capacity of the community to involve itself in development in partnership with the government. The critical assumption underlying this approach is that *the government can restructure societal power relationships, and centralized bureaucracies can learn to share power with community groups*. Successful implementation of this strategy requires complex decentralized matrix structures, with permanent mechanisms for vertical and lateral integration, a combination of specialists and generalist skills, institutional leadership, social intervention capability and systems management. Given the weak organizational structure of developing countries, which does not have many of

the prerequisites discussed earlier for the successful implementation of this strategy, there is very little hope that this paradigm would yield the desired results.

### **5.3. Approaches for Rural Development**

The approaches which have been adopted for rural development by many developing countries include: *Community development, Agricultural extension, Cooperatives, Integrated Rural Development.*

#### **A/ Community Development**

Community development is a relatively new concept which gained currency after the Second World War. It was conceptualized because of the necessity *to take people into account, make government more broad based, and ensure enlightened public participation* in the affairs of the nation. Community development deals with simple things and unsophisticated people. It seeks to draw people's energy, imagination and initiative to build up a nation.

Community development is defined by some as a method of *working with people* having as its objective the *activation* of the community towards *self-improvement*. It aims at bringing *change of attitudes and behaviours* towards development on the part of the individual community members. By its very nature it does not *impose solutions* for it destroys the very fabric of society; It aims at making the people *recognize* their situation so that they take measures in their own accord.

#### **Objectives of Community Development**

Community development program can be undertaken both in rural and urban areas, aiming at the same general objective. It is an activity primarily designed *to create better living conditions and benefit for the whole community*. To meet this objective, it requires the *interest and ability* of community members,

- ❖ *to organize themselves for planning and action*
- ❖ *to define their common needs and problems*
- ❖ *make plans to meet their needs and solve their problems*

❖ *execute these plans with much reliance upon community resources.*

#### / **Agricultural Extension**

Comment [H18]: test

Agricultural extension is currently considered as one of the best programs for rural development, especially suitable for small farm activities. Through extension services improved agricultural inputs, education and training, and technical skills are disseminated to farmers. Agricultural extension contributes meaningfully to rural development programs when it goes along with other rural development programs such as cooperatives, community development and integrated rural development program.

Agricultural extension has been defined differently but in somewhat related manner, but the most comprehensive one being that offered by FAO, which defines agricultural extension as,

*An informal, out-of-school educational services for training and influencing farmers (and their families) to adopt improved practices in crop and livestock production, management, conservation and marketing. Concern is not only with teaching and securing adoption of a particular improved practice but also changing the outlooks of the farmer to the point where he will be receptive to and on his own initiative, continuously seek means of improving his farm business and home.*

#### **Agricultural extension is an educational process with dual purposes:**

1/ Through extension, education, information and technology are transferred to the farmers to help them improve their productivity; and 2/ The problems, the needs, and other related information are also transferred to agricultural education and research centers.

#### **Objectives of Agricultural extension**

The main objective of agricultural extension, as indicated above, is *to teach people living in rural areas how to raise their standard of living by their own efforts, using their own resources with the minimum of assistance from government.* By encouraging *local leadership* and a *spirit of self-help*, extension develops *civic pride* and the *progressive growth* of the community. Accordingly, the aim of agricultural extension is to find out what the farming community feels its *needs*, what are the *problems* involved, and to provide *answers* to those problems.

#### **C/ Cooperative**



A cooperative is a socio-economic organization formed to fulfill both the economic and social needs and interests of its members. A cooperative has its own *values* and *principles* which distinguish it from other forms of organizations. These are *equality, equity, and mutual help*.

A cooperative has three dimensions, *economic, social and moral*. The very motto of cooperative, “Each for all, and all for each” signifies *loyalty, trust faith, and fellowship*.

A cooperative is a typical democratic institution of *the members, for the members, by the members*. The decision making system is based on ‘*one member one vote system*’.

