

1 Rural Development Programme Implementation in Developing 2 Countries: The Experience of China and India

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 The crux of this paper is to examine rural development programme implementation in
9 developing countries with China and India as case studies. The paper examines various
10 strategies adopted by these countries in the implementation of rural development policies and
11 programmes. The study adopts desk research as its methodological orientation. The result of
12 the analysis reveals that the Chinese and Indian Governments adopt bottom-up rural
13 development approach which emphasizes involvement of the rural people in rural development
14 programme implementation. This strategy has significantly assisted these countries to attain
15 enviable heights in rural development efforts in spite of their increasing population. The
16 paper, therefore, recommends among others, the need for China and India to abandon cultural
17 practices /belief systems capable of impacting negatively on their rural development
18 programmes and also encourage other developing countries in the third world Africa to
19 emulate the strategies adopted by these two countries in their rural development programme
20 implementation.

21

22 **Index terms**— Rural development, Agriculture, Policy, Programme, Implementation.

23 **1 I. Introduction**

24 he quest for achievement of desired rural development has remained a critical concern of most countries the
25 contemporary world. This is succinct because, available statistics shows that about 80% of the population of most
26 nations resides in rural areas. Unfortunately, this population sometime do not benefit from the over-dramatized
27 rural transformation agenda acclaimed by most countries particularly in the third world social formations.

28 Thus, some scholars have emphasized the imperative for according desired priority to the development of rural
29 areas. However, such emphasis is rooted in several reasons.

30 According to Robert (1974), four main reasons could be advanced for why greater attention should be shifted
31 to the development of rural areas. First, majority of the population lives and finds their means of livelihood
32 in the rural areas. Secondly, the rural-urban drift or migration has continued to be an issue of serious concern
33 to governments largely due to the increasing spate of urban unemployment, food scarcity, housing problems,
34 sanitation, health challenges and other attendant social problems. Thirdly, in most third world countries, the
35 poor and disadvantaged people mostly reside in the rural areas. Fourthly, many scholars have persuasively
36 argued that priority should be accorded to issues germane to rural and agricultural development implicit in their
37 significant roles in a country's economic growth and development.

38 To address the issues of rural backwardness, some countries have adopted and implemented certain policy
39 strategies to tackle problems such as poverty, illiteracy, inequality, hunger, diseases, unemployment, among
40 others. Consequently, such strategies have successfully worked in some countries while similar strategies did not
41 work in others.

5 B) SECTORAL DEVELOPMENT MODEL:

42 In consideration of this pathetic situation of rural development in many countries in the third world, this paper
43 examines rural development programme and implementation particularly in underdeveloped social formations,
44 using China and India as case studies.

45 2 II. Rural Development: A Conceptual Framework

46 As it is the scenario in the disciplines of social sciences, there is no generally acceptable definition of rural
47 development. This is largely because scholars within the purview of social sciences perceive the concept of rural
48 development from distinctanalytical perception and ideological milieu. Inspite of this intellectual bias, some
49 scholar conceived rural development as process of not only increasing the level of per capita income in the rural
50 areas, but also the standard of living of the rural population, measured by food and nutrition level, health,
51 education, housing, recreation and security (Diejomaoh, 1973).

52 The World Bank (1975) conceives rural development as the process of rural modernization and the monetization
53 of the rural society leading to its transition from traditional isolation to integration with the national economy.
54 As a critical concept, ??llawa (1971) T(D D D D)

55 C Year perceives rural development as "the restructuring of the economy in order to satisfy the material
56 needs and aspirations of the rural masses and to promote individual and collective incentives to enable them
57 participate in the process of development. Thus, this strategy involves a host of multi-sectoralactivities including
58 the improvement of agriculture, the promotion of rural industries, the creation of the requisite infrastructure
59 and social overheads, as well as the establishment of appropriate decentralized structure in order to allow mass
60 production (Wilkin, 2010).

61 For, Obinozie (1999), rural development is "a multi-dimensional process aimed at uplifting the life of the rural
62 dwellers in the society. This involves the creation of employment, access roads, health facilities, better housing,
63 good water supplyand equitable distribution of income among the ruralpeople.

64 Inspite of numerous and diverse definitions the subject by scholars, one thing is imperative about the scope
65 and boundaries of rural development as a field of inquiry. This analytical importance borders on the fact that
66 rural development is directed principally and completely towards the total transformation of rural communities.
67 The essence is to transform these communities to modern cities.The ultimate goal is to eradicate poverty and
68 further reduce the persistent migration of people from rural to urban areas in search of better means of livelihood
69 in the contemporary world.

