

**USMANU DANFODIYO UNIVERSITY, SOKOTO, NIGERIA
(POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL)**

**EFFECT OF PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY AND SOCIAL
DEVELOPMENT PROJECT ON RURAL LIVELIHOOD ENHANCEMENT
IN NORTH WEST, NIGERIA**

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Postgraduate School**

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved parents, Alhaji Haliru Sidi Muhammad and Malama Balkisu Haliru Sidi for their devotion and love in assisting me to pursue this study.

CERTIFICATION

This thesis by **Haliru**, Shamsuddeen Sidi has met the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABCD:	Asset- based Community Development
CBARDP:	Community Based Agricultural and Rural Development Project
CBNRMP:	Community Based Natural Resource management Programme
CBOs:	Community Based Organizations
CDA:	Community Development Association
CDD/R:	Community Driven Development/ reconstruction approach
CDD:	Community Driven Development
CDO:	Community Development Organization
CDPs:	Community Development Plans
CPMC:	Community Project Management Committee
CPRP:	Community-Based Poverty Reduction Project
CPS:	Community Project Strategy
CSDP:	Community and Social Development Project
DFID:	Department for International Development
DFRRI:	Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure
EIA:	Empowerment Impact Assessment

FCT:	Federal Capital Territory
FEAP:	Family Economic Advancement Programme
FGN:	Federal Government of Nigeria
FPSU:	Federal Project Support Unit
FSR:	Farming System Research
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GST:	General System Theory
HD:	Human Development
IDA:	International Development Association
IEG:	Independent Evaluation Group
IFAD:	International Fund for Agricultural Development
LEEMP:	Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project
LGA:	Local Government Area/Authority
LGRC:	Local Government Review Committee
LRC:	Livelihood Resource Center
NAFPP:	National Accelerated Food Production Programme
NAPEP:	National Poverty Eradication Programme

NBM:	Needs Based Model
NDDC:	Niger Delta Development Commission
NFDP II:	Second National <i>Fadama</i> Development Project
NFDP III:	Third National <i>Fadama</i> Development Project
NGO:	Non-Governmental Organization
ODA:	Overseas Development Administration
OFN:	Operation Feed the Nation
PAR:	Participatory Action Research
PDO:	Project Development Objectives
PPA:	Participatory Poverty Assessment
PRA:	Participatory Rural Appraisal
RBM:	Right Based Method
RRA:	Rapid Rural Appraisal
SA:	State Agency
SLA:	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SWM:	Sector Wide Model
USAID:	United State Agency for International Development

VGs: Vulnerable Groups

VIP: Ventilated Improved Pit

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to assess the effect of Participation in Community and Social Development on rural Livelihood enhancement in North West, Nigeria. Multistage sampling techniques were used to select CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries for the study. Data were collected from a total of 360 respondents using structured questionnaire. Data obtained was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The result showed that the age of the majority of respondents fell between 29-38 years for the beneficiaries and 39-48 years for the non-beneficiaries. Majority of the respondents were married (80.28%) from the pooled data and were male (81.11%). Approximately, 56.67% had one form of education or the other with beneficiaries more distributed in formal education. The major occupation for both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries was farming (69.17%). With regards to CSDP participation, majority (85.6%) of the beneficiaries participated in project planning stage, 65% in project preparation stage, 71.6% participated in project implementation stage while only 61.7% participated in project monitoring and evaluation stage. Participation level was rated high as majority (47.78%) of the beneficiaries participated in at least ten out of sixteen project cycle. Probit analysis showed that sex, marital status, education, monthly income and work experience were statistically related to the decision to participate in CSDP by the respondents. The double difference values was observed to be ₦92, 981.7 implying that productive assets increased more across the beneficiaries in comparison to the non-beneficiaries in the course of time. Improvement in living standard, community cohesion, increased school enrolment, reduction in water borne diseases and reduction in the distance covered to school and health centers were some of the

benefits beneficiaries derived from CSDP as a result of their participation. Among the challenges facing the CSDP beneficiaries includes high cost of materials, complex protocol, payment of counterpart funds and abandoned projects. The study concludes that CSDP is promising and therefore needs to be sustained. It is therefore recommended among others that CSDP and other non-governmental organizations should encourage non-benefiting communities to participate in the project through adequate sensitization and outreaches.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Approaches to development have been changing in recent years to reflect a new paradigm that emphasizes sustainability, institutional change and participatory learning process which promotes capacity building and empowerment of local people. The participation of local people in planning and managing their own development is a means of safeguarding their interest in the development process. By this, people decide their own priorities for the development and efficient use of their scarce resources which are competing for many alternative uses. They also exercise control over their own economic, social and cultural developments. Community participation in development activities was defined by Marsela (2015) as the process by which individuals, families or communities assume responsibility for their own welfare and develop a capacity to contribute to their own and the community development; it is an active process whereby beneficiaries influence the direct and execution of development. It is regarded as one of the cornerstone for good governance. Community participation helps to enhance accountability, transparency and ensure sustainability of development initiatives.

According to Udu and Onwe (2016), over 80% of the population of developing countries resides in the rural community. For this reason, community development efforts ought to be geared towards improving the living standard of the mass of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self-sustaining. In support of the above statement, Oyesola, (2013) also

reported that close to 80% of the population in Nigeria live in rural areas and are directly or indirectly involved in the use of land resources but majority of these rural dwellers are facing several problems, which reduces their productivity. Some of these problems include environmental constraints, infrastructural deficiencies, marketing problems, and technological constraints, institutional constraints, high cost of labour, inadequate agricultural incentive and lack of sustainable rural development programmes. This understanding, informed the community development efforts of successive governments in Nigeria targeted in the rural communities. However, most of the community development efforts failed to yield the desired results due to such factors as lack of background studies aimed at understanding the social and demographic characteristics of their target communities and groups, literacy level, pervasive poverty prevalent in those communities, hunger and disease, absence of infrastructure which improves the quality of life such as potable water, electricity and good feeder roads to mention but a few. This situation as argued by Udu (2014), has continued to result to a situation where there is visible mismatch between the community structure and the kind of empowerment programmes targeted at them.

Evidently, successive regimes in Nigeria have, at various periods initiated programmes aimed at addressing poverty, rural development and food security and their concomitant effects on the country. Such reforms aimed at solving the rural problems were, for example Operation Feed the Nation (1976); the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (1972) and the Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (1986). The contention of the policy makers is that rural infrastructure, if adequately provided, can enhance the quality of rural life.

The Federal Government of Nigeria, the World Bank and other international donor agencies such as the Department for International Development (DFID), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) saw the need for service delivery mechanisms that are demand-driven, covering multiple sectors and depending on the specific community determined needs. This led to policy designs to involve communities in the design, implementation and evaluation of their own development agenda known as the Community Driven Development (CDD).

In Nigeria, several projects have been implemented that seem successful using this approach as reported by Adejoh (2015). These include the: Second National Fadama Development Project (NFDP II Project, 2003-2009), Community-Based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP, 2001 - 2009), Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP, 2003 - 2009), Community-Based Agricultural and Rural Development Project (CBARDP, 2003 - 2010), Third National Fadama Development Project (NFDP-III, 2008 - 2017) and Community and Social Development Project (CSDP, 2009 to 2013).

The CDD approach has been propelled by its potential to develop projects and programmes that are sustainable and responsive to local priorities, empower local communities to manage and govern their own development programmes and more effectively target poor and vulnerable groups. This study therefore carried out to assess the impact of household's participation in Community and Social Development Project which uses the CDD approach.

1.2 Statements of the Problem

The importance of rural areas cannot be over emphasized. Rural areas are inhabited by the bulk of the nation's population; they serve as the base for the production of food and fibre. They are also the major sources of capital formation for the country, and a principal market for domestic manufactures (Olayiwola and Adeleye, 2005). In general terms, the rural areas engaged in primary activities that form the foundation for any economic development. Despite all these efforts, it is assumed that the rural people have benefited very little from most rural development programmes due to lack of awareness or insufficient community mobilization which has led to poor participation of community members in the provision of basic needs such as portable drinking water, good road network, health and educational facilities (Jonathan, 2017). Many of these infrastructures were concentrated in urban areas which to them are first point of contact of any nation. It was observed by Poul, Agba and Chukwurah (2014) that only in the wake of outbreaks of famine and various diseases which challenged the living condition of the urban dwellers that governments took up measures. Anele (2012) also observed that most rural dwellers in Nigeria obtained water from streams, wells, rivers and shallow ponds thereby predisposing themselves to incidences of water borne diseases. Epileptic electricity supply is a general problem in Nigeria but more pronounced in rural areas. Typically, in a month, electricity may be available only for 24 hours cumulatively, a situation that makes life in the rural areas difficult and unattractive to youths. Some villages are without electricity since their inceptions. Lack of motorable roads is another serious problem in the rural areas as a result of which many farmers go through difficult times to

evacuate their farm produce from the farm. The number of available health facilities in rural areas is generally low leading to high mortality. A sick person have to travel a long distance before he can access medical attention, and majority of the rural people live in object poverty.

For a long time, top-down planning was seen as the way to implement political choices in efforts to improve living standards in Nigeria. However, this effort had mainly led to the development of infrastructure that failed to match community needs and interest and thus unable to impact on socio-economic well-being of the rural dwellers, largely as a result of weak administrative capacity, lack of transparency and accountability in the use of public funds, the disconnect between the decision makers and beneficiaries and the lack of community-based project planning (Akinwalere and Ajibola, 2015). Many of the supposed beneficiaries did not benefit reasonably, neither did they have the feelings of ownership of the projects. Most projects also had low survival rate and lacked accountability. Even though poor communities have potentials to contribute to, identify, implement and sustain projects; they lack the requisite skills and funds.

As part of the 2005, 2007 Country Partnership Strategy (CPS), the Federal Government of Nigeria and the World Bank resolved to harmonize community development programmes funded by the World Bank in Nigeria. The process of the harmonization was to mobilize resources, optimally towards minimizing poverty rates in the country. As a result, the Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP) and the Community Based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP) were merged as a Social Development Approach. Hence, the inception of

the Community and Social Development Agency which has the mandates of addressing poverty and socio-economic development of the people (Udu and Onwe 2016). It is a bottom-up approach that seeks community participation in projects that are designed to alleviate poverty (Odishika and Adedeji, 2016). However, despite the efforts being made to ameliorate rural-urban dichotomy in areas of social development, ruralites are still being faced with enormous challenges. Little or no efforts were made to assess the effect of participation in Community and Social Development Project on rural livelihood enhancement in North West, Nigeria as a whole, hence the knowledge gap. Therefore, this study sought to provide answers to the following questions.

- i. What are the socio-economic characteristics of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in the study area?
- ii. What are the levels of participation in CSDP among the beneficiaries in the study area?
- iii. What is the influence of socio-economic characteristics of beneficiaries on their participation in CSDP?
- iv. What are the effect of CSDP on the livelihood assets of beneficiaries in the study area?
- v. What are the common livelihood activities of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in the study area?
- vi. What benefit did beneficiaries derived from participation in CSDP in the study area?

- vii. What are the challenges encountered by the beneficiaries while participating in the CSDP in the study area.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to assess the effect of participation in CSDP on rural livelihoods enhancement in North West Nigeria. The specific objectives of the study are to:

- i. describe the socio-economic characteristics of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in the study area.
- ii. find out the levels of participation in CSDP among the beneficiaries in the study area.
- iii. determine the influence of socio-economic characteristics of beneficiaries on their participation in CSDP.
- iv. investigate the effect of CSDP participation on the livelihood assets of beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in the study area.
- v. identify the common livelihood activities of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in the study area
- vi. know the benefits derived by beneficiaries from CSDP participation in the study area.
- vii. investigate the major challenges to the effective participation of beneficiaries in the CSDP.

1.4 Hypotheses of the study

The following hypotheses were tested:

Ho₁: Socio-economic characteristics have no significant influence on participation in Community and Social Development Project.

Ho₂: there is no significant difference in the livelihood assets of respondents before and after the projects.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The current emphasis placed on rural development and the increasing pressure to explore new approaches to reduce the incidences of poverty in communities, government initiated several developmental programmes since independence among which is Community and Social Development Projects (CSDP). This justified the need for an empirical study on the impact of CSDP on rural livelihood in the study area. The study is therefore intended to provide findings on the influence of some socio-economic characteristics of respondents on the level of their participation in CSDP, the impact of CSDP on the livelihood of respondents and also their perceptions on the effectiveness of CSDP. Studies have been conducted on different aspects of rural development, community driven development projects (CDD) and on the community and social development projects in different parts of Nigeria.

For instance, from the empirical studies reviewed by Akinwalere and Ajibola (2015) on 'Assessment of Rural Infrastructural Development Projects in Ondo State', they reported that majority of their respondents were fully involved in project identification, planning and implementing in their respective communities. They also showed that community participation and sustainability of infrastructural projects were significantly related. Similarly also, Okereke-Ejiogu (2015) reported that CSDP

in Imo State, Nigeria was perceived as very effective, fast at delivering results and it seems to be sustainable. Hidayat (2011) on 'The effectiveness of Community-based Development in Poverty Reduction: A Descriptive Analysis of a Women Managed NGO in Rural Pakistan', reported that the NGO's intervention on poverty reduction in Pakistan are well targeted towards the poor and are affecting change with regard to poverty reduction and women's empowerment. Odishika and Adedeji (2016) observed that the CDD projects promoted sustainability as the beneficiaries contributed cash/labour to the projects and this gave the people a sense of ownership. Umar (2013) also reported that Zamfara State CSDP agency has achieved a considerable success in meeting the overall development objective of sustainably increasing access of the poor to social and natural resource infrastructure services.

However, despite the efforts being made to ameliorate rural-urban dichotomy in areas of social development, ruralites are still being faced with enormous challenges. Little or no efforts were made to assess the effect of participation in Community and Social Development Project on rural livelihood enhancement in North Western Nigeria as a whole, hence the significance of this study. The findings from this study could be essential in contributing to the existing body of knowledge on CSDP participation by providing literature. The empirical information from this study could benefit policy makers in designing policies that could help enhance community access to social infrastructure development. It may be of benefit to researchers, Government agencies, Non-Governmental organizations and students as it will provide them with literature for further research. The findings will help Community and Social Development Project to evaluate their efforts in promoting

rural access to better life and enhancing livelihood. It will assist stakeholders to enhance rural infrastructural development and improving community participation strategy in CSDP. Researchers with keen interest in community participation, rural livelihood development and project sustainability, will find this study very useful.

1.6 Scope and Limitation of the study

This study focused on assessment of the effect of Community and Social Development Project on livelihood enhancement of beneficiaries in Northwest, Nigeria. It covered CSDP participating communities and non-participating communities which serves as treated and control communities selected from the participating States of the study area. One of the limitation of this study was the inability of the researcher to touch all aspect of livelihoods because of its broadness. However, the study was limited to physical capital, an aspect of livelihoods which deals with basic infrastructure needed to support livelihoods such as roads, portable water, affordable energy sources, schools and health facilities that are supported by the CSDP.

Spillover effect was another limitation encountered while selecting control communities. The researcher tried as much as possible to select communities that are far away from the treated communities to avoid spillover effect.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Concept of Community and Social Development Project (CSDP)

The Federal Government of Nigeria and the World Bank agreed as part of the 2005-2007 Country Partnership Strategy (CPS), to harmonize the World Bank funded projects in the country. This harmonization process is to ensure that resources are effectively and efficiency targeted in reducing poverty levels in the country. Two of the effected projects are: the Community-based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP) which started in 2001 and the Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP) which took off in 2004. The CPRP and LEEMP operate largely in rural communities and are quite similar in their approaches (utilization of the community driven development (CDD) approach in design, implementation and evaluation). However, there are marked differences in their mandate and tools.

The CPRP supported social infrastructure provisions while LEEMP was concerned with natural resources management issues and local empowerment. The Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) is therefore a scaled up of the pilot Community-based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP) and Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP) (Umar, 2013). The CSDP is an intervention building on the CPRP and the LEEMP structures to effectively target socio-economic and water resources management infrastructural projects at the community level as well as improve Local Government Area (LGA) responsibility to service delivery. The overall goal of the CSDP is to improve access to services for human development. To achieve this goal, the Project Development Objective

(PDO) is to support empowerment of communities and LGAs for sustainable increase in access of poor people to improved social and natural resource infrastructure (Olawaye, 2010).

Umar, (2013) reported that the Federal Government of Nigeria sought and obtained financial assistance from the International Development Association (IDA) of the World Bank Group to support the implementation of Community and Social Development Project (CSDP). The Project has been formulated and implemented in close partnership between the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN), and 26 States and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) in Nigeria. The States are: Abia, Adamawa, Akwa Ibom, Bauchi, Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, Edo, Ebonyi, Ekiti, Enugu, Gombe, Imo, Katsina, Kebbi, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Niger, Ondo, Osun, Oyo, Plateau, Taraba, Yobe, Zamfara and FCT.

2.1.1 Objectives of CSDP

The overall goal of the CSDP is to improve access to services for Human Development (HD). To achieve this goal, the Project Development Objective (PDO) is to support empowerment of communities and Local Government Authorities (LGAs) for the sustainable access of poor to improved social and natural resource infrastructure. The specific objectives of the CSDP are to:

- i. Empower communities to plan, part-finance, implement, monitor, and maintain sustainable and socially inclusive multi-sectoral micro-projects,

- ii. Facilitate and increase Community-Local Government Authorities partnership on Human Development-related projects,
- iii. Increase the capacity of LGAs, State and Federal Agencies to implement and monitor CDD policies and interventions, and
- iv. Leverage Federal, State and local government resources for greater coverage of CDD interventions in communities (CSDP Manual, 2011).

2.1.2 Project Components

The CSDP has three (3) major components to ensure that its overall objective is achieved through proper focusing on interventions in the twenty-six (26) participating States and Federal Project Support Unit. The components are:

2.1.2.1 Federal Level – Coordination and Program Support

This component is supervised by the Federal Ministry of Finance, while the direct responsibility for implementation rests with the Federal Project Support Unit (FPSU). A multi-sectoral Programme Advisory Committee chaired by the Federal Ministry of Finance and serviced by the FPSU supports the FPSU to implement the following subcomponents:

- i. technical support to State Agencies and Activities
- ii. CSDP monitoring and evaluation
- iii. poverty and CDD policy design and dissemination.

2.1.2.2 Local Government Area/Sectoral Ministries Capacity and Partnership Building

This component is implemented by the State Agencies in all participating States, and provides funding for capacity building, skill training and hardware types of investments to LGAs and sectoral ministries. The objective of this component is to establish and strengthen partnership between LGAs and communities.

2.1.2.3 Community-Driven Investments

This component is managed by the State Agencies. Funding is provided for Community Development Plans (CDPs) of selected communities, based on specific criteria, including broad-based community participation in plan formulation, micro-project identification and preparation, and a matching contribution from communities. Major activities in this component include:

- i. information campaigns on community selection, community development plans, agency goals and funding procedures;
- ii. support for community identification of needs and priorities and development of CDPs;
- iii. appraisal, approval, and funding of CDPs developed and implemented by community-based groups; and
- iv. monitoring and evaluating implementation of the CDPs and achievement of set objectives (CSDP 2009).

2.1.3 CSDP funding pattern

The total project cost for the five-year period is \$380m. Out of the total project cost, \$200m which represents about 53% of the project cost is IDA credit. The remaining 47% are contributions from Federal Government, State Government, LGAs, and final beneficiaries. The beneficiary contributions may be in cash or kind (which include land, materials, and labour) as well as time spent by the beneficiaries on sub-project processing activities (CSDP Manual, 2011).

2.1.4 CSDP Projects

The CSDP primarily finance CDPs which focus on projects initiated by communities, and for which they are expected to make at least 10% resource contributions, (contributions which may be in cash, kind, material or any combination thereof).

The CSDP is designed to support the development, appraisal, coordination, implementation, supervision and evaluation of community-based Plans and the provision of financial grants thereof for:

- i. upgrading and construction of infrastructure in the education, health, electricity and water sectors;
- ii. construction of rural feeder and access roads, bridges and multipurpose community infrastructure;
- iii. improved delivery of and access to, social and economic services, including a one-time supply of drugs which can be administered as a revolving drug scheme and desks for classrooms;

- iv. improved natural resource management services; and
- v. Provision of safety nets support.

2.1.4.1 Fundable (Eligible) Micro-Projects

These are demand-driven micro-projects that are eligible for assistance under this project. The micro-projects so qualified are to improve social facilities in communities, help strengthen sustainable environmental management and generally improve access of poor people to social and natural resources infrastructure. The eligible micro-projects are classified as physical, social, common economic infrastructure, environmental and natural resources management and safety net support. The projects are:

1. Physical Infrastructure

- i. Feeder roads: construction and rehabilitation
- ii. Culverts, bridges, drifts and stock routes
- iii. Boreholes (with or without pumps)
- iv. Deep open concrete cement well

2. Social Infrastructure

- i. Health facilities
- ii. Potable water supply facilities
- iii. Rural electrification
- iv. Construction and rehabilitation of primary and secondary schools, dormitory blocks and classrooms, staff quarters, laboratories.
- v. Ventilated Improved Pit (VIP) toilets

- vi. Television viewing centers
- vii. Civic centers
- viii. Water transportation (provision of engine boats, speed boats, etc)

3. Other Infrastructure

- i. Rural market facilities
- ii. Vocational training centers (skill development centers)
- iii. Community common facilities

4. Environmental and Natural Resources Management

- i. Soil conservation /erosion control/flood control.
- ii. Agro-forestry.
- iii. Desertification control.
- iv. Water catchments systems.
- v. Drainage systems.
- vi. Community woodlots, using indigenous species, including woodlots for fuel wood.
- vii. Decentralized nurseries raising seedlings of economic trees, indigenous tree/grass species and medicinal plants.

5. Safety Net Support

- i. Strong support will be given to priority projects identified by vulnerable groups (VGs) as well as special consideration for identified poor vulnerable community members to enable them access to improved social and natural resource infrastructure services (CSDP Manual, 2011).

2.1.5 Institutional structure of CSDP

The linkages between the various institutions managing CSDP is used as proxy for the structure of the CSDP. These institutions are the funding agencies, Federal

Government, State Government, Local Government, and Community institutions. The CSDP is managed at the state level by a state agency under the supervision of Federal Government and the funding agency. The state agency is responsible for the implementation of the project.

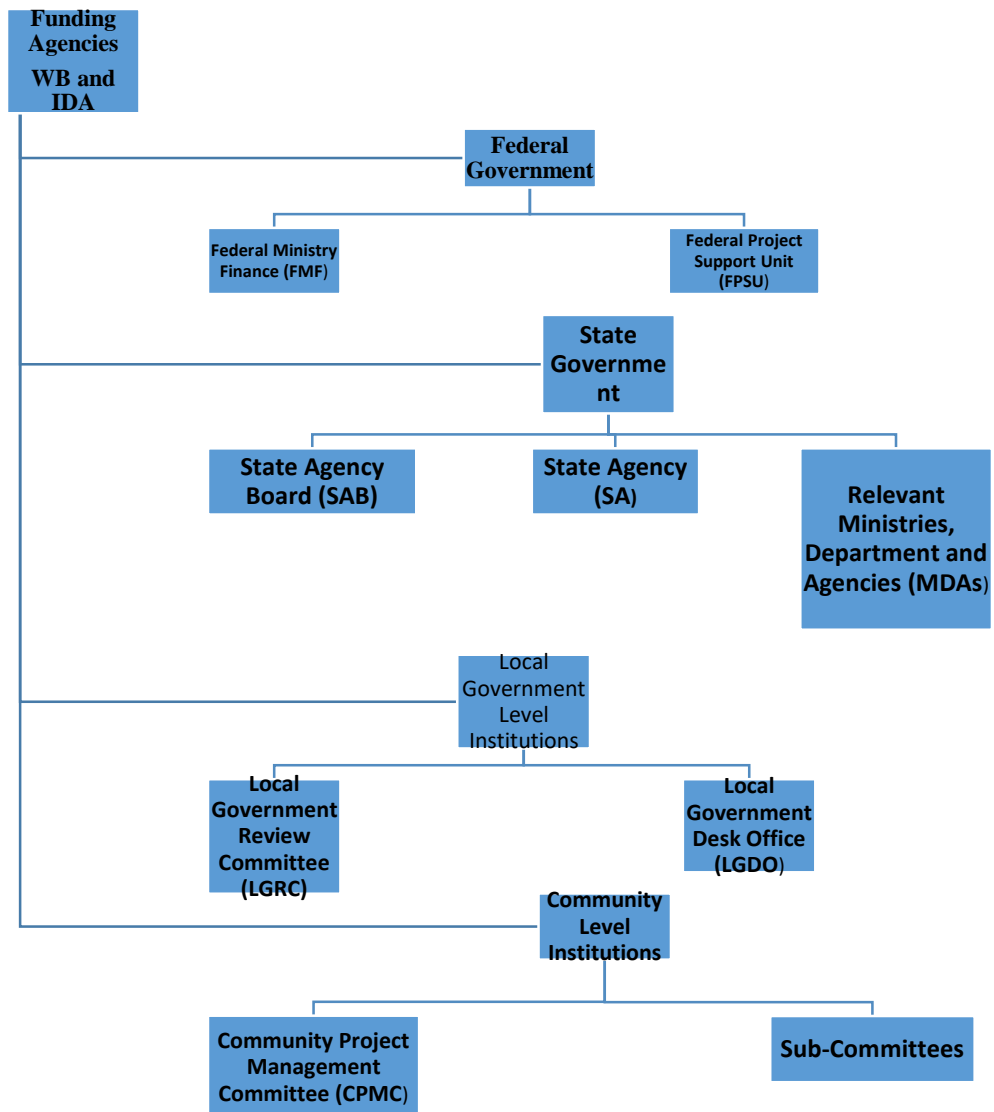


Figure 1. Institutional Structure of CSDP

2.1.6 Criteria for State Participation

- i. All States of the Federation and the FCT are eligible to participate in the project;
- ii. State should express interest in the CSDP, set up an autonomous managing agency, free from the state bureaucracy but integrated into the governance system.
- iii. State should recruit competent staff into the agency in agreement with funding partners;
- iv. States should be willing to pay contributions as agreed with the funding agency;
- v. States should be willing to adopt a community-driven approach that would involve the decentralization of decision-making responsibility and control, and authority over financial resources, to beneficiary communities;
- vi. States should be willing to actively involve and build capacity of LGAs;
- vii. States should be prepared to partner with LGAs for reviews, supervision and monitoring of micro-project proposals emerging from beneficiary communities (CSDP Appraisal Document, 2009).

