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**// A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION, PROJECT  
MANAGEMENT AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT.**

' A Case Study of Development Projects in Makuyu  
Location, Makuyu Division Murang'a. //

By

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B.A (Hons) 1992, Egerton

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A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of  
Masters of Arts (Planning) in the Department of Urban and  
Regional Planning, University of Nairobi.

Declaration

This Thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

Signed.....*Chege*.....

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This Thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as University Supervisor

Signed.....

Dr E.N Ndegwa  
(Supervisor)

August, 1995

**Dedication**

To my Parents whose love for education knows no bounds.

To all people of genuine goodwill who in one way or the other have tried to alleviate the fate of rural poor.

### Acknowledgement

In coming up with this work I have benefited from the help and support of many people. First I would like to acknowledge the assistance both in terms of time and transportation facilities availed to me by the World Vision (W.V.K) Makuyu division staff.

It would not have been possible for me to undertake this course without sponsorship. To the department of physical planning I say thank you for providing the scholarship.

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## Abstract

The means by which rural development can be achieved has always been a contentious issue. Different governments and agencies have adopted different approaches in different parts of the world. Top bottom approach where development trickles from the top in a hierarchical way to the bottom and the bottom up approach where the beneficiaries are involved in development decision making process are the two most common approaches.

In Kenya the District Focus Strategy for Rural Development was devised as a way of ensuring that the masses are involved in deciding the projects to benefit from money allocated for development by the government. However a good number of development projects in Kenya are started by the people themselves without any external assistance. But just like the donor and/or government funded projects most of community funded projects do not achieve their objectives.

This study focuses on these two types of projects i.e government/donor funded projects and community funded projects and attempts to unravel the causes of failure for most of these projects.

The study employed both primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected from the field through, interviews, direct

observation and questionnaires. The questionnaire was administered using random stratified sampling techniques to avoid any bias.

In the analysis and interpretation of data the idea of community participation in decision making process came out as one of the important factors in explaining project performance. However, education, which was assumed would be a major factor proved to be non-critical in determining performance.

Management, particularly financial management, came out as the single most important cause of project failure. The failure of the two projects identified in the study was attributed to poor financial management. On the other hand, in all the successful projects, financial management of group affairs is based on the correct management principles.

The study concludes by recommending that the issue of community leadership training aimed at equipping the people with appropriate management skills be addressed. A case has also been made for the enhancement of the government's role in self-help movement affairs so as to ensure proper coordination and thereby achieve optimum utilization of scarce resources.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### THE PROBLEM AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

#### 1.1 Introduction

When Kenya attained independence in 1963 the masses both in rural and in urban areas were full of optimism. The policies of the colonial government with respect to areas occupied by black Africans were prejudiced. In urban areas Africans were concentrated in particular localities like Majengo and Bahati. These areas were totally neglected in terms of infrastructural facilities provision. They lacked such basic services like water, roads, electricity and sanitation facilities. In rural areas the situation was not any different. The Africans were concentrated in reserve areas where they were used as pools of cheap labour for the settler's large farms. Education, health and infrastructural facilities were largely neglected.

The domination of the African by the colonisers was driven by selfish capitalistic interests of the colonial powers. The main preoccupation of the colonial authorities was collection of raw materials and the protection of colonies as markets for their produce. All the infrastructural facilities like roads, railways, waterways, as well as commercial and industrial centres which later grew into cities and administrative capitals were primarily meant to serve colonial and not native interests. Any benefits accruing to Africans as consequence of

adoption of indirect rule by the British worsened the situation further by creating traditional rural societies supposedly insulated from the polluting influence of the sophisticated European based trade centres and mining towns. Machyo (1967)

The masses assumed that, with political independence finally achieved, their lives would take a different dimensions altogether. And why not? To them from now on it was upon the independent government, for which they had fought so hard, to provide all the necessities of life. In their perception the government would provide literally everything from education, health, housing and all sorts of infrastructure. All the people had to do, it was assumed, was to sit back and enjoy the fruits of independence.

Indeed Kenya's masses were not the only people having this kind of expectations as has been observed by U.N.C.H.S '...Historical and contextual factors often constrain the capacity and willingness of communities to participate. In several states, for example, independence struggles drew popular support by promulgating policies which have now created high expectation about what the newly established governments can deliver to their citizens. This expectations sometimes result in communities being unwilling to participate in activities, which they perceive to be the responsibility of

the government'. U.N.C.H.S (1986:14)

However this situation where people relied on the government to provide basic necessities like water, health, education and other social amenities could not continue for long. Soon some people realized they could not rely on government to provide the services they needed. The government on its part made deliberate effort to disabuse the populace of this belief.

Nonetheless in it's policy expositions the government remained committed to providing welfare services in the entire country and especially in rural areas where the majority of the Kenyans live. In sessional paper number 10 of 1965 the government declared it's goals to be elimination of poverty, illiteracy and disease.

Today, 1995, more than thirty years after independence the government remains "committed" as ever to the elimination of poverty, illiteracy and disease, at least in it's policy documents. Rural development continues to attract a lot of attention. The national development plans continue to devote substantial amount of space to the strategies to be adopted to achieve rural development. However, a cursory look at the government capital expenditure patterns reveals major contradictions between policy as stated in the development plans and other policy documents and the reality on the

ground.

The gap between urban centres and rural villages in terms of material wealth continues to grow. Up to now planned development seems to mean no more than urban development. The rural villages are characterized by poverty, deprivation and decay. This has forced the educated and able-bodied individuals to migrate to urban centres in search of better opportunities. The best public utility systems like water, sewerage and electricity and other facilities like roads are concentrated in urban areas. Machyo (1967). Nyerere (1982) argues that the lag in rural development is not because of lack of potential but rather due to the fact that whatever surpluses produced by rural areas are extracted and used to finance luxurious consumption patterns of the rich and the kind of development in urban areas which will support the present economic structures.

In Kenya the conditions of life in rural areas are hardly comparable to those of urban areas. "Nairobi today bears scant resemblance to what it really is, the capital of a poor and massively underdeveloped country. Rather it has the brash air of a thriving mid-western city. Driving through the rural areas one finds the other side of the coin, it is extraordinary to see any sign at all of independence" Times (1969). This statement depicts the true picture not only of



Nairobi but also with regard to other major urban centres in Kenya's like Mombasa, Kisumu, Eldoret and Nakuru in relation to their hinterlands. Up to now major capital investments projects continue to be located in or designed to serve urban areas and urban populations. Recent examples here include the Turkwell Gorge hydro-electric power plant which was meant to increase national electric power output (less than a third of Kenya rural households have access to electric power), the Nairobi water project, the third national airport to be located in Eldoret town among others. The rural areas continue to lag behind the urban areas even in projected development of basic services like water.

Table 1

Population targets to be served by organized water points  
1993-96

Year	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
	Actual		Target				
Urban	62.5	64.0	65.5	66.5	68.0	70.0	74.0
Rural	42.0	43.0	43.5	44.5	46.0	48.0	50.0
Total	52.0	53.5	54.5	55.5	57.0	59.0	62.0

Source: Development Plan 1993-96

From the above table by 1991 64 per cent of urban populations in Kenya were served by organized water points compared to 43

per cent for the rural people. The government's own projection indicate a consistent trend whereby rural areas will continue to lag behind urban areas in terms of water provision.

At best the governments efforts towards rural development appear lukewarm. As early as early 1970s the government had realized the need for a change of approach to rural development as is demonstrated by the report of Ndegwa commission of 1971. This commission noted that efforts directed at improving the standards of living for rural communities do not appear to have been well coordinated.

"Rural development must also mean planned development. This means that the process of planning both plan making and plan implementing must be extended down to the level of district and even into division where the administration comes to grips with local realities". (G.O.K 1971:112)

This commission recommended the creation of the post of District Development Officer (D.D.O) who would have some independent powers for the developmental aspects of administration work and whose duties would among others include monitoring and controlling where necessary the self help programmes in the district.

In subsequent policy documents the government emphasized the need for decentralizing planning. The districts were designated as the planning units. But other than policy issues

not much was done by way of operationalizing this planning paradigm. By early 1980s the government had reached the inescapable conclusion that no meaningful development could be achieved without the participation of the intended beneficiaries. It was partly as a result of this realization that the government decided to pursue the recommendations of Ndegwa commission of 1971 more vigorously . The District Focus Strategy For Rural Development was born in 1982. It was envisaged that people in every district would participate right from the household level to the district level using the district planning machinery evolved by the policy makers. This it was felt was the only way that development could be guaranteed as any project implemented would represent the priorities of the people.

Nonetheless even this much vaunted approach does not seem to deliver. This is because the approach has merely shifted centralized power from headquarters in Nairobi to District Commissioner's office. Other factors included here are budgetary constraints and inefficient employment policy which have created a situation where 80 per cent of the government expenditure is recurrent and only the remaining 20 per cent is reserved for capital projects. Add to this the structural adjustment programme and the picture of the government inability to deliver especially in rural areas despite it's stated commitment becomes complete.

The report and recommendations of the working party on government expenditures of 1982 underscored the need for tapping the vast potential inherent in the various communities social systems organization structure for development. 'Self reliance, through both individual and collective efforts, should be encouraged as one of the great African strengths and traditions. The government would endeavour to stimulate by both direct and indirect means, all Kenyans to rely more extensively on their resources, abilities and energies. This principal applies to efforts by individuals to better themselves and their families and to mobilization of community efforts to meet collective needs, such as education, health care, water supplies and rural access roads.

The working party lamented what it called increasing dependency on government by Kenyans on matters which the people themselves could manage. It's recommendations recognized the potential of collective efforts in achieving development. It recommended that such collective efforts be extended in a planned and coordinated manner and that communities assume growing responsibility for the operation and maintenance of many of the community facilities which had been constructed through collective efforts for the benefits of their populations.

However it was in the 1989-1993 development plan that the

government unequivocally expressed it's desire to see greater participation by the people in development activities. The theme of this plan was 'participation for progress'. It emphasized the need for full participation by all the people in development activities. The official government perception of participation was given as the commitment and involvement of government, N.G.O.s, cooperatives, private businesses and individuals in achieving progress for society.

It is probably the realization of this fact that has given greater momentum to the self-help movement countrywide. There has also been a marked increase in the number of N.G.O.s working directly with the rural poor in recent years.

The self help harambee movement whose existence dates back to the independence time has made major contribution to the development of social capital especially in rural areas. Across the country schools, hospitals, churches water projects and even access roads among other infrastructural facilities have been put up through harambee efforts.

The official statistics indicate that the self help participatory movement continues to play an important role in social and economic development nationally as the table below shows.