70 3 III. A Review of Models of Rural

71 Development in the Third World

72 In view of the comparative nature of this work, it is therefore imperative to examine the various models of
73 rural development which have been put in practice in some developing countries. According to Ayichi (1995) In
74 most developing countries such as China and India, these models have been applied at various times to achieve
75 rural development policies and programmes. Thus, above rural development models are carefully discussed below:

76 Urban Development Model:

77 The model favours the concentration of development projects in the urban areas. Its underlying assumptions
78 and methodological premise are based on the fact that the benefits of urban development will trickle-down to the
79 rural areas and further stimulates growth and development. Unfortunately, this concept has failed in many third
80 world formations largelydue to over-concentration of development projects in the urban centres resulting in rural-
81 urban migration ??Roundinelli, 1975). This ugly trend is clearly responsible for challenges in the urban centres
82 such as overpopulation, increase in crime, poor sanitary condition, low life span of social amenities/facilities, high
83 cost of living,security challenges, diseases and unemployment (Grindle, 1980).

84 4 a) Industrial Development Model:

85 This model posits that the industrialization of the economy is a pre-condition for achievement of rural
86 development. Thus, the model assumed that industrialization of the rural areas will further create employment
87 opportunities for the people and also attract other social amenities such as water, electricity, road, health,
88 education, recreational facilities, among others ??Tadora, 1995).

89 Unfortunately, available evidence in some countries in the developing world has shown that these industries
90 are short-lived largely due to poor management and funding.

91 5 b) Sectoral Development Model:

92 The proponents and apologists of this model assert that sectoral development of a specific area of rural life will
93 eventually bring about desired development in the community. To some scholars, this situation informed the
94 age-long efforts by some governments in the developing countries to concentrate attention in the development
95 of agriculturalsector as a panacea to achieve rural development objectives. Thus, available evidence has
96 shownthatthe development of agriculture alone cannot bring about desired development in rural areas. Therefore,
97 political will and governments' huge investments in education sector, health, transport, commerce, credible
98 electoral process, fight against corruption, hunger, injustice, among others, will obviously of transform rural
99 areas into enviable towns in the contemporary world (Whooley, 1982).

100 6 c) Integrated Rural Development Model:

101 This approach seeks to develop all the sectors of the economy and effectively link them to the urban economy
102 (Pintrup-Aderesene, 2002). It aims at promoting linkages between formal and informal sectors as of the rural
103 economy. This model is usually prescribed by International Development Partners and Donor Agencies. This
104 includes the World Bank, United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) among others.

105 According to Ijere (1993), the integrated rural development model entails government-community cooperative
106 participation in providing better health services, education and rural infrastructure in such a co-ordinated and
107 simultaneous manner in order to enhance the overall welfare of the rural dwellers. The beauty of integrated rural
108 development approach is that rural development programmes are pursued holistically. Hence, embraces 2012 (D
109 D D) C

110 Year not only the rural areas, but also urban centres in a particular state.

111 7 IV. Strategies for the Implementation of Rural Development 112 Programmes in China

113 Rural development in China is ultimately accorded desired priority. Thus, to achieve desired rural development
114 objectives, several programmes and policy strategies were adopted by the Chinese government. This includes: a)

115 Agriculture:

116 A major focus of rural development in China takes cognizance of the imperative for involving the people in
117 agricultural policies and programmes. Thus, the Chinese government has over the years, involved the citizens in
118 the following agricultural activities: a. Large scale production of vegetables b. Production of aquatic products
119 c. Agricultural processing d. Rural off-farm production, and; e. Procurement and storage of harvested grains.

120 In view of emphasis placed on agricultural development as a precursor of rural development, the Chinese
121 Government provides 'policy loans' to agricultural sector (Yao, 2010). However, ??heng and Xu (2003) have pervasively
122 argued that: ?an important aspect of China's selective credit policies is the provision of policy loans by
123 Rural Finance Institutions (RFIs) to priority sectors of the economy. The policy loans for rural China include
124 but are not limited to, the loan for agricultural procurement and storage (mainly by the ADBC), poverty loans?

125 b) Promoting Self-reliance through Formal and Informal Institutions involved in Rural Development:

126 A central policy strategy of the rural livelihoods approach in China is aimed at putting people at the centre
127 of development.

