PARTICIPATION OF RURAL WOMEN IN COMMUNITY AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECT AND ITS CONTRIBUTIONS TO THEIR LIVELIHOOD IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

By

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JUNE, 2015

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation titled **"Participation of Rural Women in Community and Social Development Project and its Contributions to their Livelihood in Kogi State, Nigeria"** has been written by me and it is a record of my research work. No part of the work has been presented in any previous application for another degree or diploma at any Institution. All borrowed ideas have been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided.

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CERTIFICATION

This dissertation titled **"Participation of Rural Women in Community and Social Development Project and its Contributions to their Livelihood in Kogi State, Nigeria"** by Stella Ojone **ADEJOH** meets the regulations governing the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated tomy husband, Kennedy, my children, Jimmy, Michael and Letitia and to the memory of my beloved brother, Late Michael Ayegba Ati.

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study was to determine the level of participation of rural women in Community and Social Development Project (CSDP), a Community Driven Development Project in Kogi State, Nigeria. Purposive sampling technique was used to select eight communities from four Local Government Areas of the State, while simple random sampling technique was used to select the 320 respondents. In all, three hundred and twenty (320) copies of the questionnaire were distributed through personal visit but only three hundred and thirteen (313) copies were returned. Descriptive statistic, Double difference (DD) estimator in regression framework and maximum likelihood (ML) double hurdle model were used to analyze the data. The socio-economic characteristics of the rural women revealed that the average age of the participants was 43 years while the non-participants was 42 years old on average, 28% and 24% of the participants had secondary and primary level of education respectively. About 81% of the participants were married, had average household size of 7 members. About64% and 54% of the participants and the non-participants were engaged in other activities apart from farming, while 33% of participants were engaged in Farming as main occupation. Medium level of participation in CSDP of about 7 stages with a standard deviation of 6 stages was observed. The first hurdle of the Craggit model showed that household size, urban exposure and farming were significant at 10%, while social participation was significant at 1% level of probability respectively. The second showed that urban exposure, time and leadership position were significant at 1% while social participation and secondary education were significant at 5% levels of probability respectively. Participation in CSDP was found to have impacted positively on the livelihood of the participants by increasing significantly their productive assets by ₦26, 056.41. Twelve other benefits were derived from the project among which the three most distributed ones were reduction in water borne disease, reduction in time spent in household chores and reduction in time spent in fetching water. The least distributed benefits however were employment at health facility and employment at school facility. In terms of constraints to participation, nine important constraints were reported among which the three most important were lack of time due to household chores, financial constraints, and low level of education. The two least challenging constraints faced by the women who participated in CSDP were discrimination due to marital status and religious barrier. Based on these findings, it was recommended that to increase rural women participation in community driven development projects, policies and legal framework that will increase the level of secondary education for rural women be put in place by legislators and Government; development agencies, Ministries, departments and agencies of Government should increase advocacy and sensitization to encourage rural women participation in social meetings and finally build capacity of rural women in the area of time management and occupying quality leadership positions.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The participation of rural women in development process is considered to be largely determined by social, cultural, political and economic factors. These factors have led to inactive participation of women in the development process thereby increasing their vulnerability status especially in the rural communities. Rural women's participation in development process has therefore become the focus of many local and international debates in the past two decades. Different fora such as the 1995 Beijing Declaration, the 1995 Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women held in Kenya and the United Nations Development Fund for Women, have recognized the plight of women's participation in development especially in the developing countries. According to the Beijing platform for Action, each Member State should work on twelve critical areas of concern which includes power and decision making, poverty, poor health, education and training for women, violence against women, women and armed conflict, women and economy, human rights, media, environment, institutional arrangement for advancement of women and the girl child. Nigeria, as a signatory to the declaration, was able to develop the National Gender Policy in order to promote the prohibition of all forms of discrimination against women in the public and private sphere and institutions. Despite this effort, Nigerian Women are still faced with the problem of marginalization, and worse hit, are the women in the rural communities.

The issue of women participation in agriculture and rural development has had an increasing interest for researchers and donor agencies across the globe because of the role of women in economic development and their marginalization status. According to

Kabeer (2012), the terms and conditions of women's involvement in the economic sphere are important issues that continue to dominate the debate on gender relations in other words, the new developments led to an increase in the number of women in labour force, but the impact on their quality of life and decision making process is still to be felt. There is overwhelming evidence that of development policies and projects formulated bypassing the involvement of rural women in most African Countries (Hunger Project, 2000).Their voices are less likely to be heard, they have less access to decision –making and less time to participate (World Bank, 2011). The problem of lack of women participation in development process is well documented across literature on participation and gender (Kongolo, 2002 and Kabeer, 2011).

The World Development Report (1990) revealed that approaches that involve the poor (communities) in the design, implementation and evaluation of projects have been successful. Projects which have incorporated gender issues and also make use of human labour were said to have proven effective. The Federal Government of Nigeria, the World Bank and other international donor agencies such as the Department for International Development (DFID), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) saw the need for service delivery mechanisms that are demand-driven, covering multiple sectors and depending on the specific community determined needs. This led to policy designs to involve communities in the design, implementation and evaluation of their own development agenda known as the Community Driven Development (CDD).

In Nigeria, several projects have been implemented that seem successful using this approach, these include the: (1) Second National Fadama Development Project (NFDP-

II Project, 2003-2009), (2) Community-Based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP, 2001 - 2009), (3) Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP, 2003 - 2009), Community-Based Agricultural and Rural Development Project (CBARDP, 2003 - 2010), Third National Fadama Development Project (NFDP-III, 2008 - 2017), Community and Social Development Project (CSDP, 2009 to 2013).

The CDD approach has been propelled by its potential to develop projects and programmes that are sustainable and responsive to local priorities, empower local communities to manage and govern their own development programmes and more effectively target poor and vulnerable groups (Gillespie, 2004). The CDD has both positive and negative characteristics. In heterogeneous communities with high social inequality, the performance of CDD projects in targeting the poor has been worse than that of externally managed programs (Conning and Kevane, 2002). They also revealed that, in egalitarian communities with open and transparent systems of decision making, targeting was better with CDD than with development approaches using external project management.

Studies have shown that women make up the majority of rural poor and play vital roles in poverty reduction especially in Nigeria, yet they form part of the vulnerable and marginalized group in the society. The objective of development is not merely to increase income dimension of poverty, but also to expand people's real freedom. Without improving the social and economic situation of women who make up the majority of the poor in Nigeria, sustainable human and economic progress will be elusive. One of the principles of CDD is social inclusion, this study was therefore

carried out to determine the level of participation of women in the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) which uses the CDD approach to development.

1.2 Problem Statement

Different roles and responsibilities are carried out by different components of society as ascribed to them by the societal, political, economic, cultural and religious norms (Ekop, 2001). These roles and responsibilities have crucial implications for the achievement of development activities. Men, Women and children frequently have priorities and goals and the ability to participate in development (Ekop, 2004). Nigerian women constituted almost half (49.36%) of the total population according to British Council, (2012) Report. Research shows that women provide about 60-90 percent of the agricultural labour force (FAO, 1996; Ogunlela and Aisha, 2009), carrying out activities such as planting, transplanting, weeding, hoeing, application of fertilizers, harvesting and processing activities like threshing and winnowing. They play very important role in every aspect of the value chain; in addition to the processing activities, they are also involved in the transportation, storage, preservation and marketing of farm produce.

The rural women in Nigeria and in many developing countries are faced with the responsibility of farm work, housekeeping and earning money to supplement family incomes. The problem of insufficient time to perform all their productive and reproductive roles in a given day affects the women's ability to improve their own welfare and that of their families. In order to achieve sustainable development in our rural societies, the extent to which we are able to design development strategies that will respond to the needs of both male and females in the society rests to a large extent, upon what we know about gender related issues such as differential access to resources,

division of labour in productive activities as well as access to useful information that will improve their general wellbeing.

Mainstreaming gender into development project is not a new concept; World Bank (2000) on economic roles of men and women in Africa made the argument that Africa has enormous unexploited potentials with hidden growth reserves in its people, including the potential of its women, who now provide more than half the region's labour but lack equal access to education and factors of production. Although gender and women are used interchangeably, they are not the same (Akubuilo *et al*., 2011). It has been theoretically established by researchers and development workers through gender analyses that women are disproportionately disadvantaged, that is why majority of gendered interventions target women.

In Nigeria, common socio-cultural practices, lack of or limited access to political, economic and social power further deepen the vulnerability of women in particular, and by multiplier effect, of children and other vulnerable groups. This situation is not different in Kogi State where Community Driven Development Projects such as the National Fadama Project and the Community and Social Development Project are presently intervening. Despite the Social Inclusion principle of the CDD process, the participation of women in development process especially in the rural areas is still a big issue. This study therefore, sought to determine the participation of rural women in CDD and the contribution of the process to their livelihood. This therefore led the study to raise the following research questions:

i) What are the socio-economic characteristics of women in the study area?
ii) What is the level of participation of women in the Community and Social Development Project?

iii) What are the influence of the socio-economic characteristics of women on their level of participation in Community and Social Development Project?

iv) What is the impact of women participation in Community and Social Development Project on their Livelihood?

v) What are the constraints limiting the participation of women in community and social development project?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this study was to determining the level of Women participation in Community demand driven development and its contribution to their livelihood in rural areas of Kogi State. The specific objectives were to:

i) describe Socio-economic characteristics of the women in the study area;

ii) determine the level of women participation in Community and Social Development Project in the study area;

iii) determine the influence of the socio-economic characteristics of women on their level of participation in Community and Social Development Project;

iv) determine the impact of women participation in Community and Social Development Project on their livelihood;

v) identify the constraints limiting the participation of women in the Community and Social Development Project.

1.4 Hypotheses of the study

The Research hypotheses were:

H_{O1}: There is no significant relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of women farmers and their level of participation in the Community and Social Development Project.

H_{O2}: There is no significant relationship between participation of women in the Community and Social Development Project and their Livelihood.

1.5 Justification of the Study

The current emphasis placed by government on agriculture and rural development by initiating several development programmes since independence among which is Community and Social Development Project (CSDP), justified the need for an empirical study on the impact of participation in CSDP on women livelihoods in the study area. The study was therefore undertaken to provide findings on the level of participation of women in Community and Social Development Project, the factors that affect their participation and also the impact of their participation on their livelihood. The participation of rural women in development process has been the focus of intensive debates by most international forums in the past years (Kongolo and Bamgose 2002). Among numerous fora that have recognized the plight of Women from the developing countries participation in the development process are the 1995 Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women held in Kenya and the 1995 Beijing Declaration, the United Nations Development Fund for Women (2000). These Declarations, to some extent have been able to increase an awareness and understanding of the problems facing women especially in Africa. However, despite the efforts being made to mainstream gender into development process, women are still being faced with

enormous challenges thereby hindering their active participation in the development process. Literature is replete on rural women and their contributions to agricultural and rural development, but there is a dearth of information on their participation in the development process that deploys the community demand driven approach.

Research information provided by this study has helped to unveil the challenges faced by the rural communities and women themselves in participating in decision making process that affect their wellbeing. The information obtained from this study canbe used by the State and Federal Governments, development planners, non-governmental organizations, community based organisations and donor organizations set policies and strategies in further design and implementation of other agricultural and rural development programmes that can promote genuine participation of women in development interventions. The study can also be useful in guiding donor and Research Institutes in their investment policies. This study would also add to the existing body of knowledge in the area of gender mainstreaming in development studies.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of Rural Women in various Development Projects

The social, political, economic and cultural situations faced by women in the urban and rural settings differ remarkably. Some of the socio-economic characteristics that influence rural women participation in development projects as reviewed by literature are hereby highlighted below.

2.1.1 Age

In a study of the impact of poverty reduction programmes in Nigeria, Joseph (2005) found that few young people were engaged in poverty eradication programmes. He also found that most of the participants in poverty eradication programmes in Nigeria were middle aged men and women who were between the ages of 51 and 60 years. The study further showed that the overall average age of the rural dwellers was 60, and that the rural population contained a disproportionate number of people who have passed their prime age or who were retired civil servants whose productivity on the farm was likely to be low.

Eze and Nwachukwu (2007) in their impact of selected rural development programmes on poverty alleviation in Ikwuano LGA of Abia State showed that 68.18% (majority) of the respondents were between 41 and 60years implying that the participants in the government planned development programmes were within the productive work force. Agbongiarhuoyi and Daniel (2009) in their study of Gender contribution to Highland Tea field Agronomic practices in Taraba State revealed that 57% of the respondents were within the age bracket of 30 – 40 years old, which implies an active age bracket.

Similarly, a study of the challenges of women farmers' participation in the National Fadama Development Programme Phase II in Taraba State, Bonjoru *et al* (2010), 50% of the women were within the range of 40 – 49 years, implying that the majority of the women were within the most productive years.

Fasina *et al.* (2004) in their study of the impact of the Youth in Agriculture Programme in Ondo State revealed that 50.9% of the respondents were between the age of 20 and 35. Followed closely by those between 35-40years (39.2%) leaving only 10% of the respondents below the age of 35.

2.1.2 Formal education

Education plays a significant role in the economy of any society. It enhances participation and helps to build confidence in women (Odebode, 2012). Women's access to education and training influences their productivity (Adeyeye, 1991). In view of this, it is essential that the education provided meets the economic needs of the society, thus enhancing efficiency in the use of social and economic resources, ultimately leading to improved economic growth and social well-being (Mugisha *et al*., 1991; Mwamwenda, 1994). Ideally, education should contribute economic development, equalize opportunities between social classes, reduce disparities in the distribution of income and prepare the labour force for modern economy (Kriefer, 1985). The purpose of education (formal and informal) as stated by Rad *et al* (2009), is to communicate accumulated wisdom and knowledge from one generation to the next. Secondly, education enhances participation in innovation and the development of new knowledge. Ani *et al.* (2010) further argued that education enhances the ability to derive, decode, and evaluate useful information for agricultural production. The Food and Agricultural Organization/United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural

Organization (FAO/UNESCO) (2002) note that better education and training have become essential for sustainable development and for rural economies to survive.

There are many reasons as to why education of women is important. Research has shown that there is a strong association between education and better life, nutrition, improved hygiene, low mortality and fertility rates and economic development (Browne and Barret, 1991). The rate of women's participation in development initiatives is strongly influenced by their educational levels. The Nigerian Government recognizes that literacy education will help equip individuals with the knowledge, skill and attitudes needed for economic self-sufficiency, poverty reduction and sustainable development (UNESCO, 2012). The same UNESCO report states that 15.5 percent of women in Kogi State are literate as against 18 percent for men. This shows general low level of education in Kogi State. Lack of education and training in basic skills contributes to the vicious cycle of under-development, low productivity and poor conditions of health and welfare of women (Odejide, 1998). Eze (2004) posited that education is the greatest investment that the nation can make for the quick development of its economic, political and social spheres. A lack of education on the part of the women deprives them of their productivity levels in rural areas, because they will remain ignorant of ways and means of producing more on the farm (Kelly, 1987). Lack of education is enhanced by inequalities and disparities in the labour markets, including absolute poverty in the rural areas. Investing in female education, not only empowers, but also forms the basis for full promotion and improvement of the status of women, thereby helping bridge the gender inequality gap.

2.1.3 Marital status

Eze and Nwachukwu (2007) in their study of a poverty eradication programme in Abia State reported that about 73.12% of the participants were married while only about

26.88% of them were unmarried; singles, widows or divorced. Sabo (2005) in a separate study reported that majority of the participants (90%) and non-participants (75.3%), respectively were married. In a similar study, Agbongiarhuoyi and Daniel (2009) revealed that 66% of the respondents were married. Study carried out by Kariuki and Misaro (2013) on the Socio-economic Status and Participatory Development in Kenya, shows that there is no significant relationship between marital status and respondent's level of participation in Constituency Development Funds. Similarly, Idris *et al.* (2007) in their study of socio-economic factors affecting the participation of women in agricultural co-operatives stated that, marital status had no significant relationship with level of participation of women in cooperative activities. Elisia *et al.* (2010) posit that, participation of women in social, political and economic activities was associated with their marital status; that marital status contributes to women's decision making process.

Blaai (2009) argues that African culture and tradition overburdened married women (in particular) with multiple household tasks and allocated fewer tasks to their husbands. This decreased women's time dedicated to community project. Their reproductive and productive roles leave them with little time to engage in community development activities. There are many reasons to focus on, and to emphasize rural women's participation in development. The most fundamental reason is that they play crucial roles in both subsistence and market food production in Africa (Kongolo and Bamgose, 2002). Not only because they are working harder than the average man, but because they are reliable and committed to their tasks (Burkey, 1993: Hunger Project, 2000).

2.1.4 Years of residence

Study carried out by Angba *et al.* (2009) shows that length of residence correlates significantly with participation. A non-indigene is less likely to participate fully in

community development activities in a locality that is not his birth or where he has no lineage and obviously no commitment. However, an indigene of a community would better appreciate the conditions of his community because he has to contribute his quota to the development process. However, Ekong (2003) opined that for a non-indigene to be fully accepted into rural social groups; family he comes from must have lived in the community for a long time, gained acceptance of the people and contributed in various ways to growth of the area. In nearly all rural areas, being a stranger (non-indigene) is a stigma which length of residence cannot easily obliterate (Ekong, 2010). Place of and length of residence in community influences participation (Nelson *et al.* (1995). In a study of Effect of Socioeconomic characteristics of rural youths on their attitude towards participation in community development projects, Angba *et al.* (2009) revealed that 63% of the respondents have resided in the host communities for more than 20 years. Also, 80% of the respondents are indigenes of their community of residence. Jibowo and Sotomi (1996) in their study found that statistically significant relationship existed between age, level of formal education, occupation and participation in youth programmes.

2.1.5 Occupation

Adisa (2013) found a significant relationship between occupation and level of participation of rural women in Community Based Development activities. Similarly, Bzugu *et al*. (2005) found that there existed a significant relationship between primary occupation of respondents and their participation. Meanwhile, Angba *et al.* (2009) noted that occupation may not be a very serious determinant of participation in community development projects because there is less differentiation by occupation among the rural people.

2.1.6 Social participation

Organizations, such as associations or committees, are seen as important channels within the participatory development approaches (Brohman, 1996; Rudqvistamd Woodford-Berger, 1996; Blackburn and Holland, 1998). Co-operatives are useful instruments for effecting change in rural communities and this is the avenue through which most intervention programme are channelled through. Through community organization, co-operatives serve the basis and the platform for bringing together the economically weak members of the society with a view of enhancing their individual capacities (Alkali, 1991).

Topouzis (1990) reported that the evolution of women coo-operative in rural Africa has led to increased participation of women in economic activities and overall increase in farm output, while Ashanti (1993) observed that through participation of women in agricultural activities, benefits such as educational services have also reached rural women.

Membership of association helps to build social capital of people for collective action. A person's social relationships and institutional affiliations contribute significantly to her well-being. This helps to mediate access to resources and opportunities. Dikito (2001) and Chen *et al.* (2005) asserted that women consistently seek to create and join groups that will provide them with critical economic and social benefit. The International Food Policy Research Institute asserts that one effective way of ensuring women's participation is through networks or group-based programs (IFRI, 2005).

2.1.7 Household size

In a study by Badmus *et al* (2009), on Impact of Fadama II Development Project on Market Participation of Women in Akinyele Local Government of Oyo State, 63.6% of respondents had between 5 and 9 members in their household, 21.2% had less than 5 members, while 15.2% had more than 9 household members. This implies a fairly large household size which influences participation. Similarly, Adebiyi (2009) revealed an average of 8 member household of respondents. He found that 76.7% of the respondents had household size of 6 – 10 members and above, while 23.3% had between 1 and 5 members. Imoh (2004) found a significant relationship between family size and participation of women in community development. The study revealed that large family size did not permit women to participate due to routine burden of meeting the needs of many children. Imoh *et al.* (2009) found that Household size is statistically significant at 1%, but negative implying that as household size decreases, participation in community development increased. Kariuki and Misaro (2013) in their study noted statistical significant relationship between level of education, marital status, annual income religion, number of children and literacy levels and respondents' level of participation in Constituency development fund projects in Kenya.

2.1.8 Leadership position

Okunade *et al.* (2005) found a positive and significant relationship between participation of women local leaders and women based rural development project. Women's involvement in project/community level decision making and micro- project implementation explains their leadership roles and level of participation. Nadelman (2010), saw that one of the indicators used to assess women's participation in project is the proportion of women elected into leadership to take part in community-level

decision making roles. A study on the Haiti Community Driven Development Project Gender Assessment shows that there is statistical significant relationship between women inclusion in leadership and their participation in community driven development project (Nadelman, 2010).

2.1.9 Urban Exposure

Imoh (2002) revealed that lack of meaningful education and urban exposure is responsible for poor participation especially at the higher levels of community participation. Also variables such as years spent in the community and urban exposure were found to be negative, but significantly related to participation of women in community development (Imoh *et al.,* 2009). Due to reproductive roles performed many women in rural communities are not exposed socially, intellectually and even politically. This leads to low confidence levels and lack of self-esteem, therefore denying women the experience they need to be able to participate in Community development.

2.1.10 Time

Women worldwide have heavier time burdens than do men due to simultaneous productive, reproductive and community roles (Zuckerman, 2002). Rural women do not have enough time for other economic activities due to their involvement in multiple tasks and this has limited expansion on other scale of activities (Odebode, 2012). Even where women have equal education and experience to men, their heavier domestic work burden reduces their opportunities for economic participation and income generation. Domestic chores such as fetching water and firewood especially in the rural areas are major limiting factors; African girls spend more time on productive tasks than do boys.

According to 'The Women Empowerment in Agriculture Index' an individual is considered to have an excessive workload if he or she worked more than 10.5 hours in the previous 24 hours. Rural women's work is never done, farm work is part and parcel of their day's activities on top of household burden of taking care of the children (Kaplan, 1993), there an investigation into their 24hour activities will enable one determine how time is allocated to the various activities (including community development). In some communities, as a deliberate effort to frustrate the participation of women in decision making in development activities, meetings are fixed at odd hours (at times night or market days) which are not usually convenient for the women.

2.2 Level of Participation of Rural Women in Development Projects

Bonjoru *et al* (2010) reported medium participation of women in National Fadama II Development Programme in Taraba State, Nigeria. The findings revealed medium participation from the planning stage of the project to the execution stage. Similarly, Okunade *et al.* (2005) reported medium participation of women local leaders in Women-based rural development projects in Osun State, Nigeria. The study revealed that majority (50.92%) of the women were in medium participation category, while 31.48% of the women were in high participation category and 17.59% were in low participation category; it further explained going by the typology of Pretty and Vodouhe (1997) that the medium participation of the women indicates that majority of the respondents had not gone beyond functional participation where people forms group to meet predetermined goals related to projects meant for promotion of externally initiated social organization. Deji (2007) also found medium participation of women in rural community development projects in Nigeria. The finding revealed that 86.7% of the respondents had medium participation, while 11.7% had high participation.

2.2.1 Participation: concepts and definitions

Participation has become a strategy by many development organizations, for empowering people. Rahnema (1992) notes that participation has many dimensions; to understand it one needs to explore seriously all of its roots and ramifications, which are deeply linked to the heart of human relationships and the socio-cultural realities conditioning them. The concept is rooted in certain traditions and has distinct religious overtones (Henkel and Stirrat, 2001).