### **Principles of Cooperative**

According to the International Cooperative Alliance (1995), cooperatives have seven principles. These are;

1. Voluntary and open membership
2. Democratic members’ control
3. Members’ economic Participation & limited interest on share capital
4. Autonomy and independence
5. Provision of cooperative education, training and information
6. Cooperation among cooperatives
7. Concern for the community

A Cooperative is similar and at the same time different from other forms of business organization. The similarity lies in that like any other business organization, Cooperatives are expected to ensure *profitability* and *efficiency*. But, unlike other business organizations, Cooperative has dual functions –*economic* as well as *social* functions.

### **Cooperative as a rural development program makes, among others, the following major contributions:**

- ✓ mobilization of people’s resources and political power
- ✓ identification and development of local leaders
- ✓ provision of goods and services of high quality at low prices
- ✓ Elimination of the middle men
- ✓ Provision of modern technology
- ✓ Creation of employment opportunities
- ✓ Promotion of education and mutual understanding among members

In general, cooperative promotes the *social and economic well-being* their members.

## **D/ Integrated Rural Development Program**

The concept of 'integration' is a very recent idea originated as a result of disappointment over the past few years in the *incoherent* and *unsuitable* character of some action programs and sectoral approaches in rural and agricultural development programs which failed to bring meaningful development in the developing countries.

The 'integrated approach' is basically a matter of "methodology" which denotes the *method* and *logic* a certain development program should be based. The basic idea underlying Integrated Approach is that *all sectors must systematically and logically be integrated to contribute effectively towards progress.*

The Integrated Approach seeks to improve the *general well-being* of people through *multi-sectoral projects by concentrating efforts that maximize efficiency in certain selected areas.*

The Integration Approach has two general principles:

1/ Integration of *objectives*

2/ Integration of *structures*

### **1/ Integration of objectives**

The integration of objectives implies the *setting-up of compatible general and specific sectoral objectives with regard to each in terms of the other.*

#### **Setting goals on a joint basis resolves,**

- the problem of infighting over resource allocation.
- facilitates team-work, coordination of decision-making and implementation structures
- creates motivation in the implementing agencies when issues are identified in a multi-disciplinary manner and solutions and programs are decided in a complimentary and integrated manner.

#### **2/ The integration of structure**

The integration of structure indicates the creation of *most appropriate institutional structure* to achieve a *functional integration* between the various administrative and technical bodies involved in the planning and implementation of programs.

#### **Formulation of an Integrated Program/Project**

The basic principles underlying the integration of objectives and structures can be demonstrated by looking at the *main phases* of general planning.

**A typical Planning Model for integrated program has four main phases:**

Comment [H19]: test

- Phase I – Analysis of the Initial Situation
  - Identification of issues
  - Selection of priorities
  - Formulation of possible solutions
- Phase II – Setting-up the Decision-making and Institutional Structures
- Phase III – Formulation of Programs and Operational Plans
- Phase IV – Implementation, Coordination and Evaluation

## **Chapter Six**

### **An Over View Of Rural Ethiopia**

#### **6.1. Introduction**

Ethiopia's economy and the well-being of its more than 90 million (CSA, 2013) citizens depend on the productivity of its natural resources, principally land and water that are used for production of crops and animals that provide more than 40% of Ethiopia's GDP. Governance of these resources is shared between the federal government and nine ethnically based regional governments. The decentralized approach to government further extends public sector oversight and involvement to district (*woreda*) and local (*kebele*) levels. Average farm sizes in Ethiopia are small with more than 85% of farming households operating less than 2 hectares and, in 2000, more than 40% having 0.5 hectares or less. Since the 1980s, Ethiopia has been a major recipient of emergency food and cash assistance from the international community. Access to land is a critical issue for millions of farm households. Highly variable rainfall patterns have resulted in recurrent drought and crop/livestock loss, while in good years markets have been unable to absorb surplus production. Establishment of the Ethiopian Commodity Exchange is now helping to absorb this surplus by streamlining marketing and facilitating warehousing, financing and open price discovery via auction.