2.1.6.1 Criteria for selecting participating LGAs

Under the CSDP, LGAs shall be strengthened to be in position to provide assistance in sensitizing communities and mobilizing own resources and working with State Agency (SA) and NGO technical staff to provide technical assistance to

communities. The CSDP machinery at the LGA level – which is the Local Government Review Committee, shall recommend CDPs to SA for funding and participate in supervision, monitoring; and evaluation. The conditions for LGAs participation include:

- i. Willingness to set up a Local Government Review Committee (LGRC) backed by an edict or bye-law, and whose activities are funded by the LGA;
- ii. LGAs should be willing to allow communities take decisions, maintain, control and have authority over financial resources for the project;
- iii. LGAs should be willing to actively involved in the sensitization and capacity building of the communities
- iv. LGAs should be willing to support recurrent costs of community micro projects in order to ensure sustainability and effective service delivery (CSDP Manual, 2011).

2.1.6.2 Community Selection Criteria

For the purpose of the CSDP project, all communities are considered poor and eligible to submit proposals for funding if:

- i. it is rural (following the existing State Government classification of areas as rural, semi-urban and urban) or
- ii. It lacks any infrastructure or social amenity that falls within the list of projects normally financed by the SA; or the one(s) available, are in state of disrepair or inadequate in meeting the community requirements.
- iii. Willingness to contribute to the financing of the micro projects in the Community development plan.

- iv. In addition, State / LGA poverty maps will be used in deciding which communities to be prioritized as the programme continue (CSDP Manual, 2011).

2.1.7 Roles and Responsibilities of CSDP Stakeholders

2.1.7.1 Local Government Review Committee (LGRC)

The LGRC is primarily charged with serving as the clearing house for community development plans and their integration to the LGA plans. There will be seven (7) voting members in the Committee, four of whom will be representatives of non-government sectors. The Chairman of the Committee should be the Director, personnel management of the LGA.

Voting members will include the following:

- i. The Director, Personnel Management
- ii. 2 representatives of the LGA council (one from each party: ruling and main opposition party at the LGA level will nominate its own representative)
- iii. 4 representatives of the community including 1 traditional ruler, (such as the chairman of the council of chiefs/traditional rulers council at the LGA or designate);
- iv. 2 representatives of Community Development Associations, one of whom must be a woman; and, a representatives of the local youth association

However, representative of technical departments at the LGA would be invited when matters relating to their departments are being discussed. A quorum of 5 is required for an acceptable review. Their tenure shall be on part-time basis. However, their services would be facilitated by the LGA for the duration of the project.

The LGRC shall be responsible to:

- i. Sensitize and mobilize local leaders, wards and villages;
- ii. Liaise and seek technical advice from the SA;
- iii. Monitor and ensure compliance to CSDP guidelines in the implementation of community projects;
- iv. Resolve conflicts amongst communities;
- v. Review CDPs and make recommendations to SA;
- vi. Ensure consistency between CSDP activities and local government plans;
- vii. Identify and follow-up on community priorities on the negative list;
- viii. Ensure compliance with environmental and social safeguard;
- ix. Update the LGA executive and councillors;
- x. Undertake quarterly review of project performance in LGA;
- xi. Submit report to SA on LGA opinion of the project.
- xii. Advocate for replication and adoption of CDD activities in other communities.

2.1.7.2 LGRC Desk Office

The LGRC would be serviced by a LGRC Desk office, which shall be its secretariat and would comprise the following LGA civil servants:

- i. The LGA Community Development Officer (CDO) will serve as the link between the review committee and the community. .
- ii. The LGA Planning and/or Finance officer will provide information and input regarding the annual budget plan for the LGA so that the committee can identify synergies with LGA development plans.

- iii. The Environmental Officer, who should be a natural resource based personnel, will ensure that the environmental safeguards and issues are acknowledged and addressed with each micro-project.

The CDO would serve as the Desk Officer/LGRC Secretary. However, LGAs are free to appoint the Secretary of the LGRC from any of the above, if the position of CDO does not exist, any of the above officers could provide the required leadership.

The responsibilities of the LGRC Desk office are:

- i. Participate in community mobilization/facilitation;
- ii. Coordinate, and participate in LGRC meetings;
- iii. Consolidate community requirements from CDPs/LGA;
- iv. Prepare annual budgets for the operations of the LGRC for local government funding;
- v. Prepare and submit monitoring report to LGRC;
- vi. Ensure environmental mainstreaming;
- vii. Supervise the works conducted by the community;
- viii. Submit proposals to LGRC micro-projects in the negative list;
- ix. Participate in SA organized CDP technical/field appraisals and supervision missions;
- x. Serve as Secretariat of LGRC;
- xi. Advocate and support SSN fee waiver program

Service standards to meet for approving Community Development Plans (CDPs) include:

- i. Duration for CDP Desk reviews- 1 week
- ii. Integrating CDPs into LGA plans;
- iii. Timeliness of processing receipts to SA and tranche releases; and
- iv. Timely report submission.

The LGRC shall be responsible for timely review and processing of submissions of CPMC and shall also ensure adherence to laid down procedures for CSDP implementation.

2.1.7.3 Community Projects Management Committee (CPMC)

The CPMC shall be responsible for the facilitation, formulation, implementation and management of the CDP. However, in communities where vulnerable groups are beneficiaries of targeted social safety nets mechanisms, the latter would be responsible for implementing them, while the CPMC would supervise and monitor the implementation of the micro-projects. The CPMC would be made up of a Chairman, Vice Chairman, Treasurer, Financial Secretary, Secretary, Assistant Secretary, PRO and Auditor. Female community members are encouraged to be well represented, with no less than 3 membership being made up of women one of which should be a signatory to the CPMC account. This must be standard in all communities embarking on micro-project implementation and undertaking direct financing. The specific responsibility of the CPMCs are highlighted below

- i. Deepen sensitization and mobilization of the entire community members;
- ii. Consolidate community development plans (CDPs)
- iii. Submit and defend community plans to LGRC ;

- iv. mobilize community contribution in term of labour, materials and funds for micro-project implementation
- v. Procure needed goods/services for micro-projects, through a Procurement Sub-Committee
- vi. Maintain financial records;
- vii. Collect and collate information and data requirement
- viii. Conduct monthly review meeting of project activities
- ix. Submit and display required CDP progress reports (monthly, quarterly etc)
- x. Implement sanctions;
- xi. Promote and disseminate information on CSDP.
- xii. Ensure implementation of environmental and social safeguards;
- xiii. Formulate Operations and Maintenance Plan and ensure appropriate resources are mobilized;
- xiv. Maintain and operate community project account;
- xv. Ensure timely returns on expenditure for the replenishment of community project account.

2.1.7.4 Community Development Association (CDA):

The Community Development Association (CDA) is the existing umbrella community based organization that oversees the development needs of the entire community. It is made up of all the indigenes of the community and it is the framework for implementing all community development efforts e.g. organizing self-help groups, conducting sanitation, building of schools and construction of roads, amongst others. The specific roles and responsibilities of the CDA include:

- i. ensure Community participation by mobilizing, sensitizing community members;
- ii. organize election of CPMC members;
- iii. register the CPMC as a separate entity with the Local Government Authority;
- iv. open a separate Bank Account to be operated by the CPMC;
- v. oversight responsibility on CDP formulation and endorsement.
- vi. supervise and monitor Micro-projects
- vii. adoption and enforcement of necessary social regulations on environmental natural resources management.
- viii. endorse the O & M plan;
- ix. serve as conflict resolution organ for the community especially amongst various user groups; and
- x. sanction erring CPMC members as would be determined by general community assembly.

2.2 Concept of Community and Rural Development

Rural development from a general point of view is the process of improving the quality of life and economic wellbeing of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas (Adebayo, 2000) which are also known as rural areas. However, despite strategies put in place in form of projects provided for rural people, many do not benefit because of their non-involvement in the project planning process and implementation hence, the emphasis on community participation in rural development project. Rural development is more realistic when people participate in

the process of infrastructure provision because at the heart of rural development projects are infrastructures and for the overall goals and objectives to be met, the principle for effective community participation must be adapted (Idachaba and Bankole, 2006).

Community participation as a development approach for rural socioeconomic development is an alternative to the top – down approach which has failed to yield the desired result because rural dwellers who are target beneficiaries were not carried along initially (Bankole, 2006). The term has been conceptualized in different ways in the literature as either public, people or citizen participation, however they all have the same focus, which is rural development (Oakley, 1991 and Afolayan, 2008). Participation is all about inclusiveness, social justice and common good which shows that rural development is community based when people in communities determine their needs and aspiration. This is because it is realized that by so doing large numbers of marginalized rural people can be reached effectively by the government and other types of developmental projects supported by international agencies like Food and Agricultural Organization and World Health Organization (FAO and WHO, 1991).

The improvement in living standard of people through popular participation is thus central to the concept of rural development (Adedayo, Taiwo and Medupin, 1991). Therefore, community participation serves as pivot for whatever successful process rural development is trying to achieve in rural communities. Rural infrastructures are indeed the pivot of rural development because they increase rural productivity and income, improve rural living conditions and facilitate spatial integration of rural

settlements into national development landscape (Bankole, 2006). Rural development is achieved through tangible projects and resource distribution.

Community development combines the idea of “community” with “development”. Community is define as a group of people with a shared identity. Hence, community development relies on interaction between people and joint action, rather than individual activity – what some sociologists call “collective agency” (Flora and Flora, 1993). Development is a process that increases choices. It means new options, diversification, thinking about apparent issues differently and anticipating change (Christenson and Bobinson. 1989). Development involves change, improvement and vitality – a directed attempt to improve participation, flexibility, equity, attitudes, the function of institutions and the quality of life. It is the creation of wealth – wealth meaning the things people value, not just dollars (Shaffer, 1989). It leads to a net addition to community assets, avoiding the zero sum situation where a job created here, is a job lost there.

Putting the two terms together – community development – means that a community itself engages in a process aimed at improving the social, economic and environmental situation of the community.

The community is both the means and the end of community development. The community itself takes action and participates together. It is through this action that the community becomes more vital, not just economically but as a strong functioning community in itself. Community development improves the ability of communities to collectively make better decisions about the use of resources such as infrastructure, labour and knowledge.

The key elements of community development are expressed to varying degrees in many definitions. Some key descriptions are as follows:

- i. For community development to occur, people in a community must believe working together can make a difference and organize to address their shared needs collectively (Flora *et.al.* 1992).
- ii. Community development is a group of people in a community reaching a decision to initiate a social action process to change their economic, social, cultural and environmental situation (Christenson and Bobinson, 1989).
- iii. Community development is a process that increases choices. It creates an environment where people can exercise their full potential to lead productive, creative lives.
- iv. Community development is a process where people are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities and communities are integrated into the life of the nation enabling them to contribute fully to national progress. – (United Nations, 1999)
- v. Community capacity is the combined influence of a community's commitment, resources and skills that can be deployed to build on community strengths and address community problems and opportunities – (Aspen Institute, 2000).
- vi. Community vitality is the capacity of the local socio-economic system to survive and persist in generating employment, income, and wealth and to maintain if not improve its relative economic position (Shaffer, 1989).

- vii. Community economic development is about identifying and harnessing local community resources and opportunities and stimulating sustainable economic and employment activity (Kenyon, 1994).
- viii. Sanders (1958) saw community development as a process moving from stage to stage; a method of working towards a goal; a program of procedures and as a movement sweeping people up in emotion and belief.
- ix. Community is a people living in a common locality having shared (common) interest and behavioral patterns. It implies people who have common problems and goals. People live in community by virtue of the things they have in common. These include; aims, belief, and aspirations as knowledge (Hashim, 2014).

Whereas, the term development has been defined by Zaki (2003) as a multi-dimensional process involving changes in structures, attitudes and institutions as well as accelerations of economic growth, reduction of inequality and eradication of absolute poverty.

Development according to Hashim (2014) is a continuous process of generating and efficiently allocating resources for achieving great socially, satisfying needs. Furthermore he asserted that, development essentially comprises of two inter-related components, which are increasing the available resources in a country and improving the utility of these resources. In principles, national development is not normally left to chance; but marshaled through concerted and planned efforts guided by plans and strategies. Within the structure of national development, the special attention being

paid to community and agricultural development evolved from early thoughts on the role of agricultural industrialization.

Community development is therefore projects initiated or with the active participation of the inhabitants of a locality, which are intended to benefit them collectively. The projects may concern education, social welfare, health, infrastructure such as roads, wells, irrigation farming, manufacture or commerce. While much of the benefit may accrue to individual families the projects are intended to enhance the community as a whole, in self-confidence and political skills, for more tangible (Sanderson and Palson, 1989).

Anyanwu (1999) perceived community development as a process in the life of a community, by which the people plan and act together for the satisfaction of their felt needs. Its primary purpose is to bring about change for better living through the willingness and cooperation of people. Self-help as the main end product of community; as a movement it enables people to exploit to their advantage, the resource which would otherwise be dormant (unexploited). Self-help is a weapon for survival in any community of the present day world. It is line with this that; the old maxim says that it is better to try and fail than never try at all'. But, failure is seldom accepted so philosophically. Disappointment, frustration and apathy may follow more often than patience especially when a group has failed in an attempt to help its own community

For community development to occur, people in a community must believe working together can make a difference and organize to address their shared needs

collectively. Community development is an attempt by a group of people in a community reaching a decision to initiate a social action process to change their economic, social, cultural and environmental situation. It is a process that increases choices. It creates an environment where people can exercise their full potential to lead productive and creative lives (Hashim, 2014). Community development is a process where people are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities and are integrated into the life of the nation enabling them to contribute fully to nations 'building. Community capacity is the combined influence of a community's commitment, resources and skills that can be deployed to build on community strengths and address community problems and opportunities (Aspen Institute, 2000).

Anyanwu (1999) enumerated seven aims and objectives of any Community development efforts namely:- to educate and motivate people for self-help; to develop responsible local leadership; to implicate a sense of citizenship and spirit of consciousness; to introduce and strengthen democracy as a grassroots level; to initiate self-generative, self-sustaining and enduring process growth; to enable people to establish and maintain cooperative relationship and to bring about gradual and self-choosing changes in the life of the community.

2.3 Community Development Process

The key to community development is facilitating a community in applying the principles to guide a flexible series of actions that are appropriate for the situation of the community. There are many "models" and frameworks for community development processes. There is a trade-off between communities having clear

future plans for steps in the process and retaining flexibility and versatility. These steps are not prescriptive, but they rather describe the usual stages that most communities go through during a versatile process of community development. Communities may not progress through all the steps and some may occur concurrently. Aspen Institute (1996) itemized some stages in community development process, and thus presented below.

2.3.1 Stages in Community Development Process

1. Community Preparedness

Communities need to have some of the key ingredients for a development process – motivation, local leadership, a sense of ownership. Not all communities are interested in, or prepared for, undertaking a process of community development. At any one time, only a few communities may see the need, or have people motivated to organize and lead the community in development activities. Communities may have only a couple of the ingredients for success.

2. Bubbling Concerns

Community development processes develop from a situation where issues and concerns are bubbling around. People are concerned, enthusiastic, motivated, frustrated. Private troubles become public concerns as people share issues that matter to them individually. People may begin to see some advantage for them in community improvement. They also may have altruistic feelings of contributing to the welfare of the whole community.

3. Stimulus

Often, a stimulus brings the bubbling situation to a head. A local crisis, such as a mine closing or business leaving town sparks community action. A local leader, a local community group or several concerned citizens may galvanize community action. Outside input such as a visit by a community facilitator, hearing what another community has done, or a visit by local people to a conference may stimulate action. In prepared communities even an impassioned speech may turn concern to action.

4. Initial Organization and Involvement

After a stimulus often the first step is an event that brings the community together – usually at a public meeting or forum. At this point, community representatives may invite a facilitator or resource person into the community to help with suggestions, information and the process itself. Some community members may have a clear idea of what is needed or what they want to do. Others may simply want to do something to improve their community but are not sure what.

5. Engagement and Issues Identification

After some initial organization, a key step is activities to engage local people and give as diverse range of citizens the opportunity to be involved. Engagement of people occurs throughout a community development process, but it is crucial to actively foster involvement early in the process.

2.4 Principles of Community Development

The following are the major principles guiding any community development work as outlined by Hashim (2014) as follows:

- i. Principle of self-help: This is the main end product of community development that enables people to exploit to their advantages the resources which could otherwise be dormant. It makes use of underutilized labour; increase the component and confidence of a community in the handling of its affairs. Self-help constitute a prerequisite for survival in the modern world. It enables people to change the way they look at their responsibilities, and help them to cultivate the sense of local initiative and effort. It also enhances the development of democratic values and processes; promote the idea of ultimate control by the people; foster a substantial degree of freedom by individual and groups; leads to a considerable amount of government decentralization and promotes widespread citizens participation.
- ii. The Principles of felt needs: This stresses that people must be able to identify what they want to do in order to achieve their desired development. This is possible if they are able to understand in their ways obstacles to progress, and are able to do something to remove them. This obstacle is known as the problem of such community. The idea of need arise from the lack of absence of something which is in the opinion of such population, would facilitate the improvement of the welfare of the people in that community if it has been present or available. Hence anything, which may be considered essential for the maintenance of a desire state of affairs, is a

need. A need, therefore, represents an imbalance or lack of adjustment or lack of adjustment between a present situation or condition, and a new or changing set of condition assumed to be more desirable. A need, therefore, exposes the problem, as it applies a gap between the two conditions of what really exist and what should preferably exist in the life of a community.

- iii. The Principle of citizens participation: This principle is deeply inherent in the very concept of Community development, which enjoys that whatever is done to improve the welfare of the people must endeavor to elicit the enthusiasm and wholehearted participation of such a people. The idea of participation as it relates to Community development strongly implies that, the success is assured where the effort of a local community is supplemented or aroused by the direction of governmental authorities. This idea portrays community development as a cooperation or partnership in progress. The principle stipulates that, the local people should take part in planning, execution, utilization and assessment of the social amenities or facilities designed to improve their welfare (Hashim, 2014).
- iv. The Principle of self-growth: This principle maintains that a community does not have to accept, or even to wait to have a ready-made solution to its problems, perhaps worked out by outsiders who have no connection with the community. It has to be able, through constant practice, to diagnose its own problem. And to initiate action towards finding solution to such problems. In this process, the community should strive to rely, as much as possible, on its own resources. It is such reliance on the resources of the community that

leads to an appreciation and good management by its members of what external resource that may be infused, from time to time, into the community efforts, either by government or external specialized agencies such as NGOs. Self-reliant citizenry capable of developing a stable responsive and the satisfaction of the needs of this they can achieve through putting in checks and limitations; human weakness and the social institutional constraints that can militate against the use of natural resources. This means that, the development of communities should accommodate the integration of the various aspects of community importance such as agriculture, health, nutrition, family life, education, training and appropriate technologies (Hashim, 2014).

2.5 Community Development Programme Activities

Community development covered a wide range of areas in which it operates and these areas varies with the identified peoples' felt needs in particular area in time. According to Gunjan (2011) Community development programmes can be categorized into the following areas:-

- i. Education Projects: These involves campaign against illiteracy; conducting extra moral classes for adults under the auspices of the Ministry of Education or local government, family education for women, building of schools and staff quarters, agricultural education.
- ii. Health Projects: These include public health campaign, preventive and curative health care etc. Construction of health centers, employment of dispensary staff.

- iii. Economic Programmes: These can be in form of cooperative shops and market, local banking system.
- iv. Others: Construction of main roads, culverts and bridges, rural electrification, town halls, boreholes, or pipe-borne water. Community development also involve s recreational activities which could help to improve the communal relationship example, local festivals, wrestling contest, community day.

2.6 Importance of Community Development

There are many importance of community development to the beneficiaries of such programmes and projects. Livingstone (2008) explained some of this significance of community development as the re-educational and attitudinal re-orientation of the populace in the direction of community self-help. Another purpose which community development has used to serve is an educational one – the teaching of the use of the available materials, culture, roads water supply, telephone, toilets, radio etc. unless our people know how to use what is provided, a lot of money may go down and many have social change without social progress. One other purpose which has been served through community development is leadership training on wide range of thoughts. At every stage, such trainings involved people while carrying on a project. And motivation of identification of the felt needs, design of projects and motivation of population for the work and evaluation of the executed projects, participants acquire informal but practical training in management and leadership, participation in community development activities assists adults in the development of their personnel abilities and the encouragement of social

responsibilities, all of which are essential for leadership. Through the community development, adult members are consciously involved in grass-roots development especially of rural areas. The involvements are active participation of the adults in concrete manifestation that adult, if given the necessary motivation and opportunity, can utilize their talents and acquired skills in the services of the fellow men.

2.7 Existing Institutional Designs Used in Community Development

Kimenyi, Deressa, Pigliese, Onwuemele and Mendie (2014) reported that development intervention programmes are based on three types of institutional arrangements:

- i. Implementation and organization by government or nongovernmental organizations (top-down);
- ii. A mix of government and community-led implementation and consultation;
and
- iii. Community-based or community driven implementation (bottom-up).

2.7.1 Top-Down Approaches to Development

In the top-down arrangement, problems or priorities for intervention are selected by experts with little or no participation from beneficiaries. Rules and regulations are initially set by the implementing organizations and followed during the course of implementation. One of the arguments for the need of this type of institutional arrangement is that an external agent is necessary to prevent the tragedy of the commons (Kimenyi *et.al* 2014).

The sector-wide model (SWM) and needs-based model (NBM) are two examples of top-down approaches. The SWM is coordinated jointly by governments and donors in sectors and/or countries that are highly dependent on funds from foreign countries. According to Farrington (2001), funding for the sector, whether internal or from donors, typically supports a single policy and expenditure program. The government has the greater share of ownership and control of its funding than the beneficiaries of the approach. The SWM aims to develop institutional processes for the community, including planning, management, accountability and finances associated with national sector policies. Thus, the SWM provides an integrated approach based on a regulatory framework to manage collective resources for equitable development (based on accessibility due to gender, geographic location, social group). The needs based model assumes that community development should start with an outside evaluation of deficiencies in communities and external determination of how to fix the problems. In the process, experts quantify the needs for local services, schools, businesses, etc. Since poor communities are defined by these deficits, experts assess their needs and shortcomings using the needs-based model as a channel for breaking their cycle of poverty, dependency and despair, and achieving self-sufficiency. Technical assistance is delivered through top-down policies under the supervision of expert knowledge (Farrington, 2001).

Kimenyi *et.al*, (2014) also observed that the SWM and NBM have been widely adopted in the North Western Region. The Ministries of Local Government and Community Development in the region and other related agencies is an example of the SWM community development approach within the North Western region.

Critics have questioned whether the quality of peoples' lives has improved. They point to the increasing incidence of incomplete and abandoned development projects in the region. Additionally, critics emphasize that the top-down approach is prone to many operational and sustainability constraints. Some of the challenges with the top-down approach include: rent-seeking behavior when developing regulations; agency capture by rent-seeking groups; inefficiency in management; absence of accountability through government mechanisms; aid dependency syndrome; lack of local participation and failure of understanding local priorities; and a lack of sustainability when funding or technical assistance is no longer available.

2.7.2 Mixed Government and Community-Led Projects

The mixed community and government framework is usually applied when communities and government bodies share responsibilities on development projects. For instance, in school development projects, communities can engage in the building of schools either through the provision of funding or labor while governments place and pay teachers. These types of mixed approaches are common in development projects such as soil and water conservation, rural road construction and natural resources conservation (especially forest resources). The Community Based Natural Resource Management Programme (CBNRMP), supported and funded by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), the federal government of Nigeria, the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) and the Cross River state government, is an example of the mixed approach. CBNRMP assists rural communities in the provision of wells, agro-processing equipment, road construction, seed nurseries and farm inputs (Kimenyi *et.al* 2014).

2.7.3 Community-Driven or Bottom-Up Approaches

Community-driven or bottom-up approaches to development are based on the premise of community ownership and responsibility for the planning, implementation and monitoring of development projects (Gillespie, 2004). Community-driven development models are consistent with the theory presented by Ostrom (1994) that, given the right conditions, communities will effectively manage their common pool resources and avoid the tragedy of the commons (i.e., overuse or mismanagement). There are different versions of bottom-up models used in community development. Some of these include: the community-driven development/reconstruction approach (CDD/R), the asset-based community development approach (ABCD), the rights-based model (RBM) and the sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA).

CDD/R is the framework used by the World Bank group to reach the poor in the context of weak or fragile states, in post-conflict or post-disaster managements, or in areas with poor track records of service delivery within the government system (Wong, 2012). ABCD starts with an inventory of the community, such as the capacities and assets of local individuals, associations and institutions, rather than focusing on its needs or deficiencies. The idea behind ABCD is that the identification of assets and resources within a community can empower communities that have typically been viewed as needing help from outside the community (Kretzmann and McKnight, 1993). The RBM focuses on empowering communities to exercise and claim their rights, and enable those responsible to fulfill their duties. These rights include civil and political rights (such as freedom of speech, political

affiliation and assembly) as well as social, cultural and economic rights (such as access to land, shelter, education and health) (DFID, 2001). Community participation and empowerment are the key aspects of the SLA approach. According to Krantz (2001), it emphasizes the use of household skills and assets to avoid, withstand and recover from any shocks.

One weakness of bottom-up frameworks include further marginalization of the poor: Bottom-up frameworks are prone to elite control and competition with government programs and so face difficulties associated with scaling-up and sustainability (Gunjan, 2011; Platteau and Gaspart, 2003). Problems with the bottom-up approach are mainly associated with the termination of external funding before projects become financially self-sufficient.

2.8 Community Participation

Development policies world over seek to improve the living standards of the rural communities. This has been perceived to be a positive move particularly in the developing countries where majority of the population live in rural areas, (Kimani and Kombo, 2011). It is in rural areas where the bulk of the foreign exchange and investment surplus are produced (UNDP, 2004).

During the 1980s, worldwide economic recession and external debt forced many countries to cut back development programmes and instead give priority to structural adjustment. In the process, the number of rural poor has risen (World Bank, 2003). The result has been an increase in unemployment and poverty in countryside, causing mass exodus of rural people to the already over-crowded cities, with

potentially explosive consequences. The international community has been seeking new strategies to revitalize rural development. One such a strategy is people's participation in the development process. This means that development efforts must aim at releasing the energies of rural people and fully guarantee their share in the fruits of their efforts. This can only be achieved by enabling the poor to take charge of their lives, make full use of resources and manage their own development activities. However, for proper development to occur, motivation, knowledge, skills, organization and willingness of the people have to be tapped. In this respect, people's will in their development process is paramount. It is, however recognized that the mobilization of the people has been the most obvious problem facing development process in many countries (UNDP, 2004).