White (1994) asserts that it is relatively simple to say that participation is an important component of development, but it is not a simple or small task to mobilise people to participate. There is a need to have a participatory capacity, which cannot be built like a road or a dam, but needs to be developed (Uphoff, 1991:488). Participation as a behaviour cannot be imposed from above, according to Kumar (1994:76), it has to grow slowly in individuals and in groups until it becomes part of the community. Freire (1970) asserts that if people are not aware of the cause of their conditions, they will continue to react in a passive and alienated manner, even if asked to respond differently. In situations like this, powerless or marginalised groups need to be aware of the conditions that constrain their active involvement in their social and political environment. Stockes (1995), states that, participation should create consciousness or force participants to 'become conscious' and see realities around them. When people believe that they have had true participation in any decision that affects them, they will be willing to accept outcomes, even if it adversely affects them, in contrast to that, if decisions are imposed on them by outsiders or even the government, they are likely going to reject them sooner or later (Stiglitz, 2002).

2.2.2 Participation concept

Since the 1950s and 1960s, Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) across board, both national and international, have been promoting people's participation. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, multilateral agencies, such as the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) of the United Nations, International Labour Organisation (ILO) and United Nations Development Project (UNDP) also began to promote people's participation. The word 'participation' was linked with the word 'people' in the field of development planning and decision making when Robert McNamara (the World Bank President) in 1973 raised it as part of the 'new directions' for the Bank Strategy (White, 1994).

Blackburn and Holland (1998) define participation as 'a way' of viewing the world and acting in it. It is about a commitment to help create the conditions, which can lead to significant empowerment of those who at present have little control over the forces which condition their lives. Rahnema (1992) explained that participation could be 'moral. Amoral or immoral' either forced or free; either manipulative or spontaneous'. Rahnema concludes that participation in general is associated with moral or desirable goals and is seen as a free exercise process. White (1994) also views participation as a 'free act and adherent to moral', which is driven by human compassion, unselfish motives, sensitivity to the feelings and worth of others, supportive communication, openness to change and the shifting of responsibilities and power.

Dreze and Sen (1990), suggested that people's participation can have a powerful positive role in both collaborative and adversarial ways vis a vis national development policy. Ditcher (1992) makes the comparison between participation as an 'element' in

development as opposed to participation as the 'basis' for development. He further argues that, where participation is seen merely as an element, then people do not see themselves as having direct 'stake' and the project will fail.

2.2.3 Purpose of participation

Rahnema (1992) explains that when participation was introduced as an alternative development model, it was intended to perform at least four functions: a cognitive, a social, an instrumental and a political one. In cognitive terms, through participation, people's knowledge and understanding would form the basis for a new form of development. On the other hand, the instrumental function had to be providing the concerned parties with information about previous failures and to demonstrate alternative strategies. In social terms, participation gave people new hope and re-activated the development, while the political function of participation was to provide development with a new source of legitimating and empowering people and establishing a link with targeted populations.

There is agreement in literature that to achieve development objectives, an effective people-oriented approach have to be adopted. This was assumed to empower local communities who would be responsible for their own development (Nawal, 2007). The theory of participatory approaches is reflected through the efficiency argument, which focuses on achieving better project outcomes, and the equity and empowerment argument, which focuses on enhancing the capacity of individuals to improve or change their own lives.

Literatures have shown that participation has two clear objectives: (1) Participation as a 'means' to increase efficiency and effectiveness, and ensure the sustainability of a project or development programme. (2) Participation as an 'end' to promote stakeholder capacity, self-reliance and empowerment.

2.2.4 Adoption of participatory approaches

The non-involvement of beneficiaries at every stage of project development was a major factor in the failure of past agricultural and rural development projects. Participatory approaches owe it popularity to a widespread concern with the failure of conventional development strategies to make any difference to the life of marginalised and poor people (Mathur, 1995). Participatory approaches have emerged in order to bring development practice nearer to the people as a result of dissatisfaction with an expert led, top – down approach (Sillitoe, 2002) and attempts to challenge the inequalities in societies (Kothari, 2001). This approach suits the project that seeks the stakeholder participation (ODA, 1995).

The emergence of participatory approaches was accompanied by development of various participatory methods. These methods have been viewed as a means by which inclusion of marginalised people can be achieved and their role is to contribute to achieving empowerment (Chambers, 1997). They include Farming System Research (FSR), Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), Participatory Action Research (PAR), Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA), Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), Social Impact Assessment, Training for Transformation and Gender Analysis. The participatory process of development sought to eliminate dependency as the people themselves are in charge of the development

agenda. Rogers (1992) stated that participatory development works towards eradication of imbalances and inequalities; thus problems are not merely seen as purely economic and technical, but as human, social, cultural, political and psychological.

The promotion of participatory approach is based on the premise that it eliminates the weaknesses of the traditional "top-down" approach to grassroots' development (Sinkaiye and Ajayi, 2012). Proponents of participatory development argue that for development to be sustainable, it has to be grounded in local initiative (Farington and Martins, 1988; Rolling, 1998 and Chessa, 2001). A notable critic of conventional approaches to development is Robert Chambers (1983, 1997) who has made the case for 'putting the last first', with 'the last' being constituted by the poor, the powerless and the rurally isolated; based his work upon a study of rural communities, arguing that this philosophy is the best way of ending their persistent poverty and enabling them to achieve empowerment through the development process.

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

2.2.5. Community participation and community driven development

Community, according to Webster dictionary, is defined as a group of people residing in the same region and under the same government. It is also defined as a class of people or group with common interest. Ekong (2010) defined Community as a people living together within a common locality having shared interests and behavioural patterns. Such common interests and behavioural patterns manifest mainly in the areas of (1) Production, distribution and consumption of goods and services (2) Socialization (3) Social control (4) Social participation and (5) mutual support. This shows that Community is a process of social interaction and can be found within any geographical location; either in the rural or urban areas. For the purpose of this study, emphasis will be on rural communities. This is because more profound sense of community is found in the rural areas and more so that the majority of Nigerian population lives within the rural areas.

Community development refers to any concerted action in a locality taken by any agency and/or the local people themselves with the primary aim of bringing some benefits to the locality. It is a movement to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and if possible, on the initiative of the community itself, (Ekong, 2010). Community development can also be defined as the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of the government authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress (United Nations, from Biggs, 1999).

The major aim of community development as given by the foregoing definitions is to improve on the living standard of the community people with assistance from the government. In Nigeria, successive governments have embarked upon various rural development strategies to facilitate the development of rural economy and thereby alleviate poverty situation of the people. Strategies such as the Agricultural Development Projects (found in various states of the federation), Nigeria Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank, River Basin Development Authorities, National Food Accelerated Food Production were adopted. Despite these efforts, little success was recorded in terms of poverty alleviation and also farmer's productivity. The reason why past government efforts never yielded the desired result is because of its top-down supply- driven and non-participatory mode of delivering services to communities. The search for service delivery mechanisms that are demand-driven, covering multiple sectors and depending on specific community-determined needs, therefore , became increasingly necessary (CSDP PIM 2011).

Community Driven Development (CDD) refers to development process by which the people decide their own priorities for the development and efficient use of their scarce resources which are competing for many alternative uses. They also exercise control over their own economic, social and cultural development, (Sinkaiye and Ajayi, 2012). It is a development process that involves the communities in the design, planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of development projects. It is a bottom-up approach that empowers communities to initiate projects based on their felt needs and priorities, plan and implement by themselves, conduct monitoring and evaluation by themselves with outsiders as facilitators and not as dictators (John 2010). Community-driven development is amongst the fastest growing mechanisms for channeling

development assistance. It refers to community-based development projects in which communities have direct control over key project decisions, including management of investment funds, (Ghazala and Vijayendra, 2004). IFAD (2009) defines community driven development as that which involves a degree of devolution of responsibility to communities for managing their development, including design and implementation of projects. CDD projects seek to empower communities, reduce poverty and improve economic and social conditions of the poor, typically in rural and remote areas; it also addresses two persistent gender gaps: (1) Women's lack of voice in public decision making and (2) their poor access to services and markets (World Bank, 2011). CDD is an approach to development that provides social and infrastructure services, to organize economic activity and resource management, to empower poor people, improve governance and enhance security of the poorest.

In recent years, development partners have shown interest in supporting Agricultural and Rural Development Programmes' of the Nigerian government with the aim of alleviating poverty situation of the rural populace, especially the impoverished and marginalized groups. In 1988, the African Development Bank, the World Bank and the United Nations Development Programme launched the social dimensions of adjustment initiatives, with the objective to assist participating countries to integrate poverty reduction into structural adjustment programmes and development plans and by extension, programmes and projects (ARMTI, 2012). The use of CDD approach in the implementation of the World Bank and African Development Bank assisted projects rated the projects successful. In recent analysis of World Bank projects in Africa, 75 percent of projects with some level of community participation were rated satisfactory against 60 percent for all Africa projects in 1994 – 1997. World Bank assisted projects

such as National Fadama Development Project (II and III), Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP) and the Community Based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP) were all using the CDD approach. In addition to this, a few institutions such as the Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), Farming Systems Research Network, Institute of Agricultural Research and Non-Governmental Organizations such as the Rural Development Arm of the Catholic Church are now actively incorporating participation and participatory techniques in their work (John, 2010).

2.2.6 Integrating women into development

There is also an overwhelming evidence of development policies and projects formulated by-passing the involvement of rural women in most African countries. Many studies (Kongolo 2002:12, Songelwa 2009:150, Ogunlela and Mukhtar, 2009) have provided evidence showing that rural women specifically, contribute significantly to the economy of developing countries but they often find themselves lacking certain resources when it comes to contributing effectively to the economic output of their countries.

Rural development is the mainstay of agriculture and agricultural development in developing countries like Nigeria, therefore all efforts geared towards agricultural development will be fruitless without it (Odebode, 2012). Women in Africa (including Nigeria) generally play an important role in small- scale traditional agricultural production (Afolabi, 2008). They are mostly engaged in the production and processing of arable crops and are responsible for as much as 80% of the staple food items (Odebode, 2012). The importance and relevance of women in rural and agricultural

development thereforecannot be overemphasized. Women involvement in rural and agricultural development is not only in terms of their labour input, but also in terms of decision- making authority. In fact, as more men migrate to cities and other countries for work, increasing number of women are becoming heads of households managing farms on day-to-day basis (Saito and Weidman, 1990).

It has been asserted by Karl (1995), that the goals of development cannot be attained without women's full participation, not only in the development process, but also in shaping its goal. Recognition of vital role women in socio-economic life in both agricultural and non-agricultural activities, in accordance with the goals of United Nations Decade for Women, is a prerequisite for successful development planning and programme implementation (FAO, 1985).

Nigeria has been involved in several rural development and agricultural programmes which include National accelerated Food Production Programme (1972), Operation Feed the Nation (1976), River Basin Development Authority (1976), Green Revolution (1979), Back –to –land programme (1984), Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (1986) etc. Most of these programmes have not had lasting impact and vanished without achieving most of their objectives (Odebode, 2012). Moser (1989) identifies four approaches that determine the capacity of integrating women into development as: welfare, equity, efficiency and empowerment. In the 1950s and 1960s, welfare programmes included women as a vulnerable group. According to Townsend (1993), the welfare approach perceived women as passive receivers of development whereas empirical evidence has revealed that women in many African, Latin America and Asian Countries were in fact marginalised by development (IDRC, 2013).

Furthermore, Boserup (1989) argues that women had neither participated in decision-making that affected them and their families nor was their work valued. These concerns had raised attention about women's roles and interests and hence the United Nations launched 1975 – 85 as Decade for Women. This decade was followed by the organisation of international conferences and assemblies that resulted in various measures to promote women in development programmes (Nawal, 2007). This has helped to create awareness amongst nations on the plight of women and the acknowledgement of the need for raising the status of women.

The decade for women development programmes focused on increasing gender equity. This approach promotes the rights, inclusion and participation of marginalized social groups especially women in the development process (www.kit.nl/kit.gender, 2014). Further, efficiency joined equity to frame the Women in Development (WID) approach. According to Koczberski (1998), the efficiency argument was based on an understanding that women were not contributing to development and therefore WID efficiency policies of 1980s focused on encouraging women to spare time and work harder in development initiatives. WID framework emphasises women's access to education and employment, which requires reforming legal measures and changing attitudes to integrate women in modernisation process (Brohman, 1996). Through the WID approach, the integration of women into development process is viewed from the gender division of labour and the devaluation of women's work and therefore insisted on distribution of power between men and women.

There is growing concern about gender equality. This is viewed in terms of distribution of income, access to productive inputs such as credit, command over property or control

over earned income, as well as gender biases in labour markets and social exclusion that women experience in a variety of economic and political institutions (Cagatay, 1998). Gender inequality has been associated with restriction of life opportunities for women along with increased rate of domestic violence (Engle, 1997).

It has been acknowledge in the development sector that gender inequality is a major obstacle to achieving sustainable development and also a major obstacle to achievement of the millennium development goals by the developing countries (Nigeria inclusive). Consequently, the United Nations launched various projects that provided suggestions for national government to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment. The United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) Gender Mainstreaming Policy Programmes and Organisational structures are promoted across countries. Gender Mainstreaming is defined as 'the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes, in any areas and at all levels'. It is a strategy for making women's and as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and equality is perpetuated (Cagatay, 1998).

The empowerment approach to integrating women into development process is targeted at restoring the dignity of womanhood as sound, intelligent and functional members of the society. The approach seeks to assist women to gain greater development benefits. Empowerment actually means "seeking to increase the control of the under privileged sectors of the society over the resources and decisions affecting their lines and their

participation in the benefits produced by the society in which they live" (Bamburger, 1986).

Komolafe (2006) sees women empowerment as the development of mental and physical capacity, power or skills in women for them to operate meaningfully in their social milieu, thereby experiencing a more favourable level of social recognition and subsequently enhance their economic status. Ojobo (2008) viewed women empowerment as a process of enabling women to develop the capacity to actualize their potential. Women need not only economic empowerment but physical (health) and social empowerment. Empowering women according to UNIFEM (2000) include: (1) acquiring knowledge and understanding of gender relations and ways in which these relations may be changed, (2) developing a sense of self- worth, a belief in one's ability to secure desired changes and the right to control one's life and (3) gaining the ability to organize and influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order, nationally and internationally.

Strategic Objective 55 of the Beijing Platform of Action calls for an increase in the productive capacity of women by providing "access to capital, resources, credit, land, technology, information, technical assistance and training so as to raise their income and improve nutrition, education, health care and status within the household" (British Council, 2012). Data from the Nigeria's Core Welfare Indicator Questionnaire (CWIQ) show that, whereas one in every two men spends time doing pursuits that earn them an income, one in every two women spends time doing unpaid work (Angel-Urdinola and Wodon, 2008). This has implication for the empowerment of women in the sense that they are forced to rely on their male counterpart for survival thereby further entrenching

discrimination that not only undermine the life chances of millions of women but adversely affects their future children and the whole community. Empowerment of women can be achieved through education that builds positive self-image and boosts self confidence among them and also develop their ability to think critically. This can be done by: (1) direct involvement of women who are likely to be affected by development programmes, (2) addressing minimum needs such as nutrition, health, housing and education, (3) promoting self-employment through credit training, (4) providing lean season wage employment, (5) providing saving habit among them.

2.3 Factors Influencing Women's Participation in Community Driven Development project

There has been renewed attention on participatory approach to development among researchers and international organisations. Yet, very little attention has been focused on the relationship between socio-economic factors and women participation in community and social development geared towards rural poverty reduction.

It is a known fact that the Nigerian rural areas are not only affected by income poverty, but also lack of access to social infrastructures such as health, education, water and sanitation facilities that can help improve their livelihood; in addition to this, they are faced with exclusion from economic, social and political processes of the Government that affect their lives. According to Meer (1998), the impact of development on women in Nigeria is quite different for both urban and rural women. In fact, there is substantial evidence that rural women are mostly neglected and consistently have lost in the process of development.

Development projects are assumed to contribute to social changes in societies. However, they may not benefit all people equally, some people will gain more and

some may lose from the process (ODA, 1995). For this study, it is apparent that an empirical study of women participation in the developmental process of Kogi State is of necessity. Kogi State is a young state in Nigeria which is still developing with majority of her population living in the rural areas with farming as their major occupation; they are not excluded from the challenges faced by most rural areas in terms of low agricultural productivity, lack of access to social infrastructures and the challenge of sustaining natural resource base.

2.4 Impact of Rural Women Participation in Development Project on their Livelihood

The extent and nature of poverty in the rural communities has led to the implementation of a range of development programmes and projects aimed at improving rural livelihoods; thus many of the projects have been implemented with the argument that future economic, social and environmental development in the rural communities is best secured by improving rural economy, which is continually marked by high levels of unemployment (May 1999).

Mainstreaming gender and vulnerable groups into the Community and Social Development Project Cycle is a major component of the project activities. The major objective of mainstreaming gender and vulnerable groups is to ensure the full participation in project implementation and benefit thereby ultimately improving their livelihood. The Community and Social Development Project recognizes age, gender, culture barriers and socio-political differences of 'community members' as a potent strategy that can help diminish social constraints, thereby allowing contribution of ideas and skills for the purpose of sustainable development. Jahan and Mcleery (2005) stated that the impact of infrastructure on economic growth and poverty reduction takes the form of first round effects, followed by subsequent impacts.

A Livelihood is a means of making a living. It encompasses people's capabilities, assets, income and activities required to secure necessities of life (IFRC, 2013). The concept of livelihood is used mostly to address the issue of poverty that aims to be people- centred, non-sectional and grounded in the multidimensional reality of daily life (Dekker, 2002). Livelihood could be looked at in terms of quality of life and level of living. Quality of life in the rural setting according to Phillips (2006) is a multifaceted phenomenon determined by the cumulative interactive impacts of numerous and varied factors like housing conditions, infrastructure, access to various amenities, income, and standard of living, satisfaction about the physical and social environment. Level of living refers to the quantity of goods and services actually consumed by an individual and his family. Studies carried out in different parts of Nigeria indicate a comparatively lower level of living in the rural than urban areas (Ekong, 2010). Research findings show the following benefit to women as a result of participation in development projects.

2.4.1 Change in income

Olaniyan (2000) observes that income is an important contributor to the improvement of rural wellbeing, and that nonwage income source is the major contributor to welfare increases in the rural areas than the wage income. Nadelman (nd) indicates a positive correlation between income of women and their participation in Community Driven Development Project; it explains that the project provided opportunities for income generating activities such as running community store, managing a fruit processing facility and earning revenue from user fees and increasing agricultural production as a result of enhanced irrigation, thus increasing overall profits beyond family consumption. Study by Madu *et al* (2012) also attributed increase in income to

participation in project; the study indicates that household incomes improved significantly more for fadama II beneficiaries than for non- beneficiaries.

2.4.2 Increased access to rural infrastructure

Infrastructures are those underlying or basic forms of physical, social and institutional capital which enhances rural communities 'production and consumption activities and ultimately improve their wellbeing (Madu, 2012). The improvement of the status of rural residents (men, women, boys and girls) is greatly influenced by the type and quality of infrastructure available. World Bank (1994) and Ekong (2003) asserted that rural infrastructures constitute a significant position in rural dwellers welfare and infrastructural development with contemporary development programmes such as agricultural extension, education, health and nutrition. Ekong (2003), explained that the spread of needed infrastructure and introduction of appropriate technology in rural areas would markedly improve rural economy and output. Iheanachu *et al* (2007) explained that one of the major contributions of infrastructure is its capability to enhance market access and marketing of agricultural products, thus encouraging a structural departure from subsistence-based agriculture to commercialisation. Improved rural roads facilitates timely evacuation of farm produce and the delivery of farm inputs, thereby reducing post -harvest losses and farm gate input prices below what they would other-wise have been (Idachaba, 1995).

One of the major objectives of the Community and Social Development Project is to improve access of the gender and vulnerable groups to social infrastructures that will improve their level of living. The absence of basic infrastructure such as health care centres has rendered community members unproductive as most farmers are infected,

affected or afflicted by one disease or the other (CTA, 2004). The availability of health centres helps to reduce the drudgery of low production among women farmers and other rural dwellers. Evans (1990) stated that the provision of infrastructural facilities will enhance livelihood of rural dwellers, in terms of demand for consumer goods, creation of non-farm jobs and employment diversification in agricultural production areas.

2.4.3 Reduction of women's time constraint

Community and Social Development Project facilitates access of rural people to social infrastructures such as portable water, electricity, functional health centres and good schools which are often lacking in the rural communities. Evidence has shown that when such basic infrastructural facilities are provided, rural dwellers (farmers) will migrate less to urban areas and concentrate much on their productive (agricultural activities), economic and social activities with the view to develop themselves for better quality of life (Madu, 2012).

Improvement to basic infrastructures such as electricity and portable water helps to reduce the constraint of women and enables them to reallocate their time among their multiple domestic and productive responsibilities (Nadelman, nd). The provision of good quality water to women farmers reduces not only the time spent collecting water, but also helps to improve their health and more energy is therefore available for productive work.

2.4.4 Capacity building

Community driven development (CDD) prescribes the involvement of community members in project planning and implementation. Findings by Madu *et al* (2013)

indicates that the capacities and abilities of beneficiaries of the CDD project were enhanced through capacity building to assess their needs, participate in planning, implementation and manage economic activities. Glennerster and Miguel (2011) explained that women's participation in CDD project in Sierra Leone enabled them to gain experience and skill in project management. Nadelman (2010) also posited that women's participation in CDD project in Haiti enabled them to gain new practical financial and management skills, like pricing and book keeping.

2.4.5 Decision making

Nadelman (2010) stated a positive correlation between participation of women in community driven development and decision making. The study explained that the participation of women led to increased self-confidence, greater solidarity with other women, increased respect from men at the community level and increased role in household decision making. Haider (2012) found that women were more visible in decision-making process at the village level as a result of their participation in the Indonesian National Program for Community Empowerment, however the quality of participation remains low, and power remains within the traditional structures.

2.5 Socio-Economic Constraints of Women

In Nigeria, the status and role of women vary from one ethnic group to another. Women play an essential and dynamic role in socio-economic life, although in most parts of the country, especially in rural areas, cultural, legal and regulatory barriers seriously hinder their access to health, education, financial and agricultural services.

Wikipedia defines socio-economic status (SES) as an economic and sociological combined total measure of a person's work experience and of an individual or family's economic and social position relative to others based on income, education and occupation (http://en.wikipedia.org). It also refers to a person's standing, interaction with society and involvement in the community. Wikipedia further defined social status as the honour or prestige attached to one's position in society; while economic status is ones financial position. Ekong (2010) defined social status as social standing or position of an individual in relation to others as ranked by society based on criteria considered of value to that society. Socio-economic status can therefore be defined as a person's social and economic standing within the society of abode. Ekong (2010) further explained that, as statuses become more or less fixed, the society becomes stratified with each strata being more or less homogenous. Between the social strata, there exist differences in life chances (i.e. probability of securing the good things of life such as freedom, high level of living, leisure, etc), social status(i.e prestige and deference accorded) and political influence(the ability to participate in or influence decisions affecting the larger social system). The foregoing shows clearly that the social factors that give status to individuals are socially determined criteria rooted in that society's value system. Some of the factors that determines ones socio-economic status within the society are Wealth (income, ownership of means of production such as land), Occupation (skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled workers), Family ancestry (years of residence in a given community or immigrants), Religion (affiliations) and Biological attributes (male or female and also age).

Traditionally, women provide food for the family and are also responsible for fetching water and fuel in the community, and for household chores. About 35% of Nigerian

women marry before the age of fifteen with adverse consequences for their education, maternal health and economic status (CPRP 2000). At the community level, the lack of health facilities, access to basic education, access to portable water and sanitation etc. particularly affects women and children and this aggravate their poverty status.

The low socioeconomic status of women limits their opportunities for broader participation in society (Onwubike, 1990).The socioeconomic status of the Nigerian rural woman is low due to inherent social hierarchy and economic deprivation as explained in the preceding explanation. Prevailing cultural practices determine and sustain the low status of women. Beginning from childhood women are made to accept the superiority of men in all aspects of socio-cultural life.

