

**STAKEHOLDER-PARTICIPATION MODELS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF
SELECTED RURAL MARKET STALLS PROJECTS IN VIHIGA COUNTY,
KENYA**

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PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI**

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DECLARATION

This research thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or any other academic award in another University or Institution. Sources of information used in this study have duly been acknowledged.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wife Robai, and our children: Diana, Cyprian, Elsie and Jayden.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CBSP	Capacity-building Stakeholder Participation
CBT	Capacity-building Team
ESP	Economic Stimulus Program
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FGD-A1	Focus Group Discussion A1
FGD-A2	Focus Group Discussion A2
FGD-B1	Focus Group Discussion B1
FGD-B2	Focus Group Discussion B2
FGD-C1	Focus Group Discussion C1
FGD-C2	Focus Group Discussion C2
FGD-D1	Focus Group Discussion D1
FGD-D2	Focus Group Discussion D2
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
QAT	Quality Assurance Team
V4HC	Voices 4 Healthy Choices

ABSTRACT

Studies on stakeholder-participation models have tended to focus on the role of the models on project outputs, ignoring the role of these models in specific project processes of initiation, planning, implementation and termination which are critical in determining what kind of outputs a project may have. In Vihiga County, there were four Economic Stimulus Program market stalls projects which had stalled at varying levels of implementation, despite having received an equal share of project funds of ten million Kenya Shillings per project. This study was undertaken in Vihiga County of Western Kenya with the objective of establishing stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi Market Stalls Projects in this County. This study also sought to examine the role of those stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of these projects. Being qualitative in nature, the study applied a multiple-case design in which an in-depth examination of the four purposefully selected market stalls projects was undertaken. Document review, observation, key informant in-depth interviews, and focus group discussions were used to collect data; while content analysis was used to analyze data. The study established that Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi projects largely applied the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder-participation models in their implementation. This study further found out that the models had merits and demerits for the projects. This study then concluded that the models largely played a negative role in the implementation of the projects as manifested by the stalling of these projects which were categorized as failed projects. This study also concluded that several stakeholder-participation models can be applied in a single project as was the case for the four market stalls projects. As a contribution to the existing body of knowledge about stakeholder-participation, this study demonstrated that more than one stakeholder-participation model can be applied in a single project; each one coming in to serve a specific purpose. Moreover, this study adduced evidence that what matters in the success of a project is not the ability to apply stakeholder-participation model(s) but rather how meaningfully the model(s) are applied in the project. In terms of contribution to theory, this study has shown that the reviewed stakeholder-participation models singularly or collectively lack capacity to deliver a successful project and this calls for the formulation of more reliable stakeholder-participation models. This study recommended that for all publicly funded projects, all the key stakeholders should be included in their planning and implementation as a strategy of ensuring that their interests are addressed, as well as improving the practice of project management. This study also recommended that further studies should be conducted on the other market stalls projects that were put up in the other 206 constituencies in Kenya in 2009, with the objective of establishing their status. This will help to assess if the billions of Kenya Shillings (2,060,000,000) that were spent on the 206 market stalls projects countrywide were worth the investment.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Rural areas can be defined as geographic areas or territories that lie outside the urban areas and are characterized by low population density, sparse settlements and agriculture as the main economic activity (Wikipedia, 2015). Generally, most of the rural areas are underdeveloped, a situation that has become the main cause of rural poverty (Nchuchuwe & Adejuwon, 2012). Consequently, across the globe, there is a deliberate effort to improve the welfare of over 75% of the world population who live in difficult conditions in rural areas (Anríquez & Stamoulis, 2007). This is true even for Africa where according to Nchuchuwe and Adejuwon, (2012), about 70% of Africans and about 80% of the continent's poor live in the rural areas and depend mainly on agriculture for their livelihood. According to Leon (2005), the renewed interest in the development of rural areas can be attributed to the realization that rural areas can no longer be neglected given that rural and urban areas are interdependent and do not evolve separately; and besides, rural areas also fulfill functions that are now critically essential to the lifestyles of the urbanized sections of the population.

1.1.1 Rural Development in Africa

Rural development is the process of undertaking initiatives that are aimed at overall improvement of the quality of life of rural people (Nchuchuwe & Adejuwon, 2012). In Africa, rural development has become a priority issue owing to the rural realities being experienced in this continent (Mwabu & Thorbecke, 2004); some of which deserve a mention here. For instance, the majority of poverty in Africa exists in rural communities; more than 70% of all impoverished Africans live in rural communities mostly dependent on agriculture for their livelihood; and agriculture in Sub-Saharan Africa comprises nearly one third of the continental gross domestic product and two thirds of employment, thereby making rural Africa a vital component in the overall economic development of the region (Donovan, 2013). In terms of overall income, agriculture is the main source of income for 90% of rural population in Africa (Nchuchuwe & Adejuwon, 2012), a situation that calls for diversification into and development of other sectors of the rural

economy.

Confronted by these realities, many African Nations have initiated rural development projects – and programs – as one of the ways to realize rural economic development in particular and economic development in general. As a result of these initiatives by African Nations, a multiplicity of rural development projects has been witnessed across the entire African continent. For instance, many countries in Africa including Ghana, Malawi and Tanzania have initiated small-scale irrigation development projects; about which Sakaki and Koga (2013) observe that the projects are important as a way of increasing agricultural development, that helps to reduce poverty and ensure food security in rural areas of Sub-Saharan Africa where the majority of the poor live. In Southern Africa, non-governmental organizations are actively promoting unique small-scale agricultural projects as examples of best practice for rural food security; three of which Leahy and Goforth (2014) have examined. The uniqueness of these projects is that they prioritize food security through household subsistence, using of low-input technologies and a focus on surplus production for sale. In Ghana, Badu, Owusu-Manu, Edwards, Adesi and Lichtenstein (2013) have examined the initiatives that have been made to improve rural infrastructure and the challenges that must be overcome in this process. They have consequently suggested ways of addressing the challenges including giving incentives to all the stakeholders in this sector.

In Kenya, the Economic Stimulus Program (ESP) that was implemented in the year 2009 was one of the ways by which the government of Kenya sought to spur rural development (Wikipedia, 2015). Indeed, one of the objectives of the ESP was to expand economic opportunities in rural areas for employment creation. One of the flagship projects that were designed to attain this objective was the construction of market stalls in all the 210 constituencies in Kenya then. According to the ESP blueprint, market stalls projects were meant to support the commercialization of agricultural produce by increasing access to wholesale and fresh produce markets and increasing efficiency in marketing and trade of agricultural produce. This effort to commercialize agriculture in Kenya is supported in literature by Nchuchuwe and Adejuwon (2012) who observe that agriculture is the main source of income for 90% of rural population in Africa, and that there cannot be meaningful rural development without sustained effort in the development of rural agriculture. The ESP in Kenya envisaged that successful market

stalls would be established in 210 constituencies of Kenya with the help of relevant stakeholders at national and local levels (Wikipedia, 2015).

1.1.2 Stakeholder-participation in Development Projects

The need for active and effective participation of stakeholders in project design and implementation as a means of ensuring project success is a subject over which development actors as well as project managers are at a consensus (Boon, Bawole & Ahenkan, 2013). This is because according to Boon *et al.*(2013), projects cannot succeed without active and effective participation of its stakeholders. Boon *et al.*(2013) further assert that stakeholder participation is inextricably linked to sustainable development and without many actors and approaches, sustainable development cannot be realized. Nina, Omoro, Pellikka, and Luukkanen (2009) observe that participation is presumed to enable communities to manage their natural resources in an efficient, equitable and sustainable manner, other than increasing democratization processes. Similarly, Bingham, Nabatchi, and O’Leary (2005); Osti (2004) and Woods (2000) underscore the centrality of stakeholder participation in project management asserting that it has been identified as one of the cardinal principles of good project management and good governance in recent times.

Consequently, development agencies across the globe have made a deliberate effort to foster stakeholder-participation in projects as a way of enhancing project performance. This effort has helped to entrench stakeholder participation in projects about which Gillespie (2012) observes that, “...In the fields of development and natural resource management, participation is such a widely accepted part of policy that it is rare to find a project or program that does not exhort the practice of participation and stakeholder engagement...” (p. 254). This partly explains why development initiatives in all parts of the world are replete with examples of projects that are focused towards ensuring that there is meaningful stakeholder-participation. In the United States of America for example, several projects exemplify this. In 2014, Koontz and Newig studied three watershed management projects in Ohio State and found out that these projects applied a collaborative stakeholder-participation approach which led to improved project results. In Florida, a watershed management project brought many stakeholders on board and Borisova, Racevskis and Kipp (2012) have studied the structural and procedural

characteristics of this stakeholder involvement process. Unlike Koontz and Newig (2014), Borisova *et al.* (2012) did not study the role of this stakeholder participation process on the project life-cycle phases in particular, as well as on the overall project results. Back in 1994, the Seattle City Neighborhood Planning Project had to take a collaborative and democratic approach to stakeholder-participation in order to solve the stakeholder conflict that had hitherto faced the City's earlier planning projects (Sirianni, 2007). According to Sirianni, (2007), this move eventually led to the success of the project and other subsequent planning of projects. However, the study by Sirianni (2007) did not address how the stakeholder-participation models influenced implementation of the projects.

In England and Wales, while studying flood risk management projects, Geaves and Penning-Rowell (2014) identified two broad groups of stakeholders that were engaged in these projects whom they refer to as the public and the authorities. These two groups of stakeholders engaged in contractual as well as collaborative stakeholder-participation while undertaking these projects as a way of enhancing project productivity. In Germany, Baumann and White (2015) have studied a project on transport policy formulation in Munich City in which the stakeholders that were brought on board were beset by conflicts. In their study, Baumann and White (2015) have demonstrated that collaborative stakeholder dialogue that was eventually employed was a pragmatic technique for solving stakeholder conflicts in projects. In Germany as well, Koontz and Newig (2014) studied three watershed management projects in Lower Saxony State and found out that project stakeholders were engaged via a collaborative stakeholder-participation model which boosted the results of the projects. As for Ireland, community participation in health projects in which communities work in partnership dates back to several decades and has been quite useful (McEvoy & MacFarlane, 2012). McEvoy and MacFarlane (2012) studied 19 projects that were meant to support and enable disadvantaged communities and groups to participate in local primary health-care projects; and recommend that a joint community initiative (collaborative approach) is the best way to solve primary health care problems. It is therefore evident that the collaborative stakeholder-participation model has been exploited in many projects to realize project success. Nonetheless, these studies would have been more exhaustive had they addressed the aspect of how the model influenced the implementation process of the subject projects.

In Indonesia, Gillespie (2012) studied oil palm plantations where the government of Indonesia was keen to improve the manner and benefit of stakeholder-participation in oil palm plantation programs; especially the small-holder oil palm farmers. China has not been left behind in the effort to give local people a chance to manage their own projects or programs. Vernooy, Qiu and Xu (2006) note that China had instituted political and economic changes that aimed at allowing more space for local voice and decision-making power in the management of natural resources and other village affairs. Vernooy *et al.*(2006) studied the Community-Based Natural Resource Management Project in Guizhou Province of China and the effort by the International Development Research Center to strengthen the participatory approach (including participatory monitoring and evaluation) as a means to solving problems in the project. In Taiwan and Iran, Tseng and Penning-Rowsell (2012) and Dadvar-Khani (2012) respectively concluded that although local people had basic motivation for participation in development projects, the top-down model that was used to engage stakeholders in such projects and the rigid political leadership that existed were not appropriate for involving the rural communities in projects; a situation that limited the overall performance of the projects. Generally, the aforementioned studies focused on the role of stakeholder-participation in improving project outputs, but paid little attention on the role of the participation models in the implementation process of specific phases of the projects.

Africa has also experienced many initiatives to have stakeholders fully participate in development projects. In Ghana for instance, the International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development implemented many development projects and had adopted a quadripartite project participation model (quadripartite project participation model) that was designed to facilitate the participation of all project stakeholders (Boon *et al.*, 2013). The quadripartite project participation model is a three-tier stakeholder management structure comprising local project management teams, National project management teams, and International project management teams with a transversal advisory quality assurance team. Other than terming it as the most effective in managing International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development's relationships and communication with her partners and stakeholders; Boon *et al.* (2013) observe that it stimulates authentic participation, leads to consensus and capacity building, shared costs, and the fostering of networks and partnerships. As such, they recommend that the model is worth adopting by

development actors operating at the community level. Nevertheless, Boon *et al.* (2013) did not explore the role of the quadripartite project participation model on the various phases of the project; yet in the undertaking of any project, project outputs are normally realized phase after another.

In the Democratic Republic of Congo, stakeholder participation in projects has been adopted as a critical ingredient in the success of projects, given the Democratic Republic of Congo's incessant conflicts that have hitherto derailed development for decades. As a result of adopting stakeholder participation in project management, the proposed Mongbwalu gold-mining project which was set to be implemented around Mongbwalu town in the North-eastern part of Democratic Republic of Congo, had finalized a stakeholder engagement plan in which a collaborative stakeholder-participation approach was used to successfully develop the plan (SRK Consulting, 2011). The preparation of the stakeholder engagement plan was a project in itself in which stakeholder-participation was given priority.

In South Africa, Lazarus (2014) studied the Railton Community Assessment Project in which a community-based participatory research approach was used to assist the local community and the Railton Foundation to identify priority areas for community development. Using a collaborative model of engaging stakeholders (Lazarus, 2014) the community was able to identify priority actions and make recommendations about their implementation accordingly. Thus, the collaborative model enabled the project to attain its objectives. In South Africa as well, after studying community participation in the establishment of Xaus Lodge in the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park; Dyll-Myklebust (2014) has underlined the importance of local narratives in the co-production of knowledge that may guide development initiatives. In this project, local knowledge proved to be quite instrumental in the establishment of the park, because the local Khomani and Mier communities were treated as partners in the project that adopted a collaborative stakeholder participation approach. Studies by Lazarus (2014) and Dyll-Myklebust (2014) - just like the preceding studies - do not give any information as to how the collaborative stakeholder-participation model shaped the implementation process of the subject projects. The current study sought to address this.

The foregoing is illustrative of the effort that is being made all over the world in order to enhance stakeholder participation in projects and this resonates with the normative

claims of stakeholder participation in projects that emphasize that meaningful participation can promote fundamental human rights and values such as democracy, procedural justice, citizenship, and equity (Larson & Lach, 2008; Reed, 2008; Rowe & Frewer, 2000). On the other hand, this effort is also informed by the instrumental (pragmatic) claims of stakeholder-participation that emphasize the benefits which stakeholder engagement could bring to easing project implementation and enhancing project performance. This is based on the stakeholder-participation objective that by incorporating local interests and knowledge and even other material resources, policy solutions may be better adapted to local conditions thereby improving the results of any development endeavor (Dougill *et al.*, 2006; Reed, 2008).

While the foregoing studies have succeeded in showing how the stakeholder-participation models are vital in projects and how they generally contributed to project outputs, the missing link is that these studies do not address how the various models shaped the initiation, planning, implementation and termination components of the projects. Thus, the reviewed studies have focused more on the role of stakeholder-participation models on project outputs, thereby ignoring the the role of these models on project process which is equally critical in determining project results. Other than that, most of the studies have focused on the merits of the stakeholder-participation models while downplaying the limitations that manifest while applying the these models in projects.

1.1.3 Stakeholder-participation in Rural Development Projects in Kenya

In Kenya, there has been a continuing endeavor by the government and other development agencies to have local communities actively partake in development projects. Nina *et al.* (2009) for example point out that in 2005, the Kenya Government introduced the 'Forest Act' which sought to transform and improve the management of forest resources. As a result of this initiative, for the first time in Kenya's history, the 'Forest Act' introduced community participation in the conservation management of forests. This was a top-down model of engaging stakeholders since the Kenya Government was initiator of the new strategy, with local communities only being brought on board to help in its implementation. Nina *et al.* (2009) studied the transformation of the forest policy project in Taita Hills forest of Kenya and have pointed out the benefits

that accrued from the project. They also report that although the Kenya Government was keen on involving the local community, the local community was not generally happy at the nature, level and benefit of their involvement in the project. Generally both the private and public sectors in Kenya are increasingly placing emphasis on the need for all projects to involve the relevant stakeholders. Indeed, this is in line with the Constitution of Kenya (GoK, 2010) which makes it mandatory for all public projects to have public participation at all stages. Although Nina *et al.* (2009) did point out the benefits (outputs) of the top-down stakeholder-participation model in the project, they did not explore the role of the model on specific project phases (Planning, implementation, termination) which determine the kind of outputs a project eventually attains.

1.1.4 The Economic Stimulus Program and Market Stalls Projects in Kenya

The Economic Stimulus Program (ESP) was part of Kenya Government effort to spur economic development in rural areas across the country (Wikipedia, 2015). Under the ESP, the Kenya Government purposed to put up a market stalls project in each of the 210 constituencies in Kenya then. The client was the then Ministry of Local Government of Kenya and just like in the other 206 constituencies in Kenya at that time, each of the then four constituencies of Vihiga County namely Hamisi, Sabatia, Vihiga and Emuhaya was allocated a market stalls project. The entire ESP program was meant to help citizens of Kenya to address the economic recession that ensued after the 2007/2008 post-election violence (Wikipedia, 2015). The Government of Kenya had envisaged that constructing market stalls across rural Kenya was going to help in the commercialization of agricultural produce and in the process spur economic growth within rural Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Studies show that across the globe, projects are striving to apply various stakeholder-participation models as a way of structurally engaging stakeholders in order to improve project outputs. However, most of these studies have tended to focus on the influence of the models on project outputs, ignoring the aspect of how the models influence specific project processes of initiation, planning, implementation and termination which are critical in determining what kind of outputs a project will have (Baumann & White, 2015; Boon *et al.*, 2013; Borisova, Racevskis & Kipp, 2012; Dadvar-Khani, 2012; Dyll-

Myklebust, 2014; Geaves & Penning-Rowell, 2014; Gillespie, 2012; Lazarus, 2014; Koontz & Newig, 2014; Nina *et al.*, 2009; Scott, 2015; Smith, 2008; and Vernooy *et al.* 2006).

For the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, the projects had stalled at different levels of implementation for six and a half years after the scheduled completion time, yet there was no empirical explanation as to why this was the case. Moreover, all the four projects were stalled at different levels of implementation yet a common design had been used and the projects had an equal allocation of funds of ten million Kenya Shillings for each. It is against this backdrop that the current study sought to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County, and consequently explore the role of the applied models in the implementation of these projects.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of selected ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, and consequently explore the role of the applied models in implementation of these projects.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of selected ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County.
- ii. To examine the role of the identified stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of the selected ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County.

1.5 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- i. Which stakeholder-participation models were applied in the implementation of the selected ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County?
- ii. What was the role of the applied stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of the selected ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is significant in several respects. First, for project managers, this study has analyzed a variety of stakeholder-participation models that can be relied upon for engagement of stakeholders in any project, and has detailed merits and limitations of each. The study has also suggested strategies that can be used to address most of the shortfalls of the reviewed models. This study thus gives them a platform to choose stakeholder-participation models that are most appropriate for their projects' contexts.

For scholars and students of project management, this study offers a multiple-case study example of how stakeholder-participation models shape the implementation process in projects. It can thus be used for reference in future project planning and management practice, project planning and management research and even learning.

As for development agencies and project owners, this study affords them insights about various stakeholder-participation models and their influence in implementation of development projects. In this regard, they will gain knowledge about when and how to apply the various stakeholder-participation models in the implementation stage of development projects.

For the policy makers, this study offers an opportunity to evaluate the influence of various stakeholder-participation models on project implementation; and therefore enables them to be in a position to plan as well as recommend which model(s) can be applied in various projects; when and how they can be applied.

Last but not least, this study constitutes a step forward in the advancement of frontiers of knowledge in the discipline of Project Planning and Management beyond the established horizons. This is especially so because other than establishing the role of stakeholder-participation models in project implementation, this study has gone ahead to explore strengths and limitations that are associated with each stakeholder-participation model and how the limitations can be addressed in projects.

1.7 Basic Assumptions of the Study

This study operated on the basis of several assumptions. First, the study assumed that the various research respondents were going to be willing to give information to the researcher and that they were going to be honest in giving information to the researcher because the study findings were to be arrived at largely based on their information.

Secondly, the study assumed that the respondents were going to share all the information that they had on the ESP market stalls projects with the researcher. Thirdly, the study assumed that the objective for which the Kenya Government constructed the market stalls was not going to change given that political dynamics often shape policy objectives and the associated projects (Ayokunle & Akinpelu, 2010; Webster & Ivanov, 2016).

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Since this study involved only four case studies of four economic stimulus program market stalls projects in Vihiga County (Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi Market Stalls Projects) and because the four cases were selected using a non-probability approach, the study may be of limited generalizability. As such, findings of this study are neither applicable to non economic stimulus program market stalls projects in Vihiga County, nor other economic stimulus program market stalls projects in any other County of Kenya. Another reason for the limited generalizability was that the total number of economic stimulus program market stalls projects that were carried out countrywide was 210 and as such, only the four that were studied in Vihiga County could not form the basis for generalization outside this county. Another limitation for this study emanated from the fact that most of the information was obtained based on respondents' perceptions of how they were engaged in the implementation of the project. Consequently, it was not possible to completely eliminate personal biases about the process on the side of the respondents.

1.9 Delimitation of the Study

Geographically, this study was conducted in Vihiga County that is located in the Western part of Kenya. The choice of Vihiga County of Kenya for the study was because this was one of the Counties of Kenya where the market stalls projects that were done under the 2009 ESP were at varying implementation levels yet each of the projects had a budget of ten million Kenya Shillings and the design was common. Figure 1.1 represents the map of Vihiga County.

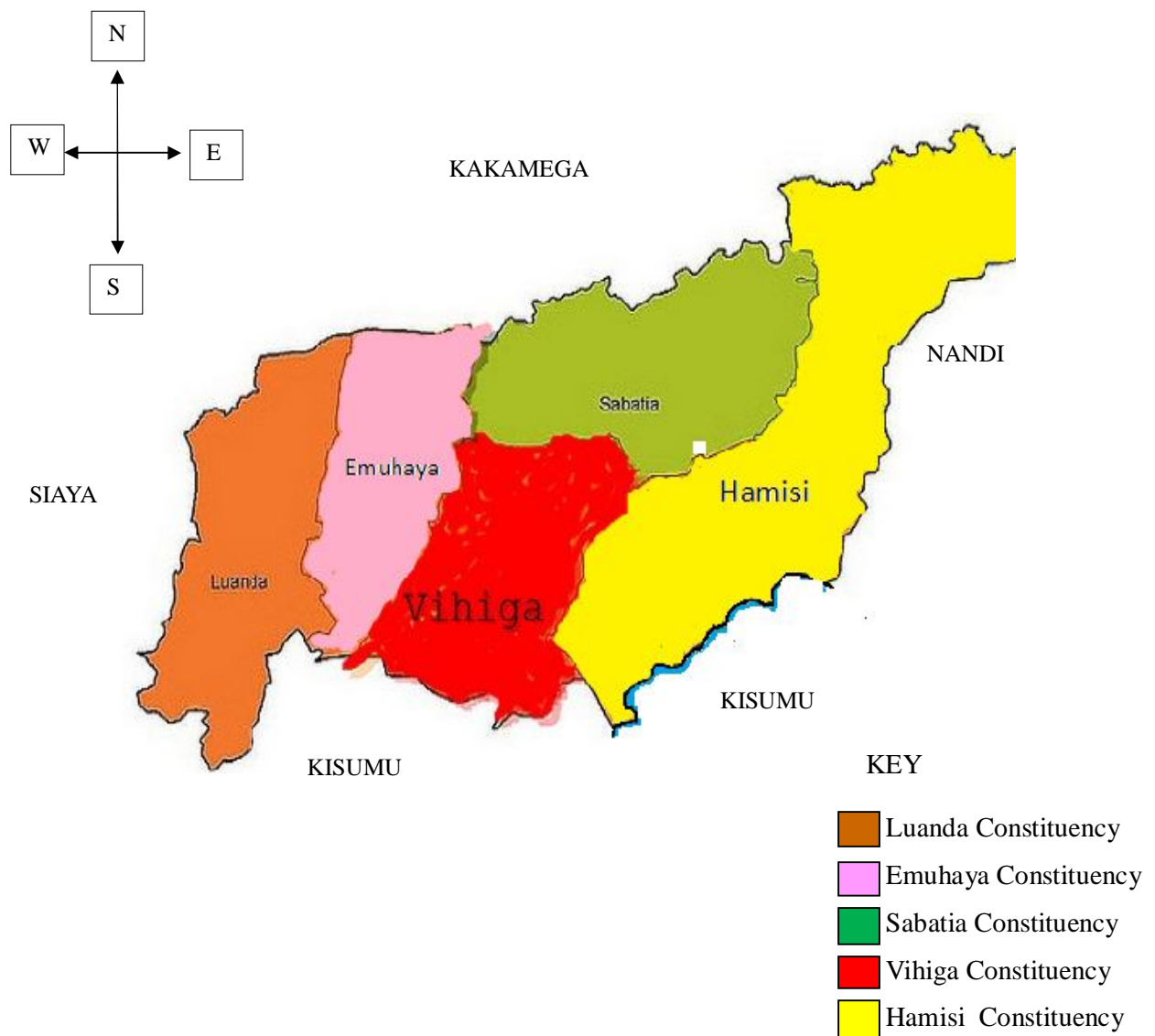


Figure 1.1: Map of Vihiga County (Source: <https://www.google.com>)

Normally, the undertaking of a project is done in specific phases and the major ones are initiation, planning, implementation and termination. This study largely confined itself to the project implementation phase because this is the phase where most of project resources are applied and if stakeholders are not properly engaged and managed, the project may slow down or stall thereby wasting the bulk of the much needed project

resources. The basic stages in project implementation in which stakeholder participation is key include project implementation planning, activation, and operation. Monitoring and evaluation should also be undertaken while implementation is underway. The role of stakeholder-participation models in implementation of market stalls projects was examined against parameters of scope, time, budget, and quality specifications as the main parameters.

However, it is imperative to point out that although the study largely focused on the project implementation stage, aspects of how stakeholder-participation models shaped project planning were also explored. This was necessitated by the fact that project implementation in the four ESP market stalls projects was heavily predicated upon how they had been planned. Thus, it was going to be difficult to exhaustively examine the role of stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects without reference to how the models were applied in the planning of the projects.

In terms of type of projects that were studied, this study confined itself to rural market stalls projects that were put up by the government of Kenya from the year 2009 under the ESP. The choice of the rural market stalls infrastructure for this study was motivated by the fact that this sub-sector has received special attention in the recent past from the government of Kenya and has therefore had heightened activities in terms of the number of projects being implemented (at least 210 projects across the country under the ESP) (Wikipedia, 2015). This made it necessary for the researcher to study how the projects were implemented in order to account for their current varying levels of implementation that define why the projects were stalled.

This research relied on a case study design because it was the most appropriate in yielding an in-depth understanding of all the four rural ESP market stalls projects that were undertaken in Vihiga County. Because this study sought to collect qualitative data, it relied upon document reviews, key informant in-depth interviews, observation, and FGDs in data collection. Thus, this study confined itself to the use of the researcher, document review checklist, key informant interview guides, observation schedule and FGD guides as the tools for data collection. Data analysis was undertaken using the content analysis technique.

1.10 Definition of Significant Terms

The following terms have been applied in this study:

Stakeholder: A stakeholder is an individual or group that affects or is affected by an organization's activities.

Stakeholder participation: Stakeholder participation is a process by which interested parties take part and affect the control of development initiatives and the decisions and resources that influence them.

Stakeholder-participation model: A stakeholder-participation model refers to a specific approach by which stakeholders may be engaged to take part in project activities. It may be top-down or bottom-up participation, quadripartite project participation, collaborative, among others.

Project implementation: This refers to a distinct phase in the life cycle of a project, during which project inputs are transformed into outputs in order to achieve immediate objectives. Project implementation encompasses implementation planning, activation, operation, monitoring and evaluation.

1.11 Organization of the Study

This study is organized in five chapters. Chapter one has the background to the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, limitations, delimitations and assumptions of the study. Chapter two presents a review of relevant literature together with the identified knowledge gap that will be addressed by the study. Chapter three has addressed the methodology of the study detailing procedures that will be used for data collection, analysis and presentation. Chapter four entails data analysis and presentation of the results, while chapter five is the last one bearing the summary and discussion of the study findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the literature that has been reviewed for this study. This literature is presented using the variable approach, where literature on stakeholder-participation models precedes followed by literature on implementation of rural development projects. The theoretical framework and the conceptual framework have been addressed in this chapter as well. Both non-empirical and empirical literature was explored and has been presented. The chapter concludes with the identification of the knowledge gap that was addressed by this study.

2.2 Stakeholder-Participation Models

Generally, stakeholder participation in project design, planning and implementation is increasingly gaining importance owing to its merits which include enhancing efficient management of resources, promotion of democratic values, and the fostering of sustainable development (Boon *et al.*, 2013). Some development scholars also regard stakeholder participation in projects as an instrument of empowerment that builds beneficiary capacity in relation to a project, effectiveness in project design and implementation, leads to a better match of project services with beneficiary needs and constraints, and enables cost-sharing and improved project efficiency (Ngowi & Mselle, 1998). To further underscore the centrality of stakeholder-participation in development, Boon *et al.* (2013) have termed it as a basic human right which has capacity to increase confidence and enhance self-esteem, while the skills learned through participation enable the participants to act more effectively within the wider society.

With reference to participating communities, Boon *et al.* (2013) opine that development should mean the development of local people and their organizations and networks as well as the development of better physical and economic conditions, and hence the need to effectively involve the community. Participatory approaches have also been continually approved (Tseng and Penning-Rowsell, 2012), and have been seen to be promoting higher-quality decision making (Bierele, 2002), conflict reduction and successful project implementation (Sultana & Abeyasekera, 2007). Nonetheless, there appears to be a big disconnect between theory and practice because, despite the many

espousals by development agencies and scholars about the potential of stakeholder participation to transform peoples' lives for the better, there is - according to Sherman and Ford (2014) - little evidence of improved resilience and reduced vulnerability amongst the target groups.

On the other hand, stakeholder-participation in projects has its limitations, thus, it should not be taken for granted that projects that adopt it will always be successful. Since participation is fundamentally a power sharing process (Warner, 2006), the convergence of various stakeholders can change the existing power structure (Sultana, Thompson & Green, 2008) leading to unexpected conflicts, rather than a hoped-for consensus; or can reinforce privileged interests, foment resentment and lead to conflicts that derail project implementation (Nelson & Wright, 1995). According to Rowe and Frewer (2000), and Bierele (2002), there has been doubt about the capacity of local people to meaningfully contribute to projects based on the reason that laypersons are not competent to deal with complex decisions involving detailed scientific knowledge, technical tools, and risk management issues. Pearce (2003), and Vedwan (2008) see the participatory processes as being unproductive in finding solutions, and too time-consuming as they can delay decisive action. Besides, participatory approaches (models) have been equated to 'tyranny' by critics who say that these approaches only reinforce the positions of the already powerful stakeholders (Cooke & Kothari, 2001) and marginalize minority views (Nelson & Wright, 1995). Other than that, stakeholder participation has often been reduced to tokenism and the assumption that communities are always cohesive and can easily organize members to work on projects is not real (Smith, 2008). Moreover, most stakeholders lack financial and material resources with which they can gainfully participate in projects, and besides, most external facilitators do not have the critical facilitator knowledge about the subject communities (Smith, 2008) making the facilitators fail to effectively and efficiently involve the stakeholders in projects. Consequently, care must be taken while applying any of the available stakeholder-participation models because as Boon *et al.* (2013) observe, the nature and process of stakeholder-participation can slow down or impede project implementation.

Based on the foregoing, each of the various stakeholder-participation models has its merits and demerits (Smith, 2008). The implication is therefore that project managers should clearly understand whichever model of stakeholder-participation they elect to

apply in their projects. However, there is little literature about types of stakeholder-participation models that are appropriate for the various project phases. Indeed, as Vernooij (nd) observes, the biggest challenge of dealing with the various participation models is to critically assess the kind(s) of participation models that are appropriate to the different stages of the research cycle. This challenge ought to be taken up by researchers. As a step in this direction, various stakeholder-participation models have been reviewed by this study and their strengths have been assessed as well as how they can be successfully applied in projects. The top-down, bottom-up, quadripartite project participation model, collaborative, contractual, consultative and collegiate stakeholder-participation models are some of the models that are commonly being applied to engage stakeholders in projects. For each of the reviewed models, non-empirical literature has been addressed first followed by empirical literature as detailed below.

2.2.1 Top-down Participation Model

In this model, decisions about what intervention is to be undertaken and how it should be undertaken are externally made by the highest ranking stakeholders and then the lower ranking stakeholders are brought on board during implementation. Top-down participation is structured around the use of professional leadership that is provided by external resources that plan, implement, and evaluate development projects or programs (Macdonald, 1995), and the major advantages of this model are in the form of professional skills, services and material resources which may not be available within the local communities. Nonetheless, according to Smith (2008), there has been a growing backlash against top-down approaches especially in the area of environmental management throughout the world because of its tendency to prioritize and solely appreciate professional and scientific 'expert' knowledge. This gives the approach a potentially exclusive and paternalistic nature, which can be alienating to local people and their internal resource management schemes (Smith, 2008). For this matter, it is evident that the top-down stakeholder-participation model is biased against local people and their local knowledge yet projects in particular and development in general can not succeed without the engagement of the local people.

The tendency for the top-down participation to ignore the potential of grassroots stakeholders to immensely contribute to a project is the greatest limitation of this model

that has made the model to become less attractive (Smith, 2008). This limitation has been widely addressed in literature. Marshall (2005) and Smith (2008, p. 354) who in their studies on environmental management projects note that the top-down approach erroneously presumes that natural resource management should be performed solely by outside “experts” who are “objective and rational”, rather than the “subjective and irrational” local people and communities. Indeed, as Agrawal and Gibson (2001, p. 4) put it, early environmental policy and scholarly literature often described local people as “an obstacle to efficient and ‘rational’ organization of resource use”. Moreover, Carr (2002), Dryzek (2005), Hickey and Mohan (2004), and Smith (2008, p. 354) note that normally, top-down “experts” tend to feel that local actors who do not have a degree in environmental management or earth sciences - including hydrology, forestry, ecology, geology and biochemistry - would not have the capacity to effectively and intellectually participate. Smith (2008) is in agreement with Carr (2002), Hickey and Mohan (2004), and Dryzek (2005) that as a result, because the top-down approach typically values and appreciates 'expert' scientific knowledge and analysis concerning environmental issues and management options, it is usually paternalistic and alienating to local people and their local environmental knowledge and experience. Given the foregoing, this study notes that it is possible that the top-down stakeholder-participation model can cause projects to miss out on the critical contribution of the local community and the local environment to the projects. Whereas it is true that local communities - especially rural - may lack the sophistication of language and technology with which to present their knowledge and experiences, this does not make their knowledge and experiences less useful to projects that are being implemented in those localities.

The biggest challenge that the top-down approach to participation poses is that by largely excluding local people from participating in management discussions and decision-making that concern their local environment, top-down approaches and their management initiatives can be lacking in crucially relevant local realities, perspectives and input (Smith, 2008). Consequently, top-down 'experts' can develop management policies, programs or projects that are locally unsuitable, unsustainable and unaccepted (Carr, 2002). As a result, Carr (2002) notes that top-down stakeholder-participation has lost appeal because decisions made regarding the environment have tended to be entirely scientific or technical yet this should not be the case because contributing factors that lead

to the need for environmental management policies or programs are never exclusively scientific or technical in nature. Other than that, top-down participation has been seen to be lacking the “social element”, and the local input into technical and governmental administration of the environment (Caldwell, 1970 p. 183). Caldwell (1970) contends that external technicians and bureaucrats cannot “... embrace all aspects of activities that shape or influence the environment ...” noting that not enough attention is paid by these top-down actors and “scientific experts” to the point at which action occurs which is the grassroots level of society (p. 183). The foregoing is illustrative of the merits and critical limitations of the top-down stakeholder-participation model. This means that anyone who adopts this model of engaging stakeholders in a project has to be fully aware of its limitations so as to be able to mitigate the limitations; without which project success will be jeopardized.

In an empirical study, Nina *et al.* (2009) examined local people’s perceptions about benefits and challenges of participating in forest management in Taita Hills (Kenya), during the transformation of the forest policy project that was going on at that time. In 2005, the Kenya Government introduced the Forest Act which sought to transform and improve the management of forest resources and the act for the first time in Kenya's history, introduced community participation in the conservation management of forests; in what was a top-down measure since the Kenya Government was initiator of the new strategy, with local communities only being brought on board to help in its implementation (Nina *et al.*, 2009). In this forest conservation management project, the top-down model of stakeholder participation can be considered as having had some positive contribution to the success of the project. To begin with, the government generated the much needed new policy which had the potential to improve forest conservation management thereby providing leadership without which it would have been difficult to rally the support and resources from the other stakeholders in the forest conservation effort (Nina *et al.*, 2009). Generally, Nina *et al.* (2009) have discussed the benefits and challenges of the top-down approach in this project thereby focusing their study on how the model influenced either positive or negative outputs that were realized in the project. They have not however addressed the role of the model in the implementation of the various project phases yet how project phases are undertaken determines the kind of outputs that are realized in a project. Nina *et al.* (2009) study was

relevant to the current study because other than studying projects of a rural nature, this study also sought to examine the role of stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County. The difference is that while Nina *et al.* (2009) focused on the role of the top-down model on project outputs, the current study focused on the role of the top-down model on the project implementation process. Although Nina *et al.* (2009) applied participatory rural appraisal (PRA) as the research design of choice for the study with a sample of 172 respondents, they do not reveal what the study population was and the justification for applying PRA.