128 This is to increase the effectiveness of development assistance from the government and international
129 development partners. This strategy was adopted to achieve at poverty reduction particularly in the rural China.
130 Obviously, the involvement of the poor citizens in rural development programmes resulted to local empowerment
131 of the people which in turn leads to opportunities for local leadership. It also increased women participation in
132 politics in China. Thus, the village institutions form the basis of community organization and function through
133 "Village Development Committees. Also, this committee comprises the representatives of all communities in the
134 village. As a rule, at least 30 percent of the composition of the above committee must be drawn from women
135 population. These Committees develop Village Development Plans and work closely with the Ministry of Rural
136 Development in China (Xian, 2010).

137 Other community organizations such as Farmers' Federations and Women's Self -help Groups also facilitate
138 the process of community-driven development (Huang and Rozelle, 2000). These institutions operate there is
139 availability of micro-credit schemes to farmers.

140 It is equally imperative to note that communities also form "Apex Institutions" (Federation of Various
141 Community Institutions), at the Block, (a unit of a district) and "Taluka" (a unit of a Block) level. These
142 institutions act as venues through which regional issues and challenges to farmers are effectively discussed with
143 a view to find lasting solutions to the problems. These institutions also dialogue with the government and other
144 agencies (including banks) to access various agricultural loans in China. For instance, Adams and Nehman (1979)
145 assert that in Shanxi Province and other Provinces, rural borrowers in China sometimes offer gifts, kickbacks
146 and even organize banquets for "Loan Officials" for easy access and processing of loan applications.

147 Thus, the Federation of various Community Institutions most times serves as agricultural extension agents
148 and also disseminates information from agricultural institutes to farmers in remote areas in China. Further, they
149 also engage in collective marketing of agricultural produce to enable member institutions to sell their products
150 at the best possible prices (Zhang and Zhang, 2002).

151 It is, therefore, pertinent to note that the formation of Farmers' Federations and the Women's Federations have
152 resulted to social campaigns in the rural China, thereby reducing unnecessary expenditure on social customs,
153 promoting the education of girls, anti-liquor campaigns, and the promotion of organic farming. Furthermore,
154 mass awareness campaigns by women's groups in China has significantly resulted to reduction in wasteful and
155 extravagant expenditures on weddings and other social customs such as 'funeral feasts'.

156 8 c) Rural Credit Cooperatives:

157 The Rural Credit Cooperatives (RCCs) in poor and remote areas in China have a stronger incentive to offer rural
158 credit to its members. In the main, the RCCs are allowed to give credit facilities to households and enterprises
159 within their geographic areas (their township). As a rule, over 50 percent of the RCCs loans must be provided

9 V. STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN INDIA

160 to only their members. On the newly increased loans by the Chinese government, over 70percent of the total
161 loans are usually used for agricultural loans, including loans to individual households and agricultural collectives
162 (Aziz, 1998). (D D D D) C Year

163 It is crucial to note that RCCs from China can transfer funds to other RCCs existing in other countries through
164 inter-country transfers. However, the RCCs that meet the under listedcriteria are allowed to lend their funds to
165 other RCCs and financial institutions. First, they must have good capital for at least two years. Second, the
166 inter-banking lending must not exceed two percent of all the deposits organized by the RCC in question.

167 d) The People Communes Approach:

168 Another strategy of Chinese model of rural development is the establishment of the 'People's Communes' as
169 the basic unit of rural transformation agenda. Its purpose is toorganize and mobilize the ruralpopulation to
170 develop their land and other resources in order to meet the essential needs such as principle of self-reliance. The
171 essence is to reduce social inequalities by creating rural societies based on justice and equality ??Aziz, 1998:15).

172 According to Olarenwanju (2008), the system of "Communes" provides a very effective mechanism of local
173 planning in accordance with the simple philosophy of rural development which emphasizes bottom-up approach.
174 This is clearly because after discussion with the "Communes", the country passes on the total production targets
175 and demands for onward transmission to theCentral Planning Commission for inclusion in the Chinese general
176 budget (Rossi and Wright, 1977). e) Skill Acquisition and Technology Development:

177 In addition to institution building, programmes and activities, there is also Skills Development Centres aimed at
178 building up the skill base of villagers, particularly the women. Thus, available evidence shows that in somevillages,
179 womenhave been trained to repair and maintain hand-pumps. In others some have been trained as masons and
180 artisans.

