

**FACTORS INFLUENCING PERFORMANCE OF COMMUNITY DRIVEN
DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS. A CASE OF KENYA AGRICULTURAL
PRODUCTIVITY PROJECT MERU COUNTY, KENYA.**

EDWIN NJAGI MUTEGI

**A RESEARCH REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR
THE AWARD OF A MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN PROJECT PLANNING
AND MANAGEMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI**

2015

DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my original work and has not been presented for the award of degree in any university.

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

EDWIN NJAGI MUTEGI

L50/70501/2008

This research project report has been submitted for examination with our approval as the university supervisors.

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

DR. CHANDI J. RUGENDO

LECTURER

SCHOOL OF CONTINUING AND DISTANCE EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

AMOS K. GITONGA

LECTURER

SCHOOL OF CONTINUING AND DISTANCE EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research report to my wife, our two daughters Kawira and Mwende for their unreserved support and encouragement that has enabled me to pursue the masters degree.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I take this opportunity to extend special gratitude to the University of Nairobi for grating me the opportunity to undertake this Masters course. Secondly, I wish to express my sincere heartfelt appreciation to my supervisors Dr. Chandi J. Rugendo and Amos K. Gitonga whose guidance, patience, and incisive comments made this research project report more rigorous, they took me through the task of writing the research report as the university supervisors with lots of patience and unreserved support. Special appreciation to all the lecturers who took me through course work for the knowledge impacted, and great skills developed leaving me with confidence on area of my specialization. Gratitude to all my professional colleagues Rhoda, Kamundi and Bundi for their support. I wish to single out special thanks to D. Mugambi and G. Muthee with whom I had frequent interactions. Thanks to the entire University of Nairobi's school of Continuing and Distance Education, Meru extra mural staff for their timely communication, and ever present support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
AKNOWLEDGEMENT	Error! Bookmark not defined.
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OG FIGURES	ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	x
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	6
1.3 Purpose of the Study	7
1.4 Objectives of the Study	7
1.5 Research Questions	7
1.6 Significance of the Study	8
1.7 Delimitation of the Study	8
1.8 Limitation of the Study	8
1.9 Assumptions of the Study.....	9
1.10 Definitions of significant Terms	9
1.11 Organization of the Study.....	10
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1 Introduction	11
2.2 Overview of Community Driven Development Project.....	11
2.3 Community Leadership	13
2.4 External Facilitators	17
2.5 Community Participation	19
2.6 Community Empowerment	25
2.7 Project Sustainability	27
2.8 Theoretical Framework	28
2.9 Conceptual Frame Work	29

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	31
3.1 Introduction	31
3.2 Research Design	31
3.3 Target Population.....	32
3.4 Sample Size and Procedure	32
3.5 Data Collection instruments	33
3.6 Piloting of instruments	33
3.7 Reliability of instruments	34
3.8 Validity of research instruments.....	34
3.9 Data collection procedure.....	34
3.10 Data Analysis Methods	35
3.11 Ethical issues	35
3.12 Operational Definition of Variables.....	35
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS.....	38
4.1 Introduction	38
4.2 Demographic characteristics of the study population	38
4.3 Influence by community leadership on performance of KAPP community driven development projects in Meru County	40
4.4 Influence by external facilitators on performance of KAPP community driven development projects in Meru County	45
4.5 Influence by community participation on performance of KAPP community driven development projects in Meru County	50
4.6 Influence through community empowerment on performance of KAPP community driven development (CDD) projects in Meru County	56
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	60
5.1 Introduction	60
5.2 Summary of findings.....	61
5.2.1 Community leadership.....	61
5.2.2 External facilitators	61
5.2.3 Community participation.....	62

5.2.4 Community Empowerment.....	62
5.3 Discussions	63
5.3.1 Influence by Community leadership	63
5.3.3 Influence by Community participation.....	64
5.3.4 Influence by Community empowerment	65
5.4 Conclusions	65
5.5 Recommendations.....	66
5.6 Areas of further research	66
REFERENCES	67
APPENDICES	77
Appendix II: Common Respondents Questionnaire	78
Appendix III: Interview Schedule Guide	83

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Operationalization of Variables	36
Table 4.1: Gender of the respondents	38
Table 4.2: Age of the respondent.....	39
Table 4.3: Level of education of the respondent	39
Table 4.4: Community leaders are elected democratically	41
Table 4.5: Individual status considered during elections	41
Table 4.6: Positions were distributed among men and women.....	42
Table 4.7: leadership positions reservation for specific people in the society	42
Table 4.8: Marginalized groups Incorporated in leadership	43
Table 4.9: Leaders capable of overseeing successful project implementation	43
Table 4.10: Leaders ability to solicit and lobby for development support	43
Table 4.11: Accountability of the Leadership to other members	44
Table 4.12: Project decisions making by the community leaders	44
Table 4.13: External facilitators endeavored transparency and accountability.....	46
Table 4.14: Finances released on time.....	46
Table 4.15: Budgets ceilings determined by financiers	47
Table 4.16: Financiers choose projects to fund.....	47
Table 4.17: Procurement improved transparency.....	48
Table 4.18: Monitoring and evaluation of community projects.....	48
Table 4.19: Monitoring and evaluation leads to improved performance.....	49
Table 4.20: Management has enough expertise	49
Table 4.21: Handouts are a major challenge	50
Table 4.22: Community members involved in development projects	50
Table 4.23: Community participates in identifying, design and project implementation	51
Table 4.24: Community mobilizes resources towards identified projects	51
Table 4.25: Community decision on projects to implement	52
Table 4.26: Marginalized groups are incorporated in community development projects	53
Table 4.27: More women than men take part physically in development projects	53
Table 4.28: Gender differences influences performance	54
Table 4.29: Community participate in monitoring and evaluation.....	54
Table 4.30: Community voluntarily participates.....	55
Table 4.31: Participation resulted in increased yields and incomes	55
Table 4.32: Community consulted during project identification.....	56
Table 4.33: Community empowerment to plan and develop projects	57
Table 4.34: Community empowerment to assess performance.....	57
Table 4.35: Women and youth empowerment enhanced performance.....	58
Table 4.36: More women than men have been empowered.....	58
Table 4.37: Cultural challenge	59
Table 4.38: Community is ability to run and sustain their own projects	59
Table 4.39: Empowered community members had improved houses	60

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig 1. Conceptual Framework	30
-----------------------------------	----

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADF:	Akassa Development Foundation
APR:	Agricultural Policy Review
BINP:	Bangladesh Integrated Nutrition Programme
CBD:	Community Based Development
CDD:	Community Driven Development
CIFS:	Community Initiatives for Food Security
FAO:	Food and Agriculture Organization
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GoK:	Government of Kenya
IFAD:	International Fund for Agricultural Development
KAPP:	Kenya Agricultural Productivity Project
KDP:	Kecamatan Development Program
NGO:	Non-Governmental Organization
SPSS:	Scientific Packages for Social Sciences
UNDP:	United Nation Development Programme

ABSTRACT

After several decades of emphasis on rapid economic growth, there has been increased awareness that development is not just higher growth of national income, but a means of achieving basic human needs and development particularly those related to individual and collective wellbeing made possible through self-reliance and with the use of the community or society's own resources. Growth in agriculture is recognized as the most effective means to reduce poverty in developing countries. The millennium development goals establish ambitious targets for promoting economic growth, improving health and education, empowering women, creating sustainable development and reducing poverty. Various development projects have been mounted by the government and development partners in an effort to address agricultural productivity, increased incomes, sustainable livelihoods and public investment in the agricultural sector as pathways out of poverty among them the Kenya agricultural productivity project modeled and implemented as a community driven development project. This research study sought to generate a deeper understanding of the performance of Kenya agricultural productivity community driven development projects in Meru County. The objectives guiding this study were to investigate how community leadership influences performance of Kenya agricultural productivity Community Driven Development project, to establish how external facilitators influence performance, to examine how community participation influence performance and to examine how community empowerment influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity community driven development projects in Meru County. The study adopted a descriptive survey design involving a sample size of 138 farmers drawn from the project areas in Meru County. A random sample of the respondents was drawn from a list of all the farmers (22,498) that implemented the Kenya agricultural productivity Community Driven Development projects. Both questionnaires and interviews were used in the study and data analysis was carried out by use of SPSS programme to obtain descriptive statistics. The study found that all the factors (community leadership, external facilitators, community participation and empowerment) had a positive influence on performance of Kenya agricultural productivity projects in Meru county. This study therefore recommends that initiatives be undertaken to create awareness and encourage the youth and the educated to take part and own community projects to boost the ability of the local community to plan, design, mobilize resources, make decision, participate and implement their projects.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

After several decades of emphasis on rapid economic growth, there has been increased awareness that development is not just higher growth of national income, but a means of achieving basic human needs and development particularly those related to individual and collective wellbeing (Helleiner, 1992). This has been made possible through self-reliance and with the use of the community or society's own resources (Sweindell et al, 1981; Nwanesi, 2007).

Growth in agriculture is recognized as the most effective means to reduce poverty in developing countries. World Bank studies show that growth in gross domestic product originating from agriculture is at least twice as successful in reducing poverty as growth in domestic product originating from outside of agriculture (World Bank, 2008).

Poverty can be fought and jobs created when communities in underdeveloped nations have more control over their environmental resources (World Bank, 2004). The millennium development goals establishes ambitious targets for promoting economic growth, improving health and education ,empowering women, creating sustainable development and reducing poverty (UNDP 2003). A large pockets of poverty are concentrated in rural areas, achieving the millennium development goals target of reducing the poverty by 50% depend largely on poverty reduction in rural areas where agriculture is major economic activity (Eminent Persons Group, 2007).

The Community driven development approach has become a key strategy used by both governments and organizations that sponsor development assistance programs (Gillespie 2004; Mansuri and Rao 2004; Platteau 2004). The appeal of CDD arose from recent efforts to empower local communities to participate in decision making and implementation of development programs and promote democracy and decentralization (Manor 1999; Dongier et al. 2001; Kohl 2003; Dasgupta and Beard, 2007).

In the United States of America, community participatory approaches towards enhanced food security engaged multiple stakeholders. Sloane and fellow researchers collaborated with community residents to promote community-directed interventions aimed at sustainable healthy food availability in regions of Los Angeles encountering health disparities (Sloane et al., 2003).

In Ecuador a research by sustainable agriculture and rural development engaged 90 local communities in assisting farmers in becoming self-sufficient. More than 20 indigenous communities participated in improving agricultural production and reducing risks to the ecosystem, through land-use planning and management. This initiative had ensured food security, increased farmers income, land productivity and project sustainability (UNDP, 2003).

In Kosovo community development fund II, the community driven development was used to restore trust in mixed communities. Clear communication about rules and decision making processes helped minimise opportunities for conflicts over resources (World Bank, 2006).

In Philippines, an evaluation of a World Bank project found out that during a ten year period, the National Irrigation Administration shifted from a top down government approach to heavy reliance on the local farmers in the design, operation and maintenance of local irrigation systems. It was discovered that the canals and structures worked better and rice yields were 20% higher and the irrigated area 35% greater than in control groups without participation (World Bank, 1991). The Participants were able to identify their problems on their own and plan out their course of action.

In Philippines limited access to basic services was a key cause of poverty and inequality, thus low utilization of basic services that slowed human capital formation and limited economic opportunities contributing to persistence of poverty (ADB, 2009).

An Asian Development Bank (ADB, 2012) study on Kapit-Basig Laban Kahiran comprehensive and integrated delivery of Social services (KALAHI-CIDSS) in Philippines found out that the community driven development had been effective in facilitating communities broad based participation in addressing their own problems

particularly in implementing responsive sub projects. The ADB (2012) study further found that the experience of constructing sub projects enhanced villagers' capacity to engage local governments officials in decision making which led to the institutionalization of participatory, transparent, and accountable local planning and budgetary process.

In Bangladesh Mohammed Yunus (2004) created the Grameen development Bank, a microfinance organization utilizing the community driven development arguing that what poor people need to move out poverty conditions was a set of simple rules supported by monitoring and evaluation (Grameen Bank, 2004). The Bangladesh Integrated Nutrition Programme (BINP) started in 1995 with the main aim of developing community and government capacity to harness the resources of local development programmes aimed at increasing income, food security and access to clean water, and target them to those most nutritionally vulnerable (Sloane et al, 2003).

Sloane et al, (2003) observed that high priority given to community participation in food security interventions generated good returns for the project, such as improved and effective nutrition services delivery, high staff morale and satisfaction of NGO partners. Consequently, this became an advocacy tool, which forged a strong Government of Bangladesh and NGO partnership and promoted programme ownership and sustainability.

According to Voss (2008) Kecamatan development program phase II resulted in per capita consumption gains among poor households that were 11% higher in project areas than matched control locations, the proportion of households moving out of poverty was 9.2% higher ;and vulnerable households were 4.5% less likely to fall into poverty. In Timor an assessment of community driven empowerment program noted that it built infrastructure that matched with local needs (Conways et al., 2003).

Multiple interventions had been made to stimulate economic growth and reduce poverty in Nigeria at both the national and local levels (Holmes et al., 2012; Olugboyega and Kolawole, 2005). One of those local development initiatives was the Akassa Development Foundation (ADF) in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. ADF is a community-driven organization that organized the Akassa community and assists it

with planning community development projects using participatory methodologies that involved all 19 villages of the Akassa clan territories (Statoil, 2007).

Van Domelen, J. (2007) observed that Senegal social development fund agency evaluation indicated that small-scale infrastructure projects benefited all residents while microfinance and income generating activities tended to benefit the better-off or more organized residents. In Sierra Leone, to both prevent a return to violence and stimulate economic development, the government implemented a number of reforms that piloted a community driven development project administered by village development committees giving communities and vulnerable groups within them greater voice in local decision making (Katherine et al, 2009).

Bajoga, (2007) indicated that in Nigeria the National Fadama development project adopted a community driven development model that encouraged and facilitated the resource poor farmers to embark on dry season cropping in order to generate increased incomes and alleviate poverty (Ingawa et al, 2004). The project had succeeded in achieving its income goal within its period of operation and subsequently improved well-being among beneficiaries.

In northern Ghana, The Community-Driven Initiatives for Food Security project was an integral part of the Government overall food security strategy. CIFS seeks to achieve a sustainable increase in household food security in the 10 districts of the Eastern Corridor, northern region of Ghana, by strengthening the existing community and regional mechanisms that support community-driven rural development, thus demonstrating, through the successful participatory planning and implementation of initiatives, that CDD is an effective way of increasing household food security. It focused on developing capacity for key project stakeholders, supporting 3 participatory processes in selected communities and identified priority food security initiatives within the selected districts and communities. The accumulated results to date were, 250 communities in 10 districts engaged at various stages of food security planning, coordination with local government structures and implementation of food security Projects; CIFS has also supported communities in the identification, design, planning, coordination, procurement and implementation of 194 community food security initiative projects (Promoting Project Sustainability, 2000).

In post –conflict Aceh and Rwanda community driven development was used to target particular conflict –affected groups (World Bank 2006). In Kenya agriculture remains the back bone of the Kenyan economy, it is the single most important sector in the economy, contributing approximately 25% of the GDP, and employing 75% of the national labour force (GoK, 2005).

According to Agricultural Policy Review (APR) conducted by the World Bank, agriculture remains a vital development tool in Kenya. The APR also re-affirms the fact that agriculture-led growth in Kenya is more than twice as effective in reducing poverty as compared to industry-led growth (World Bank, 2008).