Another empirical study examined micro-political and related barriers to stakeholder engagement in flood risk management in the Shuanghsi River basin of Taiwan in the year 2010 (Tseng and Penning-Rowsell, 2012). The objective of this study was to determine the extent to which conventional stakeholder engagement ideas influence the outputs of flood risk management project in the Shuanghsi River Basin given its geographical and cultural particularities. This project took a top-down approach because the whole project was conceived and largely directed by the government while other stakeholders were engaged much later and they participated from a weakened and disadvantaged position. To illustrate this, Tseng & Penning-Rowsell (2012) observe that:

...project planning was contracted to an engineering consultancy company, which was obligated to hold at least two public meetings... After being approved by the Water Resources Agency centrally, the project plan was to be implemented by the River Management Office (RMO). Stakeholder engagement began in 2007 when eight emergency dikes were being constructed by the RMO...
(p. 259)

Nonetheless, Tseng and Penning-Rowsell (2012) note that there were some advantages brought by the limited stakeholder-participation especially through the non-governmental organizations that were part of the project and the non-governmental organizations ensured that local people's sustainability concerns were accommodated. Apart from that, although the local residents were mainly involved much later (in 2008), they managed to assert their influence as “one emergency dike project was opposed and eventually overthrown by the residents due to their suspicion of the possibility of flooding behind the dike and the town office’s inability to maintain the pumps to prevent this” (p.

259). Other than that, there were other successes for the local community that were realized owing to peoples' participation in the project (Tseng & Penning-RowSELL, 2012). This underscores the need to fully involve all stakeholders in all phases of the project because this is the only way by which people's needs can be addressed in projects. In this project, Tseng & Penning-RowSELL (2012) observe that the local people would have benefited more had they been fully involved in all phases of the project. It should thus be noted that not all projects that adopt top-down stakeholder-participation completely fail because any top-down stakeholder-participation that meaningfully engages all stakeholders will definitely attain some degree of success.

About stakeholder-participation during planning, the flood risk management project in the Shuanghsi River Basin (Tseng & Penning-RowSELL, 2012) on the one hand, differs from the transformation of the forest policy project in Taita Hills of Kenya (Nina *et al.*, 2009) and the rural tourism development project in Kan area of Tehran in Iran (Dadvar-Khani, 2009) on the other. This is because the flood risk management project held two meetings with local stakeholders during the planning phase of the project which the two other projects did not do. But the two meetings in the flood risk management project were equivalent to what Smith (2008) refers to as mere tokenism as opposed to effective stakeholder-participation because the two meetings cannot in any way have been assumed to have constituted stakeholder-participation in the planning of the flood risk management project. Tseng and Penning-RowSELL (2012) do not however address how limited stakeholder participation played a role in the flood risk management process and outputs of the project.

Other than the aforementioned limitations, the top-down stakeholder-participation model was characterized by other various limitations that curtailed stakeholder-participation in the reviewed projects. Nina *et al.*, (2009) found out that due to government dominance in the transformation of the forest policy project, there was limited access to the forest resources, forcing many local people to discretely and illegally exploit the forest resources which led to environmental problems like decreased endemic animal populations and herbal plants, illegal logging and hunting, charcoal burning, deliberately started forest fires and inadequate planting of indigenous trees due to difficulties of getting particular seeds and seedlings. This not only undermined the project, but also hindered stakeholders from gainfully engaging in the forest management

project. Similarly, just as in the Iran's rural tourism project that was studied by Dadvar-Khani (2009), the Government of Kenya which was the sole decision maker did not allow full community participation in the conservation and use of forest resources. Other findings by Nina *et al.*, (2009) relating to the top-down stakeholder-participation model in the project included the challenges related to human-wildlife conflict and lack of education by the local people on modern forest management and conservation approaches. These challenges arose due to non-inclusion of the local community in planning of the project and as a result, many stakeholders withdrew from taking part in the activities of the project, thereby denying the project the much needed stakeholder support. No wonder that some of the community members were dissatisfied (Nina *et al.*, 2009) and resorted to destructive and counter-productive activities (like charcoal burning, illegal logging, hunting and grazing) to forest conservation thereby undermining the main objective of the project. This clearly indicates that the danger of top-down stakeholder-participation turning counter-productive in a project is quite real and project teams should always look out for limitations of this model that can lead to this eventuality.

Stakeholder-dissatisfaction sentiments were also witnessed in the flood risk management project in Shuanghsi River basin of Taiwan (Tseng and Penning-Rowse, 2012), as well as in a project that was introduced in Kan area of Tehran in Iran in order to develop rural tourism (Dadvar-Khani, 2012). In the flood risk management project in Shuanghsi River Basin of Taiwan, Tseng and Penning-Rowse (2012) observe that the government tended to limit stakeholder-participation and there were serious power inequality challenges between the stakeholders whereby the less influential stakeholders were generally ignored and government officials chose to involve people who were perceived to be friendly to the government; leading to resentment and conflicts. On the other hand, Dadvar-Khani (2012) who studied rural stakeholders' participation in a rural tourism project in Kan area of Tehran in Iran established that there was lack of meaningful community participation in the development of tourism in their villages and that the government's top-down planning of rural tourism had alienated the rural communities from the project, which eventually failed to meet its objectives.

The major difference that underlined the limited stakeholder-participation in the three projects is that in the projects that were studied by Tseng and Penning-Rowse (2012) and Nina *et al.*, (2009) respectively, there were situations when the government

deliberately restricted stakeholders from taking part in project activities. On the other hand, in the project that was studied by Dadvar-Khani (2012), local stakeholders themselves refused to take part in the project as a way of protesting against the environmental degradation and cultural erosion that was externally caused by tourists in the rural villages. However, either way, the top-down model curtailed stakeholders from effectively taking part in the projects. To compound the limitations of the top-down stakeholder-participation model, the model itself does not have in-built mechanisms of addressing its weaknesses.

In brief, these three projects were expert-centered and this meant that stakeholders were involved in the project implementation stage without having gone through the initiation and planning stages of project. Literature shows that no project can succeed with this approach of stakeholder involvement. For instance this approach has been shown to limit stakeholder participation in the undertaking of a project. Just as in the forest conservation project in Kenya (Nina *et al.*, 2009), the local stakeholders in the other two other projects (Dadvar-Khani, 2012; Tseng and Penning-Rowell, 2012) were not involved in the initiation, planning, monitoring and evaluation of the projects. Project initiators erroneously thought that it would be enough to bring stakeholders on board during the implementation phase. This was a critical omission because without the full involvement of stakeholders, these projects can hardly be said to have implemented project activities to the satisfaction of all stakeholders. It is not therefore surprising that stakeholders continued to oppose the projects. This is why Tseng and Penning-Rowell (2012) caution that stakeholder engagement by top-down approach is not easy because "...many flood risk management schemes continue to be strongly opposed or at least disputed by the very people they are intended to protect, causing bewilderment for their promoters" (p.253). This was also the case for the Taita Hills forest conservation management project (Nina *et al.*, 2009) in which some of the conservation measures were opposed by the local community. This means that projects that adopt a top-down participation model run the risk of being bogged down by the challenges of limited stakeholder-participation which have the potential to derail a project or curtail the attainment of its objectives.

So generally, Dadvar-Khani (2012), Nina *et al.*, (2009), and Tseng and Penning-Rowell (2012) examined the application of the top-down stakeholder-participation

model in projects, its merits and demerits and how such merits and demerits affected project outputs. They have also shown how the model affected the achievement of some of the project objectives. Dadvar-Khani (2012 p. 274) for example found that tourism in the Kan area had not been successful enough to achieve economic prosperity, and, "... In the view of local people, tourism has had no positive effect on the quality of their life and welfare of the host community..." The three studies however, do not address the aspect of the role that was played by the top-down stakeholder-participation model in the various phases of the project life cycle; an aspect which would have made the studies much more comprehensive. The current study sought to address this gap, specifically the role of stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County.

About methodology, participatory rural appraisal was the research design of choice for the study by Nina *et al.* (2009). On the other hand, the study of stakeholder engagement in flood risk management in Shuanghsi River Basin was successfully undertaken by Tseng and Penning-Rowsell (2012) using the case study design, while Dadvar-Khani's (2012) methodology was based on a mixed method approach in which data was collected by questionnaires and interviews. Thus, these studies were successfully done using qualitative designs to a greater extent. The study on the role of stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County was similarly qualitative in approach and it adopted a multiple-case design.

In a nutshell, it is evident from the foregoing literature that although the top-down model to stakeholder participation in projects has its merits, it also has many demerits and one of its biggest limitations is that it contributes to lack of ownership of projects by local communities, for which the model does not have an in-built remedy. This represents a major point of weakness in this model. It is also evident that lack of project ownership by the local people and other limitations of the top-down stakeholder-participation model left a gap for alternative stakeholder-participation models. As a result, the rise of the bottom-up stakeholder participation model from the mid-20th century (Smith, 2008) represented an effort to address this gap. Besides, other than pointing out the merits, demerits and some general outputs of the top-down participation model in the affected projects, reviewed literature does not show the role of the top-down stakeholder-participation

model in the accomplishment of various project phases including implementation and this requires further investigation. Another vital aspect of the reviewed literature is that Dadvar-Khani (2012), Nina *et al.* (2009), and Tseng and Penning-Rowsell (2012) studied projects that were done in rural areas of developing countries namely Iran, Kenya and Taiwan. Therefore, the findings of these studies were found to be relevant to the current study since its location (Vihiga County) is rural and has almost similar social and economic characteristics as those of projects that were explored by the afore-stated studies.

2.2.2 The Bottom-up Participation Model

This model lays emphasis on decisions that emanate from the lowest level of stakeholders, and all the other stakeholders come in to provide the support that is required to accomplish these decisions (Smith, 2008). The rise of the bottom-up model was meant to address the shortcomings that are associated with the top-down model. Due to the shortcomings of the top-down participation model, the concept of community involvement and participation in environmental decision-making and management arose during the 1950s and into the 1960s and 1970s (Agrawal & Gibson, 2001; Smith, 2008; Volger & Jordan, 2003). Thus, in the mid twentieth century, a shift from top-down to bottom-up stakeholder participation in development projects began shaping up and Smith (2008) notes that this was influenced by a growing backlash against top-down approaches to development. It is imperative to take note that the bottom-up participatory approach needs to be understood as a concept that stemmed from the perceived limitations of the top-down approach (Calder, 1999; Shmigel, 2005; Smith, 2008; Volger & Jordan, 2003). Hence, there has been a growing need for and acceptance of bottom-up approaches that characteristically appreciate and incorporate local people and their local knowledge, skills, needs and experiences. In his contribution to the bottom-up approach debate, Blanchard (1988) proposed seven basic strategies of the bottom-up approach that can be used to realize community development. These strategies are: Comprehensive community participation, motivating local communities, expanding learning opportunities, improving local resource management, replicating human development, increasing communication and interchange, and localizing financial access. It is the position of this study that these strategies are quite attractive in the context of community development. However, the

mere existence of strategies for development or recommendation for their use is not enough. There is need to try these strategies in real projects in order to assess their suitability and role in project management.

By the late twentieth century, the bottom-up approach had gathered enough support and there was the general belief that sometimes local people can take care of their own problems, using their own resources (Smith, 2008). According to Agrawal and Gibson (2001), and Carr (2002), the emergent bottom-up approach - unlike the top-down approach - encouraged local people, groups and communities to organize themselves to work together on locally based environmental problems or issues thereby promoting project ownership by the local communities. It is important to note that this self-organization and action by local communities is a missing feature in the top-down participation model, and it partly contributes to the perception that the bottom-up model is superior to the top-down model with regard to the empowering of communities for self action.

Besides the foregoing, the bottom-up stakeholder-participation approach encourages projects to seek for, appreciate and apply local knowledge, and to consider local people themselves as the appropriate experts about their local environments (Chambers, 1997). Thus, unlike in the traditional top-down approach, local knowledge can no longer be dismissed as being “...irrational, amateurish, unsophisticated and irrelevant...” (Smith, 2008 p. 355). Instead, in the bottom-up approach, local skills, experiences and perspectives are acknowledged and appreciated (Tsing, Brosius & Zerener, 2005; Vanclay & Lawrence, 1995). According to Carr (2002), Schouten and Moriarty (2003) and Smith (2008), this kind of re-valuing of local capacities, knowledge and skills can be extremely empowering for local communities participating in local environmental management projects and programs. On the basis of this, it can be concluded that the objective of the bottom-up model is to invite all development actors to adopt the bottom-up approach in the management of projects owing to the afore-stated advantages. Nevertheless, caution should be observed and a critical evaluation of the bottom-up model should be done before adopting it to projects because the model – just as with the other models reviewed for this study– has its demerits. It would thus be erroneous to adopt the bottom-up model just because it looks attractive.

It should therefore not be taken for granted that the bottom-up participation model is a panacea to all stakeholder-participation challenges and it would be dangerous for a project manager or client to adopt this model with this kind of assumption. Smith (2008) for instance points out that while the top-down approach certainly has its limitations, so too does the bottom-up approach. Consequently, Smith (2008) cautions that problematic aspects of the bottom-up participatory approach need to be “...critically analyzed and appreciated so as not to fall into the trap of romanticizing and essentializing the grassroots movement...” (p. 353). This appears to be a very strong sentiment and it stems from what Smith (2008) sees as a tendency for most literature on bottom-up participation to over-emphasize its advantages while at the same time downplaying or glossing over its challenges. Indeed, this can easily mislead people to think that the bottom-up model does not have any pitfalls.

As an example, the bottom-up approach has been beset by the problem of tokenism. Most of the times, tokenism is used to achieve political popularity goals while at the same time hoodwink the public to falsely believe that development is taking place. This is documented in literature by for instance Heyd and Neef (2004, p. 1) who assert that there largely remains a “...sharp contrast between official rhetoric and the reality on the ground...”, about stakeholder-participation. They observe that as a result, participatory espousals in projects and policy briefs do not necessarily translate into a real and locally meaningful participatory process on the ground. Instead, communities may become mere information providers and at best involved in consultation, but not in more important and effectual positions with decision-making power. This is why the current study found it quite logical for Heyd and Neef (2004) to have concluded that participation in this manner then becomes passive and tokenistic rather than rigorous and active.

Moreover, the assumption by the bottom-up stakeholder-participation model that communities are cohesive and can easily agree on what to do is not always the case, often leading to project implementation difficulties (Smith 2008). Based on the foregoing, this study is in agreement with Dreyer (2000), as well as Godfrey and Obika (2004) who caution against communities being problematically simplified as idyllic, cohesive, organic, harmonious and homogeneous entities united in their interests, aims and goals, rather than as complex organizations of people with differential interests and power relations. On similar basis, this study also finds Smith (2008) quite apt in asserting that

the rosy picture about bottom-up approach that is always portrayed in most of the literature has to be challenged in order for more realistic descriptions to be accepted and adopted in the participatory literature and subsequently in project management. This requires researchers and commentators on bottom-up participation to be objective in their treatment of this approach in order to give a balanced view about it. Up-coming research needs to keenly address this lopsided view of bottom-up participation.

Besides the foregoing, another problematic element inherent in the bottom-up approach is the critical lack of facilitator knowledge about community participation by those charged with the responsibility for its facilitation, especially where management processes and projects are externally inspired, but seek local input (Dreyer, 2000). This challenge can however as Chambers (1997) suggests, be easily addressed by providing appropriate training and preparation for those expected or required in new job responsibilities and volunteer positions so as to know how to effectively engage with communities and to properly facilitate a participatory process.

Empirical studies about the bottom-up approach have been done. For instance, Smith (2008) studied bottom-up approach to Punjab Rural Water Supply Project in Pakistan and reports that due to water scarcity in the province of Punjab, the government of Pakistan was concerned about this lack of safe water supply, and thus, with funding from the Asian Development Bank, this project was launched in 2004. Punjab Rural Water Supply Project was the first bottom-up participatory water management project in Punjab, in which the design and construction of wells and water supply distribution systems were completed according to local community input. According to Smith (2008), other benefits of this project to the community were: Across 335 remote and mostly poor Punjabi villages, community-based organizations were formed to define and organize their specific community needs, wants and aims in relation to local water access and management; a total of 800,000 more people had access to safe water supplies; the project provided capacity-building and empowerment opportunities as local people participated in the initial planning and construction stages; the eventual operation and maintenance responsibilities of the project were devolved to the various local participant communities throughout the province; sustainable management was ensured because there was training of the beneficiaries in supervisory skills as well as in tariff collection and financial management, technical operations and water quality monitoring; the average household

incomes in the province rose by 24% because women had more time for entrepreneurial pursuits like making clothes and handicrafts to sell for income; and school enrollment increased by up to 80% as more young girls had time to attend school. Thus, Smith (2008) has linked these project outputs to the bottom-up stakeholder-participation model that was applied.

A major shortfall of the study by Smith (2008) is the absence of details about the methodology that was applied although it is mentioned in passing that participatory action research was used. It is therefore difficult to verify if the findings were arrived at scientifically or not, an aspect that presents a methodological weakness in the study. The study is also biased towards the role of the bottom-up model on project results while ignoring the role of the model on how the project phases were undertaken.

Unlike in the Taita Hills forest conservation management project (Nina *et al.*, 2009), the flood risk management project in the Shuanghsi River basin of Taiwan (Tseng & Penning-Rowse, 2012), and the rural tourism project in the Kan area of Tehran in Iran (Dadvar-Khani, 2012), all of which applied the top-down stakeholder-participation approach; the Punjab Rural Water Supply Project in Pakistan (Smith, 2008) used the bottom-up approach in order to mobilize the communities to identify their water needs, build capacity and empowerment for project participation, and institute sustainable project management. However, Smith (2008) has not examined limitations of the bottom-up model on this project yet the model for example, has been found to reinforce inequalities in power relations among stakeholders (Tseng & Penning-Rowse, 2012) while the multiplicity of stakeholders in the bottom-up approach creates conflicts among them thereby making project management to be difficult (Boon *et al.*, 2012). An analysis of how such limitations of the bottom-up stakeholder-participation model shaped project implementation could have provided a balanced position of the project as well as insights into lessons to be learned and essentially, how future projects can address such limitations. Nevertheless, Smith's (2008) findings about the Punjab Rural Water Supply Project in Pakistan have relevance to the current study on the role of stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County of Kenya since both were about stakeholder-participation, and both explored projects of a rural setting whose social and economic environments were almost similar. Thus, findings about the Punjab Rural Water Supply Project had relevance for the

study on rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County of Kenya since Pakistan and Kenya are developing countries and their rural socio-economic conditions are almost similar.

The foregoing literature reveals that although the bottom-up stakeholder participation model is sensitive to the critical role of the grassroots people in a project, the model appears to lack capacity to address many of its limitations that may impede stakeholders from effectively and efficiently taking part in a project. These limitations include but are not limited to tokenism, assumption that communities are cohesive, critical lack of facilitator knowledge by the project team, stakeholder conflicts and the reinforcing of existing power inequalities among stakeholders. Therefore, this study takes the position that the assumption that the bottom-up model is the best and has the capacity to solve the limitations of the top-down model – let alone its own limitations - is not realistic. Secondly, although the reviewed literature has addressed both the advantages and limitations of the bottom-up model in project work, it also shows that no attempt was been made by Smith (2008) to examine how the bottom-up model played a role in the undertaking of the various project phases (of the Punjab Rural Water Supply Project) including implementation. These two aspects warrant further research. The current study addressed these gaps in literature.

2.2.3 The Quadripartite Project Participation Model

The quadripartite project participation model is a three-tier stakeholder management structure designed to facilitate decision making at the various stakeholder levels in a project (Boon *et al.*, 2013). The quadripartite project participation model comprises of local project management teams, national project management teams, and international project management teams with a transversal advisory quality assurance team. The quadripartite project participation model has been in use in the stakeholder management of many projects. In Ghana for instance, this model has been applied by the International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development (Boon *et al.*, 2013). The International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development is a national NGO that was established in Ghana in 1993 for the purpose of facilitating the development and promotion of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs), sustainable trade, gender empowerment, environmental management, capacity building, and sustainable development in Ghana and Sub-Saharan Africa. According to Boon *et al.* (2013),

International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development's activities are mainly in the areas of research, training, capacity building and the delivery of extension services through community development projects.

Based on its application in International center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development projects in Ghana, this model has been praised by Boon *et al.* (2013) as being "...most effective in managing her relationships and communication with her partners and stakeholders for the model enables an efficient exchange of information and accords stakeholders the opportunity to input into the project management process..." (p. 53). They also note that it stimulates authentic participation, leads to consensus and capacity building, shared costs, and the fostering of networks and partnerships. They assert that by designating clear roles to each of the levels of stakeholders, the model provides a basis for smooth running of project activities, as was the case in International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Developments projects in Ghana. Boon *et al.* (2013) also established that the quadripartite project participation model framework was considered to be appropriate by International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development as it provided a multi-layered approach to participation and a multi-layered ownership of initiatives during project participation. According to Boon *et al.* (2013) the adoption of transparent mechanisms such as the active involvement of local project management teams and national project management teams and the periodic preparation of reports created another impetus for the success of the projects in which the model was applied, thus, they recommend this model noting that it is "...worth adopting by development actors operating at the community level..." (p. 53).

Although the quadripartite project participation model has been credited for its elaborate intra and inter-stakeholder working system, it appears to harbor a number of limitations which can make it difficult for a project to be undertaken. This has been underscored by among others, Boon *et al.* (2013) who point out that by bringing on board many stakeholders, the model had a challenge that related to the management of the varied stakeholder-interests especially in the project design phase and this inevitably led to inter-personal and inter-stakeholder conflicts which slowed down or derailed projects completely. This is supported by Sultana *et al.* (2008) as well as Tseng and Penning-Rowell (2012) who note that engaging many stakeholders can indeed lead to conflict with existing power structures and political cultures. What this then implies is that a

project may not achieve much just by the mere fact that it brings on board many stakeholders. What is however critical, is the process of how the stakeholders are effectively and efficiently engaged in the undertaking of the various phases of projects.

Other than the foregoing, the quadripartite project participation model has other limitations which Boon *et al.* (2013) have not addressed. The first one is that by assuming that stakeholders can only come in the form of three categories of international project management teams, national project management team and local project management team; the model is rigid because it leaves out other levels in which stakeholders can participate in a project such as the global stakeholders like the United Nations. Another limitation of this model is that the local project management team is too generalized because it lumps all stakeholders within a country into one group and labels them as local project management teams, whereas in reality, there could be several other levels of stakeholders within the local project management teams like the County, Sub-County and Ward teams. Besides, there is no mechanism in this model for the representation of members of the local project management teams in the national project management teams, international project management teams, and quality assurance team where critical decisions that affect the communities are made. With such limitations, interests pertaining to grassroots stakeholders may not therefore be articulated under this structure of stakeholder management, and this negates the core principles of participation which the model is supposed to enhance.

The other drawback in this model is that it lacks capacity to address stakeholder-participation challenges that are outside the realm of communication and interpersonal/intergroup relations. Such stakeholder-participation challenges include but are not limited to poverty, geographical dispersion, poor infrastructure, illiteracy, and lack of resources. To illustrate about geographical dispersion and poor infrastructure, Boon *et al.* (2013) report that for the projects that were undertaken in Ghana, "...the distance between Accra and most project sites coupled with the bad nature of the roads brought a lot of strain on the few project vehicles..." (p. 49). In brief, these are fundamental limitations which have the potential to impede the implementation of projects, yet the quadripartite project participation model does not have redress mechanisms.

Just like for Nina *et al.* (2009) and Smith (2008), participatory action research (PAR) was the methodology of choice for Boon *et al.* (2013) for their study. They explain the

basis of their choice of this methodology to be that action research lays emphasis on participative research, knowledge-in-action, practical orientedness, the evolving nature of knowing, and human development as its key tenets. Moreover, they note that PAR depicts knowledge creation as a social construction that takes place through the interaction between researcher and subjects. Although this study found the qualitative research design to have been appropriate for the kind of study that was undertaken by Boon *et al.*(2013), there was a methodological gap in their study since they did not indicate the study population, the sample, sampling procedures, and data collection and analysis techniques. It was therefore difficult to validate this methodology against the findings that resulted from its use. The current study was cognizant of these methodological shortcomings in the reviewed study.

In a nutshell, by quadripartite project participation model's failure to address challenges that arise from its application in projects, Boon *et al.* (2013) lack a sound basis for their claim that the quadripartite project participation model is the most effective in managing relationships and thus “...worth adopting by development actors operating at the community level...” (p. 53). Besides, the fact that stakeholders at lower levels of this model are not represented at higher level teams where critical decisions are made can easily make relationships between the teams suspicious and conflict ridden. This makes quadripartite project participation model lack capacity to address the challenges that are posed by its demerits. This appears to confirm Smith's (2008) assertion that many studies just gloss over or ignore limitations of various stakeholder-participation models, but are quick to stress their advantages leading to biased viewpoints. Although Boon *et al.* (2013) point out that quadripartite project participation model generally improved stakeholder-participation and success in projects that were done by the International Center for Enterprise and Sustainable Development, they have not examined how the quadripartite project participation model affected the various phases of the projects' life cycles in particular, and how the various project phases in turn shaped the stated project success in general. This study has addressed this and other gray areas in literature.

2.2.4 Collaborative Stakeholder-Participation Model

This is another model by which stakeholders can participate in the undertaking of projects. In this model, the collaborative approach ensures the sharing of decision-

making power among different stakeholders in a project, and all stakeholders are deemed equally important and are linked through knowledge sharing (Probst & Hagmann, 2003). Thus, the basic feature in this model is that it engenders a collective approach to decision-making which comes along with attendant merits. For instance, collaboration in project management has been shown to not only enhance cooperation and foster belief change among stakeholders, it is also credited for generating funds and support for alternative policy measures when problems are too diffuse or difficult to address through regulation and it increases the implementation success of policies and programs as well (Scott, 2015).

This does not however mean that the collaborative model is problem-free. Indeed, the biggest pitfall in this model is that the constellation of stakeholders often comes with conflicts which may be quite debilitating to the project (Boon *et al.*, 2013; Sultana *et al.*, 2008). This implies that realization of the project life cycle that adopts this model will partly depend on how this model is applied. More research is required on the subject of how the collaborative stakeholder-participation model affects project life cycle as previous studies including Scott (2015) have not done this, instead, they have focused on how the model influences project outputs. The current study on how stakeholder-participation models influenced the implementation of selected market stalls projects in Vihiga County was an effort to address the role of stakeholder-participation models in project implementation.

Several studies have addressed the subject of the role of collaborative stakeholder-participation in projects. Scott (2015) notes that there is evidence that collaborative governance of watersheds does indeed improve ecological outputs, and he adds that previous research including Ulibarri (2015) “... has shown that collaborative governance has a positive effect both on intermediate outputs and perceived policy or program effectiveness” (p. 559). The collaborative stakeholder-participation model has also been explored by Koontz and Newig (2014) who studied three watershed management projects in Ohio State (USA) and found that these projects applied a collaborative stakeholder-participation approach which led to improved project results. This study had similar findings to a similar study which Koontz and Newig (2014) did in the Lower Saxony State of Germany. In Germany as well, Baumann and White (2015) have studied a project on transport policy formulation in Munich City in which the stakeholders that were

brought on board were hitherto beset by conflicts and the study has demonstrated that the collaborative stakeholder dialogue that was employed is a pragmatic technique for solving stakeholder conflicts in projects.

In Africa, the collaborative stakeholder-participation model has been applied in projects in the Democratic Republic of Congo as an avenue of solving stakeholder conflicts in projects in order to improve project results. The proposed Mongbwalu Project which was set to be implemented around Mongbwalu town in the North-Eastern part of Democratic Republic of Congo, had finalized a stakeholder engagement plan in which a collaborative approach was used to successfully develop the plan (SRK Consulting, 2011). The study links the successful development of the plan to the collaborative stakeholder-participation that was employed.

The striking feature in all the foregoing studies is that they have linked the collaborative stakeholder-participation approach mainly to better project outputs. Nevertheless, these studies have not explored how the model affected the various project phases that led to the subject project outputs. Thus, the studies do not explain the process of how the collaborative stakeholder-participation model helped the projects to arrive at the reported improved outputs. Nonetheless, these studies were of interest to the current study because they left a knowledge gap that was the subject of this study.

2.2.5 Contractual Stakeholder-Participation Model

This is a stakeholder-participation model in which an influential stakeholder who is regarded as the project owner or manager has sole decision-making power. Other stakeholders participate in activities defined by this main stakeholder in the sense of being formally or informally contracted to provide goods, services and other kinds of support. Literature on the application of this model in projects is available. For instance, while studying flood risk management projects in England and Wales, Geaves and Penning-Rowse (2014) found that stakeholders were engaged in contractual as well as collaborative participation while undertaking these projects which helped to enhance productivity of the project. Geaves and Penning-Rowse (2014) study is significant as it shows that various stakeholder-participation models can be applied in a single project and this is exactly what also happened in the ESP market stalls projects that were undertaken in Vihiga County. Nonetheless, the study by Geaves and Penning-Rowse (2014) did not

specify how the participation models were applied across the various project phases and the role of the applied models in each of the phases. This study sought to bridge this gap.

2.2.6 Consultative Stakeholder-Participation Model

In this model, most of the key decisions are made by one social actor who wields influence in the project (Probst, Hagmann, Fernandez & Ashby, 2003). However, emphasis is laid on consultation and gathering of information from other stakeholders, especially for identifying challenges and opportunities, priority setting, and even risk factors; which information is then applied in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the project. There is little literature on the application of this model in project implementation, and this presents the need for further research on this aspect.

2.2.7 Collegiate Stakeholder-Participation Model

This is an approach to participation in which various stakeholders work together as colleagues or partners. Project ownership and responsibility are equally distributed among the partners, and decisions are made by agreement or consensus among all the stakeholders (Probst *et al.*, 2003). There is little literature on the application of this model in project implementation. However, this does not imply that there are no projects that have been done using this stakeholder-participation model. This calls for research that should be geared at addressing this gap in literature.

Generally, from the foregoing, stakeholder participation in projects is regarded as a major ingredient that has the potential to yield successful projects and consequently spur rural development. Rural development then becomes a basis for general development for it has been acknowledged that development in general cannot be realized without investing adequately in rural development (Leon, 2005).

2.3 Rural Development Projects

In this section, examples of how some rural development projects drawn from across the globe were implemented have been discussed. This is preceded by a brief review of why there has generally been an increase in rural development projects.

2.3.1 Renewed Interest in Rural Development

Rural development as the sustained improvement in the well-being of rural people and their environment (Mwabu & Thorbecke, 2004) is a priority issue across the globe. The status and importance of rural areas of the world have engendered a renewed interest in the development of these areas (Nchuchuwe & Adejuwon, 2012; Leon, 2005). The reasons for this renewed interest are diverse, poverty being the foremost as exemplified by Mwabu and Thorbecke (2004, p. 2) who note that, "...In Sub-Saharan Africa, the challenge of development is particularly daunting in rural areas, where the bulk of the population earns its livelihood from agriculture, and where poverty has reached alarming proportions..." This is echoed by Nchuchuwe and Adejuwon (2012) who observe that, about 70% of Africans and roughly 80% of the continent's poor live in the rural areas and depend mainly on agriculture for their livelihood. Renewed interest in the development of rural areas has also arisen due to a decline in farming as well as the opening up of rural areas to new activities like rural tourism which in turn require structural developments (Leon, 2005). There has also been neglect of rural areas for a long time characterized by the absence of infrastructures like water, electricity supply and motor-able roads (Nchuchuwe & Adejuwon, 2012); as well as general underdevelopment of the rural areas (Mwabu & Thorbecke, 2004).

Resurgence of interest in the development of rural areas is also attributable to their importance. This is supported in literature by Leon (2005) who observes that changes in rural and urban areas are intertwined and that:

... rural areas fulfill functions that are now essential to the lifestyles of the urbanized section of the population. Beyond the traditional productive (sic) function of rural areas - supplying agricultural, agro-food and forestry goods, goods from extractive industries, and craft products - rural areas have become an environment for living and leisure. The residential function and tourism are increasingly important (sic)... (p. 303)

Therefore there is reason to conclude that rural areas have become critical to the development of not only the urban areas, but of the entire society as a whole. Moreover, since many poor people in urban centers are migrant workers and farmers who have left

rural areas, if living standards and income generation in rural areas are enhanced and rural immigrants to cities return to rural areas, it is hoped that excessive population influxes to urban areas can easily be reduced, with the attendant effect of lowering poverty in the urban centers. This position is backed by World Bank (2001a) who also notes that improvement of rural areas can be a safety net when there is a lack of job opportunities in cities due to depressed economic conditions. It is against the foregoing backdrop that there has been a global effort to develop rural areas via rural development projects.

2.3.2 Examples of Rural Development Projects Globally

Literature is replete with examples of the global effort to undertake projects that are designed for rural development. An example of such projects is the 'Voices 4 Healthy Choices' (V4HC) project which was undertaken in Polk County rural community in Arkansas, in the United States of America. According to a study by Stauss *et al.*, (2012) the V4HC was conceptualized as a community-based project with the objective of promoting teenage sexual abstinence within the Polk County rural community. This was because early teenage sexual behavior and teenage pregnancy were on the rise in rural communities in USA and Arkansas had continued to record some of the highest teenage pregnancy rates in the United States of America. Stauss *et al.* (2012) have highlighted the challenges and strategies of implementing a teenage abstinence project in a rural area. Some of the challenges include those that hinder stakeholders from participating or participating well in rural development projects. In essence, by studying the challenges that were encountered in the process of implementing the V4HC as a rural-based project and the strategies that can be used to undertake such a rural-based project, Stauss *et al.* (2012) shifted the focus of the study to the project process rather than the outcome as is the case in most of the reviewed studies. In a bid to encourage more studies on the implementation process of projects, Stauss *et al.* (2012) note that:

...most research focuses on outcomes associated with the project. Although there is much we can learn from outcome studies, process-related accounts of research experiences can offer a unique value by providing insight and strategies to others attempting to reproduce similar endeavors... (p. 59)

Although Stauss *et al.* (2012) have studied the project process and established the challenges that impeded stakeholders from participating or participating well in the implementation of the V4HC project which was undertaken in Polk County rural community in Arkansas, they failed to address the aspect of what model was used in the engagement of stakeholders in the project and the role of the model in the project implementation phase in particular; and on project life-cycle in general.

About the methodology, Stauss *et al.* (2012) took an exploratory and qualitative approach in which interviews and document review were the main methods of data collection, while data analysis was by content analysis. The rationale for this approach according to Stauss *et al.* (2012) was that little is known about the challenges and practical strategies related to implementing an evaluation of a community-based abstinence program in a rural community and hence the need to do an exploration. They also mention that an experimental aspect was included to study one of the research variables. However, the experimental aspect may not have been necessary for the V4HC study because the authors do not show how it was applied and how it subsequently contributed to the findings. In terms of methodology, the methodology of the current study was similar to the one adopted by Stauss *et al.* (2012) because the current study was both exploratory (for it sought to study what was not known) and qualitative (based on its methods of data collection, analysis and presentation) as detailed in chapter three of this thesis. Thus, the current study borrowed from the success of Stauss *et al.* (2012) study in terms of methodology.

Just like Stauss *et al.* (2012), another study that has examined the implementation of rural development projects is one done by Fahrman and Grajewski (2013). This study investigated the cost of implementing rural development programs in five German states and was guided by two objectives. First, it aimed at developing a methodology to measure implementation costs of the rural development programs; and secondly, to determine the relevance of such costs on effective implementation of the rural development programs. The study was quantitative in nature and focused on the analysis of the relationship between costs and results of the rural development programs. The findings were that the administrative workload for the rural development programs consumed significant resources making it expensive to implement the programs; and thereby affecting the quantity and quality of the results. A comparative analysis with other studies reveals that

unlike Fahrman and Grajewski (2013) who did not address stakeholder-participation at all, Stauss *et al.* (2012) examined challenges that impeded stakeholders from effectively participating in the implementation of 'Voices 4 Healthy Choices' project. Nonetheless, both Stauss *et al.* (2012) and Fahrman and Grajewski (2013) have not addressed the issue of the model(s) that were used to engage stakeholders in the respective projects as well as the influence of the models on how the various project phases were done. In another departure from Fahrman and Grajewski (2013) approach, Stauss *et al.*, (2012) focused on the process of how the project was undertaken, albeit without examining how stakeholders were involved in the realization of each of the project phases and the role of their involvement in the realization of the phases. More research is needed to address this gap in literature and the current study was undertaken to help address this knowledge gap.