Table 2

Total value of Harambee contributions

(million pounds)

(1986-1991)	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
Education	12.7	33.8	23.2	28.5	24.5	19.5
Nurseries	0.5	1.1	0.7	1.6	0.3	0.4
Health	5.2	0.6	2.9	1.7	0.6	0.5
Social welfare	4.6	3.1	3.9	3.5	15.7	8.9
Domestic	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2
Water	2.9	0.9	1.9	1.4	0.5	0.5
Transport	0.3	0.04	0.1	0.1	0.06	0.06
Agriculture	0.03	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.4	0.3
Other buildings	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.3
Other construction	0.3	0.07	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.08
Other projects	0.8	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.5	0.4
Total	28.13	42.21	35.5	39.5	43.26	31.14

Source: Development plan 1994-1996

As can be observed from the table the self help movement is involved in virtually the whole spectrum of people's lives. However there is a general tendency especially among politicians to selectively highlight those groups which have successfully achieved their goals conveniently forgetting the many that have failed. A cursory look at the registered self-help groups in any one location in the country reveals that most do not in fact achieve their goals. They usually collapse after a short period of time and often leave bitter memories in the participants which tends to affect their future involvement in group matters.

Many scholars of rural development have advanced the view that failure of development projects can be explained in terms of approaches. Fowler (1984), Stokes (1981), Boyte (1980), Chekki (1980) and Mbithi (1972) have argued that past attempts at development have tended to be too top down to the point of being irrelevant to the targeted beneficiaries. This view is supported by Kurt (1986) who advocates a policy shift to the bottom-up approach which they say could guarantee development by involving beneficiaries in the decision making process from the initial stages of any proposed project.

Others like Brokensaw (1980), Illich (1977), and Gamer (1976) have argued that a bottom up approach seems to hold the key to rural development because beneficiaries easily identify with development projects when they are involved in their prioritization. This identification with the projects in turn acts as a guarantee for sustainability as the people become totally committed to the realization of their own goals. In the end the development that results from bottom up approach is one that reflects the beneficiaries perception of development and represents their true development aspirations.

Parenthetically not much seems to have been done to unravel the dynamics that lead to the failure of the numerous development projects conceived, planned and implemented by the local people themselves with minimum external assistance.

One factor which often determines project performance whether project implementation decision is through bottom up or top down approach is management. Moris (1981) argues that management is a crucial factor in determining project performance. Management on the other hand is associated with the levels of education attained by the managers Rodinell (1983), Hyden (1983). However as Rodinell (1983) and Hyden (1983) have argued the type of education that contributes to project success is one that is derived from the social cultural situation relevant to the project environment.

### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

There has been a general trend in Kenya whereby rural development projects collapse as soon as the funding agencies withdraw their support. The general argument advanced to explain this state of affairs is that the approach to rural development issues is fundamentally wrong because it has tended to be too top down.

Criticism of development projects is widespread and blame for disappointing results is cast in many directions. One line of criticism which has become quite strong in the recent development literature is that development projects are too top-down and need to be more bottom-up. Projects should involve more participation by the beneficiaries. U.N.C.H.S (1986).



The top down approach tends to ignore the people for whom the development is intended so much so that they neither take part in initiation, planning nor implementation of the projects. Consequently the people fail to identify with the project and eventually when the funding agencies hands over the project to the target group, the group do not often have the skills or the resources to sustain them hence they collapse.

Not all rural development projects are government or donor funded. Some are actually conceived, planned and implemented by the local people themselves using their own resources. But even this group of projects has not been spared and they too seem to lack self - sustenance.

There is need for an indigenous managerial approach which can plan, respond, synthesize, learn and adapt as well as accommodate to the varied exigencies of the external and internal environment, Fowler (1984).

The World Vision International (W.V.I) an N.G.O has been involved in community development efforts in Makuyu Division since 1992. They have adopted the bottom - up approach whereby the people prioritize, plan and implement development projects. The role of the organization is provision of funds but they have also gone further by training local managers for the project.

This study looks at the operational dynamics of W.V.I funded projects compared to other projects in the division with similar characteristics in terms of environmental settings and group membership but having some differences in terms of community participation and institutional management and strategies.

### 1.3 Justification of the Study

It is evident that a lot of work has been done in this field of community participation and rural development. The change from top-down to bottom-up approach in development planning has in effect resulted in greater participation of the rural people in development activities. In most cases however this greater participation has not translated into effective project implementation. This study is an attempt to unravel the reasons behind the failure and consequent abandonment of these projects.

### 1.4 Study Objectives

- 1.To examine the relationship (if any) between community participation, management styles (in particular financial and leadership components) and effectiveness of the projects.
- 2.To examine critically the extent to which local communities had been involved in the initiation, planning and implementation of past and present development projects.

### 1.5 Assumptions of The Study

- 1 Those projects which have a high level of community participation and include a large number of educated local people in the management committees have a high chance of success and self-sustenance than those which do not.
2. Where proper management controls (especially financial) are in place chances of project success and self\_sustenance are high

### 1.6 Methodology

The study makes use of both Primary and Secondary data. Secondary data was obtained from the review of existing literature in the field of development with special reference to rural areas. Government publications, maps and other policy documents obtained from the government were used as well as relevant information from W.V.I .

Primary data was collected from the field using three main methods viz

Direct Observation

Interviews

Questionnaire and

Photography

The questionnaire was administered using random stratified sampling techniques to minimise bias. The choice of Kambiti Community Development Project out of the nine projects that the W.V.I is currently involved in was to a large extent

influenced by centrality of the project in terms of spatial location in the division and the consequent advantage in terms of accessibility. Other factors considered include the magnitude of the project (the membership stood at 900 by the time the study was carried out) thereby giving a lot of potential of finding many small self help-groups separate from the bigger project but whose members also belong to the bigger project. It was important for the purpose of this study to deliberately chose both successful and failed projects if the study was to achieve its stated objective of unearthing the role of management and community participation in project effectiveness.

### 1.7 Data Collected:

#### 1. Data on the level of community participation.

This was achieved through interviewing project initiators establishing their target figure and comparing the same with the actual figure. Other data collected here include the point of entry for the various members, member's participation in choosing their leaders and general data on initiators/leaders background with the aim of establishing whether they are indigenous or outsiders. Members commitment, was measured by their willingness to contribute their resources for example money or time towards the project goals.

## 2. Data on general performance of the project

This was achieved by establishing the objectives set out at the beginning of the project, the time span in which they were meant to be achieved versus what was achieved.

## 3. Data on management

This involved data on management structures formal or informal; level of education of the managers, whether such manager come from the local or from outside, management relations with other members and the mode of attaining office i.e. whether its by selection, election or any other.

It was also necessary to collect data on the resource base at the disposal of the various groups in order to ascertain their sustainability.

### 1.8 Limitations of the Study

No study of this nature and magnitude can be carried out without experiencing certain limitations. In this particular case time was one such limitation. Initially it was envisaged that data would be collected on more projects than was eventually possible. It could also have been a good idea to ensure more diversity in terms of spatial locations of selected projects. However the three months allocated for this research work was simply not adequate. As a result the study focused on one location out of the six in Makuyu division.

Resources was the other limitation. Makuyu is a vast division

and even if time was not a limiting factor that it was, without adequate finances it would not have been possible to cover the entire division. The other major limitation was inherent in the nature of the study itself. The study required the appraisal of both successful and failed/abandoned projects. Gathering data from the latter was a most difficult task. This is because the former members had gone their individual ways and tracing them was hard. Even where success was made in tracing them, some were not ready to talk about their past association with the failed projects.

### **1.9 Data Analysis**

This study mainly involves qualitative data and as such descriptive analysis was adopted as the most suitable technique of analysis. Therefore descriptive statistics like measures of central tendency, have been employed where appropriate.

### **1.10 Study organization**

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one introduces the problem and gives its significance. Chapter two explores the different theories that have been advanced by different scholars in the realm of rural development and self-help movement. Chapter three gives the background information on the study area. Chapter four is on data analysis. In this chapter the data collected from the field has been interpreted

in the light of the assumptions and objectives of the study and with due regard to the theories of rural development as advanced in chapter two. The last chapter gives the conclusion and recommendations.

## CHAPTER TWO

## LITERATURE REVIEW

*"You cannot help men permanently by doing for them what they should do for themselves." Abraham Lincoln 1809-1865*

### 2.1 Rural Development

Development refers to changes in a broad spectrum of transformations at many levels and many spheres. It signifies sustained improvement of individuals and the society; a process of effective use of resources both human and natural and the distribution of all benefits from the process. (Robinson 1979).

Economic development occurs when basic needs are met and economic progress contributes to a greater sense of individual and national self esteem. This implies meeting their basic demands for food, housing, infrastructure, adequate education and training as well as freedom to choose between various options. (Thirlwall 1983, Todaro 1981).

Rural development is a process which involves a series of transformations in a broad spectrum of peoples lives. Any change that results in an enhancement of peoples standard of living is positive change. Taken in this context rural development is a series of positive changes in any of the various factors that affect rural folks. They include health,



education, water and physical infrastructure *inter alia*. Thus a water project that results in provision of water to rural people can be seen as development as it not only reduces the distance that has to be covered but might also have the added advantage of reducing water related diseases.

According to Uma Lele rural development involves improvement of the living standards of the masses of the low income population residing in rural areas and making the process self-sustaining. She identified a number of factors that make for enhancement of standards of rural subsistence population. They include;

1. The mobilization and allocation of resources so as to reach a desirable balance over time between the welfare and productive services available to the subsistence rural sector.
2. Mass participation requires that resources be allocated to low income regions and classes and that the productive and social services actually reach them.
3. Making the process self-sustaining requires development of the appropriate skills and implementing capacity and the presence of institutions at the local, regional and national levels to ensure the effective use of existing resources and to foster the mobilization of additional financial and human resources for continued development of the subsistence sector.

The basic aim of rural planning should be to work out rational ways and means of mobilising the available resources both human and non human in order to provide what people need. This should improve their standards of living and thus enable them to play their full role in national development. It should also be to create conditions conducive to social economic justice among all citizens irrespective of place.

Robert Chambers (1983) has identified some biases which prevent outsiders from appreciating the actual levels of poverty in rural areas. They include the spatial bias, urban, tarmac and roadside bias. In the majority of cases an understanding of rural conditions is realized through short visits to the actual areas.

The urban bias comes in due to the fact that most of these visits are conducted near towns especially capital cities and large administrative centres. Yet the poorest rural people are often to be found in remoter areas. Tarmac roads mostly tend to attract a lot of development activities in both urban and rural areas. This is so because the act of tarmacking a road, pushes the value of land up thus displacing the poor to the interior while the rich are brought to the foreground where they develop attractive centres and modern centres, factories, offices, shops and official markets. This then attracts infrastructural facilities like piped water, electricity,

health facilities and schools. The end result is that the poverty is concealed from the view of the visitors. Such visitors are likely to conclude that such a region does not require any outside resources for development.

Project bias manifests itself in form of selective highlighting of model rural projects. It is often the successful project that visitors both local and foreign are taken. After touring such projects the visitors are usually impressed by their level of success. Such projects tends to have all the necessary staff and owing to the frequent visits by outsiders, their managers/leaders eventually become experts in public relations. They amplify the strongest points while at the same time underplaying the weaker aspects of the project.