Over 80% of the Kenyan population live in the rural areas and drive their livelihoods directly or indirectly from agriculture. A decline in agriculture has far reaching implications in terms of employment and income inequality as well as food security for the country (UNDP, 2002).

According to the Economist (June, 2013) a 1% increase in incomes in the most unequal countries produces a mere 0.6 % reduction in poverty. In the most equal countries, the same 1% growth yields a 4.3% reduction in poverty. Kenya Vision 2030 goal of equity and poverty elimination is to reduce the number of people living in absolute poverty to the tiniest proportion of the total population, a society that guarantees equality of opportunity in accessing public services and providing income generating activities (Kenya Vision 2030). The aim is to transform Kenya into newly industrialized middle income country providing a high quality of life to all citizens by the year 2030. The economic pillar aims to improve the prosperity of all Kenyans through economic development programme aiming to achieve a GDP growth of 10% per annum beginning 2012 (Kenya Vision, 2030)

Agriculture had been identified as one the sectors to enable the country realize the intended growth through implementation of the various flagship projects. Community driven development has the ability to develop programs and projects that are capable of empowering the local communities to take charge and manage their development agenda and above all ,the model focus attention to the poor and vulnerable (Dongier et al,2001, Gillespie, 2004).

According to conservative calculations The World Bank's lending for CDD projects has gone up from \$325 million in 1996, to \$2 billion in 2003. (Dongier, et. al, 2003). According to Dasgupta and Beard (2007) ,Labonne et al,(2007) most community driven development projects that focus on reducing poverty demonstrates five main characteristics ;empowering local communities and local authorities; demand driven design; social inclusion; collective action; support from external institutions and organizations.

The KAPAP model was designed from the strong desire to reform the public extension services and to address the challenges faced by the various approaches to extension delivery systems, used in Kenya over the past two decades (Anderson and Feder, 2003; Kibett et al., 2005).

As such, the KAPAP model has been designed in an innovative way to meet the demands of smallholder farmers in Kenya and the conditions set by the World Bank that the service intervention be undertaken through contracting in the context of community driven development (World Bank, 2009).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Jock and Gershon (2003) observed that, the Kenya agricultural productivity project (KAPP) was a community driven development (CDD) model that not only enhances accountability by addressing the challenges of public based extension systems, where their failures have been attributed to lack of accountability to clientele, but also empowered farmers to participate and take charge of assessing the quality and effectiveness of the service rendered.

An evaluation by World Bank (2010) on the performance Kenya agricultural productivity project whose project development objective was to increase agricultural productivity and incomes of participating small holder farmers in the project area across twenty counties in Kenya rated the project as moderately satisfactory (63%). In Meru Earnings of men and women from small holder agricultural activities and participating men and women small holder farmers who were satisfied with extension, empowerment and agribusiness services increased by a partly 24%. As such the projects development objectives were only marginally achieved, thus negating farmers'

efforts towards increased productivity, incomes and sustainable livelihoods as pathways out of poverty. This research therefore, seeks to identify factors that influence performance of community demand driven development projects under Kenya agricultural productivity project in Meru County.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The study was to determine the factors of performance of Community driven development (CDD) projects under the Kenya agricultural productivity project in Meru County.

1.4 Objectives of the Study were;

- i. To investigate how community leadership influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme development projects.
- ii. To establish how external project facilitators influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme Community driven development projects.
- iii. To examine how community participation influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme development projects.
- iv. To examine how community empowerment influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme development projects in Meru County.

1.5 Research Questions were;

- i. To what extent does community leadership influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme Community Driven development projects?
- ii. How does external facilitators influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme Community Driven development projects?
- iii. To what extent does community participation influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme Community Driven development projects?
- iv. How does community empowerment influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity programme CDD development projects?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study report is useful to various stakeholders, especially the devolved county governments in planning and implementation of sustainable agricultural production value chain based community development projects, embracing the lessons learnt from the performance of Kenya Agricultural Productivity Project CDD projects.

The findings will also be incorporated in the development of the policy frame works that guides implementation of community demand driven development projects that promoting synergy between public and private partnerships in the region. In addition, it will be used by student carrying out academic research for references purposes and as well as the business community for coming up with practices for development project that are consistent with vision 2030 goal.

The project financiers are increasingly becoming concerned on the effectiveness and efficiency in the utilization of funds by the recipients. The research findings will provide information that can be used to enhance the performance of development projects. It will significantly contribute to existing knowledge capable of enhancing effective and efficient utilization of projects funds by implementing partners.

The less privileged in the society, who constitute the main target of agricultural-based projects will benefit from the achievement of the desired results and enhanced sustainability of these projects. They will benefit most where the funds are applied for the purposes to which were intended for, in a timely manner, and efficiently. This will enhance the effects and impacts of the projects to the intended beneficiaries.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development projects in Meru County comprising of 22,498 farmers organized in 216 homogenous common interest groups.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

The study was limited to factors influencing performance of community demand driven development projects under Kenya agricultural productivity project locations of Meru County. There were expected challenges during data collection where some target

respondents failed to give the required information. The researcher endeavoured at winning the confidence of those involved in this research by giving them the reasons for the research and assuring them of confidentiality.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

The researcher made the assumption that the respondents who members of the various common interest groups implementing the Kapp community driven development in Meru county would cooperate to give the required information for the study. The researcher also made the assumption that the common interest groups were homogenous and interviewee would be willing to give the required information despite the fact that most of them usually had tight schedules that left no time for the respondents to get time to answer to the research instruments.

1.10 Definitions of significant Terms used in the study

Project performance: This refers to how the project under Kenya agricultural productivity programme was doing or progressing. And was measured in terms of time, monetary, accountability, effectiveness and desired results as set up by the World executed on time, within budget, achieves desired goals and transparency in the utilization of project resources.

Community driven Development: Refers to projects where communities had direct control over key project decisions, processes, resources as well as the management of investment funds.

Community Leadership: The ability of less vocal and disadvantaged individual to advance their goals Participation is a partnership built upon the basis of dialogue among the various actors during which the agenda is jointly set and local views and indigenous knowledge are deliberately sought and respected. It raises awareness, motivates, organizes the actors and helps draw priorities.

Common interest group: An organized group that brought likeminded farmers together for a shared vision and goal. Empowerment ability of people, in particular the least privileged, to have access to productive resources that enable them to increase their earnings and obtain the goods and services they need; and participate the

decisions that affect them (IFAD,1995). The ability of the community to realize opportunities, forge unity and harness available resources for their own development

Participation: Is a partnership built upon the basis of dialogue among the various actors during which the agenda is jointly set and local views and indigenous knowledge are deliberately sought and respected.

Empowerment: Ability of people, in particular the least privileged, to have access to productive resources that enable them to increase their earnings and obtain the goods and services they need; and participate the decisions that affect them (IFAD, 1995).

1.11 Organization of the Study

This research report was organized into five chapters: Chapter one has the introductory chapter that deals with the introduction, problem statement, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, the research questions, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations of the study, basic assumptions of the study, definition of significant terms and the organization of the study. Chapter two contains the review of related literature. This is presented in four main themes. It also contains the perceived theoretical and conceptual framework. Chapter three contains the methodology that was used to answer the research questions and subsequently the research objectives, research instruments, data collection procedure and methods, data analysis methods.

Chapter four contains research findings of this research study, data was coded, analysed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) to obtain descriptive statistics that were presented mainly in percentages.

Chapter five is the final chapter highlighting the summary of the key findings, discussions, conclusions, and recommendations made as well as research contributions to the body of knowledge. Suggestions for further research are clearly indicated. This chapter helped in answering research questions, giving reasons behind the answers obtained. References and appendices used in this study including questionnaires and interview schedule guide have been attached at the end of this research project report.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapters presents a review of literature from other authors. The chapter begins with an overview of community driven development projects, community leadership, external facilitators, community participation and community empowerment, theoretical framework and a conceptual framework.

This chapter presents theoretical and conceptual framework on determinants that affect, how they affect and how community demand driven (CDD) project performance can be enhanced. This chapter assists the researcher to explore on the research study that needs urgent solving by use of unique approaches. In addition, the researcher would be able to assess the present situation, previous and the expectations to come from the sources such as publications, reports, books, journals and the internet. This facilitates the provision of intensive information, which will make the study reach a successful end.

2.2 Overview of Community Driven Development Project

Community Driven Development is an approach that emphasizes community control over planning decisions and resource investments. The philosophy is that each local community has a right to be involved in their development process in a decision-making capacity. The community's greater involvement often leads to a more effective use of resources and outcomes more in line with their needs (Wong, 2012).

Poor and marginalized people have often been viewed as the target of poverty reduction efforts. Community Driven Development (CDD) approaches turn this perception on its head, and treat poor people and their institutions as assets and partners in the search for sustainable solutions to development challenges (World Bank, 2007)

Okereke (2009) argued that top-down approach that excludes beneficiaries from participating in the project design, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation as well as targeting the poor is not desirable. The agricultural sector of the Nigerian economy continued to perform below expectation despite the huge sums of money being allocated to the sector in each year's budget (Onyeahialam, 2002).

According to Iheagu (2002), money was not justifiably used, rather, what was seen was the prevalent poor attitude of the government to the execution of agricultural programs. The warning signals were being confirmed on daily basis by high price of food items in the market and the crude system of farming being practiced in the country. This situation raised questions as to the effectiveness of the World Bank assisted Agricultural Development Programs which was established in the belief that such project can radically transform agriculture and increase the Country's food and fibre needs of the rapidly increasing population.(Olatunbosun , 2005).

The World Bank and other proponents of CDD programs argue that better outcomes are guaranteed, if the implementing country's existing inter-government institutions are effective; and/or have genuine commitment to decentralisation (Whitford & Kavita 2006; Binswanger et al. 2010).

A community-based or driven project becomes an initiative that pushes the boundaries of the institutional environment and accelerates change in the political, fiscal, administrative or social aspects of local governance (Binswanger et al., 2010).

Community Driven Development provides communities with a voice and control over all project stages, it is believed to, Enhance sustainability; Improve efficiency and effectiveness; Allow poverty reduction efforts to be taken to scale; Make development more inclusive; Empower poor people, build social capital, and strengthen governance; and Complement market and public sector activities (Dongier et al. 2003; van Domelen 2007, 2008; Baird et al. 2009; Binswanger et al. 2010).

The World Bank and other proponents of CDD programs argue that better outcomes are guaranteed, if the implementing country's existing inter-government institutions are effective; and/or have genuine commitment to decentralisation (Crook & Manor 1998; World Bank 2002; 2006; Whitford & Kavita 2006; Binswanger et al. 2010).

They argue that because it engages existing (elected and functioning) local government structures, it has better prospects for galvanising local support for CDD programs. By so doing, they further argue that it strengthens the national system of inter-

governmental transfer of resources and allows resource allocation decisions to be accountable to local priorities (World Bank 2006; Binswanger et al. 2010).

2.3 Community Leadership

The ability of less vocal and disadvantaged individuals to advance their goals is often limited by their leadership skills and social standing. Evidence suggests that the success of subprojects often depends on the role that key local leaders and influential persons play in preparing proposals, mobilizing community contributions, and managing subproject implementation (World Bank 2002; Vajja and White 2008; Babajanian 2005). Community leaders are expected to be more responsive to the median voter of the group that selects them. To the extent that the preferences of the small number of appointees usually other members of the village elite are different from the preferences of the average community member, direct elections should change the orientation of incumbents. This shift in accountability finds some support in empirical studies (Martinez-Bravo et al., 2011), and in recent normative theories of representation that assume that representatives are more likely to rely on the judgment of those who can reward and sanction them (Mansbridge (2003).

Besley and Coate (2003) argue that directly elected office-holders are more responsive than appointed ones is hardly intuitive. When public officials are directly elected, their responsiveness to the preferences of constituents likely dominates constituents' vote choice.⁶ In sum, Besley and Coate (2003) discussion points to the idea that direct elections allow citizens not simply to hold incumbents to account for past performance, but rather to use their vote to select leaders who are closer to them in preferences, beliefs or some ascriptive characteristic. The notion of good leadership is associated with the capacity to access resources for the community. Indeed, leaders are seen as bridges to resources rather than as catalysts in development. Citizens see themselves as recipients of services rather than as part of a government process.

The degree of community cohesiveness is, in a sense, a measure of the degree to which the microenvironment is enabling. Conversely, the fractionalization of communities acts as a bottleneck or even a roadblock to Community driven development. Das Gupta, Grandvoinet, and Romani (2003) argue that with greater intracommunity equality, there is less of a trade-off between using communities. advantages in local information

and elite capture. In the Bangladesh food-for-education program, Galasso and Ravallion (2000) also found that power in community decision making clearly mattered in poor intra-village targeting, with greater intracommunity inequality associated with greater marginalization of the poor in village-level targeting.

Village chiefs and local governments played a major role in the placement of CDD projects. (Bardhan and Mookherjee 1999; Conning and Kevane 2002; Platteau 2004; Galasso and Ravallion 2005) argue that CDD programs have been effective in targeting the poor in communities with strong local institutions and fairly homogeneous socioeconomic characteristics.

Platteau (2004) observed that a large share of financial support by a foreign nongovernmental organization (NGO) to farmer organizations in western Africa was appropriated by local leaders. Consistent with Ostrom (1990), Platteau (2004) also observed that elite capture is a common problem for many donor-funded projects that support local communities with weak local institutions.

Mwangi, (2006) noted that in practice communities hardly have adequate, complete and reliable information to support objective rational decisions. Voss (2008) analysed the impacts of the Kecamatan Development Program (KDP) in Indonesia on household welfare and access to services using propensity score matching on panel data. While the KDP had no overall impact on consumption per capita, he found positive and significant gains for the poorest quintile matched by significant losses for the richest quintile. Notably, despite strong project emphasis on incorporating women into the development process, the analysis uncovered negative consumption impacts for female-headed households.

In a study in Sierra Leone, Casey, Glennester, and Miguel (2010) found that CDD programs and related donor projects significantly improved links between communities and local government officials and left communities materially better off, yet they also found no impact or effectiveness in fundamentally transforming local fundraising capacity, decision making processes, or even social attitudes and norms. In short, previous studies suggest that CDD programs may increase interactions between

community members and leaders, but they may not fundamentally improve long-term social capital.

Community forestry projects in India and Nepal, Agarwal (2001) claimed that women were excluded because of their weak bargaining power. Duflo (2012) has argued that the strongest barrier to improving female participation in policymaking is the widespread perception that women are not competent leaders.

The problem of elite capture is especially serious as donor agencies are enthusiastically rushing to adopt the participatory approach because they are eager to relieve poverty in the most advantaged countries and/or because they need rapid and visible results to persuade their constituencies or sponsors that the new strategy works well. Clearly, such urgency runs against the requirements of an effective CDD project since the latter cannot succeed unless it is based on a genuine empowerment of the rural poor (see, for example, Edwards and Hulme, 1996a; Rahman, 1993).

If the required time is not spent to ensure that the poor acquire real bargaining strength and organizational skills, ownership of the projects by the beneficiary groups is most likely to remain an elusive objective, as has been observed in the case of the World Bank's Social Investment Funds (Narayan and Ebbe, 1997; Tandler, 2000).

Confirming the prediction of Esman and Uphoff, several studies have concluded that the formation and training of village groups in community based projects have the effect of encouraging the entry of wealthier and more educated people into leadership positions because of the attractiveness of outside funding (Gugerty and Kremer, 1999, 2000; Rao and Ibanez, 2001). A major problem confronted by the community development movement of the 1950s (which had been attempted by the Ford Foundation and US foreign assistance programmes) lay in its inability to effectively counter the vested interests of local elites (Holdcroft, 1984).