Community participation in rural development involves an act of sharing common to all participants as stakeholders of the development process. In this case, each participant is directed towards a specific goal, which is shared by others within the development process.

This is what is defined as popular participation in the development process, and which has been thought to be a positive move in the running of affairs that directly concern and affect people (Adeyemo *et.al*, 2014). Internationally, there have been some attempts to operationalize and extend the participation of people in rural areas' development process. Over the years, participatory development approach has been a major concern for United Nations Agencies such as the International Labour Organization (ILO), World Health Organization (WHO), Food and Agriculture and

Development (IFAO) and United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

Since 1970s, for instance, the ILO assistance to rural workers organizations and support for their educational activities to bring about effective participation has been important programmes. As early as 1976, World Employment Conference (WEC) identified issues of basic needs and the crucial role of participation programmes in the improvement of rural life. Similarly in a conference held in Alma-Ata, USSR, in 1978, WHO stressed the importance of community participation in extending primary health care. In their programmes UNESCO is known to involve the beneficiaries and other stakeholders in their development programmes, since 1970s.

Outside the United Nation's systems, promotion of people's development process has become a major plank of activities of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Community and Faith Based Organizations. In Africa, the participatory theme in the development process has become very prominent, such that development is virtually defined in terms of people's participation. As early as 1978, in a conference organized by UNESCO in Lima, Peru, African governments were encouraged to allow small-scale farmers to participate in rural development policies, and decision-making through organizations such as cooperatives. The reality therefore has been that Africa has not only increased development activities in rural areas but has also had an increase in people's participation in development projects. This explains why much of African countries' foreign aids have been directed to rural development (World Bank, 2002).

For the two decade, the word community participation becomes a crucial aspect in development processes. Both international and local communities recommend for the government to involve local people in decision making that directly affect their life. Different scholars and institutions define the concept of community participation in different ways based on different context. The concept of participation may take different shape and characteristics. Community Participation has been misused or abused in many projects claiming to have community participation as a project component (Wates, 2000). Understanding the meanings of the words ‘Community’ and ‘participation’ individually can best explain the term ‘Community Participation. Wates (2000) defines the word community as a group of people sharing common interests and living within a geographically defined area. Hamdi and Goethert (1997) points out that the term community has both social and spatial dimensions, and that generally the people within a community come together to achieve a common objective, even if they have certain differences. Abrams (1971) defines community as mythical state of social wholeness in which each member has his place and in which life is regulated by cooperation rather than by competition and conflict.

From the definitions above, it is clear that community generally has two certain elements, that is, physical boundaries (geographically defined area where they live) and social interests common among the people.

The word participation was defined by Wates (2000) as act of being involved in something. The World Bank (1996) define participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and shares control over development initiatives and decisions and resources which affect them. Njunwa (2010) define participation as

collaboration, in which people voluntarily, or because of some persuasion or incentives, agree to collaborate with an externally determined development project, often by contributing their labour and resources in return for some expected benefits. Based on the definitions of participation, it can be realized that both definitions see participation as an important mechanism of empowering people in development process. However, for participation to be meaningful, it must be voluntary and not forced by external forces. The CSDP gives power to community members to actively participate in identification, planning and execution of the projects within their communities, and contribute either in cash or in kind for the successful implementation of the projects.

Having defined participation individually, Abrams (1971) then defines community participation as the theory that the local community should be given an active role in programmes and improvements directly affecting it. It is only rational to give control of affairs and decisions to people most affected by them, since no government or authority has the means to solve all the public problems adequately. It is necessary to involve people in matters that affect them (Abrams, 1971). Njunwa (2010) defined community participation as voluntary contribution by people in one way or another in cash or in kind in public programs. The above definition views community participation as a bottom-up approach that originates from the people themselves and is not forced by external pressure.

Marsland (2006) views community participation as an active process by which client groups or beneficiaries influence the direction and execution of the development program with a view of enhancing their well-being in terms of income, personal

growth, self-reliance, spiritual development and other values they cherish. This definition lacks sense of ownership and control of development process by the community. The community only plays a role of influence the direction of the leaders of development program. The notion of community participation in international development discourse commonly used to refer to the involvement of local people in decision-making processes and evaluation of development projects as well as the implementation in development projects. The term community participation is associated with empowerment and the respect for and use of local knowledge. By the term empowerment, it simply mean the power of making decisions is lying on the power of the people. The external agencies/government assists the people to reach their goals/objectives but not force them. By the concept of using local knowledge, it simply mean that local people have potential knowledge and experiences that if utilized my result to positive contribution to their development.

Community participation is very important tool for developmental process in any country. The multilateral and bilateral aid organization, as well as NGOs has emphasized the importance of local community participation in development process. For the government to achieve sustainable development requires ensuring that people are involved in development projects. Marsland (2006) argued that in order to facilitate community participation, government of Australia initiated community strengthening initiative program. In order to address the local problems, the government must involve people in identifying local problems and come with positive solutions. Various writers and theorists of participation provide some criteria

to evaluate the level of people's participation in development projects. Rowe and Frewer (2000) suggest two criteria to evaluate public participation process. The first criteria is representativeness, they recommended that people's participation must represent sample of the affected population. Independence is another criterion; by independence, simply mean people should participate in development process willingly without forces from external and not depend much from outsiders. Earlier involvement, recommends that people should be involved in development projects from early stages i.e. planning and design processes. People must have influence of the leaders during the planning and implementation. Finally, transparency is very important, the people must have information during planning and implementation, this will help them to know what is going on.

Since Nigeria's independence in 1960, improvement in life of people living in rural communities has been a challenge and over 100,000 identified rural communities are largely characterized by subsistence economies with very low rates of economic growth. The rural dwellers have low purchasing power and standard of living and examples of such are evidenced in the high level of backwardness in rural areas. Even the decision of the Babangida administration in 1992 to allocate 20% of federally collected revenue to local government planning and management did not bring about much improvement because the funds were left in the hands of the government alone.

The process of community participation in rural development projects enables a scheme with rural dwellers' support and with their active involvement; they are more likely to care about the end result. A shift in this understanding was what marked the

strong passion for the participation approaches (Nwabouzor, 2015). Also, the World Bank (1996) provides a basis for community participation in rural development projects as the following:

- i. Rural people have a great amount of experience and insight about the community into what works and what does not and why.
- ii. The involvement of the rural dwellers in the planning of projects can increase their level of commitment to the project.
- iii. The involvement of rural dwellers can help develop technical and managerial skills and thereby increase opportunities for employment.
- iv. The involvement of rural dwellers helps increase resources available for the programme.
- v. The involvement of rural dwellers in a way brings about social learning for both planners and beneficiaries in the sense that the “social learning” means development of partnership between the professionals and the rural communities, in which, each group learn from each other (World Bank, 1996).

Udoye (1992) indicated that participation should be both an object (what) and a process (how). As an object, it should be an induced change for the achievement of community improvement. As a process, it should be a well-articulated programme and effort to assist individuals to acquire attitudes, skills and concepts required for their democratic participation in the effective solution of a wide range of community improvement problems as possible, in order of priority determined by their increasing level of competence. Community participation in rural development

projects cannot be over emphasized in development discourse because it will enable rural people take part in planning and policy making, allocation and distribution of resources and management of services (Sylvia, 2014). Moreover, it is believed that development is about advancement, enrichment and improvement of the lives of people (rural dwellers) in the rural community (Edwards, 1993).

Todaro and Smith (2006) also agrees with Edwards that if a development results in robust economic growth without improvement or change in the quality of life of the people (rural dwellers), something is wrong. Theron (2005) viewed community participation as empowering people by developing their skills and abilities so that they can negotiate with the rural development system and make their own decisions in terms of their development needs and priorities. Reid (2000) saw the concept as one key ingredient for an empowered community. Ijere (1990) regarded the approach as the Bottom-top approach that will make rural dwellers prime movers of their own destiny, taking into cognizance economic and social growth. The objectives include empowerment, building beneficiary capacity, increasing project effectiveness, improving project efficiency, and project cost sharing. The framework also identified levels of participation as information sharing, consultation, decision making and initiating action (Thwala, 2001). A proper understanding of participation can be better achieved when it is viewed against a theoretical framework based on decision making.

Participation occurs when a community organizes itself and takes responsibility for managing its problems. In taking this responsibility, it means identifying the problems, developing actions, putting them into place and following through (Udo,

2014). This is endorsed in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which states that development should be people driven (African National Congress, 1994). For community participation to realize its full potentials, some principles which have to be met are autonomy of citizens' initiation, involvement, working together, monitoring and evaluation among others (Udo, 2014). Another document by Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Public Health Practice Program Office Atlanta (1997) reveals that principle of community participation encompasses establishing relationship with the people, recognition of the cultural diversity of the people, identifying the interest of rural dwellers and mobilizing community assets to achieving it, engaging and organization of change agents to ensure flexibility and long term commitment. The key for many developers therefore is that meaningful participation can result in speedier decision making and a more sustainable rural development, hence, meaningful community participation results in a development process that can tap into rural knowledge and additional resources, help to strengthen the community in which it is located, can shape designs to address rural issues, result in more appropriate solutions that are responsive to the environment and which satisfy rural demand. The broader concept of participation is central to the idea of the rural dweller and understood as someone with rights, aspiration and responsibilities in relation to other community members (Department for International Development, DFID 1999).

2.8.1 Understanding the rural people and their perception to participation

Participation is a rich concept that varies with its application and definition. The way participation is defined also depends on the context in which it occurs. For some, it is

a matter of principle; for others, practice; for others, an end in itself. For people to effectively participate in any project there is need for them to understand when, how and why they have to participate (Kariuki and Jomo, 2014). For this reason it is important to first determine the understanding of the rural people and their perception to participation in the development processes.

i. **Inclusiveness**

Kariuki and Jomo (2014) asserts that knowing the community, who are to be the beneficiaries of any development initiative, is critical to building support. One of the first steps is to identify the individuals and organizations in the community who will be affected by the project. There are many barriers to participation in society; poverty, literacy levels, disability, age, race and ethnicity are some of the characteristics that often marginalized people. A healthy community embraces diversity and recognizes that all community members have right to be heard and participate in processes that affects their lives. The community participation process seeks out and facilitates the engagement of those potentially affected. In every project there is a need to identify those and facilitate their participation.

Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) affirm that living in a democratic society means electing representatives to speak on their behalf at the government level. By virtue of their larger population, urban areas tend to have greater representation in the national parliament and other higher legislatures than rural communities. The greater number of urban representatives is one factor that can lead these elected bodies to have a more urban focus and reduce the influence rural community members have in the

decision making process. Specific communities and groups of community members must also be considered in the rural policy-making process.

ii. **Communication**

A new project generally represents some form of a change to a community. Typically, 5 – 10% of community members will support the project initially and 5-10% of the same community will oppose it. Opponents or supporters are unlikely to change their positions. The remaining 90%, called the silent majority, are either undecided, indifferent or skeptical about the project. Failure to bring the silent majority on the winning side can lead to massive opposition and seriously jeopardize the project. Various communication strategies can be used to win the support of this group. Open public participation is one communication strategy that has proven to be successful (Owolabi *et.al.*, 2018).

It is wise to begin consulting with the community right from the start. This helps to bring trust, understanding and support for the group. If the project proceeds too far before community are informed there may be problems with rumours and the spreading of misinformation. To build community support for the project, there is need to ensure that the community is well informed and ideally, part of the initial planning for the project. Inviting the public to express their views and concerns about the project can help to enhance community support and ultimately the success of the project. The community participation process must communicate to participants how their input affected the decision. Feedback is the essential exercise in this regard. The community participation process provides participants with the information they need in order to participate in a meaningful approach (Kumar,

2002). If the community does not support the project, there is need to stand back and try to be objective. The community participation process communicates the interest and meets the process needs of all participants.

iii. **Trust**

Trust is the glue that binds organizations and communities together. Building trust in local community organizations has been identified as a viable strategy for the economic development of organizations, communities, and regions (Kumar, 2002). For decades, social science research has emphasized that a positive relationship exists between trust among citizens in a local region and that region's economic performance or prosperity; citizens who trust one another exchange ideas, goods, and services within local community boundaries, all of which bodes well for local economic development (Kariuki and Jomo, 2014). Therefore, building trust in local community organizations represents a viable strategy for economic development. Trust, or social capital, refers to the mutual confidence that no party involved in the exchange of goods or services will exploit others (Cohen & Fields, 1999). That is, if citizens in a community hold each other accountable for their actions over time, a foundation is built that allows for the development of trust. Thus, accountability precedes the development of trust and the economic prosperity of communities (Knack & Zak, 2005). The easy task is to realize that building trust among community members is essential for them to participate leading to effective decision making.

Engagement is based on community support. A positive change is more likely to occur when community members are an integral part of a program's development

and implementation. All partners must be actively respected from the start. For example, meeting with key community leaders and groups in their surroundings helps to build trust for a true partnership. Such meetings provide the development partners with more information about the community, its concerns, and the factors that will facilitate or constrain participation. In addition, community members need to see and experience “real” benefits for the extra time, effort, and involvement they are asked to give. Once a successful rapport is established, meetings and exchanges with community members can build into an ongoing and substantive partnership (Reid, 2000).

Reid, (2000) has further pointed out that when contacting the community, some engagement leaders find it most effective to reach out to the fullest possible range of formal and informal leaders and organizations. They try to work with all factions, expand the engagement table, and avoid becoming identified with one group. Coalition building is a key part of community engagement. Alternatively, implementers of development projects may find that identifying and working primarily with key stakeholders is the most successful approach. Therefore, they engage with a smaller, perhaps more manageable, number of community members to achieve their mission. The range of individuals and groups contacted for an engagement effort depends in part on the issue at hand, the engagement strategy chosen, and whether the effort is mandated or voluntary.

It is essential for those engaging a community to adhere to the highest ethical standards. Indeed, under some circumstances, community engagement might itself be considered an ethical imperative. The rights, interests, and well-being of

individuals and communities must have the utmost priority. Past ethical failures are known to create distrust among some communities and this can produce great challenges for community organizers. The community must be educated about any potential for harm through its involvement with or endorsement of an initiative so it can make an informed decision (Dayal, 2000).

iv. **Community Awareness**

The proverb “information is power” is important in societies where the majority are illiterate and cultural and superstitious thinking dominates. Awareness-raising will help to break social, superstitious and other barriers among the community through information - sharing and dialogue. Once these barriers have come down, communities are able to express themselves more freely; both as individuals and collectively, internalize the underlying need for development projects and the expected returns (Dayal, 2000). Rural people have been reporting that the information that is available on policy, government programmes and services is difficult to obtain and interpret. There is a desire to learn about and access information about government programmes and services that is understandable, concise and timely (Omolo, 2010). Before citizens can express their opinions, and participate in the public decision making process, they need information about the subject at hand. A civic participation process cannot be built unless those who participate have a high level of education and information about the issue(s). Through the public education process one can determine citizens' awareness about specific issues, inform citizens about specific problems in which they can make a difference or even persuade them to change their behaviour and actively participate

in the life of their community. Public education is the first step in involving citizens in the life of their community and in creating a participative culture. Through public education, the attitudes of citizens regarding the political system and its different components can be changed. Public education is the method used to implement a certain policy, to create a state of mind and define the role of good in society.

Public education means informing and motivating a large number of citizens in order to solve a problem that affects them. The first important step in this process is developing an education campaign. A public education campaign is a method whereby information is sent to a large number of citizens to heighten their awareness of a problem and, as a result, encourage them to change their behaviour. The planning process to develop a civic education campaign is complex, but not difficult. It takes time, usually from three months to a year.

Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) have indicated that the rural citizens feel that there is a lack of access to information about government programs and services. An awareness-raising process ideally aims to boost the commitment of society beyond the simple acquisition of knowledge and skills. As the awareness raising takes many forms like demonstrative/practical training of communities, continuous dialogue and information sharing, participatory planning and monitoring including regular assessment of progresses and constraints allows communities to enhance their analytical skills and implementation capacity. Sensitizing and raising the levels of awareness of the community helps to promote local level participation and participatory approach. Raising the levels of awareness can contribute to community involvement in that it helps people formulate their interests, knowledge and

understanding as being a precondition for real participation of the community in the project management cycle (Mosse, 2001). Public participation processes are an important means of raising awareness. Their involvement in the project management (problem identification & prioritization, resource assessment, annual action plan preparation, implementation, monitoring) and decision-making is a means of transmitting knowledge and values. They provide opportunities for dialogue, mutual learning, and ownership. It will help increasing communities' commitment and participation beyond enhanced knowledge and skills, and as such may be described as an empowerment process. According to Zanetell and Knuth (1994), wide variety of methods and techniques are available for developing public sensitization and raising the awareness level, and can be put to use in promoting project activities. Particular leaders influence the community, help pass the message to others, have the power/authority to change things, can encourage "ownership" of initiative throughout the community. Therefore, it is important to capacitate and keep these people well informed on the issues to demonstrate to communities their exemplary behaviour and action. For this and to get leaders to understand and actively support the initiative, adequate orientation on the objectives, the efforts needed and what is expected from each partner and the like should be clear to these leaders. Documentation of project plans and progress reports is important for disseminating the good practices identified, the activities implemented and the results achieved in order to stimulate the awareness and interest of the community (Kariuki and Jomo, 2014). For effective dissemination of such information, community forums need to be arranged to discuss on the results that would help them to evaluate the achievements and weaknesses for

continuous learning from experience. This will in turn help to enhance their awareness level and knowledge or skill.

2.8.2 Basic Principles of Community Participation

The principles of community participation encompass establishing relationship with the people, recognition of the cultural diversity of the people, identifying the interest of rural dwellers and mobilizing community assets to achieving it, engaging organization and change agents to ensure flexibility and long – term commitment. Falkirk council Scotland (a unitary authority that provides all local government services for Falkirk council area in Scotland) proposed that the principles of community participation should include: Purpose, Involvement, working together, monitoring and evaluation, Method and information.

- i. Purpose: This is being clear about goals for the community to be engaged in.
- ii. Involvement: This is making consultation open to all community members and also breaking barriers for some groups who may want to get involved but finding it difficult to respond e.g. the disabled, illiterates etc.
- iii. Working together: This is treating all participants with respect which may require group representation showing how views in the community can be collected.
- iv. Feedback: This is giving update of how community member's view made a difference.
- v. Monitoring and Evaluation: This is checking from time to time to ensure that the approach is making a difference.

- vi. Method: There should be a timescale method for notifying community members of consultative meeting or gathering due to take place to ensure effective participation.
- vii. Information: This is information sharing using clear and accessible language.

This statement was prepared to meet the terms of Part 2 Section 18 (4) (a) (i) and Section 19 (4) of the Planning (Scotland) Act 2006 (Falkirk Development Plan Scheme Scotland, March 2013). Bhagyalakshmi (2004) states that without information sharing, no development can take firm root because new opportunities can be provided when all the information needs of the community can be met to stimulate their awareness and improve their capabilities. Meanwhile World Bank (1996) indicates that reaching the poor requires working with them to learn about their needs, understanding how development decisions are made in their communities and identifying institutions and mechanisms that acquire opportunities and resources. In short, a community that gives up the ability to make its own decisions loses some essential humanity (Nekwaya, 2007).

That is why Kakumba and Nsingo (2008) assert that community involvement in rural development projects facilitates the reversal of the inequalities that have been developed under colonialism (and perhaps immediate post-colonialism) by helping people to engage in the process of identifying problems and acting on them. Community participation does not only take account of rural dwellers wishes but also makes good use of the rural dwellers contributions. There is no doubt therefore that meaningful participation is about achieving the power to influence the decisions

that affect rural dwellers livelihood. Adebayo, *et.al* (2002) also notes that participation guarantees that collective organizations serve rural needs and are based upon rural skills and compatible with rural cultures and thus help to eliminate foreign domination and dependency from the development process. The author claims that rural officials through cooperation increase rural people's productivity, access to capital and give them better access to administration. The success of any rural development project depends on the extent to which rural dwellers can be motivated. This again depends on how much their interest, their felt needs are taken into account and to what extent they are involved in the planning and decision-making process. This is why conclusion can be drawn on the fact that meaningful participation of the rural dwellers is concerned with direct access to the resources necessary for development, and some active involvement and influence in the decision affecting those resources (Burkey, 2000).

2.8.3 Modes and Levels of Community Participation

It is important that the modes of community participation in rural development process is known, because this is to ensure authentic community participation. The approaches become more relevant when the impact of participation is assessed in relation to a programme or rural development project, and the extent of participation becomes a central feature in this regard (Fokane, 2008). Understanding the modes of participation is of great importance because these overlap with the levels of community participation and are necessary for community participation. Theron (2005) highlights these modes as follows:

- i. Anti-participatory mode - community participation is considered as a voluntary contribution by the community to a project, which will lead to development, but the public is not expected to take part in shaping the project content and outcomes.
- ii. Manipulation mode - community participation includes community involvement in decision making processes, implementing projects, sharing in the benefits and involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes.
- iii. Incremental mode - community participation is concerned with organised efforts to increase control over resources and regulating institutions in given social situations for groups or movements excluded from such control and
- iv. Authentic public participation mode - community participation is an active process by which the community influence the direction and execution of projects with the view to enhancing their well-being in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance or other values which they cherish.

Development agencies and authors have distinguished different levels of participation and their typology has been positioned on a seven step ladder. This could be useful in analyzing the extent of participation in rural development projects (Wilcox, 1994; Kumar, 2002; Pretty, 2003). One level on the continuum is not necessarily better than any other as different levels are appropriate at different times and contexts to meet the expectations and interests of different stakeholders (Wilcox, 1994). Oakley (1991) cites an analysis of a Danish funded rural water supply project in Tanzania, where participation had ranged from non-participation and manipulation over information and consultation to some degree of partnership and delegation of

power. Pretty (2003) conceptualizes these levels in terms of “weak and strong participation”. Accordingly, participation is termed weak when informing and consulting is the level involved while strong participation means partnership and control. The author argues that, in practice, agencies managing complex projects find it hard to move from the weak end of the continuum and tend to assume that, intended beneficiaries will be consulted during the project design to take into account their felt needs and aspirations. Akpomuvie (2010) view when what individuals and communities were actually involved in within participative partnership, as a tool to categorize participation was looked at states that, for an effective participative structure, roles and responsibilities will be clear and transparent. Akpomuvie(2010) therefore suggests that rural communities adopt five roles with which rural dwellers will act if fully participating within a regeneration of projects or programmes. They include:

- i. as beneficiaries of the project and users of services.
- ii. as consultees and representatives of rural opinions.
- iii. as the source of general community activity.
- iv. as the source for the delivery of regeneration projects
- v. as potential long term partners in regeneration.

Through analysis of exchange of power and observation of these five roles, it is possible to make an assessment of level of community participation within any given project. Nekwaya (2007) pointed out that the best way to effective community participation is dependent on selecting and combination of appropriate approaches

because this would help assess whether the community authorities actually allowed rural dwellers participate and make their own decisions.

degree of stability.

2.8.4 Constraints to Community Participation

Community participation takes place in a socio-political context (Kumar, 2002). As a result, implementing community participation in rural development project is not an easy exercise because the form which participation takes is influenced by the overall circumstances and the unique social context in which action is being taken (Nekwaya, 2005). Nampila (2005) observes that community participation may not guarantee success. This occurs when community participation does not have clear goals and objectives and it is approached in an ad hoc and unsystematic manner. Community participation can actually be time-consuming.

Kumar (2005) notes that community participation can lead to delay and slow progress at initial stages of field work, thereby causing delay in the achievement of the physical, as well as financial targets. However, it should be remembered that obstacles to community participation are directly related to one's perspective of community participation (Oakley and Marsden, 1991). Kok and Gelderbloem (1994) state that community participation can bring latent conflicts to the surface and it can delay project start-up, while increasing the demands on project personnel and managers. Oyesola (2016) point out that socioeconomic factor such as lack of effective civic education, illiteracy and poverty, which culminate in a tendency towards apathy, hamper community participation in both development and political processes. Community members that are illiterate and not learned may be

marginalized through professional and technical communication during the community participation process (Theron, 2002).

The interface between politicians and civil servants has also exhibited conflicts of roles and interest, factionalism, confrontation, intimidation and power struggles (Kakumba and Nsingo, 2008). Udu and Onwe (2016) also points out that stakeholders may use community participation as a platform to further their own agendas or secret motives. It is not clear what actually should constitute a “good” decision when it comes to community participation. This can be problematic because findings would be interpreted wrongly; community participation slowing down the planning and implementation of a project and rural authorities would become impatient. This could also prompt them to ignore the processes underlying community participation.

Rahman (1993) observes that participation has often been generated spontaneously, rural development in this instance deals with the range of activities involving the mobilization of resources (human and material) in order to empower people to break away from all structural disabilities that prevent them from enjoying better living conditions. The rural poor tend to define their plight in terms of lack of basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing, health care and education; powerlessness and inability to influence one’s condition; social exclusion; poor governance; low community status and lack of awareness. Kakumba and Nsingo (2008) outline the number of challenges facing community participation in rural development projects as follows:

2.8.4.1 Financial Incapacitation

In order for rural communities to play active role in rural development projects, it is necessary for rural dwellers to have access to resources. The weak financial position of rural people not only reduces their capacity to participate in rural development projects, but also affect the whole process of rural development (Kakumba and Nsingo, 2008). Inadequate resources negatively impact a rural community's ability to effectively influence and develop policy compared to other players in the policy making process. This creates an inequality whereby community that may be affected do not have the same opportunity to participate in and influence the process.

2.8.4.2 Lack of Awareness and Enlightenment

Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) have indicated that the rural dwellers feel that there is a lack of access to information about government programmes and services. There is a desire to learn about and access information about government programmes and services that is understandable, concise and timely. On the absence of rural representation in the decision-making process, Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) asserts that living in a rural community which is like a democratic society means elected representatives are to speak on behalf of the people at the government level. Specific communities and groups of community members must also be considered in the rural policy-making process.

2.8.4.3 Rural Socio-economic Structure

The improvement of the conditions of rural dwellers in various rural communities has been a critical challenge of socio-economic planning for development (Adedayo, 2000). This pathetic socio-economic position obstructs them from meaningful

participation. Bear in mind that the rural population is associated with low levels of education, high illiteracy rates, poor infrastructure and communication means obstructing their civic competence (Kakumba and Nsingo, 2008).

2.8.4.4 Political patronage

There has been general lack of political commitment on the side of the central government towards effective devolution of powers, which is evident in the continued influence and interference in the functioning of local government units (Kakumba and Nsingo, 2008). These may vary in different forms and degrees from a decentralized, laissez-faire and free enterprise system to a fully centralized, strongly planned and controlled one. They may vary furthermore in regard to their degree of stability.