The success of these projects ends up directing attention away from the poorer people. Examples of these projects include; the Anand Dairy Cooperative in India, the Chilalo Agricultural Development Unit in Ethiopia, Gezira Scheme in Sudan, the Comilla Project in Bangladesh, and the Mwea Irrigation Scheme in Kenya. Most of these projects are conveniently located at reasonable but not excessive distance from the urban headquarters, Chambers (1983).

The other form of bias stems from the individuals from whom

rural development workers get their information. The rural development workers on touring or camping in a given rural area often come into contact with rural elites like progressive farmers, village leaders, teachers and para-professionals. From these people the development workers get elite bias. These rural elites are the most articulate. They receive and provide information to the researchers and development workers. They tend to monopolise the visitors time and attention effectively shutting out the poor, they end up setting priorities for the village. The poor on the other hand are intimidated by the elites. They lack the courage to freely express their opinions in the presence of the elite and hence learning from them ( the poor) is quite difficult. If paupers and poverty are not sought persistently and deliberately, they usually remain at arms length from outside inquiries, Chambers (1983).

The nature of professional training received by development workers present the other bias. The training of development workers like sociologist, planners, doctors and economists hinders them from a comprehensive view of poverty and the rural poor. Each professional tends to desegregate the problem and evaluate from his or her own point of view. Thus for example the doctor, investigates hygiene and health but rarely draws the connection between the health status of the people to their material wellbeing. 'Narrow professionalism of

whatever persuasion leads to diagnoses and prescriptions which underestimate deprivation by recognising and confronting only a part of the problem', Chambers (1983:23)

The other thing which needs to be considered with respect to rural development is the question of knowledge. The knowledge of the poor rural folks is often not acknowledged by the development workers. This is often so because of the link between modern scientific knowledge to power and prestige. Yet rural people's knowledge of their environment is often though not always greater than that of outsiders as is exemplified by their understanding of their own environment and their mixed farming practices. The foregoing discussion raises the crucial question of how then should the issue of rural development be approached?

## 2.2 The Concept of Community Participation

One of the reasons for past failures in planning, particularly at the regional level is that in most countries planning has been developed as a system of procedures imposed from above, almost exclusively concerned with limitations and regulations, unnecessarily complicated, unrelated to the needs and programmes of other public agencies and rarely submitted for approval by those it was meant to serve.

The best way for any administration to prove that it represents

the interests of those that it administers is to establish mechanisms to allow and encourage participation and to adapt a well designed system of communication and information, so as to make development process easily understandable. Community participation should be instituted as a permanent feature of the management process, supported by the necessary legal structure and integrated in the management framework.

Community participation means readiness of both the government and the community to accept certain responsibilities and activities. It also means that the value of each group's contribution is seen and appreciated.

The subject of community participation in development planning has been addressed by various scholars and researchers the World over. When planners insist on citizen participation they usually mean that the ultimate beneficiaries should have a part in setting the policies and perhaps in implementing them. In broad terms consumers or clients of a public service ought to be involved in the planning, policy determination or operations of programmes vital to their daily living. What is necessary is the establishment of mechanism that facilitates the sharing of powers and responsibilities with citizens or clients, Yanoov (1982:165)

At the basic economic level participation in society can be

seen as employment in a profitable occupation. It is active involvement in the decision making process with regard to plans and priorities for the development resources and assets at the community and ultimately national level. Participation denotes an intimate involvement whereby people critically influence the decision about how, when and in what form they acquire benefits. It implies power transfer to the target group, University of Nairobi Team (1977).

To participate is to be involved. This involvement must accrue specific benefits to the participants in case of development participation, Ng'ethe (1978).

Grans (1983) differentiation between Standard and participatory Organizations captures the essential difference. In participatory Organization members rather than elite leaders make decisions. They have a personal stake and are not condemned to passive roles. Leaders and members are more likely to come from the same class. Leaders emerge rather than are pre selected. Larger numbers are mobilized on a more permanent basis and there is usually some broader vision than just the project immediately at hand.

Another reason why participation and/or organization of beneficiaries is important is that it can foster commitment to the project. Even if beneficiaries do not have much control

over a project they should have some desire for and commitment to the project.

Commitment can become tangible in form of financial contribution. Wait et al (1979) in their study demonstrated that financial contributions by farmers were strongly related to project success.

Another consideration is the degree to which indigenous knowledge is used in a project. If the technology of the project is foreign to the beneficiaries then it creates a dependence on outside experts or technicians thereby inhibiting participation. Peasants are often experts at tasks in their specific environment and it should not be assumed that they have nothing to offer, (Brokenshaw 1980). Thus the use of indigenous knowledge helps adapt projects to local conditions and facilitates a greater role for participation.

Ignoring indigenous knowledge would most likely have negative effects on the projects. As Fowler (1984) observes increasingly poor management as opposed to shortage of resources is identified as responsible for the limited achievements of induced development techniques and methods employed. These methods have not been particularly relevant to the operational situation of projects, their managers and their participants because they have not been derived from the

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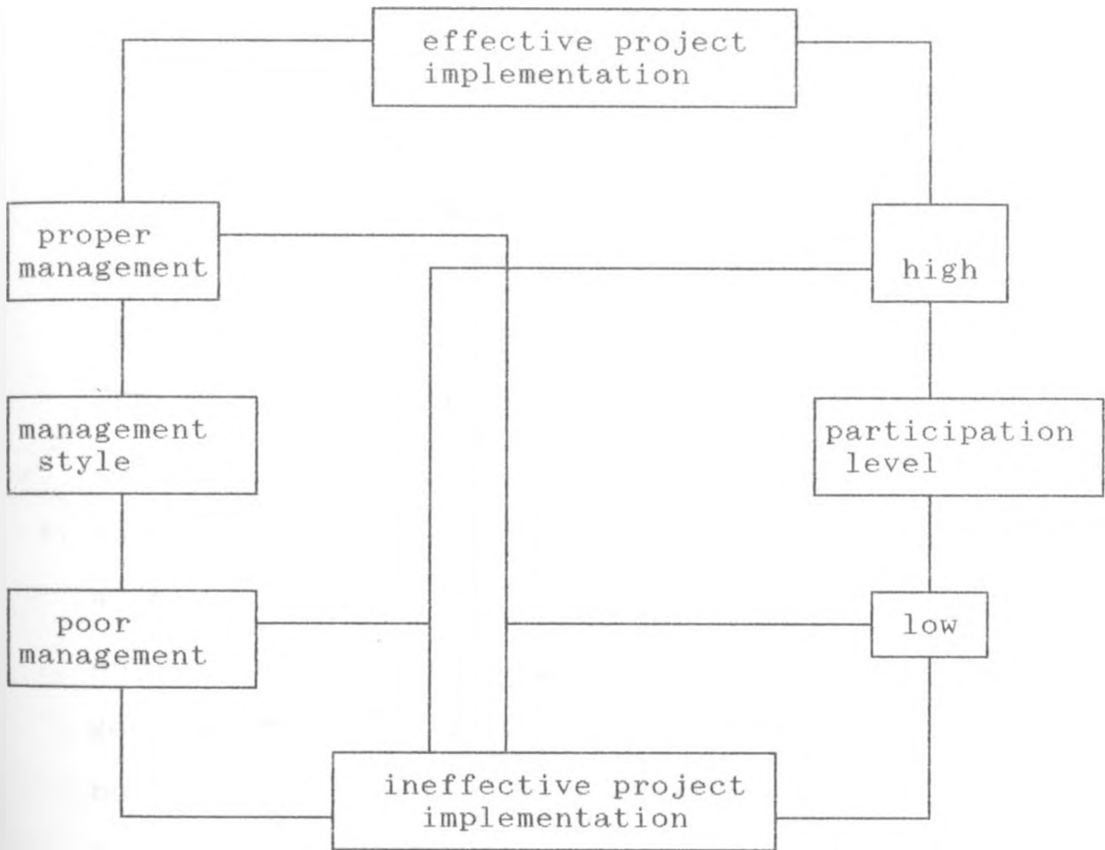
environment and reality in which they are meant to function. A healthy system is one that emerged from the indigenous people. Development imposed from outside the local setting no matter how benevolent and well intentioned is ultimately counter productive. It is not effectively integrated into the world of those people it purports to develop (Gamer 1976)

While acknowledging the need to tap indigenous knowledge for sake of faster development, Chambers (1983) has also noted that in some cases this indigenous knowledge can also be harmful. Some examples here include reducing the fluid intake of children with diarrhoea, in the belief that the less fluid going in will mean less coming out. The same can be said about failure to recognise kwashiorkor by some rural communities because children with it can look robust and healthy.

The proponents of the grassroots citizen movements (Stokes 1981, Boyte 1980) and community development (Chekki 1980) have advocated beneficiary participation because power gravitates to those who solve problems. Thus if people take a more active role in solving their own problem and meeting their own needs they would acquire power that was previously retained by Governments by default. Global Humanists (Freire 1973 Illich 1977) have advocated that participation should be a process of consciousness raising and that empowerment and change in the balance of power vis a vis the system, that is capacity

building is part of the definition of project success. Effective participation is stifled and beneficiary involvement becomes extremely difficult once beneficiaries see that they will have little control over what their efforts Yield.

### 2.3 Conceptual Framework



#### 2.4.0 Why Involve the People in Planning?

Mbithi (1972) outlined various reasons for involving people in planning.

1. Selection of projects by local people often maximizes

motivation discipline and gains to entrenched local interests and it's resource mobilization technique are thus far in advance of governmental ones.

2. To achieve the goal of rural development in the whole country it is necessary that external inputs involved be reduced to a bare minimum and local inputs be expanded to their maximum potential from the initial stage. Thus economically participation by the local people is advantageous. When local resources are utilized to the full, this acts as an economic distributive mechanism.
3. When local leaders are involved right from the pre\_planning stage, they bring a deep understanding of the community, thus ensuring maximum use of local knowledge of the target community and avoiding costly mistakes.
4. Participation negates isolationism and the development of a dependent population. Under a situation of highly raised aspirations and the financial\_manpower inability of the government to meet all of these aspirations, participation both reduces strains on government resources and demonstrates to the people the constraints on fulfilment of aspirations through their involvement in decision making on the use of their own resources through participation. Thus aspirations are both fulfilled to a greater extent and lowered to a more reasonable and realistic level.

^ development strategy that hopes to raise rural welfare and

enhance equitable distribution of the income accruing from development efforts must of necessity have the following aspects;

1. Optimal participation of all rural people in the widest possible assortment of tasks which are legitimized not only in terms of economic feasibility, but by the current local social definition of the development situation
2. Total participation of all people must be seen as also a goal since, by definition, participation increases individual commitment to local and national development effort and increases local and national solidarity.
3. The motivation generated in meaningful participation leads to a greater degree of mobilization of rural people.

Motivation and leadership are important considerations in any community participation approach.

#### 2.4.1 Motivation

The sustenance of cooperation between authorities and communities requires some incentives for both parties. For a community the interest is to solve local problems\_ problems that have been identified as affecting the community. These problems are usually localized . For the authorities the interest is to achieve higher standards of living for the people and consequently national development. This in most cases is the rhetoric given out for public consumption. In

reality, majority of leaders interest in development activities is based on their political survival instincts. The leaders know that by participating in development activities aimed at for instance bringing water, constructing schools and hospitals or health centres they will be endearing themselves to the beneficiaries\electorate. This acts like an insurance policy against competition from other individuals from their particular constituencies who might be having political aspirations.