181 Hence, most communities receive organizational and financial management trainings to support the effectiveness
182 and sustainability of village-level institutions.

183 Similarly, some key resource people are often provided with technical skills to plan, implement and maintain the
184 development activities (David, 1979). The ultimate goal is to ensure that people in the participating communities
185 have access, confidence and competence to make informed choices and decisions from a wide range of appropriate
186 development options at their disposal.

187 It is, therefore, important to note that, these policy strategies were essentially aimed at increasing the awareness
188 of the savings and credit programmes among the people. It also aimed at exposing the people to certain rural
189 development models and further ensures that the communities are adequately acquainted with the principles
190 of natural resources management. f) Creation of Rural Assets: In people's Republic of China, institutional
191 structures are created at the village level to enable the poor people to prioritize their needs and decide how best
192 to manage common resources. Thus, some communities build community capital through efficient management
193 of their natural resource base such as water storage, water use, irrigation systems, soil conservation and forestry
194 management. These efforts include the construction of small scale infrastructure, such as check-dams, irrigation
195 canals, water harvesting structuresand other agricultural storage facilities.

196 However, over 400 structures have been created for harvesting and storage of rainwater that is directly lifted
197 for irrigation. These have led to an additional 4000 hectares of irrigated crop lands in the affected programme
198 areas being further expanded through the adoption of water-saving devices such as drip irrigation and sprinklers
199 ??Robert, 2011). g) Benefits and Impact on Quality of Life:

200 In China, the assets that have been created at the rural areas have just an increased income generation
201 to households. Thus, government's rural development policies and programmes have benefited over 300,000
202 households in over 1,000 villages in the Western and Central China since 1983 (Woo, 2003). Hence, development
203 activities have ensured more water for drinking, irrigation, higher agricultural productivity, rural incomes
204 (including household savings), greater resilience todroughts and the ability to appropriately manage the natural
205 resource baseof the people.

206 However, with over 10,000 households currently having access to safe drinking water, more people, especially
207 women have benefited significantly from this policy strategy by the Chinese government. Thus, since farmers no
208 longer walk long distances to get required quantity of water, the time saved in this regard by the Chinese citizens
209 is sometimes spent at home for proper education and good up-bringing of their children.

210 Paradoxically, the general literacy level has risen by 10 percent for men and 8 percent for women, contrary
211 to situations in China some years ago. Thus, the growing gender sensitivity and changing gender equations in
212 China are quite evident.

213 However, available statistics shows that issues bordering on the inclusion of more women in policy decisions
214 in China are currently receiving government attention.

215 9 V. Strategies for Implementation of Rural Development Pro- 216 grammes in India

217 In India, the rural and urban economies are integrated into the overall national economy. However, any discourse
218 on development without the rural people, particularly in a country where three-quarters of citizens This was first
219 introduced in 1978. The IRDP has provided assistance to rural poor in the form of subsidy and bank credit
220 for productive employment opportunities through successive plan periods. Subsequently, Programmes such as

221 training of Rural Youths for Self-Employment (TRYSE), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas
222 (DWCRA), Supply of Improved Tool Kits to Rural Artisans (SITRA), among others, have been receiving adequate
223 attention in India.Ultimately, the IRDP is no doubt, people-oriented programme aimed at improving the living
224 standard of ruralpeople in India.

225 **10 b) Wage Employment Programmes:**

226 As important components of the anti-poverty strategy, Wage Employment Programmes were designed to achieve
227 multiple objectives. Thus, they not only provide employment opportunities during lean agricultural seasons,
228 but also assist farmers during periods of floods, droughts and other natural calamites. Further,they create rural
229 infrastructures which also support economic activity in rural India.

230 These programmes, however, put an upward pressure on market wage rates by attracting people to public
231 works programmes. The essence is to reduce labour supply thereby pushing up the demand for labour in the
232 rural areas. It encompasses National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), and Rural Landless Employment
233 Guarantee Programme(RLEGP), which were initially part of the Sixth and Seventh Year Development Plan in
234 India (Rohini and Alakh, 2001). c) Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) and Food for Work Programme:

235 In India, the EAS was launched in October 1993 covering 1.778 drought-prone, desert, and tribal and hill
236 area blocks. It was later extended to all the blocks between 1997 and 1998. The EASwas designed to provide
237 employment to the youths in the form of manual worksduring lean agricultural seasons. The works taken up
238 under the programme were expected to lead to the creation of durable economic and social infrastructures thereby
239 addressing the critical needs of the people of India. Also, there is the Food for Work Programme which began
240 in the year 2000 as a component of the Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) in eight notified drought-affected
241 states of India. This programme was designed to boost food production in India so as to meet the country's
242 critical challenge of over-population.