2.8.6 Consequences of Community Participation

An example of consequences of planning without the people was documented by Mr Mashayamombe in the Herald, a document of FAO Corporate Document Repository on Participatory Rural Communication Appraisal of Harare on Saturday 22nd July, 1995 who reported that Guruve villagers in Nyangavi and Mupfurutsa rural communities resisted the construction of a \$250 million German-funded irrigation scheme. The interviewer said villagers refused to entertain any negotiations on project, barred Agritex officers (officials of agency) from entering their territory and threatened to beat up anyone who visits their area in connection with the project. The reason for the action being that after a survey on how best project could be implemented had been completed; it was observed that project had been imposed on

the rural community without carrying out a consultation with the rural dwellers (FAO, 1995).

The Green Revolution, a crash programme launched in 1980 by Alhaji Shehu Shagari's Administration that was aimed at boosting food production in a bid to provide food to every Nigerian had objectives that include:

- i. Making the country self-sufficient in food production within 5 years.
- ii. Returning the country to its pre-eminent crop production stage within 7 years.

Unfortunately, this failed because the same government that instituted Green Revolution with the aim of making Nigeria self-sufficient as at 1985 embarked on a large-scale importation of rice from India and America, and essential food items for survival and sustenance.

Again, the sole intention of the programme was food and crop production so that the physical hunger of urban areas and the impoverished foreign exchange account of the government might be replenished. The presumption was that once agriculture was improved, and the yields per acre were increased, the peasant farmers who constitute the major bulk of the producers would automatically have their economic and social standard improved. It was very clear that there was no mention of how the money extracted from these rural areas, would be channelled back to develop the area.

2.8.7 Effectiveness of Community Participation

Attempts have been made to develop tools to assess the effectiveness of community participation, taking into account many of the complexities. Increasingly, and

especially in rural development research, there has been a search for validating measures, or indicators, which can discriminate whether policy action has been justified. Such indicators should cover efficiency (economic output in terms of quality and quantity, competitiveness and viability, and institutional efficiency) and equity (viability of rural communities and the maintenance of a balanced pattern of development, access to resources, services and opportunities, and labour conditions). Burns and Taylor (2000) provide tools and appraisal exercises for measuring the effectiveness of participation. They include:

- i. History and patterns of participation.
- ii. Quality of participation strategies adopted by partners and partnerships.
- iii. Capacity within partner organisations to support community participation.
- iv. Capacity within communities to participate effectively.
- v. Impact of participation and its outcomes.

2.8.8 The Merits of Community Participation

Kakumba and Nsingo (2008) had remarked that community participation ensures rural dwellers involvement in a wide range of administrative policy-making activities, including the determination of levels of service, budget priorities, and the acceptability of physical construction projects in order to orient government programmes toward community needs, build the entire public support, and encourage a sense of cohesiveness and humanity within the society. The common belief is that involving rural dwellers in rural development projects have the potential to boost their livelihoods and foster development in their area (Kakumba and Nsingo, 2008).

The development efforts therefore should start by recognising rural dweller's potential, and proceeds to their enhancement and growth because Participation in rural development projects is now being sought for world over, not because it is a fad but there has been a consensus on the usefulness of participation in rural development projects/programmes. Community participation empowers the primary beneficiaries of rural development programmes or project by helping them to break away from a dependency mentality (Creighton, 2005). Creighton (2005) also state that community participation promotes self-confidence and self-awareness. Nampila (2005) agrees that this heightened consciousness makes people continuously aware of the reality about them and of their own capacity to transform it. When rural dwellers have the freedom to participate in rural development projects activities, it gives them dignity, self-respect and sense of belonging.

Generally, rural development interventions are funded either by government or by donor agencies. Experience has shown that rural development interventions from external assistance projects usually fail to sustain the required level of development activity once support or inputs are diminished or withdrawn by funding agencies. Such scenario is evidenced in most non-functional/abandoned community projects in the study area. Community participation is regarded as an essential prerequisite for the continuity of activities. The involvement of rural and utilization of rural resources generates a sense of ownership over rural development interventions to rural communities. This sense of ownership is essential for even after external funds cease to flow (Kumar, 2002). Community participation ensures that projects are developed according to the needs of the rural dwellers (Kumar, 2002). This can

improve the outcomes of rural projects in the study area through cost sharing, increased efficiency and effectiveness. Through community participation, resources available for rural development projects will be used more efficiently and fewer costs will be incurred if the rural dwellers themselves are responsible for the project (Kumar, 2002). Community participation encourages community self-reliance. The ultimate objective embraces all the positive effects of genuine participation by rural people. Community participation increases rural dwellers control over resources and development efforts and enables planning and implementation. Community participation teaches communities how to resolve conflict and allows for different perspectives to be heard. In this way, learning is promoted and rural dwellers will be able to help themselves (Baum, 1999 in Nampila, 2005). Communities will be able to assess their own situation, organize themselves as a powerful group and work creatively towards changing their and building up a new world Nampila (2005). This increased capacity of individuals, allow communities to mobilize and help themselves to minimize dependence on the state and this is bottom-up approach to rural development (Nampila, 2005).

Community participation contributes to the development of appropriate policy, legislation and regulations while at the same time promoting democracy, as is applied through the Batho Pele principles employed in South Africa. When rural dwellers participate in rural development projects, it assists them in identifying key issues of concern that need to be considered. These opinions from different role players help to create a balance of these issues and to identify creative solutions to problems like, for example, the partnership-in planning approach.

If governments and rural development intervention agencies at all levels can be relevant to the rural community and rural dwellers are positively affected by the policies and rural development projects of such government and intervention agencies, it must assign roles and responsibilities to the rural dwellers and they will in turn work in partnership or collaboration. Oates (1993) contends that “there are surely reasons, in principle to believe that policies formulated for the provision of rural development infrastructure that are sensitive to regional of rural conditions are likely to be more effective in encouraging economic development than centrally determined policies that ignore these.

2.8.9 Stages and Types of Participation

Four different stages of participation were identified by Hamdi and Geothert (1997).

These include:

- i. Initiation: This is the first stage of the process where the project goals and scope are defined.
- ii. Planning: Is the second stage which involves working out of the project details, budgeting and resource identification.
- iii. Design: In the design stage, details are further developed, with actual execution of the project in the implementation phase.
- iv. Maintenance: This stage is long-term process and involves the upkeep of the project.

The involvement of communities at different stages of the project determines the level of participation in project.

However, Njunwa (2010) provides critical understanding of different types of participation in the community as shown in the table 1:

Table 1: Typologies of Community Participation

S/N	TYOLOGY	CHARACTERISTICS
1	Manipulative Participation	Participation is simply pretense, the community themselves are not willing to participate in development processes but because of the external manipulation they simply pretend. Participation in this type is not sustainable because people will not always pretend.
2	Passive Participation	People participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened. Information belongs only to the external professionals. This is regarded as top-down approach to people participation and assume that people do not have potential to decide for themselves. This type of participation is difficult when it come to the implementation stage, people fails to support the project because they were not involved during the planning stage.
3	Participation by Consultation	People participate by being consulted or by answering questions. There is no room for the shared decision-making between the stakeholders and the professional. In most cases people's needs and priorities ignored by professionals. This also becomes difficult during the implementation of development projects. This type creates the gap between the local people and professionals.
4	Participation for Material Incentives	People participate in work for food arrangements; They may also participate for the cash or other material incentives. The activities and the participation stop when the material incentives stop. This type of participation is not voluntary but people are attracted by incentive given to them. The people themselves do not own the development processes under this type.
5	Functional Participation	Participation is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals, especially reduced costs. People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined project objectives
6	Interactive Participation	People participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and formation or strengthening of local group, or institution that determine how available resources are used. Learning methods used to seek multiple viewpoints. This type is the best, because it regards local people as potential and equal partner in development processes. This type of participation creates the sense of ownership of the development project by the community.
7	Self-Mobilization	People participate by taking initiative independent of external institutions. They develop contact with external institutions for resources and technical advice but retain control over how resources are used

Source: Adapted from Njunwa, (2010)

2.8.10 Adoption of participation approaches.

The use of participatory methodologies in project development process is a shift from old path where development workers, social researchers and extension agents took beneficiaries of a project for granted and thereby handed down projects (Sinkaiye and Ajayi, 2012).

The non-involvement of beneficiaries at every stage of project development was a major factor in the failure of past agricultural and rural development projects. Participatory approaches owe it popularity to a widespread concern with the failure of conventional development strategies to make any difference to the life of marginalized and poor people. Participatory approaches have emerged in order to bring development practice nearer to the people as a result of dissatisfaction with an expert led, top – down approach and attempts to challenge the inequalities in societies. This approach suits the project that seeks the stakeholder participation (Adejoh,2015).

The emergence of participatory approaches was accompanied by development of various participatory methods. These methods have been viewed as a means by which inclusion of marginalized people can be achieved and their role is to contribute to achieving empowerment (Adejoh,2015). They include Farming System Research (FSR), Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), Participatory Action Research (PAR), Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA), Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), Social Impact Assessment, Training for Transformation and Gender Analysis. The participatory process of development sought to eliminate dependency as the people themselves are in charge

of the development agenda. Adejoh (2015) stated that participatory development works towards eradication of imbalances and inequalities; thus problems are not merely seen as purely economic and technical, but as human, social, cultural, political and psychological.

The failure of the earlier top-down approach led to a wide scale increase in disparities, unsustainable resource management and massive food insecurity in the third world. Third World countries like Nigeria were getting deeper into debt as a result of the loans they had received from the western world and unfortunately, the monies received for development were not filtering down to the poor rural people who were the target beneficiaries. This led to development effort promoting the concept of community participation.

2.8.11 Factors influencing community participation

The following are the factors and their influence in community participation:

i. Centralization of decision –making

Cole (2004) asserts that decisions can range from those of a vital, once for all nature to those of a routine and relatively trivial in nature. Management has three principal decision areas which are strategic, operating and administrative. Strategic decisions are the basic long-term decisions which settle issues such as output level, pricing and inventory levels.

These are programmed decisions which managers make in response to repetitive and routine problems. Administrative decisions arise from and are subject to the conflicting demands of strategic and operational problems. They are essentially

concerned with settling the organizations' structure. For example by establishing lines of authority and communication.

Centralization of decision-making is the concentration of authority and decisionmaking at the top of an organization. It is a structural policy in which decision-making authority is concentrated at the top on the organizational hierarchy (Koontz and Weihrich,2004).Decision-making is considered to be of the key importance when talking about different levels of participation. Therefore, decision-making powers need to be transferred to communities, if community members have little authority over the decision made about the allocation of resources, they may lose interest and decline or not effectively participate in the activities planned(Paul,1984).

ii. Transparency

Making processes of projects selection, implementation and evaluation transparent is an effective way to encourage community participation as it can potentially change power relations between communities and development organizations and betweeninterests within communities (Mohammad, 2010).Merely transferring funds to committees is not adequate to introduce community control, as communities need to be protected from the abuses of committees hastily assembled to present them. This means when the processes regarding participation are conducted with transparency it brings about trust and increases the level of communities' participation in development projects.

iii. Resources

Resources are the organizations' assets and are thus the basic building blocks of the organization. They include physical assets, such as plant, equipment, and location, human assets, in terms of the number of employees and their skills and organizational assets, such as culture and reputation (Mnaranara, 2010).

Mohammad (2010), identifies three categories of resources that is physical, human and organizational. Of these categories, human resources are conceived in terms of experience, knowledge and understanding that managers bring to the context of the organization. The third category of organizational resources such as its structure and its systems for planning, coordinating and controlling as well as informal aspects such as the nature of internal and external relationship. With enough resources development projects become successfully.

iv. Attitude

Mohammad (2010), defines attitude as a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way toward some object. Attitudes are evaluative statements either favorable or unfavorable concerning objects. Mohammad (2010), provides three components of attitude as emotional, informational and behavioral. The emotional component involves the persons' feelings of affect-positive, neutral, or negative about an object. The informational component consists of beliefs and information an individual has about the object. It makes no difference whether or not this information is empirically real or correct. He proceeds by saying that the third component of attitude is behavioral, which consists of persons tendencies to behave in a particular way towards an object of the three components of attitude, only the

behavioral component can be directly observed. It is assumed that if you want to know someone's beliefs, feelings and behavioral tendencies towards an object, all you need to do is measure his or her attitude.

v. Leadership qualities

Effective and efficient leaders are always endowed with good leadership qualities, without having the qualities of a good leader he/she may find difficult to direct the activities of subordinates for achieving organizational goals. Pretty(1995) emphasize that the success of failure of an organization to a great extent depends on the quality of leadership. Pretty(1995) asserts that there are three broad categories of the qualities of successful leadership namely personality traits, knowledge, ability and lastly skills.

Personality traits cover issues of good character, intelligence, will power judgment, fellow feeling, faith mental and physical energy, enthusiasm and drive, emotional stability and humor. Knowledge and ability is the second category which covers aspects of good educational background, technical competence that is ability to plan,organize ,delegate, analyze, make decisions and capacity to control and coordinate the group efforts, ability to appraise and evaluate employees, performance as well as self-appraisement. Leader's possession of skills in the third category of leadership qualities that focus on the following skills: problem-solving and decision-making skills, communication skills, human relations skills, conceptual skills and administrative skills.

With the leadership qualities explained above this means, a society having competent leaders will surely find better ways to educate and influence people to participate in development projects.

2.8.12 Importance of community participation

Extensive literature search has identified the importance of community participation in development projects since it is broadly accepted that community participation is one of the key ingredients of an empowered community. But community participation is far more than a requirement, it is a condition for success. Studies have documented that communities that engage their citizens and partners deeply in the work of community development raise more resources, achieve more results, and develop in more holistic and ultimately more beneficial way. Community participation then, is critical to community success (Pauland Demarest, 1984).

It is believed that participation ensures success as people get involved when they have a sense of ownership of project and feels that the project meets their needs. This makes them readily oversee construction and then take care of the facilities to ensure their sustainability (Tacconi and Tisdell, 1992). In addition it is suggested that participation can lead to greater community empowerment in the form of strengthened local organizations, a greater sense of pride and the undertaking of new activities (Oakley, 1989).

Lancaster (2002), points out the importance of community participation as follows:

- i. The approach helps the project to be sustainable as communities themselves learn how to adopt and correct changes resulting from the project.

- ii. Partnership or participation helps to protect interest of the people concerned, it enhances self-respect and self-reliance among people, that is, and they are enabled to obtain and do this by themselves.
- iii. Communities become aware of the project implementation as they have a great store of wisdom and skills. They understand their local needs and the nature of new project which they achieve. They can easily spread the new knowledge they acquired to other communities, thus cause a rapid increase in growth of the new idea.
- iv. Participation promotes a sense of ownership among the community of equipment used in the project, and even projects itself. For example, they will protect and maintain the projects through their own means like dispensary buildings, water pumps and school buildings.

2.8.13 Usefulness of participation in project development

The following are the argument which shows the usefulness of community participation in development activities;

(i) Self-reliance

This all-embracing term covers a wide range of benefits which participation can bring. Participation helps to break the mentality of dependence which characterizes much development work and instead it promotes self-awareness and confidence, making people examine their problems and to think positively about solutions.

(ii) Efficiency

Participation brings about a greater chance that resource available to development projects will be more efficient. Participation can, for example help reduce

misunderstanding or possible disagreements, and thus the time and energy often spent by professional staff explaining people of a project benefits can be reduced.

(iii) Effectiveness

Participation will also make projects more effective as instruments of development projects are invariably external mechanisms which are supposed to benefit the people of particular area. Participation which allows these people to have a voice in determining objectives, to support project administration and to make their local knowledge, skills and resources available must result in more effective projects. A major reason why many projects have not been effective in the past is because local people were not involved. Effectiveness equals the successful realization of objectives and participation can hold to ensure this (Crook and Manor, 1998).

(iv) Coverage

Most government programs and many agencies directed or supported development projects reach only a limited and usually privileged number of people. In many developing countries delivery services have contacts with only few people of the population. Participation will extend the coverage, bringing more people within the direct influence of development activities, which, in turn could broaden the mass appeal of such services.

2.8.14 Challenges of community participation in development projects

The following are the reasons hindering local people from being involved in development projects

- i. Political intervention in project selection: This is a common phenomenon in local level development projects. Sometimes a

community may be very much in need of a dispensary but politicians may decide to put aside the need of the citizens for their interests and political interests and direct the budget to other projects like road construction and construction of schools.

- ii. Locally elected representatives personal interests: most of the times councilors are responsible in selection of projects to start within their areas of leadership. Hence it appears that some locally elected leaders select projects not on the basis of community demand but for the intention of attaining personal gains. In order to do that they set close allies in project implementation process keeping the original beneficiaries in the dark.
- iii. Lack of dissemination of project related information: Projects are undertaken for the development of local people .So projects should be selected, designed and implemented in consultation and with the help of local people. The project beneficiaries have the right to be aware of the project related information but information about development project to beneficiaries is almost absent at the grass root level which cause hindrance to local peoples' participation in development initiatives (Oakley and Marsden,1995).

2.9 Concept of Sustainable Livelihood

Definitions of livelihood can be viewed as spanning a spectrum between narrow (focused or basic) and broad (complex and/or comprehensive). The narrow definitions reflect common understanding such as from the Merriam Webster

Dictionary (2011) which defines a livelihood as a means of support or subsistence, where subsistence is defined as the minimum (as of food and shelter) necessary to support life. Similarly, the Oxford English Dictionary (2011) defines livelihood as a means of securing the necessities of life. Thus, a livelihood typically is associated with a primary means of living: a job(s), other forms of monetary income, and in-kind forms of sustenance that enable persons to have food, shelter and clothing.

At the other extreme is a broad sustainable livelihood approach (SLA) definition. It became commonly cited in the literature since the mid-1990 and is largely attributed to Chambers and Conway (1991):

“A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living”

This definition acknowledges that securing a livelihood can be complex and may necessitate access to health care, education, land and other natural resources (especially for the rural poor), and even services that secure one’s legal rights to employment and wages or otherwise. Rather than being a stand-alone definition that provides clarity, however, this is more of a concise description of various inter-related components, concepts and dynamics. As a result of its implied complexity, it must be broken-down to be properly understood and truly defined. The components are as follows (Chambers and Conway 1991):

- i. **Capabilities:** what a person or household is capable of doing and being. Livelihood capabilities comprise the ability to gain a livelihood, including

abilities to cope with stress and shocks, to be dynamically adaptable, and to explore and exploit opportunities.

- ii. **Assets:** resources and stores (tangible assets), and claims and access (intangible assets) [or, material and social means, respectively], which a person or household commands and can use towards a livelihood.
- iii. **Resources:** include land, water, trees, and livestock; and farm equipment, tools, and domestic utensils. Assets are often both stores and resources, as with livestock, trees and savings.
- iv. **Stores:** include food stocks, stores of value such as gold, jewelry and woven textiles, and cash savings in banks of thrift and credit schemes.
- v. **Access:** opportunity in practice to use a resource, store or service, or to obtain information, material, technology, employment, food or income.
- vi. **Claims:** demands and appeals which can be made for material, moral or other practical support or access. Claims are based on combinations of right, precedent, social convention, moral obligation, and power. The idea is that livelihoods realistically require effective use, maintenance and enhancement of assets and capabilities (assets and capabilities are also commonly referred to as capital: human, social, natural, physical, financial, and political).

Comparatively, the narrower-in-scope, more common definition of livelihood refers to a direct or primary means of living, while the broader definition includes both direct and indirect, and secondary-level (means-to-the-means) sources and components of making a living. The two definitional extremes do not necessarily negate or conflict with each other but one is intentionally and significantly more

comprehensive in the scope of components that development strategies would need to take into account (Silva Theresa de, 2013).

Livelihood approach was used as a theoretical perspective in understanding the livelihoods of the urban people in general and those who migrate in particular. The livelihood approaches refocuses development efforts on the elimination of poverty and encouragement of economic growth which benefits the poor through sustainable development which targets projects that create sustainable livelihoods for the poor by promoting human development and conserving the environment. A livelihood, comprises the capabilities, assets, including both material and social resources and activities required for a means of living. It is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain the assets both now and in the future without undermining the natural resource base. The sustainability of livelihoods become a function of how men and women utilize assets portfolios on both short and long term basis to be able to cope with and recover from shocks and stresses through adaptive coping strategies they should be economically sound, ensuring that livelihoods activities do not irreversibly degrade natural resources within a given ecosystem.

In general, a livelihood is the means of securing the basic necessities of life, which include food, water, shelter and clothing. Some authors have also included the concept of a minimum threshold of living in a familial context in the definition of livelihood. For example, Chambers (1995) defined livelihood as working either individually or as a group, through the application of human and material endowments, for meeting the basic requirements of the self and members of a

household on a sustainable basis with dignity. This hinges on the concepts of sustainability and minimum standards of living. In terms of sustainability, the World Commission on Environment and Development first proposed the concept of sustainable livelihoods as an integrating concept. The Commission defined livelihood as adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs and sustainability as the maintenance or enhancement of resource productivity on a long term basis.

Chambers (1991) on the other hand, focused on rural livelihoods and defined livelihoods as the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood came to be defined broadly as people, their land, their capabilities and their means of making a living (Chambers and Conway, 1991; Chambers, 1995). Scoones (1998) also defined livelihood to include the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. According to Farrington (2001) the livelihood has been variously defined at different hierarchical levels, but most authors use the concept at the household level. In some cases, Farrington (2001) also noted that livelihood is applied at the individual level, as well as broader levels of extended family, social groups and community.

Livelihood as a concept, however, has latent concepts, which Scoones (1998) conceptualized as the livelihood framework. Chambers and Conway (1992) on the other hand, expressed that the underlying concepts of livelihoods include capability, equity, and sustainability, which are intricately linked. They also indicated that each concept is also a means to good ends, which linked together sustainability present a framework or paradigm for normative and practical development thinking.

2.9.1 Capability

Capability, as a concept, has been used to represent the ability to perform certain basic functionings, and also to what a person is capable being (Dreze and Sen, 1989). Hunt (2005) established that the basic functioning include adequate nourishment, comfortable clothing, avoiding preventable morbidity and mortality, leading a life of dignity, and being able to visit and entertain friends. Capability, however, can be interpreted variably with diverse and specific meanings for different people, but capabilities generally also include gaining access to and using services and information, experimenting and innovating, competing and collaborating with others, and the ability to exploit new conditions and resources (Serrat, 2008; Davies, White, Wright, Maru and LaFlamme, 2008). These activities work together to provide the means of accessing and perform basic functioning.

Improving livelihoods would therefore amount, in part, to improving the capabilities of individuals, thus enhancing their abilities to acquire the resources they need to maintain at least a minimum level of dignified living (Davies *et al.*, 2008). Some studies have observed that within the general use of capability, there is a subcategory of livelihood capabilities that include being able to cope with stress and shocks, and being able to find and make use of opportunities (Shiferaw, Tesfaye, Kassie, Abate, Prasanna and Menkir, 2014). Capabilities are not just reactive to conditions, but also proactive and variably adaptable. For example, higher literacy levels could improve on information seeking of an individual, in as much as some form of technical or skill training can improve the competitiveness of an individual in the job market.

Education and skill training can also bring about innovativeness, which is a proactive approach to livelihoods.

2.9.2 Equity

Equity implies a relatively equal distribution of livelihood assets, capabilities and opportunities and especially enhancement of those of the most deprived. According to Davies et al. (2008), a primary role of livelihood enhancement is identifying inequity and raising the economic status of the most deprived, such as women who are often without livelihood endowments. Equity of assets and endowments therefore become a means to up scaling the capabilities of the weak and minorities in societies. This also has interrelationships with the power structure, culture, and norms in society. Thus, Scoones (1998) livelihood framework, which he developed for the DFID, comes to play. Scoones (1998) identified six composite components of livelihoods which must be integrated in livelihood enhancement programmes.

2.9.3 Sustainable Livelihoods

The significance of the theory of sustainable livelihood and its basis for this study is borne by the desire to empower the capacity of people to earn income that meet their current and future economic and social needs. To also help minimize their vulnerability to external stresses and shocks. According to Serrat (2008), the theory of livelihood is not only limited to income generation but also entails the social welfare of people. It is, therefore, essential to put into context the social well-being of people into the concept of sustainable livelihood. The desire to enhance the sustainability of livelihoods for poor people in developing countries has attracted the attention of many international organizations. But, according to Hunt (2005), most

of the approaches employed to enhance sustainable livelihoods of people failed because of their top down nature. It is very vital for any effective intervention in the enhancement of the sustainability of livelihoods to allow the beneficiaries to make the choice of the nature of the intervention.

Similarly, according to Scoones (1998) sustainable livelihood approaches should include a central focus on people and a holistic approach. The central focus on people entails pro-poor strategies that include analyzing the dynamics of livelihoods, rendering support and allowing the total participation of beneficiaries. It should also entail bringing together the various policies and institutional settings that exist with the intent of being to influence and harmonize the differing arrangements in furthering a proper agenda. The holistic approach involves eradication of the marginalization of poor people, understanding the complexity of the relationship of their influences, recognition of various institutional stakeholders, encouragement and promotion of a diversity of livelihood strategies adopted by people. More so, a thrilling issue specifically with regards to rural urban migration is how should livelihoods of the migrant be enhanced? Several issues can be brought into the focus of livelihoods for a meaningful discussion. These issues include the economic, social and institutional concepts of sustainability, and issues of intra and inter-generational equity. The economic sustainability of livelihoods enhancement programmes with the adequacy or inadequacy of the economic benefits generated from the programmes required to meet improved standards of living for those engaged in it as prescribed by the ILO conditions of decent work (Serrat, 2008).

The quality of decent work described by ILO is one that ensures job security, reliability and social protection, while the incomes should be capable of lifting workers from poverty (Serrat, 2008). It is apparent that the purpose of people migrating from rural areas to urban areas is to realize economic benefit that will lift them out of poverty. The failure of the income to meet improved standards of living can be regarded as an unsustainable livelihood activity.

Furthermore, the continuity of the economic benefit should be seen in the long term perspective, specifically as long as individuals are engaged in the activity. The social sustainability of livelihood with respect to livelihood enhancement programmes entails issues such as social security of the programmes, and other social services relevant for improved standards of living.

A livelihood activity that enables an individual to afford access to the above social facilities can be regarded as sustainable (Dreze and Sen, 1989). The sustainability of livelihoods of people cannot be guaranteed if institutional capacity required to design and implement policies and regulations in the interest of the people is lacking. According to Dreze and Sen (1989) the formulation and implementation of policies and regulations determines the level of benefits achieved in sustaining livelihoods.