Although SES discussed above (i.e education, occupation, income, wealth, access to land) play significant role in limiting or rather inhibiting the participation of women in agricultural and rural development activities in communities, they are not the only factors that contribute to the low status of women in the society. Studies have revealed that culture change also contributes to the roles played by women in agriculture and rural development activities. Culture has a way of shifting the behaviour of individuals; they act in a certain way because of what is expected of them by societal culture (FAO, 2009). However when culture changes, as a result of various external and internal forces, change in the behaviour of individuals also occurs. Changes in one aspect of culture may have an effect on other aspects of that culture as well (FAO, 1995). It has been observed that social structures and cultures are never completely static; they can and do change. The rate at which change takes place depends to a large extent on the contact people have with other cultures and new ideas, and on the ability of individuals

within the society to initiate and accept change. Literature on rural development and women and development also identifies socio-cultural factors as having a significant impact on the wellbeing of women. The participatory approach to development engaged by the Community and Social Development Project is expected to bring about changes in the culture and social structure of rural communities, in the sense that women are encouraged to participate in project and other public activities, a far cry from what was obtainable in many Nigerian rural communities.

2.6. Community and Social Development Project

In the recent past the Federal Government of Nigeria has reformed some poverty reduction interventions and instituted new ones. Notable among such programmes interventions are the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), the Nigerian Agriculture and Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB). With the support of international agencies the Federal and State Governments have also instituted and implemented community driven development (CDD) -based interventions as pilots in some selected States and communities. Such CDD type projects include the Community-based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP), the Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP) and FADAMA supported by the World Bank and ADB (CSDP PAD, 2009). The Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) is therefore, the new intervention program of the World Bank in collaboration with the Federal Government of Nigeria, to build on the existing structure of the LEEMP and CPRP to effectively and efficiently increase access of the poor in rural communities to social infrastructures that will improve their wellbeing.

The CSDP became effective in 2009 and closed in Dec 2013, it operated as a social fund in 28 States of the federation with the World Bank providing funding support. CSDP focus on provision of social services and natural resource management. The CSDP support (i) the empowerment of communities to develop, implement and monitor micro social infrastructure projects (public and common pool goods) including natural resource management interventions; (ii) social risk management interventions (safety nets), and (iii) strengthening the skills and capacity of LGAs and sectoral public agencies to support communities and build a partnership between them.

The CSDP has three major components: (1) Coordination and Technical Support Component: At the Federal level, this component was supervised by the Federal Ministry of Finance. The Federal Project Support Unit (FPSU) being responsible for the following: (a) technical support to State Agencies and activities on Procurement, Financial Management, Gender, Environment, and Local Government Capacity issues. (b) CSDP Monitoring and Evaluation; and (c) Poverty and CDD Policy design and dissemination. (ii) Sectoral Ministries Capacity and Partnership Building Component. This component implemented by the State Agency in all participating States and also provides funding for capacity building, skills training and hardware types of investment to facilitate activities with community groups. (iii) Community-Driven Investment Component. This component, managed by the State Agency, provided funding for community development plans based on specific selection criteria, including broad-based community participation in plans formulation, micro-project identification and preparation, and a matching contribution from communities.

Possible micro-projects that may be contained in eligible CDPs include rehabilitation, extension or construction of primary schools, health centres, water points, reservoirs and sanitation services; rehabilitation or repair of feeder road, small bridges, and other basic transport infrastructures; and small socioeconomic infrastructure for community use (public goods) such as markets and storage or natural resource management facilities. More than 70% of the funds in this component were devoted to funding of CDPs produced by community groups. In addition, to the micro-projects that are socioeconomic infrastructure, the CSDP at the State level also fund natural resource management/environmental initiatives, as well as safety net activities targeting the most vulnerable groups (CSDP PAD, 2009).

The CSDP uses the Community Driven Development (CDD) approach that ensures the involvement of the rural people in the planning, design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of the micro-projects that addresses their felt needs. The project also engages the beneficiary communities in environmental management practices. The CSDP Credit amount for the federation is US$380m (IDA-US$200m, Partners– US$180m) while Kogi State Credit amount is US$9.55m (IDA –US$5, Partners US$4.5 – Kogi State Government and benefiting communities).

2.7 Project Development Objective and Key Indicators Development Objectives

The project development objective is to sustainably increase access of poor people to improved social and natural resource infrastructure services. This is to improve human development through the reduction of rural poverty.

2.7.1 Key indicators

The key performance indicators are: (i) Increased number of poor people (of which 70% are women) with access to social services. (ii) Increased number of poor people with access to natural resources infrastructure services and (iii) Increased percentage of participating Local Government budgets that incorporate Community Development Plans.

2.7.2 Implementation process

The CSDP through the use of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) method encourages the rural communities to produce Community Development Plans (CDPs). The underlying principles and processes of the CDP are intended to ensure that funded activities reflect the communities identified priority needs, and that the communities take the lead in preparing and implementing these activities.

2.7.2.1 Selection of communities

Under CSDP, all communities are considered poor and eligible to submit proposals for funding if: (1) it is rural (following the existing State Government classification of areas as rural, semi-urban and urban). (2) If it lacks any infrastructure or social amenity that falls within the list of projects normally financed by the State Agency; or the one(s) available, are in state of disrepair or inadequate in meeting the community requirements. (3) Willingness to contribute 10% of the total project cost, to the financing of the micro projects in the CDP. (4) In addition, poverty maps will be used in deciding which communities to be prioritized as beneficiaries (CSDP PIM, 2009).

The State Agencies first carry out baseline survey and poverty mapping of respective States to enable them assess the poverty situation, then engage in massive sensitization

and awareness campaigns to the general public through the use of electronic and print media. Interested communities that are in need through registered community based associations, express their interest for support to the State Agency, which further select beneficiary communities based on geographic targeting with the help of poverty map.

2.7.2.2 Participatory rural appraisal method

The CSDP uses different Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) tools, such as trust building/ climate setting, twenty-four (24) hour activity chart, community resource mapping, transect walk tool, community needs assessment, historical timeline, HIV/AIDS village mapping, preference ranking and Gender analysis matrix. The PRA tools are usually engaged during large community gatherings, where the views of men, women, elderly, youths and vulnerable groups are all considered. At the end of such community gatherings, the various groups in the community vote for their needs which are ranked based on the identified need with the highest number of votes. This method allows for the voices of women and other vulnerable groups to be heard. The PRA normally results in identification of priority projects the communities will desire the agency to assist them fund and the election of Community Project Management Committee (CPMC) from the community, would from that point package (design, plan, cost and implement) the Community Development Plan (CDP) for the agency's funding. The CDP is a comprehensive plan put together by any interested community with the assistance of the agency and is composed of at least 5 proposed micro projects out of which at least two must be funded/ supported by the agency.

2.7.3 Project cycle

The CDP goes through the following typical cycle:

Planning:

1. Needs assessment (PRA)
2. Project identification
3. Project Selection

Project Preparation:

1. Consultation with technical /professionals
2. Decision on scope of micro-project to take up

Formulation

1. CDP Packaging
2. Counterpart fund Contribution

Project Implementation:

1. CPMC training
2. Procurement
3. Disbursement
4. Technical support/Supervision

Monitoring and Evaluation:

1. Periodic Monitoring (part of project progress)
2. Reporting/Consultation (information and feedback given and received)
3. Corrective intervention
4. Problem solving

2.7.4 Eligible projects under CSDP

1. **Physical Infrastructure**
   - Feeder roads: construction and rehabilitation
   - Culverts, bridges, drifts and stock routes
   - Boreholes (with or without pumps)

2. **Social Infrastructure**

- Health facilities, potable water supply facilities, rural electrification, construction and rehabilitation of primary and secondary schools, Libraries.
- Water transportation (provision of engine boats, speed boats, etc)

3. **Other Infrastructure**

- Modern markets
- Vocational training centres (skill development centres)

4. **Environmental and Natural Resources Management**

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

2.7.5 The Kogi State Community and Social Development Agency (KGCSDA)

KGCSDA was established in April 2009 as a follow up project to the Community Based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP) that ended in March 2009. It was established to implement the World Bank funded Community and Social Development Project across the twenty one (21) Local Government Areas (LGAs) in the State.

2.8 Analytical Review

2.8.1 Corner solution models

Corner-solution model applies to dependent variables where data are truncated and "piles up" at some given value, but is continuous otherwise.

Conceptually, a corner solution model can be presented as

$$\begin{cases} y_i = {y^*}_i \ if \ {y^*}_i > 0 \\ y_i = 0 \ if \ {y^*}_i \leq 0 \\ {y^*}_i = \alpha + X_i\beta + \varepsilon_i \end{cases} \quad \ldots\ldots (1)$$

According to Wooldridge (2002) when $y_i \geq 0$ Ordinary Least Square (OLS) cannot longer be employed in estimating β because $E(y_i|X_i)$cannot be linear in X_i unless the range of $X_i$is fairlylimited. He also pointed out that the model implies constant partial effects. Furthermore, predicted values for y_i can be negative for many combination of $X_i$and β.

2.8.2 Tobit model

In order to surmount the drawbacks of OLS technique, the standard Tobit model was first introduced by Tobin (1958). For the estimation of equation (1), Tobin (1958) proposed the following likelihood function

$$f(y|x_1) = \{1 - \Phi(x_1\beta)\}^{1(y=0)} \left[(2\pi)^{\frac{-1}{2}}\sigma^{-1}exp\{-(y - x_1\beta)^2/2\sigma^2\}\right]^{1(y>0)}$$

Where:

Φ is a standard normal cumulative distribution function and exponential indicator functions are $1(y = 0)$ and $1(y > 0)$. Many authors such as Wooldridge (2002), William (2009) and (Ofie and Damisa, 2011) noted that the major limitation of the Tobit model is that the choice of $y > 0$ and the value of y, given that$y > 0$, is determined by the same vector of parameters β. Literally, Tobit model assumes that the

probability of a positive value and the actual value, given that it is positive, are determined by the same underlying process.

2.8.3 Cragg's Double Hurdle

In the past, censored regression models were employed to analyse individual choice behaviour (Ofie and Damisa, 2011). For corner solution outcome, the standard Tobit model was more appropriate than the OLS and binary logistic estimates (Yimer, 2011). Tobit model is however restrictive for both economic and statistical reasons, which makes the model unsuitable for certain empirical applications (Ofie and Damisa, 2011). Cragg proposed a more flexible alternative that allows these outcomes to be determined by separate processes through the incorporation of a probit model in the first tier and a truncated normal model in the second. Differently put, the main advantage of Double-hurdle over Tobit is that an independent variable's effect on the probability of a positive outcome and its effect on the quantity of that outcome are determined by separate processes, that is the sign is allowed to vary across the two processes. Moreover, the standard Tobit model is a nested model of the Cragg's Double Hurdle. This implies that, the use of The Cragg's Double Hurdle model can be justified via a likelihood ratio test, see Table 5.13.

The model proposes that two hurdles must be crossed for a positive observation to be recorded. In the context of rural women participation in CSDP, the first hurdle is whether the rural women participated in CSDP or not, a different latent variable is used to model the process. The second hurdle concerns the level of participation. This second stage uses observations from the rural women who participated in CSDP. A different latent variable is also used to model each decision process.

In order to integrate the probit model to determine the probability of $y > 0$ (1st hurdle) and the truncated normal model for given positive values of y, Cragg (1971) proposed a modified version of the likelihood function presented in (1) as

$$f(w, y|x_1, x_2) =$$

$$\{1 - \Phi(x_1\gamma)\}^{1(w=0)} \left[\Phi(x_1\gamma)(2\pi)^{\frac{-1}{2}}\sigma^{-1}exp\{-(y - x_2\beta)^2/2\sigma^2\}/\Phi(x_2\beta/\sigma)\right]^{1(w=1)}$$

The probability regarding whether $y > 0$ is

$$p(y > 0|x_{1i}) = \Phi(x_1\gamma) \quad \text{(2)}$$

The expected value of y conditional on $y > 0$ is

$$E(y_i|y_i > 0, x_{2i}) = x_{2i}\beta + \sigma + \lambda(x_2\beta/\sigma) \quad \text{(3)}$$

Where $\lambda(c)$ is the Inverse Mills Ratio (*IMR*)

$$\lambda(c) = \phi(c)/\Phi(\mathrm{c}) \quad \text{(4)}$$

Where

ϕ is the standard normal probability distribution function.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

There are various approaches that focus on the issues of women participation in agriculture and rural development in communities. The Theory of Participation, Feminist Perspective and Impact Theory were used to guide this study.

Approaches to development have been changing in recent years to reflect a new paradigm that emphasises sustainability, institutional change and participatory learning process which promotes capacity building and empowerment of local people. Participatory theory of development evolved through the perspective of different development theories. Growth Theory dominated in the 1940s and 1950s. During this time development planning was seen as a key strategy to achieve desired changes and the state was assumed to play a crucial role in that process (Schech and Haggis 2000). The Growth theory saw progress as economic growth concerned with material enrichment. This approach assumed that by increasing production, higher income would be generated and this would result in greater income utility and welfare, and hence the living conditions of the poor would be improved (Griffin, 2000). Through this approach, development planning was focused only on economic transformation while other aspects such as culture and society were ignored.

During the 1960s, Modernisation Theory emerged and followed the path of growth theory. Modernisation theorists (Smith, 2003; Hall, 1992) advocated abandoning local traditions if communities intended to become modern. Modernisation theory paid attention to social and institutional changes, but economic factors remained the central

focus (Brohman, 1996: Willis, 2005). The focus of the development strategies in this era was generally directed toward industry and trade at the expense of agriculture, while goods and services and opportunities for employment were concentrated in urban areas (Brohman, 1996). Modernisation Theory is now understood to have caused widespread damage to fragile environments and indigenous cultures in many countries (White, 1994; Brohman, 1996).

Development theorists debated and analysed the experiences of the modernisation theory in the developing countries. Nelson and Wright (1995) suggested that the following factors contributed to this debate: firstly, donors and international agencies were concerned about the failure of decades of conventional top-down forms of development. Secondly, in developing countries there was disappointment with the whole development process. Accordingly, it was widely acknowledged in the development industry that the post war development strategies had failed to bring the intended benefits to the majority of the world's population. As a result, Dependency Theory emerged in the early 1960s. It explained the causes of the poor economic performance and increasing poverty in developing countries. Dependency Theory was later criticised for being overly concerned with economic factors and ignoring the social, cultural or political contexts within which development took place (Willis, 2005).

In response to these shortcomings, development scholars started to view development from different perspectives. Rahim asserts that development is a heterogeneous system whose structure is differentiated by socio-economic and cultural factors, such as race, religion, class, caste, profession, gender, language and subculture traditions and it

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

3.2 Theory of Participation

As shown in the preceding discuss, Theory of Participation has received considerable attention particularly since the early 1990's. It is been put forward as a means of understanding and assessing the level of participation of rural women farmers in the CSDP in the study area.

According to Kotze (1997), Participation is a complex and on-going process through which people are enabled to exercise varying degrees of influence over developmental related activities that affect their lives. Theory of Participation is a people-centred approach to development which is defined as a 'process by which members of a society increase personal and institutional capacities to mobilise and manage resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life'. It encourages small-scale community actions such as agricultural and community

infrastructural projects in order to enhance economic self-reliance. Hence, the approach encourages participation of the majority of the population, especially women, youth and the illiterate in the process of development (Coetzee and Graaff, 2001). The women become empowered, self-confident, creative, responsible and cooperative (Schenk *et al*,2000:24). They are also able to make informed decisions on issues affecting them and they participate in social and economic development.

It has been widely acknowledged that local people within a country or a community are the ones who should decide the meanings and values of development and benefit from outsiders' knowledge and information without being dominated by it (Rahim, 1994). In relation to this argument, it has been suggested that for participation to achieve sustainable outcomes, people should be involved in higher levels of decision making (Schouten and Moriarty, 2003). This argument suggests that there are different levels of participation.

Several hierarchies of participation have been developed for different sectors. These frequently involves terms such as 'Passive participation' or 'Tokenism' at the low-end of the scale (Pretty, 1995; World Bank, 2001a; Prokopy, 2005). For example, contribution of either money or labour toward a predetermined project can be considered a very low form of participation or even non-participation (Prokopy, 2005). There has been a shift towards understanding participation during the last three decades; various theoretical shifts combined with the discussion on participation have emerged during this period. These include Feminist (Boserup, 1989; Kabeer, 1994), Cultural (Folbre, 2001; Sillitoe, 2002) and Political (Freire, 1970; Friedmann, 1992; Gaventa, 2004) perspectives. As a result several concepts such as Local Knowledge,

Empowerment and Political relations have emerged and been linked to participation (Nawal, 2007). All these concepts have contributed to what is commonly known as a 'paradigm shift' in the way people perceive the relationship among themselves, their societies and the planet (Keough, 1998). These theoretical paths have paved the way for development tools, such as Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) (Chambers, 1994) to be used by social fund agencies such as the Kogi State Community and Social Development Agency.

Participatory approach connotes active involvement of rural people in planning and managing their own development. It uses the demand-driven, self- help potentials of farmers and it emphasizes capacity building, awareness creation, mobilization, empowerment and self-help for rural community people. The underlying assumption in the past was that, the beneficiaries do not have anything to offer as they were seen as void of ideas, highly ignorant and fatalistic; consequently, development workers and extension agencies were the ones that designed and developed projects without the involvement of beneficiaries (Sinkaiye and Ajayi, 2012). According to Biggs (1989), participation is identified according to the degrees of actors 'involvement and control over decision making. (i). In contractual participation, one stakeholder group is owner of the process and keeps decision making power. The other partners are formally or informally contracted' to participate in activities defined by the owner. (ii) Consultative participation supposes that the key decisions are kept with one stakeholder group, but emphasis is put on consultation and gathering information from other actors, especially for the identification of constraints and opportunities, priority setting and/or evaluation. (iii). There is the collaborative participation when different actors collaborate on more equal footing, stressing linkage through knowledge exchanges and sharing decision-

making power during the process. Finally, (iv) there is collegiate participation when the different stakeholders work together as colleagues or partners. Ownership and responsibility are equally distributed among partners and decisions are made by agreement or consensus.

Some critiques consider participatory development perspective to be a form of tyranny within development (Cooke and Kotari, 2001). For participatory development to operate, and for local initiatives to be viable, there need to be a pre-existing sense of community (Purvis and Grainger, 2004). Guijt and Shah (1998) maintain that the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) approach to community neglects the divisions and existence of tension that exist within communities as a result of differences in power relations between groups. It has also been claimed that participatory approaches neglect why some people choose to participate and others do not, and how the multiple and evolving identities of individuals inform their choices (Cleaver, 2001).

Another critique is the issue of who speaks for the local community? According to Mosse (1994), achieving a fair representation of local opinion within participatory projects is difficult in societies where women and ethnic minorities are marginalized. Indeed, in some cultures, women find it difficult to become actively involved in PRA because of conventions that restrict their public role (Hopper, 2012). The nature of leadership and organization of community based organizations (CBOs) may perpetuate this form of discrimination.

Some critique also claim that development agencies and institutions are only paying lip-service to participation; to buttress this argument, Mohan (2002) claim that PRA has

become simply a rubber-stamping exercise to enhance credibility of projects. Mosse (2001) asserted that participatory approaches have proved to be compatible with top-down planning systems, and have not necessarily heralded changes in prevailing institutional practices of development; 'Development from below' therefore remains at the level of rhetoric because there is an 'implicit assumption that communities can only develop once they have assimilated specialized technical and material inputs from the outside' Nyamwaya (1997). Exponents of participatory development responded that approaches like PRA contain their own critically reflective practices and therefore many of these criticisms have been addressed (Chambers, 1997).

This study applied the participatorytheory because of the participatory nature of the Community and Social Development Project in the project cycle starting from Needs assessment to the project implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This approach provides the basis for the method and selection of projects and also the involvement of women and other vulnerable persons thereby allowing their voices to be heard. Miller and Razavi (1998) posited that participatory approaches are more responsive to women's needs and less susceptible to male bias in comparison with other centralized and bureaucratic development methods. However, Guijt and Shah (1998) identify what they term 'gender naivety' within participatory development. They point to the absence of links between participatory development and gender studies, and the lack of gender sensitivity on the part of the exponent of the former. For example, the presence of women at community gatherings has often been taken as evidence of inclusivity, a perspective that ignores the dynamics of gender relations within particular societies.

Using the Participatory theory as a framework , this study assume that there are social, economic and cultural factors that affect the level of participation of women in the Community and Social Development Project. The participatory approach enables women to be involved in project activities because of the use of participatory tools like the PRA, but how involved are they? Is their involvement mere attendance at meetings or its quality involvement?

3.4 Feminist Theory

The feminist perspective is an approach that has emerged as a result of theory of participation and will also be used to guide this study because of its relevance and interdisciplinary nature in dealing with women related issues. Various feminists' perspectives were developed to help in addressing the oppression of women in communities.

Feminism refers to the awareness of women's oppression and exploitation at work, in the home and in society as well as to the conscious political action taken by women to change this situation (Moore, 1988). Feminism is the recognition that women, compared to men, are an oppressed group and that woman's problems are a result of discrimination (Marie, 2005). Cornwall (2003), defines feminism as women's engagement in demanding and creating an equitable society. He further states that feminism deals with the power of women that encompass recognizing and respecting women. Feminism theory concerns itself with the rights and interests of women and also the equal distribution of power amongst women and men in the society or any other place (Nawal, 2007). According to the feminist perspective, women are same as men; therefore, they have equal right to equal treatment (Hughes 2002).

Feminism maintains that mainstream development economics and economic theory are blind to the gendered nature of the societies (Folbre, 1986: Sen and Grown 1987; Elson, 1995). For example, because of its claim to be value free or neutral, economic theory and analysis does not take into account the sexual division of labour. It therefore misses the fact that a large proportion of women's work in many parts of the developing world is unpaid labour, notably in the bringing up of children and running households. In short, contributions that women make to economies are rendered invisible (Elson, 1991). This means that policies do not contain measures to counteract inequalities, but rather serve to perpetuate male bias.

Feminist theory maintains that the household is a key arena in which gender relations are shaped and played out (Hopper, 2012). Indeed, Kabeer (1994) contends that the household is a primary site for the construction of power relations. For this reason, she is critical of economic models of households within mainstream development theory for ignoring this reality, and in particular for neglecting the nature of gender inequalities that exist within the family unit. Likewise, for Friedmann (1992), the double disempowerment of women in both the public and private spheres begins in the household. He argues that 'the overall structure of household relations throughout the world openly discriminates against women and keeps them in a state of permanent subordination vis-à-vis males, both inside the household and in the wider public domain. If this form of social, political and psychological disempowerment is to be tackled, there is need to build households that can be a source of empowerment for both women and men. This will involve addressing four broad categories: time savings in completion of household chores; improved health care; acquisition of knowledge, skills and information; expanded income opportunities (Friedmann, 1992). He further

explained that, it is because households are integrated into the wider social relations of production and politics that makes them so important strategically, and it means that the democratization of the household will be wider.

Critiques of the Feminist perspective have opposed feminism for attempting to undermine the family. Varley (2002) noted that households are cultural constructs and that the nature of their organization and functions they perform will reflect the conditions of their respective cultures and societies. We should be wary of making universal statements about the impact of households upon gender relations. She further explained that households are not isolated units but overlap with other households and social groupings like the extended families, neighbours and friends. Ostergaard (1992) posited that one-third of the world's households are always female-headed due to factors like separation, death, conflict and economic migration.