243 However, food grains are supplied to states free of charge as part of measures to address the challenges of
244 poverty particularly in the Indian rural areas. It is important to note that lifting of food grains for the above
245 scheme from Food Corporation of India (FCI) has been slow largely due to bureaucratic bottlenecks.

246 **11 d) Rural Housing:**

247 This scheme was instituted in 1985 by the Indian Government. The Rural Housing Scheme is the core programme
248 for providing free housing to families in rural areas in India. Thus, it wasdesigned for Targets Scheduled Castes
249 (TSCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), Poor households and freed-bonded labourers. The rural housing programmehas
250 enabled some poor families in India to acquire pucca houses. However, the coverageof the beneficiaries is limited
251 given the availableresources in India. The Samagra Awas Yojana (SAY) was taken up in 25 blocks to ensure
252 convergence of housing, provision of safe drinking water, sanitation and common drainage facilities ??Aziz, 1995).

253 The Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) has extended its activities to rural areas in India
254 with a view to providing loans at a concessional rate of interest to economically weaker individuals. Thus, this
255 strategy has been extended to low-income group households to enable them acquire houses in the state. e) Social
256 Security Programmes:

257 The democratic decentralization and centrally supported National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) that
258 was launched in August 1995 marks a significant step towards the fulfillment of the Directive Principles of State
259 Policy in India. The NSAP has three components:

260 i. National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS) ii. National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBs), and iii. National
261 Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS)

262 The NSAP is a centrally-sponsored programme that aims at ensuring a minimum National Standard of Social
263 Assistance above the assistance that states provide to the aged. This include monthly pension of Rs.75 to
264 destituteabove the age of 65 years in Insi. The NFBs is a scheme designed for poor. Thus, such families are
265 given Rs. 10,000 by the government as a result of the death of their breadwinners.

266 The NMBS provides Rs. 500 to support nutritional intakes for pregnant women in India. In addition to
267 NSAP, the Annapurna Scheme was launched in April 2000 to provide food security to senior citizens who were
268 eligible for pension under NOAPS but could not receive it due to budget constraints in India (Rohini and Alakh,
269 2000:28).

270 **12 i. Land Reforms:**

271 In an agro-based economy, the structure of land ownership is central to the wellbeing of the people (Huang and
272 Ma, 2000). The Indian Government has strived with fair degree of objectivity to change the ownership pattern of
273 cultivable land in the state. The Furthermore, a land record management system is a pre-condition for effective
274 land reform programme in India. Thus, these policy measures were designed to reposition the urban and rural
275 areas to play critical role to national development in India.

276 ii. Agriculture: India is primarily an agriculture-based economy. Thus, agriculture contributes about 65
277 percent of the Gross Domestic Product of India. In order to increase the growth and development of agriculture
278 government continually encourages the skills in crafts, fisheries, poultry and diary farming.

14 VII. CONCLUSION

279 This strategy was in recognition of the fact that these ventures are primary contributors to the rural economy
280 of some developed countries in the world.

281 For instance, the Sampoorna Granin Yojana (SGRY) Scheme was established to increase food production by
282 means of wage employment in the rural areas, especially those adversely affected by the natural disasters.

283 Besides, the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act of 2005 was introduced by the Ministry of Rural
284 Development to improve the general wellbeing of the rural dwellers in India.

285 Apart from these policy instruments discussed above, other community organizations such as Farmers
286 Federation and Women Self-help Groups that facilitate the process of community-driven development also exist
287 in India. Thus, the Federation of Farmers Groups has considerably reduced the cost of agricultural inputs such as
288 seedlings, fertilizers, and pesticides. This was achieved through bulk purchases based on demand from member
289 initiations.

290 It is crucial to note that appropriate strategies are always adopted to ensure quality agricultural inputs are
291 supplied to farmers in India. These organizations have also contributed immensely to improved cropping and
292 farming techniques, rational use of fertilizers and the adoption of appropriate low-cost technologies in agricultural
293 practice in India. ??Rohini and Alakh, 2001:38).