In Iran, the government initiated rural tourism projects as an avenue of improving standards of living in rural areas (Dadvar-Khani, 2012), and one of such rural tourism projects is one that was undertaken in the Kan area which is located to the Northwest of Tehran (the capital city of Iran). Dadvar-Khani (2012) studied this project with the purpose of examining the Kan area rural community's participation in, and attitudes towards implementation of the rural tourism project. The main findings were that the government used the top-down planning model for the rural tourism project which limited meaningful community participation in the implementation of rural tourism in the Kan villages; eventually alienating the rural communities from the projects. For instance, most of local people declined to take part in project activities. Having failed to have their interests well addressed, the local people ended up opposing the project. Dadvar-Khani (2012) concluded that tourism in the Kan area had not been successful enough to achieve the anticipated economic prosperity.

The study used a mixed method approach in which data was collected by questionnaires and interviews. However, the study population, sampling procedures and data analysis techniques were not been provided by the researcher. This was a major limitation in Dadvar-Khani's (2012) study since it cannot be verified if the findings were representative of the real situation in Kan or not. Dadvar-Khani (2012) has nonetheless managed to link the top-down stakeholder-participation model to the failure of the project to achieve economic prosperity; thereby showing how the model negatively manifested in the project results. There is need to undertake more studies that should focus as well, on

how stakeholder-participation models shape the undertaking of the various project phases (including implementation) that give rise to these results.

Some of the projects that are being undertaken to enhance rural development in Africa are those on commercialization of agriculture through the food security outreach model, based on the rationale that commercial agriculture is the solution to food insecurity problems in rural Africa (Leahy & Goforth, 2014). This rationale is corroborated by Mwabu and Thorbecke (2004) who observe that because rural poverty increases with distance to markets, access to food markets allows households to buy and sell food as necessary. Moreover, they posit that participation in food markets can lessen situations of hunger and famine, and motivate households to optimally use available land to produce surplus food for sale. On the basis of this, there is an effort by non-governmental organizations to popularize the food security outreach model which Leahy and Goforth (2014) argue that it is the best practice for food security projects in rural areas. According to Leahy and Goforth (2014), the food security outreach model has three main objectives namely ensuring household subsistence, using low-input technologies in agricultural production, and encouraging rural households to produce surplus for cash.

The food security outreach model has been successfully applied by three non-governmental organizations in Uganda, Zimbabwe and South Africa. TSURO implements the model in the Chimanimani district of Zimbabwe, KULIKA in rural communities throughout South-Eastern Uganda, while Is'Baya operates in the Eastern Cape villages of South Africa. Leahy and Goforth (2014) have studied projects in which these three non-governmental organizations have applied the food security outreach model. In their study, one of the findings was that the food security outreach projects being undertaken in these countries encourage stakeholder-participation in the project implementation phase in which the local people choose their leaders who then champion the undertaking of only those projects that have been identified by the people, and in a manner suggested by the people. This has - according to Leahy and Goforth (2014) - led to the achievement of the desired project outputs. This study by Leahy and Goforth (2014) is similar to that done by Stauss *et al.*, (2012) because both studies have described the process of how the projects were undertaken, an aspect of research that Stauss *et al.* (2012) note that is not common in literature and recommend more studies on it. However, just like Stauss *et al.* (2012), Leahy and Goforth (2014) do not address the stakeholder-participation models that were

applied in the projects, and the role that was played by the models in the realization of the various project phases. This requires further investigation as well.

In Tanzania, rural development projects are one of the means by which the country aspires to transform its rural areas. One of such projects is the agricultural food security project for the rural poor which was carried out in five villages in Shinyanga Region of Tanzania in 2008. Silva and Kepe (2010) studied this project to explore how project goals and the language that was used by project personnel in planning and implementation enhanced or restricted the level of benefit to the most vulnerable farmers in the targeted communities. The case study design was used with quantitative and qualitative methods being applied to collect data. The study found that there were accessibility constraints for participating in project implementation among the poorest of the poor such as lack of time, landlessness, inability to farm for one's self, inability to attend training seminars, poverty among others. As a result, those who are the most food insecure and vulnerable were more likely to be excluded from benefiting from development projects; yet project implementers hardly appreciated this since they often focused on 'community' rather than individual development (Silva & Kepe, 2010). The study concluded that although the project was meant to empower the poor via participation in the project, their 'participation' ended up reinforcing existing power structures where the poorest found it difficult to gainfully engage in the project. This study by Silva and Kepe (2010) is similar to those by Stauss *et al.*, (2012) and Leahy and Goforth (2014) to the extent that all of them did not explore the stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the projects, and how the models were responsible for how the various project phases were undertaken. This makes it imperative for future studies to examine the role of stakeholder-participation on project life-cycle as well. The current study was undertaken to help bridge this gap in literature.

Among the rural development projects that have been undertaken in Kenya is the disease prevention campaign project that took place in Lurambi District which is a rural area of Kakamega County of Kenya. In studying this project, Dye, Apondi and Lugada (2011) aimed at evaluating participant experience in the implementation of a mass medical intervention that addressed common and significant infectious diseases by employing a qualitative approach. One of the findings was that an integrated disease prevention campaign in rural areas in which the subjects are given incentives is a new

model for engaging populations and reducing mortality that is associated with common and preventable diseases. In this project, Dye *et al.* (2011) also found that stakeholder-participation was hampered by many factors including language barrier, geographical dispersion, poverty, and the stigma that is associated with some diseases like Acquired Immuno-deficiency Syndrome (AIDS). This study by Dye *et al.* (2011) is thus similar to the one done by Stauss *et al.*, (2012), and Silva and Kepe (2010) which also examined challenges that hampered stakeholders from participating or participating effectively in project implementation. Although Dye *et al.* (2011) have shown that challenges to stakeholder-participation negatively affected project results, just like Stauss *et al.* (2012), Fahrman and Grajewski (2013), and Silva and Kepe (2010), they too fail to investigate the model that was used to engage stakeholders in the disease prevention campaign project that took place in Lurambi District and the role of the model on the project-life cycle, as well as on the project results. This gap in literature needs to be addressed. Just like in Dye *et al.* (2011), the current study employed a qualitative approach due to the need to get in-depth data, analysis and presentation; so as to help in fully understanding stakeholder participation in the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County.

In terms of methodology, Dye *et al.* (2011) employed a qualitative approach in which in-depth interviews were used to collect data from a total of 34 respondents out of a population of 47,000 people. Sampling was by systematic random sampling while data analysis was done by use of coding and application of the NVivo 8 software. However, the procedure of applying the Nvivo 8 was not explained by the researchers. Other than that, it was evident that the research methodology had flaws. Given the large population, a survey would have been more appropriate for it would have yielded a bigger sample, and a bigger variety of findings that would have been more representative of the studied community.

The foregoing are some of the projects that were undertaken in rural environments across the globe specifically in the USA, Europe, Asia as well as in Africa. They are therefore relevant to the current study because they mirror social, economic, cultural and environmental circumstances almost similar to those which the current study encountered. For this matter, some of the findings of these reviewed studies were relevant to the current study in the sense that there were various similarities in the findings as detailed in chapter 4 of this thesis. Moreover, some of the studies have been done in developing

countries - Iran, Pakistan, South Africa, Uganda, and Tanzania - with similar circumstances like those in Vihiga County of Kenya. In a nutshell, the stakeholder-participation models - top-down, bottom-up and collaborative - that were applied in some of the studied projects that were done in these developing countries were found to have had similar roles in the ESP projects that were undertaken in Vihiga County. This further served to strengthen the reliability of the findings of the current study.

The current study therefore sought to examine if there were any findings from the foregoing studies (about the influence of stakeholder-participation models in project implementation) that applied to it. Indeed there were some similarities between the current study and the reviewed studies as will be discussed in chapter four of this thesis. Other than that, some of the studies namely Stauss *et al.* (2012), Dye *et al.* (2011) and Tseng and Penning-Rowell (2012) successfully adopted a qualitative methodology since they sought to get an in-depth understanding of phenomena. On this basis, the current study employed a qualitative case study design just like Tseng and Penning-Rowell (2012) did since purpose of the current study was to gain an in-depth understanding of how stakeholder-participation models found expression in the implementation of rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County of Kenya. More importantly, it was evident from the reviewed studies that some of them did not explain the stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the projects that they studied, while those that did so only linked the models to project outputs but failed to show how the applied models related to the process of project implementation. The current study helped to bridge this gap in literature.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

The role of stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of the selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County was examined with reference to the stakeholder theory. This theory was propounded by Freeman in 1984. The stakeholder theory has been expanded to encompass the extended stakeholder theory. Freeman (1984) defines a stakeholder as any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives.

Stakeholder theory was developed by Freeman (1984) as a proposal for the strategic management of organizations in the late twentieth century. The thrust of his work was to

develop an alternative form of strategic management as a response to rising competitiveness, globalization and the growing complexity of company operations. Key (1999) notes that Freeman in his 1984 work, did the most complete job of laying the groundwork for the development of stakeholder theory as a theory. This work is widely cited as being the foundation of stakeholder theory. Mainardes, Alves and Raposo (2011) observe that stakeholder theory has gained in significance, and that the works of Clarkson (1995), Donaldson and Preston (1995), Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997), Rowley (1997) and Frooman (1999) enabled the theory to gain both greater theoretical depth and development.

From an initially strategic perspective, the theory tremendously evolved and has been adopted as a tool of management by many market-based organizations (Mainardes *et al.*, 2011). Stakeholder theory has developed and now has three distinct dimensions namely; first, the descriptive which explains how the organization operates in terms of stakeholder management, second the instrumental which demonstrates how to attain organizational objectives through stakeholder management, and lastly the normative which defines how businesses should operate, especially in relation to moral principles all of which touch on stakeholders.

In brief, stakeholder theory argues that other than just focusing on the owners of an organization, there are other parties involved in the organization including local communities, employees, customers, financiers, suppliers, government agencies, non-governmental organizations, political groups, trade unions, regulatory bodies, and beneficiaries of the organization's goods and services who are equally important. Stakeholder theory also considers competitors as stakeholders and this status is derived from their capacity to affect the firm and other stakeholders. Thus, stakeholder theory advocates for the recognition and prudent management of all project stakeholders as a way of ensuring project success.

The extended stakeholder theory was propounded by Zsolnai (2006). It introduces in the stakeholder theory, beings other than human individuals and groups namely, biological creatures, ecosystems, and even the Earth as a whole as critical project stakeholders as well. Viewed from this dimension, stakeholders are not necessarily presently existing beings for there can be future beings as well. For this matter, nature and its ecosystems are important aspects of any development agenda; as well as future generations. Zsolnai

(2006) notes that future generations do not yet exist but we have obligations to them, which is a position similar to what is advocated by sustainable development proponents. In order to emphasize the vitality of future generations as stakeholders, Brown-Weis (1989) advanced three basic principles concerning future generations which are part of the basis for the extended stakeholder theory. First, each generation should be required to conserve the diversity of the natural and cultural resource base, so that it does not unduly restrict the options available to future generations in solving their problems. Second, each generation should be required to maintain the quality of the planet so that it is passed on in no worse condition than the present generation received it. Thirdly, each generation should provide access to the legacy from past generations to future generations. Brown-Weis (1989) argues that these basic principles can be satisfied if we consider every generation as equal and do not presuppose anything about the value-preferences of future generations. He also holds that business organizations affect the fate and survival of natural beings and the life conditions of present and future generations. Thus nature, society and future generations should be included among the stakeholders of businesses. This means that for all the project stakeholders to be considered in view of the stakeholder theory, the aspect of extended stakeholder theory should not be ignored.

With the extended stakeholder theory dimension in mind, it is evident that Freeman's (1984) definition of a stakeholder (as any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives) is narrow in scope. This is because it ignores nature, its ecosystems and future generations as critical components of stakeholders. Moreover, a stakeholder is still affected when the organization fails to attain its objectives. Consequently, a stakeholder needs to be broadly understood as an individual, group or entity that affect or is affected by an organization's activities.

Stakeholder-participation in market stalls projects in Vihiga County was viewed through the prism of the instrumental perspective of stakeholder theory which was propounded by Jones (1995) and later developed by Donaldson and Preston (1995). It explains how stakeholders can be managed in a way that helps to attain the performance objectives of an organization. This implies that stakeholder management can be applied as a tool for strategic decision making in a project. Stakeholder theory was applied in the current study to help the researcher to contextualize the participation and management of the various stakeholders who took part in the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County,

and to understand what role this stakeholder participation and management had on project implementation.

In brief, by applying the instrumental dimension of stakeholder theory, the researcher sought to find out how stakeholders were engaged and managed in the Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi Market Stalls Projects in Vihiga County and what implication this had in project implementation. Stakeholder theory thus enabled the study to assess how various stakeholder-participation models were applied in engaging stakeholders in the studied projects and how this engagement process shaped project implementation.

In this study, the stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County constitute what may be the independent variable while implementation of the projects represents what may qualify to be the dependent variable. In this study, the researcher reviewed seven most applied stakeholder-participation models namely the bottom-up, top-down, collaborative, contractual, quadripartite project participation, consultative and collegiate models, and had sought to find out which of them were applied in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County and their attendant role in the implementation of the projects. The role of the models was compared across the four projects in order to explain the varying implementation levels of the projects; based on the main project parameters of scope, time, cost, quality specifications and user needs.

On the basis of the stakeholder theory, the study was able to assess the the role of the applied stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of the subject projects and the details are contained in the fourth chapter of this thesis. The output of the interaction between the applied stakeholder-participation models and the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County was justified by the stakeholder theory, which holds that the manner in which stakeholders are engaged and managed in a given project determines the success of that project. Indeed the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder-participation models as applied in the Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Projects were found to have played a key role on the scope, time, cost, quality and user needs of these projects. This is detailed in chapter 4 of this thesis.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Research methodology is the main object in this chapter. The research paradigm for this study has been explained. The research design, population of the study, sample and sampling procedure, data collection instruments, data analysis techniques, validity and reliability, as well as ethical issues have also been addressed in this chapter.

3.2 Research Paradigm

The methodology that was applied for this study is rooted in the constructivism research paradigm which holds that reality is socially constructed and manifests in many forms (Cresswell, 2009; Mertens, 2005). Because the nature of the research problem in this study required in-depth investigation, the methodology that was used was tailored to elicit in-depth qualitative data in the form of a variety of descriptions, views, suggestions and opinions arising out of respondents' own experiences about the projects. As such, methods and techniques that are best at realizing qualitative responses that reflect peoples' personal experiences (as detailed in section 3.5 of this chapter) were used to collect and analyze research data.

3.2.1 Research Design

A research design is a conceptual structure or framework that guides data collection, data analysis and the resultant interpretations (Creswell, 2012). A research design is therefore an overall strategy that is chosen to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby, ensuring that the researcher effectively addresses the research problem. This research applied a multiple-case design (in which multiple cases are considered in one study) to examine the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. Multiple-case design is also called collective case study (Burke & Larry, 2012). A case study is an in-depth examination of a single instance of a social phenomenon such as a person, a family, an institution or a project (Ragin & Becker, 1992). Thus, the four market stalls projects were the cases that the researcher investigated. Since case study requires a deep understanding and elaborate presentation, the study used thick descriptions and explanations. This study employed a multiple-case

design because it entailed studying four ESP market stalls projects Vihiga County. Since the four projects had varying levels of implementation, there was need for in-depth investigation of each of the market stalls projects in order to understand why and how they were at varying implementation levels.

3.3 Target Population

In research, target population refers to the aggregate of all cases that conform to some designated set of specifications (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). This study focused on four rural ESP market stalls projects (cases) in Vihiga County because the county had ESP market stalls projects which had stalled at varying levels of implementation, despite having received an equal share of project funds of ten million Kenya Shillings per project. There was a heterogeneous target population of 560 respondents across the four projects. The study settled on this population because it represented only those people who knew about or had interest in the project and thus, had information which was relevant in addressing the research problem. This population comprised of the various project stakeholders namely: Ten (10) officers who were in charge of the market stalls projects at national level, eight (8) Vihiga County Government staff directly in charge of the projects, seven (7) area political and administrative leaders per project, one (1) project contractor per project, one (1) project supplier per project, twenty (20) project workers per project, one hundred (100) prospective market stalls vendors per project, six (6) Stimulus Project Management Committee members per project, one (1) officer of the defunct Vihiga Municipal Council, one (1) officer of the defunct Vihiga County Council, and one (1) Market Management Committee member per project.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

Owing to the qualitative nature of this study, sample size determination and sampling strategy were done using a non-probability approach. A non-probability approach was preferred because not all people who resided at that time in Vihiga County knew about or had interest in the ESP market stalls projects. Instead, there were particular people who were deemed to have known about or had interest in the projects and it is these people who had the information that was required to address the research objectives. These were the people who formed the study population of 560 respondents. Consequently, the best

way of getting a sample from this population was through non-probability sampling.

3.4.1 Sample Size

Vihiga County as the study location was purposefully selected. In the purposeful approach, participants, sites or documents that can best help the researcher to address the problem and the research question are selected (Cresswell, 2009). The study focused on Vihiga County because the County had unique ESP market stalls projects which had stalled at varying levels of implementation, despite having received an equal share of project funds of ten million Kenya Shillings per project. A sample of four ESP market stalls projects was selected from Vihiga County to be used as units of study using purposeful sampling technique as well because the four projects were the only ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County and they had unique implementation characteristics. The choice of a sample based on its unique nature in qualitative approach to research is supported by Burke & Larry (2012). Thus, Vihiga County as well as the four ESP market stalls projects were unique as afore-stated. For research respondents, the study selected a sample of 136 respondents across the four projects using purposeful sampling technique. The sample of 136 respondents was determined by picking people who either had most information about the four ESP market stalls projects, or those vendors who had the interest of getting stalls within the market.

3.4.2 Sampling Procedure

Based on the non-probability sampling design, several sampling techniques were applied to select 136 respondents for this study. On one hand, purposeful sampling was used. In purposeful sampling, normally information-rich cases are selected for an in-depth study in order to permit inquiry into and understanding of a phenomenon with the ultimate goal of yielding useful insights (Patton, 2002). Purposeful sampling was used to select the following categories of respondents out of the entire study population of 560 people: Two (2) officers in charge of the ESP market stalls projects at national level, eight (8) Vihiga County Government staff in charge of the projects, two (2) area political and administrative leaders per project, two (2) project contractors (one contractor had 3 projects while the second had one), one (1) project supplier per project, two (2) project workers per project, one (1) Stimulus Project Management Committee member per

project, one (1) officer of the defunct Vihiga Municipal Council, one (1) officer of the defunct Vihiga County Council, and one (1) Market Management Committee chairman per project.

On the other hand, snowball sampling was used to get twenty-four (24) prospective market stalls vendors per project. Snowball sampling involves selecting a person who volunteers to take part in the study and asking the person to identify one or more additional people who meet certain characteristics and are willing to participate in the study (Burke & Larry, 2012). Snowball sampling was used because the prospective market stalls vendors were not accessible to the researcher at the time of the study and could only be reached via snowballing. The rationale for sampling 24 prospective market stalls vendors per project was because the researcher opted to use two focus group discussion (FGD) groups per project whereby 24 respondents would yield the maximum number of respondents (twelve) for each FGD. This is on the basis that each FGD can have either 6-8 or 8-12 members. In a nutshell, out of the 136 respondents, 40 of them were meant for interviews while 96 were taken through FGDs. The study conducted a total of 8 FGDs (2 FGDs per project) involving prospective market stalls vendors.

3.5 Description of Research Instruments

The researcher was the key instrument in this study and this is the norm in any qualitative research (Cresswell, 2009). According to Cresswell (2009), "... Qualitative researchers collect data themselves through examining documents, observing behavior, or interviewing participants..." (p. 175) Other than the researcher, the other complementary instruments that the researcher used in qualitative data collection were the document checklist, interview guides, an observation schedule, and FGD guides. These instruments were used alongside the relevant data collection methods as detailed hereafter.

a) Document Checklist

The data collection instrument that was applied alongside the document review method of collecting data was the document checklist (appendix 3). The document checklist had a list of documents that were reviewed and space for comments that arose out of the review of a specific document. Using the document checklist, the researcher reviewed various documents that were relevant to the study. These included letters,

memos, field notes, photographs, minutes, the project plan, project drawings, bill of quantities, contract documents, and reports that were related to the project. On the document checklist, the researcher noted information about the various documents that related to stakeholder participation or lack of it in the general planning and implementation (implementation planning, activation, operation and monitoring) of the project. The review of documents method – apart from yielding research data – also guided the researcher on what issues were to be further addressed using the interviews and observation.

b) Key informant Interview Guide

A key informant is a person who possesses unique skills or professional background related to the issue/intervention being evaluated, is knowledgeable about the project participants, or has access to other information of interest to the evaluator. For this study, using the interview guide, key informants were interviewed individually and they comprised two (2) key officers in charge of the ESP market stalls at the national level, project manager for each of the four projects, eight (8) county government officers who were conversant with the project, two (2) area political and administrative leaders per project, two (2) project contractors (one contractor had 3 projects while the second had one), one (1) project supplier per project, two (2) project workers per project, one (1) Stimulus Project Management Committee member per project, one (1) officer of the defunct Vihiga Municipal Council, one (1) officer of the defunct Vihiga County Council, and one (1) Market Management Committee chairman per project. Unstructured face-to-face interview approach was adopted. The interviews permitted face-to-face contact with respondents, provided opportunity to explore issues in-depth, and also yielded the richest possible data. The key informant interview guide (appendix 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, & 11) was used by the researcher (who was the main research 'instrument') as a secondary tool, and it contained open-ended questions that addressed research objectives 1 and 2. The interview guides had questions which sought to elicit information about how the aforementioned respondents participated or failed to participate in the planning and implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects. The probing technique was used during the interviews to get as much information as possible from the respondents.

c) Observation Schedule

The observation schedule (Appendix 4) bearing a list of areas to be observed about the project was used alongside the observation method of collecting data. The observation schedule featured the following main areas of the market stalls projects: Main building, office block, toilet block, water tank, concrete waste bin, the road network, lighting both for day and night and the general location of the market stalls project. The researcher collected on the schedule, data about whether the listed project aspects had been attained, partially attained or unattained, together with relevant comments on level of completion and quality aspects. The observation method of data collection involves observing a subject or a structure for the purpose of collecting data. For this study, external observation was used. In external observation, the researcher is not part of the respondents during project activities, but just observes as an outsider (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, the researcher observed various aspects of the project including the level of implementation and collected extensive field notes, which were used later in data analysis. The researcher also used photography to capture images that aided in the observation process.

d) Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Guide

The main instrument in focus group discussions (just as was in other methods of data collection in this study) was the researcher, aided by a FGD guide (Appendix 12). This guide had questions that were used to elicit discussions on the various aspects of how stakeholders participated or did not participate in the planning and implementation of the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. The researcher used an almost similar set of questions to guide the FGDs as those of the key informant interviews in order to enhance response triangulation. In addition, the researcher observed group dynamics in order to refine the FGDs data. The FGDs were also used to triangulate other qualitative research methods like document review, key informant interviews, and observation. For this study, FGDs involved 24 prospective market stalls vendors per project and each project had 2 FGDs of 12 members for each. The FGDs were coded as follows: FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 for Jeptul Project; FGD-B1 and FGD-B2 for Chavakali Project, FGD-C1 and FGD-C2 for Majengo Project; and FGD-D1 and FGD-D2 for the Wemilabi Project. All the data

collection instruments were pilot tested before being applied in the study.

3.5.1 Pilot testing of research instruments

Research instruments in this study (the document review checklist, the key informant interview guide, the observation schedule, and the FGD guide) were pilot tested on an ESP project in the neighboring Kisumu County. This was the Nyahera Market Stalls Project in Kisumu West Sub-County of Kisumu County. Pilot testing was done in Kisumu County because there were only four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County and all the four were planned for the actual study. As a principle in research, a pilot study can not be done using subjects planned for the main study, but rather those in circumstances similar to those of the main study (Burke and Larry (2012). Other ESP market stalls projects could only be found in other counties that neighbor Vihiga County, Kisumu County being one of them. In this pilot study, data was collected using document review, observation, interviews and FGDs. Data analysis was done using thematic analysis and conclusions were drawn. Based on the research objectives of the pilot test, changes were made on the research instruments as was necessary. One of the changes was that items that were ambiguous in the questionnaires as well as the FGDs were corrected. A question on what recommendation a respondent would give for the implementation of similar future projects with regard to stakeholder-participation was also added in both the questionnaire and FGDs after the respondents expressed their wish to make such a recommendation. Moreover, time for FGDs was increased from 2 hours to 3 hours after it became evident that an exhaustive discussion was not feasible in 2 hours.

3.5.2 Credibility/Trustworthiness

In qualitative studies, validity is referred to as credibility or trustworthiness and can be defined as the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of data truly represent the phenomenon that is being investigated. This definition is based on the work of Schwandt (2000) who defines credibility in qualitative research as how accurately an account represents participant's realities of the social phenomena and is credible to them. Burke and Larry (2012) note that credibility is the degree to which qualitative research is plausible, credible, trustworthy and thus defensible. In this study, establishing credibility focused more on the degree to which inferences drawn from respondents' data represented

their realities about the market stalls projects in Vihiga County. In this study, credibility was ensured by applying various types of triangulation, participant feedback (member checking), use of low-inference descriptors, peer debriefing, prolonged and persistent observation, and deviant case analysis via five main strategies that have been developed for this purpose in qualitative studies (Burke & Larry, 2012) as detailed hereafter.

a) Descriptive credibility

It refers to the factual accuracy of an account as reported by the researcher. In other words, it describes the accuracy in reporting descriptive information of events, objects, behaviors, people, settings or feelings (Burke & Larry, 2012). Descriptive credibility was ensured in this study by use of investigator triangulation, which involved the use of multiple investigators to collect, analyze and interpret data, whereby there was corroboration of observations and inferences across the several investigators. The researcher also used participant feedback/member checking (Burke & Larry, 2012) to crosscheck the accounts as a way of boosting descriptive credibility. These strategies made the research more credible and defensible.

b) Interpretive credibility

It refers the degree to which the research participants' viewpoints, thoughts, feelings, intentions, and experiences are accurately understood by the qualitative researcher and consequently portrayed in the research report (Burke & Larry, 2012). In this study, this was done by applying participant feedback in which process, the researcher discussed his interpretations of participants' viewpoints with the participants themselves and cleared any mis-communications whenever they appeared. Low-inference descriptors that yielded descriptions that were phrased quite similarly to participants' accounts and the researchers' field notes were also used. Verbatim quotations which are the lowest inference descriptors of all (Burke & Larry, 2012), were extensively used in this study.

c) Theoretical credibility

This is the degree to which a theoretical explanation developed from a study fits the data and is therefore credible and defensible (Burke & Larry, 2012). In this study, theoretical credibility was promoted by applying extended fieldwork technique where the researcher spent a sufficient amount of time of eight weeks studying research participants and their settings. This strategy included prolonged and persistent observation that enabled the researcher to gain confidence that the patterns of relationships that were

found were stable; and to understand why the observed relationships occurred. During this eight week period, data collection and analysis was done simultaneously. At saturation point, the researcher embarked on checking and reading the data over and over again on the basis of which he prepared the narratives. The narratives were then subjected to explanation and interpretation which led to the formulation of themes and categories of themes.

Another technique by which the researcher enhanced theoretical credibility was by use of pattern matching, where various similar patterns of themes that emerged from different sources of data were grouped together to form specific themes of study findings. Peer review (which is otherwise known as peer debriefing) was also applied to enhance theoretical credibility. The researcher gave data to peers and research supervisors who read and reviewed any methods and inferences that were not in tandem with the objectives and design of the study. Peer debriefing is an important technique for it has been successfully applied by many researchers - including Kyalo (2007) - to enhance the credibility of their studies.

d) Internal credibility

This aspect was promoted in this study by using the strategy of methods triangulation in which the researcher used more than one method of collecting data to conduct this study and these were document review, in-depth key informant interviews, FGDs, and observation. Since these methods have non-overlapping strengths and weaknesses, their combined use in this study served to strengthen evidence and this promoted internal credibility.

Data triangulation was also used to improve internal trustworthiness, in which multiple interviews were conducted under the interview method, several discussions were done under the FGD method, and multiple observations were used under the observation method. Moreover, another strategy that was used to boost internal credibility was the collecting of data at different times during the data collection period which helped the researcher to collect a variety of data as well as reduce bias.

Furthermore, internal credibility was enhanced using sources triangulation which for this study involved collecting data from different categories of respondents including National Government staff, Vihiga County Government staff, project contractors, workers, suppliers, market committee chairmen and prospective market stalls vendors.

Similarities in their accounts about the project was evidence of internal trustworthiness.

After data collection, there was a systematic process of sorting through the data to find common categories and themes. As a result, overlapping areas were discarded after which corroborating evidence that was obtained through multiple methods, multiple data and multiple sources coupled with the thick narrative accounts guaranteed the internal credibility of the inferences.

e) Transferability

In qualitative studies, external validity is referred to as transferability which is the ability to show a finding to be true with different sets of people, settings or contexts (Burke and Larry, 2012). Transferability in qualitative studies can be enhanced using the replication logic (Yin, 2009). Contributing about this concept, Burke and Larry (2012) observe that replication logic is "... the idea that the more times a research finding is shown to be true with different sets of people, settings or situations; the more confidence we can place in the finding and in generalizing beyond the original participants ..." (p. 271) The replication logic strategy was applied by the researcher within and between the cases that were studied in order to improve transferability.

Transferability was also enhanced using in-depth and thick descriptions of events, prevention of premature closure of data and the reflexive journal. Detailed accounts of the projects, respondents, data, inferences and even findings as narrative accounts were provided. This enabled the researcher to clearly understand and explain respondents' accounts and when compared to other cases, this enabled the researcher to conclude that the findings were similar with those from other similar contexts and settings. This is underscored by Denzin (1989) who notes that the use of thick descriptions is one of the ways by which transferability can be enhanced in a study.

f) Confirmability

This refers to the objectivity or the neutrality of the inferences made from research data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, neutrality was ensured using audit trails, peer reviews, participant feedback together with reflexivity about researcher inferences was relied upon to ensure that inferences were based on the data that had been provided by the respondents. Reflexivity involves being self-aware and doing a critical self-reflection by the researcher on his or her potential biases and predispositions that may affect the

research process and conclusions (Burke & Larry, 2012). Confirmability is an aspect of research that was applied to aid in strengthening the validity of this study.

3.5.3 Dependability

In qualitative research, dependability is the term used to refer to reliability (Burke & Larry, 2012). Dependability is the degree to which the interpretations and concepts bear mutual meanings (are consistent) between the respondents and the researcher in which case the researcher and respondents agree on the description or composition of events, especially the meanings of these events (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). To enhance dependability, the qualitative researcher gathers evidence to support the claim that similar findings would be obtained if the study were repeated using similar instruments (Wambugu, Ndunge, Mbi & Nyonje, 2015).

Dependability was enhanced in this study by applying qualitative strategies of consistency/dependability audit trails (with detailed documentation of data collection, analysis and rationale for vital decisions), sources triangulation, methods triangulation, and reflexivity with the use of a reflexive journal. A reflexive journal is a diary in which the interviewer logs the details of how he or she may have influenced the results of each interview (Ortlipp, 2008). The diary helps to sensitize the interviewer to his or her prejudices and subjectivities, while more fully informing the researcher on the impact of these influences on the credibility of the research findings. Dependability was also enhanced by traditional qualitative research techniques of inter-coder agreement (the three coders were consistent); and inter-observer agreement (the three observers were consistent). This involved the researcher observing what the two research assistants had observed and coding the same data as well; and the researcher found that there was consistency.

3.6 Researcher Positionality

Researcher positionality refers to the ability of a researcher to be neutral with regard to various aspects that may have the potential to cause bias in the study such as educational background, religion, race, culture, social status, gender, political inclinations among others (Bourke, 2014). In this study, the researcher paid attention to his positionality and ensured that it was observed throughout the study. Reflexivity together

with the reflexive journal (Appendix 14) was used to help enhance researcher positionality. In the reflexive journal, factors that were likely to influence the researcher's opinion were outlined and every time the researcher and research assistants were collecting and analyzing data, reference was made to the reflexive journal to ensure that researcher positionality was being observed. Any aspects of data collection and analysis that appeared to infringe on researcher positionality were singled out and addressed.

3.7 Data Collection

In preparation for data collection, the researcher sought clearance from the University of Nairobi that enabled the researcher to commence the process of field data collection. This was followed by procurement of permission to undertake research from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) that enabled the researcher to get yet another field entry permit from the Vihiga County Commissioner for conducting of this research in the county. The next step entailed recruiting and training two research assistants. They were required to possess a university degree in social sciences from a recognized university as well as previous research experience as research assistant. After recruiting the research assistants, the researcher trained them on their role in the study and how to conduct document reviews, key informant interviews, observations and FGDs.

The training of research assistants was then followed by actual research in the field. Field research commenced by collecting and reviewing documents about the four projects. These documents were letters, memos, field notes, photographs, minutes, the project plan, project drawings and reports that were related to the project. A document checklist was used to review each type of document with a view to extracting information on how stakeholders participated in the project. After this, observations were done using the observation schedule. The researchers sought to observe if all the five structures had been constructed in each of the four projects and the extent to which the structures had been completed. Thereafter, the researchers made personal or telephone contacts – depending on convenience - with the respondents one week prior to the day the planned interview. This was meant to give the respondents enough time to prepare for the interviews. Once this had been done, the researchers proceeded and held interview sessions with all the respondents who had been selected for this purpose. The interviews

were guided by the interview guide which had open-ended questions. Once the interviews had been conducted, this paved the way for the conducting of FGDs. The researchers conducted two FGDs for every project where each FGD had 12 members. The whole process of data collection and analysis took eight weeks. Data collection and analysis were done concurrently.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data and materials that were collected in text, audio and visual forms were processed for safekeeping and transcribing. The researcher applied indexing, copying and transcribing which helped the researcher in the processing of data; and which Wangraf (2002) considers to be essential steps after an interview or observation.

The process of indexing entailed the labeling of research materials like letters, transcripts, field notes, reports, drawings and this made their retrieval easy when necessary. The researcher formulated a system of indexing the data which included the respondent, place, date and the time. For every interview, FGD, and observation session; there was a specific file. The files were then labeled for ease of retrieval and use. Indexing was essential as it enabled the researcher to easily refer, to re-contact the respondents for follow-up, to analyze the required parts promptly and to lessen the burden that would otherwise be caused by information overload.

After indexing, the researcher prepared copies of all research data and documents. The researcher then used the copies and safe-kept the originals to guarantee their availability in case of loss of either or all the copies of research data and materials.

Indexing was followed by transcribing of the data. This enabled the researcher to get a transcript of the audio data which is easier to work with as recommended by Strauss (1987). The written transcripts enabled the researcher to verify if the data answered the research questions and to take remedial action if there was need. For example, the researcher had to make follow-up interviews with more respondents to plug the missing data.

While preparing the version zero transcript, the researcher used the lowest inference descriptors (verbatim responses) in order to capture the information as relayed by the respondents with all its features including pauses, hesitations, among other expressive aspects of the respondents. This gave the data the kind of originality that was essential in

the making of meaningful inferences. Some parts of the interview were transcribed by use of both informal and formal para-linguistics. Along the margins of the transcripts, the researcher wrote comments, reactions and other relevant notes (during the first reading of the transcripts) that helped in the analysis of the transcripts.

3.8.1 Data Analysis Techniques

Data analysis commenced in the field and continued concurrently with data collection. Data that was collected for this study was in the form of interview audios, transcripts, or extensive field notes from open-ended exploratory interviews. It was also in the form of recorded observations (schedules and photographs), focus groups discussions, texts and documents, project drawings, bill of quantities, minutes, reports and project plans. This study employed qualitative techniques of data analysis called content analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001), within-case analysis (Cresswell, 2012; Yin, 2009) and cross-case analysis (Cresswell, 2012; Yin, 2009). These techniques were applied as detailed below.

i) Content Analysis

In content analysis, two strategies were used namely thematic networks analysis and discovering of patterns. The technique of thematic networks analysis was used to identify various themes that answered the research questions and were illustrated by use of the thematic networks tool (See figure 4.1 in chapter 4, section 4.2). This technique was appropriate because the goal of qualitative data analysis is to uncover emerging themes, patterns, concepts, insights, and understandings (Patton, 2002). Steps that are supposed to be followed in the thematic networks analysis were observed; where basic themes are identified then synthesized into organizing themes, which are in turn synthesized into global themes.

With the aid of thematic networks as a tool for analyzing qualitative data (Figure 4.1 in chapter 4), content analysis of data commenced simultaneously with data collection. The researcher read through the field notes, transcripts, and other research documents again to identify themes that were relevant to the research questions. The procedure of content analysis focused on identifying themes (thematic analysis) that were frequently being mentioned by the respondents and listing them, while at the same time noting gaps in terms of missing data. This enabled the researcher to plug the gap during the subsequent

interview or FGD. Where something was not clear, the researcher followed up the matter with the respondents to seek clarification which in research is referred to as participant feedback or member checking (Burke & Larry, 2012). At the end of every interview or FGD, the researcher would write a self-memo to describe the participants and their general attitude towards the study and their nature of participation.