#### 2.4.2 Community Leadership

The nature of community organization is essential in determining the capacity of the community to play their part effectively. The more sophisticated a community is in terms of structure the more likely it is for that community to participate in development matters. Leadership studies have shown that communities have many formal and informal organizations. Mbithi (1972)

In his analysis of leadership and power Max Weber says authority, power and influence are different things. He defines authority as legitimate power. Influence he defined as the ability to effect decision without using sanction or a conspicuous power base.

Legitimate power is seen as the power which stems from

internalized values in P which dictate that O has the legitimate right to influence P and that P has an obligation to accept this influence. But legitimate power is not always a role relationship. It may be due to an obligation, a promise which cannot be broken. But legitimacy involves some sort of code or standard. Cultural values constitute a common basis for legitimate power.

Referent power is based on group theory. The referent power O has over P is based on the identification of P with O. That is the feeling of oneness of P with O. Consequently O has the ability to influence P even if P is unaware of this power. But here there is no expectation of reward or punishment by P and O. To the extent that P avoid discomfort or gains satisfaction by conformity based on identification, regardless of response, this is referent power.

Expert power of O's over P varies with the extent of the knowledge or perception which P attributes to O within a given area. P may evaluate O's power in relation to his knowledge or against some standard.

A proper understanding of the various types of power in any given community, is crucial for effective project implementation. As the table below shows most projects where the decision was made by government officials (whose only

claim to power is their expertise) without involving the local powerbrokers almost invariably failed in the four communities studied.

The implication here is that any body that seeks to bring lasting positive changes in any rural community must start by identifying the person(s) around who power gravitates in the community especially legitimate power since they are likely to be powerful mobilizers in the community as their power is derived from internalized values.

Table 3 Influence of leadership on the outcome of projects in four communities

Decision area	Group origin of decision	participants	Period Remarks
construct- ion in harambee schools	clan leaders plus community devpt officials	clans, family heads & women age groups	1964 successful in all four communities
building maternity clinic	women leaders, clan leaders & govt officers	clan, family heads, individuals mainly women	1964 successful
compost making campaign	extension officers	communities farmers	1948 could not replace manure failed
destocking	govt officials	communities homestead heads	1946-60 failed
resistance to destocking & tracing	local cattle owners and homestead heads	communities family heads	1948-67 failed
adoption of cotton communal farming	government	communities farmers & their households	1965-67 failed
Maintaining irrigation channels	government	communities individual plot owners & their households	1956-60 failed
Adoption of early maturing maize	government researchers	communities individual farm house holds	1962-67 partly successful
Maintaining irrigation channels	village committee	community, village committee	1966 progressive
Land allocation to immigrants	village committee	community, village committee	1956 it works

Source: Mbithi (1972)



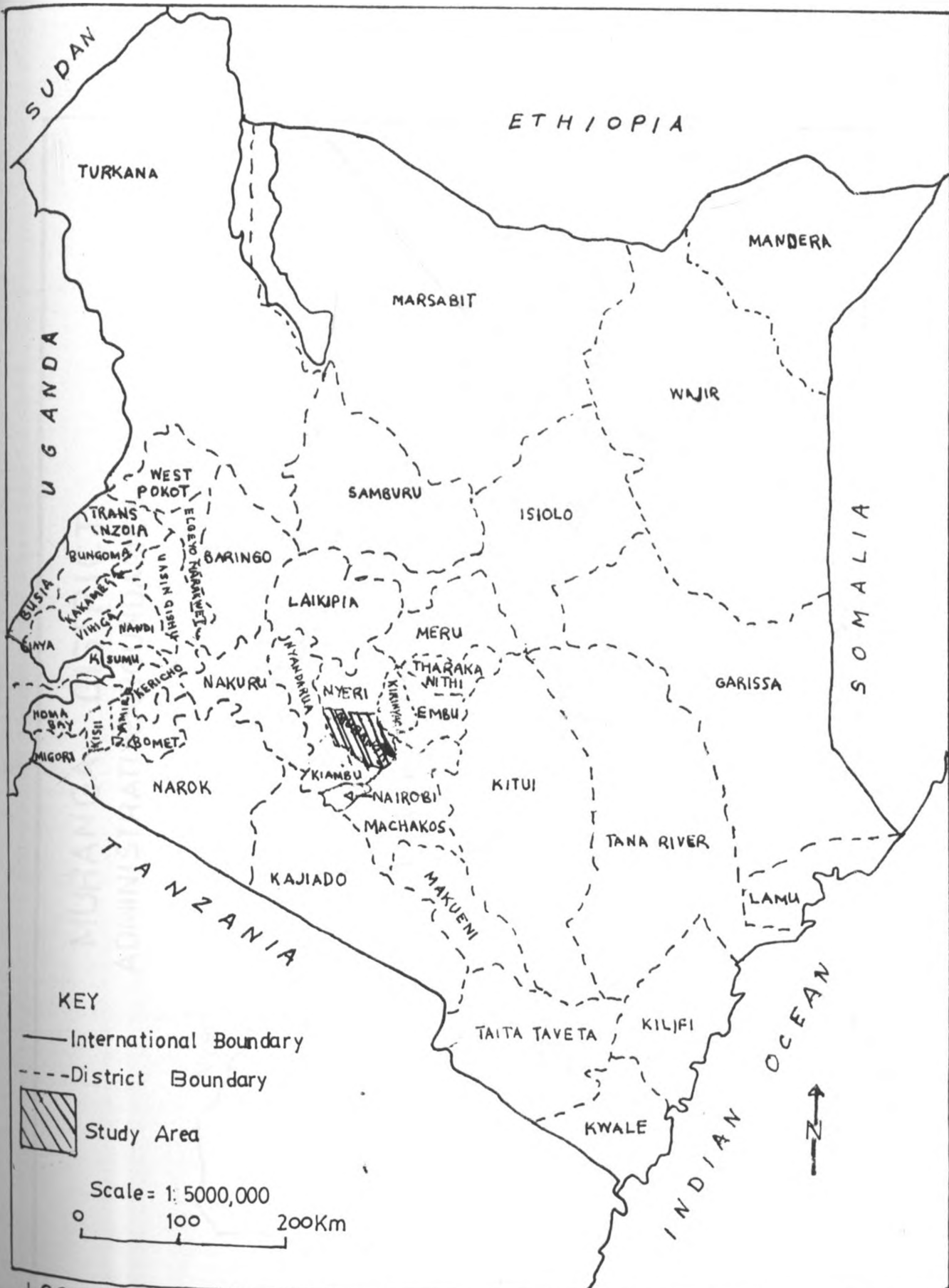
From the above table it can be observed that the majority of successful projects are started by the community themselves while the majority of those initiated by the government failed with the exception of adoption of early maturing maize. A notable exception is maintenance of irrigation channels. In 1956-57 the government decided that the communities should maintain the channels. This did not succeed but when in 1966 the village committee made the same decision and enlisted the participation of the same communities as the government had targeted, the project was reported to have been successful.

## CHAPTER THREE

### BACKGROUND INFORMATION

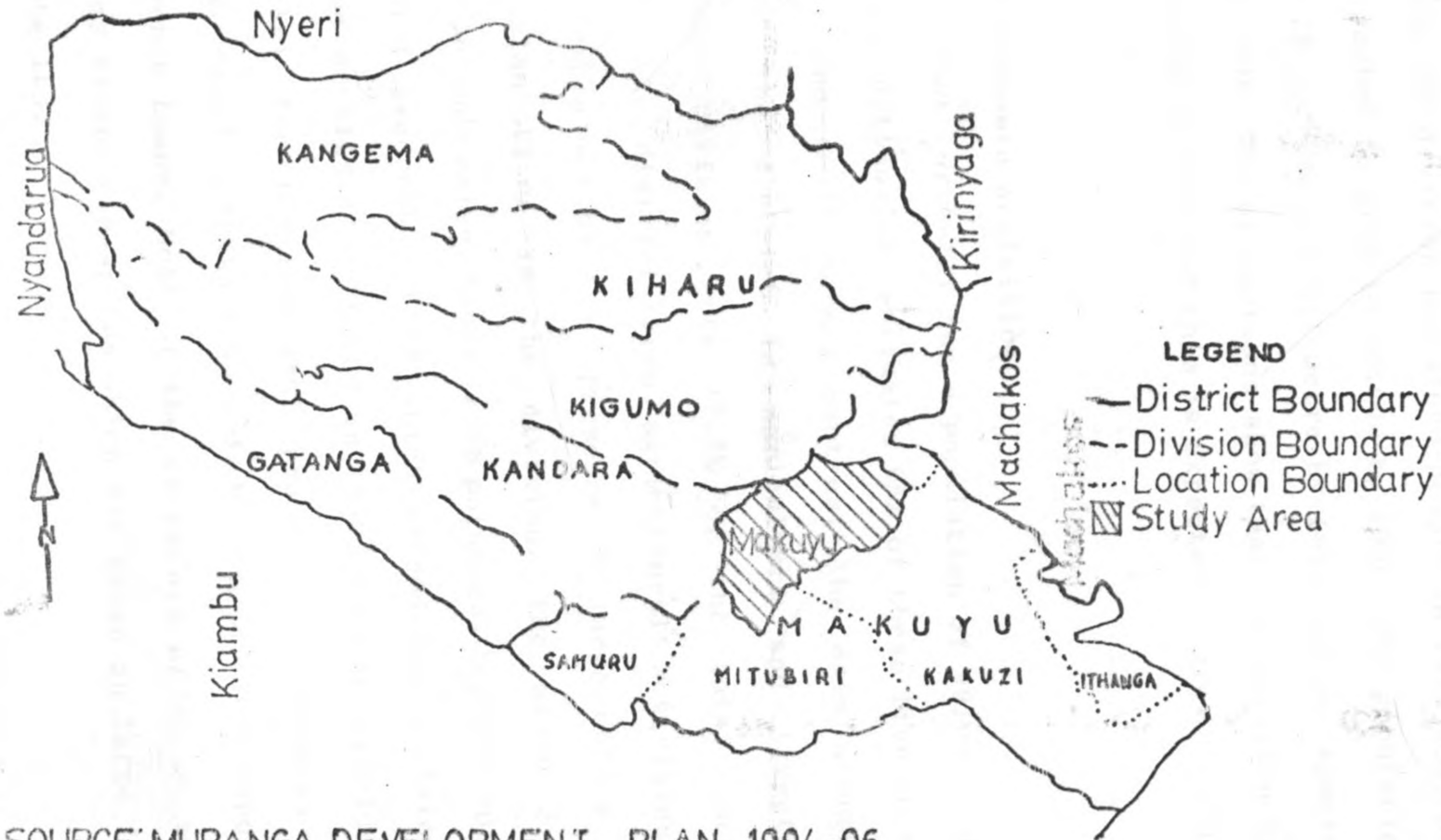
#### 3.1 Introduction

Makuyu division is in Murang'a District, in the Central Province of Kenya. It has a total land area of 643 square kilometres. Administratively the division is divided into six locations which are further subdivided into sixteen sub-locations.



LOCATION OF THE STUDY AREA IN KENYA  
Map 1

# MURANGA DISTRICT ADMINISTRATIVE BOUNDARIES



SOURCE: MURANGA DEVELOPMENT PLAN 1994-96

LOCATION OF THE STUDY AREA IN THE DISTRICT

### 3.2 Population

According to the 1994 -96 development plan projections based on 1975 census the division had 97000 people in 1994 and this figure is expected to grow to 101000 by 1996. The population density was 151 per square kilometre by 1984 and is expected to be 157 by 1996. the projections show that the division had 16166 households in 1994 and this is expected to grow to 17000 in 1996.

#### 3.3.0 Major Economic Activities

Murang'a district currently has a population of 991000 (1993 population projections). An estimated 95% of these live in the rural areas and small market centres. The main economic activity of the district is agriculture and livestock farming. Makuyu division gets 42.2% of the total income accruing to the district from agricultural activities a phenomenon explained by the presence of large coffee and pineapple plantations in the division. The major crops cultivated include maize, beans irish potatoes, bananas, coffee horticultural products all of which earned the division a total value of K£56,475,550,000 in 1992. Nairobi provides a ready market for horticultural products. Pineapples are locally processed in Thika town and the concentrates exported as are french beans. Most of the crops are grown on small scale farms except pineapples which are grown on large farms by Delmonte ltd.

Out of the total 643 square kilometres, 533 is devoted to farming. With 16000 rural households, that translates to 28 households per square kilometre. However despite the large area under coffee and horticultural crops in Makuyu division only about 15% of the households grow these crops. The area's economy is dominated by large scale coffee and pineapple farms. The division has 84 large farms with a total of 4326 hectares under coffee and pineapples.

### 3.3.1 Livestock

Livestock keeping is practised alongside agriculture. Most the holdings are small scale, mainly comprising rearing of grade cattle. The division has the lowest proportion of households i.e 45 per cent with high grade cattle in the district and these belong to kakuzi limited. The range of livestock reared include cattle, goats, sheep, pig and poultry. The milk earns substantial income as does beef and eggs.

## Makuyu Division

Table 4 Major livestock products and value

Product	Output (000) Tons	Value MK£
Milk	9.3	0.19
Beef	464	1.4
Mutton	6.6	0.02
Goat meat	12.5	0.038
Honey	7.8	0.029
Wax	1.56	0.005

Source: Murang'a district development plan 1994-96.

### 3.4 Harambee Movement.

The community development sector on self help basis has made very substantial capital development in provision of welfare, communal oriented projects such as the improvement and initiation of schools, health centre, cattle dips, water projects and others. This has been achieved through the Harambee effort where the community contributes in form of labour, cash and materials towards such projects.

Harambee contributions (cash) 1989-92 (K£)	1329399
Labour	23771
Material	567326
Cash; Local Authority	1304995
G.O.K	33135
Total	3258626

Source: Murang'a district development plan 1994-96.

The women programmes and women groups are the major components of all the harambee organizations. This includes women participation in income generating projects for their social economic benefits. The activities involves animal husbandry, agricultural, handicraft production rental and retail shop construction merry-go-round revolving funds and other viable activities.

Table 5

Registered women groups and contributions by division

Division	No. of registered women groups	Membership	Cash & material Ksh	Contribution Ksh
Makuyu	465	20742	35026	30979
Kiharu	721	29112	214611	59123
Kandara	586	21198	162760	101747
Kigumo	364	14623	93179	21891
Kangema	604	23428	303832	75019
Gatanga	378	13731	102978	41785
Total	3118	122834	912386	330544

Source: Murang'a district development plan 1994-96.

From the table below it is clear that the women groups are quite most active in Makuyu division.



Table 6

Comparative figures for women groups in the district.

Division	Population (000)	Registered women groups	No. of people per registered group
Makuyu	97	465	208
Gatanga	112	378	296
Kandara	177	586	302
Kiharu	219	721	303
Kangema	211	604	349
Kigumo	214	364	587

Source: Reconstructed from the 1994-96 district development plan.

### 3.5 Incomes

Income in Makuyu as is the case elsewhere in the district accrues mainly from agriculture and livestock, public sector and private sector wages and the informal sector. The other residual sources of income include transport services which are included in the informal sector.

In terms of distribution over 95 per cent of the incomes comes

from the large farms. The average income from the agricultural sector is way above the average income from wage employment.

Components of income	K£"000"
Agriculture	56.48
Livestock	1.68
Wage employment	6.41
Total	64.57

Source; Murang'a district development plan 1994-96.

### 3.6 Education

By 1993 the total primary school enrolment stood at 22,811 pupils while the secondary school enrolment was 988. The enrolment in post school institutions (mainly village polytechnic) was 60 while average attendance in adult education classes stood at 647. Out of the 647 80 per cent were women.

By 1992 the division had 92, 56 and 5 pre-primary, primary and secondary schools respectively. Other educational institutions in the division include one teacher training college three youth centre polytechnic and one farmer's training centre.

### 3.7 Water

Water availability and supply in the entire district depends on the rainfall regime. Makuyu division has semi-arid

conditions. It is in agro-ecological zone 4 a zone of low potential with annual rainfall ranging from 500-900 mm per annum. Crop production depends on irrigation. The rainfall is unreliable and the area is more prone to drought. This probably explains why there are so many water related self-help groups in the division some of which have unfortunately stalled. Those which have stalled include Thangira and Gathungururu both of which are under investigations. Those projects whose performance has been rated as satisfactory include; Gakungu, Kiunguini roof catchment, spring protection, Ngatho roof catchment, Machuke spring, Kiambamba spring protection and catchment, Thangu spring protection and Mururiini spring protection all of which have a common bond which is that they are all partly funded by the W.V.I.

Both Thangira and Mitumbiri were all partly funded by the rural development fund and their poor performance has been attributed to poor local participation and lack of funds to operate the supply.

## CHAPTER FOUR

## DATA ANALYSIS

## 4.1 Introduction

Chapter two has emphasized the need for community participation in the planning process. Most of the scholars cited are in agreement that community participation is a prerequisite for achieving successful implementation of rural projects. Some like Chambers (1983) Brokenshaw (1980) and Fowler(1984) have extended the argument further by stating that mere participation of the beneficiaries without incorporating their knowledge and expertise is not enough. However Chambers (1983) has cautioned against wholesale adoption of rural peoples knowledge. He instead advocates a balance between outside and local knowledge.

In this chapter the data collected from the field is analyzed in the light of objectives and assumptions of the study as earlier stated. The study involves five rural development projects. The operations of these projects is examined in detail from their conception, through the various stages to where they ere at the time the study was conducted. The type of management particularly leadership and financial management has been given due emphasis in the light of the first objective of the study and with due regard to the first assumption. The question of community participation in the different projects has also been examined as has the issue of

education as it relates to project performance, with respect to the second assumption of the study.

#### 4.2 Community Participation

Assumption one: Those projects which have a high level of community participation and include a large number of educated local people in the management committees have a high chance of success and self-sustenance than those which do not.

In order to determine the level of community participation in the five different projects the following measures were used.

1. Comparison between the targeted number of participants and those who actually participated, the targeted number of participants was given by the initiators of the project.
2. Members participation in electing leaders and setting goals, as measured in terms of percentages in every project.
3. Members contribution to the project either in material or money form,
4. Members participation in general meetings, this also was measured in terms of percentage of interviewees who said they attended at least two or more members general meetings in a year.

In the case of Kambiti Community Development Project, the level of community participation in the affairs of the group is quite high. 84 per cent of the members were involved in

all the stages of project evolution viz initiation, goal identification, planning and implementation. The other 15.4 per cent joined the group at the planning stage. In terms of members contribution towards the group resources which was used as the other measure of participation all of the respondents claimed to have contributed money toward the project. The rate of contribution is uniform for all members. The amount to be contributed is determined by the cost of the task in hand. The agency contributes three quarters of the total cost while one quarter is contributed by the members at uniform rate.

On leadership 84 per cent of the respondents were involved in all the stages of the project. Respondents said that they actively participated in the election of project leaders viz the chairman and his committee members. Popular appeal was given as the criteria used for election into office. All the officials gave similar response on the question of who sets the project goals. They all said that was done by the targeted beneficially community. This was collaborated by project members where 84.6 per cent said they indeed were involved in goal setting which was done before electing leaders.

The next project covered by the study is Makuyu Mabati women self-help project . This is a relatively small project compared to the W.V.K funded Kambiti community development project. The project was started in 1982. The initiators were

hoping to attract at least fifty people in order to make the project viable but managed to get thirty members.

The name mabati is the Gikuyu equivalent of the English iron sheet. As the name implies the original goal of the women was to provide an avenue through which money could be raised for the purpose of purchasing corrugated iron sheets for each of the members to replace grass roofs.

All members joined the group during the initiation stage and actively participated in choosing their leaders. The project has three officials viz, the chairlady and the treasurer, both of whom have been in office since the projects inception.

Goal setting was done during the initial stage and all members were involved. Apart from acquisition of iron sheets the only other goal was to purchase or construct water storage tanks. The idea was to kill two birds with one stone. By replacing the grass roofs with iron sheets the members were enhancing their standards of living since they were no longer to be subjected to the periodic need to repair the roofs as is the case with grass-thatching. Nevertheless the women realized the other potential in the iron sheet i.e the possibility of harvesting rainwater from the roof catchment and storing water for use in the dry season.

Makuyu Green Belt Movement Group is the other project

considered in the study. It was started in 1986. The group was originally externally driven i.e the impetus for the organization of the group came not from the local community but from outside. Precisely the greenbelt movement was involved in a subtle way. It recruited three members of the local community who were then taken to environment conservation seminars and workshops. The three learned the various environment conservation methods including agro-forestry practices in these forums.

With the assistance of the national secretariat they set up a tree nursery and started distributing seedlings to the local people. By 1989 the local people had been properly sensitized on the need for planting trees. The national secretariat felt it was time to withdraw its support and informed its key men to form a group which could continue with their activities. When the idea was floated to the people their response was enthusiastic. Immediately a hundred members enrolled. The three men were retained as the officials. This group is linked to the national Green Belt Movement Group which is involved in activities aimed at promoting tree planting in the whole country. The members were not actually involved in setting goals of the project as these had already been set by the national body. As for election of officials none of those who enlisted in the group wished to challenge the initiators for leadership positions. All the respondents said that they



contribute to the group by way of giving their labour hours to attend to the tree nursery.

The fourth project considered in the study is Munyaka Self-Help Group. The project was started in 1984 and it involved eighty members/households out of an expected membership of one hundred.

The level of community participation was quite impressive. sixty nine per cent of the members were involved right from the beginning of the project. Sixteen per cent got in at the planning, stage while the rest, fifteen per cent, got involved at the fairly advanced stage of implementation.