The strength of the feminist theory lies in the fact that it helped to create awareness on the marginalization of women within the household and its impact on the larger society. Even though arguments by feminist researchers are often politicized within the development institutions (like bureaucracies, academic institutions and social movements) as a result of unequal power relations that exist within them, such researches have helped to bring about campaigns that have yielded positive results; it made it possible for the United Nations to set aside two decades for women (1975 – 1995) culminating in the 1995 Beijing Conference and setting up of a Fund for Women in Development, among others. The Women's movements also struggled to influence the World Bank policy formulation, due to its organizational and voting mechanism, the dominance of neo-liberalism and because first and foremost it is an economic institution

that has always prioritized its relationship with borrowing countries. It is worthy of note that, the feminist theory gave rise to the new gender scholarship. While feminism is pro-woman, it should not be seen as solely as women working with other women on issues of concern to women, men as well as women can be proponents and beneficiaries of feminism (Hyde, 1996; Ferree and Merrill, 2000). Feminism is transformational because it involves a vision of a society that does not exist and sees social, political, and economic change as necessary for that vision to be realized (Martin, 1990).

The Community and Social Development Project is a World Bank assisted projects across twenty six (26) States of the Federation. With the increased awareness on the vulnerable situation of women in the developing countries, the World Bank incorporated Gender Mainstreaming with emphasis on women participation, as a component in the project.

Through the feminist theory, the study intends to highlight those socio-economic and cultural factors that limit the participation of women farmers in community and social development project, thereby addressing the challenges faced by them. This is because the feminist approach prescribes that all members of society be treated equally with respect and dignity, and that equal distribution of resources be practiced. The equal distribution of resources and equal treatment in the society will encourage women to engage in agricultural and rural development activities and this will ultimately allow for sustainable development and reduction of poverty in the rural areas and the Nigerian Nation at large. According to Marie (2005), Feminists are committed to the elimination of all forms of oppression and strive to enhance participation by bridging differences. This means working towards understanding social problems and also having a close

examination of the ways in which various forms of privileges are manifested in community development efforts, which is what this study seek to carry out.

Finally, to cultivate participatory community based practice, women need to feel recognized and their issues validated. Moreover, feminist theory offers principles and guidelines that enhance communication, participation and long-term change process (Marie, 2005).

3.5 Impact Theory: Definition, Evaluation and Modeling

3.5.1 Definition

Impact can be defined as changes that can be attributed to a particular intervention, such as a project, programme or policy, both the intended as well as ideally the unintended ones. According to Patton (1978) impact is the actual programme outcomes in relation to the desired outcomes (goals).

3.5.2 Assessment evaluation

Determining the impact of a programme/project helps to ascertain if the set out objectives have been achieved or not. There has been notable interest in measuring impact of development programmes on target beneficiaries in recent years. Impact Assessment (IA) is a study to identify changes as a result of a programme by employing methods to establish plausible association between changes experienced and participation in the programme. The level and nature of participation should affect the impact of the programme. Impact assessment may link an institutional review of programme components and procedure with client level data to determine what is working well and what can be improved upon (Barnes and Sebstad, 2000). Establishing impact essentially is making a case that the programme leads to the observed or stated

changes. Changes are more likely to occur with programme participants and without programme participants. It does not imply that the changes always occur from participation. Rather, it increases the probability that the changes will occur (Rosi and Freeman, 1989).

Social impact assessment by Community of Practitioners considers that all issues that affect people, directly or indirectly, are pertinent to impact assessment (Wikipedia, 2014). Furthermore, a way of conceptualising impact is as changes to one or more of the following:

- People's way of life – that is, how they live, work, play and interact with one another on a day to day basis;
- Their culture – that is, their shared beliefs, customs, values and language or dialect;
- Their community – its cohesion, stability, character, services and facilities;
- Their political systems – the extent to which people are able to participate in decisions that affect their lives, the level of democratisation that is taking place, and the resource provided for this purpose;
- Their environment – the quality of the air and water people use; the availability and quality of food they eat; the level of hazards or risk, dust and noise they are exposed to; adequate sanitation, their physical safety, and their access to and control over resources;
- Their health and wellbeing – health is a state of complete physical, mental, social and spiritual wellbeing and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity;
- Their personal and property rights – particularly, whether people are economically affected, or experience personal disadvantage;

- Their fears and aspirations – their personal perceptions about their safety, their fears about their future and the future of their children.

In determining the impact of social interventions, therefore, Sept *et al.* (2011) suggested that the programme should be assessed considering the outcomes sought and the extent to which the goals are furthered by the demonstrable effects on the participants in the programme as compared with non-participants. Thus Gilbert *et al*. (1975) observed that social intervention may have more than one goal such as primary and secondary goals which may affect the choice of criteria in assessing its impact. Under these circumstances, it is desirable to use more than one outcome as a measure of impact. For example; the overall aim of community based organization programme is to improve the quality of life of the rural dwellers. However, more immediate outcome of the programme such as awareness and membership increase are also of interest. The impact of the programme may be either positive or negative. These depend on the forces that interact to produce the changes.

3.5.3 Modeling

An impact evaluation is essentially a problem of missing data, because one cannot observe the outcomes of program participants had they not been beneficiaries. Without information on the counterfactual, the next best alternative is to compare outcomes of treated individuals or households with those of a comparison group that has not been treated. In doing so, one attempts to pick a comparison group that is very similar to the treated group, such that those who received treatment would have had outcomes similar to those in the comparison group in absence of treatment.

The basic evaluation problem of comparing outcome y across treated and non-treated individuals i can be written as;

$$y_i = \alpha X_i + \beta P_i + \varepsilon_i \quad \text{..... (5)}$$

Here, $P_i$is a dummy variable taking on the value of 1 for those who participate and 0 for those who do not participate in a programme. $X_i$is a set of other observed characteristics of an individual i and perhaps of her household and local environment (community factors). Finally, ε_i is an error term reflecting unobserved characteristics that also affect y_i. Equation (4) is commonly used to evaluate the direct effect of a programme P_i on outcomes y. Indirect effects of the programme (those not directly related to participation) may also be of interest, such as changes in prices within programme areas.

The problem with estimating equation (1) is that treatment assignment is not often random because of the following factors: (a) purposive program placement and (b) self-selection into the program. That is, programs are placed according to the need of the communities and individuals, who in turn self-select given program design and placement. Self-selection could be based on observed characteristics, unobserved factors or both. In the case of unobserved factors, the error term in the estimating equation will contain variables that are also correlated with the treatment dummyP_i. One cannot measure - and therefore account for – these unobserved characteristics on the basis of equation (1) which leads to unobserved selection bias. Technically $cov(P_i, \varepsilon_i) \neq 0$; this implies that one of the key assumptions of ordinary least square in obtaining unbiased estimates would be violated: independence of the regressors from the error term. The correlation between P_i and ε_i naturally biases the other estimates in the equation, including the estimate of the programme effect.

This problem can also be represented in a more conceptual framework. Suppose one is evaluating an antipoverty program, such as a credit intervention, aimed at raising

household incomes. Let y represents the income per capita for household i. For participants, $P_i = 1$, and the value y under treatment is represented as $y_i(1)$. For non-participants, $P_i = 0$, and y and be represented as $y_i(0)$. If $y_i(0)$ is used across the non-participating households as the comparison outcome for the participant outcomes $y_i(1)$, the average effect of the programme might be represented as follows

$ATE = E(y_i(1)|P_i = 1) - E(y_i(0)|P_i = 0)$ ..... (6)

Here, $D =$ Possible programme effect, $E(y_i(1)|P_i = 1) =$ Expected income per capita for the participants and $E(y_i(0)|P_i = 0) =$ Expected income per capita for the non-participants.

The problem is that the treated and non-treated groups may not be the same prior to the intervention, so the expected difference between those groups may not be due entirely to program intervention. It has been demonstrated in the literature that because the income per capita of the non-participating households under participation is not observable, the magnitude of the bias cannot be estimated. As a result, if one does not know the extent of selection bias, one may never know the difference between the treated and the control group, i.e., the true impact.

The true impact generally known as average treatment effect (*ATE*) is obtainable in a situation whereby, a randomly chosen household from the population assigned to participate in the programme, so participating and non-participating households have the same probability of receiving the treatment P_i. Thus, the basic objective of a sound impact evaluation is then to find ways of getting rid of selection bias. Several approaches, depending on the retained assumptions, have been proposed in the literature to overcome the problem of selection bias in ex-post impact evaluation. These are: (i)

Randomized Evaluations, matching methods, specifically, Propensity Score Matching, Double Difference methods, Instrumental Variable methods, Regression Discontinuity Design and Pipe Line methods, Distributional Impact, Structural and other Modeling Approaches.

3.5.3.1 Randomized evaluations (RE) methods

Randomized evaluation involves a randomly allocated initiative across a sample of subjects (communities or individuals, for example); the progress of treatment and control subjects exhibiting similar preprogram characteristics is then tracked over time. Randomized experiments have the advantage of avoiding selection bias at the level of randomization.

3.5.3.2 Propensity score matching (PSM) methods

In the absence of an experiment, *PSM* methods compare treatment effects across participant and matched nonparticipant units, with the matching conducted on a range of observed characteristics.*PSM* methods therefore assume that selection bias is based only on observed characteristics; they cannot account for unobserved factors affecting participation.

3.5.3.3 Double Difference (DD) Method

Double Difference method assume that unobserved selection is present and that it is time invariant - the treatment effect is determined by taking the difference in outcomes across treatment and control units before and after the program intervention. *DD* methods can be used in both experimental and non-experimental settings.

3.5.3.4 Instrumental variable (IV) methods

Instrumental Value models can be used with cross-section or panel data and in the latter case allow for selection bias on unobserved characteristics to vary with time. In the IV approach, selection bias on unobserved characteristics is corrected by finding a variable (or instrument) that is correlated with participation but not correlated with unobserved characteristics affecting the outcome; this instrument is used to predict participation.

3.5.3.5 Regression discontinuity (RD) design and pipe line methods

Regression Discontinuity and pipeline methods are extensions of *IV* and experimental methods; they exploit exogenous program rules (such as eligibility requirements) to compare participants and nonparticipants in a close neighborhood around the eligibility cutoff. Pipeline methods, in particular, construct a comparison group from subjects who are eligible for the program but have not yet received it.

3.6 Conceptual Model for the Study

The model constructed for this study identifies the factors affecting the level of participation of women in community and social development project in rural areas of Kogi State, as shown in figure 3.1. In this model, socio economic characteristics of the rural women are proposed to be affecting their level of involvement in the Community and Social Development Project.

For the purpose of this study, ten socio-economic variables are being considered. These variables are selected mainly because they have been found in other studies to be statistically related to participation in development activities.

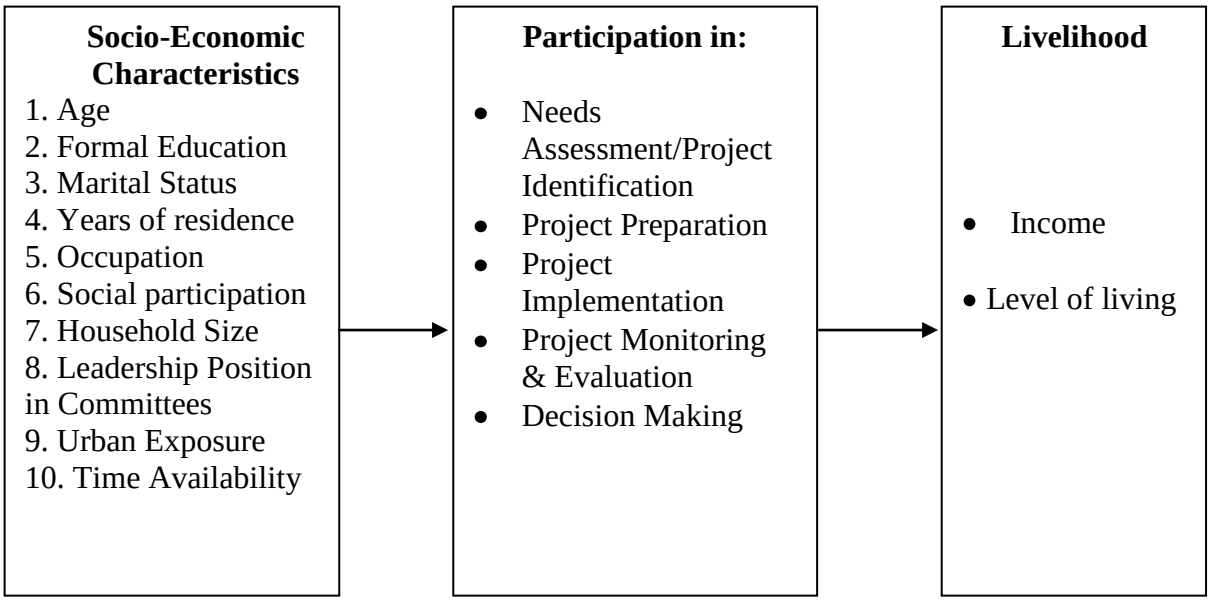


Figure 3.1: Factors influencing the participation of women in Community and Social Development Project and effects of participation on their Livelihood.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Description of Study Area

Kogi State lies in the North Central geo-political zone, located between longitudes 5^{o}18E to 7^{o}45E and latitude 6^{o}3'N to 11^{o}20N. The state shares boundaries in the north with Niger and Nassarawa States and the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, in the west and east with Kwara and Benue states and to the south with Ekiti, Ondo, Edo, Anambra and Enugu states. Arable land in the state is about 50,000sq.km. Out of a total of 75,000sq.km (QWIC Survey, 2003), 20% of the land is occupied by people (15,000 sq.km). Rivers and streams occupy 3,750sq.km (5%), while hills and mountains occupy 7% or 3,250sq.km (KOSEED, 2006; Ibitoye, 2006).

The current population figure for Kogi State is 4,167,773 people based on projection from the 2006 population census figure (3,278,487), broken down into 2,150,617 males and 2,017,154 females. It is estimated that about 70% of the population live in rural areas (Ibitoye, 2006). This population is made up of various ethnic groups, which includes Igala (40.93%), Ebira (34.92%), Okun Yoruba (10.73%), Nupe (4.85%) and Bassa Komo (4.07%) speaking people (Ibitoye, 2006).

Two seasons of rainy and dry periods prevail in Kogi state. Normal rainy season extends from March/April to October with peaks in June and September each year. The average annual rainfall is between 1200mm—1800mm. Temperature ranges from 24^{o}C—37^{o}C with average relative humidity of 75%. The state is divided into four agricultural zones (A, B, C and D) by the Kogi Agricultural Development Project (ADP). The study area falls within all the zones.

Kogi state is characterized by two main vegetation types. Zone A (Yagba-Kabba areas) is mainly covered with patches of derived savannah (forest- savannah ecozone). Derived savannah also occupies zone B (Dekina-Ankpa) with pockets of deciduous forest. Zone C (Kotonkarfe-Lokoja-Okene) is characterized by woodland savannah and patches of forest on the southern part; while the northern part (Chikara to the boundary with FCT) is covered with southern guinea savannah. Zone D (Alloma-Idah-Ibaji area) is characterized by a mixture of forest—savannah ecozone (derived savannah) and forest vegetation.

Agriculture is the main economic activity of most communities in Kogi State and virtually all the twenty-one (21) Local Government Areas (LGAs) of the State are rural in population. Many communities in the LGAs are characterised by limited access to social services such as electricity, access roads, markets, health and educational facilities and safe drinking water. Many of the communities in the state are living in isolation as a result of poor road network; this has great negative implication for agricultural productivity in the state and also the country in general. When there is a post-harvest marketable surplus, it is not always easy to reach the markets; limited accessibility has also cut off small-scale farmers from sources of inputs, equipment and new technologies (Dayo *et al.*, 2008).

The Community Driven Development approach (CDD) was introduced to Kogi State in the year 2000 through the Community Based Poverty Reduction Project (CPRP) by the World Bank in collaboration with the Federal Government as a pilot project. The CPRP project was executed across the twenty-one (21) Local Government Areas (LGAs) of the state. After the successful implementation of the pilot project, it was then scaled up

to what is now known as the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP). CSDP is a component of Social Community driven investment which finances projects contained in approved Community Development Plans (CDPs) prepared by communities. It uses participatory approach to development. The CSDP commenced on the 1st of April, 2009 and ended on the 31st of December, 2013. Community Based Organizations from different communities from across the twenty-one (21) LGAs in Kogi States express their interest for support from the Kogi State Community and Social Development Agency.

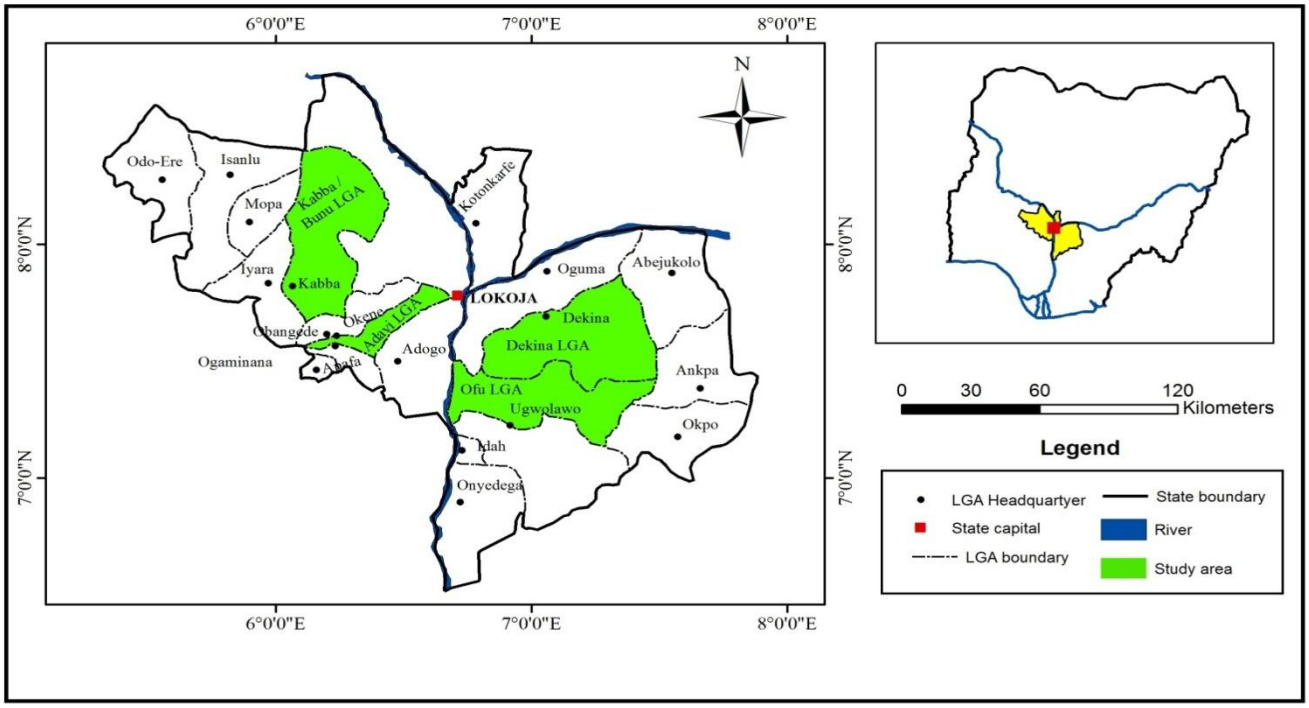


Figure 4.1: Study Area (Green colour)

Source: GIS Laboratory Federal University, Lokoja, 2014

4.2 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Kogi State was purposively selected for the study because of the intervention of the Community and Social Development Project across the twenty one (21) Local Government Areas of the State. A multi-stage sampling technique was employed in the selection of the respondents. In the first stage, four (4) rural Local Government Areas (LGAs) out of the twenty-one (21) LGAs of the State namely: Dekina, Ofu, Kabba/Bunu and Adavi LGAs were purposively selected from the four (A, B, C, and D) Agricultural Zones. The selection was based on the high number of completed community projects in these LGAs based on preliminary information gathered from the Kogi State Community and Social Development Agency (KGCSDA). In the second stage, two rural communities with the highest number of completed projects from each of the selected LGAs were purposively selected out of the list of Communities with completed projects at KGCSDA office. This brought the total number of selected communities to eight (8). Preliminary information gathered also revealed that a community can only demand support from KGCSDA through existing formal Community Based Organization/Association (CBO/CBA) within the communities, as registered members. However, the CSDP intervention encourages all members of communities to participate in the project irrespective of their CBO registration status, religion, gender and cultural background. On this note, forty (40) women respondents were therefore randomly selected from each of the eight (8) communities giving a total of three hundred and twenty (320) respondents from the four LGAs. Random selection was done from the women population to give opportunity for both participants and non-participants to be selected.

Prior notice was given to the communities through the chiefs on the intended exercise. On entering into each community, the two trained enumerators with the help of Chairman of Community Project Management Committees (CPMC) sensitized a large gathering of women on the purpose of the exercise, after which a simple random sampling technique was used in the selection of the respondents; numbers 1 to 40 were written on small pieces of papers and reshuffled with plain pieces of paper for balloting purpose. Sample size of three hundred and twenty (320) was determined to be studied, but only three hundred and thirteen (313) were studied; seven (7) women were not cooperative and so could not be studied.

Table 4.1**:** Distribution of the sample size across LGAs and communities

LGA	**Communities**	**Initial respondents**	**Final participants**	**Final Non-participants**	**Total**
Dekina	Ajekelaga	40	32	8	40
	Odu-Igegeli	40	34	5	39
Ofu	Okpaji	40	29	10	39
	Allome-Ajinedu	40	32	6	38
Adavi	Ege	40	27	11	38
	Osoma	40	25	15	40
Kabba/Bunu	Agbadu	40	31	8	39
	Odo-Ape	40	30	10	40
Total		**320**	**240**	**73**	**313**

Source: *Field Survey 2014*
Note: *Response rate = 98%*

4.3 Data Collection

Data collection took place between June and August 2014. Data were collected using a questionnaire instrument and the unit of analysis was individual woman in the selected rural community. Random sampling technique was used in order to give the respondents who participated in the project and those that did not participate, an equal chance of being selected for the study.

The administration of the questionnaire was done by trained enumerators who were mostly Community Development Officers working at the Local Government Area Offices, with University degrees or Higher National Diploma (HND) certificates. A total of three hundred and thirteen set ofquestionnaire were correctly answered. The retrieved copies of questionnaire were analysed using the SPSS (20^{th} edition) and STATA Statistical Packages.

4.4 Method of Data Analysis

For the purpose of achieving the objectives of this research, descriptive statistics and inferential Statistics (Double Hurdle model and Double Difference Estimator) were employed.

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive Statistics were used in analysing objectives i, ii and v, that is, to describe the socio-economic characteristics of the women in the study area, determine the level of women participation in Community and Social Development Project and to identify the constraints limiting the participation of women in the Community and Social Development Project. These involved statistics such as frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, etc.