In content analysis, two major steps were followed. The first step was to involve the technique of open coding where the researcher examined the field notes, transcripts, and any other relevant document in order to establish the basic themes that emerged from the data. The second step entailed the technique of discovering of patterns and it was used to isolate patterns based on the basic themes that had emerged from the data. This is referred to in qualitative research as thematic networks analysis. It involves discovering patterns inherent in data and later using them to arrive at conclusions over the research question (Lofland, Snow, Anderson & Lofland, 2006). Elaborate descriptions were used to explain the patterns, and these were graphically presented by use of thematic networks tool as shown in figure 4.1 in chapter 4.

It is by use of the thematic networks as a tool that the researcher then depicted all the basic themes, the organizing themes (otherwise known as sub-categories) and global themes (also known as categories). In this study, the global themes represent the main findings from the various data, and these global themes answer the research questions. By applying the constant comparative approach, the researcher always looked for any further information that belonged to a particular category until that category reached saturation point. Saturation was attained by continuing to interview or hold FGDs until new information could no longer contribute any new idea to the category (global theme) in question.

ii) Within - case Analysis

Within-case analysis refers to the process of comparing as well as contrasting issues within a single case (Yin, 2009). In this study, the four projects were the cases that were under investigation. Using within-case analysis, themes that emerged about Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi Projects were analyzed per project and conclusions were made per project. Within-case analysis enabled the researcher to ensure that within a particular project, the emergent global themes were clear, did not overlap, and addressed

the research questions. It is after within-case analysis was completed that cross-case analysis commenced.

iii) Cross-case Analysis

This study also used a process of analyzing data in order to identify patterns (similarities and differences) that appeared across the four different projects (cases) under study. This process is called cross-case analysis (Babbie, 2010; Burke & Larry, 2012; Yin, 2009). In this study, themes were analyzed across the four projects - Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi - for similarities and differences; and conclusions related to research objectives were accordingly made.

3.9 Access to Research Sites: Authorization, Obstacles and Ethical Issues

Several aspects that relate to access to research sites were addressed by the researcher.

a) Authorization

The researcher sought authority from the University of Nairobi's Board of Postgraduate Studies to allow him to proceed to other government agencies for further authorization to undertake this research. The researcher then moved to the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) for a research permit, a copy of which is hereby attached in appendix 1. A copy of the research proposal was presented to NACOSTI as part of the requirements for authorization for this study. The researcher thereafter reported to the Vihiga County Commissioner and obtained permission to access the field for data collection.

b) Obstacles that were Encountered

Authorization for research by NACOSTI took a long time (over one month) thereby delaying the onset of the study. Moreover, the processing of research permit by NACOSTI is done centrally in Nairobi and this required the researcher to travel to Nairobi for this purpose.

Some members of the host community were suspicious about the study and came to the meetings from time to time to confirm what was going on. This

tended to disrupt the FGDs most of which were held at project site. Other than that, some of the key informants were not readily available for interview making the researcher to make several visits before securing audience with them.

c) Ethical Issues

Ethical considerations are issues that relate to the rights and welfare of research participants and also to researcher's obligations and which need to be strictly observed in the process of undertaking research (Cresswell, 2009). In this research, the researcher was keen to address various ethical issues as follows:

i) Obtaining Informed Consent from the Participants

The researcher involved only people who were 18 years and above because these ones were deemed to be competent to make independent decisions. The researcher also disclosed all the necessary full information about the study that allowed the participants to make independent and informed decisions about their consent to participate in the study. This information related to personal benefits, rights and privileges, potential risks, discomforts and losses, and research procedures and their purposes. The researcher also disclosed to the participants that participation was voluntary and that enough time was going to be provided to them to reflect, consult and make up their mind about participating, and that one could withdraw consent and discontinue participation without any prejudice to him/her. Consent was sought by the researcher to take some photographs of respondents and the ESP market buildings and their surroundings. There were also consent forms which participants signed in order to give their consent to participate in this study. Cresswell (2009) observes that it is important to use the "informed consent form" because it acknowledges that participants' rights will be upheld during data collection and analysis (p. 89).

ii) Honesty

The researcher committed to the participants to be open and truthful at all times on all matters and encouraged the participants to do the same. The researcher also acknowledged all the sources of information that were used for

this study.

iii) Privacy

The researcher neither met the participants in places they considered private to them nor in places that they considered to be too public. As such, the participants were allowed to choose the venue for interviews/discussions. The researcher also observed the privacy of any personal information and undertook not to disseminate it in a way that may be prejudicial to the respondents.

iv) Anonymity

The researcher upheld the principle of anonymity which entails separating the identity of respondents from the information that they give (Cresswell, 2009). Names of respondents were not mentioned anywhere in the research documents. In this case, it is not possible to identify who gave out what information for this study.

v) Confidentiality

The researcher undertook to disseminate the findings of this study using accepted procedures and took time to clarify to the respondents that their information was meant for research and academic purposes only.

vi) Avoiding Researcher Bias

To avoid selective observation and selective recording of information, and also allowing personal views and perspectives to affect how data were interpreted and how research was generally conducted, the researcher used the principle of reflexivity (Burke & Larry, 2012). This allowed the researcher to actively engage in critical self-reflection about his potential biases and predispositions. This made the researcher to become more self-aware and able to monitor and strive to control own biases. A reflexive journal as defined in section 3.5.4 was at hand to enhance reflexivity.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, data that relates to stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of selected market stalls projects in Vihiga County has been presented and interpreted. Data on the role of the models in the implementation of the subject projects has also been presented and interpreted, based on project parameters of scope, cost, time, quality specifications and user needs. The market infrastructure for agricultural produce has received special attention in the recent past from the Government of Kenya and this sector has therefore witnessed many rural projects in agribusiness being implemented in the last five years (Wikipedia, 2015). Consequently, since this study focused on projects that aimed at promoting rural market-infrastructure for agricultural produce in Vihiga County, this chapter - while addressing the second objective - also addresses how the implementation of these projects involved the intended beneficiaries and how their needs in the marketing of agricultural produce were addressed.

4.2 Highlights of the Study

This study was undertaken on four purposefully selected ESP market stalls projects (Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi) in Vihiga County with the objective of establishing stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of these market stalls projects. The second objective was to examine the role of the identified stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of the four projects. In these projects, the then Ministry of Local Government was the client and funder of the projects. Other major stakeholders were the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health, Vihiga Municipal Council, Vihiga County Council and the respective constituency stimulus projects tender committees.

Research respondents were selected from a population of 560 stakeholders using purposeful sampling technique which yielded a sample of 136 respondents across the four selected projects. The response rate was 93% because out of the 136 respondents who were identified for the study sample, 126 of them gave data to the researchers; while only

10 respondents failed to turn up for the focus group discussions. The 93% response rate was achieved because for the key informant interviews, the researcher ensured that subsequent visits were made for those respondents who did not honor the first appointment. A qualitative approach was used to undertake the study where data collection was by document review, field-based observation, interviews and FGDs; while content analysis was the main data analysis technique that was applied within the broad framework of within-case and cross-case analysis. Data that was collected on the four projects was analyzed into basic themes that were synthesized to form organizing themes that in turn formed the basis of the major study findings (global themes). The various global themes that were identified were subsequently used to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the four ESP market stalls projects that were put up in Vihiga County, as well as to examine the role of the applied models in the implementation of the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County.

During the afore-stated data analysis, this study used thematic networks (Figure 4.1 below) as a tool for illustrating the themes that emerged from research data. Thematic networks can be defined as a tool (a graphic representation) by which themes salient in textual data are structured and depicted at different levels (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Thematic networks is a web-like network that acts as an organizing principle and a means of representation, and it depicts the procedures that may be employed in moving from text to interpretation. According to Attride-Stirling (2001), thematic networks systematize the extraction of the following:

- (i) Lowest-order premises evident in the text called basic themes (In rectangles in figure 4.1).
- (ii) Categories of basic themes grouped together to summarize more abstract principles called organizing themes (In ovals in figure 4.1).
- (iii) Super-ordinate themes encapsulating the principal metaphors in the text as a whole referred to as global themes (In the central rectangle in figure 4.1).

The themes are then represented as web-like maps depicting the salient themes at each of the three levels, and illustrating the relationships between them. Figure 4.1 is an example of thematic networks tool. In this study, thematic networks as a tool was used to organize the basic themes shown in small rectangles into organizing themes that are

shown using the ovals. The organizing themes were then synthesized to yield the global theme. This method was repeated many times during data analysis until all the possible global themes were exhausted from the collected data. The application of the thematic networks tool is illustrated in figure 4.1.

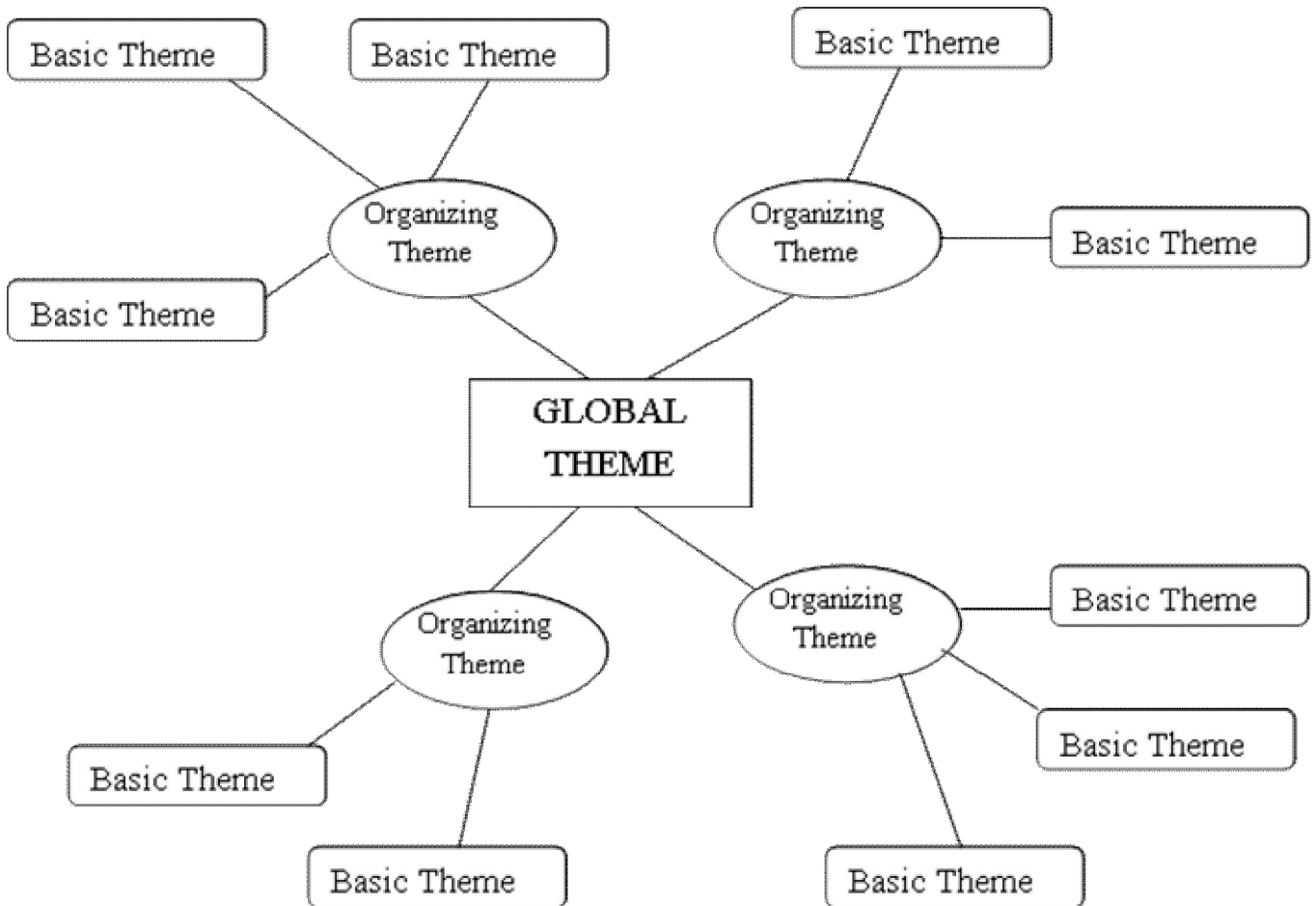


Figure 4.1 - Thematic Networks (Adopted from Attride-Stirling, 2001, p. 388)

4.2.1 The State of the ESP Market Stalls Projects at the Time of this Study

Before presenting and interpreting data about the stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County and the role of these models on the subject projects, it is prudent to describe the

state of the projects at the time of this study in April/May 2016.

Jeptul Market Stalls Project was located in Jeptul Town, which is along Chavakali-Kapsabet Road next to the Kaimosi Complex. The road leading to the market was narrow and a lorry could not access the site easily. The market was constructed on a small space and was bordered by shops on one side and makeshift kiosks on the other. At the project site, the researcher observed that the main structure was in place although the shutters for the stalls enclosures had not been fixed (Appendix 15). There was also the water tank (Appendix 15) and the office block (Appendix 18). However, the concrete waste bin, the toilet block and fence had not been constructed. Because the project had stalled, the main structure had been taken over by street families as their home. There were also motorcycle technicians who had turned part of the main structure into their garage. The researcher also observed that the water tank was not ready for use (Appendix 15) while the office block was being used by some traders as a store for their wares. It was evident that there was very little space for movement around the market and it was not clear how the sellers and buyers will go about their duties within such a small place once the market becomes operational.

The Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project was situated at Chavakali Town which is along Kisumu-Kakamega Road. The researcher observed that the market was located at a place - about a half a kilometer from the town center - that appeared to be isolated from the town's central business district. It was difficult to access the market using a vehicle because the road that was meant to link motorists to the market from the main highway was connected using a wooden culvert (Appendix 28). The project structures were enclosed using a chain-link wire fence and there was a gate (Appendix 27). However, the gate was always wide open at all times and the researcher was able to access the premises freely for there was no one to control entry into the premises. The project had the main structure (Appendix 19), an office block (Appendix 20), a toilet block, a water tank (Appendix 20), a concrete waste bin (Appendix 24); all enclosed by a fence. All these structures were a bit squeezed together because they were erected on a small space and it was evident that movement of people and vehicles around this market would be difficult. The floors, pavements and walls were already damaged (Appendix 25 & 26) while shutters to some of the stalls had been vandalized (Appendix 26). Although electricity had not been connected to the market, the electrical fittings that had been installed had also

been vandalized (Appendix 23). The market was bushy and this showed that there had been no activity for a long time.

The Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project was located at Majengo Town which is along Kisumu-Kakamega Road within Vihiga County. The project site was on Majengo-Hamisi Road at Majengo Town. From the Majengo bus stage towards the project site, the researcher observed that there were many vendors who always displayed and sold their goods on both sides of the Majengo-Hamisi Road. These goods ranged from fresh farm produce to cereals and other household goods. Other vendors had positioned their goods next to the Majengo ESP Market Stalls. However, some had occupied the main structure and even cooked and sold food from there (Appendix 30). Just like for the other three projects (Jeptul, Chavakali and Wemilabi), the main structure was supported by iron pillars and had no walls (Appendix 29). The floor of the main structure had started to peel off while some of the shutters to the stalls had come off. Some of the stalls had been turned into sleeping places for people who resided on the streets of Majengo Town. One of the stalls had been occupied by a mad person. It was reported by one of the respondents (Interviewee 5) that at about 4pm daily, many people would come to the structure either to buy goods, rest, or just idle around. The water tank did not hold any water and its taps had been vandalized (Appendix 33), while the project fence had been damaged (Appendix 32). Moreover, the guttering system for collecting roof water was impaired and there was no water that was being directed to the tank.

The Wemilabi Project was located at Wemilabi Shopping Center on the Kima-Stand kisa road in Vihiga County. The researcher observed that the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project was located a few meters away from the main road and was bordered by a chain of metallic stalls (Appendix 41) on one side and a line of shops on another side of the project. Since there was no fence to secure this project (Appendix 34), one could access it from any direction and at any time of the day. The researcher found out that in the evenings, vendors would sell their wares (mainly vegetables, dry maize and fish) in the open space around the project structures and some of them turned out to be those who wished to permanently get stalls to sell their wares in the new market. About the main structure, the researcher observed that part of the roof had been blown off (Appendix 36), the stalls were incomplete (Appendix 38), and the floor was already peeling off (Appendix 39). Inside the main structure, people came to rest or just idle, while others

like street children and mad people had turned the main structure into their regular home. The walls of the toilet and office blocks were also peeling off (Appendix 34 & 40). The toilet block had been sandwiched between shops and residential houses (Appendix 40) and it was not clear how the public toilets would be used in such a location.

4.3 Top-down Model and Implementation of ESP Market Stalls Projects

This study had sought to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the undertaking of the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County and to examine the role of the applied models in the implementation of the subject projects. The selected market stalls projects were Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi. This study collected qualitative data which was analyzed and interpreted to address the stated research objectives for each of the four projects.

Content of data that was collected was analyzed whereby many basic themes emerged with regard to the research objectives and their respective research questions. The basic themes were then synthesized into organizing themes. Consequently, based on the organizing themes, there emerged global themes that depicted that the top-down stakeholder-participation model was applied in the undertaking of the subject projects as well as those global themes that mirrored the role of the top-down model in the implementation of the four market stalls projects.

Before delving into the details of the application and role of the top-down stakeholder-participation model in the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, it is imperative to briefly explain the model. Top-down participation is structured around the use of professional leadership that is provided by external resources that plan, implement, monitor and evaluate development projects or programs (Macdonald, 1995); with the major advantages of this model coming in the form of professional skills, services and material resources which may not be available within the local communities. In this model, decisions about what intervention is to be undertaken and how it should be undertaken are externally made by the highest ranking stakeholders while the lower ranking stakeholders are brought on board during project implementation (Macdonald, 1995).

4.3.1 Top-down Model and Implementation of Jeptul Market Stalls Project

With reference to the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project, there were many organizing themes that emerged from the analyzed data that indicated that the top-down stakeholder-participation model was applied, and that the model played a role in the manner in which implementation of Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project was done. Findings on the evidence of the application of the top-down model have been presented followed by the role of the model in the implementation of the subject project.

i) Evidence of the top-down Model in the Jeptul Market Stalls Project

As part of the first objective of this study, the researcher sought to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project. Consequently, several organizing themes that addressed this objective emerged from the sub-themes that had been initially analyzed.

One of these organizing themes was that the idea of constructing a market stalls structure in Jeptul Town of Hamisi Constituency was conceived by the national Kenya Government officials in Nairobi which is the capital city of Kenya. This organizing theme was based on views of most of the local stakeholders who indicated that they had no idea about this project until its implementation commenced (Interviewee 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, and 10). This information was corroborated by prospective market stalls vendors during FGD-A1 and FGD-A2.

Another organizing theme that emerged from the basic themes was that planning for the Jeptul Market Stalls Project was done by national Kenya Government officials who were based Nairobi. The basic themes that gave rise to this organizing theme were attributed to various key informants including interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, and 11 who indicated that project drawings and the bill of quantities were done by national officials in Nairobi. The study further found out that no input was sought from the grassroots stakeholders or the the project technical implementation team that was based at the Vihiga District Public Works Office. This was attributed to accounts of the members of the FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 (who were to be the principal beneficiaries of the project) and interviewee 12 who complained that they were not involved in the planning of the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project despite being critical stakeholders. Moreover, the researcher personally observed that the project drawings, bill of quantities, and the project plan were marked as having

been prepared by the public works ministry headquarters in Nairobi.

This study also established the organizing theme that project funds were managed from Nairobi from the start to the end of the project; which decision was solely arrived at by the project client (the then Ministry of Local Government of Kenya). This was characteristic of the top-down stakeholder-participation model which according to Smith (2008); tends to confine decision making power to the topmost ranked stakeholder(s). This organizing theme was arrived at based on accounts of many respondents including key informant number 6 (the contractor) who indicated that when time for payment of the contractor came, the public works officers at Vihiga County office prepared the payment certificate and forwarded it to Nairobi. The contractor was then required to consistently make written, telephone and physical contacts with the paying authority in Nairobi for the payment to be effected. The cycle would be repeated for any another subsequent payment. It was reported by interviewee 6 as well that consequent to the delay, payments that were meant to be done in a maximum period of thirty days would take between four to ten months to be honored. According to interviewee 6, this process made him to go for a long time before getting payment for work done. The interviewee indicated that due to incessant delays, project funds had not been fully paid for this project as at the time of interview which was the second day of May of 2016. The interviewee remarked as follows:

Normally, once presented for payment, a payment certificate is supposed to be honored within one month. For my case, certificates of payment would take between six to ten months to be paid. This delayed the implementation of subsequent project activities. It also meant cost escalation due to the elongated project time which led to increase in costs. To date, I have not been paid over two million Kenya Shillings. I have planned to go to Nairobi tomorrow to make a follow-up... (Interviewee 6)

This study further found out that the Vihiga County Council (under which Jeptul Market Stalls Project fell), Vihiga County Public Works Office, Hamisi constituency projects tender committee, the Jeptul Market Management Committee, and the prospective market stalls vendors were not represented in the planning of the project that

took place in Nairobi. Similarly, their views were not sought for the purpose of planning for the Jeptul Market Stalls Project. This was attributed to several key informants who explained that:

The ESP was an emergency program and thus, the national secretariat that was tasked with planning for the market stalls projects (and the rest of the projects in the program) did not have time to engage all the stakeholders. (Interviewee 7)

I got information from the press that members of the public were supposed to pick tender documents from Hamisi Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee Office. Surprisingly, I serve on the committee but I had no idea about the tender documents at all... (Interviewee 12)

I am the chairman of the Jeptul Market Management Committee; however, you can be sure that I just saw the project foundation being dug and materials being delivered. The project had commenced yet I was not aware about what was being put up ... (Interviewee 10)

The afore-stated findings are indicative of how majority of the stakeholders were not involved in the planning and subsequent implementation of the project. Although it is documented in literature that top-down participation is structured around the use of professional leadership that is provided by external resources that plan, implement, and evaluate development projects or programs (Macdonald, 1995); this is the very characteristic that makes this model inherently weak. This is because - as Marshall (2005) and Smith (2008) note - the top-down approach erroneously presumes that local people do not have useful input to make in project management. It is therefore prudent to appreciate that meaningful participation in project implementation requires participation of all stakeholders in project planning as well; without which no project stands a chance of succeeding (Marshall, 2005; Smith, 2008).

Moreover, this study also established that after having been prepared by the ESP secretariat in Nairobi, the project drawings, bill of quantities, and project plan were

passed down to be implemented by stakeholders at the Vihiga County Public Works Office, ministry of public works officers, Vihiga County Council, and Hamisi Constituency Projects Tender Committee. Thus, it is at the point of project implementation that these key stakeholders were introduced to the project. One of the key informants from Vihiga County Public Works Office had the following to say about the lack of involvement of key stakeholders in the preparation of the bill of quantities, drawings and plans for the project:

The advertisement for the tendering of the project was done by the national officers in Nairobi as was the case for similar projects across the country. The advertisement was placed in the local daily newspapers and contractors were asked to pick tender documents from Hamisi Constituency Development Fund Office. We just saw the advert in the local daily newspapers but did not have any idea about the project or the subject tender documents. We asked the constituency team to let us know if they had received the tender documents and they said they had not. We then rushed to Nairobi and asked the officers who were in charge why they had advertised the project yet they had not given us the tender documents. They said we were supposed to 'think on our feet'. We were shown the documents which were spread all over on the floor and were asked to pick what we needed. Thereafter, we quickly rushed back to the constituency (Hamisi), gave out the documents and asked the constituency team to plan for how the constituency projects tender committee would be constituted. We also informed them that the tender documents were supposed to be processed within 21 days. We understood the rushed manner in which the project was being implemented because the ESP was really a crash program. It was not easy for the Jeptul Market Stalls Project - or any other similar project - to follow the normal process of project planning and implementation... (Interviewee 7)

This information was confirmed by a respondent from the then Hamisi Stimulus

Project Management Committee (Interviewee 14) and another from the defunct Vihiga County Council (Interviewee 13). The abrupt nature by which the projects were passed down from the planning team at the national level to the other stakeholders at the district, county council and constituency levels was decried by many respondents (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, and 21). This nature of working would in turn manifest in the implementation of this project as will be addressed subsequently.

This study further found out that once the project had been handed over to the Vihiga Public Works Officers for implementation, the officers did not involve many of the project stakeholders at the local level in the implementation process (Interviewee 10, and 21; FGD-A1, FGD-A2). This was typical of top-down decision making which does not value grassroots input into projects. This explains why these stakeholders complained that they had been excluded from both the planning and implementation of the Jeptul Market Stalls Project.

This study also established that due to the top-down decision-making in this project, some of the key stakeholders were not involved in project monitoring. These included the local political and administrative leaders, the prospective market stalls vendors, project workers and the market management committee. There was evidence that these stakeholders complained about this exclusion.

Based on the foregoing organizing themes, the researcher established in a global theme that the top-down model of stakeholder-participation was used to implement the Jeptul market stalls project. In this model, planning for the project was done by the ESP secretariat in Nairobi, then the project plan was passed down to for implemented by local stakeholders who included the Vihiga County Public Works Office, the then Vihiga County Council, and Hamisi Constituency Projects Tender Committee. This top-down approach had a role in the implementation of the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project.

ii) Role of Top-down Model in the Implementation of the Jeptul Project

Since this study had also sought to examine the role of the top-down stakeholder-participation model in the implementation of the Jeptul Market Stalls Project, several organizing themes were synthesized from the many basic themes that had been identified in order to address this objective. Based on these organizing themes, conclusions were accordingly made.

One of the organizing themes that were synthesized from the basic themes with regard to the role of top-down stakeholder-participation model in the implementation of the Jeptul Market Stalls Project was that some of the key stakeholders were left out of the implementation process. The notable ones were the prospective market stalls vendors, the Jeptul Market Management Committee and the local administrative leaders. As a result, the views of these stakeholders were not used in the implementation of this project in which they were meant to be critical players. One of the key informants for this project observed as follows:

... the users of the market stalls have in mind a completely different design of the market stalls that they would wish to have. Had the users been brought on board, this project would have turned out to be more useful than it is going to be when and if it will become operational” (Interviewee 10)

Another key informant remarked that:

... even if the plan came from Nairobi, this project should have been implemented with input from the local stakeholders. Having missed out on that aspect, I doubt that the project will be useful to the intended users ... (Interviewee 18)

These sentiments were echoed by FGD- A1 and FGD-A2. Thus, the net effect of leaving out these key stakeholders in the implementation process was captured well by one of the respondents who remarked that the market stalls that had been constructed “...did not meet the expectations of the prospective market stalls vendors. The stalls are too small and inappropriate, the environment in the main structure is not conducive, and security of goods is non-existent, among other demerits...” (Interviewee 10). In brief, the most of the respondents were unanimous that the market stalls did not appeal to the needs of the eventual users who were the fresh produce traders. The respondents further indicated that they were not going to accept the project in the state in which it was. The failure by top-down projects to achieve their objectives is not without precedent in literature. Nina *et al.*, (2009) concluded that the top-down model as applied in the management of Taita Hills Forest in Kenya limited the participation of the local

community who got disenchanted and withdrew support for the project; making it to fail to achieve its objectives. This lends credence to the claim that this model is prone to abuse by the most influential stakeholders who limit the rights and freedoms of the less influential ones (Tseng & Penning-Rowsell, 2012).

Another role of the top-down model in the implementation of this project was that the project design was implemented as had been handed down from the Ministry of Local Government headquarters in Nairobi. This design required project structures to be constructed as planned and this negatively affected the scope of the Jeptul Project because the toilet block, concrete waste bin and fence could not fit in the space that had been provided for the project. This challenge of the rigid nature by which the project design was implemented was evident given that all the structures in the project design could not fit in the available space that was provided for this project at Jeptul Town. As a result, the project stalled. Some of the respondents insisted that even if the other structures will eventually be completed in future, it will not be prudent to commission the project without the toilet block being attached to it. Consequently, many respondents had reservations about this top-down approach of project implementation. One of them observed as follows:

... had all the stakeholders been involved from the start; then the local stakeholders would have requested for the design to be made with the flexibility of accommodating various special circumstances that existed on the project site such as limited space. It would have been easier if the project architect and contractor had the leeway to solve the limited space challenge by erecting the toilet at another site in close proximity of the other project structures ... (Interviewee 7)

The FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 opined that if the project implementers had been allowed to suggest alternative space for the toilet, the local stakeholders would have provided it and the problem would have been resolved within a short while. However, they further explained that lack of grassroots input and the top-down nature of the project did not leave any avenue for this to happen. The problem of lack of space for the toilet block, concrete waste bin and the fence was confirmed by the researcher who observed that first, the toilet block, concrete waste bin and the fence had not been done; and secondly, the

space that was allocated for the entire project was not enough to cater for all the planned structures. An interview with another key informant about this project confirmed that the project architect and contractor did not have mandate to alter the design because the design was rigid as it dictated that all the project structures be located in one enclosed compound and that "... any alterations had to be made with express permission from the client in Nairobi and this involved a very long and tedious process ...” (Interviewee 1). In another interview, a key informant explained that the problem of limited space for the project would not have arisen had Jeptul Market Management Committee been involved in the planning and implementation of the project. As a solution to the problem, the interviewee said:

We are the owners of this town. We would have simply decided to give out part of the football ground to the project and that would have provided enough space not only for this project, but also for a modern market with a wall and a gate. This way, revenue collection would have been improved. (Interviewee 10)

Another organizing theme indicated that the top-down model of stakeholder-participation also bestowed the decision to choose the location of the project to the chairman of the Vihiga County Council. This led to the reduction of the scope of this project. This was attributed to one of the sub-themes by interviewee 18 who indicated that the location of the project at Jeptul town was a unilateral decision and the chosen site did not have enough space to accommodate all the project structures. The interviewee also noted that because the chairman of the Vihiga County Council wielded a lot of decision-making power, wide consultations were not made about a suitable location for the project. This position was confirmed by interviewee 10 who indicated that the decision of the chairman of the Vihiga County Council was supreme and the project structures were consequently squeezed within the little available space that there was, thereby leaving out some of the essential structures that were to be part and parcel of the project like the toilet block, concrete waste bin and the fence. This reduced the scope of the project as initially planned for it ended up not having a toilet block and a fence. This explained why this project stalled as it could not be commissioned without the missing structures in addition to other incomplete aspects of the project. Other respondents through FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 felt that had there been wide consultations about the location of this project, then it

would have been prudent to locate it at another center with adequate space within Hamisi Constituency.

Other than the foregoing organizing themes, this study further established that the project as implemented via top-down decisions, limited the scope of what the prospective vendors would have wished to sell in the stalls. This was partly attributed to the views of interviewee 11 who reported that the national planning committee designed the market stalls specifically for fresh produce vendors and the main structure in the project to a large extent favors the display of fresh agricultural products. Indeed, the researcher observed that most of the space in the main structure was open space, and then there was a section with a total of 24 stalls. However, most of the respondents indicated that this design erroneously assumed that the intended market stalls vendors deal in fresh agricultural products only. Indeed, through FGD-A1 and FGD-A2, the prospective market stalls vendors said that most of them always stocked not only fresh agricultural products, but other non-fresh products like dry fish, dry 'omena', seeds for indigenous vegetables, dry maize, dry beans, dry groundnuts, onions, garlic among others. For this matter, they noted that the Jeptul Market Stalls Project as had been constructed was not ideal not only for those few who may have wanted to sell fresh agricultural products only, but also for the majority who deal in several types of goods including but not limited to fresh agricultural products. Thus, evidence from interviewee 10, the researcher and prospective market stalls vendors confirmed that the market stalls were designed and implemented with a limited scope in terms of the range of goods that the vendors may have wished to stock in the stalls.

The nature of the market stalls as had been constructed was a manifestation of the top-down nature of stakeholder participation in this project because respondents reported that the design was limited in scope for it did not consider their varied needs. Interviewee 10 and 18 together with FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 had common sentiments about the failure by project implementers to consider the varied needs of the market stalls users. They reported that the main structure was not conducive to work in as it was too exposed given that there were no walls around it (Appendix 15); instead, the roof was supported by metal pillars (Appendix 15) making it inhabitable during conditions of heavy rains, strong winds, hot sun. Secondly, they noted that the stalls were not secure for keeping goods overnight because the shutters that were used were too weak to withstand burglary

(Appendix 17), given also that there was no fence around the project structures (Appendix 15). To them, this meant that the designer of the project did not take the local security situation into account. Thirdly, they reported that the space provided for each stall was too small (Appendix 17) to accommodate all the goods that a vendor would always have at any given time. Finally, they stated that the stalls had a slanting surface which could not hold goods for display (Appendix 17). As a result, the organizing theme that emerged relating to the prospective vendor's needs was that the Jeptul Market Stalls had a limited scope with reference to the various needs of the prospective vendors including failing to provide adequate space, security against burglary and comfort during extreme weather conditions. A related organizing theme was also established that as a result of how the project had been implemented, all prospective vendors in FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 recommended that walls should be erected around the structure or some kind of barrier to lessen the effect of heavy rains, strong winds and hot sun. They also recommended that the stalls be redesigned with strong lockable doors, before they could consider moving in when offered an opportunity. This meant that these stakeholders were recommending for additional project activities.

Moreover, this study established that the market was implemented with a very limited scope with regard to the number of vendors to be accommodated because the stalls were designed to accommodate only 24 fresh produce vendors. The researcher confirmed through observation that the main structure had a total of 24 stalls. Interviewee 10, 18 and 22 had sentiments to the effect that given the project was designed for the entire Hamisi Constituency, the project left out the majority of prospective market stalls vendors who would have wished to get a stall in the market. This was echoed by FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 which noted that the availability of only 24 stalls meant that most of the prospective vendors will be left selling their wares along the roads in open air or in makeshift kiosks. These respondents were in agreement that the top-down planning led to construction of a very small structure that would eventually serve only a minority of the intended users. The respondents thus recommended that in future, all stakeholders should be involved in project planning and implementation so as to fully address their needs in upcoming projects.

Other than the foregoing, this study further established that as a result of dominance, the client who was based in Nairobi had immense influence and was the one who decided

when to pay the contractor since the client was both the owner and the funder of the project. This organizing theme was partly based on interviewee 12 who said that the top-down nature of the project gave the client immense power over the other project stakeholders. The client then used this power to unilaterally determine that contractors would be paid from the capital city of Nairobi, according to client-preferred time-lines. Interviewee 6 confirmed this information and decried the delayed payments which had the effect of delaying project activities and thus lengthened the project time-frame.

It also emerged that due to top-down planning, the planners completed their work before establishing the characteristics of the topography of the project site. This was partly attributed to interviewee 1 and 6 who reported that the project drawings and bill of quantities were prepared without critical information about the project site. Interviewee 3 indicated that when the project site was later identified, it turned out that the site had a rocky and slanting ground (Appendix 16) and this compelled its implementers to take-on more project activities which lengthened the project time-lines and also increased project cost. The extra activities included blasting of the rocky ground and raising the foundation (Appendix 16) beyond what was in the bill of quantities. The researcher observed that indeed, the ground on which the Jeptul Project was erected was rocky and slanting and that the bill of quantities did not take this into account because the bill of quantities was common for all the four ESP projects in Vihiga County. This corroborated what interviewee 1, 3 and 6 had said thereby reinforcing the organizing theme that implementation of this project at Jeptul had not been well planned and that the project required more activities and time than what had been planned. Indeed, all the respondents in FGD-A1 and FGD-A2 unanimously indicated that project implementation had been overly delayed due to poor planning and non-involvement of all stakeholders.

Another organizing theme that reflected the role of the top-down stakeholder-participation model in the implementation of the Jeptul Project was that the extra activities that were undertaken and the lengthening of the project time-frame led to cost escalation as a result of increase in labor, material and transport costs. The increase in cost was attributed to top-down planning that ignored input from grassroots stakeholders; whereby it turned out that the topography of the project site at Jeptul Town was rocky and slanting yet planning and costing of the project had already been concluded and bill of quantities produced. Interviewee 6, 26 and 27 reported that a lot of resources that had not

been budgeted were spent in blasting the rocky ground and raising the foundations to the required levels (Appendix 16) in view of the slanting topography. This had the ultimate consequence of increasing the project cost considerably. Interviewee 6 who was the contractor reported that he had been personally affected by the cost overrun in the project as a result of incessant delays and extra project activities.

As a result of the top-down approach, the interests in the project of the local political and administrative leaders, the prospective market stalls vendors, project workers and the market management committees were not considered. This was the reason as to why these stakeholders complained that project implementation did not consider their interests. Consequently, some of these stakeholders came together to oppose the project.