Being adept at representing their own interests as community concerns expressed in the light of project deliverables, local leaders often succeed in deluding the donors into thinking that their motivations are guided by the collective good (Eversole, 2003; Harrison, 2002; Mosse, 2001; Ribot, 1996, 2002). Their demands are replete with the

sort of pleas and vocabulary that strongly appeal to the donors and, order to create the appearance of participation, they may go as far as spending resources to build community centres, hold rallies, and initiate showcase labour-intensive activities (Conning and Kevane, 2002: 383).

Many poor residents and women were not confident to speak out at formal meetings, especially in the presence of more affluent and influential community members (Syukri, Mawardi, and Akhmadi 2010). Similarly, leadership roles among women in the VIP project in the Kyrgyz Republic were mostly taken up by local activists and influential persons, such as teachers and local administrators, while some of the poorest and marginalized women did not feel confident to take part in meetings and promote their views (Babajanian 2009).

The qualitative study of PNPM-Rural in Indonesia (Syukri, Mawardi, and Akhmadi 2010) found that citizen participation, transparency, and accountability “did not spill over into general local/village governance as the capacity of communities to impact elite control of decision-making was limited”. There is extensive literature on the political economy of policymaking demonstrates, powerful societal actors often oppose the changes necessary to reach pro-poor goals and they exercise a high degree of influence and control over government (World Bank 1997, Brinkerhoff and Crosby 2002, Lakshman 2003). Such power dynamics are at play at local as well as national levels.

However, elite capture-in which a few individuals in a local community have disproportionate political or economic power and dominate community based planning, governance, and benefits from community-based programs-remains one of the major challenges of the CDD approach (Dasgupta and Beard, 2007). 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). Successful design requires tapping into local needs, understanding and building on the strengths of existing institutions and defining the changes needed in intermediary implementing agencies to support community action.

According to Das Gupta, Grandvoinett, and Romani (2003) with greater intracommunity equality, there is less of a trade-off between using communities' advantages in local information and elite capture. In the Bangladesh food-for-education program, Galasso and Ravallion (2000) also found that power in community decision making clearly mattered in pro-poor intra-village targeting, with greater intracommunity inequality associated with greater marginalization of the poor in village-level targeting.

According to Gauri and Brinks (2008) legalising social and economic rights may favour the more affluent rather than the poor segments of the population as exemplified by the concentration of litigation cases in the richer south and south east parts of Brazil rather than the poorer north east, and more cases in Delhi rather than the poorer states of India.

Casey et al. (2012) found that, four years after the CDD program in Sierra Leone was implemented with measures to enhance participation (i.e., promoting women to hold leadership positions, sign off on projects' finances, and attend meetings), women were no more likely to voice an opinion in community meetings or to play a leading decision-making role than in the past. The authors noted that the outcome might have come as a result of the traditional system in Sierra Leone, which is dominated by male leaders and has continued to the present day to exclude women.

Using temporal breaks in the process of selecting clan chiefs in Liberia, Baldwin and Mvukiyehe (2011) showed that elected chiefs are more likely to articulate goals that are aligned with community members. Similarly, using variation in the timing of top-down introduction of elections in Chinese villages, Martinez-Bravo et al. (2011) found that elected village heads are more responsive to the priorities of community members, compared to party appointees, and Luo et al. (2007) found that they can increase public goods' contributions.

2.4 External Facilitators

Leading scholars have argued that attempts by outsiders to create better" institutions are likely to be futile since historically rooted local institutions and social norms are difficult to transform (Bowles and Gintis, 2004, Easterly, 2006).

Banerjee and Iyer (2004), argued that the transparency, accountability and inclusiveness of government institutions are important determinants of economic development. In particular, more egalitarian institutions and individual rights have been tied to better economic outcomes in India, Brazil and the United States (Engerman and Sokoloff 1997), and former European colonies (Acemoglu, Johnson and Robinson 2001).

However, there remains little consensus on the types of programs, policies or reforms that will successfully generate better institutions in less developed countries, and on whether it is possible, or even desirable, for external actors like foreign aid donors to attempt to restructure local power dynamics. Other scholars argue that large infusions of foreign aid can help build stronger institutions (Sachs, 2005); while others assert that historically determined social norms and local institutions are difficult to understand, let alone transform (Easterly 2001, 2006), and that such external attempts to reshape —better institutions are likely to be futile.

Most Community Driven Development projects recruit people to work as social mobilisers or change agents in the target communities. Their role is to facilitate the formation of CBOs, assist them in undertaking needs assessments, and provide them with the necessary skills and attitudes to manage and sustain the development process. Facilitators involved in CDD projects include people locally employed and trained, local government officials, consultants and NGO staff.

Mansuri and Rao, (2003) qualitative evidence suggest that the role of external agents such as project facilitators is major contributor to successful community driven development. Targeting the poor has been found to be one of the challenges of the Community driven development approach (Farrington and Slater, 2006).

Mosse (1997), Cleaver (1999), and Kleimeer (2000) argue that CDD projects that lacked external institutional, financial, and technical support were not sustainable. Similarly, Labonne and Chase (2008) observed that CDD projects led to less investment in other projects and did not have significant impacts on membership in development groups.

Plateau and Abraham (2002) argue that endogenous community imperfections are being down played in the donor-fuelled rush to decentralize community driven development, concluding that overlooking the crucial role of external facilitator could backfire seriously and result in the appropriation of resources by local elites.

According to Amartya Sen's (1985, 1999) influential effort to shift the focus of development from material well-being to a broad based 'capability' approach also deeply influenced many in the mainstream development community. Humphreys, Masters, and Sandbu (2006) findings from a countrywide experiment in deliberative democracy in the small island-state of Sao Tome and Principe, observed that Public meetings were organized across the country to discuss the use of potential oil revenues.

Discussion leaders were assigned to each group to moderate the discussion and to record its outcomes. Given the random nature of this assignment, they are able to assess the role of discussion leaders (i.e., facilitators) on the outcomes of group deliberations. They find that outcomes are largely influenced by the discussion leaders. Indeed, "the preferences recorded in the deliberative meetings to a large degree reflect the preferences of discussion leaders, not participants" (Humphreys et al., 2006).

Communities need not only the capacity to act but to make demands. CDD is thus not about self-sufficiency as much as self-reliance. Local capacity to demand needs to be matched by external capacity and commitment to respond. In Kyrgyz republic credit institutions use existing and newly generated social capital as collateral (Kudat, Kokten and Omuralier (2000).

2.5 Community Participation

Barnett and Ndeki, (2002), in an attempt to analyze poor service delivery in rural areas of Kenya found out that many white elephant projects exist due to lack of involvement of the community members in project activities from its conception and this strongly affected their utilization as they felt distanced, the study further stated that community needs and wants must be clearly analyzed for any project to answer fully its objectives.

Community participation empowers the poor by building their capacity through skills training to actively engage with the development process. Active empowerment in

community activities often leads to the empowerment of local community members (Buysse, Sparkman and Wesley, 2003). Kenya had experienced some participatory problems, especially in rural areas, where massive development projects are proposed and introduced in communities with little or no consultation with the people. At times individuals, especially politicians propose massive development projects, which obviously display inadequate needs assessment and planning at completion (UNDP, 2004).

Mansuri and Rao (2003) argued that community participation leads to development projects that are more responsive to the needs of the poor, more responsive governments and better delivery of public goods and services ,better maintained community assets and a more informed and involved citizenry. The cornerstone of CDD initiatives is the active involvement of members of a defined community in at least some aspects of project design and implementation.

Community participation is an important component of community development and reflects a grassroots or bottom- up approach to problem solving. In social work, community participation refers to the active voluntary engagement of individuals and groups to change problematic conditions and to influence policies and programs that affect the quality of their lives or the lives of others (Gamble & Weil, 1995).

One of the major aims of community development is to encourage participation of the community as a whole. Indeed, community development has been defined as a social process resulting from citizen participation (Smith, Levy & Dvir 2007). Through citizen participation, a broad cross- section of the community is encouraged to identify and articulate their own goals, design their own methods of change, and pool their resources in the problem- solving process (Harrison, 1995).

According to Narayan (1997) participation in community based development depends on reversing control and accountability from central authorities to community organizations. Participation is expected to ensure that projects are better designed, benefits better targeted, project inputs delivered in a more cost effective and timely manner, and that project benefits are distributed more equitably and with smaller leakages due to corruption and other rent-seeking activity.

According to Harragin (2004) local notions of how food should be distributed were quite different from those of aid workers, which ultimately led to a poorly designed project. Katz and Sara (1997) analyzed the performance of water systems in a variety of countries. They found out, that the performance of water systems were markedly better in communities where households were able to make informed choices about the type of system and the level of service they required, and where decision making was genuinely democratic and inclusive.

According to Wong (2012) participation in community driven development initiatives can spill-over outside the scope of specific subprojects and empower people to take part in local planning and resource mobilisation and engage with their leaders to demand greater accountability and transparency.

Community participation is considered as the most effective methods in many developing countries, it is a basic development used to promote the concept of community self-help, self-reliance, self-initiative, self-sufficiency and self-strengthening through intersectoral collaboration (Barker, 1991), creating a space where people can take a part in the development process, with the local people have an opportunity to desire and choose their needs for their community development.

One strategy that is now commonly used in many developing countries in Southeast Asia, especially in Laos, is the community participation in development process. One of the most active projects in Laos is the poverty reduction fund project (PRF). The idea of community participation of PRF is to encourage villagers to participate all processes of the preparation and implementation, specifically, in the process of decision-making, they must involve more people than just party representatives or elite, they must involve the whole community.

Key emphases of the PRF include participation of the communities by encouraging ethnic minority and women to get involved in planning and implementation processes, transparency and sustainability of the sub-project outputs (PRF 2003). Encouraging a high level of ownership is critical if activities are to be sustained in the long term (Phimphanthavong, 2010). To ensure sustainability, the clear information about the

operation and maintenance plans must also be included in proposals, and villagers must be genuinely willing to operate and maintain any infrastructure that will be built.

Sustainable development is described as “non-decline” in excess of time, of human welfare, which can be estimated, based on the type of analysis, the level of human utility, earnings, and consumption (Franck-Dominique Vivien 2008). Any serious efforts towards sustainable development must begin with local people knowledging, understanding, and participating in the creating of sustainable development goals (Manteaw, 2012).

Wattam (1998) finds that the continuation of the community participation the end of the project is often neglected. In this case, many committees set up for the project also finish working with the project. It is related with maintenance planning, which is a long-term activity, thus if the community participation has proved to be useful it needs to be sustained. There is a strong correlation between sustainability and community participation, for sustainability there needs to willingness on the part of the community as well as willingness on the part of the engineers, planners and other local officers. Community participation is associated with ownership to ensure the sustainability of infrastructure.

Sara and Jennifer (2012) study on the relation between the sense of ownership and infrastructure sustainability in developing countries, based on the empirical data collected from 1140 households in 50 rural Kenyan villages establishes an empirical referent for households’ sense of ownership. They found that some, but not all, types of participation enhanced community members’ sense of ownership for rural water projects.

Beath, Christia, and Enikolopov (2012) examined a Community Driven Development program in Afghanistan, where women are faced with stringent household restrictions that could limit the effect of a development intervention. They found that women’s participation and support for decision-making activities increased. However, there was no effect on the division of intra-household activities or on attitudes towards the general role of women in society. Even with the mixed results coming from the

mandatory participation of women in development, evidence shows that women should not be excluded from the process.

Duflo (2012) has argued that the strongest barrier to improving female participation in policymaking is the widespread perception that women are not competent leaders. Beaman, Chattopadhyay, Pande, and Topalova (2009), using experimental data from West Bengal revealed that lower levels of satisfaction with women leaders was based on prejudicial views rather than actual performance.

Active community participation is a key to building an empowered community. It is a necessary factor of capacity building, which is the development of self-confidence, pride, initiative, creative, responsibility, and cooperation (Burkey 1993). Community participation has been increasingly viewed to be a process of empowerment and capacity building the local people in general; therefore, community participation must be more than a policy statement. There must be genuine commitment to encourage participation in all aspects and at levels of development rather than a policy (Kumar, 2002).

Participating communities have many centers of activity, and community action engages the natural enthusiasm and a talent of citizens, participation is the soul of an empowered community (Norman, 2000). In the last several years there has been an enormous shift toward the “politics of inclusion.” These new politics are here to stay, not only because they are demanded, but also because they ensure results that better fulfil the broad public interest than decisions that are shaped by the lobbying of powerful and vocal interests (Mark, 2000).

The idea of community participation is to encourage the villagers to get involved in the development process; it is commonly understood as the involvement of locals in assessing their needs and developing strategies to achieve those needs (Zakus and Lysack, 1998). Since the attribute and perception that top-down decision may be less effective than community participation method or community driven development (CDD).

Collective action has to be seen as a contextualized process, and building the capacity for collective action cannot be divorced from a deep sense of the structures of power within which the poor attempt to cope (Harriss, (2001), Appadurai (2004), Rao and Walton (2004). CBD/CDD turns the pyramid of development mechanisms upside-down by giving beneficiaries “voice and choice,” that it cannot ignore the social and cultural context within which those beneficiaries live and organize themselves. Studies on Social Funds, which have become a popular mechanism for public service delivery, also provide a considerable amount of evidence on the targeting performance of anti-poverty programs. In a typical social fund community infrastructure is built with local participation in the selection and/or management of facilities.

Mansuri and Rao (2003, 3) conducted a literature review seeking reliable evidence in response to concerns that “evidence on the actual record of CBD/CDD initiatives still lags considerably behind the speed at which such projects are being implemented and ‘scaled up.’” Baker (2000) suggests that, “Evaluating impact is particularly critical in developing countries where resources are scarce and every dollar spent should aim to maximize its impact on poverty reduction. If programs are poorly designed, do not reach their intended beneficiaries, or are wasteful, with the right information they can be redesigned, improved, or eliminated if deemed necessary.

Khwaja (2003) presents empirical evidence that illustrates the ambiguous effect of community participation. Specifically, these findings show that while increased community participation is beneficial in decisions that require relatively more local inputs/knowledge, it is detrimental to project success in decisions requiring investments that the community is at a disadvantage at providing.

In the Philippines, Labonne and Chase (2008) used propensity score matching and household panel data to estimate the impacts of a World Bank-funded Community Driven Development project on social capital. Their analysis suggested that the project preparation cycle increased the participation in village assemblies, the frequency of interaction between village leaders and residents, and trust in strangers. At the same time, they found evidence that CDD may serve as a substitute for other associational activities and contributions as they see negative impacts on group membership, collective action and village-level investments in other projects.

2.6 Community Empowerment

The concept of empowerment is mostly used for people capacity. The term is defined as the process of enhancing an individual's or group's capacity to make purposive choices and to transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes (Alsop, et al, 2006). Community empowerment is defined as working collectively, which is about people and government, working together to make life better. Empowerment means real control by communities over resources, project/program design and selection, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation (Hans & Swaminathan, 2003).

The key actors within the community need to be involved in decisions about their life, it ensures that the people taking responsibility to deal with problems that they face. Importantly, community empowerment means that it is difficult for government to solve all the problems by itself. Therefore, local people must be active with the motivation, skills, and confidence to speak up for their communities and say what improvements are needed. The poor and the relatively powerless may become „empowerment to participate more effectively in particular development projects and programs (Mayo & Craig, 1995). Some community organizations have been formed spontaneously, in the sense of having been created by the people themselves, but the greater number of organizations have been stimulated and assisted by external interventions (Rahman, 1995).

