

**BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTION AND PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT
PROJECTS: A STUDY OF THE PAMPAIDA MILLENNIUM VILLAGES PROJECT OF
THE UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN KADUNA STATE
(2006-2011)**

By

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MARCH 2015

DECLARATION

I declare that the work in this Thesis entitled **Beneficiaries' Perception and Participation in Development Projects: A Study of the Pampaida Millennium Villages Project of the United Nations Development Programme in Kaduna State (2006-2011)** has been carried out by me in the Department of Political Science and International Studies. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this Thesis was previously presented for another degree or diploma at this or any other institution.

THOMAS Justine

Signature

Date

CERTIFICATION

This thesis entitled BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTION AND PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: A STUDY OF THE PAMPAIDA MILLENNIUM VILLAGES PROJECT OF THE UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN KADUNA STATE (2006-2011) by Justine THOMAS meets the regulations governing the award of Master of Science degree in Political Science of the Ahmadu Bello University, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis focuses on one of the recent approaches to eradicating extreme hunger and meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), namely the Millennium Villages Project (MVP) of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Millennium Promise and the Earth Institute at Columbia University in the United States. It investigates the beneficiaries' perceptions of the UNDP and their participation in the Pampaida MVP in Ikara LGA of Kaduna State, Nigeria which is based on the participatory principle. The MVP is a community-led project that seeks its objectives by building the capacity of local peoples for democratic governance, self-reliance and sustainability during and after the period of intervention. Perception, as established by existing literature, is the key to understanding, predicting and managing people's individual and collective behaviours, especially in such projects that require a synergy that includes the local stakeholders, in order to succeed in the long run. A total of 107 questionnaires were retrieved from the field, and interviews were conducted with three MVP staff members; the information obtained from the questionnaires was analysed and presented in simple frequency tables, while the interview results were summarised and interpreted accordingly. The study was undertaken within the framework of the theory of participatory community development. The findings of the study include the following: first, the beneficiaries have a favourable perception of the UNDP as an organisation on the basis of the Millennium Villages Project in Pampaida. Also, the effective execution of entry point activities (EPAs) or pre-intervention and the actual intervention are factors that influenced this perception. Secondly, it was found that there is a positive relationship between the respondents' perception and their involvement as beneficiaries-cum-participants in the MVP, which is a participatory project. The MVP pre-intervention functioned as the tool for perception management that set forth the objectives and principles of the project, equipped the people with necessary knowledge and skill, and facilitated the formation of definite expectations among the beneficiaries. This was reinforced by the initial benefits that came with the EPAs and the take off of the MVP intervention. All these gave the motivation to the fully expectant beneficiaries to participate in the MVP intervention in the manner they did initially. Thirdly, there were problems that emerged in the process from among the beneficiaries-cum-participants, underscored by issues and discrepancies with respect to the MVP intervention sectors and the MVP staff, which the beneficiaries-cum-participants perceived and judged to be unexpected, undesirable and negative enough to make them fearful and uncertain about what to expect, to warrant their disagreement with MVP staff, their refusal to participate in some intervention sectors, and/or even their outright opposition to some intervention sectors. The study concludes that perception lies at the bottom of the behaviours of the Pampaida MVP beneficiaries, thereby demonstrating the significance of beneficiaries' perceptions in determining their behaviours (positive and negative), and therefore brought to the fore, as recommendation, the inestimable need and value of integrating the study of beneficiaries' perception and the deliberate process of perception management within the structure of participatory projects that are being undertaken by international organisations, the Government, Non-Governmental Organisations, etc.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page.....	i
Declaration Page.....	ii
Certification Page.....	iii
Acknowledgments.....	iv
Abstract.....	vi
Table of Contents.....	vii
List of Tables.....	xi
List of Figures.....	xiii
List of Appendices.....	xiv
Abbreviations.....	xv

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Preamble.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Research Problem.....	2
1.3 Research Objectives.....	3
1.4 Research Assumptions.....	3
1.5 Justification of the Research.....	4
1.6 Scope and Limitation of the Research.....	4
1.7 Research Methodology.....	5
1.7.1 Study area.....	6
1.7.2 Method and procedures for data collection.....	10

1.7.3	Instruments of primary data collection.....	10
1.7.4	Sampling procedure and sample size.....	11
1.7.5	Data analysis.....	14
1.8	Operational Definitions.....	14
1.9	Organisation of Chapters.....	15

CHAPTER TWO

2.0	LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICALFRAMEWORK.....	17
2.1	Introduction.....	17
2.2	Perception Discourse: The Behavioural Revolution and the Search for Objective Reality.....	17
2.3	Perception: A Subjective Reality.....	19
2.4	Importance of the Study of Perception.....	23
2.5	Some Selected Studies on Perception.....	25
2.6	Perception, International Relations and International Organisations.....	32
2.7	Participation and Factors that Influence People to Participate.....	37
2.8	Challenges in Participation.....	40
2.9	UNDP Projects and the Participatory Principle.....	43
2.10	Theoretical framework.....	49
2.11	Conclusion.....	53

CHAPTER THREE

3.0	AN OVERVIEW OFTHE UNDP, THE MDGS AND THEMVP.....	55
3.1	Introduction.....	55

3.2	The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).....	55
3.3	The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).....	60
3.4	The Millennium Villages Project (MVP).....	64
3.4.1	Key actors of the MVP.....	68
3.4.2	The MVP intervention sectors.....	73
3.5	The Pampaida MVP.....	79
3.5.1	Highlights of village characteristics by sector (before intervention).....	80
3.5.2	Highlights of Pampaida MVP: Interventions and achievements.....	81
3.5.3	Challenges and criticism of the MVPs.....	85
3.6	Conclusion.....	87

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0	BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTION OF THE UNDP'S MVP IN PAMPAIDA.....	88
4.1	Introduction.....	88
4.2	Analysis of Data from Retrieved Questionnaires.....	90
4.2.1	Social characteristics of beneficiaries.....	90
4.2.2	Perceptions of UNDP on the basis of the MVP intervention in Pampaida.....	94
4.2.3	Factors that influenced perception.....	106
4.2.4	Beneficiaries and participation in the Pampaida MVP.....	117
4.2.5	Challenges in the MVP intervention.....	123
4.2.6	Recommendations.....	130
4.3	Summary of Data from Oral Interviews.....	131
4.4	Summary of Findings.....	133

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0	ANALYSIS OF BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTION AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE MVP INTERVENTION IN PAMPAIDA.....	137
5.1	Introduction.....	137
5.2	Factors that Influenced the Perceptions of the Beneficiaries.....	137
5.3	Beneficiaries' Perception and Participation in the MVP Intervention in Pampaida.....	140
5.4	Problems that came from Among the Beneficiaries and Affected the MVP Intervention.....	141
5.5	Conclusion.....	146

CHAPTER SIX

6.0	SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	147
6.1	Summary.....	147
6.2	Conclusion.....	149
6.3	Recommendations.....	150
	REFERENCES.....	152
	APPENDIX I: Sample Questionnaire.....	163
	APPENDIX II: Interview Schedule.....	170
	APPENDIX III: List of MVP Staff Interviewed.....	171

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Sample Size for Sampling Attributes.....	12
Table 1.2	Pampaida Settlements and Sample Size.....	13
Table 4.1	Distribution of Questionnaires.....	89
Table 4.2	Social Characteristics of Beneficiaries.....	91
Table 4.3	Respondents' Expression of Awareness of the MVP.....	95
Table 4.4	Respondents' Knowledge of UNDP in Pampaida.....	97
Table 4.5	Respondents' Knowledge of MVP Intervention Sectors.....	99
Table 4.6	Degrees of Benefit from MVP Intervention Sectors.....	102
Table 4.7	Is the MVP Intervention Helpful for Developing Pampaida?.....	103
Table 4.8	Respondents' Assessment of the UNDP.....	105
Table 4.9a	Were you Involved in the MVP Pre-intervention Activities?.....	106
Table 4.9b	Nature of Involvement in MVP Pre-intervention.....	108
Table 4.10a	Did you benefit in any way from MVP Pre-intervention?.....	109
Table 4.10b	Types of Benefit from MVP Pre-intervention.....	110
Table 4.11	Reason for MVP Pre-intervention.....	111
Table 4.12a	Were You Involved in the MVP Intervention Activities?.....	111
Table 4.12b	Nature of Involvement in MVP Intervention.....	112
Table 4.13a	Was any MVP Intervention Imposed on you?.....	114
Table 4.13b	Nature of MVP Imposition.....	115
Table 4.13c	Respondents' willingness to co-operate in the MVP.....	116
Table 4.14	Negative Outcomes from the MVP Intervention.....	117
Table 4.15a	Do You Think the MVP intervention was done for your good?.....	119

Table 4.15b	Degree of Agreement to Reasons for Participation.....	119
Table 4.16a	Respondents' Judgments on Direct Beneficiary.....	120
Table 4.16b	Respondents Judgments on Direct Beneficiary of MVP Sectors.....	121
Table 4.17	Respondents' Expressions about deliberate Changes.....	124
Table 4.18	Respondents' Refusal to Participate in MVP Intervention.....	125
Table 4.19	Respondents' Disagreement with UNDP Staff.....	126
Table 4.20	Have You Opposed any aspect of the MVP Intervention?.....	127
Table 4.21a	Have You had any Fears about the MVP Intervention?.....	128
Table 4.21b	Are there Expectations that Failed to be realised?.....	129
Table 4.22	Respondents' Recommendations and Suggestions.....	130

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Map of Kaduna State Showing the Study Area.....	8
Figure 1.2	Map of Pampaida Showing 28 Settlements.....	9
Figure 3.1	The UNDP Organisational Chart.....	58

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Sample Questionnaire.....	163
APPENDIX II: Interview Schedule.....	170
APPENDIX III: List of MVP Staff Interviewed.....	171

ABBREVIATIONS

AFDB: African Development Bank

APSA: American Political Science Association

CEP: Community Entry Process

DRC: Democratic Republic of Congo

EFTA: Expanded Fund for Technical Assistance

EPA: Entry Point Activity

EU: European Union

GSM: Global System of Mobile Communication

HIV/AIDS: Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

IAACA: International Association of Anti-Corruption Authorities

ICT: Information and Communication Technology

IFAD: International Fund for Agricultural Development

IISD: International Institute for Sustainable Development

ILO: International Labour Organisation

INGO: International Non-governmental Organisation

LDCs: Less Developed Countries

LFNAS: Leventis Foundation Nigeria Agricultural School

LGA: Local Government Area

MDG: Millennium Development Goal

MSF: Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors Without Borders)

MV: Millennium Villages

MVP: Millennium Villages Project

NEPAD: New Partnership for African Development

NGO: Non-governmental Organisation

NPC: National Population Commission

PLWHA: People Living With HIV/AIDS

PMIG: Perception Management International Group

SFHC: Souls, Food and Healthy Communities

TWCs: Third World Countries

UN: United Nations

UNAIDS: Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

UNDG: United Nations Development Group

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

UNGA: United Nations General Assembly

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Fund

UNS: United Nations System

WW

2:

Second

World

War

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 PREAMBLE

Part of the reasons for the formation of international organisations is the need to solve world problems that have severe implications on world peace. There exist several theories, strategies and approaches for explaining and solving world problems, including the renowned Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that represent a worldwide political partnership among the world's countries to address problems like extreme hunger, poverty, gender inequality, maternal and child health, and education, and for which the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has been commissioned to monitor on the global scene and at country levels. This study focuses on one of the approaches to meeting the MDGs, the Millennium Villages Project (MVP), which is a partnership initiative of the UNDP, Millennium Promise (an international non-governmental organisation that is committed to fighting global poverty, meeting the MDGs and realising global development using the MVP approach) and Earth Institute at Columbia University in the United States. It is one of the most recent approaches which has recorded immense, quantifiable success and holds high hopes for the future of development, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, if properly sustained. It is a participatory project, that is, a village-by-village based approach to ending extreme poverty and meeting the MDGs in the world's poorest regions, particularly sub-Saharan Africa. The motivation for this study is based on the fact that the MVP approach is designed to be led by the local stakeholders or the beneficiaries themselves in the process

of initiation, implementation and sustenance. This research is thus a study of the local stakeholders' or beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP (the lead partner that provided the initial operational and administrative framework for the Pampaida MVP between 2006 and 2011) and their participation in the MVP. There are about 14 MVPs across sub-Saharan Africa, and two of them are sited in Nigeria at Ikaram/Ibaram in Ondo State and Pampaida in Kaduna State. The Pampaida Millennium Villages Project in Ikara Local Government Area (LGA) of Kaduna State, Nigeria was selected for this study.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

This study is an investigation of beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP and their participation in the MVP implementation process in their community, Pampaida village. In other words, it is an attempt to study the relationship between the beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP and their participation in the MVP intervention in Pampaida. The basis for the choice of this focus of investigation is the fact that, although externally initiated, the Millennium Villages Project is a community-led approach to ending extreme poverty and achieving the MDGs, meaning that the participation of local stakeholders in the MVP is indispensable. The need here, therefore, is to understand factors, issues and the relationship around and/or linking the local stakeholders' perception of the international organisation and their participation in the MVP intervention in their community. Therefore, the following research questions were asked in the study:

1. What are the key factors that influenced the beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP in Pampaida?

2. How did the beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP influence their participation in the MVP in Pampaida?
3. What are the problems that came up from among the beneficiaries and affected the implementation of the MVP in Pampaida?

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following are the objectives of the study.

1. To identify the key factors that influenced the beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP in Pampaida.
2. To determine how the beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP influenced their participation in the MVP intervention in Pampaida.
3. To identify problems that came up from among the beneficiaries' and affected the implementation of the MVP in Pampaida.

1.4 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

1. The effective execution of the MVP entry point activities (EPAs) and the start-off of the actual intervention activities have created, among the beneficiaries, a positive perception of the UNDP in Pampaida.
2. The relationship between beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP and their participation in the MVP in Pampaida is positive.
3. Problems that came up from among the beneficiaries and affected the implementation of the MVP in Pampaida are the manifestations of their varied reactions to what they perceived and judged about the organisation and the MVP intervention to be

inconsistent with the already defined expectations that underlined their initial active involvement in the MVP intervention.

1.5 JUSTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCH

The Millennium Villages Project is a community-led project that seeks its objectives by building the capacity of local peoples for democratic governance, self-reliance, and sustainability during and after the period of intervention. Perception, as established by existing literature, is the key to understanding and managing people's individual and collective behaviour, especially for such a project that requires a synergy that includes the local stakeholders, in order to have favourable actions such as sincere co-operation and wilful commitment which will lead to success and sustainability in the long run. This study helps our understanding of some factors that influence people's perceptions and behaviours with respect to international development agencies' programmes within a rural African setting, so that deliberate steps could be taken to manage these perceptions toward noble objectives for the benefits of the people, especially with respect to projects that are based on the participatory principle aimed at achieving sustainable development. All stakeholders in the field of development, including international organisations, the Government, non-governmental organisations and researchers would have useful information from the lessons and findings of this study

1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH

The study is centred on the perception of the residents of Pampaida community of the UNDP on the basis of the Millennium Villages Project (MVP) between 2006 when the Project formally commenced and 2011, before the launch of the second phase of the

Project on October 3, 2011 (UNDP, 2011). The envisaged limitations to this study included time, and cultural barriers that could restrict the researcher from personally meeting some of the respondents, particularly adult women (heads of households), in the community. It must be noted here that the unique focus of the project in the initial phase was to empower heads of households (husband/father and wife/mother or other household head) so that the incoming benefits can trickle down to every other member of the household. Therefore, the researcher did overcome the above envisaged problems, especially cultural barrier, by employing the assistance of UNDP field staff members (Data Clerks) who have been on ground in the community and with whom the people are already familiar, for the collection of data.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The survey research method was adopted in this study. It is a method in which information is obtained directly from individual persons who are selected so as to provide a basis for making inferences about some larger population. It is thus a process of inquiry for the purpose of data collection and analysis using observation, polls, questionnaires or interviews (Fairfax County, 2012). The survey method is preferred here because it allows for the study of individual attitudes, attributes and behaviour. Basically, the survey research method provides five types of information about respondents, namely facts (i.e. background characteristics and personal history), perceptions (i.e. statements of what people know, or think they know about the world), opinions (i.e. statements of people's preferences or judgments about events and objects), attitudes (i.e. relatively stable evaluations and orientations toward events, objects, ideas, etc.), and behavioural reports

or statements of how people act (Manheim and Rich, 1995). Above all other research methods, it is considered the most suitable for a perception study of this type.

In survey research, concepts are operationalised through questions, and observations consist of recording respondents' answers to these questions. This method is especially suitable for studies in which individual persons are the units of analysis and the principal concepts employed pertain to individuals. If research, for instance, focuses on the opinions, attitudes, or perceptions of individuals, a sample survey may well be the best method of data collection (Manheim and Rich, 1995). The sample survey research method is therefore considered most suitable for the present study.

1.7.1 Study Area

Pampaida is located in Ikara LGA in the northern part of Kaduna State in north-western Nigeria (see Figures 1.1 and 1.2 below). It is approximately 160 kilometres away from the capital city of Kaduna. Kaduna state is one of the 36 states that make up the Federal Republic of Nigeria and the second most populous state in north-western Nigeria with a population figure of 6,113,503 people according to the 2006 Population and Housing and Census of the National Population Commission (NPC, 2010). The Pampaida cluster comprises 28 settlements with a population of 5,666 people divided into 952 Households and occupying an area of about 40 km² (Pampaida Millennium Villages Project, 2008). The Village falls under the Saulawa District of Ikara Local Government Area. The population of the Local Government is estimated at 194,723 representing 3.2% of the total population of the state (NPC, 2010). Villagers' livelihoods are mainly based on small-scale agriculture and pastoralism. Pampaida represents the agro forestry

parkland system, characterized by crops and trees with a strong presence of livestock. Hausa farmers and traders and Fulani pastoralists and agro-pastoralists are the two predominant ethnic groups (Pampaida Millennium Villages Project, 2008).

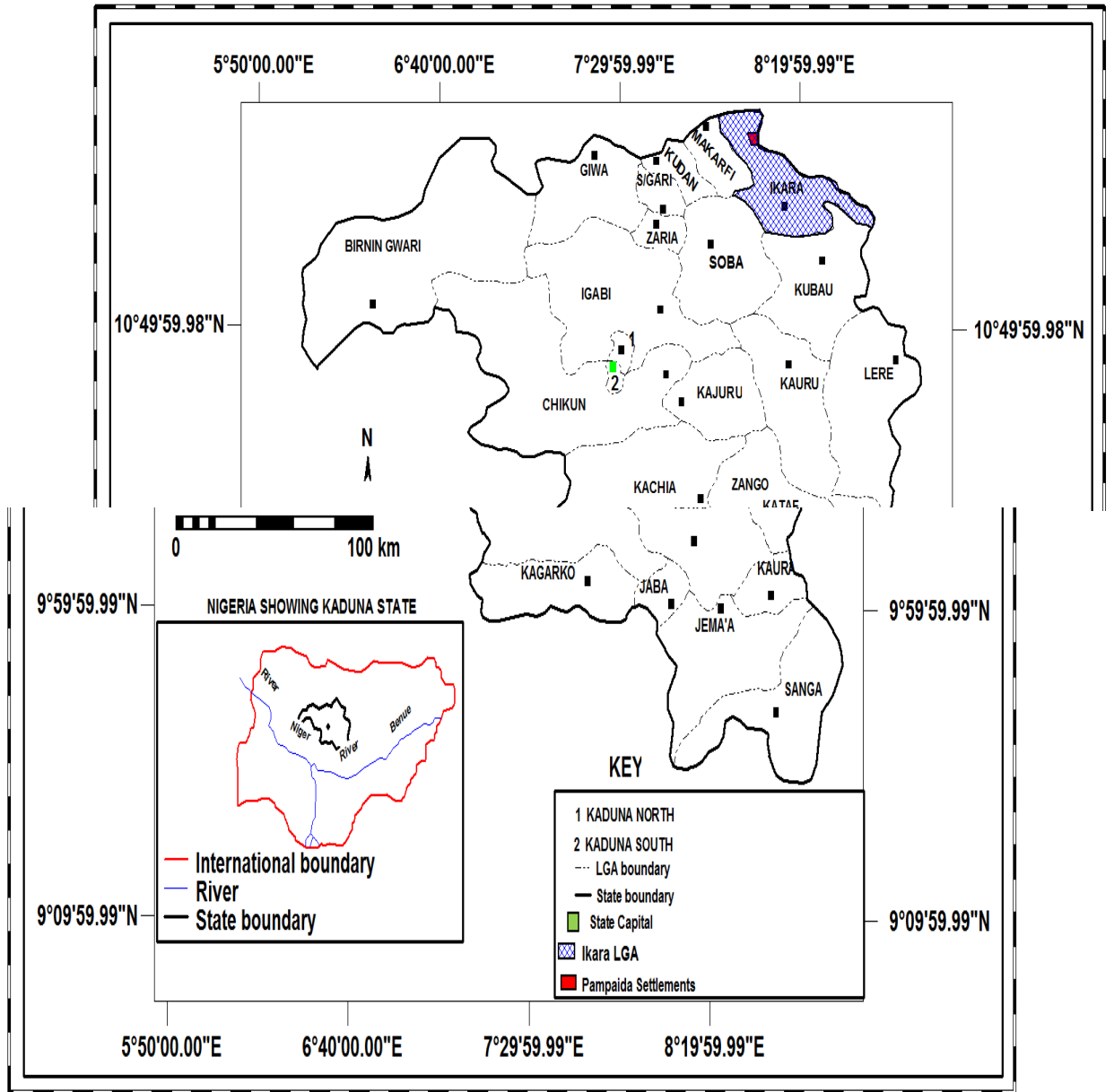


Figure 1.1 Map of Kaduna State showing the study area, Pampaida in Ikara LGA

Source: Reproduced from “Effect of Millennium Village (sic) Project on Livelihood of Farmers in Beneficiary Communities of Kaduna State” (p. 22) By T. M. Barnabas, 2011 (Unpublished Master’s Thesis), Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

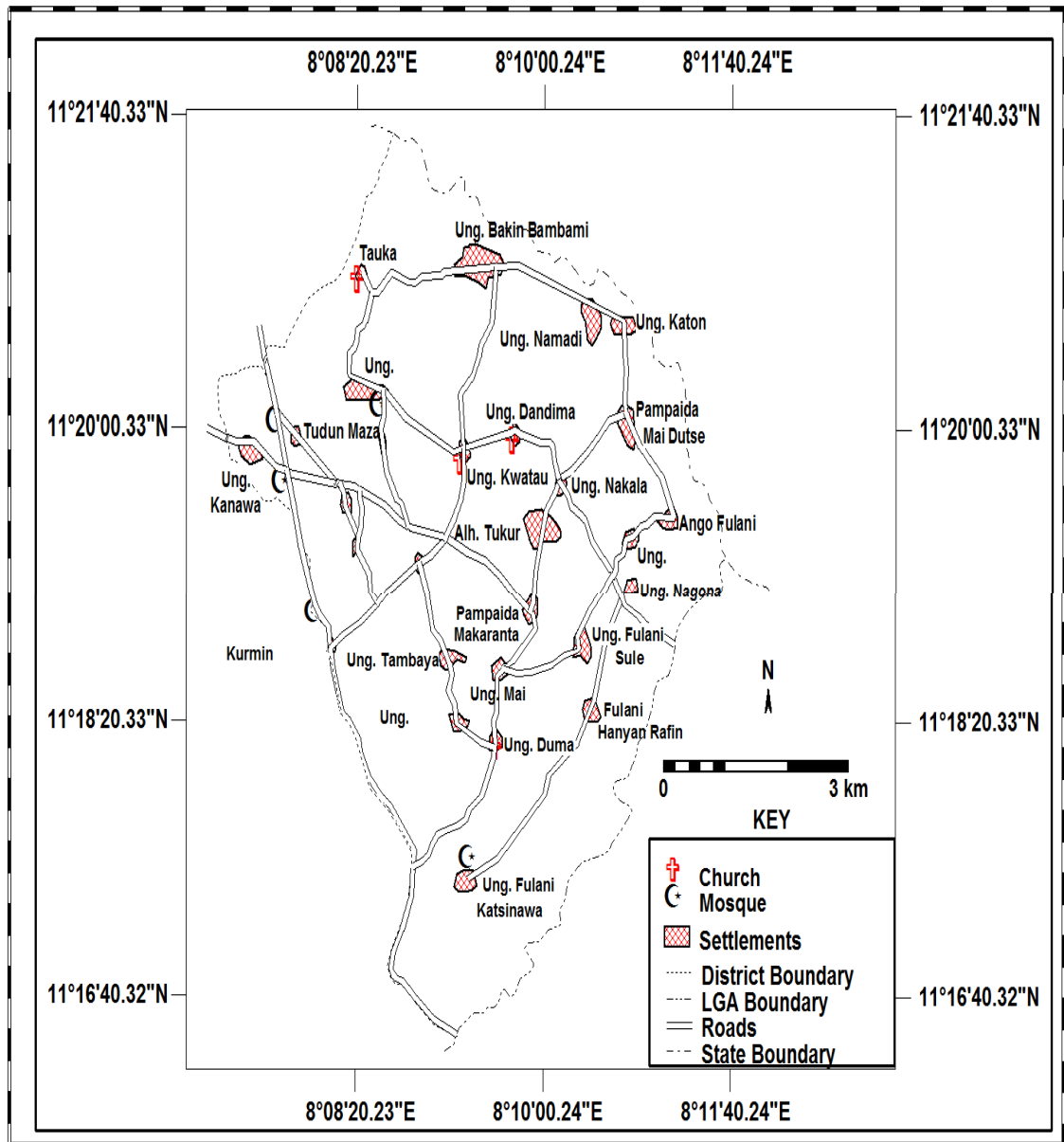


Figure 1.2 Map of Pampaida showing 28 settlements

Source: Reproduced from “Effect of Millennium Village (sic) Project on Livelihood of Farmers in Beneficiary Communities of Kaduna State” (p. 23) By T. M. Barnabas, 2011 (Unpublished Master’s Thesis), Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

1.7.2 Method and Procedures for Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data were generated and used in this study. Primary data was collected from the field, that is, from the study population which comprised the adult members (heads) in all the numbered households in Pampaida village, between 2 July and 12 July, 2013 with the help of two (2) UNDP-trained data clerks as research assistants. In addition, oral interviews were conducted with some key MVP staff members, namely Dr. Clement Woje (Health Co-ordinator) on 28 October, 2013, Mrs Hauwa Dutse (Gender and Infrastructure Co-ordinator) on 28 October, 2013, and Mr. Jerry Zoe Ode (Data Clerk) on 4 November, 2013, in order to obtain information about the details of field activities and outcomes of the MVP intervention (see Appendix III). Secondary data was obtained from official documents and websites of the UNDP, Millennium Villages, Millennium Promise, Earth Institute and the governments of Nigeria and Kaduna State, in addition to books, journals and websites/internet documents of other governmental and non-governmental organisations that are involved in the process of development generally.

1.7.3 Instruments of Primary Data Collection

The research instruments used for the study included the questionnaire and the interview schedule. The questionnaire was designed to reflect issues relating to the beneficiaries’ perception, participation and evaluation of the UNDP and the MVP that

was implemented in their community. The interview schedule was used to obtain information, relating to the details of the MVP activities and problems encountered in the process of implementation, from some UNDP staff as mentioned above.

1.7.4 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

The population of this study comprised all adult heads of all numbered households in Pampaida village. The justification for considering the household is the fact that the MVP intervention in the first phase (2006-2011) was aimed mainly at empowering households, particularly the heads, in order to improve the entire household condition thereby. As shown above, a total of 5,666 people divided into 952 households located in 28 settlements have been numbered by the Pampaida Baseline Analysis (Pampaida Millennium Villages Project, 2008). According to the baseline data, these households comprise male-headed/monogamous (635, i.e. 66.7%), male-headed/polygamous (299, i.e. 31.41%) and female-headed (18, i.e. 1.89%) households.

According to the statistical table (Table 1.1) reproduced from Manheim and Rich (1995), the sample size of 98 has a 95% confidence interval with respect to a total population ranging from 4,000 to 6,000 people. Therefore, a total of number of 98 persons – i.e. 1.7% of total population of 5,666, and also 10.3% of 952 households – is considered a relevant sample size for the entire population generally, and particularly for all the 952 numbered households in the study area. However, for the practical purpose of this research and for representativeness, the population of the Pampaida cluster is divided along the 28 settlements in order to give equal chance to each household to be included in

the survey. Due to variation in the number of households in each settlement, approximately 12% of households in each of the settlements of Pampaida were selected randomly, bringing the total sample size to 117 (12.3% of 952 total households). The list of the 28 settlements together with the number of households and sample size of households selected for the administration of questionnaires are shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.1 Sample size for sampling attributes at specified levels of precision (in percent with a 95% confidence interval, $p = 0.5$)*

Popula tion Size	± 1%	±2 %	±3 %	±4 %	±5 %	±10 %
500	†	†	†	†	22 2	83
1,000	†	†	†	38 5	28 6	91
1,500	†	†	638	44 1	31 6	94
2,000	†	†	714	47 6	33 3	95
2,500	†	1,2 50	769	50 0	34 5	96
3,000	†	1,3 64	811	51 7	35 3	97
3,500	†	1,4 58	843	53 0	35 9	97

4,000	†	1,5 38	870	54 1	36 4	98
4,500	†	1,6 07	891	54 9	36 7	98
5,000	†	1,6 67	909	55 6	37 0	98
6,000	†	1,7 65	938	56 6	37 5	98
7,000	†	1,8 42	959	57 4	37 8	99
8,000	†	1,9 05	976	58 0	38 1	99
9,000	†	1,9 57	989	58 4	38 3	99
10,000	5, 000	2,0 00	1,0 00	58 8	38 5	99
15,000	6, 000	2,1 43	1,0 34	60 0	39 0	99
20,000	6, 667	2,2 22	1,0 53	60 6	39 2	100
25,000	7, 143	2,2 73	1,0 64	61 0	39 4	100
50,000	8, 333	2,3 81	1,0 87	61 7	39 7	100
100,000	9, 091	2,4 39	1,0 99	62 1	39 8	100
$\rightarrow\infty$	1	2,5	1,1	62	40	100

0,000 00 11 5 0

* Proportion of units in the sample possessing the characteristics being measured; for other values of p, the required sample size will be smaller.

† In these cases 50% of the universe in the sample will give more than the required accuracy.

Source: Reproduced from *Empirical political analysis: Research methods in Political Science* 4th ed. (p. 428) By J.B. Manheim and R.C. Rich, 1995, New York: Longman Publishers USA.

Table 1.2 Pampaida settlements and sample size (12% of households per settlement)

S/N	Settlements	Households	Sample size	% of sampled Households per settlement
1	Pampaida Makaranta	72	9	12
2	Pampaida Maidutse	63	8	12
3	Unguwan Maidoki	34	4	12
	Unguwan Fulani Katsinawa	80	10	12
5	Unguwan Tella	14	2	12
6	Unguwan Tambaya	17	2	12
7	Unguwan Fulani Sule	35	4	12
8	Unguwan Duma	19	2	12

9	Tudun Maza	49	6	12
10	Unguwan Nakala	20	2	12
11	Unguwan Nagunda	13	2	12
12	Unguwan Tukur	22	3	12
13	Unguwan Bakin Bambami	33	4	12
14	Unguwan Dandima	21	3	12
15	Unguwan Ango Fulani	13	2	12
16	Unguwan Yayi	14	2	12
17	Unguwan Namadi	13	2	12
18	Unguwan Nagona	10	1	12
19	Unguwan Katori	23	3	12
20	Garan Garmai	28	3	12
21	Unguwan Kanawa	116	14	12
22	Unguwan Borkono	70	8	12
23	Unguwan Toka	55	7	12
24	Unguwan Kwatau	42	5	12
25	Katsinawan Nakunne	32	4	12
26	Unguwan Billa	9	1	12
27	Unguwan Jallawa	16	2	12
28	Unguwan Danja	19	2	12
TOTAL		952	117	

1.7.5 Data Analysis

Data (responses) obtained from the retrieved questionnaires were coded and prepared using the Microsoft Office Excel 2007 Spreadsheet, and then processed using the IBM SPSS 20 and the STATA IC 10 computer softwares, and presented in simple summary tables. This simple quantitative data presentation and analysis method was employed in order to meet the need for data summary across many response patterns and relationships between variables. Simple quantitative analysis is valuable here because responses that occurred frequently or repeatedly and relationships were identified across similar or different observations (answers of respondents). The remaining qualitative components, drawn from the oral interviews, in the data were discussed by simply summarising and interpreting the responses of the respondents to the questions. This is because information obtained from the oral interviews (qualitative data) may not produce numerical data that can be analysed using statistical tools to identify patterns and relationships. Therefore, analysis here involved summarising and interpreting the statements of those interviewed as they relate to research assumptions.

1.8 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Development: Development is the continuous change in a variety of aspects of human society (i.e. long-term process of structural societal transformation) that has phases marked by short-to-medium term outcome of desirable targets characterized mainly by the achievement of poverty reduction and the MDGs.

Participation: Participation refers to a situation when people are closely involved in the economic, social, cultural and political processes that affect their lives (UNDP, 2004). It involves the people being part of the process of initiating, formulating, implementing and monitoring decisions that affects them directly or indirectly.

Perception: This involves the process by which people become aware or conscious of real facts and their subjective interpretation of those facts such that their understanding, attitudes, expectations and actual behaviours toward those facts in their environment are modified as a result. Perceptions can be identified as expressed, subjective statements of what individuals know (or think they know) about the world around and their valuation of it, on the basis of which they act or are likely to act. The measurement of perception here basically involves determining what the beneficiaries' know about UNDP (staff, facilities, activities, achievements) with respect to the MVP, their subjective judgment of those things they know, and how their behaviours are modified as a result.

Poverty: Poverty is a state where an individual: (a) is unable to cater adequately for his or her basic needs of food, clothing and shelter; (b) is unable to meet social and economic obligations; (c) lacks gainful employment, skills, assets and self-esteem; and (d) has limited access to social and economic infrastructure such as education, health, portable water and sanitation, and consequently has limited chance of advancing his or her welfare to the limit of his or her capabilities (Oyemomi, 2003).

1.9 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS

The need for coherence, flow and literary presentation warranted the research to be presented in the following manner. Chapter One is the introduction wherein the preamble to the whole research was set forth along with the other crucial sections like the statement of the research problem, and research objectives, research assumptions, research justification, scope and limitation of the study, research methodology, operational definitions of some key terms and chapter arrangement. In Chapter Two, an extensive review of available literature relating to the key variables of the study, namely the perception and participation, was undertaken, coupled with the discussion of the theoretical framework (theory of participatory community development) within which the research was undertaken. An overview of the UNDP, the MDGs, and the Pampaida Millennium Villages Project was undertaken in Chapter Three. The next, Chapter Four, deals with the UNDP and the Pampaida residents' perceptions in which data gathered from the field through both questionnaires and oral interviews were presented, analysed, and interpreted within the framework of the theory of participatory community development. Chapter Five presents the discussion of the results obtained in the study within the framework of the theory adopted, and in comparison with the existing literature, for the purpose of establishing major findings and assumptions. Finally, Chapter Six comprises the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This study investigates beneficiaries' perception and participation in development projects with a focus on the Pampaida Millennium Villages Project of the United Nations Development Project (UNDP) and Millennium Promise in Ikara Local Government Area (LGA) of Kaduna State, Nigeria. The present chapter contains the literature review and the theoretical framework within which the study is undertaken. The review of related literature is done here thematically.

2.2 PERCEPTION DISCOURSE: THE BEHAVIOURAL REVOLUTION AND SEARCH FOR OBJECTIVE REALITY

Human society is a complex of real and perceived phenomena, some tangible and others intangible. The scientific revolution in the discipline of Political Science has brought about the enthusiastic search for objective realities and regularities that underline interrelationships in society, in order to explain human behaviour. Behaviouralism emphasises the validity of empirically-generated data. Thus the assumptions and objectives of Behaviouralism include regularities, verification, techniques, quantification,

values, systematisation, pure science and integration (Gaub, 2003). It has been noted by Varma (1975) that:

In the course of time even the psychologist began to realise that between the external stimulus and the observable response there are subjective experiences, which influence the interpretation of the stimulus and thereby the nature of the response...Political scientists had never ruled out the importance of studying the feelings, motivations and various other aspects of the subjective awareness and reaction of the organism as it came between stimulus and response.

This is the basis of the concept 'behavioural' or 'behaviouralism,' which sums up the development in Political Science that led to concentration on the study of political behaviour. Because of the complex nature of human behaviour, there is a growing consensus that if a political phenomenon is to be correctly understood we may have to look at it from various points of view. Therefore, Varma (1975) concludes that a good study of political phenomena may "involve the use not only both of the traditionalist and behaviourist approaches developed in Political Science but also a good knowledge of the concepts and techniques developed in other social and, maybe, natural sciences."

Perception, which is the essence of the present study, deals with the subjective experiences which come between stimulus (i.e. impression made by a fact) and the observable responses of people. Behaviouralists argue that human behaviour is explicable, and they try to explain and predict behaviour with an unbiased, neutral point of view using an objective and quantified approach. Note here that behaviouralism is not dealing with how people should or ought to behave toward certain real phenomena, but how they actually behave. The way people really behave must necessarily be investigated because the presence of a certain real phenomenon does not in itself provide logical explanation for their behaviour. The idealists may argue in this line, for instance, that

because the instruments of state coercion exist, citizens would not break the law. But this may not help us to understand human behaviour because it is possible, and often does happen, that despite the existence of the coercive institutions of the state, some citizens may still not keep the law, even in the face of threat or actual use of state violence. Behaviouralists study how people actually behave. Yet implied in the behaviouralist approach is a factor that, in addition to explaining actual human behaviour, also explains the ‘why’ or reason for the behaviour – perception. How individuals perceive things determine their behaviour toward those things in the environment within which those things can be linked with other phenomena (Gaub, 2003).

2.3 PERCEPTION: A SUBJECTIVE REALITY

In order to conceptualise what perception is, the following is culled from Christian Davenport (1995):

Regimes respond to domestic threat with political aggression. The precise nature of the threat itself, however, is subject to discussion. State repression is a function of either a unidimensional conception of domestic threats (i.e. where there is one attribute of political conflict considered by the regime) or one that is multidimensional in character (i.e. where there are several attributes considered), conditioned by certain political-economic characteristics....

The above captures a study that is aimed, not at measuring the precise nature of domestic threats that governments respond to, but at pointing to the fact that what determines the response of the state – i.e. political repression – is the conception of the threats, whether one-dimensional or multidimensional. The process of conceiving real political phenomena involves perception; it is a factor that comes between impression made by a phenomenon and the subsequent response (behaviour) to it. So, as in the case

above, the precise nature of the threat is subject to discussion – this was not the purpose of that study. Yet whatever the precise nature of that threat, the response of the regime is determined by its perception of it, which is the behaviour that the regime expresses towards the threat.

The above study underscores the significance of perception in determining the political behaviour of high-level entities like states or their governments. To further buttress this significance, the work of Snyder, Brecher and Sprouts (1962) is cited: in discussing the relationship between environmental influences and foreign policy decisions, they argue that environmental factors influence foreign policy decisions neither invariably nor directly, but only insofar as they affect, or are mediated through, the perceptions and attitudes of relevant decision makers (Gold, 1978). While the actions of states are actually the actions of relevant decision makers, these actions of the decision makers are usually based on what – i.e. aspect of the environmental factors – has been mediated through their perception. If perception is such a crucial factor in understanding the behaviour of state decision makers, what then is perception? Is it common to only state actors or to also other individuals of ‘low’ degrees within the state system? The following discussion is a review of works on perception as they relate to its definition, relevance and applications to various fields and/or levels of human inter-relationships, followed by a consideration of literature on participation, and the UNDP which is the object of perception study in the present research.

Perception is simply the way you notice or conceive real things. In other words, it is the ability to understand the true nature of a thing or the idea you have as a result of how you see or understand something. Perception, defined above as the interpretation of

what we take in through our mind, seems quite simple, but it is the hub a crucial process that takes place between a fact or phenomenon, and human response to that fact. It is pertinent to note here that this factor (perception) forms part of the explanation for different attitudes, behaviours and responses that different people may exhibit toward the same phenomenon at the same time or at different times.

Perception, basically, is an old psychological concept that stands for how human beings organise, identify and interpret sensory information (i.e. information transmitted to/through the senses) in order to represent and understand the environment. In Psychology, perception is not passive; it can be shaped by learning, memory, expectation, experience, motivational state and emotional state. Psychologists have classified perception according to the senses by which real phenomena are perceived. An additional unique category is called social perception which refers to that part of perception that allows people to understand the individuals, groups, institutions and happenings (events) of their social world. The organ or means of social perception is the mind which is shaped by experience, knowledge, memory, ingenuity, etc. It is this aspect of perception we are dealing with here. Varma (1975) says in the course of time, psychologists began to realise that between the external stimulus and the observable response there are objective experiences which influence the interpretation and affect of the stimulus and thereby the nature of the response. This shows that perception (social perception or political perception) is a factor that cannot be ignored, if we must understand the behaviour of people in its variety, complexity and impact, within a social environment where several phenomena – whether political or social, whether impressive enough to

affect a larger population or as less impressive as to affect just few persons, or even, say, one person – necessarily exist in relation to one another.

Perception is an aspect of cognitive social psychology which is concerned with understanding how people are constantly trying to understand and explain the world around them; it has its roots in the human brain and nerves structures, but there is also a large component of the human perception which is determined by cultural exposure and social learning. The concern of this review is with the component of human perception which is determined by cultural and social learning. Clarke (2006) argues that:

We live in a chaos of bewildering waves (physical particles that compose our environment) which are given meaning by our cultural, social and emotional frameworks. Reality is vastly projected our inner framework towards the outside world. We shape our interpretations based on previous experiences and learning paradigms, and many such interpretations become natural and responsive processes. This primarily explains why we have such diverse opinions, tastes, likes, motivational goals, and more. It also explains why there is such a difference in emotional responses from individuals....

Perception, described above, is the key to understanding human society and the complex chains of relationships, pursuits, actions, reactions, interactions, and conflicts, among other things, that exist therein. The history of perception as a social factor can be traced to thousands of years ago when humans began to develop common grounds for communication such as language, writing, reading, etc. – i.e. when men began to develop their expression of reality; by becoming social beings, men created a common reality which was related to the environment around them, constantly under the verification through other individuals within the same social network (Clarke, 2006). So the reality that exists in any social setting, which also determines the actual behaviour of man or men within that environment, is that which is perceived as real. Perception is our

subjective experience of the world around us and involves a flow from the recognition of environmental stimuli to an action or actions in response to these stimuli. Through the perceptual process, we gain information about properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival (<http://www.answers.com/T/Psychology>). A number of factors work to shape, and sometimes distort, perception, and these factors can reside either in the perceiver, in the object or target being perceived, or in the context of the situation in which the perception is formed.

2.4 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF PERCEPTION

The importance of the study of perception has been recognised long ago by some influential thinkers who hold the notion that perception leads to corresponding overt behaviour (Dijksterhuis and Knippenberg, 1998). Studies on perception do not focus on facts; they deal with what people think about facts, and how they react or respond to those facts. So in this sense, perception in itself is a reality; it is a real phenomenon that interplays with facts and human behaviour (Abu-Sada, 2012). In a study of factors that determine the relationship between the staff and services of MSF (Medicins Sans Frontières or Doctors Without Borders), Caroline Abu-Sada (2012) found that the perception of MSF among the local peoples was a key factor: the name of the organisation and the vocabulary used by the staff, among other things, were found to create certain impressions that made people to perceive the MSF as “military-like” and super-imposing, thereby making closeness to the staff difficult, and thus limited interactions with them. So it can be seen that the organisational identity of MSF depends not only on the image the organisation intends to convey, but also on what the

organisation means to people. The above example points to the importance of studying perception; it can help us to understand the interface between facts and behaviour.

Another term that points to the importance of perception is perception management. It is a term originated by the United States military which connotes actions that are aimed at conveying or denying selected information and indicators to foreign audiences in order to influence their emotions, motives and objective reasoning, as well as to intelligence systems and leaders in order to influence official estimates, ultimately resulting in foreign behaviours and official actions favourable to the originator's objectives. Therefore, perception management combines truth projection, propaganda, cover, deception and psychological operations in various ways. In other words, the several components of perception – the perceiver, target of perception and situation – are carefully interfered with in order to generate certain desired attitudes, expectations and actions. Dr. Millicent Dankar (2011) says that:

Perceptions are...stakeholders' way of seeing, understanding or interpreting your country or corporate brand, reputation, products, services, governance, leadership...These perceptions are neither good nor bad, but they are real. Stakeholder perceptions have to be continually managed through proactive and sensitive communications, active listening, continuing engagement and genuine relationship.

It is common place today for organisations and countries to employ perception management in order to pursue their defined goals, because they believe that their presence and impact on the world are a function of the space of projected perceptions within which they can, and should, consciously manage their movements, activities, etc. (PMIG, 2008).

There is also a causal relationship between expectations and achievement or performance; high expectations usually engender a high level of commitment or effort (i.e. what one needs to do personally in order to bring about the realisation of that expected goal and vice-versa). Success in any meaningful endeavour is marked by a history of high expectations to provide the motivation towards high level performance by the individual in the context of other supportive components such as environment, attitudes, perception, abilities and chance. The strong relationship between expectations and academic achievement, for example, has well been established both theoretically and empirically (Marzano, 2003; Stronge, 2002; Kaplan *et al.*, 2001; Tannenbaum, 1997; Seginer, 1983).

2.5 SOME SELECTED STUDIES ON PERCEPTION

In order to further understand the significance of perception in the social behaviour of people with respect to social phenomena, some selected studies have been reviewed in this section. A report of the American Political Science Association Taskforce (2009) notes that “perceptions define reality,” pointing that there remains a deep global dissatisfaction with the United States, and this has affected their global standing and reduced their support in the United Nations General Assembly. This came about as a result of certain foreign policy actions taken by the Bush Administration which generated some negative perceptions and consequently dissatisfaction with the United States. The report states that this trend will be hard to reverse except the United States’ policy makers take deliberate steps in foreign policy to redeem the image of the country, because it is crucial to her national interest. A crucial factor as national status and/or reputation of a country such as the United States is seen to be affected by the perception

of peoples of other countries, and this in turn has made Americans themselves to be unhappy with their country's low profile abroad, and their public confidence in how the rest of the world sees the country has decreased, according to the report. This is just to point out the significance of perception to even the highest and greatest form of human political organisation, the state, not to mention other lesser institutions like international organisations, groups and units. Perception as a determinant factor in people's orientation and attitude toward existing phenomena cannot be ignored any longer, not even by powerful states like the United States.

Perception deals with virtually every social phenomena that exists in society, be it an event, activity, entity, policy, behaviour, etc. For instance, studies have been conducted on people's perception of things: issues like organisational support by employers, libraries and information resources, humanitarian organisations, educational programmes, discrimination, politics, organisational politics, social responsibility, academic performance, risk, and peer review (Eschenbacher, 2011; Weber *et al.*, 2011; Adediwura and Tayo, 2010; Azeem *et al.*, 2010; Dijkzeul and Wakerge, 2010; Monforti and Sanchez, 2010; Ware, 2008; IISD, 2004; Boholm, 1998). These studies measured perceptions of different categories or groups of people in different places (context), in connection to one or more other variables, such as female employees, library users, local beneficiaries and stakeholders of humanitarian efforts, staff within an organisation, racial groups, workers in the banking sector, students, research groups, etc. The perception of any person with respect to a phenomenon or several phenomena can be studied. So any social category within the entire population could be subjected to perception studies insofar as they interact with social phenomena around them either directly or indirectly.

At the heart of these theses is the fact that some expectations and attitudes are formed by people towards certain things on the basis of perception, and they go a long way in determining the social and political actions, reactions and interactions of the people in society. To ignore perception (both measurement and management) could pose grave consequences for society, and this could be the bane of some developing and least developed countries (LDCs) that find it difficult to mobilise or unite their heterogeneous groups toward definite national objectives and goals, because least percentage of perception studies is recorded against them. It is therefore suggested here, based on the understanding of the place of perception and the possibility of it being managed, that a possible key to building a sense of nationhood in a country that is divided along several ethnic, religious and regional lines is intensive and extensive studies of the perceptions of the peoples with a view to careful management of it for the purpose of national integration.

From the foregoing, it could be seen that perception studies are normally based on social categories and groups. In other words, perception can best be understood when it is approached from group dimension – that is, when a certain number of people who share certain physiological, geographical and/or social characteristics are identified, isolated and examined carefully. Virtually every human being consciously or unconsciously identifies with some other person or persons with whom he shares certain similar characteristics, while still having his unique qualities as an individual, and such grouping provides the objective context (at least partly) within which that person could perceive, expect, and behave. Wherever people live or interact together over time, they consciously or unconsciously develop and share certain behavioural patterns, ideas, philosophies, and

mindset – i.e. culture – which they, each at a different degree, agree to identify and be identified with (Oxford Brookes University, 2011). One of the implications of this is that an individual's social attitude, perception and behaviour cannot be divorced from the objective context – that is, social category or group – in which he lives.

Summarily, every single group or category of people is unique. So it is only normal for group processes, structures, cultures and perceptions to vary from group to group, as a function of the group's task, level of development and membership (<http://www.lightbryan.com.bios.html>). So the study of perception may necessarily have to be undertaken from group dimension, thus the isolation of social categories like female employees, library users, race, etc. as seen in studies referred to above.

The present study, for example, is concerned with the perception of beneficiaries of a project, Millennium Villages Project (MVP) by UNDP; they comprise a social category or a subset of the Nigerian population and their grouping is on the basis of community and geography – they are members of one community or village in a definite geographical location in which the project is executed. Before going on to discuss people and perception from available literature, it is necessary to note here that several studies of perception employed the survey (field, telephone or online) method to conduct their research, and basically questionnaires were used as primary data collection instruments. Surveys provide a means of measuring a population's characteristics, self-reported and observed behaviours, awareness of programmes and institutions, attitudes, opinions, needs, etc.; sample surveys gather information from only one part of the population of interest, and the size of the sample is dependent on the purpose of the study (Queensland Government, 2012). The reason for this is that perception is a highly subjective

phenomenon; it is what an individual or individuals choose to conceive that eventually becomes their own reality. So measuring it requires the use of an equally highly objective instrument, especially the questionnaire in order to avoid all forms of interference, and coupled with careful observation by the researcher, with people's sincere perceptual expressions. However, interviews can be employed in order to observe unwritten expressions among the people.

Weber *et al.* (2011) conducted a baseline survey to describe current practices and examine working women's perception of organisational support on breastfeeding intention and practice, and found that enabling women to continue breastfeeding at work has benefits for the infant, employee and organisation; however, women felt largely unsupported by managers and their organisation to continue breastfeeding at work, thus producing some level of negative results. Here, the perceived unsupportiveness has quenched the intention of continued breastfeeding when women return to work after giving birth, and so denying those involved the benefits that could have accrued. This study reveals not only how perception affects behaviour (that could be positive or negative), but also the disparity of perception of the same phenomenon (continued breastfeeding) by different groups (managers or employers and working women) in the same organisation. Perception thus plays a direct role in employer-employee relationships and an indirect role in determining the overall performance of an organisation as it relates to the efficiency of the entire staff or workers in all cadres. Understanding the perception of the working population – on crucial phenomena such as marriage, pregnancy, breastfeeding, and such others that are part and parcel of human social and biological or physiological existence, especially the ones that bear on the sex of the worker – can be

useful for understanding how to develop effective principles by which people working in an organisation can be treated and enabled to attain extremely high potentials irrespective of their conditions.

In a paper that examines local perceptions of two humanitarian organisations in the eastern part of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Dijkzeul and Wakerge (2010) found that at times, the self-perception of these organisations differs considerably from the perception of local beneficiaries and stakeholders, so that the former may be doing ‘good,’ but looking ‘bad’ in the eyes of the latter. They identified and examined factors that account for the differences in perceptions and the implications of this type of research for humanitarian principles and management. This study further confirms, as did some previous ones, that it is what individuals or groups consciously or unconsciously perceive that eventually becomes their own reality and main determinant of their attitudes and behaviour toward any phenomenon, no matter how good or objective it maybe. Here, the perceptions of essentially different categories to the same phenomenon are measured and found to be different. This agrees with the earlier assertion that perception and behaviour cannot be divorced from the group context (position) of the person or persons whose perception is being measured.

Eschenbacher (2011) did a similar study that examined differences between an international organisation’s headquarters and field employees’ perceptions of the programme they are executing in Southern Sudan, and found that although both sets of employees aimed for a successful programme, they perceived the programme politics, problems and solutions differently, depending on their role. Whereas headquarters employees tried to balance donor requirements with their own organisational and host

government's interests documented through "paper-trails" to ensure grant compliance, the field staff had to match the on-the-ground realities in a changing environment to the programme's grand objectives. The implications of this was that the nature of varied perspectives employees of this same organisation hold of their own programme in the field, at the home office and in headquarters could help explain patterns in programme change and adaptation. This shows that discrepant perceptions have implications for project designs when considering strategies that will enhance long-lasting benefits of programmes and projects of international organisations in places like Sudan, especially whether there are clear differences, say of roles and locations, between headquarters and field employees. Organisations with different cadres of employees or with employees in different locations handling different tasks that combine to meet common goals have much to learn from perception studies. The study of perception must usually take into consideration the objective context (location, function, activity, etc.) of the social group under investigation with respect to a phenomenon. This again reinforces the necessity of categorisation or determining the common characteristics of the individuals whose perception is to be measured.

Apart from factors such as functional location and others identified already from the beginning of this review, other social, possibly self-induced, factors could also be identified as sources of perceptions that may be present in a social group of category. Monforti and Sanchez (2010), in a study of the presence and sources of perceptions of internal discriminations among Latinos, found out that perceptions of internal discriminations are greater for those who are less integrated into the United States society. Who, for instance, may be blamed for the less integration of some Latinos (Latin

Americans living in the US) in a free society like America's? Yet this factor is a major source of perception of internal discrimination amongst them.

2.6 PERCEPTION, INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

Perception studies have also touched the shores of international relations, as a considerable number of works in that regard can be located. Notable among them is Brian Ripley (1993) who, in an article titled "Psychology, Foreign Policy and International Relations Theory," explored the "hard core" of Foreign Policy Decision Making theory (FPDM) as provided by Snyder *et al.* (1962). Among the hard core tenets are: (1) decision-making elites are the most important actors in international politics; (2) in order to interpret patterns of behaviour in global politics, we must endeavour to understand the decision-makers' own "definition of the situation"; (3) foreign policy can best be understood as an unending task of sequential problem-solving by goal-directed elites operating within organisational and cognitive constraints; (4) the primary currency of foreign policy is information; (5) the global system is the arena of politics, rather than the major force in international politics; and (6) policy prescriptions involve efforts to compensate for individual misperception and organisational pathologies.

The argument here is that foreign policy decision analysis should focus on the elites operating within the state system so that we can give an "inside-out" explanation of state behaviour (based on internal features of the state) rather than an "outside-in" explanation (based on the constraints and opportunities imposed on the state by the global

system). This requires one, among other things, to endeavour to understand the decision-makers' own definition of the situation toward which the foreign policy decision is directed. Snyder *et al.* (1962) "emphasise that 'perception,' 'choice,' and 'expectation' are crucial components in the derivation of a 'definition of the situation'" (Ripley, 1993); so analysis is aimed at understanding the fundamental worldview or "belief system" of the decision-makers of a state. Ripley further asserts that information is pivotal to FPDM, just as power or self-interest is to power theory. The availability or lack of information is central to understanding foreign policy, because decision-makers, regardless of their motives, use available information in defining the situation that they are faced with, and subsequently the decision to be taken. This study agrees with previous ones that the whole of human activities, behaviours, expectations, choices, etc. are seen to be underscored by their perception of facts within their environment, regardless of their location, social position or official hierarchy. This is the best explanation for differences and unpredictability of state actions with respect to, say, the same issue or threat. So the international system is an arena for, not a force, in international politics. In other words, the impact of the environment of international politics may be great, but the way in which it ultimately affects international politics is primarily a result of the way in which statesmen and the public perceive, evaluate and respond to it.

Christian Davenport (1995) in an article earlier mentioned, entitled "Multi-Dimensional Threat Perception and State Repression: An Inquiry Into Why States Apply Negative Sanctions," demonstrated that state internal or domestic actions are also underscored by the perception of issues, events and facts within the domestic environment. In the case of his inquiry, he found that states do respond to threats with

repression based on what the government perceives of situations as threats, or when it views threat as more seriously threatening; however, there are certain factors that cause perception of domestic threats to vary, such as state system type, coercive capacity, economic development and dependency. Each of these factors, according to Davenport, is significant because they facilitate the identification of different contextual elements that impact on the government's perceptions of domestic threats as well as the likelihood that a repressive behaviour would be applied. Again, we find here that perception does not form in a vacuum; certain objective facts or factors serve as predisposing determinants of what perception is formed with respect to a situation, event or threat. For instance, when the development of the economy is high, threats are less likely to be perceived as serious and repression is less likely to be used, because basic human needs have greater likelihood of being met within that society, and so important elements of society are probably not called into question. On the other hand, lower levels of economic development present a different situation: where human needs are unmet, conflicts have the potential of escalating latent hostilities felt towards the government. The response of the regime would then be to dissuade any movements mobilised against it.

So state behaviours (domestic and external) are real actions, reactions and interactions, with real consequences and benefits, that are arrived at on the basis of a process of facts and situation 'filtering' through the 'sieve' of perception. In summation, underlying the analyses of foreign policy and international relations is this common contention regarding the relationship between environmental influences and foreign policy decisions: environmental factors influence foreign policy and public policy

decisions only if they are successfully mediated through the perceptions of relevant state decision-makers (Gold, 1978).

Loveless and Rohrschneider (2008) conducted a research with the title “Public perceptions of the EU as a system of governance,” and found that the mass of public’s perception of the European Union (EU) has been driven by the considerations by which the EU itself has progressed, such as in the economic stability of the 1990s, collective security, and identity issues, among others. Discussions of the potentialities of the EU have in it a crucial element: citizens have become more sophisticated in their demands on the EU as it had increasingly impinged upon their daily lives. In other words, the perception of the Europeans on the potentialities of the EU, driven by the considerations by which the organisation has progressed and shaped by its impact on citizens’ life constitutes the basis on which the organisation thrives and may continue to thrive. History (origin), progress (achievement) and impact are the projecting factors that shaped the perception of the Europeans of the potentialities of the EU, and that perception underscores the support, attraction and legitimacy that the EU direly needs to exist as an integrative agency for the entire European society. A favourable perception of the EU among the Europeans is significant to its continued existence, functioning and progression. Perception studies and perception management therefore occupy a significant place in European research toward understanding the behaviour of Europeans within an integrated Europe (Loveless and Rohrschneider, 2008).

The above study may be compared with a study undertaken by Herrberge (2008) on behalf of the Initiative for Peace Building (IFP) Media Cluster (funded by the EU). In this study, the understanding of policy-makers on the issue of international peace

mediation, the main theme and issues that pertain to the EU, are considered and the results showed that, among other things, policy-makers of the EU institutions do not necessarily equate the EU's role to that of a mediator, although there are few key cases of mediation efforts, such as the Ohrid Agreement in 2001, Ukraine's Orange Revolution of 2004, and the Arab and Middle East peace processes. Secondly, the EU is often viewed as not being an impartial player, but rather an actor with a number of interests in areas of close geographic proximity to the EU or where there are former colonial interests at play. These perceptions among EU policy-makers have favourably predisposed the organisation towards the facilitative, non-interventionist style when it comes to understanding and supporting international peace mediation in EU conflict resolution efforts, even though it mostly relies on power-based approach to mediation elsewhere. Also, in spite of the recognition by EU actors that international peace mediation is an important practice, they hesitate to implement measures that allow its professionalization. These findings are paradoxes that further studies may reconcile, yet they portray the present state of the Union. All of it points to one thing – perception of EU policy-makers. In this light, the actions of the EU with respect to international peace mediation are shown to be ultimately connected with the EU actors' perceptions of international peace mediation.

Burall *et al.* (2007) earlier assessed key stakeholder perceptions of the effectiveness of multilateral organisations. The pilot study was undertaken in 2007 to identify the views of stakeholders in recipient countries about the performance of key multilateral organisations, and their preferences for which of the organisations should disburse additional aid. The organisations were the African Development Bank (AFDB),

Asian Development Bank (ADB), the European Commission, and the Global Fund for AIDS, TB and Malaria, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the World Bank. The countries surveyed were Bangladesh, Ghana, India, South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia. The findings reveal that what multilateral organisations do (or not do) does not matter. Rather, understanding the recipient stakeholders' perceptions is vital to understanding the effectiveness of multilateral organisations. In other words, donors and recipient stakeholders differ in the indices they use to assess effectiveness: donors place more emphasis on inputs, outputs and outcomes, whereas recipient stakeholders appear to place at least as much importance on ownership and governance. So, given the clear consensus that ownership of the development process is critical to aid effectiveness, understanding stakeholder perceptions must be a critical element in any overall assessment or evaluation of donor effectiveness. The study reveals that stakeholders' perception has predisposed them favourably to the Asian Development Bank, the UNDP and the World Bank for both the funding and the policies and procedures criteria (i.e. stakeholders' preference), as against the low rankings of the European Commission, the AFDB, the Global Fund for AIDS and TB and Malaria. In terms of preference for which organisation should disburse additional aid, the UNDP was ranked highest.

From the foregoing, perception is shown to be the key to understanding the behaviours and performances of individuals, groups, institutions, countries, and international organisations. The actions, reactions and interactions that exist in human society at every level (individual, group, community, national and global) are a product of exchanges mediated through the 'passageway' of perception.

2.7 PARTICIPATION AND FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE PEOPLE TO PARTICIPATE

UNDP (2004) and Barnabas (2011) see participation as the situation whereby beneficiaries or participants in any project are involved from the decision making stage, planning, implementation, execution, operations and even evaluation. In a work titled “Effect of Millennium Villages Project on Livelihood of Farmers in Beneficiary Communities of Kaduna,” Barnabas (2011) concisely discusses the opinions of some scholars and international organisations on participation. For instance, Ekong (2003) defines participation as “playing active, though not necessarily direct, roles in community decisions, knowledge of local issues, attendance of public meetings, related attempts to influence proposed measures through individual and group actions, belonging to groups and committees and financial contributions towards community programmes.” UNDP (2004) defines participation as when people are closely involved in the economic, social, cultural and political processes that affect their lives. According to Kolawale (1990), participation may involve a multi-sector approach whereby people take part in decision making and implementation processes. This may entail prior consultation with the beneficiaries not just for the purpose of ascertaining their “felt needs” but also their priorities, and other factors that can lead to equitable access and use of productive resources and also employment opportunities which allow the rural dwellers to contribute and benefit from the development process. These definitions capture the essence of the MVP approach, particularly the elements of sustainability and accountability. The sense of belonging that participation engenders when coupled with the expected long-term benefits, informs the underlying confidence in the validity of the MVP approach as a tool

for meeting the MDGs. For instance, participation of beneficiaries have been courted both collectively (e.g. the community, several co-operatives and organisations) and individually.

Barnabas (2011) affirms that Yoon (2001) and Benton (2003) both agree that participation is now an orientation in today's development concept that stresses a more active role for the masses in the process of development. The renewed concept is being emphasised to usher in a freer approach to development. The orientation is borne out of a general dislike for the top-down approach to development, which has contributed to the failure of attempts directed at solving the problems of poverty and underdevelopment. IFAD (2010) observes that participatory processes can be effective in increasing the incomes and food security of the rural poor and also reverse environmental degradation. Participation, according to the World Bank (2001), has been associated with increased mobilization of stakeholder's ownership of policies and projects, with more cost effective services, with greater transparency and accountability, and with strengthened capacity of people to learn and act.

According to Yoon (2001) in Barnabas (2011), four different levels of participation can be observed in most development projects. They are participation in implementation, participation in evaluation, participation in benefit and participation in decision making. In his opinion, participation in decision-making is the most important level to promote as it gives people a say over their future and their environment. It also helps the people to acquire problem solving skills and full ownership of projects. These are two key elements of sustainable community development. Pretty (1994), in Barnabas (2011), reports seven types of participation: manipulative participation, passive

participation, and participation by consultation, participation for material incentives, functional participation, interactive participation and self-mobilization. Participation thus ranges from manipulative and passive participation where people are told what is to happen and act out predetermined roles, to self-mobilization where people take initiatives largely independent of external institutions. To them, the most appreciated type of participation is the interactive participation where beneficiaries or their representatives participate in the organization of extension service, in decision-making on goals, targets, messages and methods, and in evaluation of activities. Hence, participation should be seen as the right means to achieve project goals. Therefore, active participation which allows people to realize their full potentials and make their best contribution to society is an end in itself.

Some issues have been demonstrated to be critical for participatory projects, including entry point activities (EPAs) or pre-intervention which gives room for the inculcation of knowledge and skills, derivation of initial benefits and formation of expectations among the local peoples, with respect to the actual project in which they would be both participants and beneficiaries (Colakoglu *et al.*, 2010; Funds for NGOs, 2008; Das, 2007; Evans & Donnelly, 2006; Klebba & Unger, 1983; Srull, 1983; Wani *et al.*, n.d.)

2.8 CHALLENGES IN PARTICIPATION

The principle of participation in development projects implementation is not a perfect principle; there are some challenges that come with its application in the process of development. Studies by Fadhil (2011), Akinboye *et al.* (2007), Brahmi and Thakur

(2011), and Cleaver (1999), among others, have shown this clearly. In his study, Fadhil (2011) sought to investigate the factors that influence community participation in the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) projects in Moyale district in Kenya and found that lack of proper communication, lack of transparency, lack of advertisement, conflict or violence, nepotism, gender inequality, political affiliation, lack of proper analysis of the needs of the people, lack of proper planning of CDF project, illiteracy and lack of skills were main problems facing community awareness and participation. He thus recommended location meetings, women involvement, and workshops at locations of projects, empowerment and education (which in turn would solve the problems of nepotism, gender inequality, and political affiliation, lack of proper analysis and lack of planning). These are real on-the-ground circumstances that come into play in the entire process of implementing such projects. Akinboye *et al.* (2007) found similar results in a study entitled “Factors Affecting Youth Participation in Community Development in Remo North Local Government Area of Ogun State,” which investigated the factors affecting youth participation in community development projects in eight rural communities in the LGA. The constraining factors found in the study include, first, lack of adequate recognition of youths as a formidable labour force. Second, statistically, youth occupation, level of education and access to information are significantly related to participation.

Brahmi and Thakur (2011) examined the programme related and socio-economic factors affecting people’s participation in Hariyali project under Nalagarh block of Himachal Pradesh and found that socio-economic factors like lack of awareness about programmes, lack of demonstrations, village politics, lack of transparency, illiteracy, lack

of exposure visits, low interest in money contribution, poor economic conditions, subsidy culture and general lack of faith in government projects affect participation. On the other hand, programme related factors that constitute constraints include lack of entry point activities, lack of flexibility in expenditure according to field conditions, variations in wage payments and lack of advance payment. They conclude that policy and development emphasis on these factors would lead to greater participation in the programme. From the part of the beneficiaries, there could be failed expectations which could engender reactions such as reluctance, refusal to participate, fear and uncertainty, or even opposition to the project, as reported in studies by Seifert *et al.* (2013), IFAD (2010), and Barreteau *et al.* (2010).

Cleaver (1999) on his part suggests that the concepts underlying participatory approaches to development should be subject to greater critical analysis, and illustrates the need for a more complex understanding of issues of efficiency and empowerment in participatory approaches. He claims that despite significant claims made for participatory approaches to development, there is little evidence of the long-term effectiveness of participation in materially improving the conditions of the most vulnerable people or as a strategy for social change. He notes:

Whilst the evidence for efficiency receives some support on a small scale, the evidence regarding empowerment and sustainability is more partial, tenuous and reliant on assertions of the rightness of the approach and process rather than convincing proof of outcomes. Participation has therefore become an act of faith in development; something we believe in and rarely question. This act of faith is based on three main tenets; that participation is intrinsically a ‘good thing’ (especially for the participants), that a focus on ‘getting the techniques right’ is the principal way of ensuring the success of such approaches and that considerations of power and politics on the whole should be avoided as divisive and obstructive. In questioning these it is not my intention, as

some critics have suggested, to deny the usefulness of a people-centred orientation in development, nor to dismiss all attempts at community-based development as well-meaning but ineffectual. Rather I hope to subject such approaches to critical analysis in the belief that this is equally as important as constant assertions of their strengths (Clever, 1999).

Other reported problems of participatory projects include the crippling effects of refusal to participate in projects (Barreteau *et al.*, 2010; Waisbord, 2008; Bess *et al.*, 2009; Cassano and Dunlop, 2005), disagreement with some aspects of projects (Rabinowitz, 2013), failed expectations from projects (Barreteau *et al.*, 2010), and outright opposition to projects (World Bank, 2001).

These studies all lead to one summary concerning the participatory principle or approach to development, which is this: even though it is useful and has yielded good results in development efforts, it is not without challenges. And, as Cleaver has noted, subjecting such principles to critical analysis does not imply denying their usefulness or dismissing them as ineffective. When it comes to practical application, questioning them is a way of seeking answers to real problems and challenges that emerge with their application in contextual situations, and when the answers are found, we may be confident about their usefulness and continue to make constant assertions of their strengths.

2.9 UNDP PROJECTS AND THE PARTICIPATORY PRINCIPLE

Shortly after the establishment of UNDP, a study by Sir R.G.A. Jackson (1969) assessed the capacity of the United Nations System to make effective use of the resources of UNDP and its capacity to handle a programme approximately double that of the existing operation within the next five years. The study gave credit to the UN for having

improvised a major international service of technical assistance co-operation and pre-investment despite lack of capital resources and also lack of an organisation specifically designed for the purpose. The study proposed that major responsibility for international aid and development should be concentrated in the hands of UNDP, which would become responsible for co-ordinating the aid effort of the whole UN complex. This led to the full merger of the UN Expanded Fund for Technical Assistance (EFTA) and the Special Fund into the UNDP in 1971 in order to avoid the duplication of their activities (IAACA, 2011). Problems identified within the UN system which necessitated such a reform included the following: first, programmes and procedures did not adequately reflect the needs of developing countries; second, there were delays in delivery and project staff are not often suited or prepared for programmes execution; third, the follow-up phase of the programme is often the weakest link; and fourth, co-ordination between agencies is often weak or lacking.

The proposal was adopted and UNDP became the UN global development agency in virtually all countries of the world. Presently, UNDP is not only the lead co-ordinating agency for development in the UN system, but also the global monitor of the internationally agreed Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). UNDP has adopted the country programme method in implementing the UN development agenda; each country is taken in its own right on the basis of its internal socio-economic and political context and conditions for execution of development projects. Furthermore, UNDP has developed its technical and professional capacity in the field of development in terms of knowledge, staff and funding for development projects. Lastly, the organisation has taken into consideration the matter of sustainability of projects and programmes after the period of

active intervention, and the ensuing principle is participation of governments and local communities in places in which their projects and programmes are executed or sited.

Alaerts *et al.* (1991) note that at a UNDP symposium held in Delft, The Netherlands in June 1991 with the goal of determining strategic approaches for the sustainability of water sector programmes and projects, capacity building was discussed within the context of a country “self help” view point. This shows that the community based or participatory approach to project determination and implementation has been a long term practice of UNDP and it (i.e. the approach) was adopted on the basis of years of research in the area of development, particularly in developing countries. This fact agrees with the findings of Uduku (1994) who points to how little attention has been paid to long-established traditions of self-help and community organisation that provided basic infrastructures and that continue to do so in some instance. In considering different possibilities for improving infrastructure and service provision, he presents a historical and regional perspective to infrastructure and service provision in urban areas, covering the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial periods, wherein he noted that community based approaches are long established traditions that are better suited for the African context. The Millennium Villages Project (MVP) approach also has as its objective the intention of providing a model for the government’s rural development plan throughout sub-Saharan Africa (Millennium Project, 2006b).

Brett (1996) notes that many development theorists and practitioners, including those in key agencies like the World Bank and UNDP, now see participation as crucial to successful project implementation and strongly support co-operative organisational systems; however, he cautions against undue optimism about such forms of organisation,

and attempts to explain their limited success. There has been an increasing emphasis on the participatory principle in development programme and project implementation, though not without limitations, because it has been proven over time to be a better alternative to the top-bottom principle which most governments in the developing world adopt in their development plans. The work of Parikh (1998) titled “Poverty and Environment: Turning the Poor into Agents of Environmental Regeneration” gives some explanation of how the participatory principle works:

The poor adapt and learn to live with poverty in a variety of ways. They also try to cope with shocks from bad events such as droughts, floods and loss of employment. Environmental resources play a vital role in their survival strategies. As the poor depend on environmental resources, one can expect them to have a stake in their preservation.

While the preservation and even regeneration of natural resources are needed for protecting and helping the poor, it is possible to make the poor agents of environmental regeneration in ways that also alleviate their poverty. Looking at UNDP’s experience, Parikh says that UNDP projects have promoted many actions like promoting sustainable management of natural resources, increasing productivity of public and private land, reducing air pollution, providing adequate sanitation, improving solid waste management and reducing chemical pollution; many UNDP projects have sought to improve the environment and help the poor by improving the productivity of their own assets such as land, trees, rivers and streams. UNDP has also recognised the importance of stakeholder participation: those who are most affected by a phenomenon negatively may constitute the most useful agents for change when solution is being sought for, otherwise anything being imposed on them by anyone from elsewhere may either not be accepted by them, or may not even be useful in addressing what affects them most. Those most affected by

problems of poverty and underdevelopment are the best candidates to recruit in order to determine and apply solutions to those problems (IFAD, 2010).

Ajayi and Otuya (2006) assessed women's participation in self-help community development projects in the Ndokwa agricultural zone of Delta State, Nigeria and found that women actually embarked on many self-help development projects, and the most common was the co-operative society. The larger proportions of the identified projects had been completed and were in a functional condition. This shows that the community based approach to executing projects has proven to be more effective because it has in its synergy of partners the very beneficiaries who will ensure effective implementation to their satisfaction and also efficiently sustain the functioning of such projects over a long period of time for their continual benefit.

From another dimension, Galvani and Morse (2004) pointed that by the turn of the 21st century, UNDP had embraced a new form of funding that is based on cost-sharing, unlike the traditional donor-recipient relationship so common with development projects. In this new modality the UNDP local offices become subcontractors, and the agencies or ministries of recipient countries become clients. The paper explores this transition within the context of Brazil, focusing on how the new modality may have compromised UNDP's ability to promote Sustainable Human Development, as established in its mandate. It must be noted again that funding based on donor-recipient relationship is usually related to the top-bottom kind of development projects which normally engenders the sense of exclusion, imposition and domination among the beneficiaries, and worse still, the lack of ownership and, consequently, unsustainability of such projects. But this new cost-sharing modality creates a situation in which the

beneficiaries (countries, communities and individuals) share some responsibilities with other donor and implementing partners in the project, thereby engendering a sense of ownership.

In Africa, UNDP has made remarkable contributions to the development process, especially in the area of development research and generation of statistics necessary for development planning. As far back as 1997, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the UNDP have observed that the proportion of the population of the West African sub-region living in poverty is increasing and is projected to rise by the end of the 1990s. The UNDP has worked closely with the Federal Government of Nigeria over the years in conducting research, planning development projects and other related activities in the field of development. For instance in 1998, UNDP in conjunction with the States/Local Governments Office of the Presidency conducted a human capacity assessment of Nigeria's local governments (Adedokun, n.d.). Furthermore, UNDP's Human Development Report 2004 rates Nigeria negatively in all the indices of human and income poverty, on human poverty index (HPI), observing that 90.8% of the population live below income of less than US\$2 since 1990 to 2002 (Alkali, 2004). In sum, beside planning and implementing several development and development-related projects and programmes such as the Millennium Villages Project in Pampaida in Kaduna State and Ibaram/Ikaram in Ondo State (now folded up), one of the major and critical contributions of UNDP to Africa in general, and Nigeria in particular, is the annual generation of statistics on the socio-economic and political condition of the country, which have been a useful source of information for development planning at the national, state and local levels of government.

A number of works have assessed the impact of the MVP in Pampaida with respect, for instance, to child health and survival (Pronyk *et al.*, 2012; Remans *et al.*, 2011), and to farmers (Barnabas, 2011). On observing that in sub-Saharan Africa, about 40% of children less than five years are stunted, with levels that have remained largely unchanged over the past decades, Remans *et al.* (2011) examined changes in childhood stunting and its determinants after three years of exposure to an integrated, multi-sector intervention of the MVP, and compared these changes with national trends. The study was undertaken in nine MVP project sites for which baseline and year-3 data were available, including Pampaida in Kaduna State, Nigeria. The study found out that three years after the start of the MVP in 2005-2006, consistent improvements were observed in household food security and diet diversity, whereas coverage with childcare and disease-control interventions improved for most outcomes. These findings supply encouraging evidence that a package of multi-sector intervention based on the participatory principle has the potential to produce reduction in childhood stunting. Pronyk *et al.* (2012) also reached a similar conclusion that an integrated multi-sector approach for addressing the MDGs can lead to rapid improvement in child survival in rural sub-Saharan Africa. A similar positive report is confirmed on beneficiaries who are farmers in Pampaida by Barnabas (2011).

2.10 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theory considered most appropriate for this study is the participatory community development theory (also participatory development theory or community development theory). Generally, participatory theories criticized the modernisation paradigm on the ground that it promoted a top-down ethnocentric and paternalistic view

of development (Waisbord, 2001). The advocates of the theory like Alexander Samuel (n.d.), D. Pinel (1992), Robert Chambers (1994a, b), J.B. Cook (1994), Bob Parker (2002) and Sharon Penderis (2012, 1996), argued that the strategic model proposed by modernisation theories have a conception of development associated with a Western vision of progress – the top-down approach of persuasion models – which implicitly assumed that the knowledge of governments and agencies was correct, and that indigenous populations were either ignorant or had incorrect beliefs (Cypher & Dietz, 1997; Fussell, 1996). It is the dissatisfaction with the above traditional development theories that led to a re-examination of the purpose of development towards a search for alternative conceptual explanations. Some development scholars like Penderis (1996), Chambers (1994a, b) and Dinbabo (2003) have begun to answer this challenge, articulating a concept known as “Participatory Development”, or “People Centred Development.” Current debates and development efforts focus on ‘bottom up’ planning, ‘People-Centred Development’ and the view that ordinary citizens have the capacity or can be empowered to manage their own development. This theory encourages the involvement of all stakeholders in the process of development (Schenck & Louw, 1995) and will be useful to the conceptualisation and practice of development initiatives in third world countries.

Development, for participatory theorists and practitioners, requires sensitivity to cultural diversity as well as other specific points that were ignored by modernization theorists. It is the lack of such sensitivity that accounts considerably for the problems and failures of many projects (Coetzee, 2001). Participatory community development theory views the term “participation” as the exercise of people’s power in thinking, acting, and

controlling their activities within a collaborative framework. Thus emphasis is placed on concepts such as capacity building, empowerment, sustainability and self-reliance (Naku & Afrane, 2013; Casteloe *et al.*, 2002).

According to the belief of participatory community development theory, the answer to the problem of successful Third World development cannot be located in the bureaucracy and the several centrally mandated development projects and programs. Rather, it is in the community itself. The rationale behind the emergence of the participatory development theory is that the participation and involvement of beneficiary groups develop and strengthen the capabilities of local stakeholders in development programmes in the sense that it is empowering, and leads to self-transformation and self-reliance thereby ensuring sustainability in the long run (Penderis, 1996). The main tenet of the participatory community development approach is that all stakeholders collaborate in any development activities from the very beginning of project identification, prioritisation, planning, implementing, evaluation and monitoring, thus engendering a sense of ownership and sustainability in the long run. Participatory approaches also address perceptions of the local stakeholders, leading to a favourable change in attitude and agendas (Cook, 1994).

Other tenets of the theory include the following: first, all people, or representatives of all groups, who will be affected by the results of a decision or a process, say a development project, must be included in the process. Second, Parker (2002) says that the perception of stakeholders and planners is an important consideration in the design and execution of any participatory programme. Whereas citizen participation is often a requirement for planners, it is always optional for citizens; citizens

choose to participate because they expect a satisfying experience and hope to influence the planning process. Third, every person has skill, ability and initiative and has an equal right to participate in the process, regardless of their status, sex, category, etc. Fourth, all participants must help to create a climate conducive to open communication and building dialogue. Fifth, authority and power must be balanced and shared evenly between all stakeholders to avoid the domination of one party over the other party or parties. Sixth, all stakeholders have equal responsibility for decisions that are made, and each should have clearly defined responsibilities or functions within each process. Furthermore, participants with special skills should be encouraged to take responsibility for tasks within their specialty, but they should also encourage others to also be involved to promote mutual learning and empowerment. Lastly, cooperation is very important because sharing everybody's strength reduces everybody's weaknesses.

Critics have not spared this theory on the basis of the fact that the theory emerged from the practice of development at a time when the trend was changing in favour of the participatory principle, and so the theory does not provide adequate explanations for ways of solving some of the troubles that beset development efforts generally, and particularly problems with the application of the participatory principle in development programmes. It has been noted already that the principle of participation in project implementation is not a perfect principle; there are some challenges that come with its application in the process of development, as shown in studies by Fadhil (2011), Akinboye *et al.* (2007), Brahmi and Thakur (2011), Dipholo (2002) and Cleaver (1999), among others. Critics have also pointed that it is not clear that communities needed to be involved for certain results to be achieved. Furthermore, both practitioners and theorists

are increasingly highlighting its marginalising and divisive powers through its mechanistic use as a tool to validate pre-conceived policy initiatives. In spite of these critiques, the practice and acceptance of the theory as the definitive solution for the challenges facing developing countries continues to increase (Penderis, 2012), just as the praise for the participatory principle and theory continue to increase among development cycles, particularly the international development agencies.

Despite these criticisms, the theory of participatory community development is considered as the most suitable framework of analysis for this research because, first, it facilitates both the study and practice of community development processes and programme, since the theory emerged from the field of development, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. It also has the favour of important international development and functional agencies (e.g. UNDP) around the world as a tool for analysis. Second, given its tenets, the theory provides appropriate lines of explanation for the two variables (perception, participation) covered in this study, and every aspect of MVP intervention could be fitted into its framework. Lastly, it must be noted that the theory addresses both perception and participation of local stakeholders in development projects in local communities, in addition to other issues like programme planning and planners' activities, monitoring, and evaluation collectively. The present study therefore is undertaken within the framework of the theory of participatory community development.

2.11 CONCLUSION

The works reviewed above have generally revealed much in terms of explanation about people's perception, expectations and behaviour (involvement, participation) with

respect to several phenomena existing in and around their social context. It has been ascertained that people's behaviour toward, for instance, an international organisation can only be understood well if the people's perception of that international organisation can be studied. Perception itself is a difficult concept to measure, but it can be determined on the basis of actual behaviour and attitudes of the people towards a phenomenon or phenomena, and the underlying reasons for those behaviour and attitudes.

The Pampaida MVP is a multi-partner project with the UNDP as the key or lead implementing agency in Nigeria between 2006 and 2011. (Millennium Promise is now the lead implementing agency since its registration as an international non-governmental organisation in Nigeria.) The major gap in the existing literature, which the present study is concerned with, is the lack of explanation for the beneficiaries' perception of UNDP, the lead implementing partner of the MVP in their community and their participation in the MVP. Whereas studies by UNDP, Millennium Promise, Millennium Project, and other researchers from the academia pointed to the impact of some or all of the MVP intervention sectors on all or some sections of the beneficiaries, there are no studies available on the beneficiaries' own subjective opinions about the organisation that implemented the project in their community. In essence, there are no studies available that provide explanations for the beneficiaries' subjective opinions about the organisation that implemented the project in their community, and how it influenced their participation in the MVP project. This is undertaken in this study within the framework of the participatory community development theory, which to some extent fills up the gap.

CHAPTER THREE

AN OVERVIEW OF THE UNDP, THE MDGS AND THE MVP

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This study is an empirical research on people's perception of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), with particular focus on the Millennium Villages Project (MVP) in Pampaida, a community in Saulawa District in Ikara LGA of Kaduna State, Nigeria. It investigates people's perceptions of UNDP, an international organisation that they have been involved with in a project both as direct beneficiaries and participants, from 2006 to 2011. It is therefore necessary here that some background discussion of the UNDP in Nigeria and the MVP be undertaken in order to establish the contextual basis for the research. It is believed that doing this will validate the empiricity of the study in line with the available literature and, consequently, substantiate the

findings, conclusions and recommendations as empirically-based and thus useful for practical applications in both subsequent researches along this line and in development works that are similar to the one under study.

3.2 THE UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (UNDP)

First of all, the roots of the UNDP and all its programmes can be traced to the creation of the United Nations at the close of the Second World War (WW2) in 1945 as an international organisation for promoting world peace and co-operation. The UN was established to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, and the following objectives were assigned to it: (i) to maintain international peace and security; (ii) to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of people; (iii) to achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural and humanitarian character; and (iv) to be a centre for harmonising the actions of nations for the attainment of these common goals. It is thus the most sophisticated diplomatic machinery ever created for the promotion and management of international peace and security (Chinade, n.d.; Howard, 2009). The objectives assigned to the UN have given it a global outlook and responsibility, and its activities were to have far-reaching implications for the existence of all persons, communities, countries, regions and the globe as a whole. Because of the enormity of the global problems which the UN was established to be responsible for solving, it only became necessary and normal that virtually all the countries of the world, all governmental and non-governmental international organisations and every issue that falls within the scope of international relations should have some connection with the UN directly or indirectly. Its scope is truly global.

On realising the relationship between peace and development, the creators of the UN Charter made provisions for the establishment of specialised agencies in specific technical and functional areas, and provided institutional linkages between each of them and the UN proper in the strong belief that an enduring peace and security can only be built on a solid foundation of social and economic development (Chinade, n.d.). Therefore, there has been a massive proliferation of economic commissions, social committees and administrative agencies since the creation of the UN, and this is due to the expansion of the operational responsibilities, the emergence of new challenges and increase in UN membership all over the world. It is in this light that the UNDP was established on 22 November, 1965 to foster sustainable development in impoverished nations, especially the newly independent states. The UN Expanded Fund for Technical Assistance (EFTA), created in 1949 to help the economic and political aspects of underdeveloped countries, and the Special Fund, established in 1958 to enlarge the scope of UN technical assistance, were fully collapsed into the UNDP in 1971 in order to avoid a duplication of their activities (IAACA, 2011). Hence the UNDP is the UN's global development network organisation, headquartered in New York and funded entirely by voluntary contributions from member nations. It is a functional organisation in the sense that it uses the principle of specialisation based on function or role. UNDP allows decisions to be decentralised since issues are delegated to specialised persons, units, or teams, leaving them the responsibility of implementing, evaluating, monitoring or controlling the given procedures or goals.

As the global development network organisation of the UN the UNDP operates in over 177 countries, working with governments to meet development challenges and to

develop local capacity. In addition, UNDP works internationally to aid countries achieve the MDGs. UNDP provides advice, training and grant support to developing countries, with increasing emphasis on assistance to the least developed countries (LDCs). To accomplish the MDGs and encourage global development, UNDP focuses on poverty reduction, HIV/AIDS, democratic governance, energy and environment, social development, and crisis prevention and recovery, in addition to encouraging the protection of human rights and the empowerment of women in its entire ramifications. The functional capacity of UNDP has expanded in scope as seen in its areas of focus, and this is due to increasing demands made on the UN, believed to be a fair global forum for expressing views and concerns open to all countries regardless of their status, for more delivery in terms of efforts toward fighting underdevelopment in its different dimensions.

Structurally, UNDP is an executive board within the UN General Assembly (UNGA), headed by an Administrator who has the rank of an Under-Secretary-General of the UN. The position of the Administrator is appointed by the UN Secretary-General and confirmed by the UNGA for a term of four years. In addition to his/her responsibilities as head of UNDP, the Administrator is also the Chair of the UN Development Group.

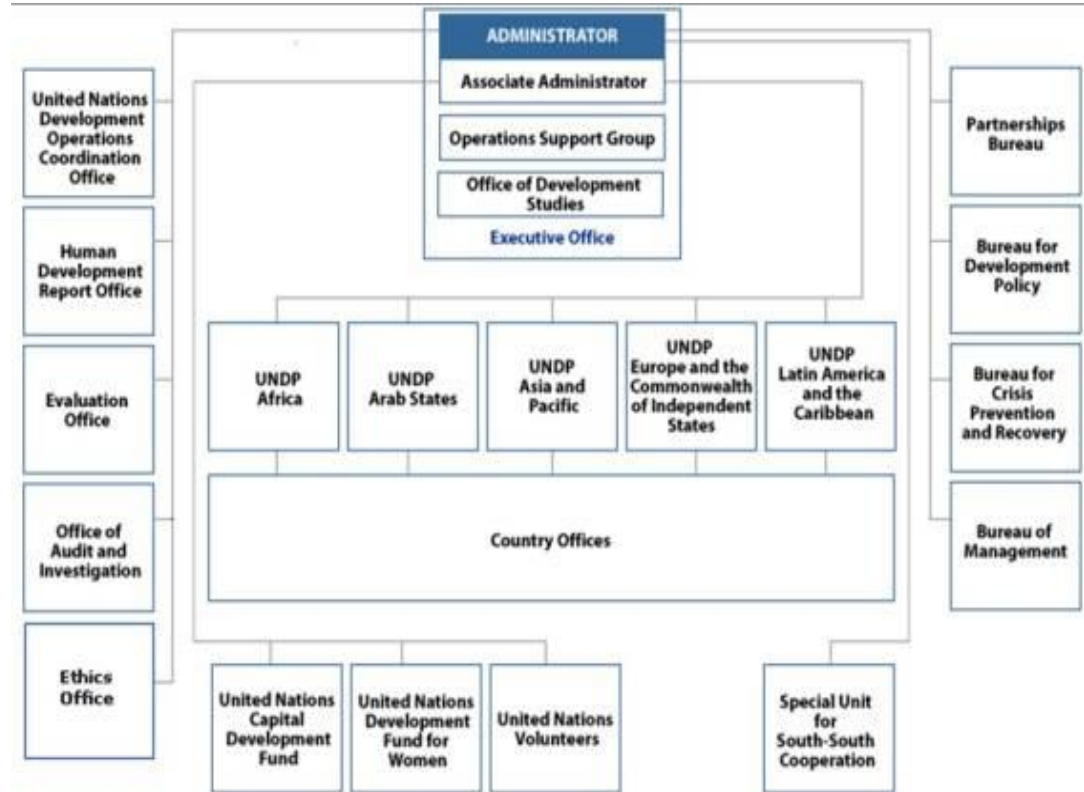


Figure 3.1 The UNDP Organisational Chart

Source: Reproduced from IAACA, 2011

Functionally, UNDP links and co-ordinates global and national efforts to achieve the goals and national development priorities laid out by host countries, primarily focussing on five developmental challenges: democratic governance, poverty reduction, crisis prevention and recovery, environment and energy, and HIV/AIDS. UNDP plays a significant role in co-ordinating UN's activities in the field of development via its leadership of the UN Development Group (UNDG) and through the Resident Co-ordinator system. The UNDG was created by the Secretary-General in 1997 to improve the effectiveness of UN development programmes at country levels. The UNDG brings together all the operational agencies working on development under the Chair of the Administrator of UNDP; the Secretariat for the UNDG is also provided by UNDP. On the

other hand, the Resident Co-ordinator system co-ordinates all organisations of the UN System dealing with operational activities of development in the field; it aims at bringing together the different UN agencies to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of operational activities at the country level. Resident Co-ordinators, funded, appointed and managed by UNDP, lead country teams in several countries and are the designated representations of the Secretary-General for development operations. The Resident Co-ordinators and country teams work closely with national governments. The UNDP is well organised within the international system, taking into consideration the sovereignty of nations and their willingness to co-operate with the organisation in national development programmes, thus its operations are in accordance with the principles of the UN Charter.

3.3 THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGS)

The MDGs are the world's time-bound and quantified targets for addressing extreme poverty in its many dimensions – income, hunger, disease, lack of adequate shelter and exclusion – while promoting gender equality, education and environmental sustainability. From another dimension, these goals are also basic human needs and rights, the rights of each person on the planet earth to good nutrition and clean water, health, education, shelter, and security as pledged in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 22) and the UN Millennium Declaration. The MDGs comprise the most broadly supported, comprehensive, and specific poverty reduction targets the world has

ever established and agreed on; they are the fulcrum on which development policy is based in the international system (UNDP, 2005).

At the Millennium Summit in September 2000, the largest gathering of world leaders (189) adopted the UN Millennium Declaration, committing their nations to a new global development partnership to reduce poverty, improve health, and promote peace, human rights, gender equality and environmental sustainability. Subsequent follow-up conferences reaffirmed this joint commitment, such as the November 2001 Doha Round which reaffirmed the partnership between the rich and poor countries in international trade, the March 2002 International Conference on Financing for Development in Monterrey, Mexico which established a landmark framework for global development partnership in which developed and developing countries agreed to take joint actions for poverty reduction, the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa where leaders of UN member countries reaffirmed the MDGs as the world's time-bound development targets, and the 2005 World Summit, a follow-up meeting to the 2000 UN Millennium Summit where representatives of 191 UN member states resolved to adopt the MDGs and other internationally agreed goals and objectives. More so, there were other crucial conferences that could be said to have preceded the Millennium Summit and served as foundational forums for the formation of the MDGs, namely the 1992 Earth Summit (i.e. UN Conference on Environment and Development) in Rio, Brazil that focused on sustainable economic development, the 1995 UN Global Warming Summit (beginning March 28) in Berlin, which is a follow-up of the 1992 Summit, and the 1995 UN World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen, Denmark.

These preceding and succeeding summits show the global political will among world leaders to co-operate in finding solutions to the most disturbing problems that hinder global development and threaten world peace, knowing full well that these problems have defied the means and resources of any one nation or region of the world to solve. It is thus clear that unless the problems of the world are tackled in the way they ought to be tackled, they would continue to unleash their scourge on the peoples and nations of the world, thereby mounting undue pressure that may manifest in different undesirable forms such as unhealthy competition, tensions, conflict, disagreements, and even wars, and so the objective of seeking world peace and security for which the UN was established would be frustrated.

The MDGs are a project, strategy, set of goals, and national and international plan for solving developmental problems. They serve as a handy chart for the way out, which nations, governments, international organisations, non-governmental organisations and other relevant stakeholders with different levels of capacities and resources have pledged and planned to be responsible for in varied ways. Meeting the MDGs became a global pursuit because of the understanding of the relationship between peace and development, and development implies the minimisation of the most horrible problems of the world (UNDP, 2005). The MDGs are the set of eight (8) goals with their specific target(s):

1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger:

This goal is subdivided into the following targets, namely to: first, reduce by half the proportion of people living in less than a dollar a day; second, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people; and third, reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

2. Achieve universal primary education:

The target here is to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

3. Promote gender equality and empower women:

This goal seeks to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015.

4. Reduce child mortality:

The target of this goal is to reduce by two thirds the mortality rate among children under five.

5. Improve maternal health:

The targets here are first, to reduce by three quarters the maternal mortality ratio, and second, to achieve universal access to reproductive health (inadequate funding for family planning is a major failure in fulfilling commitments to improving women's reproductive health).

6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases:

The sixth goal has three targets, namely to halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS; to achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it; and to halt and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.

7. Ensure environmental sustainability:

Four targets are set for MDG 7: first, to integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes; to reverse loss of environmental resources. Second, to reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant

reduction in the rate of loss. Third, to reduce by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation. And fourth, to achieve significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dweller by 2020.

8. Develop a global partnership for development:

The following are the targets for MDG 8:

- Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system;
- Address the special needs of LDCs;
- Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small island developing states;
- Deal comprehensively with debt problems of developing countries;
- In co-operation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries; and
- In co-operation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications.

These goals focus on problem areas that impact most negatively in the developing world, especially sub-Saharan Africa. Since the Millennium Declaration in 2000, the MDGs have also become important tools for monitoring human progress across nations. It must be noted here that UNDP has been given the role of Global MDGs Monitor for the UN System, and these goals have been transformed by the organisation into an actionable instrument of development management by turning the eight goals into 18 targets and 48 indicators that can be used to monitor human progress across nations. Nigeria, amongst other nations has signed up to these goals, targets and indicators

(UNDP Nigeria, 2013). Studies have shown that the world has made some level of progress, though uneven across the different regions, in achieving some of the MDGs. For instance, countries of sub-Saharan Africa have been found to record very low rates of progress (Millennium Project, 2006a). In this study, focus is directed at MVP approach to eliminating poverty and meeting the MDGs.

3.4 THE MILLENNIUM VILLAGES PROJECT (MVP)

The Millennium Villages (MV) model is a new approach to ending extreme poverty and achieving the MDGs. It has been noted that significant, though slow, progress in sub-Saharan Africa has been made in the last four decades, especially life expectancy and literacy. Despite these increments, economies in the region have not grown enough to support increasing populations. A lack of basic infrastructure, health services and education, as well as sources for savings and income generation are at the root of a lack of economic growth. Poverty in Africa is characterised by lack of improved agricultural inputs, erratic and changing rainfall patterns across the continent, chronic malnutrition and hunger, and periodic, debilitating famine, and lack of access to safe water for drinking, household use and irrigation. To end extreme poverty, it is critical to invest in productive resources, infrastructure and human capital to enable poor people to gain economic, political and social power.

The principles underlying the initiation and implementation of the MVP include to:

- Promote sustainable, scalable, community-led progress toward the achievement of the MDGs through the use of scientifically validated interventions – one village at a time;

- Ensure African ownership of the MDGs, and work in partnership with African governments and regional groups;
- Increase capacity and community empowerment in Africa through training and knowledge sharing with local African governments, NGOs and village communities;
- Partner with the public and private sectors, innovative NGOs, universities and leading experts, and the international donor community throughout Africa and the world to continually improve and co-ordinate development strategies; and
- Transform rural subsistence farming economies into small-scale enterprise development economies, and promote diversified entrepreneurs (MDG-MVP Executive Summary; Boyd *et al.*, 2009).

As a strategy to ending extreme poverty, the MV model promotes an integrated approach to rural development, using evidence-based technologies and strategies in each sector, with sufficient investment over a sufficient period of time. MVs are designed to demonstrate how the eight MDGs can be met in rural Africa within five years through community-led development (Millennium Project, 2006a). This approach combines a critical cost-sharing and planning partnership with local and national governments, and rural African communities, while focusing on capacity building and community empowerment. In this way, communities living in extreme poverty have a real, sustainable opportunity to lift themselves out of the poverty trap (UNDP Nigeria, 2013). The Millennium Villages Project offers a scalable model for fighting poverty and achieving the Millennium Development Goals beginning at the village level. The approach can be expanded from the village to district level and eventually to countries

across Africa. Importantly, the MV approach differs from integrated rural development programs of the 1970s and 1980s or traditional “model villages” in several ways:

1. The Millennium Village effort is explicitly linked to achieving the Millennium Development Goals and addresses an integrated and scaled-up set of interventions covering food production, nutrition, education, health services, roads, energy, communications, water, sanitation, enterprise diversification and environmental management. This has never been done before.
2. It focuses on participatory community decision-making. For example, at each village, specific committees and community members identify and evaluate possible interventions supported by a scientific team and local partners. Together they create a package of village-specific interventions that are deemed most appropriate and cost effective, as well as produce a community action plan for implementing and managing these interventions.
3. The initiative uses improved science-based technologies and techniques that have only recently become available, such as agro-forestry, insecticide-treated bed nets, antiretroviral drugs, the Internet, remote sensing, and geographic information systems.
4. The Millennium Villages initiative is linked to national-level processes to ensure that the success can be scaled up by governments (Millennium Project, 2006b).

By working in 14 sites located in some African countries – namely Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Tanzania and Uganda – the MVP works directly with the respective local communities, NGOS and national governments to show how the MDGs can be achieved in rural communities (Millennium

Project, 2006b). The finances that were needed to meet the cost of the first set of MVPs were sourced from the Government of Japan (through its Human Trust Fund) and private philanthropic donors (through the Earth Institute), and used for poverty-ending investments in Agriculture, health, education, and infrastructure, among others.

The first Millennium Village was started in Sauri, Kenya in August 2004 and saw remarkable results in just two years. For example, the villagers went from chronic hunger to a tripling of their crop production. Also, for the first time in years, they were able to sell their produce in nearby markets. The second Millennium Village was launched in Koraro, Ethiopia in February 2005 and also saw tremendous progress early on. Additional 12 villages were subsequently implemented in partnership with UNDP and the Earth Institute at Columbia University, creating a total of 14 MVs presently. The areas were selected to represent each of the agro-ecological zones in sub-Saharan Africa. These agro-ecological zones are representative of the 93 percent of the agricultural land area in sub-Saharan Africa and the homes of 90 percent of the agriculture population. Each Millennium Village is located in a reasonably well-governed and stable country and in a hunger hotspot, an area with the highest rates of rural poverty and hunger as identified by the UN Millennium Project (Millennium Project, 2006b).

The costing for the MVPs is according to recommendations of the UNDP's Millennium Project Report to the UN Secretary-General in 2005 based on research which demonstrates that it will require \$110 per person annually over 5-10 years to lift individuals out of extreme poverty. The \$110 required annually for each person is funded through various sources, including private donors, NGOs and partner groups, African governments, and the community themselves. Each Millennium Village requires a donor

investment of \$300,000 per year for five years. This includes a cost of \$250,000 per village per year (5,000 villagers per village multiplied by \$50 per villager) and an additional \$50,000 per village per year to cover logistical and operational costs associated with implementation, community training, and monitoring and evaluation. Note that this level of external support is fully consistent with the 2005 G8 commitments for official development assistance to Africa by 2010. The other \$60 per villager per year will come from village members, the local and national governments, and partner organizations, making for total funding of \$110 per person per year (Millennium Project, 2006b).

3.4.1 Key Actors of the MVP

The Millennium Villages initiative is supported by Millennium Promise, UNDP, the Earth Institute at Columbia University, and the UN Millennium Project. The set of interventions to bring villages out of extreme poverty are being implemented by the communities themselves.

African Governments: The effectiveness of the MV model is attributed to its careful sharing of responsibilities among the implementing partners, donors, governments and the local communities themselves. It is a sustainable project led by Africans and for Africans. To ensure this, it is critical that African governments and rural communities play a significant and defined leading role in the facilitation and funding of the village. In other words, it is critical that the national governments take an active role in dictating and deciding the parameters of the project, as well as committing resources to fund a portion of the interventions. So deciding on policy of MVs and committing resources are significant contributions of the government. Furthermore, the seconding of government

staff to the rural areas and the recruitment of additional staff (health workers, agricultural extension workers, education staff, infrastructural experts, etc.) are another means of playing a crucial role in contributing to the success of the MVs. This set of government staff work closely with those of partner organisations to ensure that the most up-to-date knowledge of teaching methods, medicine, engineering, agriculture and environmental sciences is shared. Also, the government works to verify that the activities, technologies and methodologies implemented in the MVs are both relevant to the national development strategies, and integrated into the national policy. In doing so, governments can create and implement national poverty reduction strategies aimed at achieving the MDGs throughout the country.

Earth Institute (Columbia University USA): The Earth Institute at Columbia University in the United States is making available integrated scientific advice and services across a broad range of disciplines such as public health, education, energy, nutrition, hydrology, environment, and agronomy. Its scientists work with communities to adapt appropriate interventions and ensure rigorous monitoring and evaluation of the initiative.

Millennium Promise: Millennium Promise is a US-based non-profit international non-governmental organization that works with individuals, corporations, foundations, service organizations and faith-based groups to unite efforts around the Millennium Development Goals. A central activity of Millennium Promise is to mobilise funding in support of the Millennium Villages.

Millennium Villages Project Regional Centres: The MVP regional centres in Africa (Dakar in Senegal and Nairobi in Kenya) have worked closely with the UN Country Teams in the countries where Millennium Villages are located to support governments in the preparation and implementation of Millennium Development Goals-based national strategies. A central element of this work has focused on incorporating lessons learnt from the Millennium Villages into the national strategies (Millennium Project, 2006b).

Participating Communities: Critical to the success of the Millennium Villages is the principle that communities must be empowered to lead in their own development. To ensure success they must give substantial amount of their time, skills, and other resources such as land and agricultural produce. Because Millennium Villages are an investment toward a sustainable end to extreme poverty, the participating communities strengthen their local governments and institutions and certify the preparation and implementation of the interventions in their community. This is necessary to ensure that their development will become sustainable and self-sufficient.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP): As a key partner of the Millennium Villages, UNDP plays a critical role in the co-ordination of village-level and national-level activities as well as in the support of the scaling up of the Millennium Villages initiative to the national level. In addition to its policy work, UNDP provides operational support to the Millennium Village teams in each country. It is also involved in the design and implementation phase of the project through its co-ordinating role of the UN Country Teams, its policy work at headquarters level, and its support for the

preparation and implementation of national development strategies that are bold enough to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

Private Sector Partners, NGOs and Specialised agencies: There a variety private sector partners, NGOs and research institutes involved in the MVP, with each contributing uniquely and immensely to the intervention. These, among others, include Canada-based Agrium Incorporated, Sony Ericsson, MSF (Doctors Without Borders), Unity Bank, Sumitomo Chemical, Zain (now Airtel in Nigeria), Lenovo, SASAKAWA 2000, Hope for the Blind, World Food Programme (WFP), United Nations Population Fund (UNPFA), the Tommy Hilfiger Corporate Foundation, Nestle, Grand Cereals, International Institute for Tropical Agriculture (IITA), Leventis Foundation and Carleton University (Millennium Promise, 2010b).

Other Partners: Pan African bodies like the African Union and NEPAD (New Partnership for African Development) also have roles to play in the implementation of MVs throughout Africa, especially to determine how best to evolve the project for the continent's multi-faceted needs, to ensure continent-wide participation and encourage even distribution of economic development, rather than pockets of development in seas of poverty in the entire continent.

An active community consultation process precedes the launch of each Millennium Village. This is referred to as pre-intervention activities (also entry point activities, EPA or Community Entry Process, CEP). Technical capacity-building, beginning at the onset of implementation provides villagers with the skills they need to sustain the interventions in the long-term. Training courses on health and nutrition,

agriculture and environment, energy and transport services, water resources and sanitation, and business and communications provide villagers with the skills they need in each aspect of the interventions. Community leadership and participation are crucial to the success of the MVs and sustainability of the achievement of the MDGs. MVs support participatory development and empowerment of the community by fostering a sense of ownership of the project's programmes and activities, and strengthening equitable community-based structures for development.

The MV team members and the government staff guide the community through a planning process using participatory methods to analyse their problems, needs, assets and capabilities, thereby empowering the community to share local knowledge among themselves, with MVs staff and government advisors. Not only that (i.e. sharing knowledge), but also the community is empowered by the recognition of their own assets and capabilities, and contributions of these human and physical resources enable them as full partners in development. This aids in defining their primary needs, helps in finding solutions through the best interactions, and supports community ownership of project activities. The communities also form leadership and management structures for planning, implementation and monitoring of the project, and for electing democratic committees to fill in gaps where existing structures lack, through a process that includes defining criteria, and roles and responsibilities of the committees. The development of democratic processes and use of participatory tools opens possibilities for both men and women of different age groups, youths and other socially excluded groups, in the community to be active leaders in the development of their own communities.

3.4.2 The MVP Intervention Sectors

The MVs have critical intervention sectors that constitute the hub of field and operational activities in each of the communities (Millennium Project, 2006b). These sectors are the structures through which the MDGs are integrated into the MVP intervention process, the achievement of which would imply positive progress in meeting the MDGs. They are discussed concisely below.

Food: The MVs seek to increase food production of rural communities of Africa in order for them to be able to combat hunger and malnutrition, increase their income through sales of cash crops, protect themselves against future famine, generate savings, and create opportunities to take on other income-generating opportunities. MVs do this by partnering with rural African communities, supporting rural farmers to obtain the critical agricultural inputs and training needed to produce a sufficient harvest. To ensure sustainability, farmers throughout the community commit to pay 10% of their total harvests to the local primary school feeding programme, the excess of which is transferred to the cereal bank for onward sales. Income thus generated may be used to re-invest in agricultural inputs, to fund household expenses or to diversify into other income-generating activities.

Water: Access to safe water for drinking, household usage and agriculture is unreliable or scarce; this forces individuals living in extreme poverty to fetch water from distant and unsafe sources. Associated problems such as water-borne illnesses and epidemics, severe dehydration and hunger are prevalent as a result. MVs work with local water specialists and through partnerships with hydrologists and water engineers to solve this problem. By increasing access to boreholes and wells, implementing rain water harvesting systems, building water storage systems and treating unsafe water, the burden

of water collection and the health risks associated with poor water quality are reduced. This generally has a positive impact on the overall health of the community. In agriculture, irrigation and more efficient water use will continue to be critical for increased yields.

Health and Medicine: Based on the facts that economic development will not happen in Africa until poor, rural populations have free and easy access to basic clinical services and critical life-saving medicines, and that throughout rural communities, Africans living in extreme poverty continue to die from common preventable and treatable diseases such as malaria, respiratory infections, diarrhoea, other water-borne diseases, and HIV/AIDS; the MVs work with regional public health officials and with the villagers to help operationalise a rural clinic for every 5000 people which provide basic medical care, including ante-natal services, immunisation, and treatment of common diseases. Efforts include upgrading rural hospitals, persuasion of the Ministry of Health to second qualified medical personnel (doctors, pharmacists, nurses, midwives, etc.) to staff the clinics and district hospitals, provision of long-lasting insecticide treated bed nets to everyone in the village, eliminating breeding grounds for the anopheles mosquito, provision of counselling, education and treatment of HIV/AIDS, and supervising each village household – a preventive measure – at least once a month through the Village Health Workers.

Gender Equality: It is believed that rural economic development will not be achieved and long-lasting unless the roles, thoughts and voices of women and girls are recognised, valued and celebrated; African women and girls play critical roles in making households and communities viable, and their contributions to the economic and social

fabric is at least comparable to that of men, but often go unpaid, unheralded and undervalued. Efforts to support the key role of women in the life cycle of the family by MVs include providing critical maternal and healthcare services, and access to reproductive health medicines and treatment, and family planning; providing education for women and girls; and also access to income-generating activities; providing closer access to safe and clean water for drinking and household usage and also improved cooking stoves in order to minimise the significant burdens placed on them to travel far and collect water and firewood. In the case of education, parents are encouraged to educate their girls; free school feeding programmes are introduced to ensure that every child has a nutritionally complete meal every day, separate latrines for boys and girls are provided, teachers are trained in gender sensitivity, and community education committees conduct awareness programmes on school safety and gender-based violence.

Education: Knowing the several complex problems that bedevil education in rural sub-Saharan Africa – limited textbooks, dilapidated structures, high fees that prohibit the poorest children from attending school, incompetent and undedicated school teachers and staff, and children non-attendance – the first step is to construct or rehabilitate the school building, thereby increasing the quality of the learning environment for children. Working with the Ministry of Education, MVs’ education experts work to secure Universal Primary Education for all children; teachers are equipped with national lesson plans and students with textbooks, and free school feeding programme is introduced to eliminate the possibility of extreme hunger hindering the children from coming to school and learning. To combat hunger and increase learning potentials in schools, each local farmer is expected to contribute 10% of his or her yield

to the school feeding programme. In order to close the gap between male and female children participating in schools, MV community facilitators work with rural communities to increase awareness and education on gender equality and create opportunities for girls. As mentioned earlier, schools are equipped with separate latrines for boys and girls, and teachers are trained in the importance of gender equality to ensure that the rights of the girls are protected at school.

Infrastructure: Poor infrastructure (impassable roads and inadequate coverage of reliable electricity, etc.) in rural Africa is one of the factors contributing to the on-going and deepening cycle of extreme poverty. MVs work to create access to all-weather roads and transport services, increase access to sustainable energy sources, provide portable, rechargeable lamps for home use (designed at Columbia University), develop improved cooking stoves to reduce the need for firewood and reduce the harmful impacts of indoor air pollution.

Business Development: To ensure that extremely poor communities escape the endless cycle of poverty forever, it is critical to grow diverse economies, business and income-generating activities. MVs introduce business development opportunities that would lead to an economic transformation in the rural sector, so that the rural communities will be able not only to feed themselves and protect themselves from life-threatening illnesses, but also live productive lives. MVs work in partnership with leading NGOs, local private sector groups, business development experts and local governments to build linkages to microfinance institutions, increase farmers' access to markets and entrepreneurial skills, introduce a vibrant non-agricultural business sector, and provide necessary training that would lead to a sustained economic growth. There is a special

focus on the youths in the area of increasing rural employment and entrepreneurial opportunities and business skill training; this, it is believed, would have a constructive effect to strengthen and maintain a positive rural-urban linkages, migration and economic growth.

Environment: The fact that conscious environmental conservation is secondary to the daily survival needs for individuals living in extreme poverty, it does not still spare them from the on-going environmental degradation occurring in their rural communities to their own detriment, for it contributes further to extreme poverty and drives them farther into the poverty trap. There are environmental problems like soil erosion and depletion of nutrients, deforestation for agriculture, wood harvesting, depletion of carbon stocks and biodiversity which affects the associated ecosystem, decreased water infiltration into soil, and clogging of water in streams and rivers by sediments leading to flooding. MVs work with ecologists and environmental experts to develop plans with communities to rehabilitate their degraded environments. This aspect of the intervention work includes using improved agricultural practices like replenishing eroded top soils with nutrients and soil organic matter through judicious use of fertilisers and planting of legumes and cover crops, terracing sloping lands to prevent soil erosion and water run-off, and reforestation of local areas through the establishment of protected areas and planting trees in thousands. Furthermore, community training in more efficient use of natural resources is one of the most critical aspects of environmental conservation being undertaken, and it touches on issues like tree planting on farms to provide a nearby and renewable energy source, using fuel efficient cooking stove, protection of water sources, animal husbandry practices to protect water sources, and waste management and sewage

disposal strategies and practices. All these are undertaken by the MVs to support rural communities to develop economically and in an environmentally sustainable way.

Communication Networks: Severe lack of access to communication networks debilitates rural communities by cutting them off from access to information on critical medical, agricultural, trade and business, and educational opportunities. MVs therefore work to establish voice and data capabilities in communities living in extreme poverty; computers are installed in the schools and construction of radio and telephone network facilities are supported in collaboration with private sector service providers. Rural communities thus have the opportunity to stay connected and benefit from the economic growth potentially generated through improved communication.

These intervention sectors of MVs are quite interrelated, and the process of executing them also involves a wide range of partners. A central proposition underpinning the MVs concept therefore is that operational sustainability of each intervention sector can be achieved in each village before the 2015 MDG deadline, although many villages will still require ongoing but generally declining financial support beyond then. For these villages, it will be crucial that existing ODA (Official Development Assistance) commitments for 2010 and 2015 are met and maintained until the respective developing countries graduate from the need for external support. Suffice it to note here again here the simple equation for achieving sustainability: resources invested in a community during the intervention period must be sustained by local private investment and other funding sources after the exit of the intervention project, or development will not be sustainable. Critical to the sustainability of the Millennium Villages is the need to empower the entire community, including women and vulnerable groups by building local technical, administrative and

entrepreneurial capacity, coupled with ensuring strong government and community ownership of the MVs, as well as strong local private sector participation that would ensure an on-going financial commitment to the development of the community. Also, through knowledge transfer, MVs ensure that communities can sustain themselves and grow without the on-going involvement of outside expertise. Lastly, by encouraging active engagement between the governments and the communities during the intervention period, MVs encourage rural citizens to engage in the politics of their country and contribute to strengthening democracy and rule of law. This will edify civil society and enhance government accountability for the actions it takes (MDG-MVP Executive Summary; Millennium Project, 2006b).

3.5 THE PAMPAIDA MVP

The Pampaida MVP was launched in 1 June 2006 as a five year project (2006-2011), but later increased to a 10 year plan (till 2015). At the inception, the Millennium Promise, the Earth Institute at Columbia University and UNDP were the implementing partners of the MVPs in 10 sub-Saharan African countries with a total population of nearly 400,000 people. Pampaida is located in Kaduna State in north-western Nigeria (see Figures 1.1 and 1.2 on pages 8 and 9 respectively). Initially, no source of electricity existed in it except for one private generator. Firewood was the main source of energy, but because of highly degraded vegetation firewood had become scarce. Villagers' livelihoods are mainly based on pastoralism and small-scale agriculture. It is a community located in Saulawa District, one of seven districts that make up the Ikara Local Government Area of Kaduna State. Pampaida covers an area of 40 square kilometres and is sparsely

populated. It consists of 28 settlements with a population of 5,666 people divided into 952 households. The vegetation is Sahel (Boyd *et al.*, 2009; Pampaida Millennium Villages Project, 2008). The community is predominantly made up of Hausas and Fulanis; 60% of the population is Muslim and the rest is Christian (i.e. 40%). Both groups have co-existed peacefully for over a century. During the rains (June-September) the rivers spill over the banks, creating low-lying seasonally flooded areas which the villagers use to grow rice. Despite these methods, there is a yearly food shortage in Pampaida, which ranges from three months of hunger in a good (rainy) year to five months of hunger in a year of drought. Drought is frequent in this area, occurring every three to five years (Millennium Promise, 2010a).

3.5.1 Highlights of Village Characteristics by Sector (before intervention)

- a) Agriculture: Pampaida has been subjected to mass desertification and other forms of land degradation, caused and accelerated by a range of interconnected factors: frequent drought, low and high unpredictable rainfall patterns, very high temperature, acute and wide spread poverty, and pressure from human and livestock populations. Low soil nutrient levels and loss of organic matter are some of the critical natural resource management problems facing Pampaida.
- b) Health: There was a clinic 10 km away from the village, accessible only by an uneven dirt road; bicycles and motorbikes are the means for transporting patients. The clinic had no drugs, beds or skilled staff; statistics were non-existent and no doctor had visited the clinic in the last five years; there was a nurse and three attendants, but the clinic was rarely visited because of the poor quality of its services.

c) Infrastructure: There was acute shortage of water starting from December until the onset of the rains in late April/early May. During this period of shortage, children and women had to travel a distance of 1km in search of water. Even though Pampaida is surrounded by a network of streams and rivers, the run-off is very fast and water dries up immediately after the rains. The geomorphology does not support surface water because of its rocky nature (Millennium Promise, 2010a).

3.5.2 Highlights of Pampaida MVP: Interventions and Achievements

The areas of intervention are categorised into social sectors (non-income poverty sectors, comprising education, health and nutrition, water and sanitation, and feeder roads and transportation) and the livelihood sectors (income poverty sectors, including income infrastructure, agriculture, income generation and business development) (Boyd *et al.*, 2009). Since inception, the Pampaida MV has achieved many successes in all the intervention sectors. According to Bala (2012) and the Millennium Promise (2010a), investment in agricultural initiatives has resulted in a gradual transition from subsistence to commercial farming; crop yields have increased from a baseline average of 1.5 tonnes/ha of maize in 2005 to 4 tonnes/ha at the end of 2008 farming season. The key to this improvement include the strengthening of 26 agricultural co-operatives through various capacity building initiatives and linking them to financial institutions for access to sustained financial services, establishment of the Pampaida weekly market which helped curtail the unfavourable activities of middlemen who have contributed in pauperising the people of Pampaida for decades, supplying basic inputs such as fertiliser and improved seed (e.g. hybrid maize with a high dosage of fertilizer designed to achieve

an optimal yield; each household is mandated to identify 1.0 ha of maize farmland and are provided with 11 bags of fertilizer by the project. Other crops introduced for crop diversification and improved household nutrition are cowpeas, soybeans and groundnuts.); a number of youths who are interested in learning forestry, crop production, livestock production, honey bee farming, small-scale processing, home economics and farm management were sponsored to the Leventis Foundation Nigeria Agricultural School (LFNAS) (see also Millennium Promise, 2010a). Suffice it to be noted here again that 10% of each farmer's yield was contributed to the free school feeding programme; part of the excess of what was required for the feeding programme was sold and the proceeds have been used to start a micro-credit scheme for women and a fertiliser revolving scheme for the farmers (Boyd *et al.*, 2009).

In education, school enrolment has increased from a baseline of 420 pupils to 1,602 pupils, and every pupil is fed a free daily meal through the project's school feeding programme (based mainly on 10% contribution of each farmer's yield). A total of 284 tonnes of maize, rice and soybeans have been happily contributed by the farmers (Bala, 2012). Due to these interrelated interventions there has been a rapid increase in school performance and pupil enrolment increased, as noted earlier from 420 pupils (298 boys and 122 girls with a teacher ratio of 1:42) to the current total of over 1,600 pupils (over 920 boys and 640 girls with a teacher ratio of 1:80). This dramatic boost in school attendance has been assisted by a number of key MVP interventions:

- the use of an education campaign to sensitise parents on the need to educate their children, especially the girl child, and to gain an understanding of the obstacles involved in attending school;

- improving existing classrooms structures and building new ones so that Pampaida now has a junior secondary school constructed in order to facilitate easy transition from primary to secondary education and help delay the early marriage syndrome; furthermore, there was support for the building of feeder classrooms in outlying settlements as a means of enabling younger children to attend school closer to their homes and thus removing the barrier of distance and the dangers of river crossing during the rains; and
- the introduction of a school feeding programme supported through household contributions of grain producers and volunteer cooks.

These positive outcomes have however resulted in an interesting household trade-off between education and the number of hands available for farm work due to the reduction of the labour previously provided by children (Boyd *et al.*, 2009).

In the health care sector, Pampaida now has a basic health clinic and free medical services are provided to the inhabitants of the Pampaida MV and environs. In order to reverse the malaria prevalence in the community, a total of 4,300 insecticide treated bed nets were distributed. Trainings and workshops were being regularly held within the community and this has helped create awareness of the sicknesses and diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis and others that can be prevented.

There is an unprecedented infrastructural transformation within a record time of three years; these include the following: 22 boreholes have been constructed, a local clinic has been built, a storage house for grain (cereal bank) has been constructed, a 12 km road has been constructed, electrical poles have been erected to connect the

community to the national electricity grid, a village vehicle has been purchased, and a local ICT (resource) centre has been established. Other developments include a school kitchen, market stalls, junior secondary school, Zain (now Airtel) GSM base station, and public and school latrines. All these were made possible through effective partnership between the MVP, Kaduna State Government, Ikara Local Government, the people of Pampaida, and other private sector partners like Sony Ericson, a leading telecom provider, and Zain, a leading mobile operator in the Middle East and Africa (Boyd *et al.*, 2009; Millennium Promise, 2010a; Bala, 2012).

Income and business development focused on improving non-agricultural livelihoods, food processing and business development, many of which required access to micro-credit facilities amongst the households in order to commence or improve their productive assets. A number of heads of households and their wives have received training in areas like business management, tie-and-dye, tomato preservation and groundnut oil extraction, among others. It is noted that the Pampaida MVP baseline survey of 2008 indicates that some members of the village cluster engage in non-agricultural livelihoods like butchery, mechanic work, groundnut oil extraction, cake baking and commodity trading, and some of these households generate a significant proportion of the household incomes through these ventures (Boyd *et al.*, 2009; UNDP, 2008).

The implementation of the Millennium Villages **Project** in Pampaida, Kaduna State by UNDP in collaboration with other implementing partners, the state and local governments was motivated by the need to transform the lives of rural people as well as provide good

pilots for other local governments and states to emulate as good practices (UNAIDS, 2010; UNDP Nigeria, 2005). According to Yunusa Bala (2012):

Today Pampaida has become a model and reference point in rural development in Nigeria and beyond. Visitors to Pampaida cut across a very broad spectrum of society which includes donors, academia, civil societies, NGOs, students, media practitioners, development workers and very recently the political class which includes members of the National Assembly.

3.5.3 Challenges and Criticism of the MVPs

A number of challenges facing the MVPs have been reported by Boyd *et al.* (2009) to include the following: first, across the social sectors of health and nutrition, basic education, and water and sanitation the MVP have made notable progress. These sectors are where the interventions of the MVP are most visible and have had the greatest impact on the lives of villagers. This visibility can be attributed to the complementary role that the State Government, the Local Government and the MVP have played. However, to-date this matching role between the public agencies and the MVPs has functioned in a rather ad-hoc and uncoordinated manner. It is not the result of a structured and integrated planning and partnership approach as outlined in the project document. Due to the absence of a formal partnership arrangement MVPs execution has lacked a strong focus on devising an integrated planning and co-ordinated service delivery approach. Policy, communication and service gaps have emerged with respect to: the number, quality and motivation of health and education staff; to the sustainability of the current procurement and free-drugs arrangement; and to the quality of self-help and some contractor executed infrastructure construction. These concerns need to be addressed

during the balance period of the project to ensure sustainability beyond the life of the MVP intervention.

In addition there are a number of sectors, in particular sanitation and environment, where progress appears to be limited or lagging. In these sectors the project needs to re-double its efforts through revising its current strategies so that greater emphasis is placed upon actions that accelerate, integrate and link-up activities with other investments and sector approaches. In addition to addressing the social sectors the MVP places considerable emphasis on the livelihood sector in particular, namely agriculture (including livestock), environment, infrastructure (access roads, energy, and irrigation), information communication technology (ICT), financial services, and income generation and off-farm business development. To-date the majority of MVP investments and actions have focused on the provision of community-wide interventions that benefit the general population. Work has also begun to address particular types of vulnerable and less powerful groups – women, youth and PLWHAs (People Living With HIV/AIDS).

However during the remaining lifespan of the MVP intervention there is a need to enhance the focus on vulnerable and less powerful groups by specifically targeting them through self-organised community outreach initiatives. In addition to deepening activities with women, youth and PLWHAs there should also be a focus on older persons, orphans, underweight school pupils, disability, large households, and female headed households. The preferred strategy should be to mobilise the vulnerable and less powerful into organised groups for well-being, livelihood improvement and social protection using self-help and mutual aid concepts.

Critics have argued that the MVP in Africa has achieved comparable results with those of the Ekwendeni Village of the Souls, Food and Healthy Communities (SFHC) at far greater expenses due to the use of artificial fertilisers and hybrid seeds which are not indigenous to the area (Millennium Villages Project, 2013).

3.6 CONCLUSION

The foregoing is an attempt to exhaustively discuss the MVP against the backdrop of both the UNDP as an international organisation that co-ordinates UN global development activities as head of the UN Development Group, and the Pampaida Village cluster in Kaduna State, the point of the project (MVP) implementation towards achieving the MDGs and also the basis for evaluating the people's perception of UNDP and the project itself. As seen here and in the literature review, a perception study of this kind has not been conducted on the study area, even though studies abound on assessments, and impacts of UNDP projects. There is almost nothing said about the beneficiaries' perception of the entire project and the implementing agency and partners, and so there is no valid explanation and discussion of beneficiary-related problems that have constituted some of the challenges to the intervention as mentioned above.

CHAPTER FOUR

BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTION OF THE UNDP IN PAMPAIDA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study is an investigation of beneficiaries' perception of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and their participation in the Millennium Villages Project (MVP) intervention in Pampaida village. Generally, it is based on the need to understand the connection between an international functional organisation (UNDP) and a rural community (Pampaida), on the basis of a project (MVP) which have constituted the two into a functional synergy that has brought forth desirable results in terms of benefits for the beneficiaries of the project. In this chapter data, obtained from the study area using questionnaire and interview schedule as research instruments, is analysed, presented and interpreted. The participatory community development theory includes all people or representatives of all groups, who will be affected by the results of a decision or process; therefore, the study included both the local stakeholders' (adult heads of households) and the planners (MVP staff) as the primary source of data in the process of data collection.

A total of 117 questionnaires were sent to the field, representing an approximate sum total of 12% of questionnaires for each of the 28 settlements of the Pampaida village cluster, based on the number of households within each settlement. Out of the 117 questionnaires sent to the field, a total of 107 questionnaires (91.5%) were retrieved. The distribution of the retrieved the questionnaires according to households in each settlement are shown in Table 4.1 below. Furthermore, three (3) of the MVP officials were interviewed, namely Dr. Clement Woje (MVP Health Co-ordinator), Mrs. Hauwa Dutse (MVP Infrastructure and Gender Co-ordinator), and Mr. Jerry Zoe Odey (MVP Data Clerk). The questionnaires were analysed quantitatively and presented in frequency tables for simplicity and clarity of interpretation. On the other hand, information obtained from

oral interviews (qualitative) were analysed by simply summarising and interpreting the responses of those interviewed to the questions contained in the interview schedule.

Table 4.1 Distribution of questionnaires according to settlements

/N	NAME OF SETTLEMENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
	PAMPAIDA MAKARANTA	8	7.5
	PAMPAIDA MAIDUTSE	7	6.5
	MAIDOKI	4	3.7
	FULANI KATSINAWA	8	7.5
	TELLA	2	1.9
	TAMBAYA	2	1.9
	FULANI SULE	4	3.7
	DUMA	2	1.9
	TUDUN MAZA	5	4.7
0	NAKALA	2	1.9
1	NAGUNDA	2	1.9
2	TUKUR	2	1.9
3	BAKIN BAMBAMI	3	2.8
4	DANDIMA	2	1.9
5	ANGO FULANI	2	1.9
6	YAYI	2	1.9

7	NAMADI	2	1.9
8	NAGONA	1	0.9
9	KATORI	2	1.9
0	GARAN GARMAI	4	3.7
1	KANAWA	12	11.2
2	BORKONO	7	6.5
3	TOKA	6	5.6
4	KWATAU	5	4.7
5	NAKUNNE	5	4.7
6	BILLA	2	1.9
7	JALLAWA	2	1.9
8	DANJA	2	1.9
Total		107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2 ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM RETRIEVED QUESTIONNAIRES

The following comprises the quantitative analysis of data collected through the questionnaires that were administered to the sampled population in Pampaida.

4.2.1 Social Characteristics of Beneficiaries

The application of the participatory development theory provides for an analysis of the social characteristics of the beneficiaries; this gives background information of the people involved in the project process. Irrespective of their gender, status, religion, educational level, household type, everyone of them has and must contribute his/her skill, abilities in order to enhance the cooperation needed, and everyone has equal right to participate in the process. Therefore, Table 4.2 below contains data relating to the social characteristics of the 107 respondents, and it is on the basis of this table that the analyses following it are being undertaken.

Table 4.2 Social characteristics of respondents

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Sex		
MALE	89	83.2
FEMALE	18	16.8
Total	107	100.0
Age		
18-50 YEARS	95	88.8
>50 YEARS	12	11.2
Total	107	100.0
Occupation		
FARMING	93	86.9
ANIMAL HUSBANDRY	5	4.7
TRADING	3	2.8
BUSINESS	4	3.7
OTHERS	1	0.9
Total	106	99.1
Missing	1	0.9
Total	107	100.0
Marital Status		
SINGLE	6	5.6
MARRIED	101	94.4
Total	107	100.0
Religion		
CHRISTIAN	35	32.7
MUSLIM	72	67.3
Total	107	100.0

Size of Household		
<5 PERSONS	17	15.9
5-10 PERSONS	65	60.7
>10 PERSONS	23	21.5
Total	105	98.1
Missing	2	1.9
Total	107	100.0
Type of Household		
MALE-HEADED	105	98.1
FEMALE-HEADED	2	1.9
Total	107	100.0
Education		
PRIMARY EDUCATION	25	23.4
SECONDARY EDUCATION	12	11.2
KORANIC EDUCATION	58	54.2
ADULT EDUCATION	3	2.8
NO FORMAL EDUCATION	9	8.4
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.1.1 Gender and Type of Household

The population of the study comprises all adults (heads) of the 952 households in the 28 settlements of the Pampaida village cluster. The respondents (n=107) are 83.2% male and 16.8% female, meaning that there are more male respondents than females (Table 4.2). The Pampaida MVP was primarily aimed at empowering these heads of households (both spouses), and this implies that the respondents are quite conversant with the MVP in Pampaida. Similarly, there is 98.1% male-headed and 1.9% female-headed households. This reflects the report of the Pampaida Baseline Analysis of 2008 (98.1% male-headed and 1.9% female-headed households). So the gender and type of household of respondents represent the entire population of heads of households in Pampaida.

4.2.1.2 Age and Marital Status

Most of the respondents (88.8%, n=107) fall within the age range of 18-50 years, and the rest (11.2%) are above 50 years of age (Table 4.2). This means that majority of the respondents fall within the category that may be considered active labour force in society. The impact of the MVP in Pampaida is therefore most focused on the most productive section the population. Among all the respondents (n=107), 94.4% are married, and 5.6% are single. Again, this points to the fact that most of those who became the targets of the MVP have a strategic position as a head of household (i.e. father or mother) that could facilitate a positive multiplier effect of benefits from the project into the entire household. In other words, benefits accruing to a head of household could trickle down to every member of his/her household as a result.

4.2.1.3 Size of Household

Most households of respondents in Pampaida (60.7%, n=105) have between five to 10 persons, followed by some 21.5% of households that have above 10 persons, and only 15.9% of households have a size of less than five persons. Two respondents (1.9%) did not indicate the size of their households (Table 4.2). This shows that majority (82.2%) of households in Pampaida have larger sizes (five persons and above), and this means that majority of the entire population, found within these households, were captured within the scope of the MVP intervention. Larger sizes of households do not therefore mean fewer resources; rather, they indicate possible access to more benefits of the MVP intervention sectors.

4.2.1.4 Religious Affiliation

Religious affiliation shows 67.3% Muslims and 32.7% Christians among the respondents (n=107) who are beneficiaries-cum-participants in the MVP intervention in Pampaida; this means that the MVP intervention is all inclusive (Table 4.2).

4.2.1.5 Occupation and Education

A massive 86.9% of respondents (n=106) are farmers by occupation, and the remaining occupations (13.1%) are distributed among the respondents as follows: animal husbandry (5 respondents), trading (3 respondents), business (4 respondents) and others (1 respondent). One respondent did not indicate profession (Table 4.2). The Pampaida village cluster is mainly an agrarian society mixed with pastoralism. The existence of other occupations, although in minute proportions, is an indicator of a relative diversification of economic activities. The explanation for the minuteness of the proportion of these other occupations is because they are supposed to be fully focused

upon in the second phase of the project, which commenced officially in 2011; business development and the environment, among others, are being given high priority in the second phase (2011-2015) of the MVP.

Among the respondents (n=107), about 34.6% have undergone primary and secondary education, 54.2% have undergone Koranic education, 2.8% have undergone adult education, and 8.4% have no formal education. Majority of the respondents (91.6%) have had some form of education, meaning that the literacy level is not too low among the people (Table 4.2). This is an important predisposing factor to beneficiaries either accepting or rejecting the MVP intervention, because their understanding and acceptance is required to ensure their participation in the MVP. A relatively higher level of education implies better understanding of such a project as the MVP that requires the full participation of target beneficiaries in order to actualise their objectives.

4.2.2 Perception of UNDP on the Basis of the MVP Intervention in Pampaida

The measurement of perceptions of both stakeholders and planners are critical for studies employing the participatory community development framework, because perception is an important consideration in the design and execution of any participatory programme. Citizen participation is often a requirement for the initiators of such programmes, but for the local stakeholder themselves, it is optional – they choose to participate because they expect a satisfying experience and hope to influence to planning and execution processes. Perception is identified in the study as the expressed subjective statements of what the beneficiaries know (or think they know) about the UNDP and the MVP, and their judgments of all of them on the basis of which they participated and

continued to participate in the project. The measurement of perception involved determining what the beneficiaries know about the UNDP with respect to the MVP intervention, and their subjective judgments of what they know. This knowledge is based on their interactions with the organisation during both the pre-intervention and actual intervention periods.

4.2.2.1 Awareness of UNDP and MVP

The following Table 4.3 presents data related to respondents' awareness of the MVP as a distinct project that commenced in Pampaida at a particular time that marked the watershed of change and transformation in the entire village cluster.

Table 4.3 Respondents' expression of awareness of the MVP in Pampaida

EXPRESSIONS OF AWARENESS		FREQ UENCY	PERC ENT	VALID PERCENT
Awareness of MVP				
YES		107	100.0	100.0
Means of Awareness of MVP				
THROUGH OFFICIALS	MVP	18	16.8	16.8
THROUGH FAMILY MEMBER	A	37	34.6	34.6
THROUGH FRIEND	A	22	20.6	20.6
THROUGH TRADITIONAL RULERS		30	28.0	28.0
Total		107	100.0	100.0

Knowledge of year MVP commenced			
	YES	87	81.3
	NO	20	18.7
	Total	107	100.0
Year MVP commenced			
	2006	87	81.3
	Missing	20	18.7
	Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

All the respondents (100%, n=107) are aware of the MVP; however, the means of initial awareness vary: 16.8% became aware through MVP officials, 34.6% through a family member, 20.6% through a friend and 28% through traditional rulers. Because awareness is crucial to the acceptance and adoption of such participatory projects, the means by which this awareness is made are also very important. Majority of the people (85.2%) became aware of the MVP through means that are embedded within their social system – i.e. family members, friends and traditional rulers. As expected, only 16.8% of respondents became aware of the MVP through the MVP officials. Awareness is more effective if the means employed to do it are familiar and unique to the very social fabric of the target population. Family members (34.6%) can be seen to have had very significant role in facilitating awareness of the MVP. This is followed traditional rulers (30%) whose role was also significant.

The inception of any remarkable project usually signifies a watershed to the beneficiaries of that project. It is important to note that 83.1% (n=107) of the respondents remember the year (2006) when the MVP started in Pampaida, while others (18.7%, n=107) do not know when it started. This indicates a possibility that the start off of the MVP intervention was significant to beneficiaries, as it marked the point that some unique change began in their community and lives as a result of the intervention, setting them on a desirable path to development since then.

4.2.2.2 Knowledge of UNDP

Table 4.4 shows the details of the knowledge of respondents (100%, n=107) on the UNDP as the organisation that spearheaded the execution of the MVP from 2006, as assessed in terms of their knowledge of the UNDP staff (100%), offices, clinics, etc. (100%), vehicles (100%), activities and programmes (100%), seminars and workshops (86.9%), documents (29%) and projects such as boreholes, classrooms, roads network, etc. (98.1%). Expectedly, things related to the UNDP that are based on the field (i.e. Pampaida village) are well known to the respondents, namely staff, vehicles, activities, seminars and projects of UNDP. In the case of documents, majority of respondents (71%) have not had any access to them, mainly because they could only be found in the MVP office in Zaria. Such detailed knowledge of the UNDP as an organisation doing something in their community implies that there was a remarkable presence and working of the UNDP among and together with the people – the MVP intervention is based on the participatory principle. Simply put, the people were carried along by the UNDP in the course of implementing the project right from its inception.

Table 4.4 Respondents' knowledge of UNDP in Pampaida

DETAILS ABOUT UNDP	FREQUEN CY	PERCENT
Staff		
YES	107	100.0
Offices, clinics, etc.		
YES	107	100.0
Vehicles		
YES	107	100.0
Activities		
YES	107	100.0
Seminars		
YES	93	86.9
NO	14	13.1
Total	107	100.0
Documents		
YES	31	29.0
NO	76	71.0
Total	107	100.0
Projects		
YES	105	98.1
NO	2	1.9
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.2.3 Knowledge and Benefits from MVP Intervention

The MVP intervention is tailored along the MDGs. The knowledge of the respondents (100%, n=107) on the various intervention sectors of the MVP was assessed, and the following results representing those who have the knowledge emerged as shown in Table 4.5 below: agriculture and food production (100%), water supply (100%), health and medicine (100%), education and schools (100%), infrastructural development (98.1%), business development (27.1%), environmental sustainability (17.1%), telecommunications network (82.2%), and computer and ICT (48.6%). Some intervention sectors like agriculture and food production, health and medicine, education and schools, and infrastructural development are universal in scope in that they affect all households. For example, virtually all households have a farm or farms; every household needs health and medical services; every household has, at least, a child that needs to go to school; and every household uses the infrastructures – e.g. roads network, telecommunications network – in the village cluster, and that is the reason for the higher levels of knowledge of those sectors among the respondents. Moreover, business development and environmental sustainability are being given greater attention in the second phase of the MVP intervention (2011-2015) than in the first phase (2006-2011).

Table 4.5 Respondents' knowledge of MVP intervention sectors

INTERVENTION SECTORS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Agriculture and Food Production		
YES	107	100.0
Water Supply		
YES	107	100.0
Health and Medicine		
YES	107	100.0
Education and Schools		
YES	107	100.0
Infrastructural Development		
YES	105	98.1
NO	2	1.9
Total	107	100.0
Business Development		
YES	29	27.1
NO	78	72.9
Total	107	100.0
Environmental Sustainability		
YES	19	17.8
NO	88	82.2
Total	107	100.0
Telecom. Network		

YES	88	82.2
NO	19	17.8
Total	107	100.0
Computer and ICT		
YES	52	48.6
NO	55	51.4
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The other intervention sectors that have lower response rates (business development, environmental sustainability, and computer and ICT) are undertaken either with respect to a certain portion of the population (e.g. business development for non-farming households) or they are located in only certain areas or settlements of the village cluster (e.g. computer and ICT). Generally, the respondents are well acquainted with the MVP intervention sectors, particularly as they are involved in and/or affected by those sectors.

The degrees of benefit that respondents (100%, n=107) have gained from the various intervention sectors was assessed and presented in Table 4.6, and the outcome was similar to the one reflected in the preceding discussion. Intervention sectors like agriculture and food production, water supply, health and medicine, infrastructural development, and education and schools have no respondents who said they have not benefitted at all from them, neither are the respondents uncertain about benefitting from them. Whereas other intervention sectors like environmental sustainability, sanitation and

improved feeding, telecommunications network, veterinary services, and computer and ICT have certain number of respondents, ranging from 0.9% to 52.3%, that have had no benefit at all from them, with veterinary service having the highest number of responses (52.3%).

The levels of uncertainty about benefitting from this second set of intervention sectors are also significant, ranging from 2.8% to 34.6% of respondents. When compared with the assessment of respondents' knowledge of the intervention sectors, the assessment of the degree of benefit from those sectors show that respondents' lack of knowledge may be closely linked with uncertainty of what form or manner those intervention sectors took with respect to them, and whether or not they were involved in them. Some intervention sectors with higher levels of beneficial uncertainty among respondents like environmental sustainability (34.6%), improved feeding (16.8%), veterinary services (31.8%) and computer and ICT (20.6%) also have considerable response rates of "no benefit at all" and/or "little benefit." Only minority of respondents – except in the case of improved feeding which also has the lowest level of uncertainty (16.8%) among this set of respondents – had "much benefit" and/or "very much benefit" from those sectors. This means that the different intervention sectors have had different degrees of impact on the respondents depending on the type, scope and location of the interventions. Some intervention sectors that are not given much priority in the period under study also have high records of uncertainty, "No benefit at all" and "Little benefit."

The scope of coverage of agriculture and food production, water supply, health and medicine (child and maternal health inclusive), education and schools, infrastructural development and telecommunications network can therefore be said to be wider and more

inclusive than that of environmental sustainability, sanitation, veterinary services and computer and ICT, as clearly reflected in the degrees of benefits expressed by the respondents – the former set have higher figures in terms of responses to both “much benefit” and “very much benefit”, while the latter have higher figures in terms of responses to “no benefit at all,” “little benefit” and “not sure.”

Table 4.6 Degrees of benefit from MVP intervention sectors

INTERVENTION SECTORS	FREQUEN CY	PERCEN T
Agriculture and Food Production		
LITTLE BENEFIT	3	2.8
MUCH BENEFIT	45	42.1
VERY MUCH BENEFIT	59	55.1
Total	107	100.0

Water Supply

LITTLE BENEFIT	5	4.7
MUCH BENEFIT	35	32.7
VERY MUCH BENEFIT	67	62.6
Total	107	100.0

Health and Medicine

MUCH BENEFIT	20	18.7
VERY MUCH BENEFIT	87	81.3
Total	107	100.0

Education and Schools

LITTLE BENEFIT	3	2.8
MUCH BENEFIT	52	48.6
VERY MUCH BENEFIT	52	48.6
Total	107	100.0

Infrastructural Development

LITTLE BENEFIT	6	5.6
MUCH BENEFIT	54	50.5
VERY MUCH BENEFIT	47	43.9
Total	107	100.0

Environmental Sustainability

NO BENEFIT AT ALL	41	38.3
LITTLE BENEFIT	25	23.4
MUCH BENEFIT	3	2.8
VERY MUCH BENEFIT	1	.9
NOT SURE	37	34.6
Total	107	100.0

Sanitation

ALL	NO BENEFIT AT	4	3.7
	LITTLE	64	59.8
	MUCH BENEFIT	30	28.0
	VERY MUCH	5	4.7
	NOT SURE	4	3.7
	Total	107	100.0

Improved Feeding

ALL	NO BENEFIT AT	6	5.6
	LITTLE	16	15.0
	MUCH BENEFIT	59	55.1
	VERY MUCH	8	7.5
	NOT SURE	18	16.8
	Total	107	100.0

Telecom. Network

ALL	NO BENEFIT AT	1	0.9
	LITTLE	11	10.3
	MUCH BENEFIT	78	72.9
	VERY MUCH	14	13.1
	NOT SURE	3	2.8
	Total	107	100.0

Veterinary Services

ALL	NO BENEFIT AT	56	52.3
	LITTLE	14	13.1
	MUCH BENEFIT	3	2.8

	NOT SURE	34	31.8
	Total	107	100.0
Computer and ICT			
ALL	NO BENEFIT AT	45	42.1
	BENEFIT		
	LITTLE	26	24.3
	MUCH BENEFIT	14	13.1
	NOT SURE	22	20.6
	Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

In the final analysis, the indicators of degrees of benefit, particularly the ones with the highest figures of responses from the various intervention sectors should not be taken to mean that there was either no intervention or poor intervention, because the majority of the respondents (99.1%, n=107) have agreed to the fact that the MVP intervention generally was helpful in developing Pampaida village and making things better for beneficiaries in it as shown in Table 4.7 below. It is reflected in the data that there are sectors wherein the majority of the same respondents had indicated either “much benefit” or “very much benefit.” Thus it is just the degrees of benefit that vary with the respondents from sector to sector, in addition to the fact that some sectors were given more priority than others in the first phase of the project.

Table 4.7 Is the MVP intervention helpful for developing Pampaida?

RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YES	106	99.1
NO	1	0.9

RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YES	106	99.1
NO	1	0.9
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Consequent upon the majority agreement to the helpfulness of the MVP intervention for developing Pampaida, the agreement of respondents (n=106, one respondent disagreed as shown in Table 4.7) to the effectiveness of the UNDP (staff, facilities, seminars, activities, and documents) as an organisation was assessed by degrees. In Table 4.8, responses that “strongly agree” and “agree” respectively with a positive statement for each of the UNDP variables, are as follows: UNDP staff are diligent (27.1%, 60.7%); UNDP facilities are functional (26.2%, 70.1%); UNDP activities are well carried out (24.3%, 69.2%); UNDP seminars and workshops are enlightening (29.9%, 68.2%); UNDP documents are educative (14%, 44.9%); and UNDP is a good organisation (41.1%, 57%). On the other hand, the responses that “disagree” and are “not sure” of the statements include these respectively: UNDP staff are diligent (10.3%, 0.9%); UNDP facilities are functional (0.9%, 1.9%); UNDP activities are well carried out (4.7%, 0.9%); UNDP seminars and workshops are enlightening (only “not sure” 0.9%); UNDP documents are educative (0.9%, 39.3%); and UNDP is a good organisation (only “not sure” 0.9%).

The people generally have a positive evaluation of the UNDP on the basis of the MVP through which they have come into contact with the organisation. The presence of the organisation is evidenced by the working staff, the facilities being utilised, the activities being carried out, the seminars (for training, skill acquisition, campaigns, sensitisation, etc.) being undertaken, and the documents made available for communicating information. Things related to the UNDP that have had some definite form of expression before the people have, as seen from the responses, made positive impression on the people, consequently resulting in such positive evaluation of the organisation. Again, the case of high degree of uncertainty (“not sure”) with respect to the educative value of UNDP documents can be explained in terms of the people’s lack of access to most, if not all, of those documents. However, the form of expression the UNDP has made or its presence in Pampaida among the people has received positive evaluation from the respondents. As can be seen, disagreement has very low responses, the highest of which is 11 responses (10.3%) with respect to the diligence of UNDP staff, and followed by how well UNDP activities are carried out (5 responses or 4.7%). The rest of the responses indicating disagreement are just 0.9% (1 response) each.

Table 4.8 Respondents’ assessment of the UNDP

POSITIVE STATEMENTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
UNDP staff are diligent		
STRONGLY AGREE	29	27.1
AGREE	65	60.7

		DISAGREE	11	10.3
		NOT SURE	1	0.9
		Total	106	99.1
Missing	M		1	0.9
	Total		107	100.0
functional		UNDP facilities are		
		STRONGLY AGREE	28	26.2
		AGREE	75	70.1
		DISAGREE	1	0.9
		NOT SURE	2	1.9
		Total	106	99.1
Missing	M		1	0.9
	Total		107	100.0
done		UNDP activities are well		
		STRONGLY AGREE	26	24.3
		AGREE	74	69.2
		DISAGREE	5	4.7
		NOT SURE	1	0.9
		Total	106	99.1
Missing	M		1	0.9
	Total		107	100.0
		UNDP seminars are enlightening		
		STRONGLY AGREE	32	29.9

		AGREE	73	68.2
		NOT SURE	1	0.9
		Total	106	99.1
Missing	M		1	0.9
	Total		107	100.0
		UNDP documents are		
		educative		
		STRONGLY AGREE	15	14.0
		AGREE	48	44.9
		DISAGREE	1	0.9
		NOT SURE	42	39.3
		Total	106	99.1
Missing	M		1	0.9
	Total		107	100.0
		UNDP is a good		
		organisation		
		STRONGLY AGREE	44	41.1
		AGREE	61	57.0
		NOT SURE	1	0.9
		Total	106	99.1
Missing	M		1	0.9
	Total		107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.3 Factors that Influenced Perception

4.2.3.1 Involvement in MVP Pre-intervention

The involvement of local stakeholders in the MVP intervention underscores the basic assumption of the theory of participatory community development that, first, every person has skill, ability and initiative, and has equal right to participate in the progress; second, authority and power must be balanced between all stakeholders to avoid the domination of one party over other parties; and third, all stakeholders have equal responsibility for the decisions made, and each should have clearly defined responsibilities within the process. The beneficiaries' involvement at both the pre-intervention and intervention phases was therefore investigated, taking note of the nature of involvement and the benefits derived thereby.

There were activities, studies, seminars, among others, that preceded the actual launching of the MVP intervention in Pampaida, called pre-intervention. The pre-intervention was that part of the MVP that prepared the people of the community for the intervention. The respondents' involvement in the pre-intervention in 2006 was investigated and the result is shown in Tables 4.9a and 4.9b.

Table 4.9a Were you involved in the MVP pre-intervention activities?

Responses	Frequen cy	Percent
YES	52	48.6
NO	55	51.4
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

A total of 52 respondents (48.6%, n=107) agreed that they were involved in the MVP pre-intervention, while 55 of them (51.4%, n=107) were not. This means that only nearly half of the respondents participated in the pre-intervention, and some details of their involvement are shown in Table 4.9b.

Table 4.9b Nature of involvement in MVP pre-intervention

		NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
		Interviews			
		YES	23	21.5	44.2
		NO	29	27.1	55.8
		Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M		55	51.4	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Questionnaires			
		YES	32	29.9	61.5
		NO	20	18.7	38.5
		Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M		55	51.4	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Meetings			
		YES	48	44.9	92.3
		NO	4	3.7	7.7
		Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M		55	51.4	

		NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
		Interviews			
		YES	23	21.5	44.2
		NO	29	27.1	55.8
		Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M		55	51.4	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Seminars			
		YES	33	30.8	63.5
		NO	19	17.8	36.5
		Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M		55	51.4	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Focus group discussion			
		YES	21	19.6	40.4
		NO	31	29.0	59.6
		Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M		55	51.4	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Contribution of labour, land, etc.			
		YES	23	21.5	44.2
		NO	29	27.1	55.8
		Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M		55	51.4	

NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT		FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Interviews				
	YES	23	21.5	44.2
	NO	29	27.1	55.8
	Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M	55	51.4	
	Total	107	100.0	
Visitation				
	YES	25	23.4	48.1
	NO	27	25.2	51.9
	Total	52	48.6	100.0
issing	M	55	51.4	
	Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 4.9b shows respondents' (n=52) expressed agreements to their involvement in some MVP pre-intervention activities: interviews were conducted (44.2%), questionnaires were administered (61.5%), meetings were held (92.3%), seminars were carried out (63.5%), focus group discussions were conducted (40.4%), contribution of labour, land, property, etc. was required (44.2%), and MVP officials visited households (48.1%). It should be noted that the above mentioned pre-intervention activities were not all universal in their scope; some people were involved in some and not in others,

depending on the ones that were relevant for each person or persons in order to achieve the intended objectives of the pre-intervention. The various pre-intervention activities were the means by which the beneficiaries were sensitised, trained, empowered and recruited to participate in the MVP intervention.

4.2.3.2 Benefits from MVP Pre-intervention

There were some initial benefits that accompanied the MVP pre-intervention, and 43% of respondents (n=107) agreed that they have benefitted from it, while 57% said they did not benefit. Note here that many of the respondents did not benefit because, in the first place, many of them did not participate (51.4%, n=107) in the MVP pre-intervention (see Table 4.9a). This applies to the subsequent part of this section.

Table 4.10a Did you benefit in any way from MVP pre-intervention activities?

RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
ES	46	43.0	43.0
O	61	57.0	57.0
total	107	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 4.10b Types of benefit from MVP pre-intervention

TYPES OF BENEFIT		FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Economic empowerment				
S	YE	17	15.9	37.0
	NO	29	27.1	63.0
	Tot	46	43.0	100.0
Missing	M	61	57.0	
	Total	107	100.0	
Knowledge and information				
S	YE	45	42.1	97.8
	NO	1	.9	2.2
	Tot	46	43.0	100.0
Missing	M	61	57.0	
	Total	107	100.0	
Training and skill acquisition				
S	YE	18	16.8	39.1
	NO	28	26.2	60.9
	Tot	46	43.0	100.0
Missing	M	61	57.0	
	Total	107	100.0	

Missing	M	61	57.0	
	Total	107	100.0	
Access to inputs, services, etc.				
S	YE	24	22.4	52.2
	NO	22	20.6	47.8
	Tot	46	43.0	100.0
Missing	M	61	57.0	
	Total	107	100.0	
Improved gender representation				
S	YE	17	15.9	37.0
	NO	29	27.1	63.0
	Tot	46	43.0	100.0
Missing	M	61	57.0	
	Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 4.10b shows that among the 43% of respondents (n=46) who have benefitted from the MVP pre-intervention, 37% were empowered economically, 97.8% acquired relevant knowledge and information, 39.1% got training in skill acquisition,

52.2% had access to some inputs, and 37% have benefitted by way of improved gender representation. Some of these benefits are the fall outs of the foundational preparation effected among the people in order to get them ready for the actual MVP intervention in the community, wherein they would be required to participate fully.

According to Table 4.11, majority of the respondents (54.2%, n=107) were not sure of the reason for the MVP pre-intervention because, as shown in Table 4.9a, most of them were not involved in the MVP pre-intervention. Among the rest, 43.9% said that the purpose was to prepare beneficiaries for the MVP intervention, and 1.9% said the purpose was to help the Government to gather information about beneficiaries.

Table 4.11 Reason for MVP pre-intervention

REASONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
PREPARE BENEFICIARIES FOR MVP INTERVENTION	47	43.9
HELP GOVERNMENT GATHER INFORMATION	2	1.9
NOT SURE	58	54.2
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.3.3 Involvement in MVP Intervention in Pampaida

Table 4.12a Were you involved in the MVP intervention in Pampaida?

RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YES	103	96.3
NO	4	3.7
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

From Table 4.12a, majority of the respondents (96.3%, n=107) said they were involved in the MVP intervention since it started, and only four respondents (3.7%) said they were not involved.

Table 4.12b Nature of involvement in the MVP intervention in Pampaida

	NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
	Interview			
	YES	24	22.4	23.3
	NO	79	73.8	76.7
	Total	103	96.3	100.0
Missing	M	4	3.7	
	Total	107	100.0	
	Questionnaires			
	YES	99	92.5	96.1
	NO	4	3.7	3.9
	Total	103	96.3	100.0

issing	M		4	3.7	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Meetings			
		YES	94	87.9	91.3
		NO	9	8.4	8.7
		Total	103	96.3	100.0
issing	M		4	3.7	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Seminars			
		YES	57	53.3	55.3
		NO	46	43.0	44.7
		Total	103	96.3	100.0
issing	M		4	3.7	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Focus group discussion			
		YES	22	20.6	21.4
		NO	81	75.7	78.6
		Total	103	96.3	100.0
issing	M	System	4	3.7	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Contribution of labour, land, etc.			
		YES	64	59.8	62.1
		NO	39	36.4	37.9
		Total	103	96.3	100.0

issing	M	4	3.7	
	Total	107	100.0	
Visitation				
	YES	30	28.0	29.1
	NO	73	68.2	70.9
	Total	103	96.3	100.0
issing	M	4	3.7	
	Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

For those respondents (n=103) who were involved in the MVP intervention, they participated in various activities, similar to those of the pre-intervention, at different levels as follows: interviews (23.3%), questionnaires (96.1%), meetings (91.3%), seminars (55.3%), focus group discussion (21.4%), contribution of labour, land, etc. (62.1%) and household visitation and engagement (29.1%). In other words, at one point or the other, beneficiaries were required to participate in one of these activities or the other, with respect to one or more of the MVP intervention sectors. For instance in some sectors like health and medicine, seminars are common; in agriculture, food production, and improved feeding, farmers are required to contribute their labours and part of their farm produce to a cereal bank for onward transfer to the free school feeding programme, and the excess was sold and the proceeds reinvested into the fertiliser revolving scheme.

4.2.3.3 Imposition of MVP intervention

The participatory community development theory insists that all participants must act, react, and interact in a climate of transparency, and dialogue must be the instrument

of engagement in all interactions. Therefore, the study investigated the respondents' views about the project touching on transparency generally, and particularly any forms of imposition. Respondents (100%, n=107) were asked if any MVP intervention sector was imposed on them without their consent, and majority of respondents (98.1%) disagreed to that; only two respondents (1.9%) said yes to the question (Table 4.13a). Further investigation into the nature of any form of imposition, with respect to the several details or sectors of the MVP intervention was done and the result, as shown in Table 4.13b, shows that none of those respondents that answered yes to the question of imposition of MVP intervention sectors could substantiate their answer, as they were not sure of the nature of imposition.

Table 4.13a Was any MVP intervention imposed on you without your consent?

RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YES	2	1.9
NO	105	98.1
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 4.13b Nature of MVP imposition

	IMPOSED MVP INTERVENTION	FREQ UENCY	PER CENT	VALID PERCENT
	Agriculture and food production			
	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	
	Water supply			
	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	

	IMPOSED MVP INTERVENTION	FREQ UENCY	PER CENT	VALID PERCENT
	Agriculture and food production			
	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	
	Health and medicine			
	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	
	Education and schools			
	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	
	Infrastructural development			
	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	
	Environmental sustainability			

	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	

Sanitation

	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	

Improved feeding

	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	

Telecom. Network

	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	

Veterinary services

	NO	2	1.9	100.0
issing	M	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100. 0	

Computer and ICT				
	NO	2	1.9	100.0
Missing	N.	105	98.1	
	Total	107	100.	0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Similarly, the respondents (n=107) were asked if they willingly, rather than forcefully, co-operated with the MVP staff in the course of the intervention, and 99.1% said they participated willingly; only one respondent (0.9%) disagreed, but was not sure of the reason for the unwillingness to co-operate in the intervention (Table 4.13c). In sum, there was virtually no imposition of any intervention sector without the consent of beneficiaries; they were required to co-operate or participate in the MVP intervention activities willingly, and not by force or manipulation.

Table 4.13c Respondents' willingness to co-operate in the MVP intervention

RESPONDENTS' WILLINGNESS TO CO-OPERATE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Did you willingly co-operate in the MVP?			
YES	106	99.1	99.1
NO	1	0.9	0.9
Total	107	100.	100.0

Reason for unwillingness to co-operate

	NOT SURE	1	0.9	100.0
Missing	Mi	106	99.1	
	Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.3.4 Negative Outcomes from the MVP Intervention

Respondents (n=107) were asked if any outcome of the MVP intervention affected them negatively, and only three respondents (2.8%) agreed to this fact while the rest (97.2%) disagreed, according to Table 4.14. The respondents here concerned cited that vices and harmful lifestyles were introduced as a result of the MVP intervention, and that both the MVP field staff (one respondent, 0.9%) and the beneficiaries themselves (two respondents, 1.9%) share the blame for that negative outcome. Negative outcomes, as seen from the opinions of three respondents, are very minimal, and the main culprits were the beneficiaries themselves. Therefore, it is mainly positive impact or outcome that resulted from the MVP intervention.

Table 4.14 Negative outcome from the MVP intervention

MVP NEGATIVE OUTCOMES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Did any MVP intervention affect you negatively?			
YES	3	2.8	2.8
NO	104	97.2	97.2
Total	107	100.0	100.0

		Nature of negative outcome			
		INTRODUCED VICES AND HARMFUL LIFESTYLE	3	2.8	100.0
Missing	M		104	97.2	
	Total		107	100.0	
		Responsibility for negative outcome			
		MVP FIELD STAFF	1	0.9	33.3
		BENEFICIARIES	2	1.9	66.7
		Total	3	2.8	100.0
Missing	M		104	97.2	
	Total		107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.4 Beneficiaries and Participation in the Pampaida MVP

Cooperation, as postulated by the participatory community development theory, is very important because it determines the ultimate outcome of any participatory programme or project. The involvement of local stakeholders in the Pampaida MVP took several forms, beginning from the pre-intervention period and through to the actual intervention. The involvement of the beneficiaries was assessed in terms of the nature of involvement, benefits of involvement, reasons for participation and willingness to cooperate in the process freely. Furthermore, the study investigated the perceived atmosphere under which the beneficiaries participated in the intervention, taking consideration of their reasons for participation, judgment about the direct beneficiary in each intervention sector.

4.2.4.1 Beneficiaries' Judgment of and Reason for Participating in the MVP Intervention

According to Tables 4.15a and 4.15b, all the respondents (100%, n=107) agree that the MVP intervention in Pampaida was put in place for their good as beneficiaries, and they expressed their degree of agreement to the four main levels or sets of beneficial reasons for participating in the MVP intervention. The first reason is the personal benefits gained or expected: 68.2% of respondents agree strongly, 30.8% agree, while one respondent (0.9%) strongly disagree to personal benefit as one of the reasons for participating in the MVP intervention. Second, for household benefit, 66.4% of respondents strongly agree, 32.7% of respondents agree, while one respondent (0.9%) strongly disagree. Third, for occupational benefit as one of the reasons for participating in the MVP intervention, 60.7% of respondents strongly agree, 36.4% of respondents agree, while two respondents (1.9%) strongly disagree, and one respondent (0.9%) is not sure. Fourth, for communal benefit as one of the reasons, 53.3% of respondents strongly agree, 44.9% agree, while one respondent (0.9%) disagree, and another one (0.9%) strongly disagree.

Beneficiaries-cum-participants of the MVP intervention were drawn to activities that exposed the benefits they stand to gain at various levels (personal, household, occupation, and community) by participating in the process. Most of them “strongly agree” or “agree” to all the four main reasons, while quite few either “disagree strongly,” “disagree” or are uncertain (“not sure”) about these same reasons. This means that respondents were definite about their expectations or reasons for participating in the MVP intervention; they were not uninformed about what they were involved in. Where objectives, expectations and reasons are clearly defined, people who are enlightened and

desire these things are likely to invest their commitment in order to bring about the realisation.

Table 4.15a Do you think the MVP intervention was done for your good?

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YES	107	100.0
NO	0	0.0
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 4.15b Degree of agreement to reasons for participation

LEVELS OF BENEFIT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Personal benefit		
STRONGLY AGREE	73	68.2
AGREE	33	30.8
STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0.9
Total	107	100.0
Household benefit		
STRONGLY AGREE	71	66.4
AGREE	35	32.7

STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0.9
Total	107	100.0
Occupational benefit		
STRONGLY AGREE	65	60.7
AGREE	39	36.4
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1.9
NOT SURE	1	0.9
Total	107	100.0
Community benefit		
STRONGLY AGREE	57	53.3
AGREE	48	44.9
DISAGREE	1	0.9
STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0.9
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.4.2 Direct Beneficiary of the MVP Intervention Sectors

From Tables 4.16a and 4.16b it can be seen that the four classes of direct beneficiaries – myself, household, occupation, community – have received benefits directly from the MVP intervention in different proportions, according to the judgment of respondents (n=107).

Table 4.16a Respondents' judgments on direct beneficiary of the various MVP sectors

DIRECT BENEFICIARIES	FREQU ENCY	PER CENT
Agriculture and food production		
MYSELF	32	29.9
OLD HOUSEH ION	60	56.1
OCCUPAT ION	10	9.3
VILLAGE	5	4.7
Total	107	100.0
Water supply		
MYSELF	17	15.9
OLD HOUSEH ION	66	61.7
VILLAGE	22	20.6
NOT SURE	2	1.9
Total	107	100.0
Health and medicine		
MYSELF	30	28.0
OLD HOUSEH ION	65	60.7
VILLAGE	12	11.2
Total	107	100.0
Education and schools		

	MYSELF	10	9.3
OLD	HOUSEH	50	46.7
	VILLAGE	46	43.0
SURE	NOT	1	.9
	Total	107	100.0

**Infrastructural
development**

	MYSELF	8	7.5
OLD	HOUSEH	9	8.4
ION	OCCUPAT	9	8.4
	VILLAGE	79	73.8
SURE	NOT	2	1.9
	Total	107	100.0

Business development

	MYSELF	3	2.8
OLD	HOUSEH	7	6.5
ION	OCCUPAT	6	5.6
	VILLAGE	49	45.8
SURE	NOT	42	39.3
	Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 4.16b Respondents' judgments on direct beneficiary of the various MVP sectors (continuation)

DIRECT BENEFICIARIES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Environmental sustainability			
HOUSE HOLD	3	2.8	2.8
OCCUPATION	1	.9	.9
VILLAGE	61	57.0	57.0
NOT SURE	42	39.3	39.3
Total	107	100.0	100.0
Sanitation			
MYSELF	3	2.8	2.8
HOUSE HOLD	63	58.9	58.9
VILLAGE	36	33.6	33.6
NOT SURE	5	4.7	4.7
Total	107	100.0	100.0
Improved feeding			

F	MYSEL	10	9.3	9.3
HOLD	HOUSE	60	56.1	56.1
E	VILLAG	17	15.9	15.9
SURE	NOT	20	18.7	18.7
	Total	107	100. 0	100.0

Telecom. Network

F	MYSEL	24	22.4	22.4
HOLD	HOUSE	24	22.4	22.4
E	OCCUP ATION	1	0.9	0.9
SURE	VILLAG	56	52.3	52.3
	NOT	2	1.9	1.9
	Total	107	100. 0	100.0

**Veterinary
services**

F	MYSEL	1	0.9	0.9
HOLD	HOUSE	3	2.8	2.8
	OCCUP ATION	2	1.9	1.9

E	VILLAG	55	51.4	51.4	
	NOT	46	43.0	43.0	
SURE	Total	107	100.0	100.0	
			0		
ICT	Computer and				
	F	MYSEL	5	4.7	4.7
	HOLD	HOUSE	6	5.6	5.6
	ATION	OCCUP	2	1.9	1.9
	E	VILLAG	59	55.1	55.1
	SURE	NOT	34	31.8	31.8
		Missing	1	0.9	0.9
		Total	107	100.0	100.0
			0		

Source: Field Survey, 2013

For instance, the household as the direct beneficiary is judged by most of the respondents to have received the highest benefits of the following interventions: agriculture and food production (56.1%), water supply (61.7%), health and medicine (60.7%), education and schools (46.7%), sanitation (58.9%) and improved feeding (56.1%). Also the village is judged by the respondents to be the highest direct beneficiary

from infrastructural development (73.8%), business development (45.8%), environmental sustainability (57%), telecommunications network (52.3%), veterinary services (51.4%), and computer and ICT (55.1%, n=106, one respondent did not respond).

Another direct beneficiary that received some considerable percentage of responses after household and village is the individual respondent (“Myself”) with respect to agriculture and food production (29.9%), health and medicine (28%), and telecommunications network (22.4%). There are sectors in which respondents are uncertain (i.e. “Not sure”) about whom the direct beneficiary could be with significant percentages of responses: business development (39.3%), environmental sustainability (39.3%), veterinary services (43%), and computer and ICT (31.8%). Occupation as a class of direct beneficiary has received very low levels of respondents’ judgment in agriculture and food production (9.3%), water supply (0%), health and medicine (0%), education and schools (0%), infrastructural development (8.4%), business development (5.6%), environmental sustainability (0.9%), sanitation (0%), improved feeding (0%), telecommunications network (0.9%), veterinary services (1.9%), and computer and ICT (1.9%, n=106).

The impact of the MVP intervention is not uniform across all classes of direct beneficiaries, nor is the impact through the different sectors mutually exclusive to one class or the other. The state of uncertainty reflect some respondents’ inability to see or judge accurately the impact of those intervention sectors against which their responses make significantly low percentages, such as business development, environmental sustainability, veterinary services and computer and ICT, some of which were not given as much priority as the others in the first phase of the MVP intervention (2006-2011).

This data corresponds with the one presented in Table 4.5 on the respondents' knowledge of the MVP intervention sectors.

4.2.5 Challenges in the MVP Intervention

The participatory nature of the MVP intervention in Pampaida made it subject to some inherent problems associated with the participatory principle, which critics have raised as a challenge against the theory of participatory community development. For this reason the challenges that arose in the course of the MVP intervention were investigated. It is important to note that citizen participation is often a requirement for the initiators and planners of development projects, but it is always optional for the citizens because force is not applicable. The purpose of this aspect of the investigation is to validate or disprove the claims of critics against the viability of the theory for facilitating development research and practice with empirical facts.

4.2.5.1 Deliberate attempt to Change Respondents' Culture and Religion, and Comfort with Necessary Changes required by the MVP Intervention

From Table 4.17, all the respondents (n=107) disagree that there was any attempt to change their religion or culture through the MVP intervention in Pampaida, and they were all comfortable with the necessary adjustments required of them as beneficiaries-cum-participants. The MVP intervention involved certain necessary change of lifestyle and practices of the beneficiaries in order to realise some level of success. But there were no deliberate attempts (covert or overt), in the judgment of the respondents, to change beneficiaries' culture or religion under the pretext of the MVP intervention. Thus the

respondents willingly co-operated in the entire process (see Table 4.13c), and were comfortable with the adjustments that their involvement demanded.

Table 4.17 Respondents' expressions about deliberate changes and comfort with necessary changes

RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
ATTEMPT TO CHANGE YOUR CULTURE AND RELIGION		
NO	107	100.0
NATURE OF THE CHANGE		
Missing	107	100.0
COMFORTABLE WITH NECESSARY CHANGES		
YES	107	100.0
DID YOU RAISE PERSONAL OBJECTIONS TO THE CHANGES		
Missing	107	100.0
WAS YOUR OBJECTION RESPECTED?		
Missing	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.5.2 Refusal to Participate in any MVP Intervention

Table 4.18 shows that a majority of the respondents (54.2%, n=107) have had some cause to refuse participating in some MVP intervention sectors at one point or the other, and the reasons for this refusal among the respondents (n=58) that had refused were varied: 55.2% of them said they were uncertain and fearful of expected outcomes, 6.9% said they were misled about facts of the project, 32.8% said they were wary of the cumbersome demands of participation, and 5.2% were not sure of the reason for their refusal to participate. The remaining respondents (45.8%, n=107) have not had any cause to refuse to participate in any MVP intervention sector. Fear and uncertainty comprised a major factor that instigated the respondents' refusal to participate, likewise some tough demands of participation on the part of the beneficiaries. It should be noted that this is a reaction due to crises of expectation with respect to the affected sector.

Table 4.18 Respondents' refusal to participate in MVP intervention

REFUSAL TO PARTICIPATE	FREQ UENCY	PER CENT	VALID PERCENT
Refusal to participate in any MVP sector			
YES	58	54.2	54.2
NO	49	45.8	45.8
Total	107	100.0	100.0
Reasons for refusal to participate			

	UNCERTAINTY AND FEAR ABOUT EXPECTED OUTCOMES	32	29.9	55.2
	MISLED ABOUT FACTS	4	3.7	6.9
	CUMBERSOME DEMANDS OF PARTICIPATION	19	17.8	32.8
	NOT SURE	3	2.8	5.2
	Total	58	54.2	100.0
Disagreeing		49	45.8	
	Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.5.3 Disagreements with UNDP Staff during MVP Intervention

Some respondents (15.9%, n=107) agree that they have had some disagreement with the MVP staff in the course of the intervention (Table 4.19). Out of those respondents (n=17) who had disagreed, 58.8% said that the reason was lack of respect to their opinions and ideas; one respondent (5.9%) said that the MVP staff were fraudulent and corrupt, and two respondents (11.8%) charged the UNDP staff of being troublesome and wicked, while four respondents (23.5%) were not sure of the cause of the disagreement. However, majority of the respondents (84.1%, n=107) said they have not had any disagreements with MVP staff. Disagreements usually occur in participatory projects, and could constitute a significant setback to the entire process, except where the percentage of disagreeing participants do not outweigh that of those who agree, as in the

case here. Respondents that disagree mainly felt that their opinions were not respected, despite the fact that they were made to know that their opinions and contributions would be highly needed to ensure the realisation of the goals. The effects of disagreement could be gravely negative for participatory projects since local stakeholders and the MVP officials would follow different paths toward the same goals.

Table 4.19 Respondents' disagreement with UNDP staff in MVP intervention

RESPONDENTS' DISAGREEMENT	FREQ UENCY	PER CENT	VALID PERCENT
Disagreement with UNDP staff			
YES	17	15.9	15.9
NO	90	84.1	84.1
Total	107	100.0	100.0
Reason for disagreement			
LACK OF RESPECT TO MY OPINION AND IDEAS	10	9.3	58.8
THEY WERE FRAUDULENT AND CORRUPT	1	.9	5.9
THEY WERE TROUBLESOME AND WICKED	2	1.9	11.8
NOT SURE	4	3.7	23.5
Total	17	15.9	100.0
Missing	90	84.1	
Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.5.4 Opposition to MVP Intervention

From Table 4.20, a considerable percentage of respondents (42.1%, n=107) have had reasons to oppose some aspects of the MVP intervention, because they felt that it had negative outcomes (24.4%, n=45), it was useless (8.9%, n=45), and it was contrary to expectation (64.4%, n=45), while one respondent (2.2%, n=45) was not sure of the reason for the opposition. The rest of the respondents (57.9%, n=107) said they have not opposed any of the MVP intervention sectors. Opposition is further than both refusal and disagreement; it is a deliberate attempt to stall the process of executing the MVP intervention activities by hindering the functions of both other local stakeholders and the MVP officials. This could have crippling effects on one or more sectors, or even on the entire project, depending on the magnitude of opposition.

Table 4.20 Have you opposed any aspect of the MVP intervention?

RESPONDENTS' OPPOSITION		FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Opposition to MVP intervention				
YES		45	42.1	42.1
NO		62	57.9	57.9
Total		107	100.0	100.0
Reason for opposition				
IT HAD NEGATIVE OUTCOME		11	10.3	24.4

	IT USELESS	WAS	4	3.7	8.9
	IT CONTRARY TO EXPECTATION	WAS MY	29	27.1	64.4
	NOT SURE		1	.9	2.2
	Total		45	42.1	100.0
Missing			62	57.9	
	Total		107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.2.5.5 Fear about MVP Intervention and Unrealised Expectations

Some respondents (50.5%, n=107) have not had any fears about any aspect of the MVP intervention while others (49.5%, n=107) have had fears about some aspect of the intervention. The types of fear expressed by the respondents (n=53) include fear of negative outcomes (52.8%), fear of change effect on religion and culture (20.8%), and fear of loss of property (20.8%), while three respondents (5.7%) were not sure of the kind of fear they had. Among the respondents (49.5%, n=107), that have had some fears, only 10 of them (18.9%, n=53) said that their fear came to pass, while the rest (81.1%, n=53) said none of the things they feared came to pass. Fear could be a reaction to undesirable expectations, as mentioned above, and, where fear exists there could be suspicions or withdrawal. When fear comes to pass, it could have grave consequences on the commitment and participation of those involved in the project.

Table 4.21a Have you had any fears about any aspect of the MVP intervention?

RESPONDENTS' FEARS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Fear about MVP			
YES	53	49.5	49.5
NO	54	50.5	50.5
Total	107	100.0	100.0
Kind of fear			
IT WOULD PRODUCE NEGATIVE OUTCOME	28	26.2	52.8
IT WOULD AFFECT MY RELIGION AND CULTURE	11	10.3	20.8
IT WOULD LEAD TO LOSS OF PROPERTY	11	10.3	20.8
NOT SURE	3	2.8	5.7
Total	53	49.5	100.0
M	54	50.5	
issing			
Total	107	100.0	
Confirming fear			
YES	10	9.3	18.9
NO	43	40.2	81.1
Total	53	49.5	100.0
M	54	50.5	
issing			

RESPONDENTS' FEARS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Fear about MVP			
YES	53	49.5	49.5
NO	54	50.5	50.5
Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Furthermore, it has been established earlier that one of the major reasons for opposition of some MVP intervention sectors by beneficiaries was that the outcome was contrary to their expectations (see Table 4.20). In Table 4.21b majority of the respondents (74.8%, n=107) agreed that they have had expectations that were not realised in the MVP intervention, and the reasons for that include faulty implementation plan (16.3%, n=80), ineffective performance of MVP staff (43.8%, n=80), and lack of resources needed (36.3%, n=80), while three respondents (3.8%, n=80) were not sure of the reason for the non-realisation of their expectations from the MVP intervention. The remaining respondents (25.2%, n=107) said they have not had any unrealised expectations.

Table 4.21b Are there expectations that failed to be realised by the MVP intervention?

FAILED EXPECTATIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT
Failed expectations			
YES	80	74.8	74.8
NO	27	25.2	25.2

FAILED EXPECTATIONS	FREQ UENCY	PER CENT	VALID PERCENT
Failed expectations			
YES	80	74.8	74.8
NO	27	25.2	25.2
Total	107	100.0	100.0
Reason for failed expectations			
FAULTY IMPLEMENTATION PLAN	13	12.1	16.3
INEFFECTIVE PERFORMANCE OF MVP STAFF	35	32.7	43.8
LACK OF RESOURCES NEEDED	29	27.1	36.3
NOT SURE	3	2.8	3.8
Total	80	74.8	100.0
Missing	27	25.2	
Total	107	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2013

It is noteworthy that expectations from the MVP intervention were formed as a result of the MVP pre-intervention activities, except in cases of misrepresentation of information. The issue of failed expectations could affect the sustained commitment of the beneficiaries, especially if it is not properly managed. Moreover, there is a greater possible problem in this case where the reason for the failed expectations was attached to

the ineffectiveness of the MVP staff in performing their own duties in the process of the intervention.

4.2.6 Recommendations

All the respondents (100%, n=107) recommended the MVP approach for development to the Government as a means for achieving integrated development in other villages. About 96.3% of respondents are of the opinion that the MVP intervention is quite useful for achieving development; the rest (3.7%) have no comments. However, the respondents suggested some things that could be done to improve the MVP intervention in Pampaida, including increasing funding for the MVP intervention (57.9%), improving the quantity and quality of the MVP field staff (35.5%) and intensifying enlightenment generally about the MVP intervention (6.5%). This means that there is a sense of identification with the MVP intervention by the beneficiaries which has warranted their massive recommendation of the approach to the Government, also their positive comment about its usefulness, and their suggestions for its improvement, rather than writing it off as a failure or something negative.

Table 4.22 Respondents' recommendations and suggestions

RESPONDENTS' RECOMMENDATIONS/SUGGESTIONS	FREQU ENCY	PER CENT
Would you recommend the MVP approach to government?		
YES	107	100. 0

What would you say about MVP intervention in Pampaida generally?

MVP IS USEFUL FOR ACHIEVING DEVELOPMENT	103	96.3
NO COMMENT	4	3.7
Total	107	100.0

What can be done to improve MVP intervention in Pampaida?

INCREASE FUNDING	62	57.9
IMPROVE MVP FIELD STAFF QUANTITY AND QUALITY	38	35.5
INTENSIFY ENLIGHTENMENT/AWARENESS	7	6.5
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

4.3 SUMMARY OF DATA FROM ORAL INTERVIEWS

As mentioned earlier, three of the MVP officials were interviewed orally and the following is the summary of data obtained from the interviews. The respondents (Woje, Interview 28/10/2013; Dutse, Interview 28/10/2013; Odey, Interview 4/11//2013) here all agreed that there was a community entry process or pre-intervention that preceded the actual intervention, and the purpose was mainly to sensitise and mobilise the people with respect to, among other things, their responsibilities in the participatory project which was to take place in their community. Furthermore, this pre-intervention was very effective in achieving the intended purpose of community sensitisation, and this was

evidenced in the initial high level of co-operation of the people in the community towards the MVP intervention. Moreover, the participation of the people at the level of pre-intervention was greeted with some initial benefits such as knowledge, gender empowerment, and self-governance practices that gave them a voice with the local and state governments. On the overall, the respondents agree that the pre-intervention really helped in giving the UNDP a good image, and giving the MVP intervention acceptance, in the eyes of the people.

On the assessment of the participation of the local people in the MVP intervention, the respondents noted that at the inception the project there a very high level of participation (over 90%) among the beneficiaries which, the respondents said has declined over the years (now about 50%) to date. This, one of the respondents noted, could be attributable to some of the people's biased perception that divorced beneficiaries' continuous commitment to the MVP intervention activities. In other words, some of the people seemed to have a perception, influenced by some false information lately peddled by some mischievous and misinformed individuals, which made them to expect being spoon-fed all through the process of the MVP intervention. So with time they reduced their level of commitment. Underlying the behaviour of the people are the expectations of benefits the beneficiaries had since the inception of the MVP. These expectations were a function of the entry point activities; the beneficiaries participated in the MVP intervention because they expected some benefits from it. In summary, some of the beneficiaries have expressed some level of satisfaction with the outcomes of the MVP intervention sectors, while others claimed that their expectations were not met.

The respondents agree to the fact that beneficiary-related problems did emerge in the course of the MVP intervention, such as lack of co-operation, fear and uncertainty and opposition towards one of more MVP intervention sectors. This is attributable to wrong expectations and wrong information from outsiders or mischievous and defaulting persons among the beneficiaries. This, for example, particularly centred around the fertiliser revolving programme which was meant to be a free distribution of fertiliser to farmers (majority of the people are farmers) on the condition that they pay for the cost of transporting it from the donor company abroad (Canada-based Agrium Inc.) to Pampaida through their several co-operative societies, after the first rounds of free distributions of the input. This collection of fees from farmers was considered by some of the people as a corrupt and fraudulent act on the part of the MVP officials, and a wicked thing to do, which was contrary to their expectation of free distribution of the input. However, one of the respondents have noted that there were some instances of slackness on the part of some MVP officials that affected their performance with respect to some intervention sectors, and this generated some negative reactions that became problematic to the intervention process.

The respondents said that the strategy the UNDP has used to handle these beneficiary-related problems has remained the regular open discussions with the local stakeholders in a transparent manner in open meetings. There are sectors of the MVP intervention that have need of improvement, according to the respondents, namely sanitation, nutrition and agriculture. There is need to improve sensitisation among the people on sanitation; there is need to sensitise the people on proper feeding (balanced)

using their farm produce; and there is need to improve in the aspect of increasing farm inputs like fertiliser and seeds to the farmers during planting season.

The data obtained from the oral interviews with the MVP officials have a relevant bearing on the data collected from the beneficiaries through questionnaires administered. For instance, the factors underlying the reactions of the people which constituted some problem to the MVP intervention in the form of fear and uncertainty, refusal to participate, and outright opposition are better understood in the context of the situation around which they emanated, particularly the fertiliser revolving programme.

4.4 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

1. The Pampaida MVP approach differs from integrated rural development programs of the 1970s and 1980s or traditional “model villages” in several ways, namely that (i) it is explicitly linked to achieving the MDGs; (ii) it addresses an integrated and scalable set of interventions covering food production, nutrition, education, health services, roads, energy, communications, water, sanitation, enterprise diversification and environmental management. In the same vein, it is linked to national-level processes to ensure that the success can be scaled up by governments to other rural areas; (iii) it focuses on participatory community decision-making and actions; (iv) it used improved science-based technologies and techniques that have only recently become available, such as agro-forestry, insecticide-treated bed nets, antiretroviral drugs, the Internet, remote sensing, improved cooking stoves, solar lamps and geographic information systems; and (v) it was undertaken in phases beginning with the pre-intervention (also entry

point activities, EPAs or community entry process, CEP) and the different phases of the actual intervention process.

2. The beneficiaries have a positive perception of the UNDP as an organisation on the basis of the MVP in Pampaida, as a result of the effective execution of EPAs and the generous start-off actual intervention are a factor that influenced this perception.
3. The Pampaida MVP is all inclusive; it included males and females, male-headed and female-headed households, the married and the unmarried, small households and large households, people of both Christian and Muslim religious affiliations, and people of different occupations and educational qualifications.
4. In the Pampaida MVP, awareness was effective because the means through which awareness thrived were embedded in the very social fabric of the target population, mainly through family members, traditional rulers and friends, whose roles were quite significant in passing across the knowledge and information about the MVP among the beneficiaries.
5. A positive relationship between the respondents' perception and their involvement as beneficiaries-cum-participants in the MVP has been established: the MVP pre-intervention functioned as the tool for perception management that set forth the objectives and principles of the project, equipped the people with necessary knowledge and skill, and facilitated the formation of definite expectations among the beneficiaries. This was reinforced by the fringe benefits that came with the EPAs and the generous take-off of the MVP intervention. All

these gave the motivation to the fully expectant beneficiaries to participate in the MVP intervention in the manner they did initially.

6. The Pampaida MVP intervention was undertaken transparently with the full consent of the local stakeholders; there was no single substantiated report of any form of imposition of any intervention sector or activity without their consent.
7. Different MVP intervention sectors in Pampaida have had different degrees of impact on the respondents depending on the type, scope and location of the interventions (especially those given high priority in the first phase between 2006 and 2011). In other words, the impact of the MVP intervention is not uniform across all classes of direct beneficiaries, nor is the impact through the different sectors mutually exclusive to one class or the other. For example, the scope of coverage of agriculture and food production, water supply, health and medicine (child and maternal health inclusive), education and schools, infrastructural development and telecommunications network were found to be wider and more inclusive than that of environmental sustainability, sanitation, veterinary services and computer and ICT.
8. There were some instances of slackness on the part of the Pampaida MVP officials that affected their performance with respect to some intervention sectors, resulting in some negative reactions that became issues in the intervention process.
9. There were problems that emerged along the way from among the beneficiaries-cum-participants, underscored by changes and discrepancies with respect to some MVP intervention sectors and the MVP staff, which the beneficiaries-cum-

participants perceived and judged to be unexpected, undesirable and negative enough to make them fearful and uncertain about what to expect, and to warrant their disagreement with MVP staff in some intervention sectors, their refusal to participate in some intervention sectors, or even their outright opposition to some intervention sectors.

10. There are sectors of the Pampaida MVP intervention that have need of improvement, including sanitation, nutrition and agriculture.
11. Finally, there is a sense of identification and satisfaction with the Pampaida MVP intervention by the beneficiaries, which is evident by the fact that they recommended the approach to the Government as a model for rural development in other places, they made positive comments about its usefulness, and they gave suggestions of what should be done to make improvement on it.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS OF BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTION AND PARTICIPATION IN THE MVP INTERVENTION IN PAMPAIDA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The present study was designed to examine beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP and their participation in the MVP intervention in Pampaida village in Ikara LGA,

Kaduna State, which is based on the participatory principle. The data was collected, presented and analysed within the framework of the participatory community development theory. The following comprises the discussion of the major findings, based on the results of the data collected from the study area, as presented and analysed in the preceding chapter, undertaken under three sub-headings that match the assumptions put forth at the beginning of the study. These major findings from the data are thus discussed within the context of the literature earlier reviewed in Chapter Two of this same study.

5.2 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCED THE PERCEPTIONS OF THE BENEFICIARIES

Both the MVP staff and the beneficiaries agree that MVP pre-intervention or entry point activities (EPAs) were undertaken wherein both were involved as stakeholders (Tables 4.9a & b, 4.10a & b, and 4.11). This represents the point at which initial impression was made upon the minds of the people by the UNDP with respect to the project. The EPAs or pre-intervention could be likened to a process of deliberate perception management by which the desirable knowledge, objectives, attitudes and expectations were created among the beneficiaries through the seminars and sensitisation, interviews, meetings, questionnaire surveys, visitations, and demand for contributions, coupled with the other functions the pre-intervention served such as empowerment with resources, skill and opportunity to subsequently pursue those objectives and expectations through actual participation in the MVP intervention in Pampaida. The effectiveness of the community entry process was evidenced in the initial high level of co-operation among the beneficiaries. The various entry point activities were the means by which the beneficiaries were sensitised, trained and empowered to participate in the MVP

intervention, and this agrees with studies by Funds for NGOs (2008), Das (2007) and Wani *et al.* (n.d.), which have shown the relevance of entry point activities for participation in similar projects. It must be noted that a considerable percentage of respondents (48.6%) were involved in the Pampaida MVP pre-intervention (Table 4.9a).

Another impact of the pre-intervention was its effect on the local stakeholders' positive perception of the UNDP. A reinforcing package to this positive perception was the set of initial benefits that accompanied the EPAs for those who were involved, such as self-governance practices, useful knowledge and information, skill acquisition, access to inputs and services and improved gender representation. This could be considered as the basis for the high expectations that beneficiaries had with respect to the actual MVP intervention which, as will be discussed subsequently, influenced their participation. This agrees with studies by Colakoglu *et al.* (2010) and Klebba and Unger (1983) that demonstrate how initial positive outcomes and/or information influence perception and, consequently, high or low level of commitment in some endeavours. The data presented in Table 4.9a show that majority of respondents (51.4%) were not involved in the MVP pre-intervention. However, it has been confirmed also that majority of respondents became aware of the entire project through family members, friends and traditional rulers (Table 4.3). This implies that what could not be passed across through the MVP staff themselves during the pre-intervention was subsequently passed across through these other means of awareness, and the result is reflected in the percentage of respondents (96.3%) that were later involved in the MVP intervention (Table 4.12a).

Respondents have been shown to have expressed a high knowledge of the UNDP and the MVP in some appreciable details (Tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5), and they have

positively judged the UNDP as an organisation and the MVP intervention sectors, concluding respectively that the UNDP is a good organisation and the MVP intervention is helpful for developing Pampaida (Tables 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8). This agrees with some studies that have demonstrated the relationship between high knowledge and positive judgment, and also between high degree of benefits and positive judgment (Brahmi and Thakur, 2011; Evans and Donnelly, 2006; Srull, 1983).

The MVP involved the local stakeholders, right from the pre-intervention stage, within a climate conducive to open communication and dialogue, as assumed by the participatory community development theory. In the process the beneficiaries' perception was modified, consciously or unconsciously, in favour of the UNDP generally, and they were equipped with what they need (initiative, skill, democratic culture, objectives, responsibilities, inputs, etc.) to participate in the project.

The MVP pre-intervention and intervention, as factors, have contributed in describable ways to the formation of positive judgment among the beneficiaries about the UNDP and the MVP – the two are inseparable – in the long run. While the MVP pre-intervention served to give the initial impression, the benefits that accompanied it and the actual MVP intervention gave the subsequent reinforcement for the consequent positive perception held by the beneficiaries. Social perception has been defined here as the processes through which people use available information and experience to form impression of other people and entities, to assess what they are like.

5.3 BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTION AND PARTICIPATION IN THE MVP INTERVENTION IN PAMPAIDA

The beneficiaries hold a good judgment about the UNDP and the MVP in Pampaida on the basis of the pre-intervention and intervention activities, and their massive involvement (96.3%) with the organisation in the entire process was mainly based on willing co-operation (Tables 4.12a & b, 4.13a & b and 4.13c) as there were no substantiated claims of any forms of imposition in the process of the MVP, and all the respondents hold the idea that the MVP intervention was done for their good (Table 4.15a). The activities that comprise the pre-intervention and intervention have inspired some expectations of long-term benefits, which in turn became the main reasons why the beneficiaries participated in the entire process right from the inception to date. For example, majority of respondents “strongly agree” and “agree” that they had expectations of personal benefit, household benefit, occupational benefit and communal benefit; only quite few indicated otherwise. The respondents have clearly judged who benefitted more from the several MVP intervention sectors directly (Tables 4.15b, and 4.16). The beneficiaries had clear expectations as reasons for participating in the MVP intervention; this is shown in the data generated. The expectations were partly a function of entry point activities. Studies have shown that expectation as a component of social perception serves as a motivating factor for commitment and involvement in whatever will bring about its realisation (Barreteau *et al.*, 2010; IFAD, 2010; Marzano, 2003; Tannenbaum, 1997; Katz, 1960).

The beneficiaries’ favourable perception of the UNDP, couple with their being equipped for participation, engendered their initial high tempo of participation in the actual MVP intervention. This is in line with the basic tenets of the theory employed here, which requires a clear definition of responsibilities or functions, the employment of

participants' skills and abilities, and sharing of responsibilities among the different categories of stakeholders. It must be noted that there was a decline in the level of participation in the subsequent years of the MVP intervention; this decline is closely related to the factor underlying the problems that affected the project, as discussed below.

To approach the same issue from the dimension of the problems and challenges that faced the MVP intervention process from among the beneficiaries-cum-participants, the data show that part of the reasons for their refusal, opposition and fear, among others is because there are some perceived discrepancies between expectation and experiences along the way. This implies that they participated with clear objectives in view – a proof that there is a strong connection between the beneficiaries' perception and participation in the MVP intervention.

5.4 PROBLEMS THAT CAME FROM AMONG THE BENEFICIARIES AND AFFECTED THE MVP INTERVENTION

It has been noted that the participatory principle in development practice is not a perfect principle – it has its own short coming. Critics have therefore questioned the viability of the theory of participatory community development against the much heralded praise and campaign for its application in the process of development in rural areas, because it is an off-shoot of the participatory principle. Data, as analysed here, have shown that strands of refusals, disagreements, fear and uncertainty, failed expectations and outright opposition, based on the changing beneficiaries' perception, have affected the MVP intervention process. There is therefore a record of declining level

of participation among the beneficiaries which, if not carefully handled, could frustrate the affected sectors or even the entire MVP intervention process in the long run.

It is certain that beneficiaries had a positive perception of the UNDP and the MVP, and on that basis had high expectations of benefits as reasons for participating in the project. However, problems which relate to beneficiaries have been identified in this participatory project in Pampaida, namely allegations of negative outcomes and imposition of some MVP intervention sectors, refusal to participate in one or more MVP sector, disagreement with UNDP staff in the process of the intervention, opposition to one or more MVP sector, fear about one or more MVP sector and failed expectations from the MVP intervention. It has been clearly established in previous studies that projects that are based on the participatory principle are not free from challenges and problems (Brahmi and Thakur, 2011; Fadhil, 2011; Akinboye *et al.*, 2007; Cleaver, 1999).

Firstly, there were claims, though unsubstantiated, by two respondents (1.9%) that some MVP intervention sectors were imposed on them without their consent (Table 4.13a& b) and one respondent (0.9%) disagree to participating in the intervention project willingly – this also was unsubstantiated as the respondent was not sure of the reason for unwillingness to cooperate (Table 4.13c). These two issues could not be said to constitute any problems to the MVP intervention in Pampaida for two reasons: the percentage of respondents that raised them is quite insignificant compared to those that did not, and their responses were not substantiated by any tangible reasons. Secondly, issues of refusal, disagreement, opposition, fear and failed expectations are a varied set of reactions to perceived discrepancies by the beneficiaries-cum-participants in the course of

their involvement with the UNDP in the MVP intervention. These are the basic challenges faced from the beneficiaries in the course of the MVP implementation in Pampaida.

Majority of the respondents (54.2%) have had reasons to refuse to participate in one MVP intervention sector or the other because of uncertainty and fear about expected outcomes, because they were misled about facts of the intervention sector, or because they were wary of the cumbersome demands of participation (Table 4.18 & 4.21a). It is not because beneficiaries lacked knowledge or were not expectant at the beginning of the intervention that uncertainty and fear here came into play – the MVP pre-intervention has effectively accomplished this among them. Rather, as the project process rolled on, incidences and circumstances here and there have summed up to create a fresh uncertainty (about what to expect) and fears (fear of negative outcomes, fear that their religion and culture would be affected, and fear of loss of personal property). Misinformation as a reason for refusal to participate is quite minimal, and it could be partly blamed on the major means – family members, friends and traditional rulers – through which the people became aware of and got involved with the entire process (Table 4.3). Finally, where beneficiaries considered the enormous sacrifices of time, property and skill, and other necessary adjustments required of them in the course of participation they reacted differently, one of which was to withdraw their commitment to the affected sector by way of refusal. The implication of refusal to participate is in its crippling effect on affected intervention sectors, since the entire process is based on the participatory principle. This agrees with studies by Barrateau *et al.*(2010), Bess *et al.*

(2009) and Waisbord (2008) in which refusal to participate is found to be positively related to frustration or failure in participatory projects.

In the case of disagreement among respondents (15.9%) with the UNDP staff, some respondents alleged that the UNDP staff did not respect their opinion and ideas, others said that the UNDP staff were corrupt and fraudulent, and still others accused the UNDP staff of being troublesome and wicked (Table 4.19). Disagreement means there is no longer one focus or same set of objectives, understanding, or rules of engagement among the different stakeholders in the same cause. Where disagreement emerges from a party that is expected to willingly co-operate, it becomes a problem to the entire project. Disagreements have been shown to have gravely negative effects in participatory projects by the European Union (2011) and Bandhyopadhyay *et al.* (2002). The reasons for disagreements here were underlined by the attitudes of the MVP staff toward the respondents judged by the latter as negative enough to be reasons for disagreeing with the former in some aspects or sectors of the MVP intervention.

Furthermore, there is the case of opposition among respondents (42.1%) to some MVP intervention sectors for reasons such as actual negative outcomes, uselessness of the intervention sector and contrariness to expectations according to the judgment of respondents (Table 4.20). The case here is related to what the respondents actually judged to be unacceptable – negative, useless, contrary to expectation – from the MVP intervention sectors. Studies have shown that where people judge something to be unacceptable, they are most likely to oppose it, and opposition could affect participatory-based projects negatively (Tajziehchi *et al.*, 2012; European Union, 2011; Ensher *et al.*, 2001).

Respondents (74.8%) have also raised the matter of some expectations that, though held at the beginning, failed to be realised as the MVP intervention went on, and they blamed the following for the failure: faulty implementation plan, ineffective performance of MVP field staff and lack of resources needed (Table 4.21b). If thought of in terms of cause and effect, studies have shown that the higher a person's expectation and the lower the execution, the higher the frustration level may become. This in turn could cause a total cessation of effort and motivate the person to quit (Seifert *et al.*, 2013). This could affect the sustained commitment of the beneficiaries. The essence of failed expectations also reflects in the suggestions by respondents on ways to improve the MVP intervention in Pampaida: namely increase funding, improve the MVP staff quantity and quality, and intensify awareness and enlightenment about the MVP intervention (Table 4.22). This room for improvement, if properly handled, could make up for the past failures in some of the MVP intervention sectors.

These problems emerging from the beneficiaries-cum-participants were problems that have their origins in the very process of implementing the MVP intervention. They could be likened to the people's reactions to what they judge should not be as far as the organisation and the project are concerned. The MVP officials interviewed said that the cause of these problems included wrong expectations, triggered by wrong information circulated by some mischievous and defaulting persons among the beneficiaries, particularly as it related to the fertiliser revolving programme. Slackness on the part of the MVP staff could also be a factor that partly resulted in outcomes that generated these negative reactions among the respondents. However, the MVP officials have used the

medium of regular and constant open discussion and meetings with the beneficiaries to handle some of these beneficiary-related problems.

On the whole the MVP officials and beneficiaries-cum-participants all agree that there is need to make improvements in some intervention sectors like sanitation, nutrition and agriculture, through increasing of funding, intensification of sensitisation among the people, and supplying of more farm inputs particularly to many of the beneficiaries who are more willing to abide by the terms of participation.

5.5 CONCLUSION

The data presented here have shown that perception lies at the bottom of the behaviours – i.e. co-operation, refusal, disagreement, fear and uncertainty, decreasing participation, opposition – of the local stakeholders of the Pampaida MVP. And because the MVP is a participatory project, addressing these behaviours is considered very crucial for the sustenance of the project in the long run. The prescription of creating a climate conducive to open communication and building dialogue by the theory employed here remains a critical strategy for the practice of development on the basis of the participatory principle, because it will provide the needed forum or platform for improving the chances for addressing some of these problems. Because perception, as the findings of the study have established, lays at the bottom of the local stakeholders' behaviours, a viable platform for managing (redefinition, redirection) those perceptions is needed.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY

This study is focused on one of the approaches to achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), namely the Millennium Villages Project (MVP), initiated by the UNDP, the Earth Institute at Columbia University in the United States, and the Millennium Promise; it is a participatory project. Generally, the study sought to understand the beneficiaries' perception of the UNDP and their participation in the MVP.

The study was undertaken within the framework of the participatory community development theory which posits that all stakeholders must collaborate in any development activity from the very beginning of project identification, prioritisation, planning, implementation, evaluation and monitoring in order to engender a sense of ownership and sustainability in the long run. The theory provides the most suitable framework for the investigation of beneficiaries' perception and participation in the Pampaida MVP intervention. It is this framework that informed the type of data collected, the manner of presentation, analysis and discussion leading to the conclusions and recommendations presented in the present chapter.

A total of 117 heads of the 952 numbered households in the Pampaida MVP were sampled randomly and administered questionnaires, and the retrieved questionnaires (n=107) were coded and entered into the Microsoft Excel 2007, transferred into the IBM SPSS 20 and STATA IC 10 computer softwares for analysis and then presented in simple frequency tables for clarity and simplicity of interpretation. Furthermore, three MVP staff members were interviewed and valuable information was thereby acquired and incorporated into the analysis and interpretation.

The main findings include the following: first, that respondents have a positive perception of the UNDP as an organisation on the basis of the Millennium Villages Project in Pampaida, and the effective execution of entry point activities (EPAs) or pre-intervention and the actual intervention are a factor that influenced this perception. Second, a positive relationship between the respondents' perception and their involvement as beneficiaries-cum-participants in the MVP has been established. The MVP pre-intervention functioned as the tool for perception management that set forth the objectives and principles of the project, equipped the people with necessary knowledge and skill, and facilitated the formation of definite expectations among the beneficiaries. This was reinforced by the fringe benefits that came with the EPAs and the take-off of the MVP intervention. All these gave the motivation to the fully expectant beneficiaries to participate in the MVP intervention in the manner they did initially. Third, it was found that there were problems that emerged along the way from among the beneficiaries-cum-participants, underscored by changes and discrepancies with respect to some MVP intervention sectors and the MVP staff, which the beneficiaries-cum-participants perceived and judged to be unexpected, undesirable and negative enough to make them fearful and uncertain about what to expect, and to warrant their disagreement with MVP staff in some intervention sectors, their refusal to participate in some intervention sectors, or even their outright opposition to some intervention sectors.

The justification for this study lies in the fact that it helps us to understand an important aspect and factor in participatory projects that does not lie in the power of the functional agencies to determine, although it could be managed deliberately. This factor is perception – the process through which people use available information and

experiences to form judgment of other people and entities, to assess what they are like. What people perceive as real is the reality that exists in any social setting, and it is what determines their actual behaviour with respect to the object of perception within their environment. The study is significant for two reasons: first, the MVP is a scalable, participatory project in which the people's perception cannot be divorced from their behaviour; second, the MVP approach has been recommended as a model to the governments of sub-Saharan Africa for rural development. So as the project is being scaled up (widened in both geographical and sectoral scopes), and as the governments adopt it as a model in rural development plans, all forms of people-related challenges and problems could be easily anticipated or identified and effectively addressed through a careful study of their perceptions with a view to understanding and managing them in order to enhance their participation.

6.2 CONCLUSION

It has been found by the study that perception is at the bottom of the local stakeholders' behaviours – i.e. co-operation, refusal, disagreement, fear and uncertainty, decreasing participation, opposition – in the Pampaida MVP. And because the MVP is a participatory project, addressing these behaviours is considered very crucial for the sustenance of the project in the long run both during and after the period of intervention. Therefore, strategies for managing the perceptions of the people must be consciously developed and integrated into the intervention process, covering every phase and stage of the entire intervention period. This strategy should be developed together with the local stakeholders, and it must take into recognition the possible infusion of negative or false information that could distort local stakeholders' understanding, perception and

expectations, and consequently their behaviours in ways that may not be favourable for the success of the project. Everything about participatory development projects must be initiated and managed on the basis of the perceptions of the local stakeholders.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

It is strongly recommended that participatory projects in particular, and all other types of people-centred projects should incorporate a definite strategy for managing the perceptions of the target population. This strategy should cover both the inception of the project and the subsequent stages of its implementation, with particular attention to points of perceived or real discrepancies between project objectives and agreed principles on the one hand, and changes and outcomes on the other hand. The following should be noted in this respect:

1. Mechanisms for instant feedback and inquiry should be created and included in the intervention process and structure in order to enable the local stakeholders to verify all manners of information they receive. The mechanisms should be developed together with the local beneficiaries.
2. The practice of refining and redefining the vision, principles, practices, responsibilities and prospects of the MVP intervention process with its changing circumstances should be regularly undertaken by the MVP officials together with the local stakeholders in their meetings so that false information could be filtered, faulty expectations could be corrected, fear and uncertainty could be dissipated, and issues leading to disagreements, refusal and opposition could be collectively settled through dialogue.

3. Furthermore, research into the area of development and people should henceforth take into account the perceptions of the target population (participants, beneficiaries or local stakeholders) in order to be able to adequately explain and predict their behaviours with respect to the projects in which they are involved, because people's perceptions are the realities that inform their behaviours.

Finally, this study adds to the growing literature on participatory development projects; we now have better understanding of the importance of beneficiaries' perceptions, and how beneficiaries' behaviours can be determined and managed deliberately in development projects. Through this way we can minimize some inherent problems and weaknesses of the participatory principle in both national and international development projects. This will also make room for improvement upon the weaknesses of the theory of participatory community development and make it a viable framework of analysis in development studies.

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APPENDIX I

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY

ZARIA, NIGERIA

Dear Respondent,

The researcher from the above named institution is undertaking THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BENEFICIARIES' PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIOURS IN PARTICIPATORY PROJECTS: LESSONS FROM THE PAMPAIDA MILLENNIUM VILLAGES PROJECT OF THE UNDP (2006-2011), with the official permission of UNDP and your free and sincere responses to the following questions are needed to accomplish the study. It is promised that information provided in this questionnaire shall be treated confidentially. Thank you in anticipation of your kind co-operation.

NB. This questionnaire is meant for research purposes ONLY.

Instructions: Please tick or fill accordingly.

Personal Information of Respondent

1. Name (optional):
2. Village (Unguwa):
3. Sex: (a) Male (b) Female
4. Age: (a) Less than 18 years (b) 18-50 years (c) Above 50 years
5. Occupation: (a) Farming (b) Animal husbandry (c) Trading (d) craftworks (e) Business
6. Marital status: (a) Single (b) Married (c) Widowed (d) Divorced
7. Religion: (a) Christian (b) Muslim (c) Other (mention):
8. Indicate the members of your household: (a) Less than 5 persons (b) 5-10 persons (c) Above 10 persons
9. Type of household: (a) Male-headed (b) Female-headed
10. Education: (a) Primary education (b) Secondary education (c) Tertiary education (d) Koranic education (e) Adult education (f) No formal education

Perception of UNDP on the basis of the MVP Intervention in Pampaida

11. i. Are you aware of the Millennium Villages Project (MVP) in Pampaida? (a) Yes (b) No .

- ii. If *Yes*, how did you hear about it? (a) Through the Pampaida Millennium Villages Project's officials [] (b) Through a family member [] (c) Through friends [] (d) Through traditional rulers []
12. i. Do you know the year that the MVP started in Pampaida? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].
- ii. If *Yes*, state which year:
13. What have you seen or known about UNDP in Pampaida? (Tick in table below)

UNDP Indices	Tick as many as are applicable
UNDP Staff	
UNDP Offices, buildings, clinics, etc.	
UNDP Vehicles	
UNDP Activities	
UNDP Seminars	
UNDP Documents	
UNDP Projects	

14. What aspects of the MVP intervention in Pampaida do you know? (Tick in table below)

MVP Intervention Sector	Tick as many as are applicable
Agriculture/food production	
Water supply	
Health and medicine	
Education and schools	
Infrastructural development	
Business development	
Environmental sustainability	
Telecommunications network	
Computer and ICT	

15. To what degree have you or your household members benefitted from the following areas of the MVP intervention in Pampaida? (Tick in table below)

MVP Intervention Sector	Tick According to Degree of Benefit				
	No benefit at all	Little benefit	Much benefit	Very much benefit	Not sure
Agriculture/food production					
Water supply					
Health and medicine					
Education and schools					
Infrastructural development					
Business development					

Environmental sustainability					
Sanitation					
Improved feeding					
Telecommunications network					
Veterinary services					
Computer and ICT					

16. i. In your opinion, is the MVP intervention helping to develop your community and make things better? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].

ii. If *Yes*, what is your level of agreement with the following statements about UNDP in the table below?

Assessment of UNDP	Tick Your Level of Agreement				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not sure
UNDP staff are diligent					
UNDP facilities are functional					
UNDP activities are well done					
UNDP seminars are enlightening					
UNDP documents are educating					
UNDP is a good organisation					

Factors that Influence Perception

17. i. Were you involved in the MVP pre-intervention activities? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].

ii. If *Yes*, which of the following were done as part of the MVP pre-intervention activities? (Tick in table below)

Nature of Involvement	Tick as many as are applicable
Interviews conducted by MVP staff	
Questionnaires administered by MVP staff	
Meetings with MVP staff	
Seminar, campaign, etc. by MVP staff	
Focus group discussion with MVP staff	
Contribution (labour, land, property, money, ideas, etc.)	
Household visitation by MVP staff	

18. i. Did you benefit in any way from the MVP pre-intervention activities? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].

ii. If *yes*, what you have benefitted from the pre-intervention activities? (Tick in table below)

Kind of benefit	Tick as many as are applicable
Economic empowerment	
Knowledge and information	
Training/Skill acquisition	
Access to inputs, services, etc.	
Improved gender representation	

19. What do you think was the reason for the MVP pre-intervention activities in Pampaida? (a) To prepare us to participate in the MVP intervention [] (b) To help the government gather information about us [] (c) To change our religion and culture [] (d) Not sure [].

20. i. Were you involved in the MVP intervention activities in Pampaida? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].

ii. If Yes, did what kind of involvement did you have? (Tick in the table below)

Nature of Involvement	Tick as many as are applicable
Interviews conducted by MVP staff	
Questionnaires administered by MVP staff	
Meetings with MVP staff	
Seminar, campaign, etc. by MVP staff	
Focus group discussion with MVP staff	
Contribution (labour, land, farm produce, property, money, ideas, etc.)	
Household visitation by MVP staff	

21. i. Was any aspect of the MVP intervention in Pampaida imposed on you without your consent? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].

ii. If Yes, identify which of the following was imposed on you in the table below.

MVP Intervention	Tick as many as are applicable
Agriculture/food production	
Water supply	
Health and medicine	
Education and schools	
Infrastructural development	
Business development	
Environmental sustainability	
Sanitation	
Improved feeding	
Telecommunications network	

Veterinary services	
Computer and ICT	

22. i. Was there any outcome of the MVP intervention that affected you negatively? (a) Yes (b) No .
- ii. If *Yes*, how were you affected negatively? (a) Loss of property (b) Exposure to risk and fraud (c) Introduction of vices and harmful practices or lifestyles (d) Not sure
- iii. If *Yes* (i) above, who do you think was responsible for the negative outcome? (a) MVP field staff (b) The community people (c) The government (d) Not sure

Factors that Influenced Participation

23. Do you think that the MVP intervention in Pampaida was put in place for your good? (a) Yes (b) No .
24. What were your reasons for participating in the MVP intervention in Pampaida? (Tick according to the degree of your agreement in the table below)

Reasons for participation	Tick according to the Degree of Agreement				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not sure
Personal benefit					
Household benefit					
Occupational benefit					
Community benefit					

25. Which of the following MVP intervention did you or your household, your occupation or village benefit from? (Tick in the table below)

MVP Intervention	Tick against Direct Beneficiary			
	Myself	My household members	My occupation	My village
Agriculture/food production				
Water supply				
Health and medicine				
Education and schools				
Infrastructural development				

Business development				
Environmental sustainability				
Sanitation				
Improved feeding				
Telecommunications network				
Veterinary services				
Computer and ICT				

Challenges in the MVP Intervention

26. i. Did you co-operate willingly with the UNDP staff in the process of implementing the MVP intervention in Pampaida? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *No*, what was the reason for your unwillingness to co-operate? **(a)** Personal and domestic reasons [] **(b)** Religious and cultural reasons [] **(c)** Occupational reasons [] **(d)** Not sure []
27. i. Has there been any deliberate change or attempt to change in any aspects of your culture or religion as a result of the MVP in Pampaida? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *Yes*, what is the nature of the change? **(a)** Introduction of new cultural and religious beliefs [] **(b)** Condemnation of existing cultural and religious beliefs [] **(c)** Modification of existing cultural and religious beliefs [] **(d)** Not sure []
28. i. Were you comfortable with the necessary changes in your personal and communal lifestyles and habits as a result of the MVP intervention in Pampaida? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *No*, did you raise personal objections to the changes? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- iii. If *Yes* (ii) above, was your objection respected? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No []
29. i. Is there any aspect of the MVP you refused to participate in? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *Yes*, why did you refuse to participate? **(a)** I was uncertainty and fearful about expected outcomes [] **(b)** I was misled about facts [] **(c)** Cumbersome demands of participation [] **(d)** Not sure []
30. i. Have you had any problems, disagreements or conflicts with UNDP staff at any point in the course of the MVP intervention? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *Yes*, what was the cause of the disagreement? **(a)** Lack of respect to my opinion and idea [] **(b)** They were fraudulent and corrupt [] **(c)** They are troublesome and wicked [] **(d)** Not sure [].
31. i. Have you ever opposed any aspect of the MVP project for any reasons? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *Yes*, what was the reason for opposing that aspect of the MVP intervention? **(a)** It had negative outcomes [] **(b)** It was useless [] **(c)** It was contrary to my expectations [] **(d)** Not sure [].

32. i. Have you had any fears about any aspect of the MVP intervention in Pampaida? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *Yes*, what was your fear about that aspect of the MVP intervention? **(a)** It would produce negative outcomes [] **(b)** It would affect my religious and cultural beliefs [] **(c)** It would lead to loss of properties [] **(d)** Not sure [].
- iii. Did any of your fears about the MVP intervention come to pass? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
33. i. Are there things you expected to be realised as a result of the MVP intervention but they were not realised? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
- ii. If *Yes*, why was the expectation not realised? **(a)** Faulty implementation plan [] **(b)** Ineffective performance of MVP staff [] **(c)** Lack of resources needed [] **(d)** Not sure []
34. Would you recommend the MVP approach to the Government for achieving integrated development to other villages elsewhere? **(a)** Yes [] **(b)** No [].
35. What would you say about the MVP intervention in Pampaida generally? **(a)** The MVP intervention is useful for achieving development [] **(b)** The MVP intervention is *not* useful for achieving development [] **(c)** The MVP intervention is a hindrance to achieving development [] **(d)** No comment [].
36. What can be done to improve the MVP intervention in Pampaida? **(a)** Increase funding [] **(b)** Improve MVP staff quantity and quality [] **(c)** Intensify enlightenment/awareness in community [] **(d)** Not sure.

THANK YOU

APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY ZARIA,
NIGERIA

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE TOPIC:

“THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BENEFICIARIES’ PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIOURS IN PARTICIPATORY PROJECTS: LESSONS FROM THE PAMPAIDA MILLENNIUM VILLAGES PROJECT OF THE UNDP (2006-2011)”

1. What was the purpose of the MVP community entry process (CEP) or pre-intervention?
2. How effective do you think the community entry process (CEP)/pre-intervention was in achieving that intended purpose?
3. Were there initial benefits that accrued to the local participants of the MVP pre-intervention? (a) Yes [] (b) No []. Give examples.
4. Do you think the pre-intervention helped in giving the UNDP a good image, and the MVP intervention acceptance, in the eyes of the people? (a) Yes [] (b) No []. If Yes, how?
5. How will you assess the participation of the local people in the MVP intervention?
6. Do you think the beneficiaries had some expectations of benefits at the inception of the MVP intervention? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].
7. How did those expectations come to be formed among the beneficiaries? What role did the MVP pre-intervention play in the formation of those expectations?
8. Do you think the beneficiaries participated in the MVP intervention because they expected some benefits from it? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].
9. Do you think that their expectations are presently being satisfied through the MVP intervention? (a) Yes [] (b) No [].
10. Were there any problems that emerged from the beneficiaries in the course the MVP intervention? (a) Yes [] (b) No [] Give examples.
11. What do you think were the causes of these problems?
12. Do you think that these problems reflect the reactions of the people to what they judged or perceived about the UNDP and/or the MVP intervention sectors to be unexpected, undesirable, unacceptable or negative? (a) Yes [] (b) No []. Give reason for your answer.
13. Have the respondents accused the UNDP staff of poor performance and/or corruption? (a) Yes [] (b) No []. If Yes, what was the reason for the accusation?
14. What are you doing to minimise beneficiary-related challenges in the MVP intervention sectors? In your opinion, what aspect of the MVP intervention needs to be improved upon, and how?

APPENDIX III

LIST OF MVP STAFF INTERVIEWED

1. Dr. Clement Woje (Health Co-ordinator) – 28/10/2013
2. Mrs. Hauwa Dutse (Gender and Infrastructure Co-ordinator) – 28/10/2013
3. Mr. Jerry Zoe Odey (Data Clerk) – 04/11/2013