Lastly, the study found out that the top-down model gave the project client the mandate to fix the project cost and to insist that this project sum was not variable under any circumstance; something that later negatively affected project implementation and project quality. Interviewee 1, 3, 7, 11 and 12 reported that project cost was fixed and variation could only be done within the project cost. Interviewee 1, 3, 6, 7, and 12 also reported that there was cost escalation during implementation that arose due to elongated project time and extra project activities. They thus concluded that in the circumstances, the only means that was available to the contractor to complete the project without much financial strain was to try and use less expensive material and labor; or reduce the recommended quantities of materials or both. They disclosed that this in turn negatively affected the quality of the project. The researcher's physical observation that the floors and walls of the structures were already peeling off even before the project could be commissioned for use confirmed that the quality of the project structures had been lowered.

Some of the respondents opined that the foregoing limitations that arose due to the application of the top-down model would have been avoided if planning and implementation of the project had fully applied the bottom-up stakeholder-participation model as well. This is partly because by its very nature, the bottom-up approach encourages projects to seek for, appreciate and apply local knowledge, and to consider local people themselves as the appropriate experts about their local environments (Chambers, 1997). This then leads to projects that win support from across the spectrum of project stakeholders from the beginning up to the end and promotes project success.

An advantage of the top-down approach as was applied in the Jeptul Project was that the project client who initiated the project had allocated the project ten 10 Million Kenya Shillings. Moreover, project beneficiaries like Vihiga County Government and prospective market stalls vendors were not required to contribute to the funding of the project. Another organizing theme that emerged about positive influence of the top-down model was that as a result of the client having been a Government of Kenya Ministry, it became easy for it (the then Ministry of Local Government) to coordinate all government officers - who worked on the project – under the ministry and in other ministries. Moreover, since it was the client who managed land within the Vihiga County Council under which Jeptul Town was located, it was easy to allocate the project space without consulting any other authority.

The foregoing organizing themes led the researcher to the global theme (conclusion) that the top-down participation model of stakeholder engagement in the Jeptul Market Stalls Project had both positive and negative role in project implementation. However, the negative role of the model far outweighed the positive. This was evident from the fact that the project had stalled for about six years at the time of this study in April/May of 2016.

4.3.2 Top-down Model and the Implementation of Chavakali Market Stalls Project

During data analysis, there were many organizing themes were aggregated from basic themes and these organizing themes suggested that the top-down stakeholder-participation model was applied in this project; and that this model played a key role in the implementation of the subject project in various ways. The organizing themes and the consequent global themes are presented hereafter.

i) Evidence of Top-down Model in the Chavakali Market Stalls Project

An array of basic themes that suggested the application of the top-down stakeholder-participation model in the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project was analyzed from the data that was collected. A summary is presented in terms of organizing themes that emerged.

One of the organizing themes that were synthesized from the basic themes was that the concept of building a market stalls structure in Chavakali Town of Sabatia

Constituency was originated by senior government officers who operated under the auspices of a national secretariat that was tasked with planning for the ESP in Kenya in 2009. The construction of market stalls at Chavakali Town was part of this larger ESP (Interviewee 12). That the conceptualization of this project was done by national officials in Nairobi was further reinforced by interviewee 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 13, 15, 19, 23 and 39; and FGD-B1 and FGD-B2 who were key stakeholders from the lower cadres, and who came to learn of the project when it was passed down to Sabatia Constituency for implementation.

This study established via another organizing theme that planning for the Chavakali Market Stalls Project was done by senior national Kenya Government Officers who were based in Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya. Some of the basic themes that formed the basis for this organizing theme were that project drawings were done by national officials in Nairobi (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 11, 12, 15); project bill of quantities were done by national officials in Nairobi (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 11, 12, 15); no input was sought from the grassroots stakeholders (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 11, 12, 15; FGD-B1 and FGD-B2); and that no input was sought from the the technical team that was based at the Vihiga County Public Works Office (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, and 12). While underscoring the danger of this kind of planning that was done from Nairobi, one of the key informants for this project who was a local trader and prospective market stalls vendor at Chavakali Town observed as follows:

Look, there is an existing large market stalls structure in this town which is about ten times bigger than what was put up under the ESP and it is currently underutilized. Had I been involved in the planning of the Chavakali Market Stalls Project, I would have recommended this project for another town or shopping center within Vihiga County. To me, this project is a total waste of scarce resources...
(Interviewee 4)

These sentiments confirm what is already documented in literature that top-down 'experts' can develop management policies, programs or projects that are locally unsuitable, unsustainable and unacceptable (Carr, 2002). The Chavakali Market Stalls Project served as an example of such projects.

Another organizing theme that emerged about implementation of the Chavakali

project was that project funds were managed from Nairobi throughout the project life cycle and this contributed to delayed payments to the project contractor. According to interviewee 6 and 7, this was attributed to the immense power that was wielded by the client who decided where to pay the contractor from since the client was both the owner and the funder of the project.

Related to the above, was another organizing theme that the client was the most influential stakeholder and used this privilege to make the major decisions in the project; including when to pay the contractor for work done (interviewee 6 and 11) . According to these interviewees, the result was that there were incessant delays in making payments to the contractor (for work done) for as long as one year, as opposed to the stipulated 30 days.

Moreover, the researcher established that the Vihiga Municipal Council (under which Chavakali Market Stalls Project fell), Vihiga County Public Works Office, Ministry of Health officers at the then Vihiga District, Sabatia Constituency Projects Tender Committee, local political and administrative leaders, and the prospective market stalls vendors were not represented in the planning of the project that took place in Nairobi (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 12, 15, 19, 23; FGD-B1 and FGD-B2). One of the key informants who tended to support this centralized planning explained as follows:

The ESP was an emergency program and thus, the secretariat that was tasked with planning for the market stalls projects and the rest of the projects in the program did not have enough time to engage all the stakeholders. The Government of Kenya was focused on delivering economic stimulus projects in as much short time as possible... (Interviewee 7).

Another organizing theme was that after having been prepared by the ESP secretariat in Nairobi, the project drawings, project plan and bill of quantities for the project were passed down to be implemented by Vihiga County Public Works office, Ministry of Health, Vihiga Municipal Council, and Sabatia Constituency Projects Tender committee. This was partly attributable to Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 13, 15, and 37. In essence, according to these respondents and also to document review data, it was at the point of project implementation that the local stakeholders came to know that a market stalls project was to be undertaken in Chavakali Town. This violated some of the basic principles of

stakeholder participation in projects as enshrined in the constitution of Kenya (GoK, 2010).

The study further established that the Chavakali Market Stalls Project was undertaken as an emergency project. The abrupt nature by which the project was relayed down from the planning team at the national level to the other stakeholders at the Vihiga County Public Works office, Vihiga Municipal Council, ministry of health officials at Vihiga District, and Sabatia Constituency Projects Tender Committee is an issue that was not received well by many of the affected respondents. These respondents wondered why prior communication about the project had not been made and also why they had not been given adequate time to prepare for the implementation of the project. This rushed nature of working would in turn shape the implementation of this project in a negative way as detailed (in section ii) below.

Moreover, some of the key stakeholders were not involved in project monitoring and this was directly attributed to the top-down decision-making in this project. The stakeholders who were affected included the local political and administrative leaders, the prospective market stalls vendors, project workers and the market management committee.

Arising from the foregoing organizing themes, the researcher arrived at the global theme (conclusion) that the top-down model of stakeholder-participation was used to implement the Chavakali market stalls project. Like the case for the Jeptul Project, planning for the Chavakali project was done by the ESP secretariat in Nairobi, then the project was passed down to the major local stakeholders (who included the Vihiga County Public Works Office, Ministry of Health Officers at the then Vihiga District, Vihiga Municipal Council, and Sabatia Constituency Projects Tender Committee) for implementation.

ii) Role of Top-down Model in the Implementation of the Chavakali Project

In addressing the second research objective in relation to the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project, this study established that the top-down nature by which stakeholders were engaged in the implementation of this project had a role in its implementation in many ways as evidenced by its manifestation in the aspects of project scope, cost, time, quality and user needs. Various organizing themes that were synthesized from the basic themes

indicated that the top-down model had a role in the implementation of the project in various ways as discussed subsequently.

One of the organizing themes about the role of top-down model of stakeholder-participation in the implementation of the Chavakali Market Stalls Project was that some of the key stakeholders of this project were left out of the implementation process. These were the prospective market stalls vendors, the Chavakali Market Management Committee, and the then Vihiga Municipal Council. Consequently, their views about the implementation of the project were not accommodated, and consequently, "... the market stalls that were constructed were not conducive for use by the prospective vendors, for they were too small, uncomfortable and unsafe for storage of vendors' goods..." (Interviewee 4) This finding was in tandem with the criticism that top-down participation has been seen to be lacking the local input into technical and governmental administration of projects meant for the local people (Caldwell, 1970). This is a major weakness of the top-down model which project managers should always address as a way of fostering successful projects.

Another organizing theme revealed that the top-down model led to the implementation of the design of the Chavakali Project exactly as had been handed down from the Ministry of Local Government headquarters in Nairobi. The challenge with the rigid nature by which the project design was implemented was that the structures in the design could not fit well in the available space that was provided at Chavakali Town. According to interviewee 4, "... the main structure lacks enough space within and around it and this makes it cumbersome for many people to conduct trade well..." As a result of the limited space, the scope of the project was reduced in terms of the amount of space that was to be occupied by the market.

In another organizing theme, the study found out that the project scope in terms of the project's life cycle had been negatively affected. This is because, arising from the top-down model of decision making, project termination as an aspect of the entire life cycle scope of the Chavakali Market Stalls Project had not been properly done because "...the line ministry had not planned for it..." (Interviewee 7, & 12) When asked about when this will be done, one of the key informants remarked that, "... no one knows when the project will be procedurally commissioned for use by the vendors. I have consulted various concerned officers at Vihiga County Government but none appears to have a way

forward...” (Interviewee 4). Project termination is done when all activities have been completed, and when the project is ready for use by the intended stakeholders. For the Chavakali Project, some activities like installation of power had not been done and this partly explained why the project had not been commissioned for use by the end users. As at the time of this study, local stakeholders were still awaiting communication on way forward from the National Government Officials in Nairobi.

Moreover, the study established that the location of the project at Chavakali Town had been subsequently rejected by some of the key stakeholders. This was because the choice of project location was unilaterally done by the Vihiga Municipal Council officials because the top-down model of stakeholder-participation bestowed the prerogative of deciding the location of the project on the chairman of the then Vihiga Municipal Council. Consequently, the market stalls were erected in an area that the users considered to be inaccessible. One of the FGDs about this project had the following with regard to the location of the Chavakali Market Stalls Project:

We were not consulted about the location of the new market stalls project yet we are the potential users. By choosing to trade from this central point in this town, we know that this is where our goods can be seen and bought by many customers. We deliberately moved from the inaccessible residential areas to try and expose our goods here. Therefore, to locate the new market stalls project where it is at the moment and to expect that we shall be moved there from the town's central business district is to suggest that we go back to trade from the very residential areas that we had earlier abandoned. We can assure the authorities that we shall not go to the new market stalls at all... (FGD-B1)

Other than that, it emerged that the project was implemented at a place that is considered risky in terms of security. With regard to this, one of the key informants stated as follows:

... people have been mugged at that place in the evenings. Others have been found murdered. It is a fairly isolated place and it is considered unsafe not only by the prospective market stalls vendors, but by the general public as well” ... (Interviewee 4)

The researcher also found out that the prospective market stalls vendors for the Chavakali Market Stalls had vowed that they were not ready to occupy the new market stalls. Asked about what the project should be used for instead, they had two suggestions:

The government can convert the structures into offices for its workers because we are not interested in the stalls at the current site. Alternatively, it can move the animal market from Standkisa to the place currently occupied by the market stalls. This way, the animal traders will come closer to us and will thus benefit us in terms of business. They will bring money close to us ... (FGD 4)

The foregoing sentiments by some of the key project stakeholders are illustrative of the dangers of the top-down model. The manner in which some of the stakeholders were treated (non-inclusion) in the Chavakali Project went against expert recommendations that, by incorporating local interests and knowledge and even other material resources, policy solutions may be better adapted to local conditions thereby improving the results of any development endeavor (Dougill *et al.*, 2006; Reed, 2008). This is a tenet in project management which project teams should seek to uphold at all times.

Other than that, this study established that delayed payments (due to centralization of payment in Nairobi and also due to client delays) had the effect of delaying implementation of project activities and thus lengthened the project time-frame. This contributed to the stalling of the project which had taken over six and a half years instead of the initially planned 6 months. As at the time of this study in April/May 2016, the project had not been completed. From the researcher's physical observation, wiring for electricity connection had been done but electricity had not been connected to the premises; meaning that the project could not be commissioned and terminated in the state in which it was. However, some of the electrical fittings had been vandalized (Appendix 23). This partly explained why the project had stalled.

This study further found out that changes in project time-frame in turn led to project cost escalation as a result of changes in labor, materials and transportation costs over time. Incidentally, the increase in project cost was to be met by the project contractor because the contract did not provide for any cost variations outside the contract sum. This

meant that the project sum was fixed and the contractor had to look for his own additional funds to take care of the increase in project cost. Constrained by limited finances, many respondents reported that the contractor had to lower the quantity and quality of materials in order to complete the project.

Other than the foregoing, the study established that the large open space in the main structure was not hygienically suitable for display of fresh food stuffs. The national planning committee singularly designed the market stalls specifically for fresh produce whereby the main structure to a large extent favored the display of fresh agricultural products. This is because most of the space in the main structure was open space at ground level where fresh agricultural products could be displayed and sorted out (Appendix 21). However, respondents via interviewee 4, FGD-B1 and FGD-B2 pointed out that since this open space was the same area where people at the market walked as they went about their business, it ceased to be suitable and hygienic for the display of fresh agricultural products as it posed a health hazard due to contamination. The researcher confirmed by physical observation that indeed, displaying foodstuffs on the open floor would entail stepping on the same floor (Appendix 21) and this would not be hygienic. With respect to this matter, the prospective market stalls vendors indicated that it would have been ideal if the big open space that was meant for display of food items would have been raised to look like a podium (FGD-B1 and FGD-B2).

Respondents also indicated that this top-down approach of project implementation led to a very narrow scope of what was to be sold in the stalls because it was erroneously assumed that the intended market stalls vendors traded in fresh agricultural products only. To the contrary, the prospective vendors said that most of them always stocked not only fresh agricultural products, but other non-perishable products like dry fish, seeds for indigenous vegetables, dry maize, dry beans, onions, beverages and garlic among other goods. For this matter, the prospective vendors observed that the market stalls as had been constructed were too small and were not ideal not only for those few who deal in fresh agricultural products only, but also for the majority who deal in fresh agricultural products, non-fresh agricultural products as well as other non-agricultural goods.

The top-down nature of stakeholder participation in this project also found expression in the manner in which the market stalls had been constructed; which the prospective vendors termed as inappropriate and not able to meet user needs. Several basic themes

attested to this. First, the market was not secure as the shutters that were used to close the openings to the stall enclosures were too weak to withstand burglary (Appendix 26). This was taken to imply that the designer of the project did not take the local security situation into account. Secondly, the respondents were unanimous that the space provided for each stall turned out to be too small (Appendix 26) given that many vendors stocked several goods as afore-stated. The respondents also observed that the main structure was not conducive to work in for it was too exposed given that there were no walls around it (Appendix 19). The nature of this structure was that the roof had been supported by metal pillars without any walls; an aspect that made it inhabitable in case of heavy rains, strong winds, cold, or sunny conditions. Moreover, the process of storing goods in the stall enclosure would be cumbersome (Appendix 26) because the enclosure required that the vendor should always crawl into and out of the enclosure to store or retrieve goods. Based on these basic themes, this study arrived at the organizing theme that owing to how they were constructed, the market stalls did not meet the user needs of the prospective vendors.

The top-down nature by which the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project was planned and implemented had a role on the project scope in terms of the number of vendors who were to be accommodated in the stalls. This is because the project designer intended to accommodate only 24 fresh produce vendors. Given that the project was designed to serve the whole of Sabatia Constituency, the project left out the majority of prospective market stalls vendors who would have wished to get a stall in the main structure. The project was thus too limited in scope (only 24 stalls) in terms of the number of vendors who were to be accommodated in the stalls.

The foregoing organizing themes are indicative of the limitations of the top-down stakeholder-participation model that contributed to the stalling of the Chavakali Market Stalls Project. This underscores Caldwell's (1970) argument that external technicians and bureaucrats do not have the capacity to embrace all aspects of activities that shape or influence local development projects noting that not enough attention is paid by these top-down 'experts' to the point at which action occurs, which is the grassroots level of society.

Other than the foregoing, key respondents in this study indicated that due to cost escalation that arose from elongated project time (as a result of the top-down model), there arose the need to use less expensive material and labor which in turn negatively affected the quality of the project. Physical observation of the project by the researcher

revealed that the project structures were of low quality, implying that either low quality materials were used, or the required quantities were reduced in order to operate within the budgetary limits. Consequently, the floor of the main structure of the project for instance was already peeling off at the time the observation was done (Appendix 26); the outer walls of some of the structures were peeling off as well (Appendix 25), while doors to some of the stalls had come off (Appendix 26). This led the study to arrive at the organizing theme that the structures that were put up in this project were of low quality and this was partly due to the top-down stakeholder participation model.

This study also got the organizing theme that the non-inclusion of some of the key stakeholders in the monitoring of the Chavakali Project led to implementation of the project without taking their needs into account. These stakeholders included the local political and administrative leaders, the prospective market stalls vendors, project workers and the market management committee. The local political and administrative leaders for instance complained that they would have preferred that a different location within the Sabatia Constituency ought to have benefited from this project and not Chavakali Town as Chavakali town already had a similar bigger market. This meant that according to these leaders, the project was implemented in a wrong place.

Another organizing theme about the quality of the project structures was that because the project had stalled for a long time, there was deterioration in terms of quality of work done due to lack of maintenance, wear and tear, and vandalism. This was largely attributed to the top-down model by which decisions about project activities were being made. As an example, the study established that the client ministry had not given Vihiga County the authority to commission the project for use. When asked about the commissioning of the project, all the respondents who were in charge explained that they were waiting for communication from higher authorities on the way forward. The respondents were also in agreement that by the time the project will be commissioned, it will have gone down considerably in terms of quality. Thus, the lack of capacity by the project team to make decisions about the project eventually stalled the project and contributed to its poor quality.

Although the top-down stakeholder-participation model appears to have had many demerits for the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project, it had some advantages for this project as well. The project client who initiated the project had ready funds and allocated

the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project 10 million Kenya Shillings. According to interviewee 12, had the project been done within its time-lines, then the funds would have been adequate. Other than that, it was reported that the Vihiga Municipal Council which administered Chavakali Town was under the then Ministry of Local Government (client). It was thus easy for the client to allocate the project space without consulting any other authority. This is how the project easily got land space at Chavakali Town. The study however concluded that the top-down stakeholder-participation model largely played a negative role in the implementation of the project and eventually led to its stalling. This was because the project had at the time of the study taken six and a half years yet some activities had not been done.

4.3.3 Top-Down Model and Implementation of the Majengo Market Stalls Project

Based on various basic themes that were analyzed from research data, several organizing themes were identified that had the hallmarks of the top-down stakeholder-participation model having been applied in the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project. There were as well, organizing themes that related to the model's role in the implementation of the project. The findings are presented hereafter.

i) Evidence of Top-Down Model in the Majengo Market Stalls Project

There were various organizing themes that the study relied upon to establish that the top-down stakeholder-participation model was applied in this project.

To begin with, the study found out that the Kenya Government national officers were the ones who came up with the idea of constructing fresh-produce market stalls in Vihiga Constituency. These officers worked under the auspices of the national secretariat which mooted the idea alongside other ideas like the construction of a model school, a shade for 'Jua-Kali' traders and fish ponds in every constituency in Kenya (Interviewee 3, 7, 11, and 12).

This study also established that the funds for the project were provided by the national treasury and were managed by the then Ministry of Local Government from Nairobi. The project team together with the contractor were supposed to liaise with the then Ministry of Local Government headquarters in Nairobi for payment (Interviewee 7, 9 and 11).

This study further established that all the planning for the project was undertaken in

Nairobi. This was because the project drawings, the bill of quantities and the project plan were prepared by central government officers in Nairobi. After having been prepared, the documents were passed down to Vihiga County implementation at short notice. One of the key respondents reported that there was a hurriedly convened public sensitization meeting after which the project commenced. He observed:

... all of a sudden, the public was asked to attend a sensitization meeting convened by the area chief. It was at that point that we came to know that there were plans to construct market stalls at Majengo Town. Construction work started immediately thereafter. (FGD-C1)

Other than that, the planning committee (secretariat) which was based in Nairobi did not involve any other stakeholder from either the district, constituency or market committee levels in the planning. This meant that the ideas that were implemented were passed down from the central government in Nairobi to the Vihiga Local Government without the input from the grassroots stakeholders. Respondents argued that local stakeholders wanted real participation as opposed to the cosmetic one that was propagated by the authorities. This was well articulated by one of the respondents who observed that, "... all there was in terms of participation was the sensitization meeting on the project in which the public was invited. Can that be equated to involving the public in the project? The answer is obvious". (Interviewee 5)

Another organizing theme that emerged in relation to the stakeholder-participation model that was applied in the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project was that the decision to pay the contractor from the ministry headquarters in Nairobi as well as how often to pay was made by the client without consulting the project contractor and the project team. Other members of the project implementation team like the Ministry of Public Works officers at Vihiga County who supervised the project, Vihiga District Ministry of Health officers and the Vihiga Constituency tender committee were not consulted on this matter as well. Based on the challenges that arose from this kind of working, most of the respondents opined that the payment of the contractor was a critical aspect of project implementation that should have been decided by all the key project stakeholders.

Moreover, the study found out that the project implementation team which was based at Vihiga County Headquarters having been excluded from the project planning process

that took place in Nairobi, it in turn failed to involve some of the key stakeholders during project implementation. For instance, the prospective market stalls vendors and the Majengo Market Management Committee were not aware of the project until a few days before it began. Respondents from these two groups of stakeholders indicated that as at the time of this study, no effort had been made to get their views about the project. One of the respondents who was a key informant stated as follows:

As the local community, we were just told one morning that market stalls were to be constructed at Majengo Town. Immediately thereafter, someone off-loaded construction materials and work commenced. As the in-charge of of the Majengo Market Management Committee, I have not played any role in this project. As you are aware, what happened was against the law. The constitution of Kenya gives us the right to be actively engaged in such public projects ... (Interviewee 5)

Due to the top-down approach, some of the key stakeholders were not only excluded from project implementation, but also from the monitoring of the project implementation process as well. The affected stakeholders included the local political and administrative leaders, the prospective market stalls vendors, project workers and the market management committee.

Consequently, pattern matching involving the foregoing organizing themes led the study to the conclusion (global theme) that the top-down stakeholder-participation model was used to implement the Majengo Market Stalls Project.

ii) Role of Top-down Model in the Implementation of the Majengo Project

In order to address the second research objective, the study examined the basic themes to establish how the top-down model influenced implementation of Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project especially in terms of scope, time, cost, quality and user needs. There were several organizing themes that were synthesized from the basic themes and they were indicative of this influence.

Respondents reported that the client allocated 10 million Kenya Shillings for the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project, which was enough to put up the market stalls

(Interviewee 1, 7, 9, and 12). The researcher corroborated this information by reviewing the letter of offer for this project which indicated that the contract sum was 10 million Kenya Shillings. The market stalls users were not required to contribute any money towards the cost of this project. The study further found out that the money that was allocated to the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project enabled the project team to construct the structures so far realized in this project; which are the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, and a concrete waste bin. Thus, this aspect of the top-down decisions (where the client allocated 10 Million Kenya Shillings to the project) was a positive aspect on the project.

Other than that, the study found out that the client had control over the Vihiga Municipal Council and went ahead to allocate the project land at Majengo. The respondents argued that since the client had a final say on the land under its custody, its decision to allocate the project land at Majengo served to avert disagreements over project location. As a result, the top-down decision making enabled the project to get space at Majengo Town without opposition from any stakeholder and this was a positive aspect of this model.

This study however found out that the top-down model in which the idea of a market stalls project was mooted and planned by officers from the central government in Nairobi alienated all the other key stakeholders whose ideas were not considered. These were the Vihiga County Public Works Officers, officers from the then Vihiga District Public Health Division, the Vihiga Constituency Tender Committee, the prospective market stalls vendors, and the Majengo Market Management Committee. As a result, the project was implemented with a very limited scope in terms of the total number of people that were to be accommodated in the stalls. This was because the project had a total of 24 stalls and could only accommodate up to 24 vendors, yet there were many more prospective vendors in Vihiga Constituency who had wished to get a stall in the building. It was also established that the stalls were too small to hold a single vendor's goods and the surface for displaying the goods was slanting, making it very difficult to display goods on such a surface.

Due to the aforementioned limited scope, it was established that the top-down model of implementation (whereby the grassroots stakeholders were completely ignored) consequently caused disenchantment amongst the prospective vendors who vowed not to

occupy the new stalls when asked to do so. This means that if the position will remain the same, then project commissioning will not be done even when the project will have eventually been completed. As such, this will affect project scope because a project cannot be complete without being commissioned. Through the FGD-C1 and FGD-C2 that were conducted involving the prospective market stalls vendors of the Majengo market stalls project; the vendors complained that they have been reduced to mere spectators in a project in which they are meant to be key stakeholders. They observed:

We shall not occupy the stalls as presently constructed. What we need now is dialogue with the authorities so that we can tell them how these stalls can be redesigned in order to be useful to us. An architect should come and sit with us for us to explain how we want the market stalls to look like, then the project can be improved accordingly. For now, none of us will be willing to move into that place. (FGD-C1)

They added:

If the government is not willing to have the market reconstructed, then it should demolish the entire building to allow it to construct suitable market stalls that are useful to us. As things are now, what we have amounts to a waste of public funds. (FGD C2)

The respondents were also unanimous that due to the top-down nature of the project implementation, the stalls were made in a way that did not capture the scope of the needs of the prospective vendors (users). They noted that the stalls as had been constructed (Appendix 31) were going to make the interaction of the vendor and the buyer quite difficult when buying/selling because by design, whenever the vendor turns to speak with the buyer, the vendor effectively shields his/her goods from the view of the buyer. Respondents further remarked that this was not conventional and the sentiment was well captured in one of the FGDs that comprised of the prospective vendors of the Majengo Market Stalls. They noted:

We are used to our makeshift stalls where the vendor directly faces the buyer while the goods that are being sold are placed in between the two on a raised flat surface. It is easy to sell that way. In the new

stalls, it appears that the vendor will always have to turn his/her back on his/her own goods in order to face and address the buyer. We find it quite strange. We have not seen it anywhere else. This will not work... (FGD-C1)

The foregoing limitations are a testimony that the top-down model may not be a good choice that can deliver a successful project. Indeed, this strengthens Carr's (2002) position that the top-down 'experts' can easily develop projects that are locally unsuitable, unsustainable and unaccepted.

The study has already established in section 4.3.3 (i) that the client used the advantage of the top-down model that was applied in this project to decide that payment for the project was to be made from Nairobi. The client also had the discretion to decide how often the contractor would be paid without reference to the contractor at all. The combined effect of these two decisions was unnecessary delay in project implementation that manifested in two ways. First, it took a lot of time for payment logistics to be coordinated between Vihiga Public Works Office and the then Ministry of Local Government headquarters in Nairobi. Secondly, once the payment certificate and voucher were received in Nairobi, it took long before the payment was effected. All these made the project to take over six and a half years instead of the initially planned six months. The oral face-to-face accounts of various respondents attested to this including key informants one of whom observed that "I have had to travel to Nairobi on numerous occasions all in the name of following up on delayed payment for this project. It takes so much time and money that would have been used to accomplish other projects..." (Interviewee 9)

Another organizing theme that mirrored the influence of the top-down model on the project was that due to client-induced project delays which went up to over six and a half years at the time of this study, the cost of the project escalated as a result of increase in labor and materials costs. Again, the top-down nature of the contract that the contractor signed ensured that the extra cost that came due to delay in implementation of project activities was passed over to the contractor. Such extra activities included, "... the back filling of what used to be a cattle dip to pave way for the main structure..." (Interviewee 9). Consequently, the project ended up overshooting its original budget on which account

the project failed to adhere to its budgetary limits. The contractor also suffered as a result of project overrun as all the extra project costs were to be borne by the contractor. The fact that the contractor had not been fully paid for the project at the time of this study was indicative of the financial strain that he had gone through. The contractor remarked:

I plan to go to Nairobi soon to find out if there is some payment for me. Although they had made a commitment to pay, the payment has not been forthcoming. I have spent so much money and time following up on project payments over and above the extra cost that the project has passed over to me. Consider that I used to drive a Mercedes Benz. However, because of this project, I cannot afford it any more... (Interviewee 9)

Moreover, this study found out that the top-down stakeholder-participation model as applied in this project had influence on the quality of the project work. The client processed project payments in Nairobi and in a manner that took long to deliver a payment to the contractor. This in turn caused delay in project implementation of up to over six and a half years that in turn led to cost overrun. Since the extra cost was to be taken up by the contractor, the contractor either resorted to low priced materials and labor; or a reduction in the quantities that had been recommended or both. This was evident from the low quality of work that was also observed by the researcher. Some parts of the floors and walls of the structures were already peeling off, the shutters of some of the stall enclosures were off, and the fence had already fallen off (Appendix 32). This project was not going to meet the quality standards if it were to be presented for commissioning in that state. All the bottlenecks that eventually stalled this project would have been avoided had the project team adopted the bottom-up model in the planning and implementation of the project.

The study in another organizing theme established that the non-inclusion of some of the key stakeholders in the implementation of the project resulted into a project that was not going to be accepted by the eventual end-users. Interviewee 5 who chaired the Majengo Market Management Committee indicated that his committee had many alternative views about how the project ought to have been implemented but lacked an avenue of sharing these views with the project implementation team because the

committee was not part of the project implementation and monitoring teams. On the other hand, the prospective market stalls vendors through FGD-C1 and FGD-C2 indicated that they had - as a result of non-inclusion - rejected the project in its totality.

Many authorities on stakeholder-participation models note that most of the challenges that characterize the top-down model can be addressed by the bottom-up model. For instance, according to Chambers (1997), it has been proven that the bottom-up approach encourages projects to seek for, appreciate and apply local knowledge, and to consider local people themselves as the appropriate experts about their local environments. One would then ask why project implementers insist on the top-down model. This is because the bottom-up model appears to challenge the influence and control which most governments and project owners would wish to have on their projects; and this explains why it was not an option in this project.

A global theme (conclusion) that this study arrived at was that the application of the top-down model in this project had both merits and demerits to the project. However, the study noted that the model limited the participation of key stakeholders and this engendered a situation in which the project had to stall. The failure of projects as a result of the top-down model is not unique to the Majengo Market Stalls Project. Dadvar-Khani (2012) who studied rural stakeholders' participation in a rural tourism project in Kan area of Tehran in Iran established that there was lack of meaningful community participation in the development of tourism in their villages and that the government's top-down planning of rural tourism had alienated the rural communities from the project, which eventually failed to meet its objectives. Nina *et al.* (2009) and Tseng Penning-Rowsell (2012) had similar findings in their studies done in Kenya and Taiwan respectively. This puts to question the real value of applying the top-down model in public development projects.

4.3.4 Top-Down Model and Implementation of Wemilabi Market Stalls Project

Based on various basic themes, several organizing themes were identified that had the hallmarks of the top-down stakeholder-participation model having been applied in the Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Project; as well as the nature of the model's role in the implementation of the project. The findings are as presented hereafter.

i) Evidence of Top-Down Model in the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project

In order to address the first objective of this study, the researcher sought to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project. Various organizing themes were identified. Some of these themes pointed to the application of the top-down stakeholder-participation model as presented in this section.

In one of the organizing themes, this study found out that just like for the Jeptul, Chavakali and Majengo Projects, the decision to construct market stalls in Emuhaya Constituency of Vihiga County was done by the Kenya Central Government Officers in Nairobi. The study also found out that the planning for the project was done in Nairobi because the project plan, drawings, and bill of quantities were prepared in Nairobi. The study further found out that by the time project planning was being done, the project site had not been identified and the concerned officers in Nairobi had not even visited Emuhaya Constituency to familiarize with the topography and soil structure of the would-be project site. Moreover, planning for the project was done in Nairobi without the involvement of other groups of stakeholders at lower levels. It was critical for this study to consider the aspect of project planning because project implementation which was the subject matter of this study was heavily dependent on project planning.

This study arrived at another organizing theme - that mirrored the top-down model - that the chairman of the Vihiga County Council settled on the Wemilabi Shopping Center as the location for the project without consulting all the relevant stakeholders including the Vihiga County Public Works Officers. During FGD-D1 and FGD-D2, the potential vendors for the market stalls indicated that they had no idea about what was being put up until it had taken shape. They remarked:

They started by doing the measurements, and immediately started excavating the foundation; and the rest of the activities followed. At that time, different people had a different versions of what was being put up. Later, we came to learn from our area leaders that it was a market stalls project... (FGD-D1, and FGD-D2)

Since project planning informs project implementation, the implementation shortcomings that were encountered in this project were later traced to this top-down manner of project

planning.

The study further established that during implementation, the project implementation team (comprising of Ministry of Public Works officers at Vihiga County, Ministry of Health officers at Vihiga County and the Emuhaya Constituency Projects Tender Committee) did not involve or consult the prospective market stalls vendors or the public in general about their possible input into the project (FGD-D1 and FGD-D2). This was corroborated by among others interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 12, 17, and 37. This approach negated the basic principles about public participation as outlined in the Constitution of Kenya (GoK, 2010) and as discussed by various authorities on participatory development including Smith (2008).

Moreover, having been prepared in Nairobi, the project plan, drawings and bill of quantities were then passed over to some of the relevant lower-level stakeholders for implementation. The project team noted that this was done at short notice which denied them time to adequately prepare for the implementation of this project (Interviewee 7). This sentiment was echoed by interviewee 1 and 12 who explained that the reason as to why the project planners did not involve many of the local stakeholders in the planning for implementation and the eventual implementation was because there was no sufficient time to do so because the project team had been given only six months to deliver the project from July to December of 2009.

Other than that, the client who was based in Nairobi had the monopoly of making all the major decisions about the project decided without reference to the other major stakeholders of this project that all payments for the Wemilabi Project would be done in Nairobi (Interviewee 1, 7, 12). It also emerged in another organizing theme that the client decided to disregard the official payment time-frame without consulting other interested stakeholders and would also delay payments for up to one year instead of the statutory 30-day period. This was partly based on accounts of Interviewee 1, 7, 9, and 12; as well as document review.

Other than the foregoing, the top-down approach excluded some of the key stakeholders from project monitoring. The stakeholders who were affected included the local political and administrative leaders, the prospective market stalls vendors, project workers and the market management committee. This would later negatively affect the implementation of the project as explained subsequently.

Based on the foregoing organizing themes, this study thus arrived at the global theme that the top-down stakeholder-participation model was applied in the implementation of Wemilabi Market Stalls Project. This study also established that the application of this model had a role in the implementation of the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project.

ii) Role of Top-down model in the Implementation of the Wemilabi Project

As far as the role of this model in the implementation of the project was concerned, this study established several organizing themes relating to scope, time, cost, quality and user needs aspects of the project.

One of the organizing themes revealed that the client had decided to set aside sufficient funds and had allocated the Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Project in Emuhaya Constituency 10 million Kenya Shillings; which was enough to cover the entire scope of the structures that were required for this market stalls project. The study further found out that with this money, the project team was able to construct the structures so far realized in the Wemilabi Project. These structures were the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, and a concrete waste bin. These were tangible project outputs that this project had delivered at the time of this study in April/May 2016.

This study also found out that by planning the project in Nairobi, the grassroots stakeholders' views especially the prospective vendors, other key stakeholders, and the general public were technically excluded from the planning process. This made the project to be implemented with a very limited scope in terms of the total number of vendors that the stalls were to accommodate (24) yet there was evidence that there were many other prospective vendors who would have wished to get a decent place to carry out their small businesses (Interviewee 8; FGD-D1 and FGD-D2).

The implementation of the project devoid of input from some of the key stakeholders was deemed to have been inappropriate in the sense that the stalls were put up without involving the prospective market stalls vendors and this approach did not address most of their needs. As such, most of the respondents reported that the stalls were too small, insecure, inappropriate and too exposed to rains, sun, and wind; and that the prospective vendors were not willing to move and occupy the stalls. Instead, they were reported to have opted to be given metallic stalls of the type that the County Government of Vihiga

had put up (Appendix 41) besides the Wemilabi Market stalls Project. Incidents in which the top-down model has led to rejection of projects have precedence in literature. Tseng and Penning-Rowse (2012) did a study in Taiwan in which they reported about projects that continue to be strongly opposed or at least disputed by the very people they are intended to help due to top-down approaches. This was also the case for the Taita Hills Forest Conservation Management Project (Nina *et al.*, 2009) in which some of the conservation measures were opposed by the local community. This is indicative of the weakness of the top-down model of engaging stakeholders in projects.