Sustainability has taken a central stage in development where sustainable development has been defined as meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (UN, 2007). Sustainability as a word could, however, be defined as an ability or capacity of something to be maintained or to sustain itself. Thus, in terms of livelihoods,

sustainability would refer to the maintenance or enhancement of resource productivity on a long-term basis. In order for any livelihood to be productive on a long-term basis, it has to be able to cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers and Conway, 1992).

Sustainable rural livelihood is a much more complex concept given that rural livelihoods have closer relationships with the natural environment, culture, and belief systems. In the modernization theory, Meier (1989) proposed a total abandonment of culture and belief systems, but several other practitioners and authors have stressed the importance of maintaining cultural integrity of rural folk. For example, in the social context, source indicated that sustainability can be achieved through a power structure and social influence that discourage gender imbalances, while maintaining or enhancing the local assets and capabilities on which livelihoods depend.

Capabilities, equity, and sustainability are central to the concept of sustainable livelihoods. While a livelihood, in its simplest sense, refers to a means of gaining a living (Chambers, 1995), capabilities enable a livelihood to be gained and livelihood also provides the support for the enhancement and exercise of capabilities (Scoones, 1998; Serrat, 2008). In the same way, equity in assets and access are preconditions for gaining adequate and decent livelihoods, while adequate and decent living for all is achieved through livelihoods. Sustainability is also means and an end to livelihoods, wherein sustainability provides conditions for livelihoods to be sustained for future generations and achieving sustainability is a value in itself.

2.10 Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

The sustainable livelihoods approach is a way of thinking about the objectives, scope, and priorities for development activities. It is based on evolving thinking about the way the poor and vulnerable live their lives and the importance of policies and institutions. Sustainable Livelihoods principles hold that poverty-focused development activity should be:

- i. people-centred: sustainable poverty elimination will be achieved only if external support focuses on what matters to people's lives, understands the differences between people and works with them in a way that is congruent with their current livelihood strategies, social environments and ability to adapt;
- ii. responsive and participatory: poor people themselves must be key actors in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities, and 'outsiders' need to adopt processes that ensure they listen and respond;
- iii. multi-level: the scale of the challenge of poverty elimination is enormous, and can only be achieved by working at multiple levels, ensuring that micro-level activity informs the development of policy and an effective enabling environment and that macro-level structures and processes support people to build upon their own strengths;
- iv. conducted in partnership: with both the public and the private sector (including civil society/ non-governmental organizations);
- v. Sustainable: there are four key dimensions to sustainability - economic, institutional, social and environmental sustainability. All are important - a balance must be found between them; and

- vi. Dynamic: external support must recognize the dynamic nature of livelihood strategies, respond flexibly to changes in people's situation, and develop longer-term commitments of support. (ADB, 2004)

However, Olivier, (2008) maintained that sustainable livelihoods approach facilitates the identification of practical priorities for actions that are based on the views and interests of those concerned but they are not panacea. It does not replace other tools, such as participatory development, sector-wide approaches, or integrated rural development. However, it makes the connection between people and the overall enabling environment that influences the outcomes of livelihood strategies. It brings attention to bear on the inherent potential of people in terms of their skills, social networks, and access to physical and financial resources and ability to influence core institutions. Appreciative inquiry originally developed as a tool for industry to avoid negative approaches to problem solving extends this constructive outlook. Appreciative inquiry is a highly inclusive process that maximizes the positive (as opposed to minimizing the negative) in which a community takes responsibility for generating and gathering information and then forms strategies based on the most positive experiences of the past.

The DFID (1999) established that the interplay vulnerability context, assets, transforming structures and processes, livelihood strategies determine the livelihood outcomes, which in essence are the parameters by which the concept of dignified living is measured. They also indicated that among the various components of a livelihood, forms a portfolio from which people draw their capabilities. The portfolio comprises tangible assets including food stocks, gold, jewelry, and cash savings. In

rural settings, tangible assets typically include resources, such as land, water, trees, livestock, and farm equipment. Intangible assets such as claims and physical access to assets, such a feeder roads linking farms to market centres, or financial services, offer practical opportunities to use assets to improve a livelihood.

2.10.1 Core features of the sustainable livelihoods framework

According to United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2004), the application of sustainable livelihoods framework involves the required consideration of the aspects such as understanding of vulnerability context, a strategy to protect livelihoods and an analysis of different types of capital. The capitals are explained below:

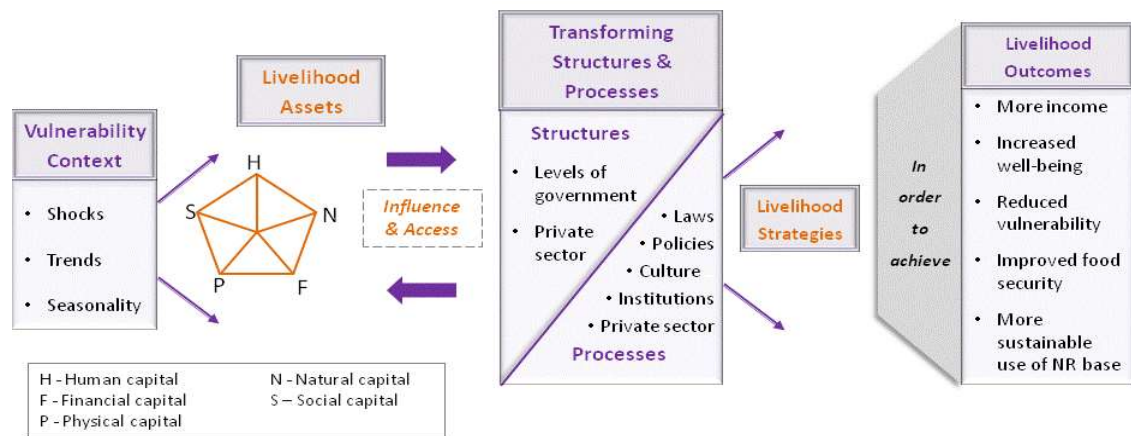


Figure 2: Livelihood Framework

Source: Adapted from DFID, (1999)

i. Human Capital

Human capital encompasses the abilities, experience, work skills and the good health that, when combined, allow populations to engage with different livelihood strategies

and reach their own objectives. At the household level human capital is a factor, which determines the quantity and quality of the available workforce. This varies according to size of family unit, level of education, leadership ability, health status, and so on.

Human capital appears in the framework for sustainable livelihoods as an asset which affects livelihoods. Aside from its intrinsic value, human capital is needed in order to leverage all other forms of capital. Because of this, whilst not sufficient as a stand-alone resource, it is vital for the achievement of positive results in any dimension regarding livelihoods.

Support for the accumulation of human capital can be direct or indirect. In either instance, full consent of the participating subjects is critical to the achievement of any objective. If any structures or processes hinder the development of human capital (such as political processes, a lack of teachers, or social norms) indirect support will be particularly important in order to eliminate those barriers. It is common for development agencies working in education to promote sector-specific programs which include both kinds of support (direct and indirect). Direct support can focus on the accumulation of assets:

- a) Concerning the development of infrastructure for health, education or training
- b) Concerning capacity building in staff involved in the health, education or training sectors
- c) Concerning the development of relevant experience and skills among the most vulnerable population groups.

Indirect support (via structures and process for transformation) can include:

- a) Reforming policies linked to health, education or training.
- b) Reforming organizations working with health, education or training.
- c) Promoting positive changes in local institutions (such as culture or norms) which limit access to health, education or training to specific social groups, such as women.

Other types of indirect support can include increases in social value, gender equality, and creating opportunities with a better return for those who have already invested in training. Relatively well-developed indicators already exist for health education, which measure progress in human wellbeing: curriculum, years in school, level of education reached, child nutrition, diarrhea, maternal health, and so on. Gauging the quality and the impact of education on livelihoods is much more complex. Furthermore, formal education is not the only means by which human capital can be improved via knowledge. Since human capital is a multifaceted concept comprising a range of human attributes which are difficult to quantify, it could be concluded that its stock value cannot be determined by existing knowledge and experience alone. It should also include an assessment of an individual's ability to learn new knowledge and skills according to their future development needs.

It is equally important, and especially for UNDP environmental projects, to understand how local context will affect any choices made. Certain kinds of skills, for example, can be highly useful in boosting levels of productivity, such as modern or intensive farming techniques, but these can also have an extremely negative impact on the environment or environmental sustainability. Other skills, again

relating to increasing agricultural or industrial production could be irrelevant to a community unless they are offered alongside other kinds of skills, such as product commercialization, product quality control, and so on.

For matters regarding human capital it is important to ask the following questions:

- a. Are there any complexities in the local context which might affect the development of human capital? (The greater the complexity, the more important its recognition early on).
- b. How do the local inhabitants access information which could influence their choice of livelihoods?
- c. Which groups, if any, are excluded from access to this information?
- d. Does this exclusion affect the kind of information available? For example, if women are excluded, skills linked to the production of typically feminine goods or expertise will also be limited)
- e. Environment who can influence the kind of knowledge held by a community?
- f. Is there an established tradition for innovation? Do commonly used technologies come from internal or external sources?
- g. Do inhabitants feel as if they lack a specific kind of information or skill?
- h. What is the level of knowledge of a given population (women and men) on their rights and policies or laws which may affect their choice of livelihoods? If they consider themselves well-informed in this regard, what is their level of understanding?

ii. Social Capital

In the context of sustainable livelihoods social capital refers to the social resources which individuals rely on in order to achieve certain objectives relating to their livelihoods. These may include:

- a. Networks and connections, be these vertical (hierarchical) or horizontal (between individuals with common interests). The guiding criteria for these is that they should increase the confidence and abilities of populations to work as a group and improve their access to institutions with greater scope for action, such as national or civil groups
- b. Participation in more formal groups, which tends to imply adherence to certain rules, norms and sanctions of either mutual or common consent;
- c. Relationships of trust, reciprocity and exchanges that facilitate co-operation, reduce transaction costs and may provide the basis for informal safety nets amongst the poor.

Social capital is closely linked with structures and processes for transformation. As a result, it can be helpful to conceive of social capital as a product of these structures and processes, although this may simplify the relationship between the two. Structures and processes can themselves be a product of social capital. The relationship works in both directions and can be self-perpetuating.

Structures and processes for transformation encompass theories on livelihoods relating to institutions, organizations, policies and legislation which help to shape livelihoods. Their importance cannot be overemphasized. They act at all levels, from

households to the international level and every public or private sphere in between.

They effectively determine:

- a. Access (to different forms of capital, livelihood strategies, decision-makers and influencers)
- b. Terms of exchange between different kinds of capital; and
- c. Gains (economic or other) resulting from specific livelihoods strategies.

Environmental projects often interact at various levels and frequently develop actions that influence both institutional structures and social processes, where power relations and social interactions take place. The SLF allows for a comprehensive analysis emphasizing the strong interdependence between these levels where people's capacities and vulnerabilities in each context are exposed, and the livelihood strategies are decided. It is people-centered and can be combined with practical field techniques (e.g. community workshops, focus group discussions for women and men, rapid rural appraisals, vulnerability assessments, tailored household surveys, socio-economic data available, etc.) enabling the identification of social dynamics, and accounting for intrahousehold disparities such as in gender relations, and community power relations.

Development organizations and practitioners use the SLF to gain an accurate account of the current and future state of a community before and after a project is implemented. Structures and processes for transformation also have a direct impact on the inclusion and well-being of vulnerable populations. Since a large number of UNDP projects share the common objective of creating policies and institutional

environments which support diverse strategies relating to livelihoods, and which work to promote equal access to resources and markets, the analysis of these processes should be considered, whether as an independent element or under the broader umbrella of social capital.

As with human capital, social capital is a good in itself but it also impacts directly on the accrual of other forms of capital, through improvements in the efficacy of economic relationships and in equal access to resources and public goods. Social networks facilitate innovation, knowledge gains and the exchange of these. Because of this there is a close relationship between human and social capital.

The majority of attempts to increase social capital are based around strengthening local institutions, whether directly (by increasing local capacities, training leaders or injecting resources) or indirectly through the creation of an open and democratic environment in which social capital can flourish. Direct support strengthens leadership and external relations with local groups.

Going beyond any numeric quantification of organizations, it is more important to understand trends and behaviours of human capital: if for example the state of social organizations seems to be having a positive or negative impact on the state of livelihoods. In the future it will become critically important to develop an understanding of the nature of underlying relationships within a community, giving an insight into the kinds of social resources available to families and who might be excluded from these advantages.

The groups held responsible for different activities can be particularly problematic if their composition excludes certain social groups from having their point of view

represented. In particular, a gender perspective needs to be applied and women's voices should be brought forward. An equally important point to consider is the creation of survival strategies adopted by communities in times of crisis, and to look at the extent to which these can rely on social resources to ensure their successful application. Stakeholder analysis is a useful tool for carrying out analyses of institutions and their internal and external relations, including interactions with policies, legislation, norms, culture and so on.

iii. Natural Capital

Natural capital is the term used to describe the stocks of natural resources from which further resources and services can be developed which may prove useful to livelihoods. A broad variety of resources fall within this category. Within the framework for sustainable livelihoods, the relationship between natural capital and the Context of Vulnerability is especially close. A large number of shocks which devastate the livelihood strategies of the most disadvantaged in a society are themselves naturally occurring processes which also destroy natural resources, such as forest fires, droughts, floods and earthquakes. Their timing is also often the result of seasonal changes in the value of different natural capitals.

Examples of natural capitals and the services they contribute to include land and soils, Food Production, woods, marine and forest resources, water, air quality, protection from erosion, waste disposal, storm protection, water supply and carbon storage and sequestration.

It is obvious that natural capital is extremely important for those who earn part or all of their livelihoods from activities which rely on natural resources, such as crop or

animal farming, fishing, lumberjacks, mineral extraction, and so on. However, their importance goes significantly beyond this, since they affect the provision of ecosystem services which are necessary for general human welfare.

Rural development efforts have primarily centered on increasing natural capital. The livelihoods framework is human-centered and involves a broader understanding of the process, including governance of natural resources and local practices, such as land access and distribution, forestry management norms, and similar. Understanding how natural capital is employed, both on its own and in conjunction with other resources, is fundamental in order to support the creation and sustainability of livelihoods. These structures and processes determine access to natural resources and can provide incentives or deterrents required to improve resource management. For example, if markets are well-developed, the value of resources is greater, which in turn can engender better management of their value although in some cases developed markets can generate negative returns for the most disadvantaged, increasing rather than reducing poverty.

Though indirect support to natural capital through Transforming Structures and Processes is very important, direct support- focused on resources themselves as opposed to people's ability to use those resources- still has a place when it comes to conservation for future use (e.g. in situ biodiversity conservation). One of the foundations of the sustainable livelihoods approach is the belief in and pursuit of various types of sustainability. This includes, but is not limited to, environmental sustainability (i.e. sustainability of natural capital and the services that derive from it). It is not just the existence of different kinds of natural resources which matters.

Access to them is equally important, as is quality and their ability to combine with different natural assets over time, such as seasonal changes. Land which is over cultivated and has lost all nutrients has less value for supporting livelihoods than land with highly fertile soil, although the value of both is significantly reduced if their owners or users do not have access to water or physical capital and an infrastructure which allows them to use the water. Alongside natural resources, it is also important to investigate long-term trends in quality and use. Typical issues for analysis might include:

- i. Which groups have access to which kinds of natural resources (women, indigenous population, groups in isolation, traditional communities, etc.)? What are the land tenure structures?
- ii. What is the nature of access rights? (e.g. private property, rental, common property, limited access) What is their level of security and can they be defended against encroachment?
- iii. Is there evidence of any significant conflicts around resource access?
- iv. What is the level of resource productivity (relating to fertility, crop rotation, species conservation etc.)? How have these varied over time (e.g. harvest levels)?
- v. Are there any contemporary forms of knowledge which could increase resource productivity?
- vi. Is there geospatial variation in resource quality?
- vii. To what extent are the resources affected by externalities?

viii. How versatile are the resources? Can they be used for multiple purposes?

ix. What is the value of the resources in terms of their contribution to ecosystem services or resilience?

iv Physical Capital

Physical capital comprises the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods. The infrastructure looks at changes in the environment which affect communication and access to basic services. Production goods are the tools and equipment which increase productivity. The following components of infrastructure are typically essential for sustainable livelihoods:

- i. Access to road and transport;
- ii. Housing and safe buildings;
- iii. Access to water and sanitation;
- iv. Clean and affordable energy; and
- v. Access to information (communication).

Numerous participatory evaluations of poverty have concluded that a lack of certain kind of infrastructure represents a core variant of poverty. Without adequate access to services such as water or energy, human health deteriorates with the result that long periods will be spent carrying out unproductive activities such as collecting water or wood for fuel. The opportunity costs associated with sub-standard infrastructure can likewise impede education, access to medical assistance or income generation.

The increased cost (in terms of all types of capital) of production and transport means that producers operate at a comparative disadvantage in the market. Insufficient producer goods also constrain people's productive capacity and therefore the human capital at their disposal. More time and effort are spent on meeting basic needs, production and gaining access to markets. Infrastructure is a permanent asset and should facilitate the provision of services to the most disadvantaged in order to help them acquire their basic needs and production capacities.

Any assessment of physical capital should be participatory. Users may value some services more than others, and these differences in priorities should be taken into account:

- i. Does the infrastructure support services? A school, for instance, will offer few advantages if there are no professors or if pupils cannot reach the school during lesson time.
- ii. Is the infrastructure appropriate? Can a supply of physical capital fulfil the needs of the local users in the long-term? Not only does this impact on service sustainability, but it also presumes an ability to predict and respond to changes in demand for the capital. Access is also a key concern.
- iii. What are the needs of different groups as regards to physical capital?

v. Financial Capital

Financial capital refers to the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives. The definition used here includes flows as well as stocks and it can refer to consumption as well as production. This definition has been adopted to

capture an important livelihood building block, namely the availability of cash or equivalent that enables people to adopt different livelihood strategies.

There are two main sources of financial capital:

- i. Available stocks: Savings are the preferred type of financial capital because they do not have liabilities attached and usually do not entail reliance on others. They can be held in several forms: cash, bank deposits or liquid assets such as livestock and jewelry. Financial resources can also be obtained through credit-providing institutions.
- ii. Regular inflows of money: Excluding earned income, the most common types of inflows are pensions, or other transfers from the state, payments for environmental services and remittances. In order to make a positive contribution to financial capital these inflows must be reliable (while complete reliability can never be guaranteed there is a difference between a one-off payment and a regular transfer on the basis of which people can plan investments).

Financial capital is probably the most versatile of the five asset categories. It can be converted with varying degrees of ease, depending upon transforming structures and processes into other types of capital. It can also be used for the direct acquisition of livelihoods outcomes, such as when food is purchased to reduce food insecurity. However, it is also the asset least available to the poor and most disadvantaged populations. Consequently, for the poorest in society other forms of capital tend to take precedence. Equally there are other forms of asset or objective which cannot be

obtained directly using financial capital, such as certain kinds of wellbeing or knowledge.

Access to financial capital is best understood as indirect support, which can take the following forms:

- i. Organizational: Increasing the productivity of existing savings and financial flows by helping to develop effective, tailored financial services organizations for the poor.
- ii. Institutional: Increasing in access to financial services, including the removal of barriers, which prevent access to these services because certain groups (e.g. women, indigenous communities, etc.) cannot provide sufficient guarantees (whether this is by providing the required guarantee or by identifying mechanisms which will allow other forms of assets to act as guarantees).
- iii. Legislative/regulatory: Here it is provided via reforms in the environment in which financial services operate, or via supporting government-led networks to protect the most disadvantaged (such as pensions, for example). The question of institutional stability is particularly important in matters relating to microfinance.

Although financial capital is typically versatile, it cannot independently solve problems stemming from poverty. It is possible that communities are not able to make adequate use of their financial resources for one or more of the following reasons:

- i. they may lack the skills needed to do so (and cannot obtain these with small amounts of money); or
- ii. they may be limited by inadequate structures and processes for transformation (for example, underdeveloped markets, a policy environment which is uncondusive to the formation of microenterprises).
- iii. when considering the information to consider to analyze financial capital, it is important to have a clear understanding of the following factors:
- iv. which kinds of financial service organizations already exist, both formal and informal?
- v. what kind of services are offered and under what kind of conditions (interest rates, guarantees required)?
- vi. which population groups or sub-groups have access to these resources? In what way is access limited for other groups, such as women?
- vii. what are the current levels of loans and savings? What is the preferred savings form used by local populations (cattle, jewels, precious metals, bank savings)?
- viii. What are some of the risks related to these different options? What is their level of liquidity and how might this affect their value at the moment of liquidation?
- ix. How many households (and what kind) include members who live outside the local community and send money home?
- x. How do these remittances reach these households?

- xi. How reliable are these remittance flows? Are these subject to seasonal change? What levels of finance are involved?
- xii. Who has control over these payments once they arrive? How are they used and are they reinvested?

2.11 Livelihood Enhancement

Livelihood enhancement is promoted by conservationists and development practitioners as an approach to sustainability by encouraging people to desist from the harmful exploitation and degradation of natural resources (Farrington, 2001). Another aim, rather latent, of livelihood enhancement is to maintain rural production which is mainly agrarian. The importance is that a failing rural economy in any country would have implications for food supply shortages and high importation costs of food. In many developing countries, rural production is labour intensive as most agrarian production is non-mechanized and employ traditional or, at best, semi modern techniques, thus reinforcing low efficiency of efforts, profitability, and low production (Fischer *et al*, 2007). Therefore, livelihood enhancement, while expected to reduce rural poverty, strengthen rural occupation, and also increase efficiency and earnings, is also aimed at retaining rural populations to engage in rural production to maintain the balance of co-dependence between rural and urban areas.

Livelihood enhancement, therefore, refers to increasing the capabilities, such as skill, knowledge, or financial endowment of a people to gain higher returns from their occupations. The International union for conservation of nature and natural resources (IUCN) (2008) contended that the most the livelihood enhancement and diversification programmes tend to be supply-driven and focused on single,

“blueprint” solutions. They further indicated that such solutions are not built on an understanding of the underlying factors helping or inhibiting livelihood enhancement, and often fail to appreciate the obstacles faced by the poor in trying to enhance and diversify their livelihoods. This underscores unsustainable initiatives that are poorly adapted to the beneficiaries’ capacities, have limited market appeal and fail to reflect people’s aspirations for their future.

Hunt (2005) reviewed practices of international development agencies and argued that building capacity “without paying much greater attention to the changes needed in the non-indigenous environment, to create genuine and trusting partnerships, will fail to realize the potential which is there”. This has created the need for sustainable livelihood enhancement, which either takes the form of alternative livelihood initiatives or capacity building within existing livelihoods. It has also paved way for entrenched position of the sustainable livelihood framework (SLF). Chambers (1995) however, criticized international development practice on the basis that the SLF has primarily met the needs of development organizations for whom it was designed. Outcomes for poor people continue to be constrained by their unequal power relationships with such organizations.

2.12 Livelihood Coping Strategies

Households plan strategically for facing risks associated with livelihood security. Choosing a particular set of coping strategies depends on a number of factors including the types of crisis households’ face and options available. Often, poor households risk future income generating capacity for maintaining current food consumption. The kinds of coping strategies adopted by households may also depend

on the type of shocks that stress household livelihoods. Some shocks, such as floods or cyclones, may have unforeseen and sudden onset, have the potential to suddenly destroy household assets, but have a limited duration. Other shocks, such as droughts, may provide households with earlier warning of their onset, have longer term (yearlong) impacts on agricultural production, but with less capacity to destroy household assets. Illness may afflict household members suddenly with prospects for long-term, even permanent loss of household earning capacity. Households are aware of some kinds of shocks, such as dowry payments, well in advance of their onset, and may pursue more well-planned strategies to smooth the adjustments over time. Given the different characteristics of shocks in terms of the timing of their onset and the kinds of costs they impose on households (Dewan, Mark and Satheesh, 2006).

According to Dewan, *et.al* (2006) coping strategies may develop into adaptive strategies with time. Coping strategies are the actual responses to crisis on livelihood systems in the face of unwelcome situations like food insecurity and are considered as short-term responses. They (coping strategies) need to be understood in terms of strategies with easily reversible effects versus strategies that incur unacceptable costs. Coping strategies are rational and calculated responses to minimize the intensity or duration of crisis, to maximize limited resources and to preserve long term livelihood security (Adams *et. al.*, 1998). Based on their individual characteristics, households will adopt coping strategies that are different from each other. Corbett (1988) divides households' coping strategies into three distinct stages.

i. First stage: Non-erosive coping (insurance strategies)

The first stage of coping with food insecurity is marked by the initial shortage of food, or inability to provide sufficient quantities of food to all members of the (Faustine, 2016). This stage is also characterized by the following: taking out loans; reduction in dietary intake; consumption of cheaper foods and reduction of the frequency of meals. When food access diminishes or resources wane, adaptations employed might be dietary change, reduction in the number of meals per day (rationing), relying on wild foods, seeking for wage labour to increase income, and borrowing food or money from relatives. These strategies are considered as first stage strategies (Corbett, 1988; Maxwell, 1996). During this stage, responses developed by the population are reversible and in principle do not damage livelihoods and future productive capacity and primarily aim at preventing destitution. Devereux (1993) more precisely names these strategies as accumulation and adaptation coping strategies.

ii. Second stage: Erosive coping (crisis strategies)

The second stage of coping strategies is characterized by the sale of assets (non-productive and productive assets), loans, and sale of large stock of livestock, land, and tools (Frankenburger, 1992). The responses in this stage are less reversible as households are forced to use strategies that reduce their productive assets and threaten their future livelihoods (Van der Kam, 2000). During the second stage, the food crisis begins to threaten asset preservation. The assets that are sold at this stage are those related to income generation, such as farming equipment, land, and cattle.

According to Corbett (1988), stage two is indicative of productive asset sales and a shift of priority from asset prevention to food consumption. The sale of productive assets has severe implications for the future productive potential and long-term food security of the households. The sale of productive assets leads to the last stage of coping. Erosive coping behaviours (such as selling of productive assets) cause further loss of household assets. The selling of assets in response to shocks permanently lowers future food consumption. Households that resort to unsuitable coping strategies such as selling of productive assets or taking high interest loans represent a crucial area of concern for those working with the most food insecure populations. The incidence of asset disposal shows vulnerability to food insecurity (Faustine, 2016).

iii. Stage three: Failed coping (distress strategies)

At stage three, the food crisis has prolonged leading to a dire situation. Destitution, dependency on charity and out-migration are indicative of this stage (Faustine, 2016). Everything at this stage could be sold. According to Frankenburger (1992), although the disposal of all assets ensures survival, it severely jeopardizes the future security of the household. At this stage, all coping mechanisms have been completely exhausted and people are dependent on food aid for immediate survival (Van der Kam, 2000).