294 However, in pursuance of the above strategy that the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development
295 of India was created in order to provide credit facilities for the development of crafts, agriculture, small scale
296 industries, village industries, rural crafts, cottage industries, and other related operations in the rural sector of
297 India.

298 13 VI. The Challenges of Rural Development Programme Im- 299 plementation in China and India

300 In spite of the impressive efforts made by China and India in rural development, these countries still face
301 some perceived challenges. In China in particular, one of the greatest problems militating against agriculture
302 and by extension, rural development programme, is the problem of "drought". The extended drought which
303 usually causes desertification and severe damage to crop production sometimes cascade development efforts and
304 programme implementation in the People's Republic of China.

305 Secondly, the traditional Chinese calendar outlines dates for planting specific crops and dates when illnesses
306 could be expected. However, China has not surmounted this age-long problem which adversely affects rural
307 development Programme implementation in the country. Also, however, large proportion of adults are usually
308 absent for long periods of time due to constant search for better paid employment in metropolitan centres across
309 the country. This has resulted to empty villages, unprecedented increase in the population of aged engaged
310 in agricultural production and its attendant consequent on productive enterprises in the country. Worse still,
311 the Chinese education policies which require village children to be educated in boarding schools have further
312 impacted negatively on agricultural production. This has further reduced the rural population and adversely
313 affected productive enterprises, particularly in the Chinese rural areas.

314 In India, some environmentally degraded states of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Nadya Pradesh and Rajasthan
315 are characterized by erratic rainfall, contaminated ground water and poor soil conditions which result to other
316 natural calamities. In India, lots of cultural practices/ belief systems adversely impact on rural development
317 policies and programmes. These factors adversely affect agricultural production and per capita income of the
318 people in China and India. These practices and beliefs need to be re-examined by the Indian Government in
319 order to reposition agriculture to play critical role to national development.

320 14 VII. Conclusion

321 The Chinese successful transition from a centrally planned economy to a socialist marked economy, with
322 geometrical growth in rural development was as a result of the institutionalization of formal and informal
323 structures that emphasized on skill acquisition, technology development and aggressive implementation of rural
324 development programmes. This aggressive drive in rural development is ultimately based on exhaustive village
325 level organizations such as Village Trust and Rotating Savings, Credit Organizations, Policy Loans Schemes,
326 among others. Also, small scale industries, technologists and farmers are the backbones of China's economy.
327 Thus, Similarly, the rural development approach in India is multi-dimensional. Its organizational elements
328 and programmes are area-based. As a result, rural development strategies are strictly anchored on a defined
329 population. Also, the Indian rural development reflects programme implementation and planning what could
330 best be described as long-term planning. Thus, the essence is to enable both the government and the people
331 pursue vigorously, rural development policy objectives in their best interests.

332 Indeed, these two countries (China and India) have made significant improvements in rural development
333 programme implementation in spite of some identified challenges in their areas. Hence, these gestures should be
334 emulated by other developing countries like Nigeria, Ghana, Benin Republic, South Africa, Mali, among others.
335 It is, therefore argued that if other development countries emulate the Chinese and Indian Strategies of rural
336 development programme implementation, it will go a long way to improve their national economy and the living
337 condition of their people.

338 15 VIII. Recommendations

339 In view of the impressive efforts hitherto made by these most world populated countries, this study makes
340 the following recommendations for China, India and other developing countries to enable them achieve their
341 policy goals on rural development: 1. Other developing countries should adopt the Chinese and Indian models
342 of rural development such as community-based organizations and aggressive rural financing organizations, in
343 the implementation of rural development policy objectives in their countries 2. It is recommended that the
344 Indian Government should abandon its superstitious beliefs since they appear to have adverse consequences
345 on the overall national development in the country. 3. The traditional Chinese calendar for planting specific
346 crops should be discouraged. Instead, new technology should be developed for crops to be planted at anytime
347 of the year (continuous cropping), irrespective of the traditional planting season. 4. The Government of China
348 should sanction officials who receive kickbacks from farmer before processing loan applications for them as this
349 is capable of hindering the rural development efforts by the government. 5. Modern dams and irrigation should
350 be constructed in China and India to boost agricultural production during drought in order to enhance the per
351 capita income of rural farmers in these countries.

352 6. Other developing countries particularly those in Africa, Asia and Latin America should involve NGO's in
353 their rural development efforts as it is the case in China and India. This will not only enhance agricultural
production but also address the challenges of food insecurity in their respective countries. ^{1 2 3 4}



Figure 1:

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