Other than the foregoing, it was established that the top-down decision by the client to process project payment from Nairobi as well as to vary the payment time-frame led to incessant delays in payments to the contractor for work done. The result was that implementation of project activities was also delayed. In the end, the project had stalled for over six and a half years at the time of this study. Another result of the delays was that the contractor was compelled to resort to more borrowing of financial resources in order to cater for the delayed payment (Interviewee 9). This led to financial distress to the contractor and affected the quality of the structures that were put up in this project.

Moreover, this study found out that the project plan, drawings and bill of quantities having been prepared in Nairobi without the input of the local stakeholders, failed to take into account the unique topographical and soil structure characteristics of the Wemilabi Project site. Here the ground was quite rocky (Appendix 35). Thus, there emerged new project activities on the site which the project planner had not foreseen as a result of making project plan, drawings and bill of quantities without first visiting the site or getting the required information from the concerned Vihiga County Public Works Officers. On this aspect, one of the key respondents observed as follows:

At Wemilabi as you can see, the ground is rocky and uneven. This forced us to undertake extra activities in breaking the underground rock. We spent more money than was planned in order to work out the project foundation. With all this, there was no way the project was going to be undertaken at a cost of 10 million Kenya shillings as initially planned ... (Interviewee 9)

The foregoing planning weakness led to project cost overrun which the contractor was

compelled to take up and in the process, lowered the quality of the work done.

Another organizing theme that was identified in the study of this project with regard to the role of the top-down model on project implementation was that there was an increase in the project cost. This was caused by delays in honoring payment certificates, the logistics of coordinating payment between Vihiga County and Nairobi, and the emergence of unforeseen project activities. Thus, the project cost went up due to increase in material, equipment, labor, and transport costs. As one of the respondents observed, the cost of implementing the project went up because the contractor "... had to hire machines for drilling and blasting the underground rock at Wemilabi, yet this had not been factored in the bill of quantities..." (Interviewee 9)

This study further found out that since the project had a fixed cost as had been determined by the project designers, the contractor was compelled to bear the extra cost. Extra project cost came as a result of unforeseen project activities that emerged during project implementation, delayed payment and coordination of payment logistics between Vihiga and Nairobi. Other than the extra activities like drilling and blasting the underground rocks, the roof of the main structure had been partly blown off and was yet to be fixed (Appendix 36). Since the project sum did not cater for such emergencies, the project was in an incomplete state. Just to show that the extra cost of fixing the roof was to be passed over to the contractor, one of the key informants for this project indicated that "... it is expected that the contractor should take up the cost of repairing the roof since the project has not been handed over to the client and has not been commissioned for use ..." (Interviewee 1).

Other than the foregoing, this study found out that as a result of the financial constraints that were experienced by the contractor and which the study traced to the top-down model, the quality of the work done was lowered. An observation by the researcher of the structures in the Wemilabi Project revealed that the floor of the main structure was peeling off, some of the doors for the stall enclosures had come off, and the walls of the office block and toilet block were already peeling off as well. This was decried by many stakeholders who noted that either low quality materials were used or the required quantities of materials were not used.

Another organizing theme that emerged was that the top-down model of participation led to the stalling of the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project. As at the time of the study, the

project` was incomplete, no project activity was going on and the client (the then Ministry of Devolution and Planning of Kenya) “... had not given direction about what should be done with the project implying existence of a disconnect in coordination and communication between the central government and the Vihiga County Government...” (Interviewee 36). The lesson to be taken here was that a critical evaluation of the merits of the top-down stakeholder-participation model should be conducted before its application in any project because its role can be debilitating to that project.

This study also found out that although there was a monitoring plan, there was lack of input from the grassroots stakeholders, proper coordination and an effective communication system. As a result, project monitoring was not well done because some of the key stakeholders were not engaged in this activity. This led to project implementation with a narrow scope (in terms of number of vendors to be accommodated and ability to address all the user needs), inappropriate stalls and frequent project delays.

A synthesis of the foregoing organizing themes led this study to the global theme that represented the conclusion that the top-down stakeholder-participation model had both positive and negative role in the implementation of the Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Project. However, the negative role far overshadowed the positive one. Thus, this study further concluded that to a greater extent, the model had a negative role in the implementation of the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project. The project could not be commissioned for use because it was incomplete, and had stalled as well.

4.4 Contractual Model and Implementation of ESP Market Stalls Projects

The first objective of this study was to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, while the second was to examine the role of the applied models in the implementation of the subject projects. The selected market stalls projects were Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi.

The researcher analyzed the content of the qualitative data that was collected and was able to identify many basic themes that emerged with regard to the research objectives. The basic themes were then synthesized into organizing themes. Based on these organizing themes, the study arrived at global themes that depicted that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was applied in these projects, as well as those that

mirrored the role of the model in the implementation of the subject market stalls projects.

In the contractual stakeholder-participation model, an influential stakeholder who is regarded as the project owner or manager normally has sole decision-making power, whereas other project stakeholders participate in activities that are defined by this main stakeholder in the sense of being formally or informally contracted to provide goods, services and other kinds of support (Probst *et al.*, 2003).

4.4.1 Contractual Model and Implementation of Jeptul Market Stalls Project

There were many organizing themes that emerged from the analyzed data that indicated that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was applied in the implementation of Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project. Other organizing themes presented evidence that the model had a key role in the implementation of this project in various ways.

i) Evidence of Contractual Model in the Jeptul Market Stalls Project

This study established the organizing theme that there was a contractual agreement between the client and the project contractor and this contract was used to guide project implementation. This organizing theme was a synthesis from various basic themes that were attributed to various respondents including interviewee 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 11, 12, 14, 26, and 27. This confirmed what the researcher had earlier found out through document review that there was a contract document for this project; and that the contract outlined the duties and responsibilities of each party in the project. The two parties in the contract were the client (the then Ministry of Local Government) on one hand, and the contractor on the other. Interviewee 6, 11, 12 and 14 further reported that the contract was in written form and this was verified by observation that had been done by the researcher. Interviewee 6, and 14 also reported that there was an opportunity for the contractor to read, understand and raise any queries about the contract terms and conditions before signing the contract documents.

This study also established in another organizing theme that there was an official session during which the client and the contractor signed the contract document. Through document review, the researcher was able to see tender documents that included a contract document that had been signed by the client and the contractor; and this exercise

was witnessed by an appointee of the contractor who also signed the contract document. This information was corroborated by interviewee 6 and 14 who reported that there was an official session during which project contract was signed by the client and the contractor. They also confirmed that the cost of the project as indicated in the contract document was fixed at ten million Kenya Shillings and that there would be no variation outside this contract sum.

Other than the foregoing organizing themes, this study also established that the project workers were engaged in the project by way of a contract. Interviewee 26 and 27 indicated that there was a contract between the contractor and the workers to provide labor in the project. However, they noted that the contract between them and the contractor was informal (non-written) although it was nonetheless binding. This was in tandem with what the contractor (Interviewee 6) reported about the workers' engagement in the project.

The study further found out that there was a contract between the contractor and the project suppliers. Asked by the researcher whether the contract was formal or informal, the supplier responded by saying that "... the contractor is my long time friend and I have supplied him for many years without seeing the need for a written contract..." (Interviewee 34). This confirmed that the contract between them for supply of material to the project was informal (verbal) in nature.

The foregoing organizing themes led the researcher to the global theme that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was applied in the implementation of Jeptul Market Stalls Project. There were several contracts that were used to execute the project including the one between the client and the contractor, the contractor and the workers, and contractor and the supplier.

ii) Role of Contractual Model in the Implementation of the Jeptul Project

As part of the second objective, this study sought to find evidence to demonstrate that the contractual stakeholder-participation model had a role in the implementation of Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project in relation to scope, time, cost, quality and user needs. This evidence was summarized in terms of organizing themes as discussed hereafter.

In terms of scope, the study found out that the contract between the client and the contractor had specified the structures that were to be constructed on a predetermined size

of land and the structures were to take specific positions in relation to each other on the ground (Interviewee 7). According to interviewee 7, the project was comprised of the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, and a concrete waste bin which the contractor had to deliver based on the project design and as per the signed contract. The researcher established through document review that the project drawings had outlined the stated project structures which were also captured in the contract. However, the respondents explained that there arose a challenge in the Jeptul Project whereby the available space that was earmarked for the project was unable to accommodate all the structures as had been designed. The researcher was also able to confirm through observation that there was no space for the toilet block, the concrete waste bin and the fence. The researcher further found out that since the contract did not allow the contractor and the project team to construct the toilet at another available space within Jeptul Town without prior permission from the client, the entire project stalled and the issue of the toilet had not been resolved even at the time of this study in April/May 2016. The foregoing basic themes enabled the researcher to arrive at the organizing theme that the contractual stakeholder-participation model led to non-achievement of the structural scope of the Jeptul Project and caused it to stall. For future projects, key informants 6, 10, 12, and 18 observed that the contract should bear some flexibility with which the contractor and the project team can make design adjustments so as to address emerging unique site challenges.

The role of the contractual stakeholder participation model on the cost of this project was evident. By making the project sum fixed by contract, the client had the advantage of technically avoiding to meet the extra cost that arose due to unforeseen circumstances. Such unforeseen circumstances included delay in project implementation; which in turn led to increase in the project cost. A key informant who played a key role in the implementation of this project observed that "... whereas a payment certificate was meant to be honored in one month, it would take up to ten months for me to get a payment. I am awaiting the last payment as of now ..." (Interviewee 6). This study found out that the client deliberately caused delay in payment of the project funds to the contractor which in turn occasioned increase in the cost of labor, materials and transport. Thus, the contract enabled the client to occasion project cost overrun without meeting any penalties.

Given that the contract sum was fixed by a contract, the client did not incur any

additional costs, which were instead borne by the contractor (Interviewee 6). Thus, this study established in another organizing theme that the increase in project cost which was caused by the client was automatically passed on to the contractor by way of the fixed nature of the contract sum; and this constrained the contractor financially. The study arrived at yet another organizing theme that the contractual agreement was designed to unfairly favor the client by way of passing-on unforeseen costs to the contractor even when it was evident that part of cost escalation was caused by the client. Indeed, many of the basic themes indicated that the client undertook activities in a way that escalated the project cost and then used the contract to pass the extra cost to the contractor, eventually stalling the project. In essence, this contract gave the client dominance over mode of funds disbursement to the contractor; which dominance was used to engender activities that eventually stalled the project.

In terms of project time-frame, one of the organizing themes that was synthesized from the basic themes was that the contract gave the client the leeway to delay payments to the contractor without any penalties being meted to the client for such delays. As a consequence, the project was unnecessarily delayed. The contract - as aforementioned - was not flexible to allow the contractor and the project team to make adjustments based on unique site realities. Due to this rigidity of the project contract, the study established that the project consequently had time overrun and also stalled due to lack of space for construction of the toilet block, concrete waste bin and a fence, yet the project team did not have discretion to find alternative space for the toilet. The situation was made more difficult because all project structures were meant to be constructed within one enclosure according to the project design.

As for the project quality, this study established the organizing theme that the contractual agreement led to the lowering of the quality of the project structures. This was partly attributed to interviewee 7 and 10 who reported that as a result of cost escalation (that resulted from centralized and delayed payments) which the contractor was unable to bear, the alternative was to use fairly low priced materials and labor which tended to lower the quality of the structures. This organizing theme was corroborated by another key informant who acknowledged that:

Of course the issue of cost escalation of materials would require the use of fairly low priced materials and this affected the quality of the

work. However, it should be noted that the variation in terms of type of materials that were used was within the acceptable quality standards... (Interviewee 7).

The researcher physically observed that there was deterioration in terms of quality of the structures. This state of the project structures would require a round of repairs for the project to be in a state in which it can be commissioned as a new project.

There was a positive role of the contractual model in the implementation of the Jeptul Project as well. The contractual participation of the client, contractor, workers and suppliers in this project helped to realize the outputs that the project had already achieved so far because the contract obligated them to deliver the project. These outputs were the construction of the main structure, an office block, and a water tank. Interviewee 6, 11, 14, 26 and 27 confirmed that there was a contract to deliver the project within specific requirements. Thus, the critical organizing theme that emerged about the contractual participation of the four groups of stakeholders (client, contractor, workers and suppliers) was that the contractual engagement gave each party the commitment and dedication which helped to realize the stated project outputs. This was because the contract served as the legal instrument by which the client, contractor, workers and suppliers willingly provided goods and services which helped the project to construct the aforementioned structures.

In a nutshell, this study arrived at the global theme (conclusion) that although the contractual stakeholder-participation model as applied in the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project had both positive and negative role in the implementation of the project, the negative role was much more pronounced. Thus, the model can be said to have largely had a negative role in the implementation of the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project because the project had stalled at the time of this study.

4.4.2 Contractual Model and Implementation of Chavakali Market Stalls Project

As part of objective one and two, the researcher sought to establish stakeholder-participation model(s) that were applied in the implementation of Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project and their attendant role in the implementation of this project.

There were many organizing themes that emerged from the analyzed data that indicated that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was applied in the

implementation of Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project; and that it had a role in the implementation of the subject project in various ways.

i) Evidence of Contractual Model in the Chavakali Market Stalls Project

Various organizing themes emerged relating to the application of the contractual stakeholder-participation model in the implementation of Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project. One of the themes was partly aggregated from the accounts of interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, and 15 who reported that the client (the then Ministry of Local Government) engaged the contractor by way of a contract. Moreover, it was established through the same interviewees that this contractual participation by the subject stakeholders was formal (written). The researcher confirmed via document review and observation that the contract document was available and the client, the contractor and their witnesses had signed the contract document which was also rubber stamped.

This study also found out that there was a contract between the contractor and the project supplier. It was further established that the supplier was a person who was well known to the contractor and thus, the contractor was comfortable in having an informal (unwritten) contract with the project supplier. In most cases, an informal contract is used where there exists goodwill amongst the subject parties. The contractor (Interviewee 9) as well as the supplier (Interviewee 35) for this project confirmed that this was the case.

In another organizing theme, this study further established that the project workers were engaged in the project by way of a contract. This organizing theme was a culmination of a synthesis of various basic themes that indicated that there was an agreement between the workers and the contractor about provision of labor to the project (Interviewee 9, 28, and 29). Unlike the client-contractor contract, the contractor-worker contract was informal (just like the contractor-supplier contract) since it was not written anywhere and the workers were not given any appointment letters. The contractor and the workers were therefore working on the basis of promise and trust.

The afore-stated organizing themes formed the basis upon which this study arrived at the global theme (conclusion) that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was used in the implementation of Chavakali Market stalls Project. This involved the client versus the contractor, the contractor versus the workers, and the contractor versus the suppliers.

ii) Role of Contractual Model in the Implementation of the Chavakali Project

The role of the contractual stakeholder-participation model in the implementation of the Chavakali Market Stalls Project is demonstrated by various organizing themes that reflected features of this project as at the time of this study.

One of the organizing themes that was aggregated from the relevant basic themes was that the structural scope of the project was strictly bound by a formal contract, which made all the project structures to be squeezed into a very small area. The contract for instance had specific structures that were to be constructed on a specific size of land space and the structures were to take specific positions in relation to each other. According to the design, the project was to be comprised of the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, a concrete refuse bin and a fence, all of which were to be delivered as one project under the contract. Incidentally at Chavakali, the available land space for this project was small in relation to the number of structures that were to be accommodated on this space. Since all the structures in the design were to be in one enclosure, they were then squeezed into the available space leaving very little space for movement around the market for the prospective vendors and buyers especially on market days when there is heavy human traffic at market centers. The study also established in another organizing theme that as a consequence of this shortcoming, respondents observed that for similar future projects, the contract should have some flexibility with which the contractor and the project team can make design adjustments so as to address emerging unique user and site characteristics.

As for the project time-frame, it emerged that the client was responsible for the delay in project implementation by having taken advantage of the skewed contract to delay the release of payments to the contractor in time. This was attributed to the fact that the contract bestowed on the client dominance and influence that enabled the client to make all the major project decisions and passed them on to other low-ranked stakeholders for implementation. For instance the contract gave the client the freedom to delay payments to the contractor without attracting any penalties. This meant that the contractor had to wait for the client to make a payment for a particular project stage before resuming project activities. Similarly, another organizing theme that accounted for the cause of project delay was that the client decided to centralize all payments for market stalls

projects in Nairobi which led to delays in honoring payment certificates and delays in the implementation of project activities as well. The challenge that arose from project delay was well expressed by one of the key informants who explained that there was time overrun for this project because:

A project that was meant to take 6 months ended up taking about four years; and this really pushed up the project cost where the additional cost was placed on the shoulders of the contractor. As you can see, the project has not been commissioned for use to date...

(Interviewee 9)

Although the respondent indicated that the project was delayed by about four years, this study established that the project had actually delayed for over six and a half years as at the time of the study in April/May 2016, from the planned completion date of December, 2009. Interviewee 9 confirmed that the client had not made all payments for the project, meaning that there was no way the project was legally going to be handed over to the client. All this was largely attributed to the contractual stakeholder-participation model.

As for the project cost, during project implementation, the role of contractual stakeholder participation was evidenced by how the contract enabled the client to escalate project cost without attracting any penalties. In this project, the client undertook activities in a way that escalated the project cost and then used the contract to pass the cost to the contractor. For instance, the client deliberately delayed payments for the project and in effect, made the project to take longer and become more expensive. But because the contract sum was fixed (without any room for cost variations), the client was not bothered about cost escalation because the extra cost was automatically passed over to the contractor. For this particular project, one of the key informants observed that payments would delay for up to one full year instead of being paid within the stipulated 30 days. The contract did not however prescribe any penalties to the client for this kind of delay. To illustrate how serious these delays were, the key informant stated as follows:

To date as I speak with you, the client still owes me money for this project. I do not know when it will be paid to me. It is over six years

since the project commenced and four years since we completed it...
(Interviewee 9)

Although this respondent said that the project had been completed in four years, observation by the researcher revealed that installation of electricity had not been undertaken. Moreover, project termination had not been done (Interviewee 1, 7, and 12). Thus, there was evidence that the project had not yet been completed.

With regard to project quality, one major organizing theme about project quality emerged. One of the key informants (Interviewee 12) reported that as a result of cost escalation which the contractor was unable to bear coupled with the fact that the contract did not allow the contractor to do any variation outside the contract sum, the alternative was for the contractor to use either less expensive materials or lower quantities which tended to lower the quality of the structures. This theme was corroborated by another key informant who acknowledged that as a result of the increased cost of the project that arose from incessant delays in payments; the quality of the work done was lowered although "... the quality of the work done is still within the acceptable limits..." (Interviewee 7). However, the study through observation found out that most of the structures had peeling walls and floors which was an indication that the quality of the work done was quite low.

On a positive note, the study arrived at an organizing theme that showed that the contractual participation of the client, contractor, workers and suppliers obligated each party to offer goods and services. This way, the contractual engagement helped the project to attain the outputs that had been realized so far by the time of this study. These were the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, a concrete waste bin and a chain link fence. The contractual engagement served as the legal instrument by which all the parties in the project provided goods and services which helped the project to construct these structures. In this respect, the contractual engagement helped the project to attain these outputs in the implementation phase which was an important milestone in the project life-cycle scope. The unfinished aspect of the scope of this project was project termination which in interviewee 4's words, still awaited "decision from above".

This study concluded that the contractual stakeholder-participation model assumed both positive and negative roles in the implementation of Chavakali Market Stalls Project. However, since some of the contractual obligations had not been met by either of the

parties in the contract (client and contractor) like full payment of project funds and installation of electricity, the project had stalled. For this matter, the study further concluded that the contractual stakeholder-participation model largely negatively influenced the implementation of the project.

4.4.3 Contractual Model and Implementation of Majengo Market Stalls Project

After having analyzed data that had been collected, there emerged organizing themes that suggested that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was applied in the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project, and that the model had a key role in the implementation of this project. This is detailed hereafter.

i) Evidence of Contractual Model in the Majengo Market Stalls Project

As part of addressing the first objective of this study, the researcher sought to identify the stakeholder-participation model(s) that were applied in the implementation of Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project. Consequently, on the basis of the basic themes that were identified, several organizing themes that mirrored the application of the contractual model were established.

One of the established organizing themes was that the client (who was the then Ministry of Local Government) engaged the contractor for this project using a contractual agreement. This study also found out that the contract was formal because there was a contract document which the researcher reviewed and it outlined the obligations of each party (client and contractor) in the contract.

Another organizing theme that emerged was that there was a contract between the contractor and the project workers. This contract was no-formal because it was a verbal agreement between the contractor and the workers. However, the local leaders determined who was to be hired under this contract. One of the key informants for this project indicated that the local leaders "... compelled me not to go beyond the area of Majengo in recruiting workers for this project. I complied ..." (Interviewee 9). Moreover, the study established that suppliers were engaged in this project by way of a contract which like for the workers, was an informal contract.

Based on the foregoing organizing themes, this study concluded by way of a global theme that the Majengo Market Stalls Project applied a contractual stakeholder-

participation model. One of the contracts (client versus contractor) was formal while the other two (contractor versus workers and contractor versus suppliers) were informal.

ii) Role of Contractual Model in the Implementation of the Majengo Project

Having established that the Majengo project applied a contractual stakeholder-participation model, the researcher turned attention to the possible role of this model on project implementation with regard especially to scope, time cost and quality. This study had sought to establish inter alia, organizing themes that relate to the role of the contractual model in the implementation of the Majengo Project. The themes are as presented hereafter.

On a positive note, this study established that the contract made each party to strive to deliver on its mandate and as such, it helped the project to construct all the structures that were contained in the project scope. These were the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, and a concrete refuse bin. So, the contractual engagement of the subject stakeholders was of benefit to the project because it was legally binding and it largely ensured compliance by the concerned stakeholders.

In terms of project time-frame, this study found out that the contract had a negative role in project implementation because it encouraged the client to delay payments to the contractor far beyond the legally accepted limits without any penalties being applied. In other words, other than just stating that payment was due to the contractor within 30 days of submitting a payment certificate and a voucher, the contract did not mention anything about the penalties to the client should payment fail to be done as stipulated. This was a big loophole in this contract. The result was that the project was meant to be done within 6 months but after over six and a half years, the project remained stalled. This was because, electricity had not been connected to the market, the project had not been commissioned and terminated, and there was no activity towards achieving all this.

Moreover, this study noted that time overrun for the project had a spiral effect on the cost of the project. This arose due to increase of the cost of materials, transport and labor over time. At the time of this study, the project had attracted extra cost that was outside the project budget. Considering that this project had a fixed budget, it meant that the contractor was automatically required to foot the extra cost. Most of the project stakeholders indicated that this was a heavy financial burden on the contractor.

In what appeared like a chain reaction process, this study further found out that the cost overrun that was experienced in this project in turn led to lowering of quality of the structures that were constructed in this project. This was occasioned by the need to ensure that the extra cost was covered by the existing budget and thus the quality and quantity of material was lowered. A physical observation of the project structures by the researcher revealed that many parts of the walls and floors were already peeling off while the some of the wooden structures that were meant to be part of the stalls had already come off.

In a nutshell, this study concluded that the contractual stakeholder-participation model as applied in the Majengo Market Stalls Project had positive as well as negative role. However, the foregoing was a testimony that the model curtailed rather than promote project implementation. The finding that this project had stalled for over six and half years at the time of this study was illustrative of this negative role of the contractual stakeholder-participation model in the implementation of the project.

4.4.4 Contractual Model and Implementation of Wemilabi Market Stalls Project

During data analysis, there emerged organizing themes that suggested that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was applied in the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project and that its role in the implementation of the project was profound as detailed in this section.

i) Evidence of Contractual Model in the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project

On the basis of various basic themes that emerged from research data, several organizing themes were identified with regard to stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the Wemilabi Project. One of the themes was that the contractor engaged the project workers by way of a contract (Interviewee 9, 32, 33). The study also established that the contract was informal as there was no document that was signed in this contract, but instead, it was based on mutual trust between the two parties. Moreover, this study found out that suppliers were also engaged in this project by way of a contract and like for the workers, this was an informal contract reached on the basis of mutual trust between the contractor and the suppliers (Interviewee 9 and 35). Another organizing theme that the study established was that the client engaged the contractor for the project via a formal contract which the two parties and their witnesses signed. This implied that

the contract was a legally binding document by which the parties were supposed to discharge their duties.

Based on the foregoing organizing themes, this study then arrived at one global theme that pointed to the conclusion that the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project applied a contractual stakeholder-participation model in bringing on board some of its stakeholders.

ii) Role of Contractual Model in the Implementation of the Wemilabi Project

Other than establishing that the contractual stakeholder-participation model was applied in the implementation of this project, this study also sought to examine influence of this model in the implementation of Wemilabi Project. Several organizing themes were identified to address this aspect.

As for the project scope, the contract led to the construction of market stalls with a limited scope of a capacity of only 24 stalls. This was because the contract did not provide for flexibility that could have allowed the potential market users to suggest changes in the project design to suit their needs (Interviewee 1, 7, 9, 12). Thus, the scope in terms of the capacity of the project was limited by the contract that was signed between the client and the contractor. Otherwise, the local stakeholders indicated that they would have suggested a different design of market stalls (Appendix 41) had they been involved in the planning and implementation of the project. They explained that:

Had the contract made the implementation of the project flexible, we would have preferred a different design where each vendor was to be given a slightly bigger and enclosed stall complete with a front and back door. Do you see those stalls that have been recently put up by the Vihiga County Government? They are the kind of stalls that should have been put up for us ... (FGD-D1 and FGD-D2)

About the project time-frame, this study established that the contract had a negative role in the implementation Wemilabi Market Stalls Project because it allowed the client to delay payments to the contractor far beyond the legally accepted limit of 30 days. Despite having caused this kind of delay, the client was not penalized or punished in any way. As a result, the project was meant to be done within 6 months but ended up taking over six

and a half years.

Another organizing theme that emerged was that the project time overrun led to an increase in the cost of materials, labor as well as transport. This was attested to by many respondents including a key informant who indicated that by the time the project was 'completed', "... it had attracted extra cost that was way above the project budget..." (Interviewee 9). Considering that this project had a fixed budget, it meant that the contractor was automatically required to foot the extra cost that arose partly due to the manner in which the client disbursed project payments. In other words, it was the project contractor who was punished for delays that were caused by the client. The fact that the project was stalled was partly attributed to the extra cost that the project took on and which the contractor disowned. The researcher observed that the project was yet to be fenced off and finishing of the stalls shutters was yet to be done (Appendix 34 & 38). The roof had been partly blown off and was yet to be fixed (Appendix 36), while electricity had not been connected and this exposed the electricity wiring system in the project to vandalism.

Like in the other three projects (Jeptul, Chavakali and Majengo), this study further found out that the cost overrun that was experienced in the Wemilabi Project was responsible for the low quality of the structures that were constructed. By observation, the researcher noted that many parts of the walls and floors of the project structures (main structure, the office block, the toilet block, the water tank, and the concrete refuse bin) were peeling off (Appendix 39, 34, 40, & 37) while the wooden structures that enclose the stalls had come off yet replacements were yet to be fixed (Appendix 38). The water tank did not hold any water because the guttering system was impaired and the tank had gone into disuse (Appendix 37). This was a manifestation of the poor work that had been done.

On a positive aspect of the contractual stakeholder-participation model, this study established that the contract made the client, contractor, workers and suppliers to endeavor to deliver on their mandate and as such, it helped the project to come up with the outputs that were in place so far. These were the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, and a concrete refuse bin. However, on the overall, the project gains were overshadowed by the fact that the project had stalled at the time of the study for about six years, and this was partly attributed to the contractual model that was

applied in this project.

4.5 Consultative Model and the Implementation of ESP Market Stalls Projects

This study had set out to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. It also sought to examine the role of the applied models in the implementation of the subject market stalls projects which included Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi.

During the data analysis stage, the researcher was able to identify many basic themes that emerged with regard to the stated research objectives. The basic themes were then synthesized to give organizing themes. On the basis of the organizing themes, the study arrived at global themes that showed that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in these projects, as well as those that depicted the role of the model in implementation of the subject market stalls projects.

In the consultative stakeholder-participation model, most of the key decisions are made by one dominant stakeholder who wields influence in the project (Probst *et al.*, 2003). Nonetheless, emphasis is laid on consultation and gathering of information from other stakeholders, especially for identifying challenges and opportunities, priority setting, risk factors and alternative options; which information is then applied in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the project.

4.5.1 Consultative Model and Implementation of Jeptul Market Stalls Project

There were organizing themes that suggested that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project and that it had influence on this project.

i) Evidence of Consultative Model in the Jeptul Market Stalls Project

Respondents gave data that was analyzed to give themes that suggested that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project. Basic themes were synthesized into several organizing themes as presented below.

In one of the organizing themes, this study established that during project planning, the client consultatively engaged the then Ministry of Public Works Officers from Nairobi

for project drawings and the bill of quantities because the client did not have capacity to come up with such project documents.

Other than that, the study established in yet another organizing theme that during project implementation, the client consultatively engaged the Hamisi Constituency Stimulus Tender Committee which helped to issue tender documents to prospective contractors, and to help in the monitoring of the project. Interviewee 1, 3, 7 and 11 reported that the client worked with the then Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the Hamisi Constituency Projects Tender Committee; and that the nature of participation by these stakeholders was consultative since the then Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the Hamisi Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee were not under the authority of the client (the then Ministry of Local Government). One of the respondents explained that "... the only way we could engage them was by consultation since there was no other viable way of having them contribute especially in terms of human resources..." (Interviewee 11). This position was corroborated by other basic themes which the researcher had analyzed from various project documents and which indicated that there was consultation between the stated stakeholders during project planning and implementation. In line with this, this study established that the Ministry of Public Works officers in charge of Vihiga County were the ones who issued site instructions, supervised project implementation and generated payment certificates as well. The Ministry of Health supervised the health and safety-related issues in the project. This formed the basis for the organizing theme that there were consultations between the key project stakeholders during project implementation.

During monitoring of the project, it was established that the then Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health, and Hamisi Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee were part of the monitoring team. They were engaged by way of consultation. Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 12, and 14 confirmed during interviews that they had been part of the monitoring team for the Jeptul project. One of the respondents for instance reported that "I visited the project about 2 to 3 times in a week to ensure that the project was on track..." (Interviewee 1). Another respondent said that:

The clerk of works frequented the project site. He made 2 or 3 visits in a week. In case there were major issues to be resolved about the project, this would be done during the monthly site meetings. During such meetings,

the clerk of works, electrical officer, quantity surveyor, architect, mechanical engineer, Hamisi Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee, and the contractor would be in attendance. However, coordination and communication modalities between the various groups of people working on the project was a big problem because there were no clear channels of doing so... (Interviewee 3)

The foregoing led the researcher to conclude that consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the planning and implementation of the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project, and this played a key role in its implementation.

ii) Role of Consultative Model in the Implementation of the Jeptul Project

Having established that consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the implementation of the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project, the study turned its attention on examining the role of the model in the implementation of the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project with reference to scope, time, cost and quality specifications. Several organizing themes that addressed this were identified.

First, it was possible to bring the client, the Ministry of Public Works, the Ministry of Health, and Hamisi Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee together to work on the project while at the same time recognizing their status as independent government agencies. Secondly, respondents that were drawn from the four groups of stakeholders also gave information on the basis of which the researcher was able to synthesize the organizing theme that the consultative approach enabled the four main stakeholders to treat one another as equals and important partners, an aspect which led to a harmonious working relationship that helped to realize the current project outputs.

For the demerits of consultative stakeholder-participation model on the implementation of the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project, the study found that there were no clear coordination and communication mechanisms between the four groups of stakeholders. This engendered delays not only in decision making, but also in communicating the decisions made and the eventual implementation of these decisions. This resulted to elongated project time-frame, cost escalation and deterioration of the quality of work done. This means that the project scope in terms of time, cost, and quality

had been negatively affected. This study found that this eventuality was not avoidable because the project did not adhere to the principles of applying the consultative stakeholder-participation model. In this model, emphasis should be laid on consultation and gathering of information from other stakeholders (especially for identifying challenges and opportunities, priority setting, and even risk factors) which information should then be applied in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluating the project (Probst *et al.*, 2003). This did not however happen in the Jeptul ESP Market Stalls Project.

Consequently, the researcher concluded that the consultative stakeholder-participation model played both positive and negative roles in the implementation of the project, whereby the negative role was more predominant owing to the stalling of the project. Thus, the model was found to have contributed to the stalling of the Jeptul Project. This study takes the position that the challenge of lack of coordination and communication mechanisms in the application of this model was an indication that this model does not have capacity to address basic stakeholder-participation challenges that are associated with the model. This goes to confirm the assertion by Clever (2001), Smith (2008), and Tseng and Penning-Rowsell (2012) that conventional stakeholder-participation models are characterized by a lack of capacity to solve stakeholder-participation challenges which delays or stalls projects.

4.5.2 Consultative Model and Implementation of Chavakali Market Stalls Project

After having considered the various basic themes that had been analyzed from the research data, the study came up with several organizing themes that suggested that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project as well as those that illustrated that the model had a role in the implementation of this project.

i) Evidence of Consultative Model in the Chavakali Market Stalls Project

In the course of searching for the stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project, themes that suggested the application consultative stakeholder-participation model were explored. Consequently, key organizing themes were identified.

First, the study established that the client (the then Ministry of Local Government) opted to use consultation to engage the major stakeholders in planning, implementation, and monitoring of this project (Interviewee 11). The major stakeholders were the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the Sabatia Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee. The client preferred to use the consultative stakeholder-participation approach because the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the Sabatia Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee were independent entities within the Kenya Government and consultation was the most suitable approach. Information by interviewee 11 who was from the then Ministry of Local Government was corroborated by that from interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 9 and 12, who also reported that the client made use of contractual engagement of the major stakeholders.

The study further established that during the project planning stage, the client consulted the then Ministry of Public Works officers who prepared project drawings, and the bill of quantities because the client did not have capacity to come up with such technical project documents (Interviewee 11).

Moreover, there was evidence that during project implementation, the Ministry of Public Works Officers in charge of Vihiga County were the ones who issued site instructions, supervised project implementation and generated payment certificates as well (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 12). The client also consultatively engaged the Ministry of Health officers and the Sabatia Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee. Respondents reported that the Ministry of Health helped to supervise health and safety-related matters in the project (Interviewee 39); while the Sabatia Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee helped to issue tender documents to prospective contractors (Interviewee 15).

During monitoring of the project, it was established that the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the Sabatia Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee were part of the monitoring team. This was by way of consultation between the client and these other key stakeholders.

The foregoing organizing themes led this study to the global theme that consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the implementation of the Chavakali ESP Market Stalls Project with respect to some of the major stakeholders. This was given credence by many respondents including the client's representative who observed that “...

the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the Sabatia Constituency Stimulus Projects Management Committee were independent entities just as my ministry was in this project. So the best engagement approach was consultative...” (Interviewee 11)

ii) Role of Consultative Model in the Implementation of the Chavakali Project

In order to address the second objective of this study with regard to Chavakali Market Stalls Project, the study sought evidence to show that the consultative stakeholder-participation model as applied in the Chavakali Market Stalls Project had a role in its implementation. Various organizing themes were identified to address this.

On a positive score, one of the organizing themes indicated that it was possible to bring the client, the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the Sabatia Constituency Stimulus Projects Management Committee together to work on the Chavakali Market Stalls Project while at the same time recognizing their status as independent government agencies. Some of the key informants (Interviewee 11, 15 and 39) reported that it was not easy to achieve this kind of working, and that the mutual respect that was fostered by the consultative approach to their participation in this project helped to nurture a conducive working atmosphere in which the outstanding project outputs were achieved.

On a negative score, the study established that whereas the consultative model was applied in order to bring stakeholders to work together on the project, there were no structured coordination and communication mechanisms between the various groups of stakeholders who were working on the project. This engendered delays not only in decision making, but also in communicating the decisions made and the eventual implementation of these decisions. This resulted to elongated project time-frame, cost escalation and the two in turn led to the deterioration of the quality of work done. For instance, there was confusion as to the way forward on the aspect of commissioning of the project for use (Interviewee 1, 2, 7, 12, 15 and 36; FGD-B1 and FGD-B2). According to one of the key informants:

The project has not been handed over to Vihiga County Government by the national government. Thus, Vihiga County Government is unable to initiate any activity about the project and is awaiting authority from the national government. On the other hand, the national government

considers that it has already devolved the management of such projects to Vihiga County and has got no role any more. Clearly, there is definitely a communication breakdown between the two levels of government... (Interviewee 36)

In another organizing theme, the study found out that while applying the consultative model, the project team did not consider the basic tenet of this model that makes continual collection and sharing of information mandatory. This in turn distorted communication between the various stakeholders. According to Probst *et al.* (2003), emphasis in this model should be laid on consultation and gathering of information from other stakeholders (especially for identifying challenges and opportunities, priority setting, and even risk factors), which information should then be applied in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluating the project. Based on Interviewee 1, 2, 7, 12, 15 and 36; and FGD-B1 and FGD-B2, this tenet was not observed in the Chavakali Project and this worked to its detriment as was seen in the debilitating project delays.