2.13 Community Driven Development

Community-driven development (CDD) has become an increasingly common tool used by governments to address the needs of poor communities. The CDD approach is characterized by the movement of responsibility over resources and planning

decisions to local decision-makers in an effort to more accurately and efficiently identify the needs on the ground. Empowering communities to take charge of their own development may also lead to long-term effects on how they perceive their own role in governance, with improvements in accountability, transparency, and the quality of decisions (Amanda *et.al.* 2011).

Idode, (1989) reported that community development includes all strategies interventions or coordinated activities at the community level aimed at bringing about social and economic development. The salient features are:

- i. It is demand driven.
- ii. It encourages analysis of local problems with a view to improving the level of living standards.
- iii. It considers the local community, as the basic unit for planning and development.
- iv. It provides technical and other services in ways which encourage initiative and cooperation and it diffuses the decision-making power by emphasizing the principle that those affected by community change should themselves select and manage such change.

The World Bank (2011) defined Community-driven development (CDD) as an approach to poverty reduction in which the intended, community-level beneficiaries of development programs participate (including local governments) in and influence decisions about the allocation and investment of the programs' resources. The CDD operates on "the principles of local empowerment, participatory governance, demand responsiveness, administrative autonomy, greater downward accountability, and enhanced local capacity.

The approach has been widely used at the World Bank and elsewhere and tested in different contexts, including fragility and conflict (World Bank, 2003). The CDD interventions are based on the principle that community involvement in identifying needs and priorities, making decisions about projects, and managing investment funds produces better development outcomes than more centralized, top-down approaches. The ‘bottom-up approach’ to poverty reduction that CDD projects embed has been promoted on the ground that it makes development more inclusive and responsive to the real needs of the poor, because it has the potential to empower poor people, improve governance, build social capital, and strengthen communities’ collective action.

According to a literature review of CDD undertaken for the last OED evaluation of the effectiveness of World Bank support for this type of interventions (OED, 2005), the Bank categorizes CDD approaches in a three-fold typology, which encompasses both community participation efforts and participatory governance/social accountability initiatives.

Table 2. Type of CDD Interventions

Type	1. Community control		2. Local governments	3. Enabling environment
Definition	Community groups make decisions on planning, implementation and O & M and directly manage investment fund	Community groups make decisions on planning, implementation and O & M but do not directly manage investment fund	Democratically elected local governments make decisions on planning, implementation, O & M, in partnership with different community groups.	Policy and institutional reforms oriented toward increased control of decisions and resources by community groups.

Source: Independent Evaluation Group(IEG)2005.

Note: O&M = Operation and maintenance.

The first typology of projects (community control) is the one that more closely corresponds to the notion of community participation. Communities are enabled to make planning, implementation, operation, and maintenance decisions about specific sub-projects, and may also be assigned direct management of the investment funds. The second typology of projects (local governments or participatory governance) includes those projects that promote collaboration between communities and local government in making development decisions. Finally, enabling environment -type of projects aim to promote policy and institutional reforms that facilitate both community participation and participatory governance (Browne 2014).

2.14 Rural Infrastructure

Rural areas exist in all countries, developed and developing alike (Toyobo, Muili and Adetunji, 2011). Toyobo *et.al.*(2011) also observed that in the developing countries of Africa, especially Nigeria where about 50% of the population live and work in the rural areas, a sizeable proportion of the urban dwellers work and depend much of their livelihood on the surrounding rural district. However, in terms of spatial development, more emphasis is placed on urban problems resulting in the relegation of the rural sector to the background, thereby creating a wider rural-urban dichotomy.

Infrastructure growth and development has ever been an on-going, though with high need of attention especially in developing economies like Nigeria. With the ever growing population, urbanization menace, the need for creating environments for business growth and provision of a sustainable environment has called for the need and immediate attention to the state of infrastructure in Nigeria, most especially to

the development of the economy and particularly the rural areas. Most infrastructures in Nigeria are said to be in poor state owing to various factors like poor maintenance culture, poor or inadequate funding and also neglects over a long period of time by government and its different agencies that are to provide and maintain the infrastructure (Akinleye, Gordon and Johnson, 2014).

Nigeria's internal disparity between rural and urban areas still remains very high even after several national and regional development efforts. Measured in terms of quality of living, social opportunities, physical facilities, human development and standard of living, the overall score for rural areas still stands very low in comparison with its urban counterparts (Nseabasi, 2012). Rural areas in Nigeria have generally been associated with agriculture which still depends on manual and local efforts. The implication is that the rural areas depend on agricultural sector for income, employments and other livelihoods opportunities. Despite its contribution to the national economy and GDP, rural areas in Nigeria remain very poor and deeply neglected (IFAD, 2011). Investments in physical, social and economic infrastructures have been focused largely on the cities. As a result, the rural population has extremely limited access to services such as schools and health centers, while the highest number of the populace lacks access to safe drinking water. In the Nigerian context, the rural areas are associated with poverty and, as such, not attractive to live in.

Developmental dichotomy of this dimension raises important challenges bordering on social security and spatial equity. This background has been the rationale for rural

development basically aimed at promoting standards of living and as a pre-condition for minimizing high incidence of rural poverty

Toyobo *et.al.* (2011) defined infrastructure as necessary services, facilities, equipment and devices needed or desired for the physical, mental, health and social well-being of the family and individual. These include sewages, sanitation, roads, electricity, drainage, waste disposal and other public transportation systems. Akinleye *et.al.* (2014), defined infrastructures according to social-economist as instruments considered as factors of production, increasing aggregate output and driving economic growth. From a development stand point: they are seen to enhance quality of life, improving average living standards. Abumere (2002) defined rural infrastructure to include the system of physical, human, and institutional forms of capital which enables rural residents to better perform their production, processing, and distribution activities, as well as help to improve the overall quality of life. Some of these infrastructures are roads communication network, irrigation, storage facilities, market facilities, research and extension institutions, schools and universities which train and turn out a variety of skilled agricultural workers.

Rural development is a veritable tool for fighting poverty and achieving economic prosperity at the grassroots level. The concept of rural development embraced by most countries connotes a process through which rural poverty is alleviated by sustained increases in the productivity and incomes of low – income workers and households (Galadima, 2014). Rural areas of a region or country lie outside the densely- built up environments of towns, cities and sub-urban villages and their inhabitants are engaged primarily in agriculture as well as the most basic of

rudimentary form of secondary and tertiary activities (Adebayo, 1998). These areas are characterized by:

- i. little or no infrastructural facilities
- ii. high birth and death rates
- iii. large percentage of children and the aged
- iv. majority of population involved in crude subsistence
- v. farming and petty trading and sadly,
- vi. general high level of poverty
- vii. high level of illiteracy

A number of development approaches have been pursued by various governments in Nigeria with the aim of alleviating rural poverty, some of which are:

- i. Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) (1986).
- ii. Better Life Programme for Rural Women/ Dwellers (BLP) (1987).
- iii. Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) (1997).
- iv. National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) (2001).

In Nigeria the major reason why the rural areas have a majority of their population below the poverty line is the long neglect of these areas by the government. According to Akpan, (2012), the early years of Nigeria's independence witnessed colossal concentration of development efforts on the modern sector of the economy to the exclusion of investment in the rural economy. Most of the above mentioned programmes were mainly government led initiatives with no real community participation hence they are top-down in nature. According to the World Bank (1999), people have a right to partake in actions and plans which affect their lives as

non-participation approaches to development have failed to significantly alter the quality of life and resources of the poor people worldwide. As a result of the failure of the Top Down developmental approaches of past governments in tackling rural poverty and the dangers posed by rural urban migrations, CDD programmes became popular with time in Nigeria, examples of these projects are community and social development projects. These projects are Community-Based Rural Development Programmes which focused on working with community groups to achieve sustainable development.

2.15 Theoretical Framework

There are various approaches that focus on the issues of participation of community members in rural development. The theory of participation, Sustainable livelihood approach theory, community driven development theory, structural functionalism and elite theory were used to guide this study.

2.15.1 Theory of Participation

Participatory theory of development evolved through the perspective of different development theories. Growth Theory dominated in the 1940s and 1950s, Modernization theory in 1960 and Dependency theory in the early 1960s. During this time development planning was seen as a key strategy to achieve desired changes and the state was assumed to play a crucial role in that process. These approach assumed that by increasing production, higher income would be generated and this would result in greater income utility and welfare, and hence the living conditions of the poor would be improved (Adejoh, 2015).Through this approach,

development planning was focused only on economic transformation while other aspects such as culture and society were ignored.

Hettne, Inotai and Sundras (1999) confirms that development involves structural transformation, which implies cultural, political, social and economic changes. Meanwhile, people were identified as a missing element in development efforts and the limited success of many development initiatives was attributed to the failure of development agencies to involve them in the design and implementation of programmes and projects (FAO 1990; Egger, 1995). This led to the concept of Participatory Approach to Development by theorists such as Paul Freire in 1970 that focused on empowering the oppressed. Within this context, Overseas Development Administration [ODA] (1995) views development from social perspective, and defines it as a process through which economic growth and quality of life will be improved, as everyone will be involved.

The theory of Participation has received considerable attention particularly since the early 1990's. According to Adejoh (2015), participation is a complex and on-going process through which people are enabled to exercise varying degrees of influence over developmental related activities that affect their lives. The theory of Participation is a people-centered approach to development which is defined as a process by which members of a society increase personal and institutional capacities to mobilize and manage resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life. It encourages small-scale community actions such as agricultural and community infrastructural projects in order to enhance economic self-reliance. Hence, the approach encourages participation of the majority of the population, especially

women, youth and the illiterate in the process of development (Coetzee and Graaff, 2001).

There has been a shift towards understanding participation during the last three decades. Various theoretical shifts combined with the discussion on participation have emerged during this period. These include: Feminist (Boserup, 1989; Kabeer, 1994), Cultural (Folbre, 2001; Sillitoe, 2002) and Political (Freire, 1970; Friedmann, 1992; Gaventa, 2004) perspectives. As a result several concepts such as Local Knowledge, Empowerment and Political relations have emerged and been linked to participation (Nawal, 2007). All these concepts have contributed to what is commonly known as a paradigm shift 'in the way people perceive the relationship among themselves, their societies and the planet (Keough, 1998). These theoretical paths have paved the way for development tools, such as Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) (Chambers, 1994) to be used by social fund agencies to initiate projects such as the Community and Social Development Project.

Participatory approach connotes active involvement of rural people in planning and managing their own development. It uses the demand-driven, self- help potentials of farmers and it emphasizes capacity building, awareness creation, mobilization, empowerment and self-help for rural community people. The underlying assumption in the past was that, the beneficiaries do not have anything to offer as they were seen as void of ideas, highly ignorant and fatalistic; consequently, development workers and extension agencies were the ones that designed and developed projects without the involvement of beneficiaries (Adejoh, 2015).

This study applied the participatory theory because of the participatory nature of the Community and Social Development Project in the project cycle starting from project identification to the project implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This approach provides the basis for the method and selection of projects and also the involvement of community members and other vulnerable groups thereby allowing their voices to be heard.

2.15.2 Sustainable Livelihood Approach

Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) was developed as a strategy to alleviate poverty; and it is continuously used by different agencies to design policies, projects and programmes relevant (Hategekimana, 2011; Ferguson, 2012). Furthermore, Kristjanson *et.al.* (2010) stated that the SLA integrates the significance of resources, marketplaces and further organizations. This framework aims to identify people's strengths, assets, livelihood activities and opportunities that people have as well as those factors that shape those livelihood. Accordingly, Majale (2002) states that, the SLA is a complete method that attempts to catch, and make available a means of understanding, the essential sources and forms of poverty; as it attempts to draw up the relations among various features of poverty, letting more efficient prioritization of act at a functioning level.

The SLA theoretical framework is relevant as it is convenient in comprehending livelihood and the set of actions and principles that can be adopted to overcome poverty; and assists in the understanding of poverty and applicable tactics that can be employed in enlightening the lives of the poor (Hloniphile, 2016).

Guided by this framework, the study contextualized CSDP as a potential strategy to improving livelihood and the understanding of community participating in CSDP projects using the SLA in its implementation. The SLA was used as a tool for understanding the participatory experiences of respondents in infrastructural projects executed by the CSDP because, “the concept of livelihood encompasses a means of supporting life, meeting individual and community needs; and that the SLA provides new perspectives on developing healthy sustainable societies that provide people with secure and satisfying livelihoods.

2.15.3 Community Driven Development Approach

Community driven development approach (CDD) was developed by the World Bank in 1991. The essence of the approach was to support community members with resources to plan, take decisions and implement local community projects. Community driven development programmes operate on the principle of transparency, participation, local empowerment, demanding responsiveness, greater downward accountability and enhanced local capacity. The World Bank (2016) noted that when given clear and transparent rules, access to information, appropriate capacity and financial support, poor men and women can effectively organize to identify community priorities and address local problems by working together with local governments and other supportive institutions.

When community projects are community driven, it will encourage community participation. Community Driven Development (CDD) is a new Community-based participatory approach to development which involves the beneficiaries in their design and management of projects. Jonathan,(2017) further maintained that

Community Driven Development ensures the inclusion of all the social groupings in the society and empowers the beneficiaries to take charge of their development agenda while injecting sustainability mechanism and also leveraging their sense of ownership. Dokpesi and Ibiezugbe (2010) pointed out that community participation emphasizes grass root input in the development strategies in which the ordinary people in the village are involved in the decisions that directly affect their lives. Similarly, Ering (2005) noted that participatory model emphasizes the role of benefiting communities as actors in deciding their needs and how they should be met. Combined social energies of NGOs, CBOs, Nations, government institutions, communities and other development facilitators towards community mobilization, project implementation project sustainability and financial support aim are encouraging community participation and a community driven development.

The World Bank recognizes that community driven development approach and actions are important elements of an effective poverty reduction and sustainable development strategy. Community driven development is designed to provide solution to varieties of needs, including water supply, sanitation, school, health, access roads, and micro enterprises, nutritional programmes for mothers and infants and post conflict construction. The underlying assumption of Community Driven Development according to Jonathan (2017) is that communities are the best judges of how their lives and livelihoods can be improved and, if provided with adequate resources and information, they can organize themselves to provide for their immediate needs. Jonathan (2017) also was of the opinion that maintenance of rural

infrastructure through community driven development will enhance rural infrastructural sustainability.

2.15.4 Structural Functionalism

Structural functionalism or simply functionalism is a framework for building theory that sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability. Functionalism addressed society as whole in terms of the functions of its constituent elements namely norms, customs, traditions and institutions. A common analogy, popularized by Herbert Spencer in 1873, presents these part of society as “organs” that work toward the proper functioning of the body as a whole.

Considering the above facts, community participation in initiation, planning, designing and maintenance of development projects becomes very crucial. Over the years, both international and local communities recommend for the government to involve local people in decision making that directly affect their life. The theory is relevant to this study in the sense that it provide synergy for both the government and community to work together for the common development initiative.

2.15.5 Elite theory

Poul, Agba and Chukwurah (2014) explained that elite theory was developed to discard the Marxian school of thought that a classless society having an egalitarian structure could be realized after class struggle in every society. According to Elite theory man can never be liberated from the subjugation of an elite structure. The term Elite in the view of Poul *et.al* (2014) refers to a group of people in societies who are powerful and have a lot of influence, because they are rich, intelligent.

Bottomore (1993) gave that classic elite theories were formulated at the end of the nineteenth century and in the first decades of the twentieth century by Vilfredo Pareto (1848–1923), Gaetano Mosca (1858–1941), and Robert Michels (1876–1936). Poul *et.al.* (2014) supported elite model that rural development evolves from the crying need of the rural population for social welfare services, the unwillingness of the ruling class to provide these amenities, the exploitation of the ruling class of the competition among communities for those social artifacts which are deemed to reflect social progress, and the exploitation by the ruling class of the tendency by Nigerians to invest more time, energy and resources in those tasks approved by their community than in those sanctioned by the national collectivity through the State.

Past experience also shows that the Government in Nigeria at various level applied a top-down (supply driven) approach to planning and management of rural development programmes resulting in the marginalization of the grassroots recipient communities. As a result, available local government resources for rural development are inefficiently utilized for the purposes intended, thus leaving the people in the local communities in a state of perpetual poverty and under-development (Poul *et.al.*, 2014). In the same vein, Ewuim (2010) acknowledge the fact that most times government does not consult the people during decision making process and so good projects are often sited at places where they are not needed. This defeats the whole essence of rural development. At some other times, these projects are hijacked by politicians, who serve as contractors for the building of the projects. The funds meant for the projects are often embezzled or misappropriated, leaving the projects either undone or abandoned, and because the people are not part of the

projects, they lack the knowledge and power to challenge the government and the local collaborators.

2.16 Conceptual Model

A model is a general conception of a phenomenon. The conceptual model for this study is represented by a diagram that shows the relationship between the independent variables (socio-economics factors) and the dependent variables (participation in CSDP). The independent variables are expected to have influence on the dependent variable with expected likely outcomes. For instance, sex is expected to have influence on the decision to participate in CSDP by the respondents, likewise education, marital status, income among other variables. The influence of independent variables becomes manifested in participation in CSDP via intervening variables. Such influences can lead to expected livelihood outcomes such as improve level of living, increased income and accessed to infrastructure.

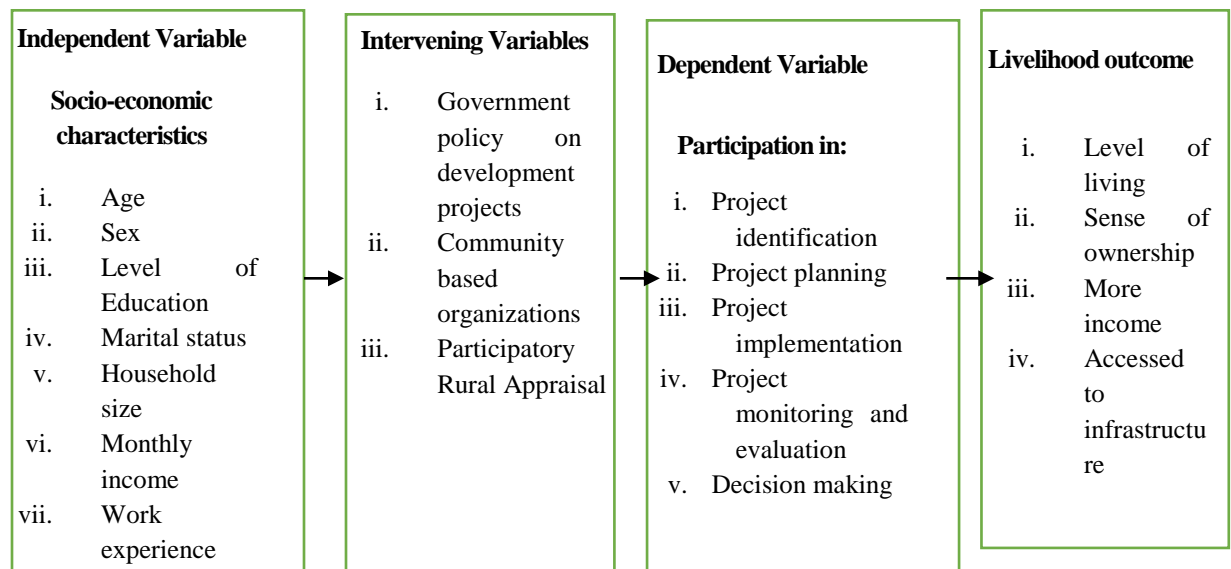


Figure 3: A model of socio-economic factors influencing participation in Community and Social Development Project and expected livelihood outcomes among beneficiaries.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0

METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Study Area

The study was conducted in three States namely Katsina, Kebbi and Zamfara of North West zone, Nigeria. The North West region is made up of seven States namely Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto and Zamfara. The North West zone is located between latitude $9^{\circ} 10' N$ and $13^{\circ} 50' N$ and longitude $3^{\circ} 35' E$ and $9^{\circ} 00' E$ and it covers an area of about $102,535 \text{ km}^2$ (Yakubu, 2018) representing 18% of the country's total land area. The zone has a combined projected population of 52,349,857.67 million at 3.3% growth rate (National Population Commission, 2018). The study area has international boundaries to the north and west with Niger Republic and on the southwest with Benin Republic. The elevation of the study area is between 250 and 350 meters above sea level. Resistant crusts of laterites and ironstones characteristically cap the hills in this area. The river system represents the principal drainage network in this region (Bako, 2016).

The vegetation of the zone consists of Northern Guinea Savannah and Sudan savannah and experience low rainfall of usually less than 1000mm and the prolonged dry season (6-9 months) sustains fewer trees and shorter grasses of about 1.5-2m and few stunted trees hardly above 15m. The vegetation has undergone severe destruction in the process of clearing land for the cultivation of important economic crops such as cotton, millet, maize and wheat (Yakubu, 2011). The mean average temperature range from $18.3^{\circ}C$ to $28.3^{\circ}C$. However, maximum daytime temperatures are for most of the year generally under $40^{\circ}C$ ($104.0^{\circ}F$) and the

dryness makes the heat bearable. The warmest months are March to April when daytime temperatures can exceed 40 °C (110.0 ° C). The rainy season is from May to October during which showers occur. From late October to February, during the cold season, the climate is dominated by the Harmattan wind blowing Sahara dust over the land. The dust dims the sunlight, thereby lowering temperatures significantly and also leading to the inconvenience of dust everywhere in houses (Bako, 2016).

The zone is basically an agrarian society with over 80% of the population involved in one form of animal and or crop farming or the other. They produce such crops as millet, guinea corn, maize, rice, potatoes, cassava, groundnuts, beans, wheat, sugarcane, cotton and vegetables for cash which include garlic, onions, pepper and tomatoes among others. Local crafts such as blacksmithing, weaving, dyeing, carving and leather works also plays an important role in the economic life of the people. The area is also one of the fish producing areas of the country (Bako, 2016).

3.1.1 Katsina State

Katsina State lies between latitudes 11⁰08' N to 13⁰22' N and longitudes 6⁰52'E and 9⁰20' E. The area is in the semiarid region of Nigeria. It does not have adequate quantity and duration of rainfall. The rainfall variability in terms of time of non-set and cessation often leads to crop failure. The lack of adequate rainfall has caused increased erosion and flooding. Also, reduced rainfall quantity has heightened the desertification process leading to livestock grazing problems. Arable land in the area is classified into upland “*gona*” and bottom valley land “*fadama*”. The upland is used mainly for rain fed agriculture while the valley bottom soils are cultivated mostly in the dry season (Adewale *et.al.* 2005). Katsina State has three agro ecological zones:

Sahel, Sudan savanna, and northern Guinea savanna. The soil in the Sahel zone is generally sandy and of low fertility. The soils are marginal for efficient arable crop production. Millet is the most important crop grown in this zone while the most important crop mixture is millet/sorghum. However, wheat and vegetables are grown on irrigation schemes. Generally, planting is done on the flat with minimum tillage. Cattle-rearing is also widespread in this zone. Farmers have some knowledge of how to integrate livestock into their farming systems through the use of farmyard manure for improved soil fertility.

The soil in Sudan savanna zone is mostly sandy and requires little tillage. Rainfall is between 500 mm and 900 mm. The growing season is between 90 to 130 days. Millet and sorghum are the main food crops while other crops grown are groundnut and cowpea. The predominant crop mixtures are sorghum/millet/cowpea, sorghum/millet/groundnut. Livestock (cattle, sheep, and goats) is a major economic asset of this zone.

The northern Guinea savanna is characterized by one peak rainfall of between 1000–1400 mm/annum and a rainy period of 130–190 days. Wet season commences in late May and ends in September/October with a peak in August. Predominant crops in the zone are sorghum, millet, and cowpea while the common crop mixtures are sorghum/maize, maize/cotton, sorghum/cowpea, maize/rice, and millet/sorghum. Livestock is not properly integrated into the cropping system of this zone.

3.1.2 Kebbi State

Kebbi State, which was carved out of the old Sokoto State, is located within latitude 10⁰05'N and 12⁰27'N and longitude 3⁰35'E and 6⁰03'E. It shares international

borders with Niger Republic in the West and Benin Republic in the South. It also shares a common boundary with Sokoto State in the western and southern parts. It is located in the Semi-arid Sudano-Sahelian ecological zone and experiences serious moisture deficiency for greater part of the year (Yakubu, 2018).

Generally, the State is characterized by high temperature essentially in the months of March, April and May. The annual temperature varies from 21⁰C- 38⁰C. The soil type found in the State ranges from heavy clay in the *fadama* areas to sandy loam and sandy soil in the upland areas. Rainfall in Kebbi State begins around April and ends in October with highest rain in July and August. The annual rainfall ranges from 500 to 850mm increasing both in quantity and intensity within the State from the north to the south (Yakubu, 2018).

Kebbi State has a projected population of 4,279,777 people. Among the major ethnic groups found in the area are *Hausa, Fulani, Dakarkari, and Zabarmawa*. Others include *Gungawa, Dandawa* and *Kambari*. Majority of the inhabitants of the State are peasant farmers who reside in rural settlements, particularly along the bank of the existing rivers. Upland crops produced include millet, sorghum, rice, cowpea and maize, while vegetable crops include tomato, pepper, onions, okra, lettuce, carrot among others. Other occupations in the area include fishing and livestock rearing (Yakubu, 2018).

3.1.3 Zamfara State

Zamfara State is located between latitude 10⁰40'N – 13⁰40'N and longitude 4⁰30'E – 7⁰06'E. The State has an estimated area of about 38,000km², about 50% of which is cultivated. It shares the boundary with Sokoto State and the Republic of Niger to the

north, Kebbi and the Niger States to the west, Katsina State to the east, and Kaduna State to the South (ZMSG, 2016). Zamfara State comprises of 14 Local Government Areas located within Savannah ecology, which can be divided into the Sahel, Sudan and Northern Guinea Savannah. The Sahel vegetation is found in northern-most fringes near the border with the Republic of Niger. The climate is generally characterized by alternating dry and wet seasons. The rains usually commence in May/June and end in September/October. Zamfara State has the population figure of 3, 278, 87 people (NPC, 2006). About 82% of the population lives in rural areas and depend on agriculture for their livelihood. Sani (2018) reported that there are 450,000 farming families in the state, most of whom are small-scale farmers having less than 5 hectares of land. Majority of the farming families practiced mixed farming. The rain fed crops grown are millet, sorghum, rice, maize, cowpea, cotton and groundnut. During the dry season farmers in the State produce mainly vegetable crops such as tomato, lettuce, carrot, onion, pepper and spinach (Sani, 2018).