4.4.2 Double hurdle model

It was used to achieve objective iii which sought to determine the influence of the socio-economic characteristics of the rural women on their level of participation. The model can be presented as follows:

First Hurdle: Probability of participation in CSDP

The first hurdle model is a probit regression model and was presented as

$$p(y_i > 0|X_i) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_{1ij} + \alpha_2 x_{2ij} + \alpha_3 x_{3ij} + \alpha_4 x_{4ij} + \alpha_5 x_{5ij} + \alpha_6 x_{6ij} + \alpha_7 x_{7ij} + \alpha_8 x_{8ij} + \alpha_9 x_{9ij} + \alpha_{10} x_{10ij} + \alpha_{11} x_{11ij} + \alpha_{12} x_{12ij} + u_{ij} \quad \text{.....(7)}$$

Where,

p_{ij} =Conditional probability of observing a positive level of participation

y_{ij} =Level of participation

x_{1ij} = Age (Number of years spent on earth at the time of interview was used as score)

x_{2ij} =Household size (Number of children and other dependants in the household)

x_{3ij} = Urban exposure(Number of visit made to urban cities within the last 1 year)

x_{4i} =Time (Number of hours spent on productive and other activities within 24 hours during the last farming season)

x_{5ij} =Residence (Number of years spent in the study area since birth up to the time of Interview).

x_{6ij} =Association membership (Membership of CBO, Yes = 1, NO = 0)

x_{7ij} =Primary Occupation (Farming = 1, otherwise = 0)

x_{8ij} = Marital Status(Married = 1, otherwise = 0)

x_{9ij} = Leadership (Chairman, Vice Chairman, Secretary, Financial Secretary, Treasurer, P.R.O, Assis. Secretary, Internal Auditor: If occupying any of the positions, Yes = 1, NO = 0)

x_{10ij} =Primary Education (Scored as 2)

x_{11i} =Secondary Education (Scored as 3)

x_{12ij} =Tertiary Education (Scored as 4)

$\alpha_0 =$ Intercept/constant term

$\alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_{14} =$ Partial regression (Slope) coefficients

$u_i =$ Stochastic error term

$j = 1, 2$ ($1 =$ Participants, $2 =$ Non-participants)

Second Hurdle: Estimation of the Level of Participationin CSDP

The second hurdle model is a truncated regression model and can be presented as follows:

$$E(y_i|y_i > 0, Z_i) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_{1ij} + \alpha_2 x_{2ij} + \alpha_3 x_{3ij} + \alpha_4 x_{4ij} + \alpha_5 x_{5ij} + \alpha_6 x_{6ij}$$
$$= x_{7ij} + \alpha_8 x_{8ij} + \alpha_9 x_{9ij} + \alpha_{10} x_{10ij} + \alpha_{11} x_{11ij} + \alpha_{12} x_{12ij} +$$
$$= \sigma + \lambda(x_2\beta/\sigma) + u_{ij} \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (8)$$

Where

$E(y_i|y_i > 0, x_{2i}) =$Conditional probability

$z_{1ij} =$ Age

$z_{2ij} =$Household size

$z_{3ij} =$ Urban exposure

$z_{4i} =$ Time

$z_{5ij} =$ Residence

$z_{6ij} =$ Association membership

$z_{7ij} =$Primary Occupation

$z_{8ij} =$ Marital Status

$z_{9ij} =$ Leadership

$z_{10ij} =$Primary Education

$z_{11i} =$ Secondary Education

$z_{12ij} =$ Tertiary Education

$\alpha_0 =$ Intercept/constant term

$\alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_{14} =$ Partial regression (Slope) coefficients

$u_i =$ Stochastic error term

$j = 1, 2$ ($1 =$ Participants, $2 =$ Non-participants)

4.4.3 Double Difference Estimator (DDE)

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

$$y_{ij} = a + DDT_i t_j + \beta T_i + t_j + u_{ij} \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (9)$$

Where:

$$DD = (\overline{y_{\iota T2014}} - \overline{y_{\iota T2014}}) - (\overline{y_{\iota C2014}} - \overline{y_{\iota C2009}}) \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (10)$$

$DD =$ Double difference

$\overline{y_{\iota T2014}} =$ Average livelihood of the participants in 2014

$\overline{y_{\iota T2009}} =$ Average livelihood of the participants in 2009

$\overline{y_{\iota C2014}} =$ Average livelihood of the non-participants in 2014

$\overline{y_{\iota C2009}} =$ Average livelihood of the non-participants in 2009

4.5 Definitions and Measurement of Variables

The independent and dependent variables were defined and operationalized as follows:

4.5.1 Independent variables

The independent variables for this study are socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents which were assumed to have influenced their decisions to participate in the Community and Social Development Project or not. They were measured as:

Age

This referred to the approximate chronological age of the respondent at the time of data collection in 2014. Age in this case was measured by the number of years from birth given by the respondent at the Time of interview and scored according to age given.It was expected that age will have nosignificant influence on the participation of rural women in the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP); this is because CSDP is not age specific.

Formal Education

This referred to the number of years spent in formal education by the respondent. This was categorized into levels of education attained and measured by scoring each level as: no formal education = 1, Primary school = 2, secondary school = 3, tertiary institution = 4. Education is a panacea for social and economic development. Basic education, especially for the female tends to have higher returns for society (Awopegba, 2004). Lack of education leads to high level of illiteracy and the capacity of an individual to make informed decisions, it affects the disposition of an individual to new ideas and technologies, understanding and making the best use of ideas that affect their lives directly. *a priori* expectation was that the level of formal education attained will have a positive influence on the level of participation of rural women in CSDP.

Marital Status

This was categorized and measured as married=1, Widowed/Divorced/Separated/Single = 0.Marital status of women especially in the rural communities contribute a lot to the decision making process. Most African culture hinders married women participation in social, political and economic sphere. As noted byBlaai (2009), African culture and tradition overburdened married women (in particular) with multiple household tasks and allocated few to their husbands. *a priori* expectation of this study was that marital status would have a significant influence on the rural women participation in CSDP.

Years of Residence

This referred to the number of years a respondent had spent living in the study area as the time of data collection in 2014. This was measured by the actual number of years spent as resident and scored accordingly. Sampson (1988) noted a positive relationship between length of residence and participation in local affairs. It was expected that the longer a respondent had lived in a community, the better her chances of being accepted and therefore allowed to participate in developmental activities of that community. It was therefore, expected that years of residence will have significant influence on the level of participation of women in CSDP.

Occupation

This referred to what the respondent does for a living. Itwas measured by the type of primary occupation the respondent was engaged in. This was scored as: Farming = 1, other occupation (trading/micro processing/ civil service) = 0. Occupation may not be a very serious determinant of participation in community development projects because there is less differentiation by occupation among rural people (Angba*et al*, 2009). *a priori* expectation for this study was that primary occupations have no significant influence on participation of rural women in CSDP.

Social Participation

This referred to membership of cooperative or community based association through which the Community and Social Development Project intervention came to the study area. The women were asked to answer yes or no, if they belonged to the community based association. This was scored as: Yes = 1 and No = 0. The introduction of an intervention programme through a group may facilitate its acceptance; it also increases awareness as many more people get to be introduced to it at a particular period. Community members on individual basis were not able to access fund from CSDP because the project emphasises community ownership for sustainability purpose. Group membership also predisposes individual members of community to pull resources together towards the contribution of counterpart fund which further facilitated access to CSDP grant for the purpose of the project this could be difficult on individual basis). Alkali (1991) noted that through community organization, co-operatives serve as the basis and platform for bringing together the economically weak members of the society with the view of enhancing their individual capacities.*a priori* expectation for this study was that membership of community based organization will have positive and significant influence on the level of participation of rural women in the CSDP.

Household Size

This was measured by the actual number of children and other dependants living within the household at the time of data collection.The figure obtained was usedas the score.Imoh (2004) and Kariuki and Misaro (2013) found significant relationship between family size and participation of women in community development project. It was expected that the larger the household size, the lesser the participation of rural womenin CSDP.

Leadership position

This was measured by the position held by the respondent in the Community Based Association (CBA) or Community Project Management Committee (CPMC). The respondents were asked to answer yes or no, if they held any leadership position in any capacity (Chairman, Vice Chairman, Secretary, Treasurer, P.R.O, Assistant Secretary, Internal Auditor and Financial Secretary) in the CBA or CPMC. If yes = 1, if no = 0. Rural women who were elected into leadership position of any capacity in different co-operatives were afforded the opportunity to participate in decision making process, as they are exposed to important information that could enhance their participation in development activities. *a priori* expectation is that the more Leadership position occupied by rural women, the higher the probability of participation of rural women in CSDP.

Urban Exposure

This referred to the number of visits made by a respondent to urban cities within one year. The number of visits made wasused as the score. Rural women who lived all their lives in the villages with no access to any kind of social infrastructure (good road, electricity, school facilities etc.) may never know the benefit of participating in development activities. Such lack of exposure denies the rural women the experience needed for participation in development. It was therefore, expected that the more urban exposure the rural women have, the higher their level of participation of in CSDP.

Time

This was measured by number of hours spent on productive activities and leisure within the 24 hour period. This indicates the time available for the respondent to participate in Community Development Project. The respondent was asked to indicate hours spent on each activity from waking up in the morning to the time she goes to sleep at night. The

total number of hours obtained wasused as the score for this variable.Ozor and Nwankwo (2008) noted that time required for community development effort is a major constraint to participation. It was expected that time variable had a significant influence on the level of participation by rural women in the CSDP.

4.5.2 The dependent variable (Y)

In this study, Participation referred to the active involvement of the respondent in the various stages of the Community and Social Development Project cycle and decision making process. The respondent was asked to answer yes or no if she participated in any stage of the project cycle. YES was scored as 1 and NO was scored as 0.

The various stages include: (i) Need Assessment, (ii) Project Identification, (iii) Project Selection, (iv) Consultation with technical/professional, (v) Decision on the scope of micro project, (vi) Community Development Plan Packaging, (vii) Counterpart fund contribution, (viii) Community Project Management Committee training, (ix) Number of trainings attended, (x) Community meetings, (xi) Labour contribution at micro project site, (xii) Signatory to micro project account, (xiii) Decision making, (xiv) Information dissemination, (xv) Decision on type of information, (xvi) Periodic Monitoring of micro project, (xvii) Reporting/Consultation, (xviii) Corrective intervention, (xix) Problem solving/conflict resolution.To determine the level of participation, the 'Rate of participation' was first determined. This was measured by the number of rural women who participated in the various stages of the project cycle as a percentage of the total number of rural women under study. To further study the level of participation by the respondent, the total number of YES response to the various stages of decision making above was calculated as the score e.g, nineteen (19) levels of

decision making were identified as indicated above, where a respondent participated in five (5) out of the nineteen, five was used as the score. The Level of participation was categorised into Low, Medium and High (See Table 5.12).

4.5.3 Impact variables

Impact

In this study, Impact was measured as the income, and living condition of the rural women. Fakayode *et al.* (2008) stated that Infrastructure is known to impact welfare in three basic respects; it has basic consumption value and as such affects utility derivable from existing and budgeted income. Its availability affects productivity and capacity to earn income, which is of concern in rural agriculture and also affects households and national stock real wealth in the entire country. Baseline data generated by KGCSDA formed data for "before" while responses from the questionnaire administered in this research work formed data for "after" the intervention programme. Impact was measured in terms of income and level of living of the beneficiaries.

Income

This refers to proceeds, returns, earnings, of respondents. It was expected that the higher the respondents level of participation in CSDP, the more the income generated for her improved level of living.Income was measured by examining the various income generating activities engaged in by the respondents, knowing what they produced from the farm and how much of it was for family consumption and how much was taken to the market for sale. The income was calculated by the cost in naira per bag/tier/item of quantity taken to the market for sale.Baseline data obtained from the KGCSDA office formed the 'before' situation while responses generated through the use of the questionnaire instrument formed the data for the 'after' situation.

Level of living

Frankenberger *et al.* (2000) saw the concept of level of living as the sustainable access to resources to meet basic needs including adequate access to food, portable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, time for individual participation and social integration. Similarly Ekong (2003) used quantity and quality of goods and services consumed by an individual and her family members, including their material possessions as indices to describe level of living. For the purpose of this study, level of living was measured by ownership and sustainable access to resources aimed at meeting the basic need of the respondents. These indices were used for measuring level of living. Possession of household assets such as cell phones, television and video sets, radio, grinding machine, motor cycle, bicycle, wheel barrow, hoes and cutlasses amongst others, were considered and valued in naira for the purpose of analysis. The additional income generated was translated into increased level of living as a result of their participation in CSDP activities.Baseline data obtained from the KGCSDA office formed the 'before' situation while responses generated through the use of the questionnaire instrument formed the data for the 'after' situation.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. The findings are discussed under socio-economic characteristics of respondents, level of participation of rural women in Community and Social Development Project, socio-economic factors influencing the level of participation, impact of rural women participation on their livelihood and the constraints limiting the rural women participation in the Community and Social Development Project.

5.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

The socio-economic characteristics of the rural women in the four (4) Local Government Areas of Kogi State are presented in Tables 5.1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10. They include Age, Educational level, Marital Status, Years of residence, Household Size, Major occupation, Social Participation, Leadership Position, Urban Exposure and Time.

5.2.1 Age

Age was identified as the number of years at the time of interview the respondent had lived on earth. Age has been found to affect an individuals' interest, perception and conduct as regards decision to participate in certain economic and developmental activities. The distribution of the age of respondents from the study conducted is presented in Fig 5.1 and it cutsacrossfive age cohorts.The study revealed that the age distribution of the respondents ranged from 18years to above 65years. The graph also shows that the modal cohort is 30–41 years old with the participants in CSDP being more distributed within the category.

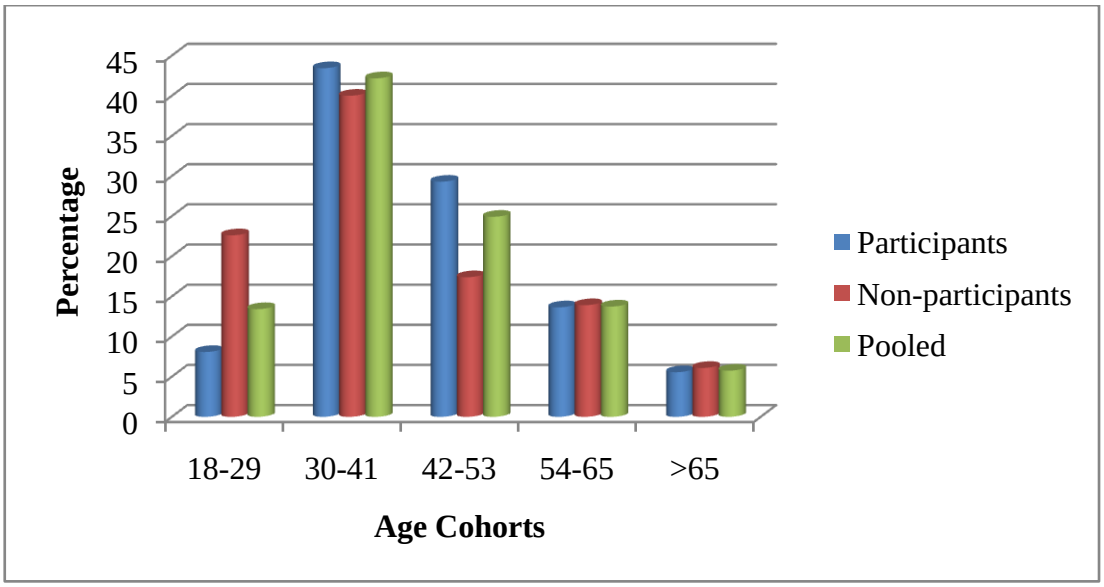


Figure 5.1: Distribution of the respondents based on age cohorts

Table 5.1 shows that agesfrom the pooled data (participants and non-participants)ranged from 18-90 years with a mean age of about 42 years and a standard deviation of 12.85. Based on CSDP participation status, the ages of the participants ranged between 18-80 years with an average age of about 43 years and a standard deviation of 12.12. For the non-participants, the ages ranged between 18-90 years with an average age of about 39 years and a standard deviation of 14.78. Therefore the women were averagely young irrespective of their participation status. Although, the non-participants were,on average, slightly younger than their counterparts, their age tended to vary more. However, using the descriptive statistical analysis, the distribution of individual groupings in the study showed that those between 30 and 41 years old constituted 43% of the participants.The implication of the finding is that the majority of the respondents wereyoung, energetic and agile which would propel them towards participating in development activities. This is in consonance with Bzugu *et al* (2005) who noted that younger persons participated more in agricultural and community development activities. The findings are also consistent with the study of Okunade *et al*.(2005) who found thatthe majority of the respondents who participated in women-based rural

development projects in Osun State were between the cohortsof 26-55 years old with the average of 40.5 years. The chi-square statistic under the null hypothesis of no significant relationship between age and CSDP participation status was 15.82 and was significant at 1% level of probability; this implies that the relationship between age cohorts and participation in CSDP was statistically significant. It shows that the age variable has the potential to affect participation, but does not explain acausal relationship.

Table 5.1 **:** Distribution of the respondents based on age cohorts

	Participants (n=240)		**Non-participants (n=73)**		**Pooled (313)**		
Age(years)	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
18-29	16	8.08	26	22.61	42	13.42	
30-41	86	43.43	46	40	132	42.17	
42-53	58	29.29	20	17.39	78	24.92	
54-65	27	13.64	16	13.91	43	13.74	
>65	11	5.56	7	6.09	18	5.75	
Total	**198**	**100**	**115**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Mean	42.95		39.28		42.11		
Std. Dev.	12.12		14.78		12.85		
Minimum	18		18		18		
Maximum	80		90		90		
Chi-square							**15.82*** **

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*
Note: *** = Significant at 1% level of probability*

5.1.2 Educational level

On educational level, four forms of education were observed among the respondents,these were; no formal, primary, secondary or tertiary of education. As revealed in figure 5.2, no formal education was the modal form of education available among the respondents with almost equal frequency amongthe participants and thenon-participants in CSDP.

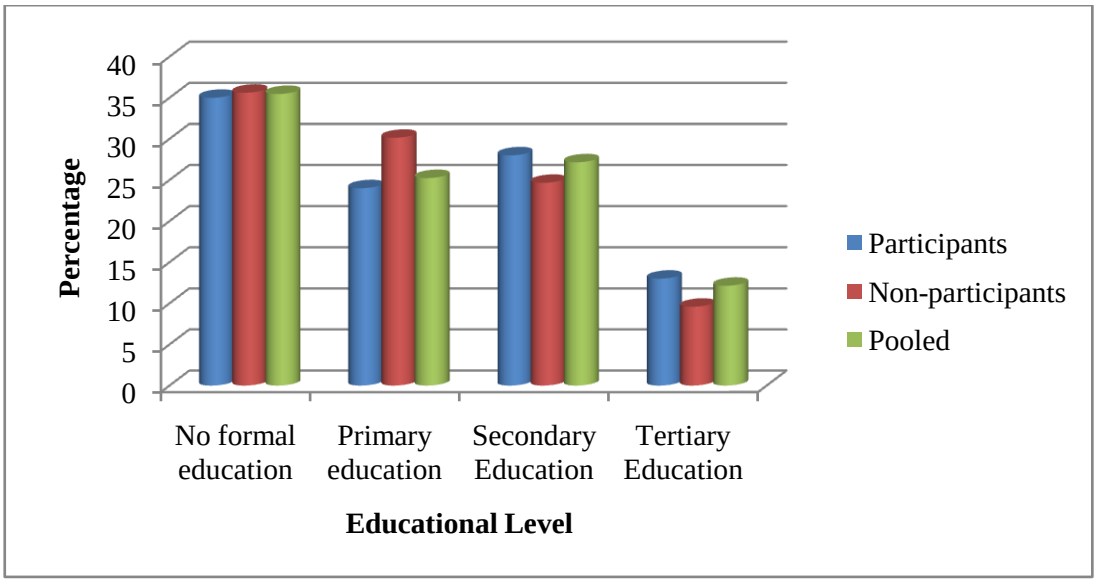


Figure 5.2: Distribution of the respondents based on educational level

Table 5.2 specifically shows from the pooled data that 35.46% of the respondents were without any formal education, more than half with either primary or secondary education and about 12% with tertiary education. From the cumulative percentage view point, the results showed that 65% and 64.38% of the participants and non-participants received one form of formal education or the other respectively. This study therefore revealed that the rural women were fairly educated. This implies good access to useful information through journals, media reports and literatures that could affect their decision to participate in development activities that can help improve their standard of living. The more rural women advance in their level of education, the more they tend to improve their knowledge, skill and capacity to make important decisions. The intricacies, importance and the need to participate in developmental activities are made known to them as their knowledge improves. Formal education is generally considered as a veritable tool that enhances women's participation in development initiatives. However, the X^2 test of significance of the relationship between participation status and educational level was rejected, that is, "there was no significant relation between educational level and participation".

Table 5.2 **:** Distribution of the respondents based on educational level

	Participants		Non-participants		Pooled		
Educational level:	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
No formal education	85	35	26	35.62	111	35.46	
Primary education	57	24	22	30.14	79	25.24	
Secondary Education	67	28	18	24.66	85	27.16	
Tertiary Education	31	13	7	9.59	38	12.14	
Total	**240**	**100**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Chi-square							**3.27**

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*
Note: **** = Significant at 1% level of probability*

5.1.3 Marital status

Marital status of the respondents as shownin Table5.3 indicated that 81.3% and 76.3% of participants and non-participants respectively were married;while 4.1% of the participants and 12.5% of non-participants were single. Only 14.5% and 11.1% of the participants and non-participants had other forms of marital status such as separated, divorced or widowed.

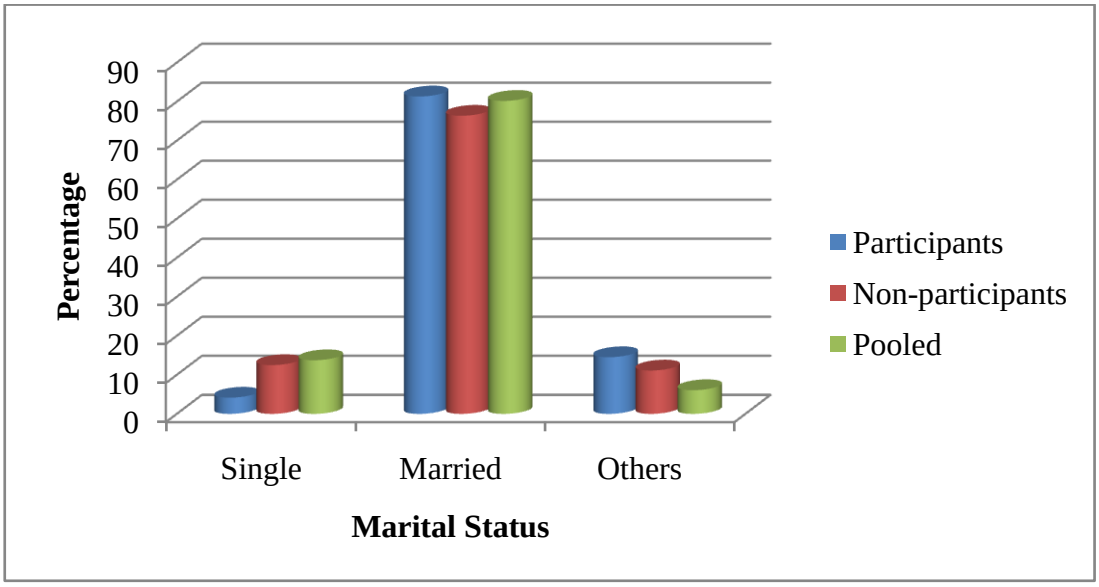


Figure 5.3: Distribution of the respondents based on marital status

However, it can be readily seen that, irrespective of their participation status, majority of the women were married. This implies that the marital status of rural women who participated in Community and Social Development Project did not differ markedly

from those that did not participate. The high proportion of rural women participants and non-participants who were married is an indication that the respondents were responsible adults. It also connotes an expected increase in population in the rural area with its attendant effect on the workload of the woman. This is in line with the findings of Adegboye *et al.* (2009) in their study on rural Dwellers' Attitudes on Participation in Self – Help Projects in Plateau State. Sabo (2006) and Ogumbameru *et al.*(2006) discovered that majority of respondents 90% and 80% respectively were married. The study is also in conformity with that of Okunade *et al.*(2005) which revealed that 70.4% of respondents were married while few were either single (13.8%) or widowed (13%). The Chi-square statistic under the null hypothesis revealed that the relationship between marital status and participation in CSDP was found to be significant at 1% level of probability.