On the basis of the foregoing, the study established the global theme (conclusion) that the consultative stakeholder-participation model had both positive and negative role in the implementation of the project. The positive role was manifested in the accomplished project outputs, while the negative one was seen in the failure to commission the project and move it to the termination stage (the project had stalled for over six years). This implies that the negative role on the project outweighed the positive one.

4.5.3 Consultative Model and Implementation of Majengo Market Stalls Project

While addressing the two objectives of this study, there was evidence that left no doubt that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project and that this model had affected project implementation.

i) Evidence of Consultative Model in the Majengo Market Stalls Project

In this project, the then Ministry of Local Government was the client and had a lot of influence on the project given the dominant position that it enjoyed as the owner and funder of the project. The study established that during project planning, the client

consulted the Ministry of Public Works for project drawings and the bill of quantities because the client did not have the technical capacity to carry out those duties (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 12).

Another organizing theme indicated that during project implementation, the client worked on the project together with officers at the then Vihiga District that were drawn from the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and Vihiga Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee using a consultative approach given that all the parties were independent government entities (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 11, 12, and 16). The Ministry of Public Works officers undertook project supervision while the Ministry of Health officials were engaged to check on health and safety standards and Vihiga Stimulus Project Management Committee helped to issue tender documents to prospective contractors (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 12, 16). In consultation with each other, these key stakeholders also constituted a monitoring team which monitored project implementation.

The study thus arrived at the global theme that the consultative stakeholder participation model was used in the implementation of Majengo Market Stalls Project. This was mainly because all these major stakeholders were independent entities in the Government of Kenya and consultation was the best approach of bringing them together to implement the project. The consultative approach manifested in the implementation of the project in several ways as detailed hereafter.

ii) Role of Consultative Model in the Implementation of the Majengo Project

To address the second objective in of this study, the researcher identified organizing themes that indicated that the consultative stakeholder-participation model had a role in the implementation of the Majengo ESP Market Stalls Project.

One of the organizing themes was that the consultative approach which the client adopted towards the other major stakeholders in the project helped to nurture a harmonious working relationship that led to the construction of the structures that had existed at the time of this study. This move was useful because according to some of the respondents, recognition of other government agencies as equal partners in the project made them ready and willing to work together for the success of the project (Interviewee 1 and 12).

Moreover, the consultative stakeholder-participation model was able to bring together various people with varying skills from different ministries. According to some of the respondents, this would not have been possible had the client failed to take a consultative approach to engage the other major stakeholders who possessed the technical know-how of the project. One of the respondents underscored this as follows:

The entire ESP secretariat did not have enough expertise that was required for planning and implementation of this project and many others across the country. So, I was seconded to the secretariat from Vihiga Public Works Office and had to travel all over the country helping to implement the ESP market stalls projects... (Interviewee 12)

However, as a demerit, the consultative model was not backed up by a coordination mechanism between the stakeholders. Consequently, amidst all the stakeholders that were involved in the project, there were no official coordination structures between them about the project. Respondents complained that this challenge always caused confusion and delay in the implementation of project activities. According to the respondents, lack of coordination between stakeholders was well exemplified one time when the client placed an advert in the media. As the advert appeared in the media, the Majengo Constituency Projects Tender Committee that was to issue the tender documents to contractors had no clue about the advert. One of the key informants had the following on this matter:

... we just read it in the press just like other people did. So we joined the rest of Kenyans in asking the client where the tender documents could be obtained. This was indicative of poor coordination within the project ... (Interviewee 7)

The foregoing organizing theme underscored the fact that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was adopted but the requisite coordination that was to be done was ignored and this engendered project delay.

Other than the foregoing, another organizing theme that this study established was that due to lack of an official communication structure that would have been used to

coordinate the various project stakeholders, there was lack of and non-execution of some of the project activities. The study found this to have been a big anomaly as there ought to have been constant communication between officers from different ministries who were involved in the implementation of the project. In an interview, one of the key informants who contributed to this theme explained this limitation as follows:

As an officer of the Ministry of Public Works from Vihiga County, I was not sure for example whether I was supposed to write directly to another officer in the Ministry of Health at the County; or whether I was to write to the officer's seniors who would then pass over the information to the concerned officer. The biggest communication problem was however faced by the Market Management Committees, prospective market stalls vendors and the general public for up to date, they have no idea about what is going on about the project. We do not know who is supposed to be updating them on the progress or lack of it ... (Interviewee 7)

This was evidence that clear lines of communication had not been established between the various stakeholders in this project. This tended to delay decision making and dragged implementation of project activities for a very long time.

On the basis of the foregoing organizing themes, the study arrived at the global theme (conclusion) that the consultative stakeholder-participation model played both positive and negative roles in the project as presented above. However, the negative influence was much more significant because it had contributed to the stalling of the project yet the Vihiga County Government Officers who were in charge of this project had no idea about what could be done as the way forward for this project.

4.5.4 Consultative Model and Implementation of Wemilabi Market Stalls Project

Having set out to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of the Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Project as well as to examine the role of the applied model(s) in the implementation of this project, the study isolated organizing themes that suggested that the consultative stakeholder-participation model

was applied in the Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Project and that this model had a key role in the implementation of this project.

i) Evidence of Consultative Model in the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project

Just like in the other three ESP market stalls projects (Jeptul, Chavakali and Majengo), the study found out that the then Ministry of Local Government was the client and was a dominant stakeholder owing to its status as the owner and funder of the project. This gave the client a lot of influence which the client used to make the major decisions about the stakeholders that were to be engaged to help in the implementation of the project, and the participation model of engaging these stakeholders (Interviewee 12).

The study further established that the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and Emuhaya Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee were some of the major stakeholders in this project. Because these were independent government agencies just like the client was, the client opted for the consultative approach of engaging them in the project. Each of these major stakeholders had specific duties which they discharged in consultation with each other.

Based on the above organizing themes, the study identified a global theme that represented the conclusion that the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project applied consultative stakeholder-participation model in its implementation. Under this model, the client, the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health, Emuhaya Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee and Vihiga County Council were recognized as independent entities and were engaged in the project by way of consultation.

ii) Role of Consultative Model in the Implementation of the Wemilabi Project

Having established that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was applied in the Wemilabi project, this study further sought to examine the role of this model in the implementation of the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project. With regard to this, several organizing themes relating to the role of the consultative stakeholder-participation model were identified.

First, the recognition of the major stakeholders as equal partners by use of the consultative approach helped to nurture cordial working relationships between them, and this helped the project to realize its milestones as at the time of this study in April/May

2016. These milestones were the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank, and a concrete refuse bin. This consultative working relationship was underscored by various respondents including one of the key informants whose remarks were quite informative:

We all worked as one team. As Ministry of Public Works, we gave instructions and supervised the implementation of project activities. Those from the Ministry of Health ensured adherence to health and safety standards, while the Emuhaya Constituency Projects Tender Committee issued tender documents while the Emuhaya Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee played an oversight role. Vihiga Municipal Council gave us the land space on which the project stands today. Each officer had the freedom to visit the site at any time when it became necessary. However, when it came to site meetings for monitoring, we all came together to form one team. All the stakeholders respected each other as equal partners ... (Interviewee 2)

Secondly, because of the cordial relationship between the client, the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health, Emuhaya Constituency Stimulus Project Management Committee, Emuhaya Constituency Tender Committee, and Vihiga County Council; these government agencies were able to provide services to the client free of charge (Interviewee 1, 2, 3, 7, 12, and 17). The Ministry of Public Works was in charge of issuing instructions and supervising the project; the Ministry of Health ensured that health and safety measures were adhered to during project implementation; and the Emuhaya Constituency Projects Tender Committee helped in the tendering for the project, while Vihiga County Council gave out the land space on which the project was constructed. All of them took part in monitoring of the project. What this meant was that due to the consultative approach between some of the major project stakeholders, the client did not have to pay for the services that they rendered as government agencies. This enabled the project to realize the afore-stated project outputs.

However, it emerged in another organizing theme that the lack of a clear coordination mechanism between the various stakeholders that were involved in the implementation of the project resulted into confusion in project implementation which in turn delayed the

project. This was seen right from the start of the project (as was reported by several respondents including interviewee 17) whereby even the Emuhaya Constituency Projects Tender Committee read from the media just like the general public that it was supposed to issue tender documents to prospective contractors. Moreover, the committee had no idea where the tender documents were at the time it received this information.

This study also established that the lack of clear communication lines between the various stakeholders that were engaged in the implementation of this project led to the stalling of the project. This organizing theme was aggregated from basic themes that were partly attributed to various respondents including interviewee 36. The lack of information at the time of the study about how the project was to be operationalized was illustrative of this shortcoming. For instance, when asked about when they expected to be given the stalls, the prospective market stalls vendors remarked as follows:

Ever since the project started, no one has addressed us whether formally or informally about it. We just saw project activities going on. We are completely in the dark yet we are key stakeholders. We have been following up on this project with our leaders and can assure you that even the government officers from Vihiga County who implemented this project do not know when it will become operational. Everyone is at a loss on this one... (FGD-D1 and FGD-D2)

To further illustrate the poor communication in the project, another respondent expressed reservations about how communication and coordination had been done in this project as follows:

To me, another major weakness in this project has been lack of proper coordination and communication mechanisms. To date, this project has not been handed over to Vihiga County by the national government, yet no one in the ministry of devolution at the national level knows when this will be done. As an officer in charge of the project at Vihiga County Government, I can tell you that I am not sure what we should do next

about the project. It requires further consultation with the national government... (Interviewee 36)

This state of affairs is likely to have arisen from the failure by the project team and stakeholders to establish clear coordination and communication mechanisms, as well as failure to collectively monitor the progress of the project. Thus, the application of the consultative model in this project failed to abide by its basic tenet as recorded by Probst *et al.* (2003). Probst *et al.* (2003) advise that emphasis in consultative model should be laid on consultation and gathering of information from other stakeholders, which information should then be applied in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluating the project. This was not the case in the Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Project.

On the basis of the above organizing themes, this study thus arrived at the global theme that the application of the consultative stakeholder-participation model in the Wemilabi Market Stalls Project had a positive as well as negative role on the project. However, whereas the model helped the project to attain the stated milestones, the project had also stalled partly as a result of the consultative stakeholder-participation models that lacked clear coordination and communication mechanisms between the various stakeholders. This was further illustrated by the prevailing situation at the time of this study whereby all stakeholders of this project did not know the way forward about the stalled Wemilabi Market Stalls Project.

4.6 Cross-case Analysis

The foregoing findings were arrived at on the basis of individual ESP market stalls projects of Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi that had been studied. In order to establish if there were cross-cutting themes between the four projects, the study conducted a cross-case analysis of the findings from the four projects. Consequently, cross-cutting findings about the four projects were further made and were summarized as global themes under the sub-sections that follow.

4.6.1 Project Client

One of the cross-cutting findings across the four projects was that all the four ESP market stalls projects were sponsored by one client who was the then Ministry of Local

Government of Kenya. This was because development of all market infrastructure for agricultural produce in Kenya fell under this ministry and so were the ESP market stalls projects.

4.6.2 Project Objective

The study also established that all the four projects had a similar objective of providing a market structure from where vendors would sell their fresh agricultural products. The assumption was that all fresh agricultural products would be brought to this market from where they would later be sold on wholesale basis for further distribution. However, from the response that was attributed to various respondents as already recorded in section 4.3 of this chapter, this objective may be difficult to actualize if the projects will not be re-oriented to accommodate the needs of various project stakeholders. This was a position which the respondents themselves had emphasized.

4.6.3 Models Applied in the ESP Market Stalls Projects in Vihiga County

One of the objectives of this study was to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of selected rural ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. The study found out that all the four ESP market stalls projects fully applied the top-down stakeholder participation model in their implementation. This was reflected in the fact that the idea of constructing market stalls at Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi in Vihiga County was mooted by top Kenya Government officials, was planned in Nairobi by these officials, and that grassroots stakeholders were not involved in both project planning and implementation. This means that top-down stakeholder participation was the preferred model by which the Kenya Government elected to undertake its ESP projects in Vihiga County.

The study further established that all the projects fully applied the contractual stakeholder-participation model as a result of having engaged the contractor, the suppliers and workers by way of a contract. The client-contractor contracts were formal while the contractor-supplier and contractor-worker contracts were informal. This study interpreted this to mean that this was in keeping with the public procurement laws of Kenya and that there would not have been any other way of engagement between the concerned parties in such a public development project.

Moreover, this study established that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was fully applied by the four projects as well. The consultative approach involved the major stakeholders of these projects who were the client, the Ministry of Public Works, the Ministry of Health, the constituency stimulus projects management committees and the four constituency projects tender committees of Hamisi, Sabatia, Vihiga and Emuhaya. Consultation was deemed to have been the appropriate model for the client to engage the aforementioned major stakeholders because all of them were independent Kenya Government agencies and required to be engaged as such. Moreover, consultation was the most appropriate means of gathering and sharing information about the project.

4.6.4 Aspects of other models in Implementation of Market Stalls Projects in Vihiga County

It has already been established with illustrations that the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder-participation models were fully applied in the implementation of ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. It also emerged that some aspects of the bottom-up model manifested in the implementation of all the four market stalls projects. In the four projects, there was evidence that the political and administrative leaders at lower levels including the assistant chief, the chief, member of the County Assembly, and member of the national assembly for the subject project worked together and initiated a move that ensured that the project team hired workers from the locality of the project. This was a bottom-up initiative.

4.6.5 Role of Models in Implementation of Market Stalls Projects in Vihiga County

The second objective of this study was to examine the role of the applied stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of the selected ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. Several cross-cutting organizing themes were isolated with regard to the role of the established stakeholder-participation models in the implementation of Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi Market Stalls Projects. These organizing themes were used to establish a global theme per each of the applied stakeholder-participation model as presented hereafter.

i) Top-down stakeholder-participation Model

This model was found to have shaped project implementation across the four projects

both positively and negatively. The positive role of the model across the four projects is presented first followed by the negative role via several organizing themes as detailed below.

The study established that the top-down stakeholder-participation model was a boost to the projects. Having decided to put up a market stalls project in each of the then four constituencies of Vihiga County, the client provided 10 million Kenya Shillings for each project. This was positive for it would not have been possible for the Vihiga local authority to provide this amount of money. The study also found out that since it was the client who managed land in all the sites where the projects were located, it became easy for the client (using top-down decisions) to allocate the projects land for their construction. It would have been difficult, or it would have taken a long period to get this land had it been under another government agency other than the then Ministry of Local Government. Such merits of the top-down model have been documented by Macdonald (1995) who reports that the major advantages of this model include professional skills, services, material resources and decision-making capacity which may not be available within the local communities.

However, arising from their non-involvement in project planning and implementation, the prospective market stalls vendors had shunned the four projects and insisted that they were not going to accept to occupy them in the state in which they were. The main reasons given for this position were that the prospective vendors were not engaged during planning and implementation and that the project failed to take their needs into account (FGD-A1, FGD-A2, FGD-B1, FGD-B2, FGD-C1, FGD-C2, FGD-D1, and FGD-D2). This was echoed by interviewee 4, 5, 8, and 10. However, the respondents differed on the way forward. Jeptul Project stakeholders wished that the market stalls should have been improved in order to meet their needs, while the Chavakali Project stakeholders demanded that the Government of Kenya should transfer the project to other uses. The Majengo stakeholders indicated that they wished that the stalls should have been modified according to their needs failure to which the structures should be demolished so that the land space on which they stand can be utilized for other community purposes. Lastly, Wemilabi stakeholders asked to be given individual metallic stalls in place of the ESP market stalls. This study supports the view that the potential users were justified in insisting that they should have been fully involved in implementation of these four ESP

market stalls projects. Although interviewee 7 had tried to absolve the client from the rushed manner in which the projects were undertaken thereby leaving out many stakeholders, the reason for having rushed the projects was not justifiable since all the projects had ended up stalling; yet taking a little time to plan properly would have averted this situation. Alienation of key stakeholders pointed to the project teams' failure to observe expert opinion that by incorporating local interests and knowledge and even other material resources, policy solutions may be better adapted to local conditions thereby improving the results of any development endeavor (Dougill *et al.*, 2006; Reed, 2008). Consequently, all the four projects missed out on this critical input by local stakeholders.

This study also established that the failure by the concerned project team to involve all the key stakeholders in the planning and implementation of these projects was what led to their stalling. This brought to the fore the reality that the project team did not appreciate that even in top-down projects, all the key stakeholders deserve to be engaged at all project phases and their views incorporated in the planning and implementation of projects. What transpired in the four projects was against the basic principles of meaningful stakeholder participation in projects as propounded by Donaldson and Preston (1995) in the broad framework of the stakeholder theory. Non-involvement of key stakeholders in these projects also violated provisions of the Constitution of Kenya (GoK, 2010) which makes it mandatory for all public projects to have public participation at all stages. Although this constitution took effect in August of the year 2010 after the projects had been implemented in 2009, this should not have been taken as an excuse for the continued alienation of key project stakeholders. The project teams should have instead taken measures to ensure that the remaining project activities were undertaken by engaging all stakeholders, because the Constitution of Kenya makes it mandatory to do this.

Monitoring of the four ESP market stalls projects was another aspect in which some of the key stakeholders (local political and administrative leaders, prospective market stalls vendors, and project workers) were not involved. Monitoring is the process of overseeing the project to ensure that input deliveries, work schedules, target outputs and other required actions proceed according to the project plan (Nyonje, Ndunge, & Mulwa, 2012). The non-involvement of some of the key stakeholders was mainly attributed to the top-down approach that was applied in these projects in which the project team

mistakenly did not find it necessary to involve all the stakeholders in the monitoring of the projects. Although Nyonje *et al.* (2012) point out that implementation monitoring, results monitoring, outcome monitoring and impact monitoring are some of the key types of monitoring to be considered in any project; there was evidence that the project team mainly focused on implementation monitoring of the four projects. Nonetheless, some of the aforementioned key stakeholders were not invited to participate in the monitoring of project implementation, and this diminished their chances of advancing their interests in the project as detailed earlier in this chapter.

Generally, the study found out that across the four projects, the top-down implementation model led to the following: Non-attainment of project scope, project delays that were caused by the client or by additional project activities (as was the case for Jeptul, Chavakali and Wemilabi), escalation of project cost arising from the said delays and extra project activities, and eventual lowering of the quality of the structures as a way of mitigating the rising project cost. This model also led to projects that did not address all the user needs. These negative developments were interrelated because project delays led to cost escalation which in turn necessitated use of low quality or quantity of resources or both.

The combined consequence of these shortcomings was that the projects eventually stalled and that was the state in which they were at the time of this study between April and May of 2016. This meant that the life-cycle scope of the projects had also not been attained. The projects had thus not progressed from implementation to termination. The narrative accounts of various respondents as noted in section 4.3 of this chapter as well as physical observation that was done by the researcher attested that indeed the projects had stalled (Example appendix 15, 23, 30, 36). As it is the norm in project management, project termination involves ascertaining by all stakeholders that all the project activities have been completed, and handing over of the project to the client has been done. None of the projects had procedurally fulfilled this at the time of this study. It was therefore an objective assessment of this study to conclude that the projects had stalled.

Other aspects of the projects that mirrored negative role of the top-down model across the four projects were that in all the projects, electricity had not been connected, the water tanks could not hold any water (Appendix 15, 22, 33 and 37), the stalls were not

suitable with slanting tops and too small spaces (Appendix 17, 26, 31 and 38), the markets were not secure (Appendix 15, 27, 32 and 38), and the markets were not comfortable to work in (due to rain, wind, sunshine). Moreover, the space occupied by some of the markets was too small (Jeptul, Chavakali and Majengo), the concrete waste bin was not well positioned in relation to the stalls meaning that the wind would always be blowing bad smell towards the stalls making them uncomfortable to work in (Majengo, Jeptul, Wemilabi), and there was no easy access to and moving around the market especially for big vehicles (Jeptul and Chavakali). Many of the respondents had expressed reservations about the shortcomings in these projects including interviewee 12 who pointed out that:

... shortcomings in these projects largely resulted from the top-down nature by which the projects were done. This was bound to happen because in projects where the views and needs of the majority of stakeholders are ignored, you will always end up with projects that do not meet their needs and which are characterized by many challenges... (interviewee 12)

Unlike the above common characteristics across the four projects, the top-down approach in project implementation also had a negative role in the four projects differently. The Jeptul project lacked a toilet block, and the shutters for the stalls had not been fixed (Appendix 17). For the Chavakali project, the location was not appropriate (too far from the town center), and – according to the respondents - not safe as well. For the Wemilabi project, the toilet was right next to other people's houses and business premises (Appendix 40); a situation which stakeholders observed that was going to make it difficult for the facility to be used without inconveniencing the people who stayed in its vicinity.

In brief, the foregoing cross-case analysis led this study to the global theme that the top-down stakeholder-participation model had common positive and negative roles across the projects. Negatively, the top-down model contributed to the stalling of the projects and consequently turning them into failed projects.

ii) Contractual Stakeholder-participation Model

Like the top-down model, the contractual model played both a positive and negative role in the implementation of the four projects. Positively, one of the common organizing themes that emerged was that the model ensured that contractors followed the project design in constructing every project. Each project has the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank and a concrete waste bin; except for Jeptul where space was still being sought for the toilet block and concrete waste bin. Thus, this model made the contractors to strive to attain the scope of the project in terms of the structures which were to comprise each project. This meant that the outputs that had so far been realized in the four projects were partly as a result of the contractual agreements that were used. Some of the key respondents indicated that without the contracts as points of reference, the projects would have registered much less outputs. These outputs were the main structure, an office block, a toilet block (save for Jeptul Project), a water tank and a concrete waste bin.

On the other hand, the contractual model negatively affected the projects. For instance, it allowed the client to delay all the four projects and escalate their cost without any deterrent measures to the said client. This was because penalties for non-compliance by the client were not stipulated out in the contract document. It also allowed the client to pass over extra cost to the contractor regardless of who had led to the cost overrun. In all the four projects, the client caused most of the project delays but it was the contractor who met the resultant cost. The study further found out that eventually, the cumulative effect of project delays and cost overrun was the stalling for six and a half years (at the time of this study) of all the four projects.

In all the four projects as well, cost overrun that resulted from incessant project delays in turn led to the lowering of the quality of the structures that were constructed. To illustrate this, the study found out that some of the facilities were not in a usable state as at the time of this study due to their low quality. The prospective market stalls vendors via FGDs A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2, D1, and D2 for instance had termed the structures as being of "... very poor quality..." They had also indicated that the water tanks could not hold any water for they were leaking from beneath and the guttering systems were impaired. For the Jeptul Project, the guttering system had not been done at all (Appendix 15). This information was confirmed by the researcher who had physically observed that the floors

and walls of the structures were peeling off, the water tanks had no water yet this was a season of heavy rains (April-May 2016), and that the guttering system was not good.

The study concluded by way of a global theme that generally, the contractual stakeholder-participation model had a positive as well as a negative role in the projects. However, the negative role was much more profound for it had contributed to the stalling of the projects.

iii) Consultative Stakeholder-participation Model

The study found out that this model had played a role across the four projects in several ways. This role is presented using several organizing themes.

First, in applying consultative stakeholder-participation, the project was able to bring the client, the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health, constituency stimulus project management committees, constituency projects tender committees together to work on the projects while at the same time recognizing their status as independent government agencies. This way, the model fostered mutual respect which helped to nurture conducive working relations between some of the key project stakeholders and this led to the achievement of the project outputs that had been registered across the four projects at the time of this study. Each project team had managed to construct the main structure, an office block, a toilet block (save for Jeptul), a water tank, a concrete waste bin (except Jeptul), and a fence (except for Jeptul and Wemilabi).

On the negative side, there were common organizing themes that revealed that there were no structured coordination and communication mechanisms between the key groups of stakeholders. This was responsible for delays not only in decision making, but also in communicating the decisions made to project stakeholders and the eventual implementation of these decisions. This arose out of failure by stakeholders to observe a basic tenet of the consultative model which holds that focus in this model should be on consultation and gathering of information from other stakeholders and applying this information in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the project (Probst *et al.*, 2003). This led to elongated project time-frame which in turn led to cost escalation and the two in turn contributed to the deterioration of the quality of work that was done. This was a negative turn of events in these projects.

From the foregoing organizing themes, this study arrived at the global theme that

consultative stakeholder-participation model had both positive and negative role on the four projects, whereby the negative role contributed to the stalling of the projects for over six and a half years. They were consequently categorized as failed projects.

iv) Bottom-up Stakeholder-participation Model

For the first time in these projects, the local leaders helped to have a bottom-up initiative incorporated into the project when the leaders succeeded to convince the project team to hire project workers from project localities. Other than that, at the Majengo Project, due to lack of enough space at the project site, the local leadership agreed to give an alternative site for the toilet block and lobbied the project team to construct it there. According to interviewee 5 and 20, after months of lobbying, the toilet block was constructed at the alternative site.

This study therefore concluded that the bottom-up stakeholder-participation model was partially applied in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. Given that the top-down model had also been applied in the same projects, this is to mean that the top-down model and the bottom-up model are not mutually exclusive in their application in projects, and the degree of their application and how they are applied is what determines their role in a project. For the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, the top-down model adversely affected the projects because it was fully applied but in the wrong manner. On the other hand, the role of the bottom-up model in these projects was minimal as it was just partially applied.

With reference to all the four projects and the four stakeholder-participation models that were applied, this study found out that each of the projects applied more than one stakeholder-participation model. Thus, each of the four projects namely Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi applied the top-down, bottom-up, contractual and consultative models. This confirmed that several stakeholder-participation models which are grounded on different premises/assumptions can be applied in a single project as documented by Weible, Sabatier and Lubell (2004). In this case, each model has a specific role to play in the management of stakeholders in a project.

This study has also demonstrated that the role of these models in a project will largely depend on how they are applied in that particular project. Even a model like

bottom-up can fail to enable stakeholders effectively take part in a project if it is not applied well. This resonates with Sherman and Ford's (2014) finding from the case studies which they conducted that "... participatory methods can fail to genuinely empower or involve communities in adaptation interventions in both top-down and bottom-up approaches. It is thus crucial to carefully consider stakeholder engagement strategies..." (p. 418). This study opines that perhaps the answer lies in finding a project team that is genuine in its intentions, understands the strengths and limitations of the stakeholder-participation models of choice and proceeds to build the capacity of the stakeholders and that of the models as they seek to apply them in a project.

This study concluded that the application of top-down, contractual, consultative and bottom-up stakeholder-participation models had a positive as well as a negative role in the implementation of the projects although the negative role was much more pronounced as it largely led to the stalling of all the four projects. Incidentally, this confirms Tseng & Penning-Rowsell's (2012) position that the existing stakeholder-participation models are unable to address the shortcomings that arise out their application in the undertaking development projects. In such circumstances, it is prudent to explore the possibility of designing and adopting more resilient stakeholder-participation models as suggested by Stanghellini (2010).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the discussion of findings, conclusions and recommendations have been addressed. This study set out to establish stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the implementation of selected rural ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County and to examine their role in the implementation of the subject projects. The ESP market stalls projects were located at Jeptul Town, Chavakali Town, Majengo Town, and Wemilabi Shopping Center in Vihiga County. The study was guided by the stakeholder theory. Data was collected using document review, interviews, FGDs and field-based observation, while data analysis was done using content analysis in the broad framework of within-case analysis and cross-case analysis. While analyzing data, the findings were treated in terms of basic themes that were synthesized to give organizing themes which were in turn merged into various global themes that represented the various study conclusions. The discussion of findings, conclusions and recommendations are as presented hereafter.

5.2 Discussion of Study Findings

The discussion of findings is presented with reference to the thematic areas as reflected in the two objectives of this study. Several stakeholder-participation models were found to have been applied in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, and the applied models were found to have played a role in the way the subject projects were implemented as detailed below.

5.2.1 Top-down Stakeholder-participation Model

The study found out that in all the four projects, the top-down stakeholder-participation model was applied to engage stakeholders in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects. These stakeholders included the local political and administrative leaders, and various government officers who worked at levels lower than the national level in the client ministry (the then Ministry of Local Government) as well as other participating

ministries (Ministry of Public Works and Ministry of Health). In line with the top-down model, the project plans were just handed over to the lower level stakeholders for implementation after having been planned by top Government of Kenya Officials who were based in Nairobi. Various respondents in this study explained that the choice of the top-down model by the Government of Kenya in these projects was deliberate since it was the one funding all the projects and wanted to have a firm grip on how the projects were going to be implemented. This model therefore guaranteed the Government of Kenya the capacity to make all the major decisions concerning the projects, as was seen during project planning and implementation.

The study further established that the top-down model had a positive role in the projects given that the client had the financial capacity and opted to provide ten million Kenya Shillings for each of the four projects. This was positive for it would not have been feasible for the Vihiga Local Authority to provide this amount of money. The study also found out that it was easy for the client to allocate the projects space for their construction because it was the client who managed land in the areas where the projects were located. Otherwise, it would have been difficult, or it would have taken a long period to get this space had it been under another government agency other than the client.

On the other hand, the top-down model had its demerits on the projects. For instance, the lower level stakeholders were not impressed by the manner in which the ESP projects were planned and implemented and thus, they rejected the projects. This was not unprecedented because it is on record that although it is characteristic of top-down participation to structure itself around the use of professional leadership that is provided by external resources that plan, implement, and evaluate development projects or programs (Macdonald, 1995), literature has equally shown that this characteristic leads to failed projects. Examples of failed projects are the ones studied by Nina *et al.* (2009), Dadvar-Khani (2012), and Tseng and Penning-Rowsel (2012) which failed to achieve their objectives due to the limitations of the top-down model that they applied.

Moreover, the land space that was unilaterally allocated by top leaders for Jeptul, Chavakali and Majengo projects was not suitable. Respondents argued that the Jeptul and Majengo projects were put up in a very small place and many stakeholders opined that this was going to make it difficult to conduct business. The Chavakali site was said to be unsafe and far away from the town's central business district. These shortcomings

provided evidence to confirm that top-down approaches and their management initiatives can be lacking in crucially relevant local realities, perspectives and input (Smith, 2008). As a result, top-down 'experts' can develop management policies, programs or projects that are locally unsuitable, unsustainable and unaccepted (Carr, 2002) thereby leading to conflicts and wastage of scarce resources. It is for such reasons that Carr (2002) notes that top-down stakeholder-participation has lost appeal. Ironically, there is the question of why the Government of Kenya chose to use this model when its limitations are well known. This move can however be understood because studies have shown that many governments prefer top-down approaches because this gives them room to resist sharing decision-making power with other stakeholders (Haque *et al.* 2002; Tseng and Penning-Rowell, 2012; Warner, 2006) by refusing to integrate local skills and knowledge into their plans, deliberately delaying engagement with stakeholders, supporting the provision of only one-way information flow, and holding superficial public meetings. This eventually undermines the value of stakeholder participation as was the case in the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County.

On the negative side as well, the study also established that as a result of the top-down model, some of the lower level stakeholders like the local community and local political and administrative leaders did not participate in the implementation of the projects. The reason given by the project team via its representative for the non-inclusion of all stakeholders in the implementation of the project was that since this was an economic stimulus project, there was no time for proper planning and inclusion of all stakeholders (interviewee 7). However, the affected stakeholders in this project responded by saying that this reason was not convincing as it was just an excuse for excluding some stakeholders from such important projects. The stakeholders explained that the reason for this was that the authorities feared that stakeholders would have demanded that the projects be implemented in an organized manner and with their full input, yet the Government of Kenya appeared not to be ready for this. This study found the non-inclusion of some stakeholders from project activities to have violated the Constitution of Kenya which makes it mandatory for all public projects to engage the relevant stakeholders (GoK, 2010). This study therefore holds the position that if the disenchanted stakeholders insist on rejecting the projects, there may be no other remedy because the mistake lies on the planners of the project.

Due to the top-down model that excluded the participation of some of the stakeholders, the study found out that the market stalls had been done with limited scope. First, they were designed to accommodate only 24 vendors. Secondly, they did not meet space, design and selling-position requirements of the prospective vendors. Except for the Wemilabi project, the other three projects were squeezed into very small space making it difficult for easy movement of both humans and vehicles around the market.

Other than the foregoing, the study found out that the top-down model led to the delay in the implementation of the projects. Initially, the projects were scheduled to take 6 months. However, over six and a half years later, the projects had stalled. This means that the projects had failed to meet their objectives and were therefore failed projects. This was measured against the definition of a successful project which is the project that meets its objective(s) within specified scope, time, cost, and quality specifications. The challenge of delay in projects that apply the top-down model of stakeholder participation is common. This is attested to by among others, Tseng and Penning-Rowell (2012) who conducted a similar study on a community project in Taiwan which faced similar delay-related limitations.

Moreover, the study established that delay led to project price escalation as a result of increase in the cost of material, transport and labor. Price escalation on the other hand led to the stalling of the projects because the contractors felt financially constrained and did not for example connect electricity to the markets, although they had completed the wiring and fixed the bulbs. This aspect of the projects overshooting their budgets also contributed to their stalling.

The study further noted that the escalation in the cost of the projects was partially responsible for the low quality of the structures that were put up within each of the projects. Across all the four projects, the floors and walls of the structures were already peeling off implying either the use of low quality of materials, low quantity of materials, or a combination thereof. Although some of the respondents who were interviewed openly denied that the structures were of low quality, others via FGDs confirmed that the structures were indeed of low quality. This was triangulated by observations by the researcher that clearly indicated that the surfaces had been peeling off.

As a result of the top-down model, the study also found out that the prospective market stalls vendors had shunned the projects because they had at the time of this study

indicated that they were not going to occupy the stalls. There were common main reasons as to why this was the case. In all the four projects, the prospective market stalls vendors cited lack of involvement in project implementation, poor design of the main structure and the stalls, and the limited number of vendors that had been planned to be accommodated in the stalls. However, some of the projects experienced unique reasons as to why the prospective market stalls vendors had shunned them. For the Majengo Project, respondents observed that the market was far away from the reach of many of the would-be customers. For Chavakali, they observed that the market was not necessary, isolated, and insecure. As such, the projects did not meet the expectations of some of the key stakeholders and as Tseng and Penning-Rowse (2012) established, lack of stakeholder participation always leads to distrust, conflicts, blame, and frustration in the project planning and implementation processes. This is indicative of the critical role of meaningful stakeholder-participation and management in any project.

5.2.2 Bottom-up Stakeholder Participation Model

The study established that this model was partially applied in the implementation of the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County. It was for this model that all the four projects benefited from cheap labor from the local community of the projects. It also enabled the Majengo Project to get alternative space for the toilet block free of charge. Therefore, as part of the remedy to the challenges of the top-down model, the bottom-up stakeholder participation model which was partially applied in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects is one that has the potential to address most of the limitations that befell the four projects had it been fully adopted. Literature has indeed shown that the bottom-up approach encourages projects to seek for, appreciate and apply local knowledge, and to consider local people themselves as the appropriate experts about their local environments (Chambers, 1997). This has been confirmed by other studies like that of Smith (2008) who studied the Punjab Rural Water Supply Project. According to Smith (2008), this was the first bottom-up participatory water management project in Punjab Province of Pakistan in which the design and construction of wells and water supply distribution systems were completed according to local community input, besides other benefits of this project to the community, which were attributable to the bottom-up model. Thus, this study found out that both top-down and bottom-up models can be

applied in one project, each coming in to address the limitations of the other. Project managers need to explore this approach further.

5.2.3 Contractual Stakeholder-participation Model

The study established that contractual engagements were also applied in the implementation of the four market stalls in Vihiga County. This model was used to guide the working between the client versus the contractor, the contractor versus the workers, and the contractor versus the suppliers. The contract between the client and contractor was formal while the ones between the contractor versus the workers, and the contractor versus the suppliers were informal.

As for the role of the model in the implementation of the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, the model ensured that contractors stuck to the design and number of structures that were to be put up in every project. Each project had the main structure, an office block, a toilet block, a water tank and a concrete waste bin except for Jeptul where space was still being sought for the toilet block. Thus, save for the Jeptul Project, the contractual model ensured that the scope of the project in terms of project components was attained.

The model also ensured that each party in the contract played their role in the project. This helped in the attainment of the afore-stated implementation outputs of the four market stalls projects. In the wake of project cost escalation that characterized these projects, it is possible that the contractors would not have honored their obligations were it not for the legal contracts in which they had entered to deliver the projects. The model is therefore critical in executing any project.

One of the limitations of this model was that it aided the client to delay all the four projects and escalate their cost without bearing any responsibility or penalties because the contract did not provide for such remedies to the contractor. The model also allowed the client to pass over extra cost to the contractor regardless of who caused the costs. The contractor was then compelled to cover all project costs within the available budget and by doing so, the model largely led to the lowering of the quality of the structures. It can be argued that by design, the contract was skewed in favor of the client who in this case was a government agency. This study holds the position that the only way that such contracts can be meaningful to all parties is to have all interested parties review the

framework of these contracts in order to make them fair to all parties that contractually engage in projects.

5.2.4 Consultative Stakeholder-participation Model

The study established that this model was used to conduct project activities between some of the key stakeholders who included the client, the Ministry of Public Works, the Ministry of Health, stimulus project management committees and constituency projects tender committees.