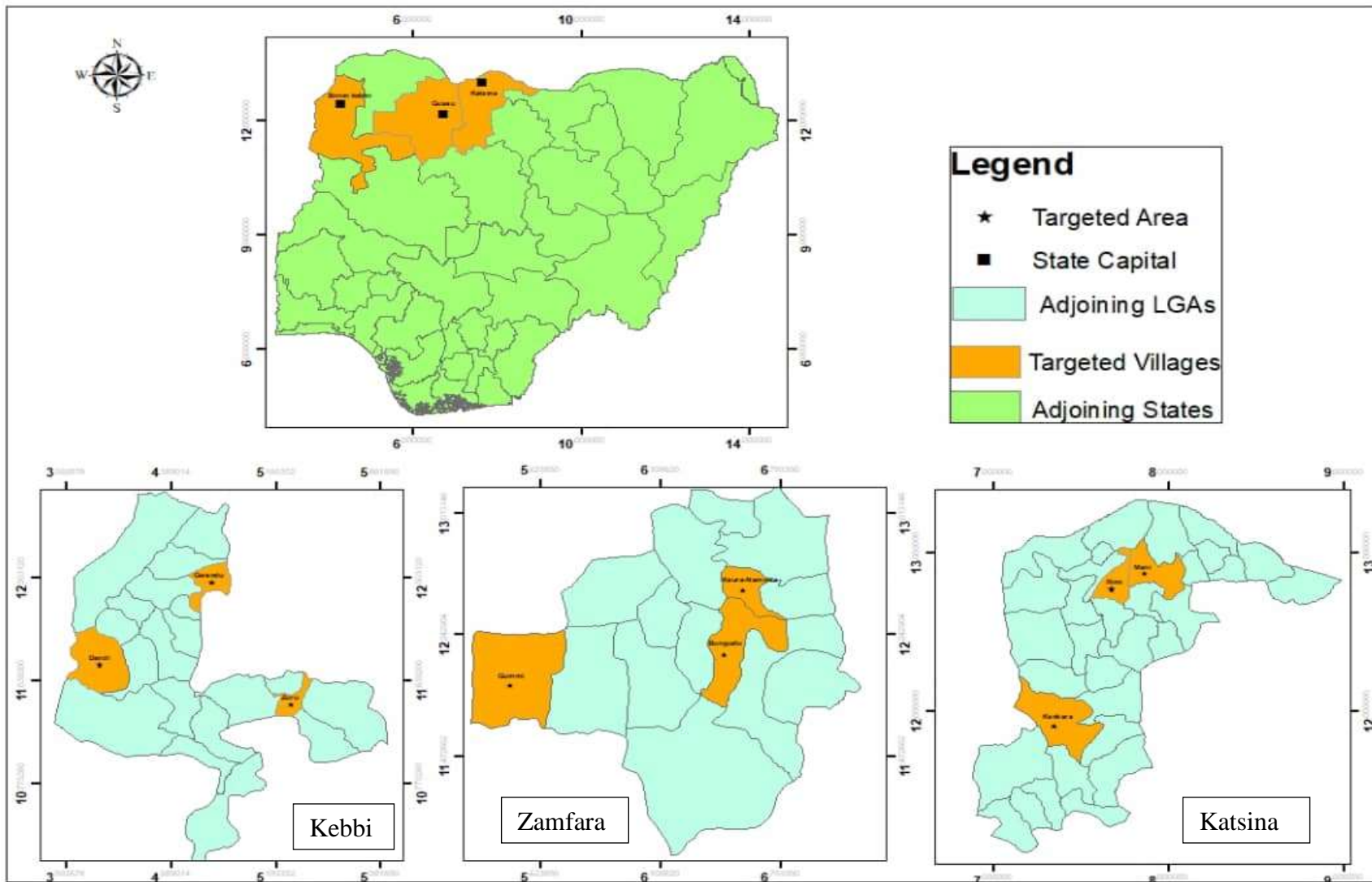


Figure4: Map of the study area

3.2 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

North Western Nigeria comprises of seven States namely Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto and Zamfara. However, this study targeted Katsina, Kebbi, and Zamfara States. They were the States that have benefited from the activities of the CSDP. A multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select the sample for the study. The first stage was the purposive selection of the three existing senatorial zones in the selected States to ensure effective coverage and representation of communities. The second stage was the selection of one (1) Local Government Area (LGA) from each of the senatorial zones using simple random sampling technique, thus giving a total of nine LGAs. The LGAs chosen from Katsina State included Kankara, Mani and Rimi. Those from Kebbi State included Gwandu, Dandi and Zuru. From Zamfara State, Gumi, Bungudu and Kaurar Namoda were selected. The third stage involve the selection of two benefiting communities purposively based on the presence of fully completed and functioning projects from each LGAs participating in CSDP. In addition, equal number of non-benefiting communities were also selected as control for estimation of counterfactual to give a total of 36 communities. The fourth and final stage involved random selection of 10 members of Community Development Associations (CDOs) from each of the 36 communities giving a total of 360 members which constituted the sample size for the study.

Table 3: Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

State	LGA	Treated communities		Control communities		
		Participating Communities	Selected beneficiaries	Selected Non-communities	Selected non-beneficiaries	
Kebbi	Gwandu	Gwabbaren Sakke	10	Gittiyal	10	
		Takari	10	Unguwar Badadi	10	
	Dandi	Maigwaza	10	Dukkushi	10	
		Dogon Daji	10	Wasali	10	
	Zuru	Zangina	10	Udum kudu	10	
		Maikaho	10	Dega	10	
	Katsina	Kankara	Ketare	10	Dan Marke	10
			Yar Goje	10	Dan Sabau	10
Rimi		Sabon Garin Goje	10	Sabin Magama	10	
		Fardami	10	Kunya	10	
Mani		Duru	10	Muduru	10	
		Magami	10	Kaikazo	10	
Zamfara	Gumi	Gidan Illo	10	Dan Jahadi	10	
		Nasarawa	10	Masunta	10	
	Bungudu	Kwanar ta Gero	10	Mahuta	10	
		Nasarawa Kwatarkwashi	10	Kabobi	10	
	Kaurar Namoda	Sabon Gida	10	Munkari Ahlak	10	
		Shiyar Liman	10	Dogon jinji	10	
Total			180		180	

Source: Reconnaissance Survey, 2018. *Obtained from the States' MIS unit of CSDP

3.3 Method of Data Collection

In order to achieve the objectives of this study both primary data and secondary were used for the study. Primary data were obtained with the aid of structured questionnaire administered in November- December, 2018 by trained enumerators. The questionnaire was tested so that the interviewers can gain familiarity with the questionnaire and provided an opportunity to apply and review the method. The focus was on assessing how respondents understand the questions and to identify any problems encountered in providing answers. Proposed changes were made and incorporated into the final questionnaire.

The instruments were used to generate information on the socio-economic characteristics of the CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries, levels of participation in CSDP, influence of socio-economic factors of the beneficiaries on their participation in CSDP, effect of CSDP on the rural livelihood assets of beneficiaries, common livelihood activities and the challenges to effective participation in CSDP. Information of the benefits derived by the beneficiaries in CSDP participation were also obtained.

The secondary data dwell on past works and reports, theses, journal articles, bulletins, newspapers and text books.

3.4 Methods of Data Analysis.

For the purpose of achieving the objectives of this research, data for this study were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential Statistics (Probit regression and Double difference Estimator). Descriptive Statistics such as frequency counts, percentages, means and standard deviations were used to achieve objectives (i), (ii),

(v), (vi) and (vii) which described the socio-economic characteristics of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries, examined the levels of participation in CSDP among the beneficiaries, examined the common livelihood activities of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in the study area, identified the benefits derived from CSDP by the beneficiaries and identified the major challenges to the effective participation of beneficiaries in the CSDP respectively.

Probit Regression Model was used to achieve objective iii which determined the influence of the socio-economic characteristics of beneficiaries on their participation in CSDP. A beneficiaries' decision to participate in CSDP is influenced by many socio-economic factors. The probit model was used to analyze those factors influencing CSDP participation of beneficiaries. The decision to participate in CSDP is discrete and it takes a value of 1 if a beneficiaries participates and 0 otherwise. Drawing from Von Braun and Immink (1994); Goletti (2005); Ohen *et.al.* (2013) the explicit form of the probit model is expressed as:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \dots + \beta_7 X_7 + \epsilon_i \dots \dots \dots 1$$

Where:

Y= Binary response defined as 1 if the respondents participates and 0 if otherwise

β = Estimated parameters

X1= Sex (1= male, 0= female)

X2= Age (Number of years)

X3= Marital Status (1= married, 2= single, 3= others)

X4= Educational level (Years spent in school)

X5= Household size (Number of persons in family)

X6= Monthly income (Naira)

X7= Working experience (years spent working)

β_0 = intercept

ϵ = Error term

Double Difference Estimator was used to achieve objective iv, i.e. to determine the effect of participation in Community and Social Development Project on livelihood assets. The double difference method is a standard programme evaluation tool used to measure potential programme impact (Verner and Verner 2005). The double difference in a regression framework can be written as:

$$Y_{ij} = a + DD T_i t_j + \beta T_i + t_j + u_{ij} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Where:

DD=

$$\frac{\overline{YiT2017} - \overline{YiT2010} - \overline{YiC2017} + \overline{YiC2010}}{\dots \dots \dots} \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

Double difference

$\overline{YiT2017}$ = Average livelihood assets of the beneficiaries in 2017

$\overline{YiT2010}$ = Average livelihood assets of the beneficiaries in 2010

$\overline{YiC2017}$ = Average livelihood assets of the non-beneficiaries in 2017

$\overline{YiC2010}$ = Average livelihood assets of the non-beneficiaries in 2010

3.5 Operationalization and Measurement of Research Variables

The study considered two sets of variables; dependent and independent variables.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable Y is the beneficiaries' participation. Participation in this study referred to the active involvement of the beneficiaries in the various stages of Community and Social Development Project. Respondent was asked to answer yes or no if he participated in CSDP and to any stage of the project cycle. Yes was scored as 1 and No was scored as 0.

The various stages considered includes: Identification of micro projects, Project selection, Consultation with technical/professionals, Decision on the scope of micro-project, Preparation of community development plan, Counter fund contribution, Community meetings, CPMC training, Labour contribution at project site, Selection of project sites, Procurement of materials, Serving in project committees, Problem solving, Reporting and consultation, Writing of physical progress report. To determine the level of participation, the rate of participation was first determined. This was measured by the number of beneficiaries who participated in the various stages of the project as a percentage of the total number of beneficiaries under the study. To further study the level of participation, the total number of Yes response to the various stages of participation above was calculated as the score. e.g, sixteen stages were identified as indicated above, where the beneficiaries participated in less than five stages, low participation was scored, where the beneficiaries participated in between 5-10 stages, medium participation is scored and if participated in 10 and

above stages, high participation is scored. Level of participation was categorized into High, Medium and Low.

Independent Variables

The choice of independent variables for this study is influenced by literature reviewed on factors that influence participation in community development programmes. The independent variables for this study are socio-economic characteristics of the respondents which were assumed to have influenced their decision to participate in Community and Social Development Project or not. They were measured as follows:

Age: This referred to the approximate chronological age of the respondent at the time of data collection in 2018. Age in this case will be measured by the number of years from birth given by the respondent at the time of interview and scored according to age given. It is expected that age will have no significant influence on participation in Community and Social Development Project (CSDP); this is because CSDP is not age specific.

Sex: Sex refers to the sum of the characteristics that distinguish respondents on the basis of their reproductive function. It is either of the two categories, male or female, into which the respondents are placed on this basis. Sex is therefore measured as 1, if male and 2, if female. The apriori expectation was that males are more likely to participate in Community and Social Development Project than their female counterparts.

Marital Status: This was categorized and measured as Married= 1, Single= 2 and others= 3. Marital status is expected, in this study to have a significant influence on the likelihood to participate in CSDP.

Levels of education: This referred to the number of years spent in formal education by the respondent. This will be categorized into levels of education attained and measured by scoring each level as Primary Education (1), Secondary Education (2), Tertiary education (3), non-formal education (comprising Adult and Qur'anic education) (4). The expectation is that, high level of education may influence participation in Community and Social Development Project.

Household size: This is the number of people who reside in the same dwelling and share meals or living accommodation. The larger the household the larger the demand for the basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, shelter and education. Respondents with larger household sizes have more domestic responsibility. Such responsibility may be a driving force for them to participate community development programmes such as CSDP. Household size was measured by the number of people in the household. The expectation was that the larger the household size, the higher the probability of participation in CSDP.

Monthly income: This refers to flow of cash or cash equivalents received by the respondents from sources on monthly basis. Higher income was expected to have no significant influence in CSDP participation. Monthly income was measured in Naira (₦).

Working Experience: This is the number of years spent by the respondents in income generating activities. It is expected that working experience will have

influence in CSDP participation. It is measured in the number of years of working experience.

Impact variables

The independent variables are expected to have influence on the dependent variable resulting in expected outcome called impact variables. The impact variables for this study included:

Level of living

Adejoh (2015) also saw the concept of level of living as the sustainable access to resources to meet basic needs including adequate access to food, portable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, and social integration. Change in level of living of the beneficiaries for this study refers to change in his level of possessions of household assets. The indices used for measuring level of living included: Possession of household assets such as cell phones, television and video sets, radio, motor cycle and car amongst others, was considered and valued in naira for the purpose of analysis. Participation in CSDP by the beneficiaries was expected to improve his level of living.

Sense of ownership

This refers to the feeling of obligation that the project belongs to the community as a result of their involvement in the design and implementation of the project. CSDP participation by the respondents is expected to have impact on project sustainability.

Income

This refers to the increase or decrease in earnings or cash equivalent by the respondent as a result of the provision of micro projects such as road, health, school, skill acquisition centers etc. by CSDP. Respondents' income can be increased with increased access to infrastructure as a result of their participation.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Socio-Economic Characteristics of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries

4.1.1 Age

Age was identified as the number of years at the time of interview the respondent had lived on earth. Analysis of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries' socioeconomic characteristics is presented in Table 4a. Table 4a shows that the ages from the pooled that (beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries) ranged from 19-70 years with mean age of about 37 years and a standard deviation of .54.68. Based on CSDP beneficiary's status, 33.8% of the beneficiaries were between the ages of 29-38 years, while the same age bracket was 25% for the non-beneficiaries. The mean age of the beneficiaries was 39 years while that of the non-beneficiaries was 35 years. Therefore both the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were averagely young irrespective of their status in CSDP. Although non-beneficiaries were, on average, slightly younger than their counterparts. The result implies that both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were of middle age and within the agricultural productive age range of 30-50 years quoted by Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 1997; 2005). The beneficiaries were found to be matured to make rational decisions affecting their socio-economic wellbeing in their various communities. This is in consonance with Bzugu *et.al.* (2005) who noted that younger persons participated more in agricultural and community development activities.

4.1.2 Sex of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries

Community and Social Development Projects targets both male and female as well as vulnerable groups of the community. The result of the study revealed that the respondents were mostly (81.11%) male probably because in Hausa culture men are more likely than women to participate in activities of projects like the CSDP which involve interaction with strange men. Specifically, the result showed that 79.44% and 20.56% of the beneficiaries were males and females respectively, while 82.78% and 17.22% of the non-beneficiaries were males and females respectively. This implies that majority of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were males which could be attributed to the current practice of purdah (women in seclusion) as the people in the area are predominantly Muslims. However, the finding revealed that there were more females among the beneficiaries than with the non-beneficiaries. The result is in agreement with the findings of Jonathan (2017) who found that 78.6% and 21.4% of CSDP beneficiaries were male and female respectively.

4.1.3 Marital Status

Marital status as shown in table 4a indicated that 86.67% and 6.67% of the beneficiaries were married and single respectively while 73.89% and 16.67% of the non-beneficiaries were also married and single respectively. This could be attributed to the culture of the people in the area, which encourages early marriage. It could also be due to struggle to meet the needs of their families. Only 6.66% and 9.44% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries had other forms of marital status such as divorced or widowed.

However, it can be readily seen that, irrespective of CSDP status, majority of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were married. This implies that the marital status of beneficiaries who benefited from the CSD Project did not differ markedly from those that did not benefit. This finding depicts that the beneficiaries were people that have family responsibilities which could be made easier to discharge through access to infrastructure like water, schools, health centers that are supported by CSDP. This is in line with the findings of Girei *et al.* (2015) in their study on Impact Evaluation of Rural Health Infrastructure Sub sector of the Community and Social Development Project in Adamawa State.

4.1.4 Educational level

On educational level, four forms of education were observed among the CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries, these were primary, secondary, tertiary or no formal education. Findings from the study in Table 4a further shows that 23.89% and 18.33% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries had secondary education respectively. Also 27.78% of the beneficiaries had tertiary education while only 17.78% of the non-beneficiaries had tertiary education. These results show that rural people in the study area actually valued education and it further confirms that the beneficiaries were sufficiently enlightened so as to appreciate the importance of involvement and participation in community project delivery. Also the result conforms to the studies of Kariuki and Misaro (2013) that high literacy level can enhance participation and better understanding of any initiative programme. However, 36.67% and 50% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries stood as those

without formal education respectively. Non-formal education in this research consisted of adult literacy and Qur'anic education.

4.1.5 Household size

Result of the study as shown in Table 4b that 42.2% and 56.11% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries had household size of 1-5 persons respectively. According to the results, 31.7% and 23.34% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries had household size of 6 – 10 persons respectively while only 5.6% of the beneficiaries had more than 20 members. The mean household size was about 8 for the beneficiaries of CSDP and about 6 for the non-beneficiaries. This shows that CSDP beneficiaries have relatively large household size than the non-beneficiaries and it may not be unconnected to the common practice of polygamy and extended family systems in the study area. This agrees with Thomas *et.al.* (2018) findings that the average household size of market participants was 8 people.

Table 4a: Distribution of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries according to socio-economic characteristics (n=360)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

4.1.6 Primary occupation

The occupational distribution of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries shows that they had five primary occupations. They were farmers, traders, public servants, artisan and agro processors. Table 4b shows that majority (69.17%) of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were into farming as primary occupation with non-beneficiaries of CSDP being more distributed within the category than their counterparts. However, among those reported on the other categories (Trading,

Public service, and artisan), the beneficiaries were proportionally higher than their counterparts.

The result in table 4b shows that 63.89% of the beneficiaries of CSDP and 74.44% of the non-beneficiaries were into farming while 18.89% and 10.56% of beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries respectively were public servant. Some 17.22% and 15% of beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were into other occupation that comprises trading, artisan and agro processing. The findings disagree with Aderinoye-Abdulwahab *et.al.* (2015) who reported that the major occupation for income generation in communities was trading on non-farm produce (39.8%). Also the fact that most of the beneficiaries were farmers means that they are based in rural areas where there is serious lack of functional infrastructure such as roads, schools, hospitals etc. This lack of infrastructure might have motivated them to seek the assistance of the CSDP in providing some of these much needed infrastructure.

4.1.7 Membership of Association

One of the major thrust of this study was to determine the level of participation of respondents in the Community and Social Development Project. The study revealed that 6.11% and 55% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries respectively, were not registered members of the various Community Based Association that fronted for CSDP. However, 93.89% of the beneficiaries were registered members, while 45% of the non-beneficiaries were registered members of the Community based associations. Therefore the non-beneficiaries were found to be more distributed among those without membership of the Community Based Association.

Membership of associations offers members of communities the opportunity to engage in collective actions. Social organizations provide platforms for collective identification of needs and the pooling of resources to provide them. It is a positive development because membership of associations is known to encourage participation in community development activities that are being supported by agencies such as CSDP.

4.1.8 Monthly income

Result in Table 4d showed that majority of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries (88.9%) had a monthly income of ₦50,000 and below, only 3.1% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries had a monthly income of ₦100,000 and above. The result further revealed that majority of the beneficiaries (84.5%) had a monthly income of between ₦50,000 and below slightly below the non-beneficiaries with 93.3%. About 9.4% and 6.7% of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries had a monthly income of between ₦51,000-₦100,000 respectively, Very few (6.1%) of the beneficiaries had a monthly income of ₦101,000 and above. The mean income for the beneficiaries was ₦34,141.67 while non-beneficiaries was ₦24,775. The result supports the findings of Okereke-Ejiogu *et.al.*(2015) who found the mean monthly income of participants to be ₦38,268.52. This implies that the beneficiaries earn some money at the end of the month and this could encourage their participation in community development projects like CSDP as they can afford to pay the levies if such need arises.

Table 4b: Distribution of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries according to socio-economic characteristics (n=360)

Variables	Beneficiaries		Non-beneficiaries		Pooled	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Primary Occupation						
Farming	115	63.89	134	74.44	249	69.17
Public service	34	18.89	19	10.56	53	14.72
Others	31	17.22	27	15	58	16.11
Membership of Association						
Yes	169	93.89	81	45	250	69.44
No	11	6.11	99	55	110	30.56
Monthly income						
< ₦50,000	152	84.5	168	93.3	320	88.9
₦51,000- ₦100,000	17	9.4	12	6.7	29	8.0
>₦101,000	11	6.1	0	0	11	3.1
Mean	₦34,000		₦24,775		₦29,458	
Std. Dev.	2454.63		1259.94		1399.63	
Household size						
1 – 5	76	42.2%	101	56.11	177	49.2
6 – 10	57	31.7	42	23.34	99	27.5
11 – 15	27	15	33	18.33	60	16.7
>16	20	11.1	4	2.22	24	6.6
Mean	8.4		6.54		7.5	
Std. Dev.	.44		.33		.28	

Source: Field Survey, 2018

4.2 Stages of Participation of Beneficiaries in Community and Social Development Project

Community participation is very important tool for developmental process in any country. It was observed that CSDP beneficiaries in the study area participated in the sixteen basic stages of the CSDP project cycle. The information in Table 5 shows the distribution of the beneficiaries according to the stages of CSDP project cycle they were engaged in. It revealed that the beneficiaries participated more in project planning stage, project implementation stage than in project preparation and monitoring and evaluation stages. Results showed that majority (85.6%) of the beneficiaries participated in project planning stage with 23.9% participated in project identification, 27.8% in project selection and 33.9% in project need assessment. The high participation in the Project Planning Stage could be attributed to sensitization and awareness creation carried out by the Community and Social Development Project agencies in the study area and also the Participatory Rural Appraisal method employed in assessing the needs of the communities. Planning stage takes into consideration the interest of the different segments of the communities (men, women, youth, elderly and vulnerable persons) not just at the implementation stage hence the highest participation.

It was also observed from the result that 65% of the beneficiaries were involved in project preparation stage, of which 28.9% participated in counterpart contribution, 16.7% in the decision on the scope of micro project, 11.1% participated in consultation with technical or professionals while 8.3% were involved in preparation of community development plan. The study shows that beneficiaries' participation in

the project preparation stage had lesser participation than the project planning stage. The only component of the project preparation stage that had high percentage (28.9%) and ranked second of beneficiaries 'participation was the community counterpart contribution. Responses during the interview sessions revealed more of participation of CPMC members at this stage than the generality of the community members. Consultation with technical persons/professionals was said to be the responsibility of the CPMC members who were meant to report back to the community members during community general meetings as a form of feedback mechanism.

In project implementation stage, a total of 71.6% of the beneficiaries were involved out of which 19.4% participated in community meetings, 14.4% participated in the selection of project site, 16.7% participated in labour contribution at project site, 12.8% in procurement of project materials and only 8.3% were participated in community project management committee training. This revealed that the communities are responsible for financial management, procurement and other implementation aspects of the projects, and they are only supported by the state agency (SA), LGA and other relevant experts where the communities deem it necessary. Monitoring is concerned with the continuous and routine measures enshrined to ensure that activities required for successful completion are adopted and followed. Labour contribution was ranked 8th and second component with 16.7% beneficiaries' participation probably because one of the specific objectives of the CSDP is to empower the communities to plan, implement, monitor and part finance

the socially inclusive micro projects in their communities. The beneficiary contributions may be in cash or kind which includes land, materials and labour. With regards to the monitoring and evaluation stage, 61.7% of the beneficiaries have participated with 18.3%, 16.7%, 15% and 11.7% participated in project monitoring committees, reporting and consultation, problem solving and writing of physical progress report respectively.

Table 5: Stages/ activities of Participation of beneficiaries in Community and Social Development Project

CSDP Stages/ activities	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Project Planning stage			
Identification of projects	43	23.9	4 th
Project selection	50	27.8	3 rd
Need assessment	61	33.9	1 st
Project preparation stage			
Consultation with technical/professionals	20	11.1	14 th
Decision on the scope of micro-project	19	16.7	7 th
Preparation of community development plan	15	8.3	16 th
Counterpart fund contribution	52	28.9	2 nd
Project Implementation stage			
Community meetings	35	19.4	5 th
CPMC training	15	8.3	15 th
Labour contribution at project site	30	16.7	8 th
Selection of project sites	26	14.4	11 th
Procurement of materials	23	12.8	12 th
Monitoring and Evaluation stage			
Serving in project committees	33	18.3	6 th
Problem solving	27	15	10 th
Reporting and consultation	30	16.7	9 th
Writing of physical progress report	21	11.7	13 th
Total	500		

Source: Field Survey, 2018

***Multiple responses**

In the context of this study, levels of participation of beneficiaries in Community and Social Development Project in the study area falls into three categories, namely: Low, Medium and High based on the frequency of participation in different stages of participation. Table 6 reveals that 16.67% of the beneficiaries had low participation having involved in less than 5 levels of activities. Majority of the CSDP beneficiaries (47.78%) had high participation having participated in more than 10 levels of activities while 35.56% had medium participation having involved 6-10 levels of CSDP activities.

The findings from this study as revealed that most of the beneficiaries falls within the category of high level of participation (47.78%) and agrees with the typology of participation by Pretty and Vodouhe (1997) whereby the beneficiaries have gone beyond passive to self-mobilization type of participation.