The average household size is 4.7 persons, which is slightly smaller than the average of 4.8 persons per household reported in 2000. Urban households have fewer members than rural households. In urban areas the average household size is 3.6 persons, compared with 5.0 persons

in rural areas. About one-fourth (23 percent) of Ethiopian households are headed by women, a slight decrease from 24 percent in 2000. Single-person households are more common in urban areas (20 percent) than in rural areas (4 percent). Also, a much lower proportion of urban households (18 percent) have six or more members than do rural households (41 percent).

## **6.2. Land Use**

Ethiopia covers an area of 1,127,127 square kilometers, of which an estimated 34% is agricultural, 9.6% is arable, an estimated 3.6 is forested, and 48.9% is covered by woodlands and shrubs. Only 4.5% of arable land is irrigated. Protected areas encompass 14% of Ethiopia's land area. An estimated 15 of Ethiopia's people live in urban areas, making it one of the least urbanized counties in the world. This low degree of urbanization highlights the importance of land access for rural livelihoods. Eighty percent of all Ethiopians depend, either directly or indirectly, upon agricultural and livestock production for their livelihoods. In 2007, agriculture and allied activities comprised 43% of Ethiopia's GDP (WRI 2007; Seleshi 2010; CBD 2009; EIU 2008). Smallholder agriculture is the most important sector of Ethiopia's economy. Agriculture accounts for almost 90% of exports. Crop production contributes to 35% of GDP. Cereals account for 80% of crop production in both area and value while oilseeds and pulses contribute nearly 15% of the value. The steady rise of cereal production has provided Ethiopia with a growing source of food security.

Ethiopia is also one of the largest livestock producers in Africa. Livestock accounts for nearly 10% of GDP and 30% of the employment of the agricultural labor force. Livestock exports to the Middle East – both live and as chilled meat – have been an important source of foreign exchange in recent years, second only to coffee. Permanent pastures comprise 63% of agricultural land. Despite the importance of livestock and pasture for the agricultural sector, the claims of pastoralists to land and pasture, particularly in the South, are poorly recognized or upheld by Federal, regional, or state authorities. Conflicting claims on grazing resources have reportedly been a contributing factor to some violent clashes (EIU 2008; UNSTATS 2007; Halderman 2004; Helland 2006; Hundie and Padmanabhan 2008; Beyene and Korf 2008).

### **6.2.1. Land Distribution**

Successive national governments in Ethiopia have implemented differing approaches to the distribution of rural land. The imperial regime of Haile Selassie allocated land ownership to political supporters without regard to its occupation or use by farming populations. This created a feudal regime of landholdings in much of the country, with many farmers operating tenancies on lands held by absentee landlords. Growing popular anger and unrest over the oppressive and inequitable effects of this feudal tenure system, particularly the large-scale eviction of tenants to give way for commercial farming, were major factors leading to a coup in 1974 by a cadre of military officers (the Derg) and the overthrow of the Emperor. *Land to the Tiller*, the slogan and rallying cry of the opposition, mainly composed of high school and university students before the 1974 Revolution, became the basis for the Nationalization of Rural Lands Proclamation of 1975 and subsequent sweeping land reform.

Between 1976 and 1991, the Derg implemented a series of reforms in which —all rain-fed farmland in highland Ethiopia was confiscated and redistributed, after adjusting for soil quality and family size, among all rural households! (Devereux et al. 2005, 121).

The military Derg regime redistributed previously —privatized land to farming households but went further than that, repeatedly redistributing land every year or two with the aim of achieving an equitable allocation land use rights, such frequent redistribution reduced land access and undermined secure ownership of land and natural resources for both current land holder and inheritance by children. Moreover, the Derg retained state ownership of some large properties, setting them up as state-owned and -operated farms.

The government formed by Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) in 1991 largely maintained the policies of the Derg *with regard to land, assigning ownership to the state and use-rights to farmers and livestock keepers*, while prohibiting sales and collateralization, encouraging redistributions at the village (*kebele*) and district (*woreda*) levels to avoid landlessness, and permitting limited leasing and inheritance rights to be exercised. Gradually, more authority for land distribution policies was delegated to regional states, and several regional governments began experimenting with different approaches to land redistribution in order to increase rural tenure security. However, this changed in 2005, when the adverse effects of frequent land redistribution was recognized by federal government which

limited forced land redistribution to only irrigation development areas in Proclamation No. 456/2005 (Holden and Yohannes 2001).