On group leadership the process of selecting the leaders was democratic. The 69 per cent members who started with the group were given an opportunity to vote for members of their choice but in actual sense no formal elections were conducted since none of the members was interested in challenging the initiators and consequently they took over.

On contribution to group resources, another important measure of community participation, all those interviewed said they had contributed either in form of money or had agreed to offer their labour during implementation.

The last project considered in the study is Makuyu Investment Self-Help Group. This group was started in 1990 and had a total membership of forty persons out of an expected total of fifty to sixty. This group is different from the other four in that its primary objective was not to address a basic felt need directly but rather was meant to operate as a commercial enterprise through which members could get monetary dividends from their investments. Their basic objective was to construct rental houses for both commercial and residential use at Makuyu centre.

The group officials were elected by the members. Among the respondents 66 per cent said they participated in electing the officials. Most of the respondents (80 per cent) said they had considered qualifications and personality of the contestants in making their choices. All of the respondents said they contributed money to the group.

#### 4.3 Discussion

As far as community participation in group affairs is concerned in all the five projects the level was quite high. The objective of community participation in the development process as advocated for by Stokes (1981) Boyte (1980) and Chekki(1980) appear to have been realized.

In all the five groups all the interviewees said they made contributions to the group either in form of money or labour

hours. Wait et al (1979) argued that financial contribution is strongly related to project success. It is however notable that even in the two groups which failed members had made their contributions. The problem seem to be centred on the management of the contributions made by the members.

The success of the three projects would appear to validate Mbithi (1972) assertion that selection of projects by the local community often maximises motivation discipline and gains to entrenched local interests. On the other hand the two failed projects had similar levels of community participation. Their failure can not therefore be attributed to lack of community participation.

Table 7

Level of community participation in five different projects.

Project Figures in %	1	2	3	4	5
Electing officials	84.6	95	-	69	90
Goal setting	84.6	95	-	69	90
Contributions to Projects	100	100	100	100	100
Attendance of General Meetings	87	83.9	65	-	-

Source; Field survey 1994

1. Kambiti Community Development Project
2. Makuyu Mahati Women Self-Help Group
3. Makuyu Green Belt Movement Group

4. Munyaka Self-Help Group

5. Makuyu Investment Self-Help Group

Table 8

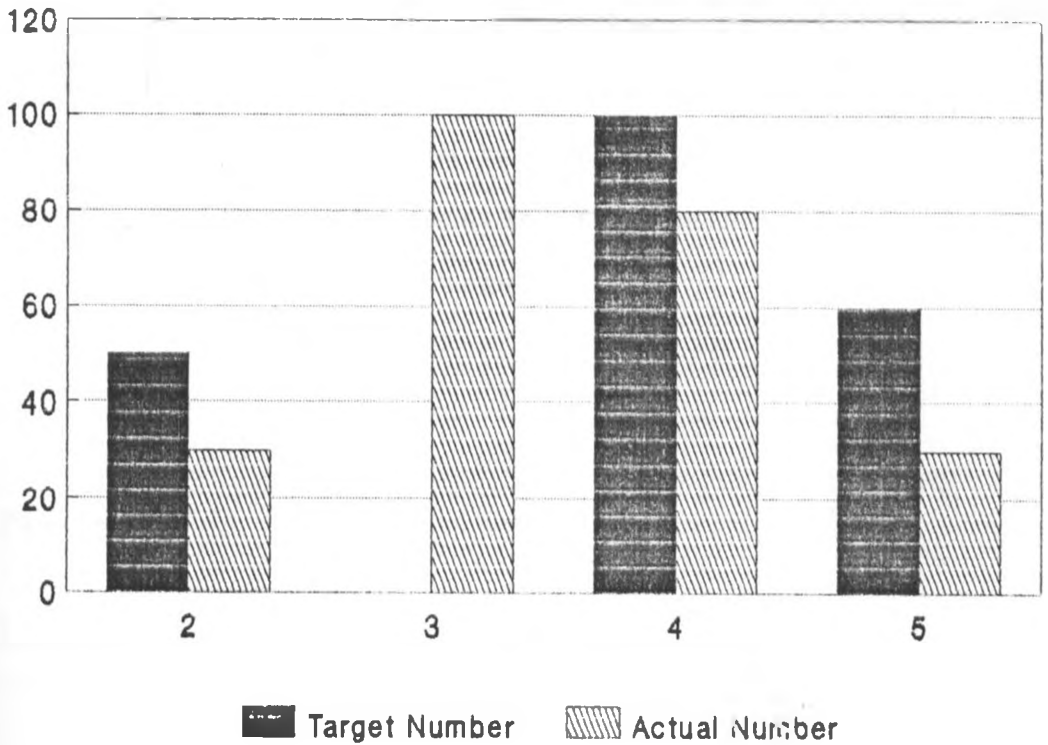
Comparative figures for community participation in the various groups.

Project	Membership		%	Remarks
	Target	Actual		
1	1500	900	60	progressing well
2	50	30	60	successful
3	-	100	-	progressing well
4	100	80	80	failed
5	60	30	50	abandoned

Sources; Field Survey 1994

Projects in the same order as in table 7.

# Community Participation Comparative Figures for Four Projects



Source: Field Survey 1984

Projects in the same order as in table 7.

Note that Kambiti community development project has been left out in the above chart. This was necessary as its inclusion would have distorted the chart due to the large differences in the figures involved.

#### 4.4 Education

The level of education attained by the various actors in the five different projects formed the second part of the first assumption. It was held that, inclusion of a large number of educated local people in the management committees improves chances of success and self sustenance. This assumption meant that the research would be conducted on the premise that the higher the level of education for the key players the more the chances of project success.

Table 9

The influence of education on performance of self-help projects

Project	Key actors	Years spent in school	Remarks
1	Chairman Treasurer Secretary C.D.M Group mean	5 10 14 14 6	progressing well
2	Chairlady Treasurer Group mean	2* 2* 2	successful
3	Chairman Treasurer Mobilizer Group mean	11 15 2 7	progressing well
4	Chairman Treasurer Secretary Committee member 1 Committee member 2 Group mean	14 14 12 12 1* 6	failed
5	Manager Treasurer Secretary Group mean	17 15 15 12	abandoned

Source; Field Survey 1994

\* This sign indicates the years were spent in adult education classes.

Projects in the same order as in table 7.

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Source; Field Survey 1994

\* This sign indicates the years were spent in adult education classes.

Projects in the same order as in table 7.



From the above table it can be seen that the level of education for the players does not have a major influence. Indeed Makuyu Investment self-help group enjoyed the highest mean in terms of number of years the average member spent in school. Yet it was abandoned. When this compared to Makuyu Mabati Women Group where the average member spent only two years in school, the influence of education on performance would appear to be minimal. This conclusion is given more weight by the fact that the leaders of the latter did not actually have any schooling in the conventional sense but rather benefited from adult education classes. Indeed the success of Makuyu Mabati Women Self-Help Group given the fact that the group's officials had no formal education supports Moris (1981), Rodinell (1983) and Hyden (1983) in their assertion that education becomes a factor in project success only when it is derived from the social cultural situation relevant to the project environment.

#### 4.5 Management

This variable was intended to test the validity or otherwise of the second assumption of the study. The assumption held that where proper management controls (especially financial) are in place chances of project success and self-sustenance are high. Management is characterized as being good where the following conditions obtain;

1. Officials demonstrate good understanding of their duties,

2. Proper record keeping especially with regard to finances is practised,
3. Clear rules of conduct exist and are known to exist by all or majority of the members,
4. Regular members meetings are held,
5. Goals and objectives are clearly defined and the time within which they are to be achieved is known.

The managers in this setting include the project chairman, treasurer, secretary and in the case of Kambiti Community Development Project the Community Development Motivator (C.D.M) the latter being selected by the sponsoring agency.

For Kambiti Community Development Project all the officials showed they had a good understanding of their responsibilities. The chairman whose formal schooling was only for five year, said his duties include chairing both members and committee meetings and ensuring that they are conducted in an orderly and fair manner. This was collaborated by data from the household survey where 98 per cent of the respondents said that the chairman's conduct of the meetings is fair and square. Every issue that comes up has to be deliberated on exhaustively before a decision is made. In case of any controversial issue the chairman uses his powers to order voting and the decision is made in favour of the majority but this is subjected to further scrutiny by the committee members and the sponsoring agency.

The treasurer went up to form two and he is a local farmer. After being elected to this position he was given a three month course on the basics of financial management and bookkeeping which he says has helped him a lot. He is charged with the responsibility of handling all financial matters. He liaises with the sponsoring agency and ensures that members meet their contributions in time in order not to delay any planned activity of the group. It is also his duty to ensure that all records and statements of income and expenditure are properly kept. He also cooperates with the agency auditors in their auditing work.

The secretary is a local teacher who spent fourteen years in school. He, like the other two is also conversant with his duties which according to him include convening members and committee meetings, keeping the members register and all minutes of the various meetings and liaising with the sponsoring agency on all issues raised by the members and/or the agency.

The C.D.M acts as the agency's watchdog in the project. Unlike his colleagues in the management whose duties were defined by the members in conjunction with the sponsoring agency during the initial stages, his job description was given by the sponsoring agency. His duties include impacting the relevant management and leadership skills to the leaders. He guides

them on how to carry out their specific duties and thereby acts as a moderator. He also collects all the relevant information and feeds it back to the agency. The C.D.M is a form four school leaver from the local community.

Time is the other variable which was used as an indicator of proper management. Such issues as whether the members agreed on a time framework within which the goals were to be achieved, whether the goals were achieved within the agreed time, and if not by how much time projects exceeded the set time or whether it was altogether abandoned. In this particular project the officials were well aware of the time frame of the various goals which they gave as follows;

Goal	agreed time (years)
provision of clean water	10
provision of health facilities	5

These services were to be provided to all the nine hundred project members. Data on the total cost of the project was not forthcoming as the agency regarded this as confidential information. As mentioned earlier this project was started in 1992 and thus has been operational for only three years when the study was conducted. However the progress on the ground is quite impressive and some goals are apparently going to be achieved before schedule if the current tempo of activities is maintained. This is demonstrated by progress made with regard

to provision of health facilities. The idea here was to build a health centre which could cater for the needs of the members at a reasonable fee. So far the necessary physical structure has been constructed. In fact members are already getting some services from the centre although of a limited range basically due to inadequate personnel. They have several nurses and two clinical officers but the community would require at least one resident doctor. The laboratory equipment are not adequate either. By and large the officials estimate only about 10 per cent of work is remaining. This in effect means that if the planned level of activities is carried out the centre will be completed before the five year time frame.