Table 5.3 : Distribution of the respondents based on marital status

	Participants		**Non-participants**		**Pooled**		
Marital status:	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Sig.**
Single	10	4.15	9	12.5	43	13.74	
Married	195	81.33	55	76.39	251	80.19	
Others	35	14.52	8	11.11	19	6.07	
Total	**240**	**100**	**72**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Chi-square Statistic							**24.53*** **

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*
Note: *** = Significant at 1% level probability*

5.1.4 Years of residence in community

Years of residence in the community were also considered by the study and it was discovered that the respondents spent a good number of years in their communities of residence. As indicated in the Figure 5.4 from the pooled data, less than 15% of the respondents spent between 1-11 years in the communities. It shows that the participants

and non-participants in CSDP were evenly distributed across the category of the respondents who spent more than 33 years in their various communities.

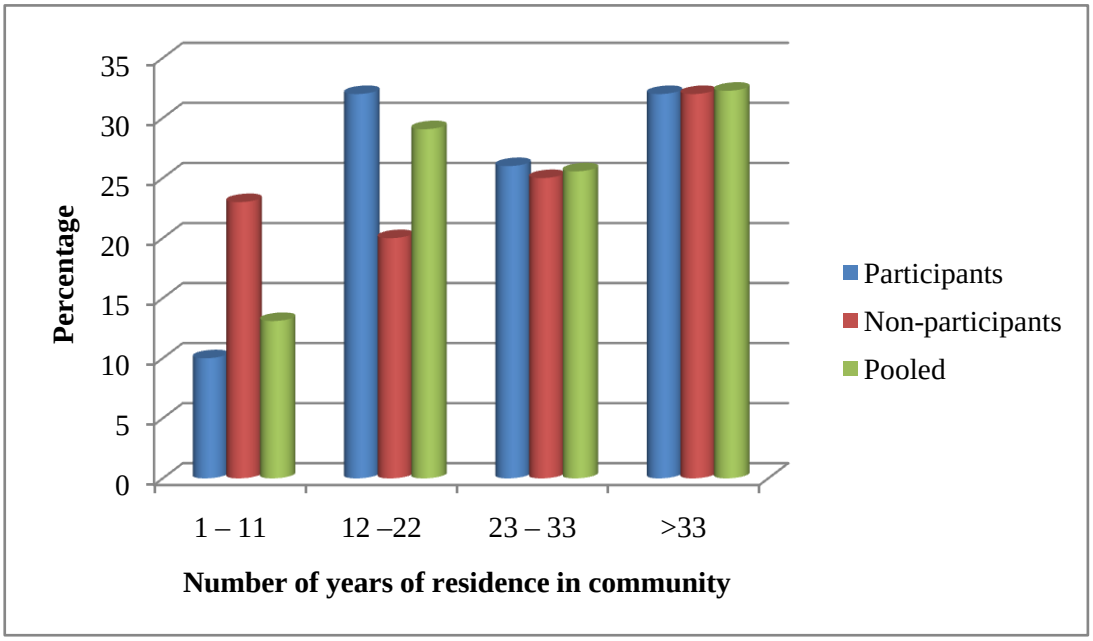


Figure 5.4: Distribution of the respondents based on number of years of residence in community

The result from Table 5.4 revealed that both participants and non-participants had lived an average of 28 and 29years in the communities. Precisely, 32% of participants and non-participants respectively have lived in their area of residence for more than 33 years.The results equally showed that 10% and 23% of the participants and non-participants spent between 1-11 years in their communities. The minimum and maximum number of years spent in communities from the pooled data was 1 and 80 years respectively. This implies that majority of the respondents are either indigenes of the community or have been absorbed into the communities by marriage. This is in consonance with Ekong (2003) who opined that for a non- indigene to be fully accepted to participate in social group, the family must have lived in the community for a long time, gained acceptance of the people and contributed in various ways to the growth of the area.

Table 5.4: Distribution of the respondents based on number of years of residence in community

	Participants (n=240)		**Non-participants (n=73)**		**Pooled**		
Residence (years)	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
1 – 11	24	10	17	23	41	13.1	
12 –22	76	32	15	20	91	29.07	
23 – 33	62	26	18	25	80	25.56	
> 33	78	32	23	32	101	32.27	
Total	**240**	**100**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Mean	**28.98**		**27.71**		**28.69**		
Standard Deviation	16.31		17.74		16.63		
Minimum	3		1		1		
Maximum	80		72		80		
Chi-square Statistic							**2.08**

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*

5.1.5 Household size

The household size of the respondents showed that 49% and 52% participants and non-participants had household size of 4 – 7 members. According to the results in Table 5.5, 18% and 26% of the participants and non-participants belonged to household size ranging between 0-3 persons respectively. The modal household size class among the participants and non-participants was 4-7 persons. The mean household size was about 6 for the participants in CSDP and about 5 for the non-participants. This shows a relatively large household size for the respondents. This situation may enhance the rate and level of participation, because the larger the household size, the more labour is available to practice various innovative ideas. This agrees with Badmus *et al.* (2009) and Oyesola and Adebisi (2000) findings that revealed house hold size of between 5 and 9 members. The Chi-square Statistic however shows that there is no significant relationship between the household size and participation in CSDP.

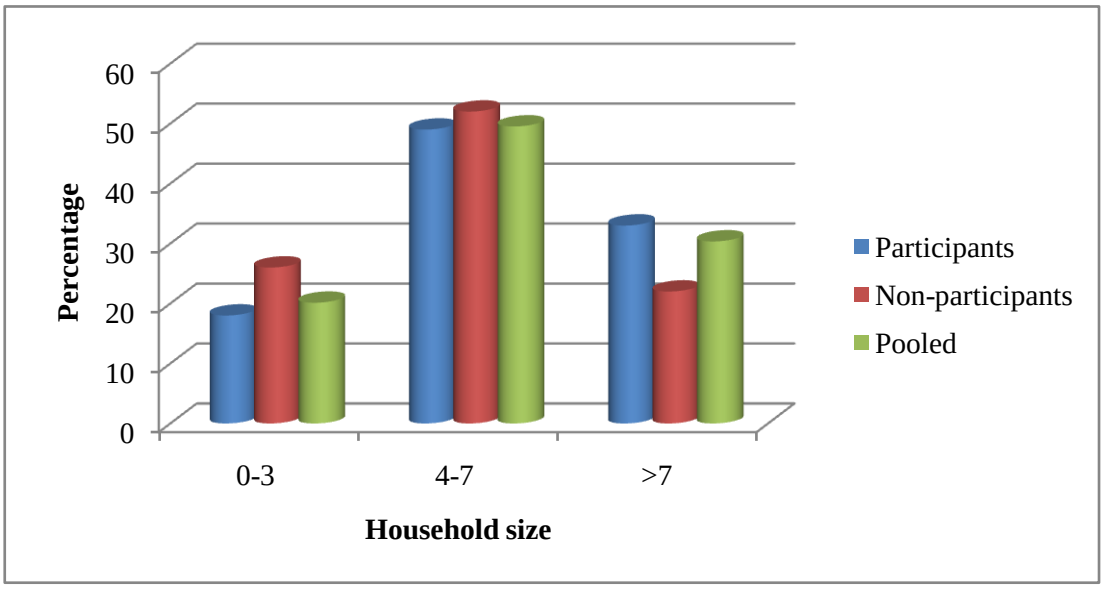


Figure 5.5: Distribution of the respondents based on household size

Table 5.5 : Distribution of the respondents based on household size

	Participants		Non-participants		Pooled		
Household size:	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
0-3	44	18	19	26	63	20.13	
4-7	117	49	38	52	155	49.52	
>7	79	33	16	22	95	30.35	
Total	**240**	**100**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Mean	**6.55**		**5.26**		**6.25**		
Standard Deviation	4.67		3.16		4.39		
Minimum	0		0		0		
Maximum	55		15		55		
Chi-square statistic							**1.45**

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*

5.1.6 Major occupation

The occupational distribution of the respondents showed that the rural women had three primary occupations. They were farmers, traders and civil servants. Figure 5.6 shows that the majority of the women were into trading or civil services as primary occupation with the non-participants in CSDP being more distributed within the category than their counterparts. However, among those who reported that farming was their primary occupation, the participants were proportionally higher than their counterparts.

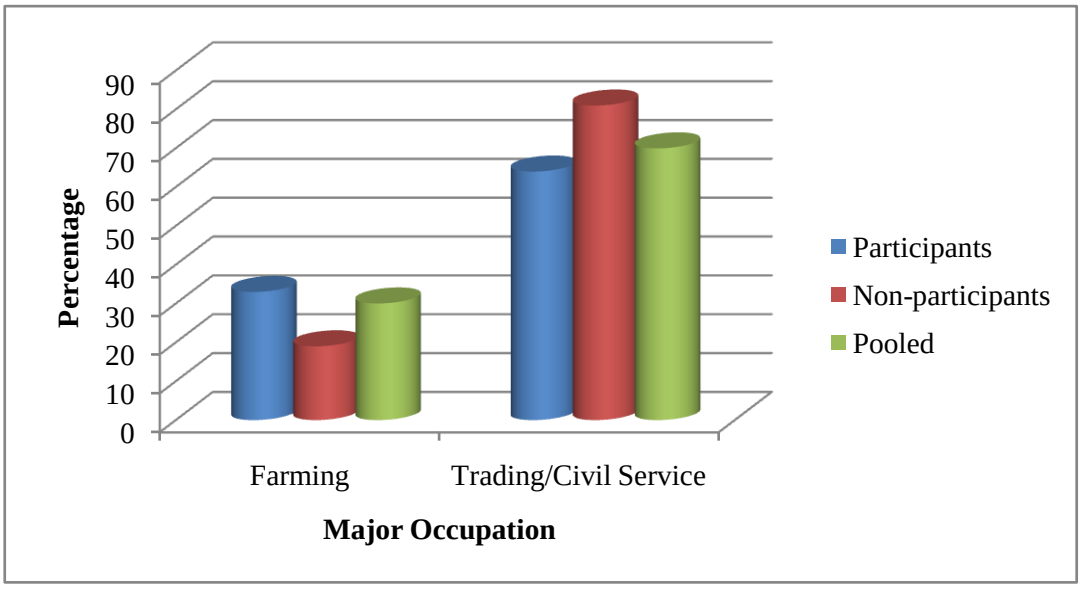


Figure 5.6: Distribution of the respondents based on major occupation

The result in Table 5.6 shows that 64% of the participants in CSDP and 81% of non-participants were into trading, crop processing and civil service while 33% and 19% of participants and non-participants respectively, were farmers. This shows that many rural women were dependent on trading and other small scale incoming generating activities as their source of livelihood. This is in line with Okunade *et al.* (2005) which revealed that 39% of the women were engaged in farming as their primary occupation while 52.8% were engaged in trading. This finding also agrees with Adamu *et al.* (2006) who reported that rural women engaged in off-farm activities. The involvement of the rural women in farming and other activities also support the observation by Olawoye (2002) that the concept of occupation involving one activity by which livelihoods are met as used in the western world is not relevant to the experience of most rural dwellers in Nigeria. The results further revealed that there was a significant relationship between primary occupation and CSDP participation status at 5% level of probability.

Table 5.6 : Distribution of the respondents based on major occupation

	Participants		Non-participants		Pooled		
Major occupation:	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
Farming	80	33	14	19	94	30.03	
Trading/Civil Service	160	64	59	81	219	69.97	
Total	**240**	**97**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Chi-square Statistic							**4.77****

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*
Note : *** = Significant at 5% level of probability*

5.1.7 Social participation status

One of the major thrust of this study was to determine the level of participation of rural women in the Community and Social Development Project. Figure 5.7 shows from the pooled data that more than 70% of the respondents were members of the Community Based Association that fronted for CSDP in the communities. The non-participants were found to be more distributed among those without membership of the Community Based Association. The study revealed that 23% and 78% of participants and non-participants respectively, were not registered members of the various Community Based Associations that fronted for CSDP. However, 77% of the participants were registered members, while 22% of the non-participants were registered members of the Community based associations.

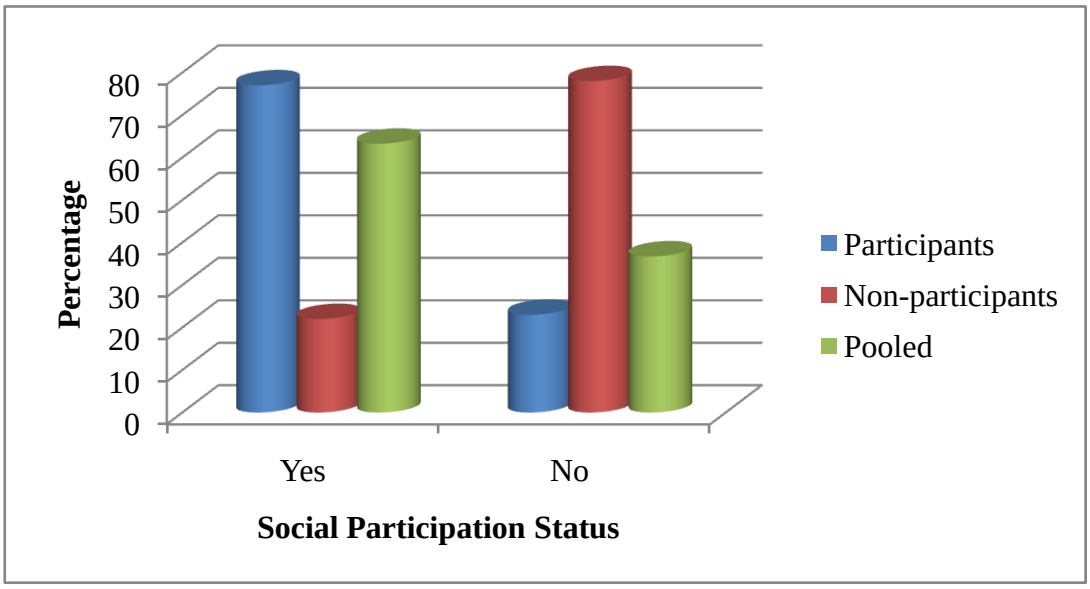


Figure 5.7: Distribution of the respondents based on social participation status

Social organizations promote members interactions, awareness creation, social capital strengthening and participation in development. The membership of organization of rural dwellers especially women is very important because it helps them to be gainfully employed as well as to stipulate any action to be taken as an individual through collective group effort (Oyesola and Adebisi, 2009). Consequently, the women who participated in the CSDP would be likely to have better livelihood than their counterparts in terms of social participation, *ceteris paribus*.

The relationship between participation in CSDP and membership of community based association was significant at 1% level of probability, during the data collection for this study, many of the respondents testified to the fact that their membership of the community based association was very helpful in securing public works opportunities at the project construction sites; labour contribution such as fetching of water and loading sand to the site was rotated among women groups. Most of those that did not belong to the organizations are the very old and vulnerable ones.

Table 5.7 : Distribution of the respondents based on social participation

	Participants		Non-participants		Pooled		
Social Participation	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
Yes	185	77	16	22	198	63.26	
No	55	23	57	78	115	36.74	
Total	**240**	**100**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Chi-square statistic							**313*** **

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*
Note: *** = Significant at 1% level of probability*

5.1.8 Leadership position

Leadership position was also considered in the study. It was revealed that the majority of the rural women, both the participants and non-participants in CSDP did not occupy any leadership position in any community based association or community project management committee. In fact, none of the non-participants occupy any leadership position. However, among the participants,less than20% were observed to have occupied such position.

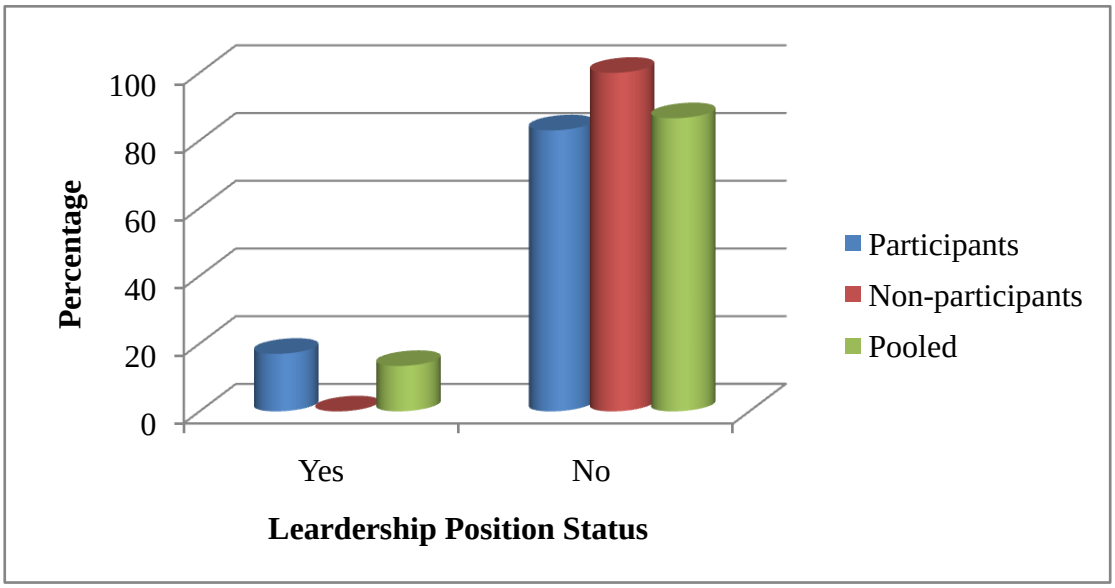


Figure 5.8: Distribution of the respondents based on leadership position status

The results from Table 5.8 revealed that only 17%of rural women who participated in CSDP had any leadership position either in the Community based organization or the

Community Project Management Committee, while 83% of the participants never held any leadership position. This low proportion implies that rural women are not given the opportunity to participate in important decision making that concerns their communities and also on issues that affect them in general. The involvement of women in Leadership has a positive influence on their participation in development, as this helps to influence and motivate other women for action. It allows for free flow of information on important issues to their female colleagues within the communities. Factors like domestic chores and cultural barriers were given, as being responsible for their low participation in local leadership. The result revealed that the few women who were given opportunity to participate in leadership would not have stood the chance to do so, if the Kogi State Community and Social Development Agency had not insisted on 35% women participation in Community Project Management Committee. Despite the gender balance policy of the CSDP, there are deliberate effort to frustrate women's participation by setting the meeting times at odd hours which was not convenient for women. It was also observed that most women in leadership were given positions such as Assistant Chairperson, Assistant Secretary and Public Relations Officer (PRO) and not key positions. This implies that women do not play the same leadership role as their male counterpart.However, the relationship between leadership position status and participation in CSDP was statistically significant at 1% level of probability. This indicated the importance of leadership position in terms of stimulating greater participation in the CSDP. This is in consonance with Okunade *et al* (2005) who found a positive and significant relation between participation and women based rural development project.

Table 5.8: Distribution of the respondents based on leadership position

	Participants		Non-participants		Pooled		
Leadership Position	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
Yes	42	17	0	0	42	13.42	
No	198	83	73	100	271	86.58	
Total	**240**	**100**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Chi-square statistic							**18.31*** **

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*
Note: *** = Significant at 1% level of probability*

5.1.9 Urban exposure

Urban exposure was found have influenced the participation of rural women in the Community and Social Development Project. Figure 5.9 shows the distribution of the respondents based on classes of the number of times they visited cities within a year. It isobserved that among the respondents who visited cities twice or three times a year, non-participants in CSDP were proportionally greater than their counterparts. However, the participants were more distributed in higher classes of the number of visits to cities than the non-participants.

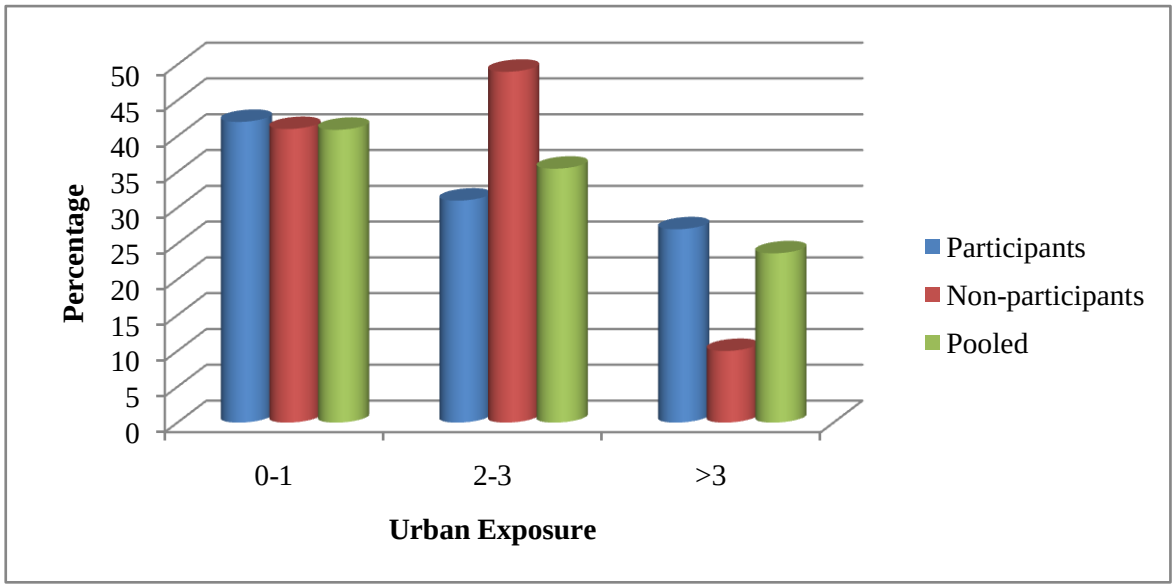


Figure 5.9: Distribution of the respondents based on urban exposure

The result in Table 5.9 revealed that 73% of rural women who participated in CSDP have travelled out of their host communities to urban cities in less than or equal to three times while only 27% of them travelled more than three times. Similarly, 90% of the non-participants have travelled less than or equal to three times to city areas while only 10% went for more than three times. The average number of times travelled to urban areas was about three times forthe participants and about two times for the non-participants in a year. This is in line with the study by Okunade *et al* (2005) which noted that 77.8% of women had travelled to other villages and settlements in other States in Nigeria. The implication is that external contact or exposure creates more awareness. The high level of urban exposure could be a predisposing factor to rural women participation in CSDP. The relationship between the number of visits to city areas and CSDP participation status was significant at 10% level of probability. This implies that the urban exposure was an important factor in favour of rural women participation in community driven development programme.

Table 5.9: Distribution of the respondents based on urban exposure

	Participants		**Non-participants**		**Pooled**		
Urban Exposure	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
0-1	98	42	30	41	128	40.89	
2-3	75	31	36	49	111	35.46	
>3	67	27	7	10	74	23.64	
Total	**240**	**100**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Mean	**2.64**		**1.81**		**2.45**		
Standard Deviation	2.82		1.57		2.61		
Minimum	0		0		0		
Maximum	20		8		20		
Chi-square statistic						**5.25***	

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*
Note : ** = Significant at 10% level of probability*

5.1.10. Time

Time variable showed that the modal class representing the category of respondents with the highest number of hours spent in terms of carrying out domestic and other productive activities within 24 hours based on participation status was 4-7 hours.