Though it is widely believed that Ethiopia's approach to land access and use has resulted in a highly equitable distribution of land, there is substantial evidence that this may not be true. The vast majority of rural holdings are small (less than 2 hectares) and fragmented (average holdings of 2.3 plots), many farms are less than one hectare and a not-insignificant number of households are landless (Rahmato and Assefa 2006; Abegaz 2004; Griffin et al. 2001; Gebreselassie 2006).

Additional land can only be acquired through leasing, as current policy restricts consolidation of holdings and prohibits the sale or purchase of holdings. Some researchers also contend that land distribution in contemporary Ethiopia is no more equal than in other African countries and that the unchallenged assumption of egalitarian distribution is used to reject private ownership of land. While the right of women's access to land is stated in the Constitution, anecdotal evidence suggests that women's role and involvement in decisions regarding the allocation and use of landholdings at the local level remains limited (Kebede 2008; Mersha and Githinji 2005; Stein and Tefera 2008).

### **6.3. Rural Development Policies**

Ethiopia is predominantly rural (84% of population is rural), agriculture is the mainstay of the country's economy, 80% of labor force is agriculture, 50% of GDP comes from agriculture, 60% of exports come from agriculture. Therefore, government policy should be: Rural-based and agriculture-driven that is supported by country's chief and abundant resources are land and labor. Accordingly, government of Ethiopia introduced Poverty reduction strategies:

- a) **First poverty reduction program** – sustainable development and poverty reduction program (SDPRP) introduced in 2002 that gave emphasis on increased provision of agricultural extension services, training of extension agents (DAs) at TVET, training of farmers in various productivity enhancing techniques, promote private sector growth & development, rapid export growth through high value crops, undertake major investment in education, deepen and strengthen the decentralization, improving governance, agricultural research, water harvesting and small scale irrigation, undertaking investment in education to enhance human capital development etc...

These and other related activities would have the effect of promoting rural-urban linkages. Achieving sustainable development and reducing poverty are closely linked with UN declaration in September 2000-2015 on Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable development goals-SDG(2015-2030)<sup>3</sup> were launched and Ethiopia is part of the agreement as United Nation member country. Ethiopia's poverty reduction strategy is the primary vehicle for achieving MDGs, Eight Millennium Development Goals and 17 SDGs.

- 1) Eradication of poverty (i.e., halving the no of poor people)
- 2) Achieving universal primary education
- 3) Promote gender equality and empower women
- 4) Reduce child mortality rate
- 5) Improve maternal health
- 6) Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- 7) Ensure environmental sustainability
- 8) Develop global partnership for development

b) *The second poverty reduction strategy was launched (2005/06-2009/10) – Program for Accelerated and Sustainable Development to End Poverty (PASDEP)*. Here the linkages between the rural and urban was given due attention, promoting cooperatives – federal cooperative agency was established, land registration and certification programs to ensure security of tenure (started in 2003), resettlement program, micro and small enterprises to make credit available to rural people, productive safety net scheme implemented in 2005, the productive safety net scheme covers as many as 8 million households and has three components. SDPRP is part of the government's poverty reduction strategy (PRS) aimed at eradication of hunger and reduction of poverty. Major focuses are: Improving human and rural development, improving food security, capacity building through transformation of the smallholder peasant agriculture.

---

<sup>3</sup>*Sustainable Development Goals: Have 17 Goals, 169 Targets And 194 UN Member Countries Focus On: 1)No Poverty, 2)Zero Hunger, 3)Good Health And Wellbeing, 4)Quality Education, 5) Gender Equality, 6)Clean Water And Sanitation, 7)Affordable And Clean Energy, 8)Decent Work And Economic Growth, 9)Industry, Invention And Infrastructure, 10)Reduce Inequality, 11)Sustainable Cities And Communities, 12)Responsible Consumption And Production, 13)Climate Action, 14) Life Below Water, 15) Life On Land, 16) Peace, Justice And Strong Institution, 17) Partnerships For The Goals.*

Major emphasis is given to **ADLI (Agriculture development lead to industrialization)** as agriculture is the main livelihood source ADLI is one of the building blocks of government's sustainable development and poverty reduction program that recognizes agriculture as an engine of growth and stresses the use of agricultural technologies that are capital saving. Agriculture development lead to industrialization is premised on the basic understanding that has been implemented through extension package program aimed at:

- Making credit available to small farmers to buy package of inputs
- Supply of production enhancing farming technologies mainly chemical fertilizers and seeds
- Building the capacity of farmers (through training) to efficiently use package of inputs and manage their farms
- Establishing institutes for training diploma level extension agents

#### **c) Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP)**

Since 2010 the government launched an ambitious policy dubbed as Growth and Transformation Plan: Agricultural growth, industrial growth, expanding road infrastructure (railroad) and expanding power infrastructure (Great Renaissance Dam) and multi sectorial development plan through GTP-I(2010-2015) and GTP-II (2015-2020).

#### **6.4. Ethiopian Agricultural Policy and Investment Framework (PIF)**

The Government of Ethiopia has articulated long term vision to become a middle income<sup>4</sup> country by 2020. In that context the millennium development goals and sustainable development goals are to be met. The main strategy for fulfilling that vision was Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI). The starting point for this vision was an economy dominated by low productivity agriculture on potentially highly productive resources. **However**, so far the efforts to achieve the vision have been underway for several years, and progress has been made and basis for further progress has been built. Nevertheless the country has progressed only part way to the vision from the initial conditions described above. There is much yet to be done. A 20 year vision includes a radical transformation of the economic structure of the economy and equally radical improvements in income, food security, health, and education. In the normal process of economic growth and in this 20 year vision, non-agricultural sectors should grow

---

<sup>4</sup>Middle income is defined as per capita income of \$1000.



more rapidly than agriculture, particularly in rapid growth contexts. Thus, it is inevitable that with rapid growth.

## 6.5. Historical over view of land Tenure in Rural Ethiopia

### A. The situation before 1974

During 1960's Ethiopia was described to have the potential to be the bread basket of the horn of Africa and Middle East. This idea was supported by the fact that the country was endowed with adequate land mass, fertile soil, sufficient rain fall, variety of climates and elevations and large number and strong peasantry. However the economy remained stagnant and thus the potential for economic growth couldn't be realized. There are various explanations for Ethiopia's underdevelopment. For our purpose we can see the explanation at two levels.

- I. **Cultural and psycho behavioral explanation;** until the 1960's it was believed that backward traditions and strong cultural patterns held back economic development. It was argued the country's historical isolation and feudal structure had created an inward looking peasantry, not open to agricultural innovation and development. This approach appears to lead the conclusion that the peasant was lazy and fatalistic.
- II. **Land based explanation;** by the early 1970's the explanation of Ethiopia's underdevelopment came to center on; the relationship between peasant agriculture and the economy i.e. the economy was not developed because it was in the hands of the peasant subsistence agriculture., the historical attitude of the government towards agrarian development (production; a focus on modernization theory that advocates advances in industry, the general pattern of land holding and the failure of land reform movement etc.
- III. The former cultural and behavioral explanation of Ethiopia's underdevelopment was rejected and replaced by **land based explanation**. Therefore; pre-1974 Ethiopia's rural development was blocked by the existing land tenure systems and wrong development strategies.

### B. The pre-1974 land tenure system

In Ethiopia, before the 1975 proclamation to provide for the public ownership of rural lands, there existed different land tenure systems. Some of the past land tenure systems include;

- ✓ **Rist** (land inherited by a family or a group of families from a remote ancestor),
- ✓ **Rist-gult** (land disposed of by the state to a person, family or any legal organization,

- ✓ **Gult** (a form of tenure which entitled the guarantee the right to collect land- tax from land holders and administer the area)
- ✓ **Madria** (state land temporarily given to officials or soldiers ),
- ✓ **Hudad** (government land worked by gebars and \or district govemors ,
- ✓ **Semon** (land given to church personnel).

Gebars were tribute paying peasants .The various tenure system can be reduced in to two broader systems .The communal holding of the north and the private ownership system of the south.

#### 1) **The North**

The most common form of land holding system in the north was called rist system .It is kinship based system of land distribution .An individual can claim for land through both parents because of the descent system is ambilinear . Individual's right was not to own a particular plot of land but to use it under a collective ownership. In rist system areas certain government officials, the royal families or other ruling class members assigned as administrators. These groups had the right to collect a share of the product of all agricultural land in a given area in exchange for their administrative, political, cultural and judicial services. This right was known as gult rigt .Each church and monastery has a gult ,land form which it collected a share in addition to some land for church personnel who cultivated crops for their own upkeep. Gult right enabled the feudal to lead luxurious life while the majority of the peasants were suffering from poverty.

#### 2) **The South**

The southem and southwestem part of Ethiopia were brought under emperor menelik's rule towards the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Emperor Menelik gave the right to use the land and collect tax. Initially most of the recipients were not interested in land for cultivation, but in collecting contributions from productive peasants. Peasants were encouraged to continue to produce as far as they could remain submissive and as long as they deliver the required contribution to the new masters... (Pawsewang1990:42-3). Gradually however the land lords succeeded in convincing the emperor to make their rights hereditary. While rist-gult (hereditary gult) was rare in the south, it became a rule in the south. Later on emperor Haileselassie granted rights of free hold – as alien concept-in Ethiopia-to owners of rist- gult and other recipients of imperial land grant. This was done to encourage foreign and domestic investment in agriculture. After the Italian occupation, Haileselassie instituted the payment of taxes in money directly to the government,

legally recognized the tax payer (gebar) as land owner. Again the peasants were not aware of the significance of legal changes .Thus it was not the peasantry or the real gebar who paid the tax and become land owner, rather the former rist- gult holders or free holders collected taxes from peasants and registered in their own names as tax payers.

### **C) Pre-1974 Government Policy towards Rural Development**

Between 1957 and 1974 the government of Haileselassie attempted to develop the country through a series of national development plans .In the initial phases of such plans agriculture was not given the necessary attention .But latter constraints of agricultural growth have been identified and the importance of small-holder sector was recognized and a strategy was proposed .yet, only limited progress was made .This is because of the land tenure and other structural constraints prevailed by them. In addition, the rural majority were neglected by the urban biased development strategies.

### **D) Post -1974 Situation in Ethiopia**

In 1974, Ethiopia's agrarian strategies and blocked development combined with Eritrean problem, drought, famine, worldwide inflation, urban unrest and military pay mutinies were the conditions for the overthrow of Haileselassie's regime and its replacement by military government. The land holding system and the development strategies adopted by the imperial regime were viewed ineffective. Consequently the land reform proclamation, issued in March 1975, was considered to be the most important step for country's development. It was the product of "*land to the tiller*" slogan that aimed at making cultivators benefit from the product of their own labor by breaking land lord-tenancy relationship. The purpose of the reform proclamation include

- The abolition of private ownership of land and its distribution among the immediate tillers
- All rural lands were made the collective property of Ethiopian people
- Abolition of exploitative relationship b/n the peasantry and land lords ,the latter was deprived of basic rights
- Abolition of hired labor

#### ***Implementation of the land reform proclamation***

Soon after the proclamation peasant associations (PAs) were felt to be the best means for implementing the program .Thus, PAs were organized with the responsibility of distributing land to those who are willing and able to work. PAs were responsible for

- A) Facilitating the land reform program
- B) Ensuring political and economic freedom of peasants
- C) Accelerating social development by improving production

### ***The effect of land reform in Ethiopia***

**I. Effect on land distribution:** Before 1974, the bulk of peasantry owned insignificant size of land and in some cases peasantry has no right to own land. After the reform the peasants benefited more in such ways

- Complete security in using the land
- Benefit from their own produce (unlike the previous time where a portion of their produce goes to the feudal land lords and leaders).