Other than that, the study found out that the consultative stakeholder-participation model was credited for bringing together independent government agencies (the client, the Ministry of Public Works, Ministry of Health and the two committees) to work on the project while at the same time recognizing their status as independent government agencies. This fostered mutual respect which contributed to the achievement of project outputs across the four projects. The model was also able to bring together various staff with varying skills from different ministries which enabled the projects to attain their outputs.

However, this model was limiting as well. The study established that there were no structured coordination and communication mechanisms between the four major groups of stakeholders. As indicated earlier, this manner of applying the model was responsible for delays not only in decision making, but also in communicating the decisions made and the eventual implementation of these decisions to project stakeholders. The result was an increase in the time taken to undertake the project, which led to cost escalation and the two in turn led to the deterioration of the quality of work done on the various project structures. This would have been averted if the project team had applied the basic rule in consultative participation. According to Probst *et al.* (2003), emphasis in this model should be laid on consultation and gathering of information from all the stakeholders, which information should then be applied in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluating the project. This aspect of this model was not followed and the consequences were evident.

In a nutshell, all the four ESP market stalls projects applied the top-down, contractual, consultative, and bottom-up stakeholder-participation models. These models manifested in the implementation of the projects positively as well as negatively as

discussed above. It should be noted that there was similarity in terms of how the stakeholder-participation models generally played a role in the implementation of the four projects where the negative role far outweighed the positive one in all the projects. This similarity was because all the four projects were implemented by one client who largely applied the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder-participation models in all the projects, in a similar pattern.

It should also be noted that this study purposed to study projects that were generally located in and intended to serve a rural setting in Kenya, so as to understand their role in improving livelihood of those dependent on agriculture within such a rural setting. A lesson to be learned is that whereas there are many of such projects across Africa and the globe that succeeded in improving the living standards of the target beneficiaries (as detailed in chapter 2 of this thesis), the four ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County were all counter-productive for reasons that have already been discussed. This is precisely why the recommendations of this study are quite critical in the process of charting way forward for similar future projects.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the foregoing findings, several conclusions were made. In line with its first objective and based on the cross-case analysis, this study concluded that the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder-participation models were widely applied in the implementation of Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo and Wemilabi Market Stalls Projects. The bottom-up model was partially applied in all the four projects.

Another conclusion was that the application of several stakeholder-participation models in a single project is a reality. This was the case for Jeptul, Chavakali, Majengo, and Wemilabi ESP Market Stalls Projects that were undertaken in Vihiga County. Moreover, the study also concluded that the combined role of applying several stakeholder-participation models in a single project can be either positive or negative depending on the nature of the models and how the models are applied in the subject project. For the four ESP market stalls projects, the four models (top-down, contractual, consultative and bottom-up) were not applied well and thus, had a largely negative role in the implementation of the projects, which led to their failure. Examples were where the top-down oriented client caused project delays that in turn led to project cost overrun,

while due to poor coordination and communication in the projects, the consultative model also caused project delays and cost overrun. The contractual model came in to pin the extra project cost on the contractor leading to poor quality project structures.

Based on cross-case analysis as well, this study concluded that the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder-participation models played both a positive and negative role in the implementation of the four ESP market stalls projects. It is only the bottom-up model that did not register a negative role in these projects. The study further concluded that although the application of the aforementioned models generally played a positive and negative role in the implementation of the subject projects, the negative far outweighed the positive and largely contributed to the stalling of the projects which later earned the tag of failed projects.

Another conclusion was that the negative results were not only due to inherent limitations of the models, but also due to lack of proper application of the the models during the implementation of the projects as detailed in chapter 4 of this thesis. This situation is underscored in literature by Sherman and Ford (2014) who established in their study that “...participatory methods can fail to build local capacity and also fail to empower communities by constraining the openness of participation and limiting the contribution of participant input in project implementation...” (p. 433).

Nonetheless, the study also concluded that the reviewed stakeholder-participation models lack the capacity to deliver successful projects mainly as a result of their inherent limitations. The top-down model for instance does not value or promote the inclusion of all stakeholders at every level of decision making and this was evident in the four projects. The Contractual model has the tendency to bind stakeholders to undertake activities which may not be in the best interests of the project or some of the stakeholders, as it happened in the four projects where the contractors were forced to take on extra costs that had been caused by the client without any remedial avenue. The consultative model can only work well in cases where there are proper coordination and communication channels, but this was missing in the four market stalls projects.

It should be noted that the major findings across the four projects had some similarities. This was because the four projects were undertaken by one client (the then Ministry of Local Government) using similar stakeholder-participation models, a common project design, and one project implementation team. Thus all the four projects

were implemented using a common approach.

5.4 Contribution of the Study to the Body of Knowledge

This study has demonstrated that as many stakeholder-participation models as possible can be applied in a single project, each one coming in to serve a specific purpose. Secondly, this study has shown that stakeholder-participation models have merits as well as demerits which play a key role in the projects in which they are applied. This means that the success of a project largely depends not so much on the nature of the applied model, but on how the model is applied. Thus in this context, project success is largely to be found not in the applied model, but rather in the people applying the model and how they apply it to a project.

Moreover, this study has illustrated that given that some of the limitations that related to the application of models in the ESP market stalls projects were found to be inherent in the models, it implies that once the project team elects to apply any model, it should be prepared on how to deal with the shortcomings of the model in order to deliver a successful project. Lastly, the inherent nature of limitations in the reviewed stakeholder-participation models is evidence that there is need for stakeholder-participation models that are have a high degree of freedom from such inherent limitations.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the foregoing conclusions, the study makes the following policy, practice and further research recommendations.

5.5.1 Recommendations for Policy

Policy recommendations are those recommendations that can strengthen policies that govern stakeholder-participation in the implementation of projects. This study recommends that the Kenya Government should design a policy that makes the planning of all publicly funded projects to be inclusive of all the stakeholders as the best way of harnessing all stakeholder views and interests, fostering teamwork and minimizing disputes about the projects. The rationale for this recommendation is that since project planning directly influences project implementation, stakeholders who are not involved at planning stage will definitely not redeem their overlooked interests at the implementation

stage.

This study further recommends that for all publicly funded projects, all stakeholders should be included in their implementation as the surest way of ensuring that their interests as expressed during project planning are implemented accordingly. In the Vihiga Market Stalls Projects, the prospective market stalls vendors' needs were completely ignored and this made them shun the projects all together.

Other than the foregoing, regulations that govern public procurement of goods and services in Kenya should be discussed by all stakeholders with a focus of making them fair to all parties in a project contract. This will in future address some of the challenges that arose in the Vihiga ESP Market Stalls Projects where the client passed over all extra project costs to the contractors yet it was the client who precipitated the project cost overrun. Incidentally, the contractors were bound by the skewed contract to bear the extra costs.

5.5.2 Recommendations for Practice

In order to ensure that a successful project implementation is undertaken, all the aspects of a project life-cycle must be undertaken with participation of all project stakeholders. These are planning, implementation, monitoring, termination and evaluation. This is the only way by which a project can be eventually accepted by all the concerned stakeholders.

Other than that, project teams should ensure that project implementation is procedurally done, and it ought to include implementation planning, activation, operation monitoring, and if necessary, evaluation. Planning refers to all the preparations and activation involves provision of all the resources that are required to undertake the project, while operation is the application of the resources to the various project activities to deliver project outputs. Monitoring ought to cut across the other three aspects of project implementation.

This study has demonstrated that the reviewed stakeholder-participation models lack the capacity to deliver successful projects. These are the top-down, contractual, consultative, bottom-up, collaborative, quadripartite project participation and collegiate stakeholder-participation models. Consequently, project managers ought to first focus on building the capacity of their model of choice (like establishing a system that can select

local people with ability to meaningfully contribute to decision making) before applying it to any given project. This way, it is possible to address the inherent and non-inherent weaknesses of the subject model and therefore guarantee a greater level of project success when applying the model in project implementation.

This study also recommends that project implementation teams should look beyond the current stakeholder-participation models which lack capacity to deliver successful projects and adopt the capacity-building stakeholder participation (CBSP) which this study has developed in response to the call by scholars in participatory development for a shift to more beneficial stakeholder-participation models (Bierele, 2002; Stanghellini, 2010; Tseng & Penning-Rowell, 2012).

Literature has demonstrated that the conventional stakeholder-participation models have limitations that delay or stall projects (Smith, 2008; Tseng & Penning-Rowell, 2012). This position has been corroborated by this study which in section 4.3, has presented empirical data that establishes that even the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder-participation models that were applied in the four market stalls projects in Vihiga County had negatively affected these projects eventually leading to their incessant completion delays and total stalling. The four ESP market stalls projects were considered to be failed projects.

Consequently, this study has developed the CBSP in order to address the limitations that face stakeholder-participation models that have been reviewed in this study. These are the top-down, contractual, consultative, bottom-up, collaborative, quadripartite project participation and collegiate stakeholder-participation models. There is evidence that indeed, all conventional stakeholder-participation models lack capacity to deliver successful projects (Smith, 2008; Tseng & Penning-Rowell, 2012). The CBSP is thus premised on the need to build capacity of all project stakeholders as well as stakeholder-participation models as the only means of enabling them to deliver successful projects. This model is based on the following assumptions:

1. All stakeholders require financial resources with which to gainfully engage in development projects.
2. All stakeholders require technical information with which they can gainfully engage in development projects.
3. All stakeholders require socio-cultural and economic information about the

project environment to enable them gainfully participate in development projects.

4. All stakeholders require equipment that may be necessary for them to gainfully participate in development projects that require such equipment.
5. The level of participation and influence of a stakeholder in a project is determined by the economic, political or social status of the subject stakeholder.
6. Enhanced economic, political or socio-cultural capacity gives a stakeholder a higher status in society. The reverse is true as well.
7. Project stakeholders do not have the same status in society.

These assumptions imply that stakeholders can be ranked in terms of their status in society. Therefore, in the proposed model, project managers can group stakeholders in various levels depending on their status and influence in a project. The lowest level is level 1 and the levels can be as many as there are groups of stakeholders with varied status and abilities, unlike in the rigid Quadripartite Project Participation Model (Boon *et al.*, 2012) where there are only 3 levels of stakeholders. Apart from making a provision for flexible levels of stakeholders, the biggest contribution of CBSP model is the ability to build both stakeholder and model capacity as the basis for effective stakeholder - participation in a project.

This model recommends that with regard to the various challenges (eg. poverty, lack of resources, language and cultural barriers, illiteracy, lack of information, wrong information, suspicion, and unequal power relations) that face the conventional stakeholder-participation models, the project team should first build the capacity of the model and that of stakeholders before proceeding with the project. For instance in a project situation, strengthening structures of the model, providing information where there is none, correcting distorted information, starting a self-help income generating activity, introducing a translator or interpreter where there are communication barriers, introducing adult literacy, and encouraging stakeholder familiarization with each other.

In applying the CBSP, project managers will be able to address challenges that are associated with conventional stakeholder-participation models including those that have been reviewed in this study. It should be noted that the proposed CBSP is versatile since it is designed to be used either alone or alongside any other conventional stakeholder-participation model be it top-down, bottom-up, contractual, consultative, collegiate or any

other model. The CBSP model is represented graphically as shown in figure 5.1

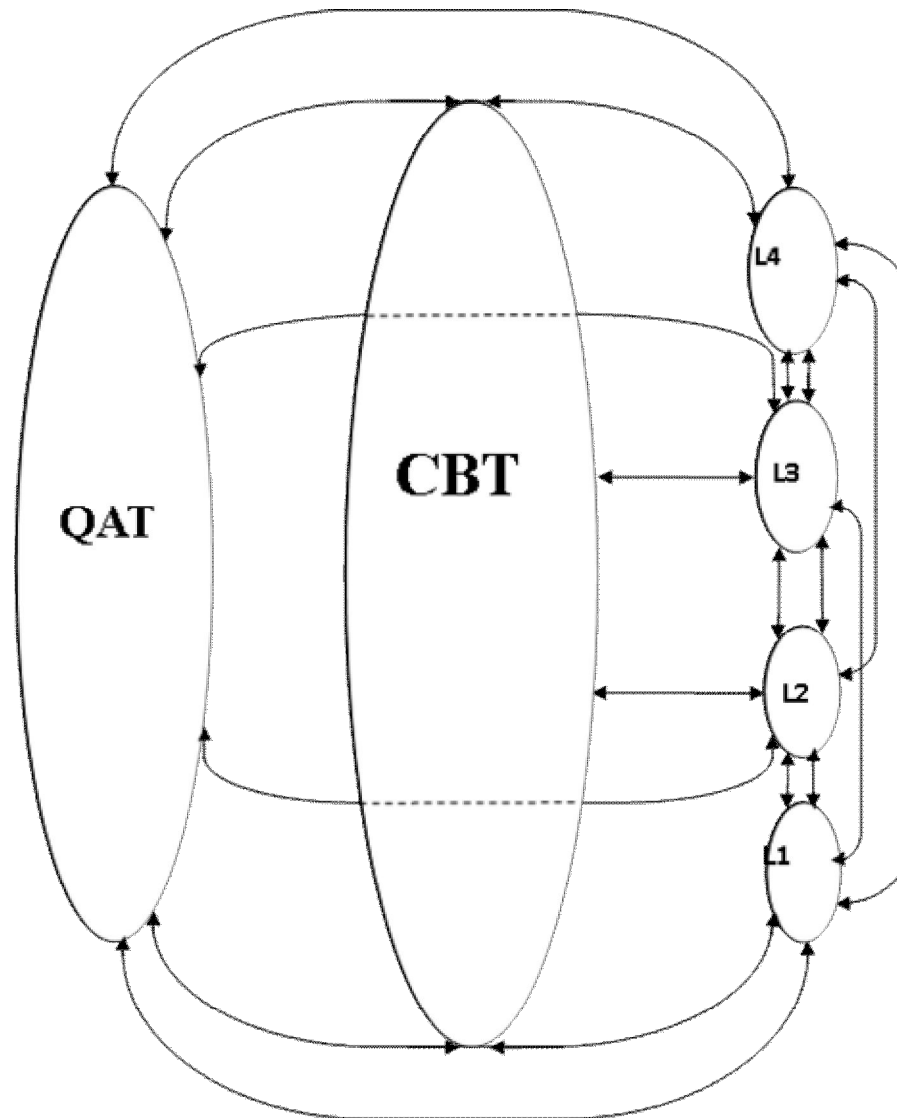


Figure 5.1: Capacity building stakeholder participation model (Source: Author)

Key:

- L1** - Level 1 Stakeholders
- L2** - Level 2 Stakeholders
- L3** - Level 3 Stakeholders
- L4** - Level 4 Stakeholders
- CBT** - Capacity Building Team
- QAT** - Quality Assurance Team

In the CBSP model, various groups of stakeholders have to be identified and ranked according to their status and influence in society, giving as many levels of stakeholders as possible. These stakeholders have to be empowered to interact freely amongst themselves as shown by the arrows. The arrows show that in this model, each group of stakeholders has the opportunity to contact or interact with any other group when there is need to do so. This helps to break communication barriers between the various stakeholders. This model also provides for a capacity building team (CBT) that is charged with the responsibility of enabling the various stakeholders to perform their functions by providing information, guidance, material resources, training, translation services, moral support and any other capacity building support. The model also provides for a quality assurance team (QAT) that should ensure that high quality project outputs are realized, thereby minimizing the use of resources on goods and services that do not meet project quality requirements. This study recommends that once a project manager opts to apply this model, then the model should be fully applied as described above.

5.5.3 Recommendations of the Study on Methodology

This study was able to get rich and in-depth data using qualitative techniques of document reviews, in-depth interviews, FGDs and field-based observation. Based on this data, findings were made on the basis of which conclusions were drawn. Aided by the qualitative techniques, the study revealed that the four projects stalled largely because of the manner in which the top-down, contractual and consultative stakeholder participation models were applied. This study therefore recommends the qualitative methodology to researchers who wish to undertake in-depth studies with the aim of getting rich qualitative data.

5.5.4 Recommendations for Further Research

Several recommendations about further research were made as follows:

i) Prudent use of Scarce Resources

One of the conclusions of this study was that the four ESP market stalls projects that were constructed in Vihiga County had been shunned by the very people they were meant to benefit. The study further concluded that whatever funds that were spent on these projects have been wasted as a result of the failure of these projects to meet the objectives

for which they were undertaken. Consequently, this study recommends that a bigger study should be conducted on the other 206 ESP market stalls projects that were put up in the other 206 constituencies in Kenya then, with the objective of establishing their status. This will show if the billions of Kenya shillings (2,060,000,000) that were spent on the 206 projects were worth the investment.

ii) Strengthening of the Capacity-building Stakeholder-participation Model

This study has suggested the use of the Capacity-building Stakeholder-participation Model (CBSP) to improve on the success of implementing development projects. Researchers are being invited to explore how this model can be strengthened and empirically tested in order to prepare it as a stakeholder-participation model of choice in project management.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION BY NACOSTI



NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241349, 310571, 2219420
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Email: secretary@nacosti.go.ke
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When replying please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/16/78528/10497**

Date:
21st April, 2016

Benard Muronga Kadurenge
University of Nairobi
P.O. Box 30197-00100
NAIROBI.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *“Stakeholder-participation models and implementation of selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County, Kenya,”* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Vihiga County** for the period ending **19th April, 2017**.

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Vihiga County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.


BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Vihiga County.

The County Director of Education
Vihiga County.

APPENDIX 2: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION BY VIHIGA COUNTY

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



**OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT**

**Email: vihigacc1992@gmail.com
Telephone: Vihiga 0771866800
When replying please quote**

**COUNTY COMMISSIONER,
VIHIGA COUNTY,
P.O. BOX 75-50300,
MARAGOLI**

REF: VC/ED 12/1 VOL.1/146

27th April, 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION – BENARD MURONGA KADURENGE.

This is to introduce to you Mr. Benard Muronga Kadurenge a student at University of Nairobi who has been authorized by the National Commission for Science to carry out research on *“Stakeholder-participation models and implementation of selected rural market stalls projects in Vihiga County, Kenya”* for a period ending 19th April, 2017

Kindly accord him all the necessary support.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Erastus M. Keya'.

**ERASTUS M. KEYA
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
VIHIGA COUNTY**

cc.

The Director General
National Commission for Science Technology (Yours Ref. NACOSTI/P/16/78528/10497
P. O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI dated 21st April, 2016)

APPENDIX 3: DOCUMENT REVIEW CHECKLIST

STAKEHOLDER-PARTICIPATION INFORMATION					
	DOCUMENT (and Date)	Planning for Implementation	Implementation	Monitoring	Evaluation
1.	Letters				
2.	Memos				
3.	Minutes				
4.	Project Plan				
5.	Project bill of quantities				
6.	Project Drawings				
7.	Project Reports				
8.	Field Notes				
9.	Contract Documents				

APPENDIX 4: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION INFORMATION						
	AREA TO BE OBSERVED	OBSERVED	OBSERVED	COMMENT	NOT OBSERVED	COMMENT
1.	Main Building					
2.	Stalls					
3.	Office Block					
4.	Toilet Block					
5.	Water Tank					
6.	Concrete Waste Bin					
7.	Fence					
8.	Road Network					
9.	Lighting for both day and night					
10.	Occupation Status					
11.	General location of stalls					

APPENDIX 5: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT OFFICER FOR THE MARKET STALLS PROJECTS

Guiding questions:

1. Who conceptualized the idea of having market stalls projects?
2. What were the objectives of these projects?
3. Describe your position and role in these projects.
4. Who were the stakeholders who took part in the planning of these projects?
5. In your view, do you think these stakeholders were involved in the planning of the projects?
 - a) If yes:
 - i. Who decided on their inclusion at the planning stage?
 - ii. What method/methods was/were used to engage them at the planning stage?
 - iii. What activities were various stakeholders engaged in during this planning stage?
 - iv. How did information flow between the various project stakeholders at this stage?
 - v. Who made the planning related decisions?
 - b) If no, why were stakeholders not involved in the planning of the projects?
6. To the best of your knowledge, do you think stakeholders were involved in the implementation of the projects?
 - a) If yes:
 - i. Who decided on their inclusion at this stage?
 - ii. What method/methods was/were used to engage them at the implementation stage?
 - iii. What activities were various stakeholders engaged in during this stage?
 - iv. How did information flow between the various project stakeholders at this stage?
 - v. Who made the implementation related decisions?
 - b) If no:
 - i. Why were stakeholders not involved in the implementation of the projects?
 - ii. How did this affect the implementation process?
7. a) How did the national government officers coordinate activities of the project during implementation?
 - b) Were national government officers present during project implementation?
 - c) If yes, what were their duties?
 - d) If no, why were they not present and how did this affect the project?
8. In view of how the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County have performed, do you feel there is an alternative way by which stakeholders would have been engaged in the projects?
9. Have these projects met the aspects of project scope, cost, time and quality?
10. What is your recommendation for the implementation of such future projects with regards to stakeholder-participation?

APPENDIX 6: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR VIHIGA COUNTY GOVERNMENT MANAGER FOR THE PROJECTS

Guiding questions:

1. What were the objectives of the ESP market stalls projects?
2. How were you selected to be in charge of these projects?
3. What are/were your duties in the ESP market stalls projects?
4. In your view, do you think there were preparations before the implementation of these projects?
 - a) If yes:
 - i) Were you involved in these preparations for the implementation of the projects?
 - ii) If yes, how were you involved?
 - iii) If no, why were you not involved in the preparations for project implementation?
 - iv) What challenges arose as a result of your non-involvement?
 - v) What groups of people were involved in the preparations for project implementation?
 - vi) Who decided on their inclusion at this stage?
 - vii) What approach was used to engage them in this planning for implementation process?
 - viii) What activities were the various groups engaged in during this stage?
 - ix) Who made the planning (for implementation) related decisions?
 - x) Were stakeholders' views used in this planning for implementation process?
 - If yes, how?
 - If no, why were their views not used?
 - b) If no, why were there no preparations before implementation of the project?
5. To the best of your knowledge, what categories of people were involved in the implementation of the projects?
 - i) Who decided on their inclusion at this stage?
 - ii) What approach was used to engage them in the implementation of the project?
 - iii) In your view, why were they engaged in the manner that you have described?
 - iv) What project implementation activities were the various groups engaged in?
 - v) Were they also involved in monitoring and evaluating the project?
 - vi) Who made the implementation related decisions?
 - vii) Are/were stakeholders' views used in making implementation decisions?
 - a) If yes, how?
 - b) If no, why were their views not used?
 - viii) How did information flow between the various project stakeholders at this stage?
 - ix) What are the merits of how stakeholders were involved at the implementation stage?
 - x) Were there other people who were left out of project implementation?

- a) If yes, explain why.
 - b) How was the project affected for not involving all the stakeholders?
- xi) What were the demerits of how stakeholders were involved in the implementation of the projects?
- 6. In your view, how has the nature of stakeholder participation in the project influenced the aspects of:
 - a) Project scope?
 - b) Project cost?
 - c) Project time-frame?
 - d) Project quality?
- 7. In your view:
 - i) What should have been done to improve your participation in this project?
 - ii) What should have been done to improve stakeholder participation in this project?
- 8. Based on the circumstances of the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, do you think there are other approaches that would have been used to engage stakeholders at this stage of the project?
- 9. What is your recommendation for the implementation of such future projects with regards to stakeholder-participation?

**APPENDIX 7: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR VIHIGA COUNTY GOVERNMENT
OFFICERS IN CHARGE OF THE PROJECTS/ CDF CHAIRMAN**

Guiding questions:

1. What were the objectives of the ESP market stalls projects?
2. How were you selected to be in charge of these projects?
3. In what ways were you involved in the ESP market stalls projects?
4. In your view, do you think there were preparations before the implementation of these projects?
 - a) If yes:
 - i) Were you involved in these preparations for the implementation of the projects?
 - ii) If yes, how were you involved?
 - iii) If no, why were you not involved in the preparations for project implementation?
 - iv) What challenges arose as a result of your non-involvement?
 - v) What groups of people were involved in the preparations for project implementation?
 - vi) Who decided on their inclusion at this stage?
 - vii) What approach was used to engage them in this planning for implementation process?
 - viii) What activities were the various groups engaged in during this stage?
 - ix) Who made the planning (for implementation) related decisions?
 - x) Are/were stakeholders' views used in this planning for implementation process?
 - If yes, how?
 - If no, why were their views not used?
 - xi) How did information flow between the various project stakeholders at this stage?
 - b) If no:
 - i) Why were there no preparations before implementation of the project?
 - ii) How did this influence project implementation?
5. To the best of your knowledge, what categories of people were involved in the actual implementation of the projects?
 - i) Who decided on their inclusion at this stage?
 - ii) What approach was used to engage them in the implementation process?
 - iii) In your view, why were they engaged in the manner that you have described?
 - iii) What project implementation activities were the various groups engaged in?
 - iv) Were they also involved in monitoring and evaluating the project?
 - v) Who made the implementation related decisions?

- vi) Were stakeholders' views used in the implementation of the project?
 - a) If yes, how?
 - b) If no, why were their views not used?
- vi) How did information flow between the various project stakeholders at this stage?
- vii) What were the merits of how stakeholders were involved at the implementation stage?
- viii) Were there other people who were left out of project implementation?
 - a) If yes, explain why.
 - b) How was the project affected for not involving all the stakeholders?
- ix) What were the demerits of how stakeholders were involved at the implementation of the projects?
- 6. In your view, how has the nature of stakeholder participation in the project influenced the aspects of:
 - a) Project scope?
 - b) Project cost (Inclusion in planning, geographical dispersion etc)?
 - c) Project time-frame?
 - d) Project quality?
- 7. Based on the circumstances of the ESP market stalls projects in Vihiga County, do you think there are other approaches that would have been used to engage stakeholders at this stage of the project?
- 8. What is your recommendation for the implementation of such future projects with regards to stakeholder-participation?
- 9. What do you think should be the way forward on this project?

APPENDIX 8: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PROJECT CONTRACTOR

Guiding questions:

1. How did you become the contractor for this market stalls project?
2. Is your contract for your work on this project formal or informal?
3. What were the roles of each party to this agreement?
3. Do you think there were preparations before the implementation of this market stalls project?
 - a) If yes, were you involved in these preparations for the implementation of the projects?
 - I) If yes:
 - i) How were you involved in the preparations?
 - ii) What groups of people were involved in the preparations for implementation?
 - iii) Who initiated their inclusion at this stage?
 - iv) What activities were the various groups engaged in during this stage?
 - iv) Who made the planning (for implementation) related decisions?
 - v) Are/were stakeholders' views used in this planning for implementation process?
 - If yes, how?
 - If no, why were their views not used?
 - vii) How did information flow between the various project stakeholders at this stage?
 - II) If no, why were you not involved in the preparations for project implementation?
 - b) If no:
 - i) In your view, why were there no preparations before implementation of the project?
 - ii) How did this influence project implementation?
 4. To the best of your knowledge, what categories of people (stakeholders) were involved in the actual implementation of the projects?
 - i) Who decided on their inclusion at this stage?
 - ii) What approach was used to engage the various stakeholders at this stage?
 - iii) How did you select your workers for this project?
 - iv) How did you select your suppliers for this project?
 - iv) What project implementation activities were the various stakeholders engaged in?
 - v) Were they also involved in monitoring and evaluating the project?
 - vi) Who made the implementation related decisions?
 - vii) Were stakeholders' views used in the implementation of the project?
 - a) If yes, how?
 - b) If no, why were their views not used?
 - viii) How did information flow between the various project stakeholders at this stage?

- ix) Were there other people who were left out of project implementation?
 - a) If yes, explain why.
 - b) How was the project affected for not involving all the stakeholders?
- x) What were the merits of how stakeholders were involved at the implementation stage?
- xi) What were the demerits of how stakeholders were involved at the implementation stage of the projects?
- 5. How were project funds disbursed to you?
- 6. In your view, how has the nature of stakeholder participation in the project influenced the aspects of:
 - a) Project scope?
 - b) Project cost (Inclusion in planning, geographical dispersion etc)?
 - c) Project time-frame?
 - d) Project quality?
- 7. In your view:
 - i) What should have been done to improve your participation in this project?
 - ii) What should have been done to improve stakeholder participation in this projects?
- 8. What is your recommendation for the implementation of such future projects with regards to stakeholder-participation?
- 9. What do you think should be the way forward on this project?

APPENDIX 9: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR POLITICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERS

Guiding questions:

1. Were you involved in the general planning of the project?
2. Were you involved in planning for project implementation?
3. Were you involved in the actual implementation of the project?
 - a) If yes:
 - i) Who initiated your involvement in project implementation?
 - ii) What project implementation activities were you engaged in?
 - iii) Were you also involved in monitoring and evaluating the project?
 - iv) Who made the implementation related decisions?
 - v) Were your views used in the implementation decisions of the project?
 - If yes, how did they influence project implementation?
 - If no, why were your views not used?
 - vi) How did information flow between you and other project stakeholders?
 - b) If no:
 - i) Why were you not involved in the implementation process?
 - ii) How has this affected the project?
4. In your view, how did your participation/non-participation in the project influence the aspects of:
 - a) Project scope?
 - b) Project cost?
 - c) Project time-frame?
 - d) Project quality?
5. In your view:
 - i) What should have been done to improve your participation in this project?
 - ii) What should have been done to improve stakeholder participation in this projects?
6. What do you think should be the way forward on this project?

APPENDIX 10: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PROJECT SUPPLIERS

Guiding questions:

1. How did you become a supplier in this project?
2. Is your contract for your work in this project formal or informal?
3. What were the terms of this engagement?
4. Were you involved in the preparations for the implementation of this project?
 - a) If yes:
 - i) How were you involved in the preparations?
 - ii) Who initiated your inclusion at this preparation for implementation stage?
 - iii) What other groups of people were involved in the preparations for implementation?
 - iv) What activities were you engaged in during this stage?
 - v) Who made the planning (for implementation) related decisions?
 - vi) Were your views used in this planning for implementation process?
 - If yes, how did they influence the planning?
 - If no, why were your views not used?
 - vii) How did information flow between you and other project stakeholders at this stage?
 - b) If no:
 - i) Why do you think that you were not involved in the preparations for project implementation?
 - ii) How did this influence planning for implementation?
5. What project implementation activities were you engaged in?
6. Were you also involved in monitoring and evaluating the project?
7. Who made the implementation related decisions?
8. Were your views used in the implementation decisions of the project?
 - a) If yes, how did they influence project implementation?
 - b) If no, why were your views not used?
9. How did information flow between you and other project stakeholders at this stage?
10. In your view, how did the nature of your participation in the project influence the aspects of:
 - a) Project scope?
 - b) Project cost?
 - c) Project time-frame?
 - d) Project quality?
11. In your view, what should have been done to improve your participation in this project?

APPENDIX 11: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PROJECT WORKERS

Guiding questions:

1. How did you get a job in this project?
2. Is the agreement for your work on this project formal or informal?
3. What were the terms of this engagement?
4. Were you involved in the preparations for the implementation of this project?
 - a) If yes:
 - i) Who initiated your involvement in the preparations for implementation?
 - ii) What other groups of people were involved in the preparations for implementation?
 - iii) Who decided on your inclusion at this stage?
 - iv) What activities were you engaged in during this stage?
 - v) Who made the planning (for implementation) related decisions?
 - vi) Were your views used in this planning for implementation process?
 - If yes, how did they influence the planning?
 - If no, why were your views not used?
 - vii) How did information flow between you and other project stakeholders?
 - b) If no:
 - i) Why do you think that you were not involved in the preparations for project implementation?
 - ii) How did this influence project Planning?
5. What project implementation activities were you engaged in?
6. Were you also involved in monitoring and evaluating the project?
7. Who made the implementation related decisions?
8. Were your views used in the implementation decisions of the project?
 - a) If yes, how did they influence project implementation?
 - b) If no, why were your views not used?
9. How did information flow between you and other project stakeholders at this stage?
10. In your view, how did the nature of your participation in the project influence the aspects of:
 - a) Project scope?
 - b) Project cost?
 - c) Project time-frame?
 - d) Project quality?
11. In your view, what should have been done to improve your participation in this project?

APPENDIX 12: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR PROSPECTIVE MARKET STALLS VENDORS

Guiding questions

1. Have you been allocated a stall in the up-coming market stalls building?
 - a) If yes:
 - i) What procedure was used to allocate a stall to you?
 - ii) Was the procedure free and fair?
 - iii) What are the terms and conditions of this agreement?
 - iv) Is the agreement formal or informal?
 - v) When do you think you will be allowed to occupy the stall?
 - b) If no:
 - i) Why do you think that you have not been allocated one?
 - ii) What effort are you making to be allocated a stall?
 - iii) Are you working individually or as a group?
 - iv) Do you think you will eventually get one?
2. Were you involved in the planning and implementation of the project?
 - a) If yes:
 - i) Who initiated your involvement in project implementation?
 - ii) What project implementation activities were you engaged in?
 - iii) Were you also involved in monitoring and evaluating the project?
 - iv) Who made the implementation related decisions?
 - v) Were your views used in the implementation decisions of the project?
 - If yes, how did they influence project implementation?
 - If no, why were your views not used?
 - vi) How did information flow between you and other stakeholders at this stage?
 - b) If no:
 - i) Why were you not involved in the implementation process?
 - ii) How has this affected your interest in the project?
 - iii) What do you think should have been done differently about the market design?
3. In your view, how did the model of stakeholder participation in the project influence the aspects of:
 - a) Project scope?
 - b) Project cost?
 - c) Project time-frame?
 - d) Project quality?
4. In your view, what should have been done to improve your participation in this project?
5. What is your recommendation on what should be done about this project?

APPENDIX 13: GUIDE FOR TRAINING OF RESEARCH ASSISTANTS

1. Meaning of research
2. Types of research
3. Approaches to research
 - a) Quantitative research
 - b) Qualitative research
4. Research Design
5. Case study design
6. Qualitative case study
7. Qualitative data collection strategies
8. Qualitative data analysis strategies
9. Presentation of qualitative data
10. Access to the field
11. Ethical issues in research
12. Interpersonal communication and relationship.

APPENDIX 14: REFLEXIVE JOURNAL

There were factors which the researcher was conscious to guard against during data collection and analysis. These factors related to the assumption that:

1. The client deliberately refused to promote stakeholder participation.
2. The project team deliberately refused to promote stakeholder participation.
3. All the prospective market stalls vendors were opposed to the projects.
4. It is only the stakeholder-participation models that led to the stalling of the projects.

**APPENDIX 15: MAIN STRUCTURE AND WATER TANK AT JEPTUL
MARKET STALLS PROJECT**



**APPENDIX 16: A ROCKY STEEP GROUND AND RAISED FOUNDATION AT
JEPTUL PROJECT**



APPENDIX 17: SOME OF THE STALLS IN THE JEPTUL MAIN STRUCTURE



APPENDIX 18: OFFICE BLOCK TAKEN OVER BY JEPTUL TRADERS



APPENDIX 19: MAIN STRUCTURE AT THE CHAVAKALI PROJECT



**APPENDIX 20: A WATER TANK AND OFFICE BLOCK AT THE CHAVAKALI
PROJECT**



**APPENDIX 21: THE OPEN SPACE IN THE MAIN STRUCTURE OF THE
CHAVAKALI PROJECT**



APPENDIX 22: PART OF WATER TANK AT THE CHAVAKALI PROJECT



**APPENDIX 23: VANDALISM OF ELECTRICAL FITTINGS AT THE
CHAVAKALI PROJECT**



APPENDIX 24: A CONCRETE WASTE BIN AT THE CHAVAKALI PROJECT



**APPENDIX 25: DISINTERGRATING PAVEMENTS, FLOORS AND WALLS AT
THE CHAVAKALI PROJECT**



**APPENDIX 26: STALLS AND DAMAGED FLOORS AT THE CHAVAKALI
PROJECT**



APPENDIX 27: SECURITY SITUATION AT THE CHAVAKALI PROJECT



**APPENDIX 28: ROAD JOINING CHAVAKALI PROJECT TO THE MAIN
ROAD**



APPENDIX 29: MAIN STRUCTURE AT THE MAJENGO PROJECT



APPENDIX 30: AN EATERY WITHIN THE MAJENGO PROJECT



APPENDIX 31: SOME OF THE STALLS AT THE MAJENGO MARKET



APPENDIX 32: A DAMAGED FENCE AT THE MAJENGO PROJECT



APPENDIX 33: A VANDALISED WATER TANK AT THE MAJENGO MARKET



APPENDIX 34: THE MAIN STRUCTURE THE AT WEMILABI PROJECT



APPENDIX 35: THE ROCKY GROUND AT WEMILABI PROJECT SITE



APPENDIX 36: THE RIPPED OFF ROOF AT WEMILABI PROJECT



APPENDIX 37: PART OF THE WATER TANK AT WEMILABI PROJECT



APPENDIX 38: ONE OF THE STALLS AT THE WEMILABI PROJECT



APPENDIX 39: A DAMAGED FLOOR AT THE WEMILABI PROJECT



APPENDIX 40: THE TOILET BLOCK AT THE WEMILABI PROJECT



APPENDIX 41: METALLIC STALLS AT WEMILABI SHOPPING CENTER