Table 6: Distribution of beneficiaries based on their levels of participation in community and social development project (n=180)

Levels of participation	Frequency	Percentage
<5 (Low)	30	16.67
5-10 (Medium)	64	35.56
>10 (High)	86	47.78
Mean	2.3111	
Standard deviation	0.0553	

Source: Field Survey, 2018

4.3 Socio-economic factors influencing beneficiaries' participation in community and social development project

Probit analysis was conducted to determine the influence of socio-economic characteristics of beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries on their participation in CSDP. The results is presented in Table 7. The ratio statistics indicated by chi-square statistics are highly significant ($p < 0.0000$). This suggests that the model has a strong explanatory power. The pseudo R^2 is 0.0686 meaning that the regressors were able to explain 69% of CSDP participation in the study area. It was observed that out of seven independent variables considered for analysis, five were significant. The significant factors included the sex, marital status, level of education, monthly income and work experience.

Sex was positively and significantly related to the decision to participate in CSDP by beneficiaries at 1% level of probability; this implies that respondents who were male are more likely to participate in CSDP in the study area compared to women. This observation is consistent with Abdul-Hanan and Anang (2018) and Thomas *et.al.* (2018). The reason for this finding is that in a typical rural setting, household heads are usually males who are the decision-makers in terms of access to resources and participation in programmes. Women often need the permission of their husbands to participate in programmes thus constraining their participation rates. The hypothesis is therefore rejected for this variable. Marital status was significantly related to the decision to participate in CSDP by beneficiaries at 5% level of probability; this implies that beneficiaries that have family responsibilities are more likely to participate in CSDP than other respondents.

The result also showed that level of education had a negative coefficient (-0.1210) and significant at 10 percent level of probability. It should be recalled that a negative sign on the coefficient implies that as level of education increases, perceived level of participation of CSDP decreases. Similarly, a positive sign indicates that with a unit increase in a particular variable there is also an increase in the perceived level of participation in CSDP within the study area. This implies that the higher the level of education of the respondents, the less the probability of participation in CSDP activities. Education decrease of participation correlate with the report by Sani (2018) said there could be cases that educated households have the high chance of engaging themselves in other non-farm related activities such as sideline business, involvement in the administration that leave them with little time to participate in community development activities. The result is in conformity with findings of Adeyemo and Kayode (2012) who found that education ($r=-2.641; P<0.00$) has significant but negative coefficient with level of sustainability of community projects within the study area.

Monthly income was a significant factor influencing participation in the CSDP programme. This implies that people with relatively higher income are more likely to participate in CSDP activities in the rural areas. The reason might be, those with low income are very much busy looking for what to eat and therefore may not necessarily have time to partake in the activities of CSDP.

The probit model results show that working experience was significantly associated with the probability of participation in CSDP activities. This shows that experienced people were more likely to participate in CSDP activities relative to unexperienced

ones. The result here is plausible and expected. More experienced house heads have overtime, developed some understanding of programmes that can help to improve their socio-economic wellbeing. The result is in agreement with the findings of Udo, (2014) who underlined that working experience among other factors have influence in programme participation in Nigeria.

However, age and household size was inversely related to participation in CSDP activities since the value of their coefficient was found to be (.001559 and .0043411) and was not statistically significant (2.77 and 0.020) at either 1% or 5% level of probability. It is therefore shows that the age and household size of the respondents have no influence on their participation in the CSDP activities. It was hypothesized that respondents' socio-economic factors have no influence on CSDP participation. The finding showed that sex with z value of (2.77), marital status (2.32), education (1.88), monthly income (2.30) and work experience (2.05) had significantly influenced respondents' participation in CSDP activities at 1%, 5%, 10%, 5% and 5% level of probability respectively. It is therefore concluded that beneficiarie's socio-economic factors have influence on their participation in the CSDP activities; hence, the null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

Table 7: Socio-economic factors influencing beneficiaries' participation in Community and Social Development Project (CSDP)

Variables	Coefficient	Standard Error	z- Value
Sex	0.5867	0.2122	2.77***
Age	0.0015	0.0107	0.15ns
Marital status	-0.2444	0.1054	-2.32**
Education	-0.1210	0.0645	-1.88*
Household size	0.0043	0.0206	0.21ns
Monthly income	7.5333	3.2777	2.30**
Work Experience	0.0223	0.0193	2.05**
Constant	-0.6090	0.4001	-1.52
Log likelihood	-232.12545		
Pseudo R ²	0.0698		
Prob> chi ²	0.0000		

Source: Survey data, 2018

Note: *, ** and * significant at 1%, 5% and 10% probability respectively.**

4.4 Effect of participation on the livelihood of CSDP beneficiaries.

In order to achieve this objective, the households' assets, livestock acquisition, harvested crop and income of the beneficiaries before CSDP intervention in 2010 and after the intervention in 2017 were assessed and used as proxy for livelihood.

Acquisition of productive assets by the beneficiaries as a result of CSDP intervention in the communities is important to their standard of living. Table 8 revealed that the mean value of household assets for the beneficiaries before (2010) and after (2017) the CSD project started were ₦170, 613.1 and ₦328, 197.6 respectively. The mean increase for the beneficiaries' productive household assets was ₦ 157, 584.5.

However, the mean value of productive household assets for the non-beneficiaries before and after the project started was ₦66, 798.9 and ₦130, 401.7 respectively. The mean increase for the non-beneficiaries productive household assets was ₦64, 602.8. The double difference values was observed to be ₦92, 981.7 implying that productive assets increased more across the beneficiaries in comparison to the non-beneficiaries in the course of time.

Table 8: Result of DDE showing impact of CSDP participation on the livelihood of beneficiaris

Mean Value of Productive Household Assets (₦)			
Respondents	2010	2017	Difference
Beneficiaries	₦170,613.1	₦328, 197.6	₦157, 584.5
Non-beneficiaries	₦66, 798.9	₦130, 401.7	₦64, 602.8
Difference	₦103, 814.2	₦197, 795.9	₦92, 981.7*

Source: *Author's estimates from survey Data (2018)*

Note: *= *Double difference estimates*

4.5 Livelihood Activities

Analysis of the livelihood activities CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries engaged in is presented on Table 9. Result from the pooled data shows that about 36.7% of the respondents were engaged in crop farming, 26.9% in livestock farming while 28.3% were into cattle trading. From the frequency point of view, the result shows that beneficiaries were more involved in crop farming (38.3%) slightly higher than non-beneficiaries (35%), livestock farming was 28.3% and 25.5% for the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries respectively. Cattle trading was 34.4% and 22.2% for both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. Commercial motorcyclist was another

activities CSDP beneficiaries were involved as a means of livelihood as reported by 23.9% of the beneficiaries. The beneficiaries are higher in Commercial motorcyclist activity than non-beneficiaries with 21.1% probably because of the road constructed by the CSDP made nearby communities more accessible and therefore the beneficiaries' takes advantage of that to engage in the commercial transportation business.

Other economic activities include food crop processing, 16.7% for the beneficiaries and 12.8% for the non-beneficiaries, carpentry (12.2% and 17.8%), tailoring (15% and 8.9%) trading (11.7% and 10.6%) and butchering (8.9% and 6.7%) for the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries respectively. It was observed during the field study that respondents, in respective of their CSDP status were involved in more than one economic activity, but CSDP beneficiaries are more distributed in the economic activities. This can be linked to the support they received from CSDP through the provision of infrastructures like water, health centers, roads, skill acquisition centers and electricity supply that support livelihoods. This corroborates Oyesola (2013) that rural dwellers were involved in several livelihood activities as a means of poverty reduction. This observation also collaborate with the findings of World Bank (2003) that rural dwellers economic activities are diverse.

Table 9: Distribution of CSDP beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries according to livelihood activities

Livelihood activities	Beneficiaries		Non-beneficiaries		Pooled	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	percentage	Frequency	percentage
Crop farming	69	38.3	63	35	132	36.7
Livestock farming	51	28.3	46	25.5	97	26.9
Cattle trading	62	34.4	40	22.2	102	28.3
Commercial motorcyclist	43	23.9	38	21.1	81	22.5
Crop processing	30	16.7	23	12.8	53	14.7
Carpentry	22	12.2	32	17.8	54	15
Tailoring	27	15	16	8.9	43	11.9
Trading	21	11.7	19	10.6	40	11.1
Civil servant	34	18.9	24	13.3	58	16.1
Butchering	16	8.9	12	6.7	28	7.8
	*375		*313		*688	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

**Multiple responses*

4.6: Distribution of beneficiaries according benefit derived from CSDP

Apart from the acquisition of productive assets, the beneficiaries reported to have derived other benefits as a result of the project. Table 10 shows other benefits derived from the Community and Social Development Project intervention in the various communities.

The type of projects executed in the study areas includes Skill Acquisition Centre, Rural Electrification, Rural roads, Health Clinic, Primary and Secondary School

Facilities, Water and erosion Control. The data in Table 4.10 revealed that 12.8% of the respondents benefited from improvement in their living standard having access to social amenities that support lives. Also 12.6% of the respondents also had benefited from improved community cohesion as a result of unity among the members of the community. About 10.7% and 10.3% mentioned increased in school enrolment and reduction in the distance covered to school as another benefit their derived from Community and Social Development Project respectively. This may be as a result of construction or rehabilitation of schools in their immediate communities. About 9.3% and 9.2% of the respondents also reported to have benefited from the reduction in water borne disease and increase in the number of water users as a result construction of borehole in their communities by the CSDP. This has implication for the health of the respondent and the ability to spend more time on agricultural and other productive activities that improves their living standard. Similarly 6.5% and 6.4% of the respondents testified to have benefited from the increase in the number of women attending ante natal clinic and also reduction in the time taken to health centers as a result of the construction of health facilities which has made it easy to access medical attention thereby improving their health status which has implication for agriculture and other productive activities within the communities.

Increased in the number of household connected to the electricity and increase in the establishment of small scale businesses was another benefits derived from CSDP electricity project as reported by 4.0% and 2.4% of the respondents respectively. The respondents agreed that their income has been enhanced greatly as a result of CSDP intervention through the benefits highlighted above. The improved access to

electricity, school, Health facility and Skill acquisition facilities has created employment opportunities and also income generation opportunities which ultimately is improving their standard of living. The rural infrastructure investment by the CSDP in the study area had greatly reduced the distance and travel time to the nearest health, school, and water facilities.

Table 10: Benefits derived from participation in the Community and Social Development Project

Benefits	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Improvement in standard of living	179	12.8	1 st
Improved community cohesion	176	12.6	2 nd
Increase in school enrolment	150	10.7	3 rd
Reduction in the distance covered to school	144	10.3	4 th
Increase in income	141	10.2	5 th
Reduced water borne disease	130	9.3	6 th
Increased in the number of water users	128	9.2	7 th
Increase in the number of women attending antenatal and post natal clinics.	91	6.5	8 th
Reduction in the average time taken to health centers.	90	6.4	9 th
Reduced rural-urban migration.	68	4.9	10 th
Increased in the number of household connected to the electricity	57	4.0	11 th
Increase in the establishment of small scale businesses as a result of electricity.	33	2.4	12 th
Reduced travel time to the nearest community.	10	0.7	13 th
	*1397		

Source: Field Survey (2018)

*Multiple responses

4.6: Distribution of beneficiaries based on the challenges experienced in CSDP participation

Objective iv was to identify the challenges experienced by the beneficiaries in CSDP participation. As revealed in Table 11, majority of the beneficiaries (52.2%) complained that high cost of materials was their major challenge during the implementation of the project. The CPMC were given the mandate to award contract and source materials locally based on the budget approved by the CSDP agency. The prices of the materials are most of the time on the high side as against the approved unit price. Next in ranking is the challenge of complex protocol as reported by 48.3% of the beneficiaries as participating communities have to undergo series of protocol before partaking into the programme. The result is in consonance with the findings of Adeyemo *et.al.* (2014) who stated some protocol the community undergo, that community members have to be mobilized and sensitized, groups have to be formed and legally registered, group officers have to be elected and bank account have to be opened if not already in place. Additionally, Participatory Rural Appraisal have to be conducted for need assessment, Local Development Plans have to be drawn, submitted and approved. Counterpart fund of at least 10% also have to be paid before possible disbursement of funds for project implementation. These listed conditions requires significant time and therefore seen as a challenge by most beneficiaries. Inability of the beneficiaries to contribute to the levies placed on them towards the provision of project counterpart fund and other important developmental activities was another challenge reported by 38.9% of the beneficiaries. The result are in tandem with the findings of Adejoh (2015) who reported financial constraints as

challenge affecting women participation in CSDP in Kogi State. About 38.3% of the beneficiaries reported slow decision making process as a challenge facing communities regarding CSDP. The community have to draw community development plan (CDP). The CDP is a comprehensive community plan for development activities within a community and contains a portfolio of micro-projects. Once the SA approves a CDP, the micro projects would be implemented one after the other in accordance with approved plan. Thus, unless the first micro project selected for implementation is successfully completed, grants shall not be released by the SA for the others. The CDP will then be submitted to LGDO who the recommend to LGRC for approval. This takes time and delay the approval.

The study also identified other factors such as abandoned project and possibility of elite capture as challenges faced by communities regarding CSDP as reported by 35.6% and 22.8% of the beneficiaries respectively. Some project were abandoned due to financial constraints and sometimes washed away by rains in the case of road project. The elite who acted as a threat to hijacked community project capitalize on the perceived weaknesses of some community members to pay certain fees and thereafter act as lords over them. Poor maintenance culture as reported by about 23.9% of the beneficiaries was seen as a problem being faced by communities. The beneficiaries explained that active participation diminishes immediately after project implementation. Even though committees are set up at various stages to ensure the sustainability of the project, community members are not so cooperative in that regard. The levies charged for the maintenance of the project are not paid. Finally, lack of qualified medical personnel was reported by 17.8% of the beneficiaries as a

challenge, as most medical personnel deployed to CSDP clinics are not professionally qualified to attend to serious issues of health concern.

Table 11: Distribution of beneficiaries based on the challenges

Challenges	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
High cost of materials	94	52.2	1 st
Complex Protocol	87	48.3	2 nd
Payment of counterpart funds	70	38.9	3 rd
Slow decision making process	69	38.3	4 th
Abandonment of project	64	35.6	5 th
Poor maintenance culture	43	23.9	6 th
Possibility of elite capture	41	22.8	7 th
Lack of qualified medical personnel	32	17.8	8 th
Total	*500		

Source: Field survey, 2018

*Multiple responses

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The study was undertaken to assess the impact of beneficiaries' participation in Community and Social Development Project on rural livelihood enhancement in North West, Nigeria.

Three states participating in Community and Social Development Project in North West, Nigeria were purposively selected. The selected States were Katsina, Kebbi and Zamfara State. Multi-stage sampling technique was used to obtain the samples for the study. In the first stage, one (1) local government area from each of the three senatorial Zones of Katsina, Kebbi and Zamfara States was selected randomly; this gave a total number of nine (9) local government areas, three from each state. The second stage was purposive selection of two (2) communities with highest number of completed micro projects. In addition, equal number of non-benefiting communities were used as control for estimation of counterfactual per sector. This gave four (4) communities from each local government area selected giving a total of thirty six (36) communities for the study. In the third stage, ten members of community based organizations (CBOs) were selected randomly through balloting, each from the sampled communities to arrive at three hundred and sixty (360) respondents for the study.

Analysis of the socio-economic variables showed that the mean age of the respondents from the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries was 39 and 35 years respectively. Majority of them (81.11%) from the pooled were male with only

18.89% being female respondents. Most of them were married (80.28%) with high level of non-formal education (43.33%) and low of western education. Majority (49.7%) had a household size of 1-5 persons and earned an average of ₦29, 458.33 as monthly income with beneficiaries earning slightly above the non-beneficiaries. Majority of the respondents (52.5%) from the pooled data have 1-10 years of working experience and 69.17% of the respondents engaged in farming as their primary occupation. Membership of Association was another variable observed among the respondents with 93.89% of the participants having membership of association and only 45% from the non-participants having membership of association. Majority of the beneficiaries (47.78%) had high level of participation in CSDP having involved in more than 10 project cycle. Precisely, about 85.6% of the beneficiaries participated in project planning stage. About 65% of the beneficiaries participated in project preparation, 71.6% in project implementation stage while 61.7% participated in project monitoring and evaluation stage.

The probit analysis showed that sex, marital status, education, income and work experience were important in terms of increasing the probability of participation in Community and Social Development Project. Participation in CSDP was found to have positive effect on the livelihood assets of the beneficiaries by increasing significantly their productive assets by ₦92, 981.7. Respondents, in respective of their status in CSDP were engaged in different livelihood activities with beneficiaries being more distributed in the categories of livelihood activities. Other benefit derived from the CSDP include improvement in standard of living, improvement in community cohesion, increase in school enrolment, reduction in the distance covered

to school, increase in income and reduction in water borne disease were the major benefits derived by the respondents as a result of CSDP intervention in their communities. Some of the challenges faced by the respondents regarding CSDP in the order of seriousness were high cost of materials, complex protocol, payment of counterpart funds, delay in decision making and abandoned project. Others were poor maintenance culture, possibility of elite capture and lack of qualified medical personnel.

5.2 Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it was observed that majority of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries who took part in the survey were male, married and belonged to large households. They were in their middle age and within the agricultural productive age range of 30-50 years with a moderate (56.67%) level of education. Similarly, the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were involved in different livelihood activities with beneficiaries of CSDP being more distributed within the category than their counterpart. The level of participation in CSDP by the beneficiaries was high with participation in about 10 project cycle out of the 16 stages offered. Their participation was more in project planning stage, project implementation, followed by project preparation stage and project monitoring and evaluation. Socio-economic factors were found to have influence CSDP participation among the beneficiaries. Sex, marital status, level of education, monthly income and work experience were the significant factors influencing participation in CSDP in the study area.

The effect of participation in CSDP was positive and significant and the beneficiaries enjoyed many other benefits such as improvement in standard of living, improve community cohesion, increase in school enrolment, reduction in water borne diseases, and increase in the establishment of small scale businesses. A couple of constraints were also found to hamper participation of beneficiaries in CSDP, these include high cost of materials, complex administrative protocol, payment of counterpart funds and lack of qualified medical personnel in the CSDP constructed health centers.

5.3 Contribution to Knowledge

The information that has generated from this study was carefully examined and the following contribution to knowledge were deduced.

- i. The level of participation in Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) in North West by the beneficiaries is high as 47.78% of them had involved in more than ten out of the sixteen project cycle offered.
- ii. Participation in Community and Social Development Project was found to have positive effect on the livelihood assets of the beneficiaries by increasing significantly to their productive assets by ₦92, 981.7.
- iii. Sex, Marital status and income are important in terms of increasing the probability of participation in Community and Social Development Project.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Sex was found to be significantly related to CSDP participation. The trends observed during the survey was that male beneficiaries participated more in CSDP activities than their female counterpart. It is therefore recommended that projects that have direct bearing with women should be introduced by the CSDP. This will help increase the participation of women in decision making process thereby raise their economic and improve their level of living and ensure sustainable rural development.
- ii. Counterpart funding was one of the requirement for participation in CSDP and a challenge to participation, it is therefore recommended that community should expedite actions in the payment of counterpart fund so as to attract many more projects in the community.
- iii. CSDP should encourage non-benefiting communities to participate through adequate sensitization and outreaches.
- iv. Communities should pay emphasis to skill acquisition centers in the community development plan (CDP) so as to have more diversified choices that will improve their livelihood.

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APPENDIX I

**Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development, Faculty of
Agriculture, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto**

Survey Questionnaire

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is design to provide information needed for a research undertaken for the award of Ph. D. degree in Agricultural Extension and Rural Development. The research topic is the **Assessment of the Impact of participation of Community and Social Development Projects (CSDP) on Rural Livelihood enhancement in North Western Nigeria.**

Please answer the question by ticking () the appropriate response or write the answer in the space provided where the questions require you to do so. Information supplied will be treated as confidential and used strictly for research ONLY.

Yours faithful,

HALIRU, Sidi Shamsuddeen.

A) IDENTIFICATION DETAILS

Questionnaire

Number.....State.....LGA.....Senatorial

Zone.....

Name of community.....

Date of

Interview.....

. Time Interview
 Started.....

Section B: Socio Economic Characteristics of Respondents

<i>Sex</i>	<i>Age (years)</i>	<i>Marital Status</i>	<i>Level of Education</i>	<i>HH Size</i>	<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Livelihood activities</i>	<i>Membership of Community Association</i>	<i>Monthly Income (₦)</i>
1. Male		1. Married	1. Qur'anic Education only ()		1. Farming	1. crop farming ()	1. Yes ()	
2. Female		2. Single	2. Adult Literacy ()		2. Trading	2. livestock farming ()	0. No ()	
		3. Divorced	3. Primary Education ()		3. public service	3. Cattle trading ()		
		4. Widowed	4. Secondary Education ()		4. Others, Specify	4. Transportation ()		
		5. Others...	5. Tertiary Education ()		5. Crop food processing ()		
		6. Carpentry ()		
		7. Tailoring ()		
		8. Trading ()		
						9. Civil servant ()		
						10. Butchering ()		

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B.10. How long have you been in this major income generating activity?

.....

Section C: Level of participation in CSDP.

C.11. Are you aware of the community and social development project (CSDP)? Yes
 No

C.12. If yes, when did you get to know about CSDP?

C.13. How did you get to know about CSDP

- a. Radio
- b. Friends
- c. Television
- d. Newspaper
- e. Fliers
- f. Sensitization by the CSDP officials
- g. Local government staff
- h. Other sources, Specify

C.14 Did you or any member of your household benefited from any CSD projects?

Yes No

C.15. If yes, which of the following have you benefited?

CSDP Projects	Provider	Benefited (1)	Not benefited (2)
Education/school			
Health services			
Roads/culvert			
Drainages			
Water			
Electricity			
Housing			
Skill acquisition center			

Orchard establishment			
VIP toilets			
Land reclamation			
Market stalls			
Civic centre			
Other (specify).....			

C.16. Did you participate in the CSDP project? Yes () No ()

C.17. which of the following resources did your household contribute to the CSDP micro-projects?

- a) Labour ()
- b) Materials ()
- c) Working tools ()
- d) Money ()
- e) Supervision/advisory services ()
- f) Security services ()
- g) Others
(specify).....
- h) None of the above ()

C.18 Please fill in the table below to indicate which stage of the project cycle you participated in. (tick as many as possible)

Project Activities	Participation	
	Yes	No
Project Planning stage		
Identification of projects		
Project selection		
Need assessment		
Project preparation stage		
Consultation with technical/professionals		
Decision on the scope of micro-project		
Preparation of community development plan		
Counter fund contribution		
Project Implementation stage		
Community meetings		

CPMC training		
Labour contribution at project site		
Selection of project sites		
Procurement of materials		
Monitoring and Evaluation stage		
Serving in project committees		
Problem solving		
Reporting and consultation		
Writing of physical progress report		

Section D: Effect of CSDP on the livelihoods assets of Beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries

D. 19. Household assets

Assets Acquired	Total Number owned before CSDP in 2010	Estimated Monetary value (₹) in 2010	Total Number owned after CSDP in 2017	Estimated Monetary value (₹) in 2017
1. Type of House				
(i) Thatched roof				
(ii) Zinc roof				
(iii) Bungalow				
2. Other assets				
(i) Cell phone				
(ii) Video				
(iii) Radio				
(iv) Television				
(v) Motor Cycle				
(vi) Vehicle				
Others, specify.....				
.....				
.....				

D. 20. Livestock assets

Livestock Type	Total Number owned before CSDP in 2010	Estimated Monetary value (₹) in 2010	Total Number owned after CSDP in 2017	Estimated Monetary value (₹) in 2017
Bull				
Cows				
Sheep				
Goats				

Ducks				
Chickens				
Turkey				
Rabbits				
Others, Specify.....				
.....				
.....				

D. 21. Give crops grown, estimated area cultivated, output and income for the most important crops grown in 2017 - 2018.

Crops	Production Cost	Output (bags)	Unit price (₦)	Estimated total value (₦)
I.				
II.				
III.				
IV.				
V.				
VI.				

D.22. How many people from your household are using the water being fetched?
..... (Number)

D.23. Indicate Average Time, distance and Cost of facilities provided by CSDP before and after in the table below:

CSDP project Sector	Time taken before CSDP (min)	Time taken after CSDP(min)	Distance covered before CSDP (km)	Distance covered after CSDP (km)	Cost of facility before CSDP (₦)	Cost of facility after CSDP (₦)
Health						
Water						
Electricity						
Transportation						
Education						
Market						

D.24. is there any improvement in your health status after the provision of water facility by CSDP?

Yes () No ()

D.25. If yes, please indicate the level of improvement.

0) improved () 1) moderately Improved () 2) Highly improved ()

D.26. what is the average number of vehicles using the constructed/ rehabilitated road on weekly basis?

D.27. what is the average number of people fetching the water for domestic use in your household?

D.28. Average number of people using water facility.....

D.29. is your household connected to electricity 1 Yes () 0 No ()

D.30. If yes, do you established any business in your household as a result of electricity supply?

1 Yes () 0 No ()

D.31. If yes, what are the businesses.

(a)..... (b).....

(c).....

D.32. Did you acquire any electrical/electronic gadgets as a result of electrification by CSDP?

1 Yes () 0 No ()

D.33. If yes, what are the gadgets?

(a)..... (b)..... (c).....

(d).....

D.33. what has been the state of the general living conditions of the people of your community since the implementation of CSDP project in your community?

2. High improvement () 1.little Improvement () 0. No improvement ()

D.34. what factors in the design and implementation of the projects brought about the successes in the project? (Tick all that apply)

(a) Popular participation () b). Sufficient funding () c). Bottom-top approach of the project () d). Wide consultation () e) others (specify).....

Benefit	Yes	No
Increase in school enrolment		
Reduction in the distance covered to school		
Reduced water borne disease		
Increased in the number of water users		
Reduction in the average time taken to health centers.		
Increase in the number of women attending antenatal and post natal clinics.		
Reduced travel time to the nearest community.		
Increased in the number of household connected to the electricity		
Increase in the establishment of small scale businesses as a result of electricity.		
Increase in income		
Improvement in standard of living		
Improved community cohesion		

Section E: Benefit of CSDP to Beneficiaries

E.35.Has your participation in CSDP benefit you or your family?

Reduced rural-urban migration.		
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Section G: Challenges to CSDP Participation

- i.
- ii.
- iii.
- iv.
- v.
- vi.
- vii.

Thank you for your time.

End time:

APPENDIX II



Water project executed by CSDP in Dogon daji community of Dandi Local Government, Kebbi State, Nigeria



Skill acquisition center and laboratory project executed by CSDP in Gumi and Kwatarkwoshi communities of Zamfara State



Health post center constructed by the CSDP in Maigwaza and Gidan Illo Community of Kebbi and Zamfara States respectively



in the field for data collection