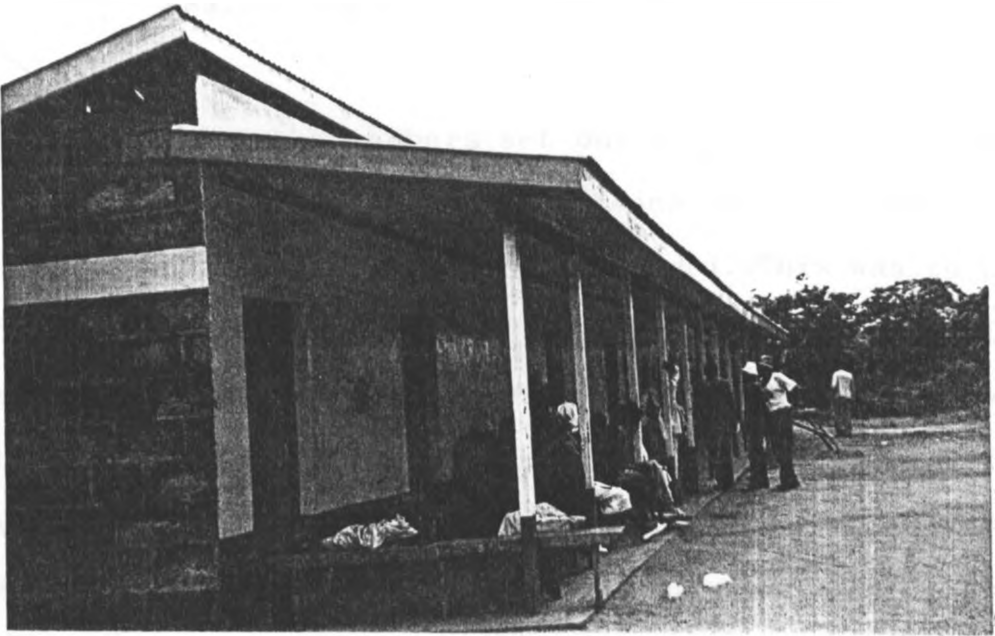


Plate one; Part of Kambiti Community Health centre constructed through self-help efforts.



Plate two; Mothers attending postnatal clinic in the new health centre.

In case of water the members set out to provide potable piped water within than 200 metres from each member's house and if possible provide a tap to every household. This was to be done within a period of ten years. So far a concrete storage tank has been constructed. The work of laying the pipes for the reticulation network started at the beginning of this year. Meanwhile those members close to the tank have already started benefiting from the project as they now draw water from a tap nearby the tank.

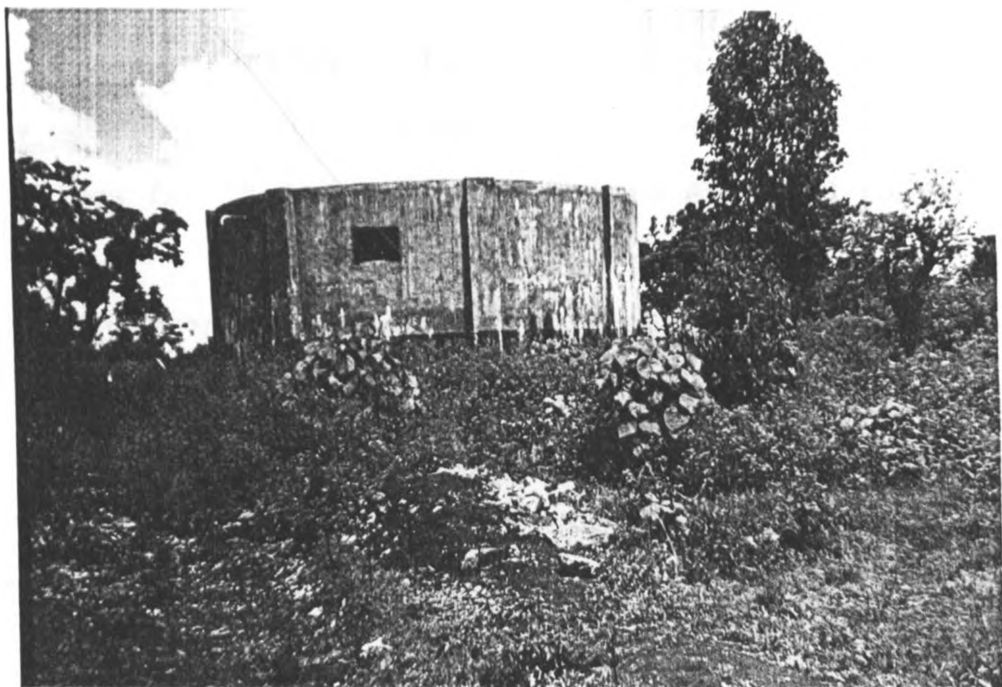


Plate three; The completed water tank

Meetings are valuable fora where members and management meet to exchange ideas and different viewpoints. The research set out to establish whether or not members general meetings are held. All the officials were in agreement that members general meetings are held at least once every three months. This was supported by data obtained from the household questionnaire where 87 per cent of those interviewed said that a general meeting is held at least four times in a year. It is at such general meetings that the leaders are availed an opportunity to explain the constraints and obstacles or constraints facing them in their endeavour to implement the members resolutions. This gives the members a forum to raise any issue or pose any

burning question they might be having or suggest solutions to the various problems outlined by the leaders. It is also in this gathering that those members who have not met the deadlines for their contributions are exhorted to do so.

In the conventional formal organizations the behaviour of members is invariably governed by a set of rules which specify the mode of interaction. The rules act as important tools of ensuring adherence to one's obligations by clearly stipulating the sanctions to be meted out to defaulters. Accordingly in this research the researcher set out to establish whether a similar position obtains in the community based organizations. The interviewees were asked questions on whether or not the project has rules of conduct for members. Those who said they have rules governing their conduct were asked to explain the nature of the rules i.e whether they are written or unwritten. On whether the rules existed or not all the officials affirmed that indeed there were some rules of conduct while 43 per cent of the members interviewed corroborated the officials contention, 4 per cent of the respondents said they did not have any rules while the rest 53 per cent said they did not know. All of those who said the rules existed were unanimous that the rules were unwritten. This lack of consistency with regard to this issue appears to indicate that if indeed there are any rules then the members were probably not involved in their making. But this is hardly surprising given that some of



these rules are nothing more than policy matters addressed at agency's headquarters. For instance that members should meet one quarter of the total cost of any task at hand is an issue that was settled at the agency's headquarters and was made clear to the members from the beginning. The fact that the majority of the members do not regard it as a rule does not make any less of a rule. Yet their perception of what is and what is not a rule notwithstanding the members know that failure to meet their obligation would result delays in implementation, in the final analysis this is really what matters.

For Makuyu Mabati Women Self-Help Group, the two managers viz chairlady and treasurer are quite knowledgeable about their roles in the group a fact which have contributed significantly to the remarkable achievements the group has made. During the interviews the chairlady described her role as that of the general coordinator. She chairs all the members meetings and executes the decision of the members. Any controversial issue is settled democratically by use of secret balloting, the decision of the majority is adopted as the official position.

On her part the treasurer said her work involves the monitoring of group finances, which she does by keeping all income and expenditure records. The group operates a bank account which it opened soon after it commenced operations.

Though the records are not kept in the conventional accounting system the goal of accountability in use of group resources is achieved. The treasurer herself did not benefit from any formal education but she did attend adult education classes where she acquired the basics of reading and writing skills. During the interview she divulged that she gets regular help from the teacher who by the virtue of her education and training is able to advice on the more complicated financial matters. The majority of the members have benefited from adult education classes and as such can understand rudimentary bookkeeping when it is explained in simple terms thus enabling them to participate in management.

With regard to rules of conduct all those interviewed said the group did not have any rules of conduct. However when the interviewer pointed out that any tool used to ensure compliance with group norms and objectives could be regarded as a rule most of the interviews changed their mind and said they had their own ways of ensuring that each member carried out his group obligations. This reflects the members understanding and perception of what a rule is and what it is not. The group members went through balloting in order to settle the crucial question of the order in which the iron sheet roofing was going to be done. Each member was ranked according to the number she picked. From the interviews it was gathered that one of the rules is that if a member does not

make her contribution in time and happens to have picked a good position in the balloting her position is swapped with that of another member who has fulfilled her obligations but who had picked a poor position during the balloting stage. This is one way of ensuring that members fulfilled their group obligations in time.

On the issue of time from the field survey it was clear that the members had not committed themselves to any timetable for achieving their goals but had merely indicated their desire to buy enough iron sheet for a household every two months. Thus it could have taken at least five years to go round the group. The group however managed to buy the iron sheet within three years. They immediately embarked on their second goal. Again they managed to achieve it but this time round took five years instead of the envisaged three.

The group then decided to construct rental houses in Makuyu centre. The progress towards this goal is good as the group has acquired a lot of building materials which include stones, sand and iron sheet. Judging from the responses from the interviews it is clear that the members are satisfied with the way the project is being run. Despite the fact that the group has been operational since 1982 the members have retained the same officials. This would seem to indicate that the members are satisfied with the performance of the management

committee.

In the case of Makuyu Greenbelt Movement Group the three officials are quite conversant with their roles. The chairman described his role as one of overseeing the orderly execution of group tasks as well as calling and chairing all meetings. The treasurer described his role as that of the custodian of the group finances. The group generates money from sale of seedlings to the members of the public and the money generated is deposited in a group account with the chairman and the treasurer being the signatories. The opinion leader said his role is that of community mobilizer. He works with the chairman in disseminating any new information or technique of planting or taking care of seedlings. Besides tree planting the group is also involved in soil conservation measures. It is the responsibility of the agriculturalist in conjunction with the opinion leader to teach the people any new techniques of combating soil erosion.

The group did not set a time limit for the achievement of their goals. The group like the others does not have any written rules and dealing with non-conformist is always a problem. At the moment the group activities have spread to cover the entire Makuyu location.



Plate four; Group members tending the seedlings at the group's tree nursery

#### 4.6 Summary

As earlier noted official's grasp of duties, record keeping, members general meetings, existence of rules and clarity of goals and timespan within which they have to be achieved were used as indicators of quality of management. The officials of the three successful groups demonstrated a good grasp of their duties. The goals the members sought to achieve through the project were clear in all the five groups but it is only in Kambiti Community Development Project that specific time limits were set for the different goals. In the three successful project members general meetings are held regularly

while the participation of the members in these meetings is quite high as can be seen from table seven. In all the three successful projects diligent record keeping is practised especially with regard to financial matters, all operated a group bank account where group monies are deposited. This is in contrast to the other two groups which failed. In fact Munyaka self-help group did not have even a members list when they were approaching possible donors.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter has dealt in details with running of community projects in Makuyu location Makuyu Division. A deliberate attempt was made to compare both successful and failed projects so as to gain insight to the peculiarities that make for the different outcomes for the different projects despite the similarities in conditions in which they are situated. This chapter looks at possible ways of dealing with the various weaknesses that have been identified.

#### 5.2 Conclusion

The available evidence does not support the first assumption concerning education in relation to project performance and hence it would be safe to conclude its not a critical factor. On the other hand management especially with regard to finance appears to have a bearing on project performance. In the three successful projects accountability and transparency in the running of group affairs was clearly discernable. The same cannot be said of the two failed projects. In fact the single most important cause of failure in both projects was members dissatisfaction with the way the group finances were being handled. This appears to indicate the existence of a relationship between community participation and project management. Where community participation is high and proper

management is practised chances of success are enhanced as is the case with the three successful projects. On the other hand high level of community participation alone without proper management practises cannot deliver as is demonstrated by the two failed projects.

This is consistent with Brokenshaw (1980) and Fowler (1984) both of who have argued that project management is essential for success. Existence of records such as members register, minutes of general meetings and financial records are given as some of the features of good management practice. While agreeing with this view Wait et al (1979) emphasized the centrality of financial management in ensuring success for any undertaking.

### 5.3.0 Recommendations

#### 5.3.1 Public Officers

A common problem with all the group studied with the exception of W.V.K funded Kambiti community development project, is the absence of government. Ideally government's role in group affairs should be kept to the minimum level. Nevertheless this is not to say that government should never be involved. Currently, beyond the registration of the group the government does not play any active role in the projects studied. It is clear from the field survey that, the government more than any other agency has the capacity to positively influence group



affairs. With every other major department being represented at the divisional and sometimes locational level, it is clear that any expertise needed to guide local initiative is in place. The only problem is that it is not being exploited to the maximum. With the foregoing it is therefore necessary to re-evaluate the role of extension staff. Their duties should not be confined to government sponsored projects but should encompass the whole spectrum of rural development activities including the provision of their expert skills to local communities. The authorities should also ensure that community development assistants are given basic skills in group leadership and financial management which they should pass on to the project members, as it is clear from the analysis administration of group finances is a common source of group problems. Such skills if passed to the communities would forestall a lot of problems.

Regionally there is a need to coordinate the activities of these groups in order to ensure maximum benefits from the scarce resources. Both physical planners and economic planners need to be consulted before the decision on location of some of those activities can be reached. For instance a group like Makuyu mabati group that decides to extend their activities to construction of rental houses would benefit a lot from the two officers who should be able to advice on the location and economical aspects respectively. At the district level the

physical planner can be a powerful representative of the groups interests in for example securing land for the location of activities at concessionary price. The economic planner would on the other hand be able to advice on the best kind of enterprise to undertake.

In discharging these duties the planners will play the role of covert activist. According to Anthony (1984) in playing this role the planner takes on the position and appearance of the apolitical-technical role but become significantly involved behind the scenes with political actions and politicians. Davidoff (1965) argued that planners should work as community advocates by acting as proponents of clear planning solutions.

On the whole as U.N.C.H.S (1989) recommended there is a need to enhance through training the skills of public servants in dealing with community projects. Such training should include issues of human relations, resolutions of group disputes and inculcation of sympathetic but non patronizing attitudes towards the members and generally a culture of dedication to service to the people.

### 5.3.2 Community Leadership Training

Another area that needs to be addressed is that of interpersonal relationships in the groups. Community leadership training should ensure that, the people are given

proper understanding of the distinction between group and individuals in the group. All the groups studied did not have written rules and regulations. They instead seem to rely on group norms to ensure conformity but these norms are neither elaborate nor sophisticated enough to deal with specific acts of defiance of group norms which could be very costly in monetary terms.

It is therefore essential that these groups be assisted to write constitutions which should among other things clearly specify the mode of group interaction, interpersonal interaction, officials and members obligations to the group and generally provide a mechanism for resolution of disputes. One possible way of achieving this would be to make submission of a written document detailing how the group affairs would be run a condition for registration. However taking into cognisance the fact that the majority of these groups are started by people who have not benefited from formal schooling and consequently would be hard put to come up with a written document, the government should help the group members to come up with the document which should express their own wishes on how the projects should be run.

The personnel assisting communities come up with management documents should have the skills that would enable them to incorporate democratic practices in the groups, in such areas

as the choosing of representatives, conduct of meetings, sensitivity to minorities and generally the idea of fair play in all matters without appearing to be wrestling the initiative from the group members.

As the experience of the W.V.K funded project has shown any donor wishing to help disadvantaged people should seek to work with not for them. Officials from outside the respective local area should be kept at the minimum. The projects should be led by the local people themselves with the donor providing the necessary training and monitoring of activities. The idea of community development motivators is particularly ingenious. As has been indicated elsewhere these officials in the W.V.K act as a link between the local community and the donor agency. Coming from the local community, Community Development Motivators have a stake in project success and are unlike other employees whose interest in community projects may go only as far as it is related to their payslip at the end of the month. The C.D.M are directly affected by the outcome of the projects in one way or the other. For instance the C.D.M could be a head of a household which is directly benefiting from a project say a water project. So besides the salary he gets for his work from the agency the C.D.M will reap additional benefits in form of water to households. In this situation the official is likely to go the extra mile required to ensure project success. Thus the idea of employing members

of local community as motivators is one which ought to be adopted by those wishing to be effective in raising the rural poor peoples standards of living.

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## Appendix

## Household Questionnaire

Questionnaire Number

Name of respondent.....

1. How many are you in your household.....
2. What is your occupation?
3. What is your wife/ husband's occupation ?
4. What is your monthly income?
  - a. Less than 2000
  - b. 2000-4000
  - c. 4000- 60000
  - d. above 6000
5. How many years did you spend in school?
6. Do you have any professional qualifications?  
if yes please specify.....
7. Why did you join this group?
  - a. to get some income
  - b. social interaction
  - c. any other (please specify).....
8. If income was the motivating factor how much money do you get per month?
9. Were you involved in the planning of the project in any way? if yes how? during
  - a. the identification stage
  - b. planning stage
  - c. implementation stage
  - d. all stages

11. What was/is your contribution to the group?

How many/much?

- a. money
- b. material
- c. labour hours
- d. any other (specify).....

12. Who funds the project?

- a. entirely locally funded by members contributions
- b. members contributions plus other donors, please give the name of the agency
- c. Government, which ministry?
- d. combination of the above (please specify)

13. If (a) above who manages the project?

- i. employees of the project
- ii. volunteer members
- iii. any other

14. Are they members of the local community? yes.. no..

15. What was the selection criteria?

- a. education
- b. professional qualifications
- c. popular appeal
- d. any other

16. If the project is donor funded who selects the managers?

- a. the sponsoring agency
- b. local project members
- c. both the agency and local members

17. What was the selection criteria?
- a. education
  - b. professional qualifications
  - c. popular appeal
  - d. any other
19. are they from the local community?
20. If the project is government funded who selects the managers?
- a. Government
  - b. local members
21. What was the selection criteria?
- a. education
  - b. professional qualifications
  - c. popular appeal
  - d. any other
22. How would you rate the project performance in terms of the original goals?
- a. Good (achieved 3/4 or more of the goals within set time)
  - b. Satisfactory ( achieved 1/2 or more of the goals within set time)
  - c. Unsatisfactory (achieved less than 1/2 of the goals)
  - d. total failure ( failed to achieve any of the goals)
23. To what would you attribute this level of performance
- a. Level of members commitment which was/is
    - i. very high
    - ii. average
    - iii. very low
  - b. Management which is/was
    - i. of high calibre
    - ii. of average capabilities

iii. poor and inefficient

24. Do you hold members general meetings? if yes how often?

25. Do you have any rules of conduct for members?

a. yes b. no c. do not know

If yes are they written or unwritten?

26. Are you satisfied with the way the project is running?

If not what would you suggest as necessary measures to

improve it i. ....

ii.....

27 Any other comment?

Thank You

## Management Questionnaire

Name of respondent \_\_\_\_\_

1. Where do you come from
  - a. From the local community
  - b. Outsider
- 2.(i) If outsider is it that the local community lacks a person with the necessary skills for this position? yes  
no\_\_
- (ii) If yes are you training the locals to take up the position when your term expires?
3. What is your position?
  - a. Chairman
  - b. Treasurer
  - c. Secretary
  - d. Committee member
  - e. Any other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
4. What are the duties attached to that position?  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. Do you keep any records? If yes which?
  - a. Books of account
  - b. Membership register ✓
  - c. Any other \_\_\_\_\_
6. How did you get to the position?
  - a. Selection ✓
  - b. Election
  - c. Appointment

d. Any other \_\_\_\_\_

7. Educational background

a. Primary level

b. Secondary level

c. College \_\_\_\_\_ / University level \_\_\_\_\_

8. Any professional qualification? \_\_\_\_\_

9. Any relationship between the work you do for the group and your educational/ professional qualifications?

10. i Please indicate the name of the project \_\_\_\_\_

ii When was it started \_\_\_\_\_

11. What were the original goals of the project?

Goal	Timespan months/year	Achieved within specified period	Exceeded specified period by so many months/ years	Abandoned
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				

12. Who set the project goals?

a. The target community

b. Funding agency

c. Both of the above

d. Any other \_\_\_\_\_

13. What is the project's annual budget? \_\_\_\_\_

14. How is the project funded?
- Membership contributions
  - Government
  - Donor
  - Combination of the above, how?\_\_\_\_\_
15. If the project is funded by membership contributions how much is each member supposed to contribute per given period?\_\_\_\_\_
- Who decides the amount to be contributed by each member\_\_\_\_\_
  - Is it uniform rate or otherwise?
16. In what other form are members expected to contribute? \_\_\_\_\_  
how much/many
- Material \_\_\_\_\_
  - Labour hours \_\_\_\_\_
  - Any other \_\_\_\_\_
17. Is the funding adequate?\_\_\_\_\_
18. If the project is donor, government and community funded what proportion comes from each?
- Government \_\_\_\_\_
  - Donor \_\_\_\_\_
  - Members \_\_\_\_\_
19. i. Does the Government/donor agency have any training policy for the local personnel who man/ will man the project after it withdraws its support ?

ii. If yes what are they?

i. \_\_\_\_\_

ii. \_\_\_\_\_

iii. \_\_\_\_\_

20. Was the community expected to participate in the project?

yes/no

If yes at what stage

a. Project identification

b. Goal formulation

c. Project design

d. Project implementation

21.(i) How many members were targeted to benefit from the  
project?\_\_\_\_\_

(ii) How many actually benefited/ participated?\_\_\_\_\_

22. How would you rate the members attitudes towards  
contributions?

a. Enthusiastic (3/4 or more pay their dues within set  
time)

b. Satisfactory (half or more pay their dues within set  
time)

c. Poor (less than half pay their dues within set time)

d. Totally uncommitted (3/4 or more never pay)



23. How would you rate the project in terms of goal achievement?

- i. Very successful (all goals achieved)
- ii. Successful (3/4 or more of goals achieved)
- iii. Fair (1/2 or more of goals achieved)
- iv. Poor (less than half of goals achieved)
- v. Total failure (abandoned)

24. If you rate the performance as poor or total failure what in your opinion led to this state of affairs?

- i. Poor management
- ii. Failure by project leaders to involve the people in the affairs of the project
- iii. Lack of commitment from targeted beneficiary community
- iv. Inadequate funding
- v. Any other \_\_\_\_\_

25. What are your suggestions on how to improve project performance?

- i \_\_\_\_\_
- ii \_\_\_\_\_
- iii \_\_\_\_\_
- iv \_\_\_\_\_

Thank You.