However, there are people argue in another direction as there is no significant difference before and after the reform .This is because what was distributed is what was under cultivation and the abolition of private ownership of land have challenged the security of farmers/peasantry, discourage their initiatives, and degrade their creativity and investment.

**II. Effects on production:** The immediate impact of the reform was decline in productivity and shortage of food supply. Increased rural consumption, war and drought have contributed to the decline.

**III. Effects on employment:** The guarantee to work on lands as one likes and resettlement programs were believed to widen the spectrum of employment in rural areas and discourage rural –urban migration. But the migration continued b/c employment opportunities remained to be limited.

**IV. Effects on the level of living:** The living condition of Ethiopian people in general and the rural people in particular become deteriorated. Among other factors low agricultural productivity, wrong development policy, drought, continued war heavy tax totally incapacitated the rural sector.

### ***Villagization and Resettlement programs***

**Villagization:** is a process by which rural households are moved from a scattered dwellings in to villages. The first villagization campaign was launched in Ethiopia in 1977 during which one third of the country’s rural population (over 12 million) was villagized.

### ***Objectives of villagization in Ethiopia***

Generally speaking it was government attempt to modernize rural life and agricultural production patterns. Official documents stated it as a pre-requisite for efficient utilization of national resources and an appropriate and adequate approach to rural development. Villagization was seen as a means to provide better service to rural Ethiopia. First it was began in Bale during the ethio-somali war in 1977-78. one of the main objective of the program at that time was to guarantee the safety of local inhabitants from invading Somali troops.

### ***Resettlement***

Neither planned nor spontaneous resettlement program is new in Ethiopian history. The sporadic movement of people was not uncommon during both Menelik's and Haileselassie's regime. The voluntary resettlement of over a million people b/n 1950's & 1970's expanded the cultivated land by 25%. Few government resettlement schemes were undertaken before 1974. until then the planned resettlement remained a marginal phenomenon involving a total of 6500 households in 21 sites. Planned resettlement of a large number of people began after the 1973/74 Wollo famine that took 200,000 lives.

### **E. Post 1991 situation in Ethiopia**

The fall of the Derg brought a serious of crisis on rural institutions. Peasant Associations (PA) were replaced by peace and stability committees while service cooperatives that survived destruction were suspended for some time. A new economic policy was issued by the transitional government in 1991 which prioritize the performance of peasant agriculture. It also assured the public ownership of land but some corrective measures were taken to compensate the previously discriminated peasants. The common practice of land distribution was to accommodate new claims through small allotments or freezing new allocations. Fall of Derg brought a series of changes in rural institutions:

- Service cooperatives, schools and government offices were attacked and looted
- Producers' cooperatives (involving collective ownership of all the means of production) were abandoned
- Peace & stability committees replacing PA were established
- Shortly after, PA and service cooperatives were reintroduced in 1992 because of the valuable service they were rendering
- Derg's agricultural and economic policy was discontinued and new economic policy for transition was introduced in 1992. However, fresh redistribution was promised to correct the

discriminatory nature of previous land allocation. The issue of future land redistribution aroused every one's concern:

- ✓ Those who lost land during Derg were eager to know if fresh redistribution would restore their lost land
- ✓ Those who benefited from the land reform were apprehensive
- ✓ The landless and land hungry would like to see fresh redistribution as they had nothing to lose
- ✓ The average peasant was not keen since from experience fresh redistribution would lead to leveling down of the holdings.

In any case, fresh redistribution would not alleviate the root cause of land scarcity since in most parts of the country most of the land was already occupied. Regarding the land issue there were two polar views during the transition period (1991-1995):

- 1) Public ownership rights in land, mainly advocated by EPRDF
- 2) Individual ownership rights in land, mainly advocated by the opposition and international financial institutions such as IMF and the World Bank. Each camp presented arguments for and against why one type of ownership is preferred over the other.