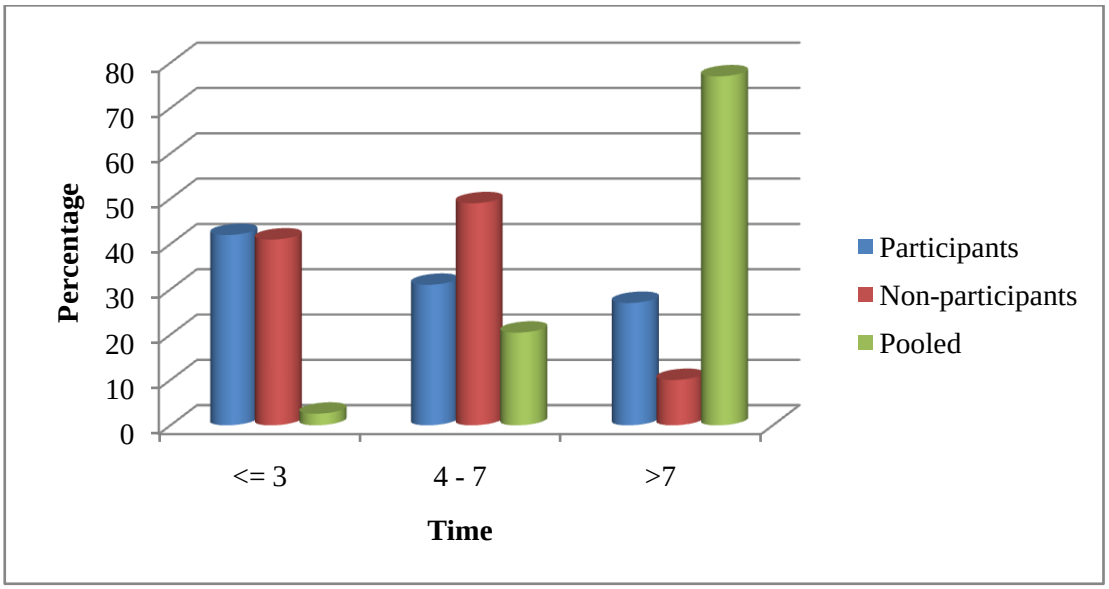


Figure 5.10: Distribution of the respondents based on time spent carrying out activities domestic and other productive activities within 24 hours

The result of the analysis in Table 5.10 reveals that the number of hours spent by the participants and non-participants in CSDP in carrying out domestic and other productive activities within 24 hours ranged from 0 -14 hours and 4-14 hours respectively. The rural women spentan average of about 9 hours on different activities within a day; these include, caring for the family, farming, trading and community relations. The finding showed that 79% of the rural women who participated in CSDP spent up to 8 hours and above carrying out different tasks within 24 hours. Similarly, 71% of the rural women who did not participate in CSDP spent up to 8 hours and above carrying out different activities within a day. 18% and 29% of participants and non-participants respectively, spent between 4 to 7 hours carrying out different tasks within 24 hours especially in the farming season while 3% of the participants spent less than 3 hours a day, this was common with the very elderly and vulnerable women. However, the Chi-square statistic

showed no significant relationship between time and rural women participation in Community and Social Development Project.

Table 5.10 : Distribution of the respondents based on number of hours spent carrying out activities domestic and other productive activities within 24 hours

	Participants		**Non-participants**		**Pooled**		
Time	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Test**
<= 3	8	3	0	0	8	2.56	
4 – 7	43	18	21	29	64	20.45	
>7	189	79	52	71	241	77	
Total	**240**	**100**	**73**	**100**	**313**	**100**	
Mean	**9.51**		**8.89**		**9.37**		
Standard Deviation	2.73		2.32		2.67		
Minimum	0		4		0		
Maximum	14		14		14		
Chi-square statistic							**2.44**

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*

5.2. Level of Participation of rural Women in Community and Social Development Project

The second objective of the study was to determine the level of participation of the rural women in Community and Social Development. It was observed that 77% of the respondents participated from between 1 – 19 decision making levels that made up the five stages of the CSDP cycle. Table 12 shows the distribution of respondents according to the activities in the stages of the CSDP project cycle that they were engaged in. About 25.8% of the respondents participated inProject Planningwith 8.9%, 8.5% and 8.4% of the respondents participating in the Project identification, project selection and Need Assessment respectively. It was also observed that 20.3% of the respondents participated in Project Preparation stage, outof which3.7%, 4.4%, 3.7% and 7.2% of the respondents participated in consultation with technical/professional, decision on scope of micro project, Community Development Plan packaging and counterpart fund contribution respectively. Also, 1.4% of the respondents attended capacity building trainings. In theProject implementation stage**,**21.9% of respondents were involved;

these includes Community Project Management Committee training, community meetings, Labour contribution, Signatory to project account and Decision making with 2.8%, 6.9%, 5.8%, 1.4% and 4.9% of respondents having participated respectively. Further, 10.8% of the respondents participated hadAccess to information,specifically**,** 5.9% and 4.9% of the respondents were involved in information dissemination and had access to decision on type of information to be disseminated respectively.Monitoring and Evaluation had21.2% of respondents who participated, with 6.9%, 4.5%, 4.9% and 4.8% of respondents that participated inperiodic monitoring, reporting/consultation, corrective intervention and problem solving respectively.

The high participation in the Project Planning Stage could be attributed to sensitization and awareness creation carried out by the Kogi State Community and Social Development Project and also the Participatory Rural Appraisal method employed in assessing the needs of the communities. Several respondents stated that they were involved in the planning stage because the KGCSDA sensitized the communities that involvement of women in the project was compulsory otherwise, the communities would have been able to access fund for their developmental activities. This was so because the interest of the different segments of the communities (men, women, youth, elderly and vulnerable persons) were to be put into consideration at the planning stage of the project and not just at the implementation stage. Furthermore, the planning stage needed the physical presence of the women and did not require writing or any kind of skill to participate.

The study shows that rural women participation in the project preparation stage had lesser participation than the project planning stage. The only component of the project

preparation stage that had high percentage (7.22%) of respondents'participation was the community counterpart contribution. Responses during the interview sessions revealed more of participation of CPMC members at this stage than the generality of the community members. Consultation with technical persons/professionals was said to be the responsibility of the CPMC members who were meant to report back to the community members during community general meetings as a form of feedback mechanism. However, many of the respondents complained of lack of transparency on the part of the CPMC members to perform this statutory role.But that the women were able to have access to certain information from their female colleagues who were members of the CPMCs. It is evident from the findings that the well informed and educated women were elected into the CPMC membership with 30% female representation on the CPMC. The female representation on the CPMC was made possible because the intervening agency insisted on that minimum representation. Further investigation revealed that majority of the women representative on the project committee had little or no formal education and as such, were just there for the sake of numerical representation and because it was the gender mainstreaming policy of the intervening agency. Some of the female CPMC members, especially the treasurers had bitter experiences of their signatures being forged by the Chairmen and Secretaries to make bank withdrawals without their knowledge; more so that they were unable to read bank statements and other forms of reports pertaining to the project implementation. This situation exposed the powerlessness of the rural women and their continued dependency on their male counterpart which ultimately affects the quality of participation by the rural women in developmental activities.

Participation of the rural women in capacity building (CPMC trainings) activities was very low with just 1.4% of respondents having participated. This was attributed to the low female representation on the management committees. More respondents (7.22%) participated in the counterpart fund contribution because both men and women were levied thereby making fund contribution compulsory, except for a few vulnerable persons that were exempted by the communities.

Table 5.11: Participation of rural women in the stages of the CSDP

Participation	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Rank**
Project Identification	217	8.96	1th
Project Selection	205	8.46	2nd
Need Assessment	204	8.42	3rd
Counterpart fund contribution	175	7.22	4th
Community meetings	168	6.93	5th
Periodic Monitoring of micro project	166	6.85	6th
Information dissemination	142	5.86	7th
Labour contribution at micro project site	140	5.78	8th
Decision making	120	4.95	9th
Corrective intervention	120	4.95	10th
Decision on type of information	119	4.91	11th
Problem solving/Conflict resolution	118	4.87	12th
Reporting/Consultation	110	4.54	13th
Decision on the scope of micro project	107	4.42	14th
Consultation with technical/professional	89	3.67	15th
Community Development Plan Packaging	86	3.55	16th
Community Project Management Committee training	68	2.81	17th
Signatory to micro project account	35	1.44	18th
No of trainings attended	34	1.40	19th
Total	**2,423***	**100**	

Source: *Field Survey, 2014*
Note: ** = Multiple Response*

In the context of this study, level of participation of the rural women in Community and Social Development Project in Kogi State falls into three categories, namely: Low, Medium and High Table 5.12 reveals that 37% of the rural women that participated in CSDP had low participation; majority of the women (46.96%) had medium participation while 15.97% had high participation, this is in line with the findings by Bonjoru *et al* (2010) on women participation in Fadama II in Taraba State. The study

also agrees with Deji (2007) on Community Socio-cultural factors associated with the participation of local women's association in rural community development projects in Nigeria. Their finding revealed that 11.7% of respondents had high level of participation in rural development projects in the study area while 86.7% had medium participation.

The finding from this study as revealed by Table 5.12, where majority of the respondents falls within the category of medium level participation (46.96%) agrees with the typology of participation by Pretty and Vodouhe (1997) whereby the respondents have gone beyond passive to functional participation, but have not gone beyond this level. It is obvious from the analysis and also discussions from the field that the rural women were allowed to participate in the development project only to enable the communities meet the predetermined goals related to the projects and also as a means of accessing fund from the intervening organization. This has dire consequence for sustainability of the project and development in general. The average level of participation was about 8 with a standard deviation of 6.34 and was used to classify the level of participation into low, medium and high. The level of participation ranged between 0 and 19. This implies that some women participated in all the stages of the programme.

Table 5.12: Distribution of rural women based on their level of Participation in Community and Social Development Project

Level of Participation	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
<6 (Low)	116	37.06
6 - 15 (Medium)	147	46.96
> 15 (High)	50	15.97
Total	**313**	**100**
Mean	**7.96**	
Standard Deviation	6.34	
Minimum	0	
Maximum	19	

Source: *Survey Data (2014)*

5.3 Socio-economic factors influencing the level of participation of rural women in Community and Social Development Project

The third objective was determining the influence of the socio-economic characteristics of the rural women on their participation in Community and Social Development. The double hurdle model was used to achieve this objective. Like all double hurdle models, the two tiers (hurdles or equations) which constitute the model can be estimated separately given the separability nature of the model.However, as pointed out by William (2009), fitting the two hurdles simultaneously has the advantage of facilitating post estimation (marginal or partial effects on probability and expected value) because reparability in estimation does not imply separability in interpretation.. This was estimated simultaneously using the Stata command *craggit*and a programme was developed in order to further estimate the quantities of interest in this study namely, the probability of observing a positive level of participation and the expected level of participation given a positive level of participation in CSDP.

Table 5.13 shows the goodness of fit statistics of the double hurdle model of the factors influencing participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State. The Wald statistic estimate was 62.29 and was significant at 1% level of probability; this implies that the model

significantly fitted the data. In order words, the independent variables included in the model were jointly important in terms of explaining the variation in the decision and the level of participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State. The sigma estimate representing the estimate of the standard error of the model was 4.71 and was significant at 1% level of probability; this implies that the estimated double hurdle nested the standard Tobit model. In order words, the Tobit model is a special case of the double hurdle model estimated in this study. Differently put, the decision to participate and the amount of participation, given participation are determined by different processes and therefore the use of double hurdle in place of the standard Tobit model was justified.

Table 5.13: Goodness of fit of the double hurdle model for the socioeconomic factors affecting the level of participation in CSDP in Kogi State

Statistics	**Value**
Wald statistic	62.29***
Sigma	**4.71 (0.26)*** **
Number of observation	309

Source: *Author's estimates from survey data (2014)*
Note: **** = Significant at 1% level of probability. Value in bracket is standard error*

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between the socio-economic characteristics ofrural women and their level of participation in the Community and Social Development Project.

The first Tier of the double hurdle model in Table 5.14 shows the maximum likelihood estimates of the probit model for observing a positive level of participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State. It was observed that out of the twelve independent variables considered for the analysis, four were significant. The insignificant factors included age of the women (Age), the hours spent in carrying out activities from morning till bed time (Time), the number of years spent in the community (Residence), Marital status, occupying a leadership position (Leadership), primary level of education (Primary), secondary level of education (Secondary) and tertiary level of education (Tertiary). The

implication is that the insignificant factors were not individually important in terms of explaining variation in the decision to participate in the CSDP by women in Kogi State. The significant factors included the number of members in households (Household size), the number of time a woman visited cities (Urban exposure), being a member of Community Based Association (Social Participation) and being engaged in farming as main occupation (Farming). For the significant factors any positive or negative sign on a coefficient indicates an increase or decrease in the probability to participate in CSDP by women in the study area. It is worth pointing out that, the coefficients do not show direct relationship between the dependent and independent variables since they represent the partial effects of the independent variables on the latent ("true") decision to participate in CSDP. In order to overcome the shortcoming, average partial effects (APE) were estimated and used for the interpretation of the model.

Household size was positively and significantly related to the decision to participate in CSDP by women at 10% level of probability; this implies that if household size increases by 1 member, the average partial effect of household size on the probability to participate in CSDP or observe a positive level of participation will increase by about 0.006, *Ceteris paribus*. This is contrary to *a priori* expectations that community members with larger households will participate less in developmental activities than communities with smaller households, because of heavier burden of household sustenance. Imoh (2004) found a significant relationship between family size and participation of women in community development. The hypothesis is therefore rejected for this variable.

Urban exposure was positively and significantly related to the decision to participate in CSDP at 10% level of probability; this implies, if the number of urban visit increases by 1 visit, the APE of the number of visit on the probability to participate in CSDP will increase by 0.09. The finding was consistent with *a priori* expectation. The hypothesis of no significant relationship between urban exposure and participation in CSDP is therefore rejected.

Social participation was positively and significantly related to the decision to participate in CSDP by women at 1% level of probability; this implies that women who participatedin the Community Based Associations that fronts for CSDP were more likely to participate in CSDP than their counterparts. Specifically, a woman who is a member of thesocial group has a probability differential of 0.16 to participate in CSDP compared to a non-member of the association in the study area. This was consistent with *a priori* expectation as social participation in community organizations by members of communities help to improve their access to information and other opportunities that assists in improving their wellbeing. This could also be true because the decision to participate or not to participate in the early stage of CSDP as a project could be influenced by a person's network which in turn provides opportunities for information on the new project.

Engaging in farming as main occupation was found to be positively and significantly related to the probability to participate in CSDP by women at 10% level of probability; this implies that women in the study area who were into farming as their primary occupation are more likely to participate in CSDP in the study area than their counterparts. Specifically, women who were majorly involved in farming activities will

have a probability differential of 0.45 to participate in CSDP in the study area in comparison to their counterparts. This could be attributed to the fact that the women farmers were always available in the communities and were the first to become aware of new innovations or interventions introduced, unlike those rural women who are engaged in trading and other activities who are highly mobile because of the nature of their trade.

Table 5.14: Maximum likelihood estimates of the first tier of the double hurdle model for the socioeconomic factors affecting the level o participation in CSDP in Kogi State

	First Tier		
Characteristics	**Coefficients**	**APE**	**Z-statistic**
Age	0.01 (0.01)	0.001 (0.001)	1.07
Household size	0.05 (0.03)	0.006 (0.004)	1.65*
Urbanexposure	0.09 (0.05)	0.010 (0.006)	1.7*
Time	0.04 (0.04)	0.004 (0.004)	1.02
Residence	-0.01 (0.01)	0.0007 (0.001)	-0.79
Association	1.44 (0.20)	0.16 (0.02)	7.15***
Farming	0.42 (0.24)	0.45(0.026)	1.72*
Married	-0.39 (0.26)	-0.04(0.03)	-1.48
Leadership	4.94 (186.38)	0.54(20.23)	0.03
Primary	-0.18 (0.26)	-0.02(0.03)	-0.69
Secondary	0.03 (0.29)	0.003(0.032)	0.11
Tertiary	0.07 (0.38)	0.008(0.041)	0.19
Constant	-0.96 (0.54)		-1.77*

Source: *Author's estimates from survey data (2014)*
Note: **** and * = Significant at 1 and 10% level of probability. Values in brackets are standard deviations. APE = Average Partial Effect. Standard errors under APE were estimated using the Delta method*

The second tier hurdle shows the maximum likelihood estimates of the truncated regression model for the expected level of participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State, given a positive level of participation. The same variables included in the first hurdle were included in the second hurdle. Twelve independent variables were considered out of whichfive were significant. The insignificant factors included age of the women (Age), the number of members in household (Household size), the number

of years spent in the community (Residence), being engaged in farming activities as main occupation (Farming), Marital Status, having a primary level of education (Primary) and having a tertiary level of education (Tertiary). The implication is that these insignificant variables were not individually important in terms of explaining variation in the expected level of participation in CSDP by women, provided that they participated in CSDP. The significant factors were the number of time a woman visited cities (Urban exposure), the number of hours spent in carrying out activities from morning till bed time (Time), being a member of Community Based Association (Social Participation), occupying a leadership position (Leadership Position) and having a secondary level of education.For the significant factors any positive or negative sign on a coefficient indicates an increase or decrease in the expected level of participation in CSDP by women in the study area, conditional on a positive level of participation. It is important to note that the interpretation of the second hurdle model is dependent on the first hurdle result.

Urban exposure was positively and significantly related to the expected level of participation at 1% level of probability, given that participation in CSDP was observed; the implication is that if the number of visit to cities increases by 1 visit, the expected level of participation in CSDP by women, will be increased by 0.35 stage which is about 4 stages in the programme out of 10, given that they have participated in CSDP and that all other factors in the model are being kept constant.The finding is in agreement with a priori expectation. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between socio-economic characteristics and level of participation of women in CSDP is rejected.

Time was positively and significantly related to the expected level of participation at 1% level of probability, given that participation in CSDP is observed; the implication is that if the number of hours spent in carrying out activities from morning till bed time increases by 1 hour, the expected level of participation in CSDP by women, provided that they have participated in CSDP, will be increased by 0.37 stage which is about 4 stages out of 10, given that that all other factors in the model are being kept fixed. The finding was contrary to a priori expectation.

Membership of Community Based Association was positively and significantly related at 5% level of probability to the expected level of participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State, given a positive level of participation; this implies that if a woman is a member of the Community Based Association, her expected level of participation in CSDP will be greater than that of her counterpart by about 2 stages in the programme, given she has participated in CSDPand that all other regressors in the model are being kept fixed. This is in agreement with *a priori* expectation. The hypothesis is therefore rejected for this variable.

Leadership was positively and significantly related at 1% level of probability to the expected level of participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State, given that a positive level of participation was observed; the implication is that if a woman occupies a leadership position, provided that she has participated in CSDP, her expected level of participation in CSDP will be greater than that of her counterparts[1] by about 5 stages in the programme provided that all other factors in the model are being kept fixed. This result is in agreement with a priori expectation.

[1]A woman without a leadership status but who has participated in the Community and Social Development Project

Secondary level of education was positively and significantly related at 5% level of probability to the expected level of participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State, given a positive level of participation was observed; the implication is that if a woman has a secondary level of education, her level of participation in CSDP will be greater than that of her counterparts by about 2 stages in CSDP project cycle,given that all other factors in the model are being kept constant.

Table 5.15: Maximum likelihood estimates of the second tier of the double hurdle model for the socioeconomic factors affecting the level of participation in CSDP, a positive that the level of participation is positive

	Second Tier		
Characteristics	**Coefficients**	**APE**	**Z-statistic**
Age	0.04 (0.04)	0.04 (0.03)	1.17
Household size	0.11 (0.07)	0.10 (0.06)	1.49
Urbanexposure	0.35 (0.12)	0.31 (0.11)	2.89***
Time	0.37 (0.13)	0.33 (0.11)	2.86***
Residence	0.03 (0.03)	0.03 (0.03)	1.02
Association	1.66 (0.83)	1.47 (0.74)	1.99**
Farming	-0.53 (0.74)	-0.47 (0.66)	-0.72
Married	0.09 (0.90)	0.08 (0.80)	0.1
Leadership	4.85 (0.89)	4.30 (0.78)	5.48***
Primary	0.58 (0.93)	0.52 (0.83)	0.62
Secondary	2.07 (0.97)	1.83 (0.86)	2.13**
Tertiary	1.15 (1.17)	1.02 (1.03)	0.99
Constant	-0.73 (2.24)		

Source: *Author's estimates from survey data (2014)*
Note: **** and ** = Significant at 1 and 5% level of probability. Values in brackets are standard errors. APE = Average Partial Effect. Standard errors under APE were estimated using Delta method*

5.4 Impact of Rural Women Participation on their Livelihood

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the impact of women participation in Community and Social Development Project on their livelihood. In order to achieve this objective, the households' assets, livestock acquisition, harvested crop mixture and income of the respondents before CSDP intervention in 2009 and after the intervention in 2014 were assessedand used as proxy for livelihood. Other benefits as perceived by the respondents were also assessed.

5.4.1 Productive assets descriptive difference between participants and non-participants in CSDP

Acquisition of productive assets by rural women as a result of CSDP intervention in the communities is important to their standard of living. Table 5.16 revealed that the mean value of household assets for the participants before and after the project started were₦51, 681.79 and ₦ 156, 223.1 respectively. The mean increase for the participants' productive household assets was ₦ 104, 541.3. However, the mean value of productive household assets for the non-participants before and after the project started was ₦42, 986.3 and ₦121, 471.2 respectively. The mean increase for the non-participants' productive household assets was ₦78, 484.93. The double difference valuewas observed to be ₦26, 056.41, implying that productive household assets increased more across the participants in comparison to the non-participants in the course of time. When converted to percentage, it was observed that the participants had an increase of 20% more than their counterpart.

Table 5.16**:** Result of DDE showing Impact of participation on their livelihood

	Mean Value of Productive Household Assets (₦)			
Respondents	**2009**	**2014**	**Difference**	**%**
Participants	51, 681.79	156, 223.10	**104, 541.30**	**202**
Non-participants	42, 986.30	121, 471.20	**78, 484.93**	**182**
Difference	**8 ,695.49**	**34, 751.90**	**26, 056.41***	**(20)**

Source: *Author's estimates from Survey Data (2014)*
Note: ** = Double differenceestimates*

5.4.2 Productive assets causal difference between participants and non-participants in CSDP

In order to ascertain the difference in productive assets observed between the participants and non-participants women in CSDP in Kogi state, an ordinary least squares (OLS) multiple regression model (Table 5.17) was estimated, where the dependent variable being the productive assets was regressed on three independent variables namely, time (dummy variable taking value of 1 if the productive asset of a

respondent was observed in 2014 and 0 if observed in 2009), participation (dummy variable taking value of 1 if a respondent was within the treated group and 0 if within the control group) and an interaction term between participation and time.

The OLS estimates of the impact of women participation in CSDP on their livelihood presented in Table 5.17 showed that the model significantly fitted the data as the F-value estimate under the null hypothesis of no relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables was found to be significant at 1% level of probability. The R-squared value was 0.37; this implies that 37% of variation in the women productive assets was explained by the model. Individually, all the independent variables were statistically important in terms of explaining variation in women's productive assets.

The effect of time on the productive asset of women was positive and significant at 1% level of probability; this implies that from 2009 to 2014 the productive assets of the women increased, on average, by ₦113, 236.80 keeping all other factors in the model constant. The result was consistent with *a priori* expectation since human beings in general increase their efficiency through learning from their past experience.

Participation was positively and significantly related at 5% level of probability to the productive assets of women in the study area, this implies that, after isolating the effect of time and also that of the interaction between participation in CSDP and time, a participant is expected to have a productive asset differential of ₦77, 219.25 compared to their counterparts. The finding was consistent with *a priori* expectation since

participants are expected to enjoy assistance from the programme in diverse areas such as farm production and marketing.