According to Janelle (2000) “Men and women will often have different views and perspectives on infrastructure problems and requirements and it is important that these different views are known and are incorporated in to project planning. Evidence shows that while there is a tendency for men to make the decisions about physical improvements in low-income areas, it is actually the women who are primarily involved in these activities.” Local community involvement in decision-making regarding their development issues at the rural area is generally considered a core value in community development.

In order to empower communities to be responsible for their own priority development, they need to be formed as representative institutions and be involved in project or programme activities. The activities of these grassroots institution are mostly to mobilize internal resources of the people supplemented by resource and knowledge

support from outside to undertake income-generating activities (including the development of infrastructure to support these activities (Rahman, 1995). Capacity building needs to be an ongoing and flexible process that can be adjusted to suit the requirements of the villagers and the direction of the project (Janelle & John G, 2004).

The term empowerment is an instrument that can be used in the process of a program for reaching the goals. Alsop, et al (2006) stated that: “Empowerment can be an objective of an intervention or program (an end in itself), or it can be an instrument in the process of reaching a project or program objective (a means to an end).” Community-driven development (CDD) recognizes that poor people are prime actors in the development process, not targets of externally designed poverty reduction efforts. In CDD, control of decisions and resources rests with community groups, who may often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers, including elected local governments, the private sector, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), and central government agencies. Not only do poor communities have greater capacity than generally recognized, they also have the most to gain from making good use of resources targeted at poverty reduction (Alkire et al. 2001). CDD can increase the effectiveness, efficiency, and sustainability of projects or programs, making them more pro-poor and responsive to local priorities.

According to the World Bank empowerment source book (2002), the key concept underlying Community Driven Development is the idea of empowerment, an expression widely used in development literature, but not often defined. Having access to the structures of governance has been identified as the primary challenge of empowering poor people.

Empowerment of poor people means, the expansion of freedom of choice and action, of assets and capabilities to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives. World Bank Empowerment (2002). The sense of ownership and community connectedness are key factors of sustainable development. In its turn, sustainable development depends on the existence of a capable civic body, whose determined involvement in the social life requires community empowerment (Gaye and Diallo, 1997).

Community development analysts have paid less attention to the role of community empowerment in sustaining development projects (Bess et al. 2011). The process of empowerment consists of recognizing the benefits that individuals and communities obtain from members' participation in planning activities and decision-making operations, improving their capabilities through trainings, gathering information of their interest and sharing local knowledge (Narayan and Shah, 2000). Hokoand Hertle,(2006) evaluated the sustainability of rural water rehabilitation projects in different cities in Zimbabwe and identified various indicators of sustainability for completed community projects. Allen (2000) argues that there is no successful process of empowerment without changes in power structures both at local, and broader national and even international, levels.

Duflo (2012) argues that while development itself brings about women's empowerment, empowering women brings about changes in decision-making, which have a direct impact on development. The low level of women's participation in decision-making activities is seen as one of the greatest barriers to improving gender balance, which consequently hinders economic development.

2.7 Project Sustainability

Khawaja's (2001) study suggests that since community managed projects are better maintained they are also more sustainable than those managed by local governments.

Kleemeier (2000) argues that poor sustainability is largely because of a lack of institutional support from external agencies. CBD and CDD projects have the potential to be more sustainable than top-down ones, but they also appear to suffer from the Achilles heel of being ignored by line ministries once they are completed. A number of the studies suggest that unless communities are able to lobby for continued support for marginal inputs and training their ability to sustain such projects may be limited.

Ensuring a thriving agricultural economy is critical for reducing poverty, enabling food security, and managing natural resources in a sustainable fashion. Agriculture provides a livelihood for more than 60 percent of developing country populations, and in many countries, farm families make up 80 percent or more of the population (World Bank, 1990). Agriculture has already reached the limits of land and water, thus future increases in food production must exploit biological yields on existing land (World

Bank, 1997). In the face of this technological challenge, agriculture faces a crisis in many parts of the developing world.

If the MDG targets are to be achieved, both national governments and donors must reach the poor by targeting resources to the locations and economic activities in which the poor are engaged. It is alarming that donor support to the agriculture sector has declined significantly in the last 20 years. World Bank lending for agricultural activities has declined from 31% of total lending in 1979-81 to less than 10% in 1999-2000 (World Bank, 2003). FAO notes the failure to target resources, with a decline in resources going to countries with a high incidence of malnutrition (mainly African) from 7% of total aid in 1993 to 5% in 1996-2000 (FAO, 2001).

In this regard, we recognize that although the conditions faced in some parts of today's poorer areas may be too difficult and challenging for agriculture to be a viable driver for pro-poor economic growth, support for smallholder agricultural development is still important for two reasons. Firstly, few other growth opportunities exist in many of these areas. Secondly, smallholder agriculture performs important welfare and food security roles in these areas and hence there are huge social, economic and environmental costs of failure to support smallholder production activities.

Sustaining and indeed enhancing the ability of poor households to meet their food needs through their own production requires intensification supported by public investment, just as in higher-potential areas. In sub-Saharan Africa, where a resurgence of growth helped cut extreme poverty from 58% in 1990 to 51% in 2005, the number of poor people rose from 296 million to 388 million. World Bank report (2010).

2.8 Theoretical Framework

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). Innovation, not only enhances accountability by addressing the challenges of public based systems where their failures are attributed to lack of accountability to clientele (Jock and Gershon Feder, 2003); but also empowers farmers to take charge of assessing the quality and effectiveness of the service.

Community-driven development (CDD) recognizes that poor people are prime actors in the development process, not targets of externally designed poverty reduction efforts. In CDD, control of decisions and resources rests with community groups, who may often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers, including elected local governments, the private sector, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), and central government agencies. Not only do poor communities have greater capacity than generally recognized, they also have the most to gain from making good use of resources targeted at poverty reduction (Alkire et al. 2001).

Community development begins in the everyday lives of local people. This is the initial context for sustainable change. It is founded on a process of empowerment and participation. Empowerment involves a form of critical education that encourages people to question their reality: this is the basis of collective action and is built on principles of participatory democracy. In a process of action and reflection, community development grows through a diversity of local projects that address issues faced people in community (Margaret, 2005). Arguments in favour of the community driven development approach arise from extending the theory behind fiscal decentralization down to the village level, and CDD is thus often used to provide-bottom up support for broader decentralization reforms.

2.9 Conceptual Frame Work

The research study sought to determine the factors influencing the performance of community driven development projects under Kenya agricultural productivity projects in Meru County. Figure 2.1 indicates the independent and dependent variables in the study.

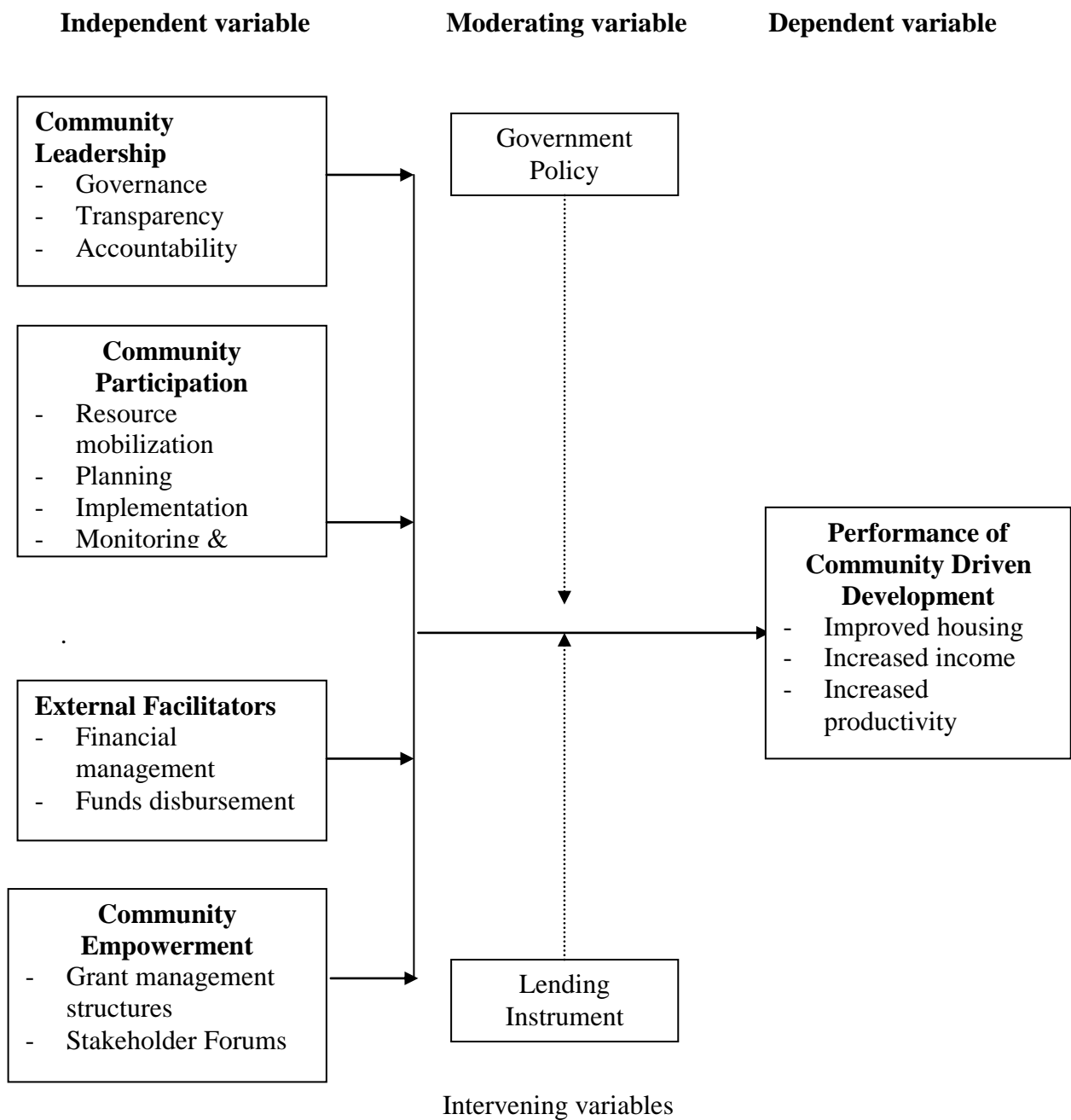


Fig 2.1 Conceptual Framework

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out various stages and phases that were followed in completing the study. It involved a blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Specifically, the following subsections were included; research design, target population, description of research instruments, sampling design, data collection instruments, data collection procedures and finally data analysis.

The data employed for this study was sourced from the field through liaison with Kenya Agricultural Productivity Project regional office in Meru for data regarding all the Common Interest Groups members in the fifty locations of the county, from which a representative sample of implemented community driven development projects (CDD) was derived. The areas of investigation were segmented into four key areas:- Community leadership, community participation, role of external facilitators and community empowerment.

3.2 Research Design

A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. It is conceptual structure within which research is conducted. It stipulates the blue print for collection, Measurement and analysis of data (Kothari, 2003).

Descriptive research design was preferred in the study for it was used to obtain information concerning the current status of a phenomena and purposes of these methods was to describe “what exists” with respect to situational variables i.e. it looks at relationship between and among variables (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Face to face interview with key informants to gather information and data was conducted through a structured questionnaire on issues relating to community leadership, information flow, community participation, role of external facilitators and community empowerment.

3.3 Target Population

The target population of the study was committee members in all the 20 community driven development projects under the Kenya agricultural productivity project in Meru county.

Table 3.1 Target population

Sub-county	No. of projects	Target population
Imenti South	3	21
Imenti North	5	35
Imenti Central	3	26
Buuri	7	45
Tigania East	1	5
Tigania West	1	6
Total	20	138

Source: Kapp Meru 2013.

3.4 Sample Size and Procedure

Kothari (2004) argues that a sample size is a sub-set of the total population that is used to give the general views of the target population. The cases of identifying initial subjects was selected on the basis of them being informative and possessing required characteristics. They were selected on basis of them being involved implementation of Kenya agricultural productivity projects community driven development projects within Meru County. The sample size of respondents was determined through the following formulae used in social science research (Fisher et al, 1983).

$$n = \frac{z^2 pq}{d^2}$$

Where

n = the desired sample size (if the target population is greater than 10,000)

z = the standard normal deviation at the required confidence level.

P = Population in the target population estimated to have characteristic being measured.

q = 1- p

The proportion in the target population assumed to have the characteristic of interest being 90%.

The Z statistic is 1.96 and accuracy was desired at the 0.5 level. Hence the sample size where the target population is greater than 10,000 would be

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (.90) (.10)}{(.05)^2}$$
$$= 138$$

A random sample of 138 farmers implementing community driven development projects in the entire Meru County under the Kenya agricultural productivity project was chosen. The random sample was derived from a list of all farmers (22,498) that implemented community driven development projects (sample frame) using scientific calculator generated random numbers.

3.5 Data Collection instruments

The main data collection instrument was the questionnaire. The questionnaires had both open and closed ended questions that capture the relevant data for this research to be administered with the help of research assistants. Data and information regarding the variables being investigated; community leadership, community participation, and empowerment indicators was obtained through face to face interview of key informants using a structured questionnaire.

3.6 Piloting of instruments

Piloting is conducting mini versions of the full-scale study as a way of pre-testing the questionnaires to ensure that research instruments are working properly. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a sample equivalent to 10% of the study sample is enough for piloting the study Instruments. Piloting was conducted by administering the questionnaires to 13farmers drawn from Tharaka Nithi County who were not participating in the study to ensure there was no replication between the pilot study and actual study.

3.7 Reliability of instruments

Reliability on the other hand refers to a measure of the degree to which research instruments yield consistent results (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). In this study, reliability was ensured by pre-testing the questionnaire and interview guide with a selected sample from community members within the community driven development areas in Meru County. In order to test the reliability of the instruments, internal consistency techniques were applied using Cronbachs Alpha. The alpha value ranges between 0 and 1 with reliability increasing with the increase in value. Coefficient of 0.6-0.7 is a commonly accepted rule of thumb that indicates acceptable reliability and 0.8 or higher indicates good reliability.

3.8 Validity of research instruments

Validity as noted by Robinson (2002) is the degree to which result obtained from the analysis of the data actually represents the phenomenon under study. Validity was ensured by having objective questions included in the questionnaire and interview guide. This was achieved by pre-testing the instrument to be used to identify and change any ambiguous, awkward, or offensive questions and technique as emphasized by Cooper and Schindler (2003). Experts were requested to comment on the representativeness and suitability of questions and give suggestions of corrections to be made to the structure of the research tools. This improved the content validity of the data collected. Content validity was obtained by asking for the opinion of the supervisor, lecturers and other professional on whether the questionnaire was adequate.

3.9 Data collection procedure

After clearance by the supervisors the questionnaires were distributed by the research assistants to the sampled (138) farmers implementing the community driven development projects. A copy of the transmittal letter to carry out the research was attached to each questionnaire in order to create confidence in case the respondents doubted the intent of the study. The questionnaires were collected after one week having given framers ample time to fill them. The data collected was verified before being coded, summarized, cleaned and grouped into various categories for analysis.

3.10 Data Analysis Methods

The obtained data was summarized or described the using descriptive statistics. Data analysis was carried out by use of SPSS programme to obtain descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics summarized the findings in percentages and frequency distributions represented in tables Analysis therefore used descriptive techniques to manipulate data and attain results that adequately addressed the research objectives as aligned with the study questions.

3.11 Ethical issues

According to Kerridge et al (2005) ethics involves making a judgement about right and wrong behavior. Due to sensitivity of the information being sought in this research, the researcher holds the moral obligation to treat the information collected from the respondents with utmost propriety. The researcher sought permission from relevant authorities before commencement of the study. The respondents were assured that the study was meant for academic purpose only. Respondents were treated with utmost confidentiality; they were also interviewed on their willingness and allowed to withdraw from participating if they so wished.

3.12 Operational Definition of Variables

According to Martyn (2008) operationalization is defined as the process of strictly defining variables into measurable factors. This process defines fuzzy concepts and allows them to be measured, empirically and quantitatively. Operationalization was achieved by looking at the behavioral dimensions, indicators, facts or properties denoted by the concepts, translated into observable and measurable elements to develop an index of the concepts. Measures can be objective or subjective. It was not possible to construct a meaningful data collection instrument without first operationalizing all the variable as indicated in table 3.1

Table 3.1 Operationalization of Variables

Research Objectives	Variables	Indicators	Measurement Scale	Data Collection Methods	Types of Analysis
To investigate how community leadership influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity community driven development project in Meru County	Independent variable Community leadership	-Governance structures in place -Transparency and accountability mechanism in place	Ordinal	Questionnaires Interviews	Descriptive
To establish how external project facilitator influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity CDD project in Meru County	Independent variable external	-Funds disbursement modes / frequency -Financial management records	Ordinal	Questionnaires Interview	Descriptive
To examine how community participation influence	Independent variable Community participation	-Resource mobilization -Planning and designing	Nominal	Questionnaires interview	Descriptive statistics frequencies percentages

performance of Kenya agricultural productivity community driven development project in Meru County		- Implementation monitoring and evaluation			
To examine how community empowerment influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity community development projects in Meru County	Independent variable Community empowerment	-Grant management structures in place	Ordinal	Questionnaires interview	Descriptive frequencies percentages

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the findings of this study. Data obtained from the completely filled questionnaires was coded to allow uniformity during the analysis process. This study was modeled on a simple descriptive research design utilizing both quantitative and qualitative methods. Analysis has been done in SPSS and the findings have been presented in tables. The descriptive statistics obtained in this study are mainly in percentages. Analysis therefore used descriptive techniques to manipulate data and attain results that adequately addressed the research objectives as aligned with the study questions.

4.2 Demographic characteristics of the study population

The study sought to find out the demographic characteristics of the respondents. This was vital in defining the human resource driving community development forward in Meru County. Accordingly, gender, age, marital status, level of education and occupation were particularly of interest while analyzing the two categories of respondents. The researcher requested the CIGs members to indicate their gender. Results as in Table 1 were obtained.

Table 4.1: Gender of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	81	59
Female	57	41
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.1, indicates that 41% female members of the common interest groups (CIGs) operating under the project against their 59% male counter parts. This indicates that Kenya Agricultural Productivity project (KAPP) implementing team has good gender policy. Similar results have been obtained on the Key Informants data which indicates 40% and 60% female and male participation respectively. This implies that the two

genders are taking up responsibility to improve the livelihoods of their families through improved and increased productivity and hence increased incomes. However, this study has revealed that youth are not greatly involved in the community development projects under KAPP.

Table 4.2: Age of the respondent

Age	Frequency	Percent
25-30 years	4	3
36-45 years	50	36
Over 45 years	84	61
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.2 indicates that, only a small number 3% of the youth in the community were enrolled in the CIGs. Most of the members (61%) are aged above 45 while 36% constitutes the middle age. Information provided by the Key Informants confirms to these findings that only 6% of the CIGs members are youth, 36% middle age and the majority (58%) are the aged. Additionally, majority of the CIGs members are individuals with low education, particularly those that left school after primary (28%) and secondary school graduates (64%). Data in Table 4.3 indicate a 4 per cent of diploma and an equal proportion for degree holders among the CIGs members. This research has further revealed that 64% of the Key Informants had attained lower levels of education with only 24% diploma holders.

Table 4.3: Level of education of the respondent

Level of education	Frequency	Percent
Primary	39	28
Secondary	88	64
Diploma	6	4
Degree	5	4
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.3 indicates that these groups lack any expertise in most aspects of community development that would help them in projects identification, design, planning and implementation. Very few CIGs members (4%) have achieved post diploma education and are involved directly in community driven development projects. None of the community Key Informants had a masters or a PhD qualification. Certainly, with regard to this research, the educated majority of in the community have abdicated community development in the hands of the aging, feeble and uneducated minority in the society. This minority who are mainly characterized by little or no education and old age have resolved to community based development projects as the solemn hope for a better lifestyle. This indicates that they probably don't bear within them the drive to really create improved sustainable production and marketing systems that will enhance increased incomes to their families. This research confirms that 91% of this group is self-employed and as such do not have reliable and pensionable income sources. 9% however are employees. It further indicates that all the Key Informants are married and hence had families to sustain while only 5% of the CIGs members are single. The rest (95%) are married.

Therefore, the benefiting community under KAPP is well organized on the basic units of a society, the household. This set up makes it easy to adopt the community driven development approach of the KAPP and better the realization of the project goals besides leaving the community more empowered to device and sustainably execute community based projects to improve on production and better their livelihoods. This section crucially identifies that the Meru County community has a low capacity in terms of education and human resource to advance development goals on their own and mobilize resources to facilitate successful implementation of those goals with little interventions by external facilitators.

4.3 Influence by community leadership on performance of KAPP community driven development projects in Meru County

In this section, the researcher intended to obtain information that would address the research question; to what extent does community leadership influence the performance of Kenya Agricultural productivity project community driven development projects in Meru County? To adequately answer this question, several statements were put across to the respondent and were requested to strongly agree (SA), agree (A), disagree (D) or

strongly disagree (SD). In case the respondent does not consider these answers, they were supposed to state that they are not sure (NS). An array of Tables has been used to present the results. To begin with the CIGs members were asked whether they elected their leaders democratically.

Table 4.4: Community leaders are elected democratically

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	2	2
D	7	5
NS	6	4
A	30	22
SA	93	68
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.4 indicates that, 68% of the respondents strongly agreed that community leaders are elected democratically. 22% also agree to this statement. On the opposite, 2% strongly disagree, 5% disagree while 4% are not sure that democracy is exercised in electing the leaders. By majority, this implies that the CIGs members equally participate in their own development projects implementation process at a fair and equal platform. However, there are occasions when democracy is not well applied as symbolized by the minority statistics. On the other hand, in Table 4.5, information show that majority (SD=38% & D=16%) of the respondents did not consider the individual status while electing their leaders. 4% of the members could not make up their minds on this aspect.

Table 4.5: Individual status considered during elections

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	52	38
D	22	16
NS	5	4
A	39	28
SA	20	14
Total	138	100.0

However, 28% and 14% of the respondents agree and strongly agree that individual status is considered in the elections. These results imply that majority of the members of the community in the CIGs under KAPP CDD project only consider the leadership capabilities in an individual in order to entrust them with leadership responsibility. To some members however, individual status of an aspirant leader matters. On gender issues, the researcher sought to establish whether both men and women participate equally in the community leadership.

Table 4.6: Positions were distributed among men and women

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	3	2
D	5	4
NS	9	7
A	34	25
SA	87	63
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.6 indicates that, leadership positions are distributed across all gender. This is supported by the 63% (SA) and 25% (A) of the respondents. 7% were unsure about what to say. A small percentage of the respondents do not agree to this finding. 2% strongly disagree while 4% also disagree. According to this research therefore, men and women in Meru County both take leadership positions in a bid to drive their community development. This finding concurs with the prior finding of a high number of female participants in the KAPP community driven projects in Meru County.

Table 4.7: leadership positions reservation for specific people in the society

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	99	71.7
D	17	12.3
NS	6	4.3
A	8	5.8
SA	8	5.8
Total	138	100.0

In Table 4.7, research shows that majority (72%) of the respondents strongly disagree that certain leadership positions are a reserve of some members of in the community. Another 12% of the respondents concur with this. To the contrary, 6% identified that

they agree and another 6% strongly disagree. On the basis of these results, we understand that all members of the CIGs under KAPP in Meru County are treated equally especially on leadership issues.

Table4. 8: Marginalized groups Incorporated in leadership

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	52	38
D	17	12
NS	13	9
A	37	27
SA	19	14
Total	138	100.0

In Table 4.8, 38 per cent of the respondents strongly disagree that marginalized groups are involved in the development projects in Meru County. 12% also disagree while 9% are not sure. On the other hand, 27% said they agree while 14% indicated to strongly agree. This study thus reveals that marginalized groups are to a small extent involved in development projects in Meru County. This is confirmed by the majority respondents despite the few who indicate the opposite.

Table 4.9: Leaders capable of overseeing successful project implementation

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	2	1
D	4	3
NS	9	6
A	60	44
SA	63	46
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.9 indicated that (SA=46% & A=44%) community leaders were capable of overseeing successful implementation of the community driven projects.

Table 4.10: Leaders ability to solicit and lobby for development support

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	4	3

D	8	6
NS	19	13
A	62	45
SA	45	33
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.10 indicate that most of the respondents (SA=33% & A=45%) expressed that the leaders are able to solicit for project implementation support. A small percentage (SD=1% & D=3%) of the respondents expressed doubts in their leaders capability to steer the project forward. On the same note another minority (SD=3% & D=6%) also outlined that the leaders were not able to lobby and seek support for the project implementation. These results make clear that the leaders even though characterized with low education are aggressive to manage the projects and seek external support in situations of need to enhance success of those projects. The 6% and 13% of the participants who were not sure of the matter in the two cases raise concern on the transparency of the community leaders to the other project members. To address this, the researcher investigated whether the community leaders are accountable to their community and results presented in Table4.11.

Table 4. 11: Accountability of the Leadership to other members

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	2	1
D	4	3
NS	4	3
A	70	51
SA	58	42
Total	138	100.0

Results in table 4.11 above depict that community leaders are accountable before the other members. Almost all respondents (SA=42% & A=51%) supported this finding while only 1% (SD) and 3% (D) did not support. It implies therefore that most of the CIGs members have trust in their leaders.

Table 4.12: Project decisions making by the community leaders

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	26	19
D	24	17

NS	10	7
A	41	30
SA	37	27
Total	138	100.0

More than half of the respondents (SA=27% & A=30%) agree that project decisions are made by the community leaders. However, 19% and 17% who strongly disagree and disagree to this finding is a large number. As such, it indicates that the community leaders do not have the final say on project implementation decisions. This is likely to be as a result of excessive external facilitation and low education level that render the leaders incapable of making strategic decisions on the project. Finally on the leadership aspect, almost all members (85%) confirmed that dissenting issues are handled by the community leaders. 8% however disagreed to this result which indicates some sort of external intervention. Based on the findings on this section, it raises interest to understand the levels of the community empowerment and degree of external facilitation as keys to success of community driven development projects.

4.4 Influence by external facilitators on performance of KAPP community driven development projects in Meru County

This section assesses the influence that external facilitators have on the community driven development approach. It is arguable that external interventions help greatly to create more rigorous economic institutions that benefit the local target communities. However, the sustainability of such systems is questionable especially considering evidence from research that social norms and indigenous set ups are hard to understand and alter. In this context, external facilitators refer to the project financiers and implementation teams that are recruited and mandated directly by the project financier. Therefore, the researcher wanted to determine how much influence the project financier has on the project implementation process as this determines the rate of project adoption and drive by the beneficiary community. Information is mainly in frequencies and percentages and presented in tables. Respondents were requested to rate the statements as to a great extent (GE), moderate extent (ME), not committal (NC), small extent (SE) and no extent (NE).

Table 4.13 gives information showing whether or not the external facilitators endeavor transparency and accountability in the management of the project funds.

Table 4.13: External facilitators endeavored transparency and accountability.

Extent	Frequency	Percent
SE	5	3
NC	29	21
ME	37	27
GE	67	49
Total	138	100.0

From the results in Table 4.13, 49 per cent of the respondents indicated that external facilitators endeavor transparency and accountability in the management of project funds. 27% indicated that this was to a moderate extent while 5% specified a small extent. Concern however arises owing to the 21% who cannot really commit to any of these ratings. This therefore portrays some level of doubt (low transparency and accountability) among the community members who are supposed to play major roles in the project implementation process. Further in Table 4.14, 24% of the community members cannot tell whether project finances were released on time or not.

Table 4.14: Finances released on time.

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	9	7
SE	14	10
NC	33	24
ME	39	28
GE	43	31
Total	138	100.0

Nonetheless, more than half of the members ($GE=31\%$ & $ME=28\%$) are satisfied that funds were to a great and moderate extent released on time. 14% said that the funds are to a small extent released on time while 7% said the funds are delayed. This finding therefore implies that the project financier facilitates the project implementation on time by releasing the funds rightfully as per the schedule.

The researcher then sought to identify who determines the project budget ceilings. Information regarding to this is in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Budgets ceilings determined by financiers

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	6	4
SE	8	6
NC	30	22
ME	37	27
GE	57	41
Total	138	100.0

This study show that 22% of the community members participating in the CIGs do not know who determines the project budget ceiling while 41% and 27% to a great and moderate extent associate this with the project financiers. 6% on the other hand believe that to a small extent, it is the project financier that determines the project budget ceiling. A small section of the respondents identified that project financiers do not influence the project. Similar information was forwarded by the Key informants indicating that budget ceiling greatly depend on the project financier. Additionally, more than half ($GE=28\%$ & $ME=25\%$) of the respondents (Table 4.16) identify that the decisions as to which project is funded depends at least moderately on the project financiers.

Table 4. 16: Financiers choose projects to fund

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	60	43
NC	6	4
ME	34	25
GE	38	28
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.16 indicates that a large portion of the respondents (43%) outline that project financiers do not select project to fund. Considering these large frequencies favoring the two sides, this implies that the project to be funded are depends on the community to benefit although with influence from the financier.

Table 4.17: Procurement improved transparency

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	8	6
SE	8	6
NC	31	22
ME	52	38
GE	39	28
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.17 shows that procurement has at least moderately improved transparency. 28% rate it to a great extent, 38% indicated moderate extent while 6% said it is to a small extent. 23% of the members however cannot define any extent to which procurement impacts on the transparency and a 6% did not associate procurement to transparency. According to the findings in this section, it is evident that procurement is a contributing factor to transparency. There is however need to enlighten community members on some of practices like procurement to help them identify their importance in community development projects.

Table 4. 18: Monitoring and evaluation of community projects

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	33	24
SE	8	6
NC	9	6
ME	37	27
GE	51	37
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.18, the respondents indicated that there is a monitoring and evaluation system in the KAPP CDD in Meru County. 37% of them indicated that there is a monitoring and evaluation to a great extent, 27% to a moderate and 6% to a small extent. Another 6% were undecided while the remaining 5% said that community development projects are not monitored. This is an implication that the project financiers have a monitoring and evaluation system that helps them to track the project implementation process.

Table4. 19: Monitoring and evaluation leads to improved performance

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	7	5
SE	15	11
NC	9	6
ME	48	35
GE	59	43
Total	138	100.0

Table 19 indicates that 43%, 35% and 11% of the respondents indicated that monitoring and evaluation helps to improve on the project performance to a great, moderate and small extent respectively. Minor frequencies appeared for no extent (5%) and not committal (6%). On this account, 17% of the members cannot identify whether or not the management has what it requires driving the project forward. This was in response to whether the community feels that the project management has expertise to manage the project well.

Table 4.20: Management has enough expertise

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	2	1
SE	14	10
NC	23	17
ME	45	33
GE	54	39
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.20 indicates that the project management has enough expertise to run the project. 39% indicated that the expertise is to a great extent enough, 33% highlighted moderated and 10% small extent respectively. 17% of the respondents did not give their commitment while 1% thought that there is no expertise to run the project. Some of the challenges that the community identified as hindrances to efficient project implementation include hand outs and inadequate facilitation. In table 21, a combined tally of 84% members put across that there is at least little donor dependency with 20% quoting a great, 29% moderate and 35% small extent of the same.

Table 4.21: Handouts are a major challenge

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	14	10
SE	48	35
NC	8	6
ME	40	29
GE	28	20
Total	138	100.0

10% of the respondents said there is no donor dependency and this represents the minority who has embraced self-reliance and can mobilize their resources towards self and community development. In other results, 16% of the members indicated that they experience inadequate facilitation in the course of the project implementation. This figure coupled with the 13% who could not tell whether facilitation is timely and adequate suffices an alarm. Nonetheless, most members agreed that facilitation as provided by the KAPP financier is adequate.

4.5 Influence by community participation on performance of KAPP community driven development projects in Meru County

In this section, the researcher investigates the extent of community participation in development project and how much it affects the performance of such projects. This was achieved by listing a series of statements that the respondents were supposed to either agree or disagree with in a varying scale from strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree and strongly disagree. Data analysis was done results presented in frequencies and percentages.

Table 4. 22: community members involved in development projects

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	24	17
D	8	6
NS	3	2
A	37	27
SA	66	48
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.22 revealed that 48% of the community members strongly agree that all members of the society are involved in community development projects. These are

seconded by 27% who just agree. A small proportion of the respondents could neither disagree nor agree to this finding. 17% and 6% strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively. This implies that there is a section of the community that is not involved in the development initiatives.

Table 4.23: Community participates in identifying, design and project implementation

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	4	3
D	2	1
NS	15	11
A	50	36
SA	67	49
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.23 indicates that 49% of the participants in the study strongly agreed that the community participates in design, planning and implantation of community projects. Similarly, 36% were in agreement. 11% however were unsure of this expression while 3% strongly disagreed and 1% also disagreed. The large number of community members who indicated community participation in design, planning and project implementation confirms the prior finding about community participation in community projects and further imply that community development is mainly dependent on the recipient community. Indeed, this study has revealed that community members take part in community development committees. A cumulative percentage of those that confirmed this practice was about 92%.

To seek more information, the researcher inquired whether community member mobilize their resources towards execution of identified project. Table 4.24 below contains information in response to this expectation.

Table 4. 24: Community mobilizes resources towards identified projects

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	14	10
D	20	15
NS	23	17
A	49	36
SA	32	23

Total	138	100.0
--------------	------------	--------------

Table 4.24 indicate that majority of the respondents strongly agreed (23%) and 36% agreed that the community mobilizes their resources towards execution of identified development projects. This finding implies that the community has begun appreciating community driven development and self-reliance. On the contrary some members of the community as was found out in section 4.3 are still dependent on donor funding to execute community projects. This argument is supported by 10% and 15% of the members who laid disagreement to the idea that community mobilizes resources towards its development. Further, 17% were not sure about the community verses community development.

Table 4. 25 present findings regarding community’s participation in community decision making.

Table 4.25: Community decision on projects to implement

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	1	1
D	12	9
NS	28	20
A	39	28
SA	58	42
Total	138	100.0

Under KAPP community driven development project, the community makes decisions regarding their projects. The study has recorded 42% of the respondents strongly agreeing to this statement while another 28% still agree. A section of the community (20%) however could not decide on whether these decisions are made by the community members or not. 9% of them disagreed while 1% strongly implied that the community does not make decisions regarding the projects to be implemented. This study thus gives an indication that the community is not in full control of the development they want. This signifies some external facilitation that influence the community’s decision on what projects will be implemented. This finding thus concurs with the finding that project financiers choose the project to be funded.

More findings in this research show that marginalized and the vulnerable groups in the society are included in the community driven development projects. This is according to the information in Table 4.26. In the table, a cumulative 50% (SA=18% + A=32%)

of the members agree that marginalized groups are incorporated in the project implementation process. This indicates a good level of uptake in line the national advocacy for the inclusion of marginalized groups in community development initiatives.

Table 4.26: Marginalized groups are incorporated in community development projects

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	47	34
D	6	4
NS	17	12
A	44	32
SA	24	18
Total	138	100.0

On the contrary, 38% disagree with this and further another 12% expressed that they were not sure whether the marginalized are really involved in development projects. A 4 per cent also expressed this concern by disagreeing. This is an indication that these groups still encounter discrimination in some parts of the County. Moreover, majority of the community members have identified that more women take part physically in the communal projects than men.

Table 4. 27: More women than men take part physically in development projects

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	14	10
D	23	17
NS	2	1
A	45	33
SA	54	39
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.27, 39% and 33% both agree that more women physically participate in community development projects than men. This finding concurs with the observational data gathered in this research. Most men would rather leave their women to take part in the communal projects while they indulge into more rigorous activities which they believe will bring more income to the family. 10% and 17% however disagreed to this evidence hence implying that men take greater part in community projects. It thus concurs with the prior finding in section 4.2 that both genders are involved at equal proportionality in community project implementation. In table 4.28, this research has unveiled that gender differences influences the performance of community development projects.

Table 4.28: Gender differences influences performance

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	54	39
D	13	9
NS	12	9
A	33	24
SA	26	19
Total	138	100.0

19% of the respondents in Table4.28 support this with a strong agreement while another 24% agree. The opposite is that majority strongly disagree (39%) and 9% disagree that gender differences can influence the project performance. The remaining 9% were unsure. Information from this study further indicates that the community is involved in the project monitoring and evaluation as shown in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Community participate in monitoring and evaluation

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	2	1
D	12	9
NS	31	23
A	71	51
SA	22	16
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.29 above has information that, 16% strongly agree that the community is involved in the project monitoring and evaluation. 51% also agree with this implying that the community is highly involved in enhancing the performance of their development projects. 23% of the participants however were unsure, a finding that implies lack of knowledge among the community as regards to monitoring and evaluation. Disagreement was little shown by only a cumulative 10%.

The researcher further sought information on whether participation in community development projects was voluntary or coerced. In this connection the researcher also intended to find out whether participation in community development projects resulted to increased yields and incomes.

Table 4.30: Community voluntarily participates

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	4	3
D	2	1
NS	15	11
A	20	15
SA	97	70
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.30 shows that participation in KAPP community driven development is voluntary ($SA=70\%$ & $A=14\%$) and not coerced. 4% disagreed while 11% were not sure of which side to take.

Table 4.31: Participation resulted in increased yields and incomes

Response	Frequency	Percent
SD	19	14
D	2	1
NS	5	3
A	48	35
SA	64	47
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.31 indicate that most of community member have witnessed increase in their yields and incomes. The 47% of the whole population plus a 35% confirms this finding. Few of the participants disagreed ($SD=14\%$ & $D=1\%$) with the expression that participation in community projects resulted to increased productivity and hence increased incomes. Based on the findings presented in the two tables, it is evident that there are direct benefits of participating in community development projects. These include increased productivity and higher incomes. It is for these reasons therefore that the majority of Meru county dwellers take part voluntary in KAPP CDD projects.

4.6 Influence through community empowerment on performance of KAPP community driven development (CDD) projects in Meru County

An empowered community is a group of residents who have been capacitated to make purposive choices and transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes (Alsop, et al, 2006). To this effect, the researcher sought to investigate whether the Meru County community is empowered enough to undertake their own development. This section therefore is a discussion on the influence of community empowerment on the performance of community driven development projects. The respondents gave varying (GE=Great Extent, ME=Moderate Extent, NC=Non-Committal, SE=Small Extent and NE=No Extent) expressions in response to statements put across by the researcher. Several tables have been used to present the findings in frequencies and percentages.

Table 4.32: Community consulted during project identification

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	2	1
SE	5	4
NC	2	1
ME	22	16
GE	107	78
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.32, more than half (78%) of the respondents expressed that community members are consulted during project implementation. Additionally, 16% and 4% identified the community is to a moderate and small extent respectively consulted. As

such, the study reveals that the project financier involves the beneficiary community in identifying projects to be implemented.

Table 4.33: Community empowerment to plan and develop projects

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	2	1
SE	10	8
NC	26	19
ME	42	30
GE	58	42
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.33, 42% said they have been empowered to a great extent while 30% and 7% indicated a moderate and small extent respectively. Community empowerment agencies should nevertheless strive to address the 19% who could don't rate themselves on the different levels of empowerment. Only 1% of the respondents said there has been no community empowerment.

Table 4.34: Community empowerment to assess performance

Extent	Frequency	Percent
SE	14	10
NC	22	16
ME	76	55
GE	26	19
Total	138	100.0

The community has further been empowered to assess their development projects' performance (Table 4.34). Under KAPP, a cumulative 84% of the CIGs members have at least been empowered to monitor their project's performance. This result conforms to the earlier result on the community's participation in the project monitoring and evaluation (Table 4.29) of their development projects. A section of the community seems to have been left out in empowerment for community projects assessment. This owes to the 16% of the respondents who could not identify with any level of empowerment. An empowered community is able to articulate issues regarding their development. Findings in this section show that almost all members of the community have been empowered to some extent on issues regarding identification of their problems and designing solutions to them except a 3% who did not commit to any level.

Table 4.35: Women and youth empowerment enhanced performance

Extent	Frequency	Percent
SE	5	3
ME	59	43
GE	74	54
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.35 indicate that despite the low number of youth participating in community development projects, results show a one voice consensus that empowerment on women and youth enhances performance of community development projects (GE=54%, ME=43% & SE=3%). Further, results of this study indicate that more women than men have been empowered to undertake development projects.

Table 4. 36: More women than men have been empowered

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	4	3
SE	22	16
NC	10	7
ME	48	35
GE	54	39
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.36 indicates that, 39%, 35% and 16% indicate a great, moderate and small extent respectively concurrence with this result. This finding conforms to the prior

finding of this research where more women physically participate in community development projects compared to men. Negligible statistics indicated no extent (3%) and 7% of non-committal. This research also revealed that most of the development projects are owned and managed by the community. Only a negligible (1%) number of the community members expressed contradiction to this finding. This implies that there is some external facilitation on the projects particularly by the project financiers. Culture and traditional norms were found to pose challenges towards adoption and implementation of community development project. Data from respondents regarding to this aspect was analyzed results presented in Table 4.36.

Table 4.37: Cultural challenge

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	64	46
SE	24	17
NC	4	3
ME	31	23
GE	15	11
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.36, indicates that some members of the community (11%) stated that culture is to a great extent a challenge to community empowerment through community driven development projects. 23% and 17% indicated moderate and small extents respectively. However, close to half (46%) of the same community indicated that culture does not pose any challenge to community development projects. This balance between the two responses implies that culture poses some challenge to adoption and implementation of community driven projects although this challenge is not common in all localities. Table 38 contains more results depicting the community's capability to run and sustain their own development projects.

Table 4. 38: Community is ability to run and sustain their own projects

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	16	12
SE	20	14
NC	5	3

ME	59	43
GE	38	28
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.38 the community expressed that its members have the capability to run and sustain their own development projects. 28% stated that this capability is to great extent while 43% indicated a moderate extent and 14% a small extent. Few ($SD=12\%$) implied that the community cannot afford to run and sustain their development projects. Further, members participating in community driven development projects are willing to cooperate with government agencies in service delivery. This is according to the findings of this research. 66% of the respondents supported this saying the community to a great extent is willing for such a corporation. Finally, this study has indicated that community empowerment results to improved livelihoods. Details on this aspect are presented in Table 4. 39.

Table 4. 39: Empowered community members had improved houses

Extent	Frequency	Percent
NE	3	2
SE	17	12
ME	62	45
GE	56	41
Total	138	100.0

Table 4.39 indicates that 41% of the respondent by great extent associate empowerment to improved houses. 45% and 12% associate the two by a moderate and small extent. 2% of the community members do not associate empowerment to improved housing as a characteristic of improved livelihood. These findings imply that Empowerment leads to improved housing and hence improved livelihoods.

CHAPTER FIVE:

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents in brief the findings of this study, deductions based on those findings and recommendations for further research on the problem. The study aimed at investigating ,analyzing and establishing the factors that influence performance of community driven development projects in meru county. The study further sought to

examine how community leadership, external project facilitators, community participation and community empowerment influences performance of community driven development projects under Kenya agricultural productivity project in Meru County.

5.2 Summary of findings

5.2.1 Community leadership

This study has depicted good gender balance among the CIGs members participating in KAPP Community Driven Development projects in Meru County. It was also found that very few of the participants of the CIGs are the old aged below 45 with very little education. Majority only have primary and secondary school education and as such lack the required expertise and qualification to professionally scale up community development. Most of the CIGs members are household heads with responsibilities to take care of their families. This research has also shown that the communities participate in CDD projects. Democratically elected community leaders take responsibility of guiding the implementation process, to solicit and lobby for support (SA=33%&A=45%), monitor the project performance and account / report to the rest of the members. Community leaders are the fore persons of the projects in charge of most of the community development initiatives and they make decisions about the projects this concurs with Evidence that the success of subprojects often depends on the role that key local leaders and influential persons play in preparing proposals, mobilizing community contributions, and managing subproject implementation (World Bank 2002; Vajja and White 2008; Babajanian 2005). Consequently. (Bardhan and Mookherjee 1999; Conning and Kevane 2002; Platteau 2004; Galasso and Ravallion 2005) argued that Community Driven Development programs had been effective in targeting the poor in communities with strong local institutions and fairly homogeneous socioeconomic characteristics a proposition that this study supports.

5.2.2 External facilitators

This study reveals that community project decisions are not void of external facilitators input. Project financiers according to this research have a significant influence on the projects to be funded and decisions regarding their implementation. They further took part in monitoring end evaluation which the community also takes part in. The community acknowledges that monitoring and evaluation enhances accountability and transparency in the course of project implementation thus influencing its better performance. The study concurred with Mansuri and Rao, (2003) qualitative evidence

suggesting that the role of external agents such as project facilitators was major contributor to successful community driven development. As part of facilitation, the project financier releases project funds in good time and the majority of the community members further confirmed that the funds were adequate for the project implementation. In this research, some challenges that derailed the Community Driven Development initiatives had been highlighted. They included high donor dependency and low community's resource mobilization as requirement to encourage community projects ownership by the benefiting community. Targeting the poor has been found to be one of the challenges of the Community driven development approach (Farrington and Slater 2006).

5.2.3 Community participation

The study found that 48% of the community members strongly agreed that all members of the society were involved in community development projects. A further 49% of the respondents in the study strongly agreed that the community participated in design, planning and project implementation. This concurs with Barnett and Ndeki, (2002), in an attempt to analyze poor service delivery in rural areas of Kenya found out that many white elephant projects existed due to lack of involvement of the community members in project activities from their conception and this strongly affected their utilization as they felt distanced, the study further stated that community needs and wants must be clearly analyzed for any project to answer fully its objectives. Mansuri and Rao (2003) found that community participation led to development projects that were more responsive to the needs of the poor, more responsive governments and better delivery of public goods and services, better maintained community assets and a more informed and involved citizenry. The cornerstone of CDD initiatives was the active involvement of members of a defined community in at least some aspects of project design and implementation. Consequently, Khwaja 2003 presented empirical evidence that illustrated the ambiguous effect of community participation. Specifically, the findings showed that while increased community participation was beneficial in decisions that required relatively more local inputs/knowledge, it was detrimental to project success in decisions requiring investments that the community was at a disadvantage at providing.

5.2.4 Community Empowerment

The study indicated good levels of community empowerment. As such the community was able articulate their development issues and device projects to better their livelihoods. Indeed, the community owns their development projects and expressed will

to cooperate with government agencies for service delivery. Most importantly the community had shown the understanding that community empowerment and hence participation in community driven development projects leads to improved housing. This finally culminates to improved livelihoods. Duflo (2012) argues that while development itself brings about women's empowerment, empowering women brings about changes in decision-making, which had a direct impact on development. The low level of women's participation in decision-making activities was seen as one of the greatest barriers to improving gender balance, which consequently hindered economic development. Accordingly Janelle (2000) "Men and women will often have different views and perspectives on infrastructure problems and requirements and it was important that these different views are known and are incorporated in to project planning. Evidence shows that while there is a tendency for men to make the decisions about physical improvements in low-income areas, it is actually the women who are primarily involved in these activities." Local community involvement in decision-making regarding their development issues at the rural area is generally considered a core value in community development.

5.3 Discussions

The study found out that the youth were not greatly involved in the community development projects only a small number (3%), most of the members (61%) were aged above 45 years while 36% constituted the middle age. Additionally majority of the CIGs members were individuals with low education, particularly those that left school after primary (28%) and secondary school (64%) meaning that these groups lacked expertise in most aspects of community development that would help them in projects identification, design, planning and implementation.

5.3.1 Influence by Community leadership

The study sought to determine the influence by community leadership on the performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development projects in Meru County. In the election of the community leaders findings, the study established that 68% of the leaders were elected democratically while 54% indicated that individual status was not considered during the elections however 42% disagreed. The study also found out that leadership positions were distributed across all gender. This was supported by the 63%(SA) and 25%(A) of the respondents, only a small percentage disagreed 4% indicating that men and women in meru county took up

leadership positions in a bid to drive their community development. This finding concurs with prior finding of a high number of female participants in KAPP community projects in Meru County. These finding concur with Besley and Coate (2003) discussion pointing to the idea that direct elections allow citizens not simply to hold incumbents to account for past performance, but rather to use their vote to select leaders who are closer to them in preferences, beliefs or some ascriptive characteristic. The study also established that 41% agreed that marginalised groups were incorporated in leadership and 50% disagreed meaning that majority felt the vulnerable groups were not incorporated which concurs with Syukri, Mawardi, and Akhmadi (2010) observation that Many poor residents and women were not confident to speak out at formal meetings, especially in the presence of more affluent and influential community members.

5.3.2 Influence by External facilitation

The study sought to establish the influence that external facilitators had on community driven development approach. It is arguable that external interventions help greatly to create more rigorous economic institutions that benefit the local communities. However the sustainability of such systems is questionable especially considering evidence from research that social norms and indigenous set ups are hard to understand and alter, let alone transform (Easterly2001,2006) ,and that such external attempts to reshape-better institutions are likely to be futile. The study established that 49% of the respondents indicated that external facilitators endeavored transparency and accountability in the management of project funds.22% of the community members did not know who determined budget ceilings while 41% and 27% to a great and moderate extent associated this with the project financiers. Additionally, more than half (GE=28%&ME=25%) of the respondents identified that the decisions as to which project is funded depended at least moderately on the project financiers.

5.3.3 Influence by Community participation

The study sought to establish extent of influence by community participation on performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project in Meru County. The findings established that 48% of the community members strongly agreed that all the members of the society were involved in community development projects. Similarly 49% of participants strongly agreed that the community participated in design, planning and implementation. The large number of community members who indicated community participation in design, planning and implementation confirms the prior finding about

community participation in community projects and further implying that community development was mainly dependent on the recipient community. This correlates with Norman (2000) assertion that Participating communities have many centres of activity, and community action engages the natural enthusiasm and a talent of citizens, participation is the soul of an empowered community.

5.3.4 Influence by Community empowerment

The study sought to establish influence of community empowerment on the performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development projects in Meru County. The finding indicated that women and youth empowerment enhanced project performance (GE=54%, ME=43&SE=3%) further, results of the study indicated that more women than men had been empowered to undertake development projects. A cumulative 84% of the CIGs members had at least been empowered to monitor their project performance. This result conforms to the earlier result on community participation in the project monitoring and evaluation of their development projects. In order to empower communities to be responsible for their own priority development, they need to be formed as representative institutions and be involved in project or programme activities. Alsop, et al (2006) concurred that: “Empowerment can be an objective of an intervention or program (an end in itself), or it can be an instrument in the process of reaching a project or program objective (a means to an end).”

5.4 Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions can be reached;

- i) KAPP CDD projects in Meru County have a well distributed gender structure among the participants. Both female and male community members participate in community development projects. However, very few youth and the educated members of the community have enrolled in the common interest groups (CIGs) thus do not take part in the community driven development projects.
- ii) Community driven development projects depend mainly on the influence of the community leaders. They form part of the decision making, monitoring and lobbying team that enhances efficiency in the project implementation. The community leaders are however not in full control of the implementation process as study has shown high levels of external facilitation.
- iii) External facilitation has an influence in the CDD projects. Budgets ceiling are determined by the project financiers who are also in charge of monitoring and

evaluation. They further influence decision making besides taking control over funds and the type of projects to fund.

- iv) The community takes part in the design, planning and implementation of community development projects. Some members of the community and marginalized groups have not been sufficiently incorporated into these projects. More women than men take part physically in community development projects. The community is also reluctant on mobilizing resources for the project execution.
- v) KAPP CDD project has not realized full community empowerment. Many members of the community are unsure of many vital issues regarding community project implementation and cannot give information regarding those issues. They need more enlightenment. Nonetheless, community empowerment results to improved livelihoods.

5.5 Recommendations

These are the recommendations on CDD projects based on the case study of KAPP projects in Meru County;

- i) Project financiers embracing the Community driven development approach should undertake more empowerment for the target communities most particularly at initial stages of the projects to encourage community participation, ownership and more accountable independent project implementation.
- ii) There needs to be initiatives to create awareness and encourage the youth and the learned to take part and own community development project as way to boost the ability of the local community in the design, planning and implementation of such projects. This will make up for the energy and expertise/ knowledge drain that the community driven projects are facing hence improve on their performance.

5.6 Areas of further research

Community driven development approach is a community development model in which the benefiting community is expected to take full control to design, plan and implement development projects with least external facilitation. This study has revealed substantial external facilitation in all aspect of project implementation, community leadership and empowerment had also a positive influence on the performance of Kenya agricultural

productivity projects in Meru County. Therefore, study this recommends that research can be undertaken on;

- i. Factors influencing participation of youth in community driven development projects in Meru County.
- ii. Factors influencing participation of marginalized and vulnerable groups in community driven development projects in Meru County.
- iii. Influence of culture on the performance of community driven development projects
- iv. Effectiveness of participatory monitoring and evaluation tools on the performance of community driven development in Meru County.
- v. Factors influencing budgeting processes in community driven development in Meru County.

REFERENCES

- Agarwal A. and C. Gibson, (1999) *Enchantment and Disenchantment: The Role of Community in Natural Resource Conservation*, World Development.
- Agarwal, Bina, (2001), 'Participatory Exclusions, Community Forestry, and Gender: An Analysis for South Asia and a Conceptual Framework', World Development, vol. 29:10
- Agarwal, B. (2010). *Does Women's Proportional Strength Affect their Participation? Governing Local Forests in South Asia*. The World Development Journal, 38, 1:98-112.
- African Development Bank (2002), *Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in Africa: prospects, and policy implications*. Abidjan: ADB in collaboration with the World Bank, Global Poverty Report.
- Agrawal, A., G. Yadama, R. Andrade, and A. Bhattacharya. (2006). *Decentralization and environmental conservation: Gender effects from participation in joint forest management*. CAPRI Working Paper 53. Washington, DC:
- Alkire, S., A. Bebbington, T. Esmail, E. Ostrom, M. Polski, A. Ryan, J. Van Domelen, W. Wakeman, and P. Dongier (2001). *Community-driven development*. In PRSP Source Book. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Asian Development Bank, (2009). *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific*, Mandaluyong City, Philippines:
- Asian Development Bank, (2012). *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific*,

Mandaluyong City, Philippines:

Asian Development Bank. (2012). *The KALAHI-CIDSS Project in the Philippines: Sharing Knowledge on Community-Driven Development*. Mandaluyong City, Philippines

Asian Development Bank (2012). *The KALAHI-CIDSS Project in the Philippines: Sharing Knowledge on Community-Driven Development*. Manila.

Babajanian, B. (2005). *Promoting Community Development in Post-Soviet Armenia: The Social Fund Model*. *Social Policy and Administration* 39(4): 448–462.

Bardhan, P., (2002) *Decentralization of Governance and Development*, *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 16:4(2002), 185-205.

Barker, Robert, L. (1991) *The Social Work Dictionary 2nd Edition*. National Association of Social Workers, Washington, DC, USA

Binswanger, H., and S. Aiyar (2003). *Scaling up community-driven development: Theoretical underpinnings and program design implications*. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 3039. Washington, DC:

Casey, K., Glennerster, R. and Miguel, E., (2011). *Reshaping institutions: Evidence on external aid and local collective action*. NBER Working Paper No. 17012.

Conning, J., and M. Kevane,(2002) *Community-based targeting mechanisms for social safety nets: A critical review*. *World Development* 30(3): 375–395.

Crook, R. C. (2003) ‘*Decentralisation and Poverty Reduction in Africa: The Politics of Local– Central Relations*’, *Public Administration and Development* 23(1): 77-88.

Cooke, B. and Kothari, U. (2001), *Participation: The new tyranny?* Zed Books, London.

Crook Richard C and James Manor, (1995), *Democratic Decentralisation and Institutional Performance: Four African and Asian Experiences Compared*’, *Journal of Commonwealth and Comparative Politics*, November.

Dasgupta, A., and V. Beard. (2007) *Community-driven development, collective action and elite capture in Indonesia* .*Development and Change* 38(2): 229–249.

Dongier, Philip, Julie Van Domelen, Elinor Ostrom, Andrea Ryan, Wendy Wakeman, Anthony Bebbington, Sabina Alkire, Talib Esmail, and Margatet Polski, (2003), “*Community Driven Development*,” Chapter 9 in PRSP Sourcebook, Volume 1, The World Bank.

- Dongier, P., J. Van Domelen, E. Ostrom, A. Rizvi, W. Wakeman, A. Bebbington, S. Alkire, T. Esmail, and M. Polski (2001). *Community-driven development*. In J. Klugman, ed., *A Sourcebook for Poverty Reduction Strategies*, vol. 1. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Dongier, Philippe et al. (2004) “Chapter 9: *Community-Driven Development*.” Accessed: 20 September 2004. Available [Online]: http://poverty.worldbank.org/files/5805_chap9.pdf
- Dongier, Philippe, Julie Van Domelen, Elinor Ostrom, Andrea Rizvi, Wendy Wakeman, Anthony Bebbington, Sabina Alkire, Talib Esmail, and Margaret Polski. (2002) “Chapter 9: *Community-Driven Development*.” in *Poverty Reduction Strategy Sourcebook*. Washington, DC: World Bank. [URL:<http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/strategies/sourctoc.htm>, accessed 6 November 2003]
- Dongier, Philippe and Julie Van Domelen, Elinor Ostrom, Andrea Ryan, Wendy Wakeman, Anthony Bebbington, Sabina Alkire, Talib Esmail, Margaret Polski. (2002) “Community Driven Development” in: Klugman Jeni. (2002). “*A Sourcebook for Poverty Reduction Strategies*”. Washington DC. World Bank.
- Dongier, Philip, Julie Van Domelen, Elinor Ostrom, Andrea Ryan, Wendy Wakeman, Anthony Bebbington, Sabina Alkire, Talib Esmail, and Margatet Polski, (2003), “*Community Driven Development*,” Chapter 9 in PRSP Sourcebook, Volume 1, The World Bank.
- Duflo, E., R. Glennerster, and M. Kremer. (2006) *Using randomization in development economics research: A toolkit*. Working Paper No. 138. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University, Center for International Development.
- Duflo, Esther, & Michael Kremer. (2003). “*Use of Randomization in the Evaluation of Development Effectiveness*.” [presented at Fifth Biennial World Bank Conference on Evaluation and Development] Washington, DC.
- Duflo, E., S. Mullainathan, and M. Bertrand (2004) *How much should we trust difference-in-difference estimates*. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 119(1): 249–275.
- Easterly, W.,(2001) *The Elusive Quest for Growth: Economists' Adventures and Misadventures in the Tropics*, Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Easterly, William. (2006). *The White Man’s Burden: Why the West’s Efforts to Aid the Rest Have Done So Little*. New York: Penguin.

- Fisher, J.Laing, J.Stoeckel(1983) *An operations Research Handbook* West Hartford.
- FAO (2001). *The Applications of Appropriate Agricultural Technology and Practices and their Impact on Food Security and the Eradication of Poverty: Lessons learned from selected community based experiences.* Rome, FAO Committee on World Food Security.
- Harriss, John, (2001) *Depoliticizing Development: The World Bank and Social Capital*, Left Word Books, New Delhi.
- Gauri, V., and D. Brinks. (2008). *Courting Social Justice: Judicial Enforcement of Social and Economic Rights in the Developing World.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Gillespie, S. (2004). *Scaling up community-driven development: A synthesis of experience.* Food and Nutrition Division Discussion Paper No. 181. Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research Institute.
- Grameen: Banking for the Poor (2004) “*A short history of Grameen Bank.*” Accessed: 5 December 2004. Available [Online]: <<http://www.grameen-info.org/bank/hist.html>>.
- Hans P. Binswanger & Swaminathan S. Aryar. (2003). *Scaling Up Community-Driven Development: Theoretical Underpinnings and Program Design Implications.* Washington, D.C: The World Bank.
- Helleiner, G.K. Helleiner (1992). *The IMF, the World Bank and Africa's adjustment and external debt problems: An unofficial view.*
- Helleiner GK (1992). *Conventional Foolishness and Overall Ignorance: Current Approaches to Global Transformational Development in Charles KW and Kenneth PJ (ed.) The Political Economy of Development and Underdevelopment.* Fifth edition, McGraw-Hill Books
- IFAD. (2002) *Managing for Impact in Rural Development: A Guide for Project M&E.* Rome: IFAD. Available at: <http://www.ifad.org/evaluation/guide/index.htm>.
- IFAD.(2004) *Community Development Funds in IFAD Projects: Some Emerging Lessons for Project Design.* Rome International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD).
- IFAD (2006) “*Initiative on Community Driven Development Regional Workshop Report.*” Accra, FIDAFRIQUE program, IFAD. Also available at: <http://fidafrisque.net/rubrique282.html>.

- Jock ,A.R and Gershon Feder (2003)*Policy Research working paper 2976,Rural extension services*
- Khwaja, A. (2001). *Can good projects succeed in bad communities? Collective action in the Himalayas*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Kleimeer, E. (2000) *The impact of participation on sustainability: An analysis of the Malawi rural piped scheme program*. World Development 28(5): 929–944.
- Kleemeier, Elizabeth (2000) “*The impact of participation on sustainability: an analysis of the Malawi rural piped scheme program*” World Development, vol. 28:5
- Kumar, S. (2002) *Methods for Community Participation, A Complete Guide for Practitioners*. London: ITDG Publishers
- Labonne, J., D. Biller, and R. Chase (2007) *Inequality and relative wealth: Do they matter for trust? Evidence from poor communities in the Philippines. Social Development Papers, Community-Driven Development, Paper No. 103*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Labonne, J. & Chase, R. (2008). *Do CDD projects enhance social capital? Evidence from the Philippines World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 4678*.
- Labonne J, Biller D, Chase R (2007). *Inequality and relative wealth: Do they matter for trust?, Evidence from poor communities in the Philippines. Social Development Papers, Community-Driven Development, 103*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Mansuri, G., and V. Rao (2004) *Community-based and –driven development: A critical review*. World Bank m Research Observer 19(1): 1–39.
- Mansuri, G. and V. Rao (2013) *Localizing Development: Does Participation Work? A World Bank Policy Research Report*, The World Bank, Washington, DC.
- Manor, James (1999) *The Political Economy of Democratic Decentralization. Directions in Development Series*. World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- Manor, J. (1999) *Civil Society and Governance: A Concept Paper*. Institute of Development Studies, Brighton.
- Mayo, Marjorie, & Craig, Gary. (1995). *Community Participation and Empowerment:*

The Human Face to Structural Adjustment or Tools for Democratic Transformation?

- Mayo, Marjorie, & Craig, Gary (Ed.), *Community Empowerment: A Reader in Participation and Development* (pp. 1-11). London: Zed Book Ltd.
- Mosse, D. (1997) *Colonial and contemporary ideologies of community management: The case of tank irrigation development in south India*. *Modern Asian Studies* 33(2): 303–338.
- Mwangi, S.K (2005). *Efficiency and Efficacy of Kenya's Constituency Development Fund: Theory and Evidence*. Working Paper Number 2005 -42, Department of Economics, University of Connecticut. Available on website:<http://www.econ.uconn.edu/working/2005-42.pdf>
- Narayan, D. and L. Pritchett (1999) '*Cents and Sociability: Household Income and Social Capital in Rural Tanzania*', *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 47(4): 871-98
- Narayan D, Ebbe K (1997). *Design of Social Funds: Demand Orientation and Local Organisational Capacity*. Discussion, 375. World Bank. Washington, DC.
- Narayan D (2000). *Empowerment and Poverty Reduction. A Source book*. World Bank, Washington DC.
- Narayan, Deepa, and Katrinka Ebbe. 1997. "*Design of Social Funds: Participation, Demand Orientation and Local Organizational Capacity*." *Discussion Paper* 375. World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- Narayan, Deepa, Raj Patel, Kai Schafft, Anne Rademacher, and Sarah Koch-Schulte (2000) *Voices of the Poor: Can Anyone Hear Us?* Washington, D.C.: World Bank and Oxford University Press.
- Narayan, Deepa (1993) "*Participatory Evaluation: Tools for Managing Change in Water and Sanitation*." *Technical Paper* 207. World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- Narayanan, S.(2011). *Social Audits in the Public Distribution System: A Case Study from Andhra Pradesh, Field Notes on Accountability*. New Delhi: Accountability Initiatives, Centre for Policy Research
- Nwanesi PK (2007). *In Pursue of Women's Economic Empowerment: Via Micro-credit*
- Ostrom, E. (1990) *Governing the Commons: The Evolution of Institutions for Collective Action*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

- Ostrom, Elinor, L. Schroeder, and S. Wynne (1993) *Institutional Incentives and Sustainable Development: Infrastructure Policies in Perspective*. Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press.
- Platteau, J. P. (2004). *Monitoring elite capture in community-driven development*. *Development and Change*, 35(2), 223–246.
- PRF (2003) *Manual of Operation for Poverty Reduction Fund Project, Prime-Minister Office*, Vientiane Capital, Laos
- Ravallion, M. (2005). *Evaluating anti-poverty programs*. *Policy Research Working Paper No. 3625*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Republic of Kenya, (2007). *Kenya Vision 2030, A Competitive and Prosperous Nation*. The National Economics and Social Council of Kenya, Office of the President/ Ministry of Planning and National Development, Nairobi Kenya.
- Sara, Jennifer, and Travis Katz (1997) “*Making Rural Water Sustainable: Report on the Impact of Project Rules*.” *United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and World Bank Water and Sanitation Program*, Washington, D.C.
- Sara M., and Jennifer, D. (2012) *Does User Participation Lead to Sense of Ownership for Rural Water Systems? Evidence from Kenya*. *The World Development Journal*, 20, 10.
- Syukri, M., S. Mawardi, and Akhmadi. (2010). *The Impact of PNPM-Rural 2010: A Qualitative Study*. Jakarta: The SMERU Research Institute.
- UNDP (2002) *Deepening democracy in a fragmented world. Human development report 2002*. New York: Oxford University Press, for UNDP.
- UNDP (2003). *Millennium Development Goals: A compact among nations to end human poverty. Human development report 2003*. New York: Oxford University Press, for UNDP.
- UNDP (2009). *Promoting Good Governance in Post-Soviet Kyrgyzstan: The Village Investment Project. ESRC Research Paper*. London: London School of Economics.
- Van Domelen, J. (2007). *Reaching the Poor and Vulnerable: Targeting Strategies for Social Funds and other Community-Driven Programs*. *Social Protection Discussion Paper No. 0711*. World Bank.
- Voss, J., (2008). *Impact Evaluation of the Second Phase of the Kecamatan Development Program in Indonesia*. The World Bank, Jakarta.
- World Bank (1990), *World Development Report: Poverty*, New York: Oxford

- University Press.
- World Bank (1995). *“Designing Community Based Development.”* Environment Department Working Paper 7. World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- World Bank (1995) *“Decentralization: A New Strategy for Rural Development.”* AGR Dissemination Notes 1. Washington, D.C.
- World Bank (1996). *The World Bank Participation Source Book.* Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- World Bank (1996). *Introduction to Social Assessment (SA): Incorporating Participation and Social Analysis into the Bank’s Work.* Social Policy and Resettlement Division (ENVSP). World Bank, Washington D.C.
- World Bank (1999). *Poverty and Social Development in Peru 1994–1997.* World Bank Country study. Washington D.C.
- World Bank (1999). *“Bonds and Bridges: Social Capital and Poverty.”* Policy Research Working Paper 2167. World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- World Bank (2000) *“Africa Region Sourcebook for Community Driven Development.”* Africa Region. Washington, D.C.
- World Bank (2000) *World Development Report 2000/2001.* Washington, D.C.
- World Bank (2008), *Global Purchasing Power Parities and Real Expenditures. 2005 International Comparison Program,* Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank (2008), *Comparisons of New 2005 PPPs with Previous Estimates. (Revised Appendix G to World Bank, 2008).* Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2003). *Project appraisal document for the second national Fadama development project. Unpublished document.* World Bank.
- World Bank. (2006). *Community-Driven Development (CDD) in the Context of Conflict-Affected Countries: Challenges and Opportunities. Social Development Department, Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development Network,* World Bank, Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2007). *World development indicators.* Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2007). *“Gender in Community Driven Development Projects: Implications for PNP Strategy.” Working Paper on the Findings of Joint Donor and Government Mission.*
- World Bank. (2008). *World development indicators.* Washington, DC.
- World Bank. (2008) *Kosovo, Serbia, and Montenegro - Second Community*

- Development Fund Project*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank (2009). *PNPM Urban – Additional Financing Project Paper*, World Bank
- World Bank, (2010). *Targeting effectiveness of current social assistance programs in Indonesia Poverty Group*. World Bank Jakarta Office.
- World Bank (2010). *PNPM III - Project Action Document*, World Bank
- World Bank. (2012) *Myanmar - National Community Driven Development Project: indigenous peoples plan*. World Bank. <http://www->
- Wong, S. (2012) *What have been the impacts of World Bank Community-Driven Development Programs? CDD impact evaluation review and operational and research implications*. World Bank, Washington, DC.
- Voss, J. (2008). *Impact Evaluation of the Second Phase of the Kecamatan Development Project in Indonesia*, World Bank.

- Wong, S.(2012). *What Have Been the Impacts of World Bank Community-Driven Development Programs? CDD Impact Evaluation Review and Operational & Research Implications*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. 2002. *Social Funds: Assessing Effectiveness*. Operations Evaluation Department (OED) Evaluation. Washington, DC.
- World Bank(2003) *Measuring Empowerment – An Analytical Framework*. Poverty Reduction Group. February. Washington, DC. Available at www.worldbank.org (accessed April 2005).
- World Bank (2003) *The Role of Civic Engagement and Social Accountability in Governance Equation*. Social Development Note No. 75. Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2004) *Citizen Report Card Surveys. A Note on the Concept and Methodology*. Social Development Note No. 91. Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2005) *The Community Score Card Process in Gambia*. Social Development Note No. 100. Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2006) *Project Appraisal Document, Second Village Investment Project*. Report No. 36611-KG. Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2007) *Andhra Pradesh, India: Improving Health Service through Community Score Cards*. Social Accountability Series Note No. 1. Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2011) *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development*. Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2011) *PNPM Rural IV. Project Information Document*, Report No. AB6632. Washington, DC.
- World Bank (2011) *Impact Evaluation KALAHI-CIDSS Final Survey*. Washington, DC.
- Yunus, M. (2003). *Halving poverty by 2015, We can actually make it happen*. Commonwealth Lecture, Commonwealth Institute, London.
- Yunus ,M. (2004) *Second Annual Investcorp Lecture in International Finance and Business*, School of International and Public Affairs, Columbia University.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

EDWIN NJAGI MUTEGI
UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
MERU –EXTRA MURAL CENTRE
P.O BOX
24TH JUNE 2015

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/ Madam,

RE: RESEARCH PROJECT

I am an M.A Project Planning and Management student at the University of Nairobi undertaking research on “Factors influencing performance of community driven development projects. A case of Kenya agricultural productivity project Meru County,” as a part of my course requirements.

I have identified your office / department as key source of data to facilitate this study and kindly request you to assist me in this regard. I assure you of my commitment on ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of your organization as well as community groups and individuals, information obtained will be used only for the purpose of this study.

Thanking you most sincerely in advance.

Yours Faithfully,

Edwin Njagi Mutegi
L50/70501/08

Appendix II: Common Respondents Questionnaire

Please read the instructions given and answer the questions as appropriately as possible. It is important to read carefully and correctly before making an attempt. The information provided will strictly be used for this research purposes. Interviewee confidentiality it guaranteed.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Please indicate your gender (tick the correct box)

(a) Male

(b) Female

2. Kindly indicate your age (tick the correct box)

(a) Below 25

(b) 25- 30

(c) 36- 45

(d) Over 45

3. Kindly indicate your marital status

(a) Married

(b) Single

4. What is your level of education?

(a) Below primary

(b) Primary

(c) Secondary

(d) Diploma

(e) Degree

5. Please indicate your occupation

(a) Employed

(b) Self employed

(c) Student

SECTION B: To what extent does community leadership influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development projects in Meru County?

5 = strongly agree 4 = agree 3 = not sure 2 = disagree 1 = strongly disagree

Please tick the appropriate box

	5	4	3	2	1
1. The community project leaders were elected democratically					
2. Individual status was considered during elections in community projects					
3. Leadership positions were distributed between men and women in the community					
4. Certain leadership positions were only meant for some people in the community					
5. Marginalized groups in the society were incorporated in the community project leadership					
6. Community leaders have the ability to oversee successful implementation of the projects					
7. The community project leader is able to solicit and lobby for support in their projects					
8. The community project leadership is accountable to the other members of the society					
9. Project decisions are made by the community leaders					
10. Projects Dissenting voices are addressed by the community leaders					

SECTION C: To what extent does external facilitators influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development project?

5 = great extent 4 = moderate extent 3 = non committal 2 = small extent 1 = no extent

Please tick the appropriate box

	5	4	3	2	1
1. External facilitators endeavored transparency and accountability in the management of project funds					
2. Project finances were released on time as per the schedule					
3. The projects budgets ceilings are determined by project financiers					
4. Procurement process has improved transparency and accountability during implementation process of projects in Meru county					
5. Project financiers choose community projects to be funded					
6. There is monitoring and evaluation of community projects in Meru county					
7. Monitoring and evaluation of community projects leads to improved project performance					
8. project management have enough Expertise in projects locations for advisory services					
9. Handout are a major challenge in community projects implementation – donor dependency.					
10. There is adequate facilitation to implement community driven development projects in Meru county					

SECTION D: To what extent does community participation influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development projects in Meru County?

5 = strongly agree 4 = agree 3 = not sure 2 = disagree 1 = strongly disagree

Please tick the appropriate box

	5	4	3	2	1
1. All the members of the community are involved in community projects					
2. Community members participate in identification, designing, implementation of their projects					
3. Community members mobilize their resources towards execution of identified projects.					
4. Community members are involved in project development committees					
5. Community members make decisions regarding their projects					
6. Marginalized groups and vulnerable in the society participate in community development projects					
7. More women than men take part physically in communal projects					
8. Community members participate in monitoring and evaluation of their community projects					
9. Gender differences influences project performance in Meru county					
10. Community participation in projects is voluntary and not coerced					

11. Participation in community projects resulted in increased yields and incomes					
--	--	--	--	--	--

SECTION E: To what extent does community empowerment influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development project

5 = Great Extent 4 = Moderate Extent 3 = Non Committal 2 = Small Extent 1 = No Extent

Please Tick the Appropriate Box

	5	4	3	2	1
1. Community members are consulted during project identification process					
2. Community member are empowered to plan and develop community projects					
3. Community members are empowered to assess the performance of community development projects in meru county					
4. Community members are able to articulate issues regarding community development projects					
5. Empowerment of women and the youth enhances performance of community development projects					
6. Community members own and manage most development project in Meru county					
7. Culture is a challenge in accepting some community driven development projects					

8. Community members are able to run and sustain their own empowerment projects					
9. More women than men have been empowered to undertake communal development projects					
10. Community members are willing to cooperate with government agencies in service delivery					
11. Empowered community members have improved houses					

Thank you

Appendix III: Interview Schedule Guide

1. Gender of the respondent (tick the correct box)

a. Male

b. Female

2. Respondents age (tick the correct box)

a. Below 25

b. 25-35

c. 36-45

d. Over 45

3. Marital status

a. Married

b. Single

4. Key informant level of education

a. Diploma

b. Degree

c. Masters

d. Phd

To what extent does the community leadership influence performance of Kenya agriculture productivity project community driven development projects?

5. Community leaders are the drivers of community development project in Meru county **5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Not sure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree**

To what extent does external facilitators influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development project.

6. Expertise is available for monitoring and evaluating community projects

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Not sure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

7. Disbursement of projects influences performance of Kenya agricultural productivity community driven development projects in Meru county

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Not sure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

8. Project leaders make decisions regarding community development projects

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Not sure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

To what extent does community empowerment influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development project in Meru County.

9. Community empowerment influence performance of Kenya agricultural productivity project community driven development projects in Meru county

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Not sure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

10. There is community participation in identifying, designing and implementing communal projects.

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Not sure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

11. Participation in community projects increased members yields and incomes

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Not sure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

Thank you