Of interest, is the coefficient on the interaction term between participation and time which represents the impact of participation in CSDP by women in Kogi State on their livelihood. As expected, the coefficient on the interaction term was consistent with the double difference obtained in Table 5.17. However, the productive asset differential was observed to be significant at 1% level of probability. All things being equal, it was revealed that the impact of participation in CSDP on livelihood was ₦26, 056.41. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between participation of women in CSDP and their livelihood is rejected.

Table 5.17: OLS regression of the impact of rural women participation on their livelihood

Variable	**Coefficient**	**Std. Error**	**t-value**
Constant	42,986.30	21,996.60	1.95*
Time	113,236.80	25,120.10	4.51***
Participation	77,219.25	31,215.70	2.47**
Time*Participation	26,056.41	12,007.56	2.17**
Goodness of fit			
F-Value = 7.93***			
R-squared = 0.37			

Source: *Author's estimate from Survey Data (2014)*
Note: **** , ** and * = Significant at 1, 5 and 10% level of probability*

5.4.3 Distribution of respondents according to benefits derived from CSDP intervention

Apart from the acquisition of productive assets, the women reported to have derived other benefits as a result of the project. Table 5.18 shows other benefits derived from the Community and Social Development Project intervention in the various communities. Both participants and non- participants were asked to respond to the question on benefit derived from CSDP intervention. The type of projects executed in the study area includes Skill Acquisition Centre, Market Facilities, Rural Electrification,

Health Clinic, Primary and Secondary School Facilities, Water, Town Hall and erosion Control to farmland. Table 5.18 revealed that 14.7% of the respondents benefited from reduction in water borne disease as a result of construction of borehole in their communities. Also 14.4% and 14.1% of the respondents also had benefitted from reduction in time spent on household chores and fetching water from the stream. The three preceding benefits are as a result of construction of borehole facilities in the study area. This has implication for the health of the women and the ability to spend more time on agricultural and other productive activities that improves their living standard. About 13.2% and 12.1% of the respondents testified to being empowered with the ability to take part in decision making at the household and community levels respectively, as a result of their participation in the Community and Social Development Project. This shows an improvement in social interaction between men and women in the communities. This has implication for sustainable development as the rural women who are empowered to take part in decision making both at the household and community levels can do so even in the absence of the men especially in situation of rural – urban migration. The respondents who participated in CSDP also reported that conflict at home and at the community level has reduced greatly, since the women feel less marginalised in affairs. Approximately 9% of the respondents reported reduction in disease incidence as a result of construction of Health Facility which has made it easy to access medical attention thereby improving their health status which has implication for agriculture and other productive activities within the communities. About 5% of respondents have benefitted from skill acquisition through vocational training as a result of the CSDP intervention, while 5% and 4% of the respondents have also benefitted from the intervention through increase in farm produce and setting up of income generating activities respectively. Other benefits from the intervention as reported by

4%, 3% and 3% of the respondents include easy evacuation of farm produce, employment at Health Facility and employment at school facility respectively. The respondents agreed that their income has been enhanced greatly as a result of CSDP intervention through the benefits highlighted above. The improved access to electricity, school, Market, Erosion control, Health facility and Skill acquisition facilities has created employment opportunities and also income generation opportunities which ultimately is improving their standard of living. The rural infrastructure investment by the CSDP in the study area had greatly reduced the distance and travel time to the nearest health, school, market and water facilities.

Table 5.18**:** Other benefits derived from CSDP intervention

Benefits	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Rank**
Reduction in water borne disease	247	14.67	1st
Reduction spent in household chores	243	14.43	2nd
Reduction in time spent fetching water	237	14.07	3rd
Ability to take part in decision making at the household level	222	13.18	4th
Ability to take part in decision making at the community level	203	12.05	5th
Reduction in disease incidence	144	8.55	6th
Skill acquisition through vocational training	81	4.81	7th
Increase in farm produce	76	4.51	8th
Setting up of income generating activities	72	4.28	9th
Easy evacuation of farm produce as a result of motorable road	66	3.92	10th
Employment at Health Facility	49	2.91	11th
Employment at School Facility	44	2.61	12th
Total	**1684***	**100**	

Source:*Author'sestimates*

Note: ** = Multiple Response*

5.5 Constraints Limiting the Participation of Rural Women in Community and Social Development Project

Objective v was to identify the constraints limiting the participation or rural women in Community and Social Development Project. As revealed in Table 5.19, majority of the respondents (17.11%) complained that lack of time due to excessive work load at the household level was a major problem hindering their participation in CSDP activities. This is in consonance with the findings of Imoh *et al* (2009) where lack of time was a major problem that militated against participation in development projects in communities. Next in ranking is the challenge of financial constraintsas reported by15.44% of the respondentswho saw this as a constraint to participation, as some of the respondents complained of their inability to contribute to the levies placed on them towards the provision of project counterpart fund and other important rural and agricultural developmental activities. Adegboye *et al.* (2009) identified financial problem as a major constraint to participation in self-help projects in Plateau State. About 14.33% of the respondents reported low level of education as the constraint to rural women participation in CSDP and other developmental activities within their communities. This is in agreement with Idrisa *et al.* (2007) in the study on Socio-Economic factors affecting the participation of women in agricultural co-operatives in Gwoza Local Government, Borno State.

The study also identified other factors such as Lack of Family support and lack of support from husband as challenges to rural women participation in Community and Social Development Project as reported by 13.49% and about 13% of the respondents respectively. These two factors were applicable only to married women who complained that they needed the permission of their husbands before they could participate in any public activity within their communities. Cultural restriction as reported by about 9% of the respondents was also seen as a problem to participation in

Community and Social Development Project. The rural women explained that it is seen as taboo for women to be involved in public sphere of decision making or general activities except for where such decision making concerns women alone. In fact, some communities have different ways of inviting men and women to public sphere of activities through talking drums; a particular sound of the talking drum send signals to either call the attention of men or women, but women are often times not invited, they are expected to take instructions from their husbands or family male members. This has serious implication for sustainable development and also welfare of the women in such patriarchal societies. Idrisa *et al* (2007) reported culture/custom in the study area as the main barrier to women participation in cooperative activities since women could not ordinarily walk out of their houses without prior permission from their husbands.

Other constraints to rural women participation in Community and Social Development Project as reported in Table 5.19 includes, Community meetings held on market days, discrimination on marital grounds and religious barrier as revealed by about 8%, 6% and 4% of the respondents respectively. Report from the respondents during questionnaire administration, also revealed that the community meetings regarding the CSDP and other developmental activities are usually fixed on days and time that are not convenient for women to attend. Most rural communities in Kogi State attend to market/trading activities every five days of the week as market facilities are mostly not located within their vicinity and so would have to travel long distance for transactions; it is on such market days that community meetings are fixed, and when not fixed on market days, such meetings are fixed at odd hours when women are busy attending to household demands.

Concerning discrimination on marital grounds, rural women who are married are usually not encourage to be involved in development activities as it is the believe that they do not have the capacity to make good decisions that will positively affect the growth of the communities.Finally, religious barrier was reported by small proportion (4.31%) of the respondents as a constraint to their participation in Community and Social Development Project. This constraint was more noticeable in the Moslem communities in the study area. This agrees with Bonjoru *et* al (2010) study which reported religious barrier as one of the challenges of women farmers' participation in the National Fadama Development Programme in Taraba State.

Table 5.19**:** Constraints to rural women participation in CSDP

Challenges	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Rank**
Lack of time/Household chores	123	17.11	1st
Financial Constraints	111	15.44	2nd
No/Low level of education	103	14.33	3rd
Lack of family support	97	13.49	4th
Lack of support from husband	93	12.93	5th
Cultural restriction (not allowed a voice)	64	8.90	6th
Community meetings held on market days	56	7.79	7th
Discrimination on marital status	41	5.70	8th
Religious barrier	31	4.31	9th
Total	**719***	**100**	

Source: *Author's estimates from Survey Data (2014)*

Note: ** = Multiple Response*

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Summary

The broad objective of this study was to determine the level of participation of rural women in Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) in Kogi State and its contributionto their livelihood while the specific objectives were to describe the Socio-economic characteristics of the women in the study area, determine the level of women participation in CSDP in the study area, the influence of the socio-economic characteristics of the women and their participation in CSDP, the impact of women participation in the CSDP on their livelihood and finally identify the constraints limiting the participation of the women in the CSDP.

A multi-stage sampling technique was adopted in order to collect socioeconomic and livelihood information from both women participants and non-participants in CSDP in Kogi State. A sample size of 313 was selected out of which 240 were participants in the programme. Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum and frequency distribution were used to analyse the data collected while Double difference (DD) estimator in regression framework and maximum likelihood (ML) double hurdle model were used to carry out inferential analysis.

The descriptive analysis showed that averagely the participants were about 43 years oldwhile the non-participants were slightly younger with 42 years old on average. Educational level was moderate as 28% and 24% of the participants against 25% and 30% for the non-participants were with secondary and primary level of educational

respectively. About 81% of the participants were married and belonged to large household size which was observed to be about 7 members, on the average. The majority of the non-participants were also married and belonged to relatively large household size (5 members). The respondents were mainly engaged in trading and/or civil service, with 64% and 54% of the participants and the non-participants observed to belong to these categories. Farming was also observed to be the main occupation of a portion of the sample with 33% and 19% of the participants and non-participants falling within this category. Social participation was another livelihood approach observed among the respondents especially among the participants (77%) with only 22% of the non-participants pursuing this approach. None of the non-participants had occupied a leadership position while only 17% of the participants did. The participants and non-participants had little urban exposure with only 3 and 2 visits to cities during the survey year while spending about 10 and 9 hours carrying out their activities from morning till bed time.

The respondents had an average level of participation in CSDP of about 7 stages with a standard deviation of 6 stages. They had in general, a medium level of participation based on distribution across the defined classes of levels of participation (less than 6 stages, between 6 and 15 stages and more than 15 stages). Precisely, 47% of the respondents were distributed between 6 and 15 stages of the project. Among the 19 different stages of the project package, project identification followed, project selection and need assessment were the first most participated stages of the project. The least participated stages were community Project Management Committee training, signatory to micro project account and the number of training attended.

The first hurdle of the Craggit model showed that household size, urban exposure, membership of Community Based Association and engaging in farming activities as main occupation were important in terms of increasing the probability to participate in CSDP in Kogi State. However, concerning the second hurdle relating the socio-economic characteristics of the respondentsand their level of participation in CSDP given that a positive level of participation was observed, urban exposure, time spent in carrying out activities from morning till bed time, membership of Community Based association, Leadership and having a secondary level of education were significant in increasing the level of participation in CSDP in Kogi State.

Participation in CSDP was found to have impacted positively on the livelihood of the participants by increasing significantly their productive assets by ₦26, 056.41. Twelve other benefits were derived from the project among which the three most distributed ones were reduction in water borne disease, reduction in time spent in household chores and reduction in time spent in fetching water. The least distributed benefits however were employment at health facility and employment at facility school. In terms of constraints to participation, nine important constraints were reported among which the three most important were lack of time due to household chores, financial constraints, and low level of education. The two least challenging constraints faced by the women who participated in CSDP were discrimination due to marital status and religious barrier.

6.2. Conclusion

On the basis of the findings of the study, it was observed that the majority of women participants who took part in the survey were married and belonged to large households. They were in their economically active age with a moderate level of education. Theparticipants were more engaged in farming activities as main occupation than their counterparts.Moreover, the women spent more time carrying out their activities and had greater urban exposure and social interaction than their counterparts. The level of participation in CSDP bythe respondents was moderate with an average of about 8 stages out of the 19 stages offered. Their involvement in the project was majorly in the area of project identification followed by project selection and need assessment. The decision to participate in CSDP was found to be positively correlated with household size, urban exposure, membership of Community Based Association (social participation) and the engaging in farming activities as the main occupation. The double hurdle was justified as different socioeconomic characteristics were found to affect the level of participation in the second hurdle. Precisely, urban exposure, time spent in carrying out activities from morning till bed time, membership of community based association and having a secondary level of education were significant in increasing the level of participation in CSDP in Kogi State.

The impact of participation in CSDP was positive and significant and the beneficiaries enjoyed many other benefits such as reduction in water borne diseases, time spent in household chores, time spent in fetching water and also ability to take part in decision making both at the household and community level. A couple of constraints were also found to hamper participation of rural women in CSDP, these include lack of time due

to household chores, financial challenges, low level of education and lack of family support.

6.3. Contributions to Knowledge

The information that emerged from this study was examined in relation to the theoretical and conceptual framework and the following contributions to knowledge were deduced:

i) The level of participation in Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) in Kogi State by women is moderate, as 47% of them were found to have been involved in between 6 and 15 stages of the projects 19 stages offered.

ii). Social participation and urban exposure are important in terms of increasing both the decision and the level of participation in CSDP in Kogi State by women.

iii). Participation in CSDPby women raised their productive assets by 20%.

This thesis was therefore able to address the issue of lack of knowledge of rural women participation in Community and Social Development Project within the context of Kogi State, as this had not been explored and analysed through empirical studies.

6.4. Recommendations

The following measures have been recommended to improve on the level of participation of rural women participation in Kogi State Nigeria:

i). Secondary level of education was significantly related to the level of participation in CSDP. The trend observed in the study area during survey was that there is high primary school enrolment by women/girls and low secondary school enrolment as most female primary school leavers were married off almost immediately.

At this stage, many of them were not able to read and write, this affected their active involvement in developmental activities that require some level of literacy.There is therefore the need for the three tiers of Government and Legislators at the State House of Assemblyto develop policies and legal framework to facilitate/encourageincreased secondary school enrolment by women in the rural areas. This will help to increase the participation of women in decision making processes thereby raise their economic, social status and thusimprove their level of living and also sustainable development of the rural communities.

ii). Social Participation wasalso an important socioeconomic factor in raising the probability to participate as well as the level of participation in CSDP in the study area. It is therefore recommended that communities be deeply sensitized on the need toencourage rural women to activelyparticipate in social meetings that involves important decisions on developmental issues.Their involvement in such social meetings will help to enhance their participation in both public and private decision makings that affect their wellbeing.

iii). Urban exposure was observed to be important in terms of taking the decision to participate and the level of participation, once the decision is made.Government should intensify effort at investing in construction of rural access roads and also improving the quality of roads that link the communities to urban centres as this will enhance urban exposure of the rural women.

iv). Leadership position was observed to be positively and significantly related at 1% level of probability to the expected level of participation of rural women in CSDP in the study area.In addition to the 35% affirmative action by the Kogi State CSDP, It is recommended that sensitization programmes held in the communities should lay more

emphases on the need to encourage women to attain leadership positions in committees and the benefit of such actions be made known to members of communities.Furthermore, Ministries and Agencies of Government and also the Local Government, should consider leadership training for rural women as a major component of their development plans. Although women cannot be isolated from the larger community in terms of project, leadership training should be considered for identified active members of women cooperatives within communities, who should in turn be mandated to train other women in the communities irrespective of their social and economic status. This type of training should be well structured, facilitated and monitored by group promoters such as local non-governmental organisations (NGOs), Community Development Officers (CDOs) and development agencies.

v). Some of the major constraints to women participation in CSDP were lack of time due to household chores, financial constraints and low level of education as reported by 39%, 35% and 33% of respondents respectively. It is hereby recommended that the Kogi State CSDP and the World Bank Community and Social Development Project,should build Adult Literacy Education into the gender mainstreaming policy. This can be done through the State Agency collaborating with the Adult literacy departments at the Local Government Areas, to assist in educating the rural women on how to read and write. This will increase their knowledge base, skill and capacityto acquire accurate information thereby enhancing their decision making process and also improve on their living standard.

vi). It is also recommended that the Kogi State CSDP and other development agencies includetime management training in their capacity building programmes to educate and empower women in the area of time management. This will build the capacity of

women to delegateresponsibilities where necessary and create opportunityfor increased level of participation incommunity development.

vii). Financial constraint was found to be one of the factors militating against the participation of rural women in CSDP and other developmental activities. It is hereby recommended that rural women should be encouraged to take advantage of the Federal Government's Growth Enhancement Scheme (GESS). This will help to improve their agricultural productivity, household food security and also their income.

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APPENDIX I: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

PARTICIPATION OF RURAL WOMEN IN COMMUNITY- DRIVEN DEVELOPMENTPROJECTS AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO THEIR LIVELIHOOD IN KOGI STATE NIGERIA.

Dear Respondent**,**

This questionnaire is from a student of Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. Please, respond or tick where necessary. All information will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will strictly be used for the purpose of research only. Thanks for your cooperation.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENT

Questionnaire No……..….. Name of Respondent……
Village…… L.G.A……Complete Project Type (s)…….
Date……../……../2014.

OBJECTIVE 1: SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RURAL WOMEN

1. **Age:** How old are you? …….
2. What is the level of your educational attainment?
    a. No formal education
    b. Primary education
    c. Secondary education
    d. Post-secondary education
3. How many years did you spend in formal education?.....
4. **Marital Status:** (a)Single ( ) (b) Married ( ) (c) Widow ( ) (d) Divorced ( )
5. **Years of Residence:** How many years have you lived in this community? ----------
6. **Household Size:**How many people are living with you?.....
    a. Female Children…….
    b. Male Children…….
    c. Adult Male……
    d. Adult Female…….
7. **Occupation:** What is your major occupation
    a. Farming: ……
    b. Trading: ……
    c. Civil servant: ……
    d. Others (Specify): ……

8. How long have you been in this major income generating activity?.....
9. What is your secondary occupation (other income generating activities engaged in)?.....

10.Are you a member of the Community Based Association fronting for the CSDP project
in your community? Yes ( ) No ( )
11.If yes, which group?.....
12. If Yes, how long have you been a member of the Community Based Association?.....
13. Have you held any leadership position on the Community Based Association?
Yes ( ) No ( )
14. If Yes, what position did you hold? ……
15. Are you a member of the Community Project Management Committee?
Yes ( ) No ( )

16. If yes, what position on the committee? ……
17. Are you a member of any other cooperative groups? Yes ( ), No ( )
18. If yes, give names of such groups: ……..
19. Have you ever travelled out of your village to any city (ies)? Yes ( ) No ( )
20. If yes, how many? Give name(s) of the city(ies)? ……
21. How many times have you travelled to the city(ies) within the last one (1) year? ……
22. What activities do you carry out during the farming season, from the time you wake up in the morning tillyou go to bed at night? Mention each activity and indicate time for leisure.

24. Hour Activity

S/No	Activities/Day	Time Allocation
1	Economic	
2	Unpaid House Work	
3	Child Care	

OBJECTIVE II:LEVEL OF PARTICIPATION

23. Are you aware of the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP)?
Yes ( ) No ( )
24. If Yes, When did you get to know about CSDP?.....
25. How did you get to know about CSDP?.....

(a) Radio
(b) Friends
(c) Television
(d) News paper
(e) Fliers
(f) Sensitization by CSDP Officials
(g) Local Government Staff
(i) Other (specify) ……

26. Did you participate in the CSDP Project? Yes ( ) No ( )
If yes, which year did you start participating in CSDP activities?.....

27. Mention completed CSDP micro projects in your community……..
……
Please, fill the table below to indicate which stage of the project cycle you participated in(thick as many as possible):

Project Activities	**Participation**	
	Yes	**No**
Planning: 4. Needs assessment (PRA) 5. Project identification 6. Project Selection		
Project Preparation: 3. Consultation with technical /professionals 4. Decision on scope of micro-project to take up 5. CDP Packaging 6. Counterpart fund Contribution		
Project Implementation: 5. CPMC training 6. If yes, how many times? 7. Involvement in CPMC meetings 8. If yes, how many times in a month? 9. Involvement in community meetings on micro projects 10. If yes, how many times in a month? 11. Labour contribution at micro-project site 12. Signatory to project account 13. Decision making		
Access to Information: 1. Information dissemination 2. Decision making on type of information		
Monitoring and Evaluation: 5. Periodic Monitoring (part of project progress) 6. Reporting/Consultation (information and feedback given & received) 7. Corrective intervention 8. Problem solving		

OBJECTIVE III: SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN CSDP

28. What specific factor (s) negatively affected your participation in the Community and Social Development Project.

S/No	**Factors**	**Yes**	**No**
1	No/Low Level of education		
2	No income/employment		
3			

	Lack of family support to enable me participate		
4	Not allowed a voice in the project process		
5	Lack of support from husband		
6	Lack of time available for participation		
7	Discrimination on account of marital status		
8	Religious reason (explain)		
9	Meetings are held on market days		
10	Household Chores		
11	Others (Specify)		

29. Explain other socio-economic factors that negatively affected your participation
……
……
……
……
……

30. What factors enhanced your participation in Community and Social Development Project?.....
……
……
……
……
……..

31. Suggest ways to increase women's participation in Community Driven Development andother Community development activities in the rural areas:
……
……
……

OBJECTIVE IV: IMPACT(What are the effects of women participation in Community and Social development Project on their livelihood?)

32. **(a)Household Assets**

Assets	**Total number owned before CSDP in 2009**	**Estimated monetary value(₦) in 2009**	**Total number owned between 2009 and 2014**	**Estimated Monetary value(₦) between 2009 and 2014**
Cell phone				

Video				
Radio				
Television				
Grinding Machine				
Motor cycle				
Bicycle				
Wheel barrow				
Hoes				
Machets'/cutlasses				
Axes				
Spade/Shovel				
Sprayers				
Others(specify): …… ……				

(b)Livestock Assets

Livestock Type	**Total number owned in 2009**	**Estimated monetary value (₦) in 2009**	**Total number in 2014**	**Estimated monetary value(₦) in 2014**
Bull				
Cows				
Goats				
Sheep				
Ducks				
Chickens				
Turkey				
Pigs				
Rabbits				
Others(specify):…… …… …… …….....				

(C). Give crops grown, estimated area cultivated, output and income for the most important crops grown in 2013 - 2014.

Crops/ mixture	**Area (ha)cultivated**	**Output (Kg)**	**Unit price (₦)**	**Estimated total value (₦)**
(i)…… (ii)……				

(iii)…… (iv)…… (v)…… (vi)……				

Grain = 100kg bag; Tubers and Leafy= use local unit of measurement

(D) List other income generating activities you are engaged in

Activities	Income/month	Income/Annum
i) …… ii) …… iii) …… iv) ……		

33. Do you own land? Yes ( ) No ( )
34. If yes, how many hectares of land do you own?
35. If No, are you able to rent land as a result of the effect of the intervention? Yes ( ) No ( )

36. Has your participation in CSDP benefitted you and your family?

S/No	Benefits	Yes	No
1	Employment at Community Health Center		
2	Employment at School facility		
3	Direct setting up of income generating activities (processing machines, pepper grinding machine, market stalls, sewing etc.)		
4	Skill acquisition through vocational training		
5	Easy evacuation of farm produce as a result of good and motorable road		
6	Reduced travel commuting time as a result of good road		
7	Increase in farm produce marketed as a result of good road		
8	Reduced incidence of disease as a result of increased attendance at Health facility		
9	Decrease in infant and maternal mortality		
10	Reduced times spent on fetching water		
11	Decrease in water borne diseases		
12	Reduced times spent in household chores		
13	Reduced school commuting times for children		
14	Ability to take part in decision making within the household		
15	Ability to take part in decision making at the community		
16	Others (specify)		

OBJECTIVE V: CONSTRAINTS(Identify the constraints limiting the participation of women in the Community and Social Development Project).

37. What are your constraints as a rural woman in relation to decision making both at the household level (private sphere) and at the Community (public sphere)?

(i) …….
(ii)……..
(iii) …….
(iv)…….

38. Which of the constraints identified in (i) to (iv) above have limited your participation in Community and Social Development Project?

(i) .....

(ii) .....

(iii) .....

(iv) .....

39. Suggest ways in which the above constraints can be reduced?

(i) ……
(ii)……
(iii)……
(iv)……
(v)……

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME