

**INVESTIGATING PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA AND
NIGERIA: A CASE STUDY OF STELLENBOSCH AND BWARI
MUNICIPALITIES**

BY

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative case-study investigated the level of communities' participation in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level in Stellenbosch and Bwari municipalities. This was carried out through the prism of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) using Kayamandi and Bwari communities in South Africa and Nigeria as case studies respectively.

In this study, the participatory development approach was employed as the theoretical bedrock for this investigation. In choosing this approach, the genealogy of participatory development approach was examined in light of the failure of some of the earlier development theories such as the growth, modernization, and dependency theories.

A purposive sampling technique was engaged to select the study States and case studies (Yin, 2003). The primary data sources were semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observation. Journal articles, published working papers about participatory development, project documents, and the official websites of the IDP and CSDP form secondary data sources. The thematic content analysis was engaged to reduce and analyze the large amount of data collected primarily. Data collected from secondary sources were added to the ones gathered using semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and observatory research.

The study findings showed that the IDP did not employ any of the participatory approaches in its drive toward achieving grassroots development in the Kayamandi community. The resultant effect of this is a low level of participation, which was obvious in the data. On the other hand, the CSDP engaged the participatory rural appraisal (PRA) as its participatory development approach to achieving grassroots development in the Bwari community. The study revealed that both staff of the IDP and CSDP seem not to have formal knowledge of participatory development. A high level of participation was observed in the CSDP case while a low level of participation was obvious in the case of the IDP. Both study participants displayed a strong willingness to participate in development initiatives in their various communities. Eleven factors that could influence communities' level of participation at the grassroots level in South Africa and Nigeria were identified. Interestingly, a high level of women's participation was clearly displayed in the data from both cases. Finally, the study also revealed eleven ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced in both countries.

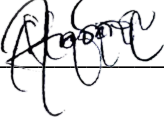
Keywords: Participatory development, Stellenbosch, Bwari, municipality, Integrated Development Plan, Kayamandi, Community, and Social Development Project.

DECLARATION

I declare, excluding where I have made clear references to the works of other authors, that *Investigating participatory development in South Africa and Nigeria: a case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari municipalities* is a product of my own knowledge and has not been handed in for any other degree or examination in any other institution.

Name: ALAJI FRIDAY

Date: 16.03.2023

Signature: 



DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to God almighty: the giver of life, knowledge, and wisdom. "For from Him and through Him and to Him are all things. To Him be the glory forever! Amen" (Romans 11:36). This work is also dedicated to my late father, *Alaji Ogboji*, and mother *Enechojo Alaji*, who showed me the road to school, went through thick and thin and made sure I never returned until I got to this peak! Dad, you live right in my heart, and Mom, there are no words to describe what you mean to me. Thank you for loving and believing in me. The support that I have received from my only brother is immeasurable. The good wishes from my sisters never stopped flowing in. I, therefore, dedicate this work to my whole family.



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I want to express my sincere gratitude to God for giving me the grace and opportunity to have an education. This journey is only possible because of His mercies through several persons He sent my way to assist me. To Him alone, I dedicate this work and my whole life to the service of humanity.

It is my pleasure to acknowledge and thank everyone who has contributed to the success of this study in one way or the other. However, it is not possible to make mention of everyone. Please, just know your contribution is greatly valued.

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I am indebted to all the study participants in Kayamandi and Bwari communities in South Africa and Nigeria: the IDP staff of the Stellenbosch municipality and FCT-CSDP staff and others not mentioned here, I cannot thank you enough for sharing your time, experiences, and perceptions with me during this study. Besides the data collected, I fetched from your indigenous knowledge and wisdom. I learned a lot from you all that this thesis cannot capture. You are greatly valued!

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

IDP - Integrated Development Plan

CSDP - Community and Social Development Project

FCT - Federal Capital Territory

SA – South Africa

NG – Nigeria

PRA - Participatory Rural Appraisal

NGO - Non-Governmental Organization

RSA - Republic of South Africa

NPC - National Planning Commission

CDD - Community-Driven Development

CBO - Community-Based Organization



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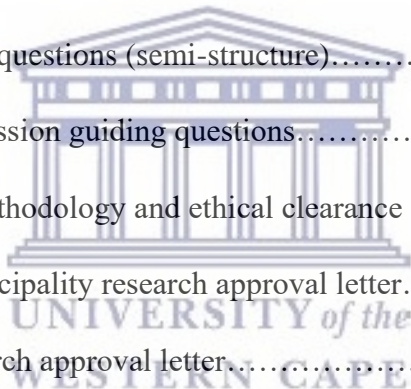
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Chapter One

Introduction

Participatory development in Africa and the need for case study-based research on participation for the development of participatory democracy

1.0 Study background

In recent times, development agencies and governments across the world have changed focus from conventional economics-based approaches to development to a more inclusive approach that is people-centered. This has become known as the participatory approach to development. Participation as an approach to development has been in practice since the early 1970s (Ara et al., 2018). This change in focus, according to Stein and Harper (2000) is attributed to criticisms of the conventional approaches to development in both theory and practice. The shift entailed moving from a bureaucratic and hierarchical perspective to a more democratic, and community-driven view of development. Participatory development allows communities to contribute to developmental initiatives that have a direct bearing on their lives. Since the 1970s, the notion of participation has become widely acknowledged as a critical component of development programming (Danquah, Analoui, and Koomson, 2018).

The reason for the emergence of the participatory approach is to respond to recent global demands for greater individual and social control over the activities of the state, and especially to correct failures of the traditional top-down economics-based approach to development (Brett, 2003, as cited in Danquah et al. 2018). The top-down strategy is linked to adjustments brought about by global forces, such as directives from financial institutions (the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank) and encouragement to utilize specific expertise and technologies (Gao, 2016). Experts argue that the top-down approach to development had led to an increase in the socioeconomic gap in most countries of the world (Friedmann, et al., 1992). Experts then realized that with the results of the traditional approach to development, there are varieties of policy choices to ensure development amongst communities (Kotval, 2006). Development organizations acknowledge that major development projects had failed because communities were not involved in their policy formulation or implementation (Rahnema, 1992). Since the early 1970s, these organizations (World Bank, International Labour Organization, and United Nations Development Programme, as well as many bilateral aid agencies), began searching for an alternative, a more demand-driven approach that is

people-centered (Brohman, 1996). At this point, it is evident that without community participation, the development providers would not understand what exactly the communities need and what their priorities are (Willis 2005).

When alternative development theories emerged in the 1970s, they recognized the people as their own change agents and history creators (Stein and Harper, 2000). Thus, making participation as one of the tools of particularly grassroots economic empowerment strategies (Brohman, 1996). The participatory approach posits that persistent poverty, as well as inappropriate and unsustainable development programmes, are the outcomes of top-down planning and sidelining of communities at the grassroots level in the entire process of development (Mosse, 2001). Participatory development emerged as a result of the recognition and realization of the defects of the top-down development approaches (Cooke and Kothari, 2001).

Participatory approaches argue for communities' inclusion in policies and their implementation that will affect them as a whole being especially their standard of living (Adani, 2017). There is an understanding at all levels of international, governmental, and non-governmental organizations that the absence of an active, effective, and long-lasting participation of the projects' intended beneficiaries is the primary cause of many development projects' failures in the past and present (Danquah, Analoui, and Koomson, 2018). It is therefore not surprising that development agencies developed the idea of participatory development to increase the efficacy, efficiency, sustainability, and promotion of stakeholder capacity, self-reliance, and empowerment (Kart, 2000; OECD, 1995; Narayan, 1995).

Many development experts and professionals have highlighted the importance of participation in development. For instance, the World Bank research from 1999 revealed that involvement encourages ownership, draws attention to human rights issues over the long term, increases the sustainability of development programs, and encourages learning and a results-based approach (Al-Hardallu, 2001; World Bank, 1999; Brohman, 1996). Some conditions are found to be necessary for enhancing participation, such as democratization, decentralization, building confidence among various actors, readiness to share power, and access to assets and rights (Mathur, 1995, Brohman, 1996). These days, the participation debate has been enlarged to incorporate governance issues. This is accompanied by the emergence of the participatory

citizenship concept, which links participation in the political, community, and social spheres (Gaventa, 2004). Kumar (1994) explains that the debate about participation in the 1980s had focused on various areas of concern: the new movement stressed the need for self-reliance as well as ecological, gender, human rights, world peace, self-determination, and democratization. Schneider and Libercier (1995) affirm that participation should be the focus of all development efforts, through the adjustment of conventional approaches and methodologies, by establishing new relationships that would view people as builders of their destinies. Seen through a policy lens, participation beneficiaries can influence a development project's direction and execution in order to improve their well-being in terms of income, personal development, self-reliance, or other values they cherish (Paul, 1987).

The practice of participatory development has come under growing pressure from critics too (Gaventa, 2004; Waddington and Mohan, 2004; Kothari and Minogue, 2002). Numerous difficulties with community mobilization, capacity building, planning, collaborations, and sustainability were noted as obstacles to participatory development. Kelly and Caputo (2006:234) propose that more focus be placed on the function of government and non-governmental organizations in order to overcome these limitations. In addition to its global recognition and relevance, the views and insights relating to its mode of implementation, purpose, nature, and scope of people's inclusion in developmental projects have remained unclear, thereby affecting its impact on development programmes (Gaventa, 2004; Hickey and Mohan, 2004; Cooke and Kothari, 2001; Thomas, 1994).

Many pieces of literature reveal that there are deviations in claims and results from the use of participatory approaches. According to Kapoor & Jordan (2009), researchers realize that participation has often been co-opted into secretly advancing the neoliberal agendas instead of being used in its raw sense, as a mechanism to escape the neoliberalist trap. Cleaver (2000) points out flaws in the participatory bottom-up approach by bringing to the forefront some undisputed norms upon which the model is based. Cleaver points to the lack of adequate evidence to back the lofty claims of empowerment and democratization. In 1999, the same researcher stresses the fact that there is a need for rigorous work and a more complex understanding of issues of efficiency and empowerment in participatory approaches. Hickey and Mohan (2005) reemphasize Cleaver's position by implicating the approach's lack of underlying theoretical framework and the unavailability of the necessary tools to examine

participation. There is still no empirical evidence to demonstrate the “long-term effects of participation in materially improving the conditions of the most vulnerable people or as a strategy for social change” (Cleaver, 2001:32). Cooke (2001) posits that the participatory approach has the ability in itself to greatly distort community development efforts because of the unavoidability of the negative sides of group dynamics. Gaventa and Cornwall (2008) go even further, by employing participatory approaches for the developmental initiative at the grassroots level, there is a tendency to reduce local knowledge to a single category without considering the variety of people’s perspectives at the grassroots. Mosse (2001) warns that when using participatory approaches, if not carefully, it could easily be skewed against the people i.e., the methods can give preference and/or support the views and expectations of the powerful within the community, while further ignoring and marginalizing those with little or no voice within the same community. Noel also indicates that “participatory development can be a manipulative tool to engage people in a pre-determined process, an expedient way to achieve results, or an attempt to support a democratic, empowering (Noel, 1998:1).

In a local-level community participation study conducted; Roodt argues that in using participatory development; very limited successes have been achieved (Roodt, 2001). He attached this near-failure to the challenges faced in trying to address structural, economic, and social problems at the grass-root level. Kolavalli and Kerr (2002) point to a lack of transparency and accountability as the characteristics of community participation in grassroots projects in India. To Cleaver (1999), even with over a decade of rigorous debate on the difficulties faced by participatory development, very little input has been added to explore its original claim: that it serves to promote the empowerment of communities and individuals.

According to Kapoor (2005), those NGOs that keep to the practice and implementation of participatory development approaches, interpret it with the intent to wheedle beneficiaries not to argue about whatever is being proposed to them by the donors, thereby, involving them in an already determined project of donors, which are strange to the people. Kapoor (2005) calls it the new tyranny in the development practice. Participation could also be used to front the loop-back implementation of the externally driven and expert-driven approaches to development, which is also called the top-down approach (Kapoor, 2005).

It merely offers different ways to include the poor in the projects of major organizations that continue to be virtually unaccountable to those they are supposed to assist. In other words,

participation is only a different way to advance the old top-down development agenda while creating the illusion that a more inclusive project is being implemented that will empower the poor and the excluded (Cooke and Kothari, 2001).

In trying to circumvent these challenges, Kelly and Caputo (2006) suggest that greater attention should be directed toward the role of government and non-governmental agencies. This is because the so-called beneficiaries do not have the privilege to contribute and make decisions about developmental initiatives that concern or affect their lives. However, a lot of work still needs to be done for the process to become more successful, especially in areas like participatory fora, mobilization, transparency, capacity building, sustainability, and accountability (Cooke & Kothari 2001). In addition, citizens and communities are typically invited to participate in structures like ward committees, IDP representative forums, and other consultative mechanisms (Cornwall and Gaventa, 2000) in the local municipality, the existing participatory mechanisms in local government are effectively "invited spaces" (Adani, 2017).

Cornwall defines 'invited spaces' as "those into which people (as users, citizens or beneficiaries) are invited to participate by various kinds of authorities, be they government, supranational agencies or non-governmental organisations" (Cornwall, 2002: 24). These stand in contrast with 'claimed spaces' (Thompson, 2014; Thompson and Wet, 2018) that individuals create for themselves. Citizens are invited to participate and provide feedback for planning or decision-making processes in "invited spaces", which are often top-down and state-led in the context of local governance. (GGLN 2012; Escobar 2011; Cornwall 2008).

Therefore, an in-depth and useful discussion on the meanings of participation requires a context (Mosse, 2001), and for this reason, two participatory projects; the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) in South Africa and Nigeria were purposively selected as policy framings for the case studies this research will explore.

1.1 Unpacking the relevance of participatory development

1.1.1 Integrated Development Plans (IDP)

The participation of citizens in the local planning processes of developmental initiatives has become paramount to changing the role played by local government in South Africa since 1994 (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2014). Several legislative frameworks support the inclusion and participation of citizens in grassroots governance and policy design as it affects them. This

approach makes the citizens at the local government level the center of attraction in terms of community development initiatives (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2014). Inclusion and participation help to build the skills and capacities of the communities at the local level hence, the introduction and adoption of the Integrated Development Plan became important. At this point, participation could be seen as a prerequisite for good governance at the local government level and essential to IDP if it must achieve its set goals and objectives.

In 1996, the South African government adopted a developmental approach to local government (RSA, 1998) as quoted in (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2014). The national, as well as provincial spheres of government, must assist municipalities in performing constitutional functions, by providing financial and human resources in the form of troubleshooters to municipalities that perform poorly (Reddy and Moodley, 2003). South Africa's post-apartheid government entrusted the delivery of some services to its third-tier government, which is the closest arm of government to people at the grassroots. Guided by the 1996 Constitution, local municipalities are required to render basic services and to address existing backlogs that have accumulated over years of separate development. For this reason, instruments such as the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) have been adopted to enhance the local municipality's delivery of such services (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2014).

The nature of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is cooperative and participatory, this makes it possible for direct policy inputs from the communities and other stakeholders. David (2005) posits that it is the need for people's inclusion in developmental projects that concern them, which brings about the popularity of community or public participation. Dlamini 2018 states that the purpose of the IDP is to ensure that resources available to the municipality are directed at the delivery of projects and programmes to meet agreed development priorities. An IDP is a vital tool that ensures that the projects identified and carried out by the municipality are actually reflective of the needs of the community. In other words, the project should address the people's needs because the people themselves have identified them. The IDP policy framing (IDP, Fourth Gen. 2017-2022), therefore, emphasizes that there should be participation from all relevant stakeholders in the planning processes of a municipality. In policy terms, participation as a requirement in municipal planning processes is at the center of developmental local government (RSA, 1996). The Public Service Commission (PSC) states that inclusiveness

is a tool for deepening democracy and increasing social cohesion between the people and government, specifically in the provision of durable services (PSC: 2008 in Ntlabezo 2013).

The IDP in South Africa has evolved over the years since its adoption in the year 2000 with many definitions from different scholars. It will be of theoretical and practical importance to flashback on some of its definitions as this will bring to the fore why the all-inclusive approach is central to achieving its developmental goals and objectives which is not only limited to participation (Binns & Nell, 2002).

In the quest to define the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) in the framework of South Africa, Binns, and Nel, take us back to the proposed definition put forward by the South Africa Forum for Effective Planning and Development (FEPD) in 1995. The Forum sees the IDP as

“a participatory approach to integrate economic, sectoral, spatial, social, institutional, environmental and fiscal strategies to support the optimal allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographical areas and across the population in a manner that provides sustainable growth, equity and the empowerment of the poor and the marginalized” (FEPD, Inde1995).

To Sowman and Brown (2006), the IDP in South Africa is a key strategic planning instrument, which directs the planning, and development, advises budgeting, and manages decisions throughout the project life (five years) at the local levels. Todes (2004) states that the vital role of IDP is its contribution to sustainable development. Todes also points out that, the IDP process is a systemic method, which brings together both the socio-economic and ecological dimensions in grassroots development. To Theron (2005), the IDP takes precedence over any other grassroots development plan. His definition of the IDP supports the structure of the South African legislative framework that oversees the approval and implementation of any developmental plan at the grass-root level. That is, any developmental initiative that is to be carried out at the grassroots level must not happen or take place outside the drafted IDP plan for the particular municipality in that period. In this case, the IDP is seen as a source of participation for the community at the grassroots level. Again, it is also the major convener of development and sustainable development at the grass-root level in South Africa.

Todes (2004) lays more emphasis on the multi-sectoral, integrated, and all-inclusive approaches for planning in post-apartheid South Africa. These approaches are to integrate both

local and regional development with creative forms of governance that are built on the bottom-up approach in a decentralized setting. It is obvious that the all-inclusive or bottom-up approach to development is seen to be the driver of the IDP in South Africa.

Apart from the IDP, other development providers in South Africa have adopted the idea of participatory development after the demise of the apartheid regime (Davids et al. 2009). This is to correct the artificial, physical, social, and economic inequalities created by the then-apartheid system. In as much as this approach to development has been accepted in the analysis of development, in practice, participatory development implementation is marred with challenges. Experts have ascribed this to the notion that participatory development is understood in various ways by many organizations and private individuals which has resulted in it being practiced in various ways (Pijnenburg & Nhantumbo, 2002).

According to the Good Governance Learning Network (GGLN) (2015), the IDP has not been able to support the citizenry and social activism. It has also failed in supporting responsive planning and responsible implementation. The reasons for these failures are complex and are not the same in all municipalities or local government areas. Pauw (2009) suggests that to make sure that people are encouraged to participate in the IDP, a better structure for participation is expected from the municipality. Within the area of the municipality, ward committees should be set up. Furthermore, the author proposes that the IDP representative forum must comprise all ward committees in a municipality and the forum should be the watchdog to oversee the implementation of the IDP. The GGLN (2015) disagrees and argues that municipal councils did not only neglect the ward committees and their yearnings, but also the ward committees were not given access to data or information they need to get ready before the time for these gatherings. They do not have the kind of information they need to contribute during the gatherings about matters that affect the masses at the grassroots level that they represent. Pauw (2009) again proposes that the IDP representative forum meeting should be made a must for councilors and the IDP committee. Afesis-Corplan (2013) counterbalances this and makes it clear that the ward committees are politicized, and this is due to the tussle for access to power and other assets within the ward committee. These disappointments have affected the trust the communities have in the IDP, and they have lost hope in the idea that the government is built on the will of the people (Adani, 2017).

According to Coetzee (2012), despite several efforts that have been made to familiarize peoples' participation within the policy frameworks to make it a vital tool, participation in the planning process is still largely ignored. When it comes to public participation in planning in sectors like energy, agriculture, housing, and rural economic development, municipalities only call for participation on an ad-hoc basis (Coetzee, 2012). Due to how difficult it is for people to attend, only a select few are able to participate in the meetings where specific sector strategies are produced (Afesis-Corplan, 2013). Participation is distorted because meetings do not conform to any systematic and sequential planning and appraisal process. Venter (2004) advocates for municipalities to set up forums through the development process where it will be possible and easy for the citizens to contribute structurally, constructively, and meaningfully. As such, the council will reap the benefits, as it will have the platform to spread the information to the public. Afesis-Corplan (2013) again, argues that municipalities lack project management system skills. So, this makes it difficult for ordinary people to be part of and see how the IDP processes are being implemented. The people could not partake in the IDP processes because, most times, they do not have the kind of information they need to decide on their own. If the IDP does not create room purposefully for communities' participation in its processes, all drive in trying to make sure that planning takes into account the communities' needs first will become fruitless (Adani, 2017). The annual appraisal exercise of the IDP has become nothing but a routine task without meaning (Afesis-corplan, 2014). Davids et al., (2009) posit that poverty can only reduce when the vulnerable and poorest of the poor are allowed to drive (lead) the process in developmental projects at the grassroots level. This is because it concerns them and has a direct bearing on their daily lives.

1.1.2 Community and Social Development Projects (CSDP)

According to Collier (2007), there has been a decrease in the percentage of people in abject poverty internationally for close to three decades now. However, in Africa, the reverse is the case. Tackling poverty and dragging down the effect on the African continent requires unique strategies, as poverty in the African context is different from others. The same author posits that low-income countries seem to be having an increase in growth but the battle before them is how to diffuse growth. In addition, in middle-income countries, if wealth is redistributed properly, it could reduce absolute poverty. Collier and Gunning (1999) point out that the scenario is eye-catching in Africa because the majority of the populace lives at the grassroots level. Diamond (1999) nods in the affirmative and says poor people, particularly those living

in grassroots areas whose major source of livelihood is agriculture and who live within the tropics have to battle tougher conditions than others.

The past regimes had made several efforts to increase the standard of living at the grassroots level in Nigeria by providing basic social amenities but the grassroots situation has not changed. Instead, the conditions have worsened. According to Chigbo (2001), the majority of grassroots intervention projects were not successful due to defects in project objectives and aims, fraud, and the lack of proper funding. Adagba (2002) reminds us of square pegs in round-hole projects. That, majority of the developmental initiatives were not the decisions of the citizens, i.e., projects were outrightly forced on the people without consultation, engagement, and inclusion.

The social and economic situation at the grassroots level in Nigeria is problematic. Nnoli (1993) acknowledges that development in Nigeria has been in a bad state because civil societies are not included. The government and other development providers and donor agencies who implemented projects and programmes later realized that although they had good motives in their development drive the projects lack people's participation (Nnoli, 1993). Therefore, the outcome did not match the actual needs of the people (Okafor, 2011). The 1970s failure of the World Bank-funded project in Agriculture, that of the River Basin Developmental Initiative funded by the National Government, amongst other projects that aimed at transforming the grassroots, failed to create a positive impact in Nigeria (Okafor, 2011). This is despite the enormous funds channeled into the initiative. Muoghalu (1992) posits that the non-existence of infrastructural facilities, social amenities, and human capital development in the majority of the rural areas in Nigeria, is indicative of the weak and ineffective nature of programmes and schemes. The high rate of rural-urban shift or migration and the continuous deteriorating grassroots situations are clear signs of long years of neglect of these areas (Abbass, 2012; Adetoye, 2016).

To curb and find a solution to the issue of inadequate development at the grassroots level on the continent of Africa, many developmental programmes have been designed and executed by both military and civilian governments of many African countries with a focus on the grassroots. In Nigeria, some such efforts, according to Ofoh (2008) have been the following: the National Accelerated Food Production Project (NAFPP) 1972, Operation Feed the Nation

(OFN) 1975, River Basin Development Authority (RBDA) 1978, Green Revolution (GR) 1980, and the Directorate for Food, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure DFRRRI (1986). Others are Better Life for Rural Women (1987), the Fadama Development Programme (1990), the Nigeria Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) 1991, National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) 2001, and Special Programme on Food Security (SPFS) 2002. Finally, National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) 2003, and the Local Economic and Environmental Empowerment Programme (LEEMP) 2003 which has metamorphosed into the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP). The CSDP culminated from the best practices of LEEMP's implementation strategy between 2003-2009 (CSDP PIM, 2011).

According to Ofoh (2008), the supply-driven (top-down) approach was the major reason for the failure of most of the previous developmental programmes. Dongier (2004) conducted a study and found out that policies that are geared toward encouraging national economic competitiveness and state-owned public investment programmes are vital but not enough to reduce poverty, especially on a large scale. The major challenge facing grassroots development where poverty is rampant is that the government becomes slow to deliver the basic social amenities to the grassroots populace and the means it employs to reach the poor are usually not productive (Dongier, 2004). The needs and wants of the people are better articulated when they contribute to the costs and have control over investment choices. A lot of the intervention programmes meant to alleviate poverty in third-world countries have not been successful and sustainable due to the supply-driven nature, which usually excludes the community partnership and ownership of the development initiatives (Dongier, 2004).

It is at this point (2009) that the establishment of Community and Social Development Projects (CSDP) became paramount. Therefore, the Nigerian Federal Government collaborated with the World Bank and the CSDP emerged as the new World Bank-supported programme in Nigeria. For effective and efficient service delivery that will create new channels for the poor at the grassroots level to access social infrastructure that will increase their standard of living, the CSDP is expected to continue on the already available structure of LEEMP and CPRP (CSDP PIM, 2011).

The CSDP is a World Bank-supported intervention with a focus on rechanneling government spending to enable the poor people to provide and utilize education, health, water, and other

social services by themselves (NPC, 2004). While the World Bank's Board of Directors approved the credit for the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP, Project) in July 2008, the project took off in its entirety in 2009. However, it was extended until December 2020. In addition, thirty out of thirty-six states of the federation are keyed into the CSDP project while the World Bank provides funds for its operations.

According to Anyanwu (2012), Nigeria has also joined other African countries to embrace the participatory approach to development with an effort towards hastening the entire developmental process. This can be seen in the projects and programmes of development that both government and development providers are carrying out across the country. The Nigerian government has accepted the importance of empowering its citizens to plan and bring about their own development (IFAD, 2012). It also acknowledged that the inclusion of grassroots dwellers in the decision-making process is a strategy by the contemporary government to shield them.

The CSDP was established as a strategy for rapid grassroots development. It is a World Bank-sponsored project in collaboration with the Nigerian federal government and the majority of the State governments, which was based on the Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach. This approach paves the way to bridge the gap of achieving both long- and short-term development policy results at the grassroots level. According to CSDP PAD (2009), it is inclusive, participatory, and based on a bottom-up approach. It aims to tackle developmental challenges and issues of the communities at the grassroots level. It is only through the active participation of the communities and technical assistance from either the government or development providers that sustainable community development can be achieved. The communities are the original owners of the projects so they should have the opportunity to be allowed to take the bulk of the decisions as it concerns project choice, management, execution, and sustainability in their community (CSDP PAD, 2009). This will make it easier for development providers and other parties involved to ascertain policy successes and failures where necessary and to offer a base for constant enhancement of the entire programme.

To achieve the aims of participatory development, project sustainability, effectiveness, and efficiency in development initiatives, especially at the grassroots level, the inclusion, and participation of the citizens or communities in projects cannot be taken for granted. If communities are left out, the project's aims and objectives will not be achieved in all likelihood

(Adani, 2017). This is because participation is now seen as the ideal path to empowering the communities. The communities are aware of their needs, and they can identify and prioritize accordingly (Okafor, 2011).

With the drive for development in Nigeria, the focus has now been shifted to citizens' participation in developmental initiatives. Participation has also been acknowledged as a vital tool, not only for both human and capital resources mobilization but also, for project sustainability when the development provider has withdrawn (Okafor, 2011).

In Nigeria, one of the pillars of the Vision 2020 strategy document of the Nigerian Government is human capital development (Okunlola 2013). According to Akindele (2015), given the high prevalence and increasing level of poverty in the country, there has been provision and protection of basic services for rural and urban poor. This was done as a way of redistributing wealth and ensuring equitable human capital development, which is a major element of the human development pillar of the Nigeria-World Bank Partnership Strategy (Report No. 153873-NG).

The CSDP focuses on an intervention that will effectively target social-environmental infrastructure at the community level as well as improve local government responsibility for service delivery. However, the primary objective of the CSDP is to increase access to poor communities at the grassroots level to social and natural resource infrastructure. (World Bank Report No AC2162). Therefore, the CSDP supports the (i) empowerment of communities to identify, implement, maintain, and use the community social development plan (CDP) to monitor micro-social infrastructure projects including natural resource management interventions. (ii) strengthen the partnership of local government and CSDP on human development and natural resources as it relates to projects (iii) improve the capacity of communities, local government, and federal agencies to implement CDD and monitor the process (CSDP PAD, 2009).

The project comprised the following three components:

1. Coordination and technical support: The Federal government through the Federal Ministry of Finance and specifically the Federal Project Support Unit (FPSU) oversees this component. The State Agency gets its technical support, funds, procurement assistance, M&E support, poverty, and CDD design guide and dissemination from the FPSU

2. Sectoral ministries capacity and partnership building: this component is administered by the State Agencies for States that are part of the CSDP. Some of the State Agency deliverables are providing funds for capacity building, investment to facilitate activities with different groups in the communities
3. Community-driven investment: also, the State Agency runs this component. It was expected that the State Agency would provide funds for CDPs after the selection of the projects, and facilitate a high level of community participation in planning, project identification, and preparation with corresponding counterpart funds from the community (CSDP PAD, 2009).

Within the framework of the strategies of both the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) in South Africa and Nigeria respectively, both governments, through these programmes, are committed to human capital development through the reduction of poverty, communal need identification, citizens and stakeholder's participation in project matters as it concerns them and service delivery. Both governments aimed to increase communities' participation to create a corresponding impact based on communities' felt needs. These projects through the participatory approach, which they both adopted, aimed to support the government's policies and improve the living conditions of the people.

Some of the major differences between the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and the Community and Social Development Project are detailed below (Table 1.1):

S/N	IDP South Africa	CSDP Nigeria
1	Registered presence in all the provinces/states	Registered presence in 30 out of 36 states/provinces
2	Municipalities/local governments as core implementers	Local government/municipalities are not the core implementer but a role player
3	Embedded in the municipalities at the grassroots level with a significant role	Not embedded in Local government/municipalities so, play a less significant role
4	Constitutional backup	No Constitutional backup
5	Communities do not contribute money toward project implementation	Communities contribute (counterpart fund) 10% of the project's total sum towards project implementation
6	The state as a source of project fund	Funded by the World Bank for a specific number of years

Source: Researcher's own Itemization

Table 1.1 Major differences between the IDP and CSDP

The table above shows some of the central differences between the IDP and CSDP. In South Africa, the IDP has been implemented in all the provinces/states, but this is not the same in the case of Nigeria. In Nigeria, states/provinces were given the freedom to choose to either be part of the CSDP or not. This was why CSDP does not cover the entire country. While the municipalities/local government are the core implementers in South Africa, the state/provincial agencies that were established because of the programme have more power and are the core implementers in Nigeria. In Nigeria, the CSDP is not embedded in the local government/municipalities the way it is in South Africa. In addition, the World Bank funds the CSDP programme for a specific period; therefore, it is not engraved in the Nigerian constitution when compared to the IDP in South Africa which has the backup of Section 4 of the Municipal Systems Act (2000). Under the CSDP in Nigeria, communities that identify a project will have to pay 10% of the total project sum (counterpart funds; in cash or kind) while communities in South Africa do not pay any amount towards project implementation.

1.2 Statement of problem

While several studies on the issues of participatory development have been carried out in developed countries as visible from a large amount of literature available, the nitty-gritty of this participatory development in practice is not systematically dealt with in different fieldwork contexts in sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, there was little or no empirical study evidence of participatory development that looked at the context in South Africa and Nigeria side-by-side. While the aim is not to compare the two cases, the ways in which participatory development is applied are investigated in the two policy contexts to get to grips with the dilemmas that have been explored by other analysts as to why communities often do not have the opportunity to participate effectively in participatory development policy processes.

The participatory development approach has indeed become a popular area of analysis since its emergence. The approach has been accepted by several development organizations as a yardstick and a tool to bring about development, but there has been little or no match between its operational processes and expected outcomes. Guijit (1998) describes the relationship between the practice of the participatory development approach and outcomes as rhetoric. This was because the process of participation in development projects was not thoroughly followed, and this makes the outcomes unrealizable. The pilot study conducted revealed that very vital

participatory stages like need identification, design, and project evaluation phases in many development projects were carried out by the development providers alone, thereby leaving out the supposed beneficiaries. Therefore, there was a need to revisit the relationship between the top-down and participatory development approaches and compress the gap for both greater project impact and sustainability.

The idea of participatory development has received much attention from development experts around the globe including sub-Saharan African development scholars (Walter Rodney, 1973; Robert Chambers, 1992; Samin Amin, 1972; Claude Ake, 1996). Yet, in the case of South Africa and Nigeria, the fieldwork context is scanty and to some extent unavailable (Ascroft and Masilela, 1994). Therefore, there is a dearth of scholarly information on the level of communities' participation in development initiatives and the nature of the participatory development approach used by development implementers that adopts the participatory approach.

To date, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, the studies that attempt to comprehensively examine the interface between participatory development and fieldwork-based appraisals of grassroots participation in formal processes are not prolific. While much has been written about the benefits of participatory development, there is less participatory development which is functional in practice due to weak, diluted unconstructive approaches which tend to sideline marginalised communities. Thus, the idea of developing grassroots participation in development planning, policymaking, and decision-sharing has remained a concept that is honored more on paper than in practice (Ascroft and Masilela, 1994: 260). In addition, specific studies point to the gap between analytical frameworks and practice as confirmed by Mohan and Hickey (2004); Gaventa (2004); Kothari and Minogue (2002); Stiglitz (2002); and Thomas (1994), among others. The reasons for the failure of a development project in these two countries are scanty. Furthermore, while existing studies of participatory development at the grassroots in Nigeria and South Africa are in the public domain, often, they do not explain the discrepancies between what is written in the project documents as opposed to the actual realities of community participation in formal development processes (Ako, 2017).

The current digital, print and online media suggest that communities and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are advocating for effective and efficient participation in service delivery at the grassroots level (Angba et al., 2009). This is a clear indication of a lack of

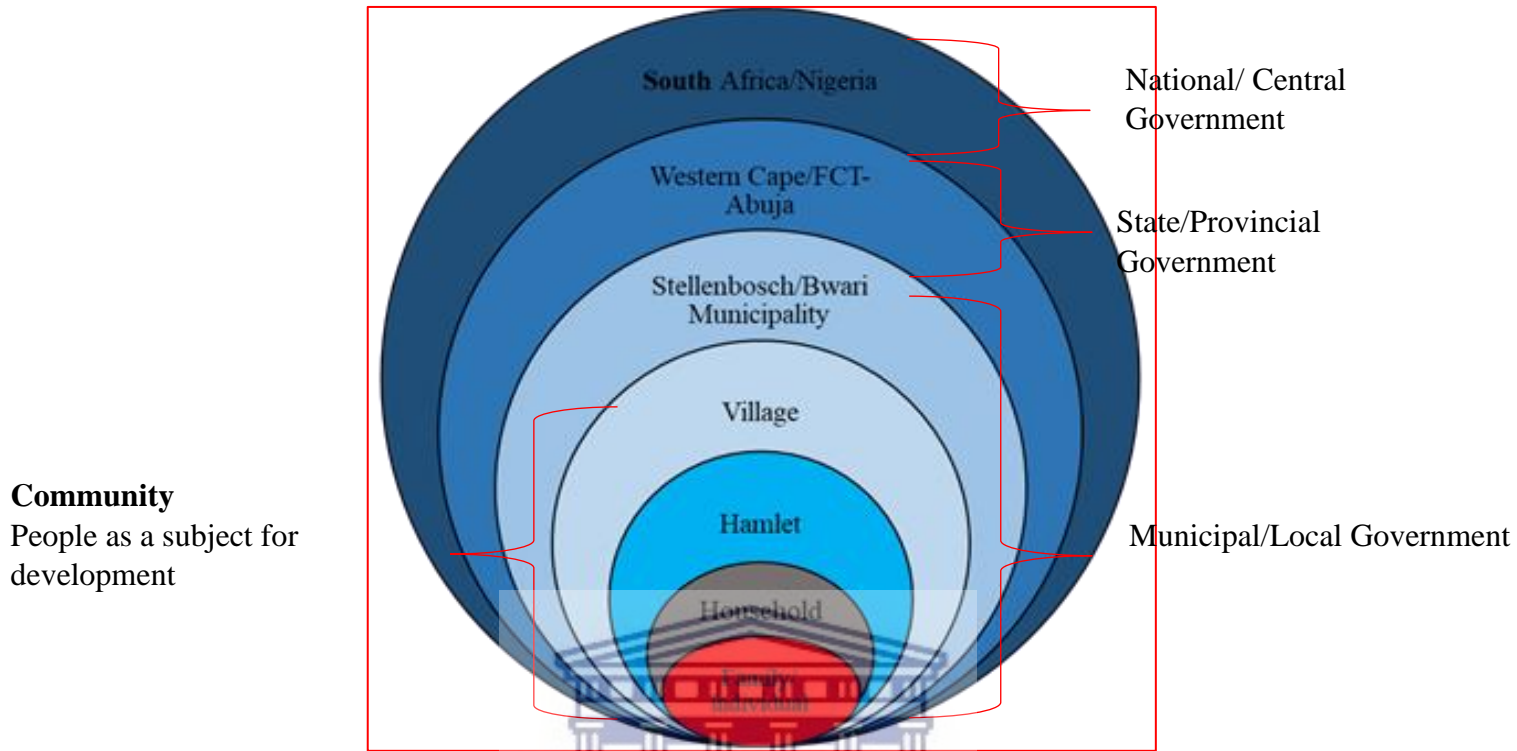
community participation in their own development. So, it becomes very vital to understand the nature of the participatory approach used by project staff and how participatory are developmental initiatives at the grassroots level specifically, through the eye of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) in South Africa and Nigeria respectively.

It was not the intention of this study to look at development or other areas of development and public policy in its entirety theoretically, as these debates are research topics on their own. Thus this study focuses on the key concept of participatory development in both case study areas to illuminate how participatory both projects have been both in policy and practice and to what extent communities were included in both projects. Case studies are useful to unpack complex concepts as practice and this is particularly important in the instance of participatory development processes. An in-depth, multifaceted understanding of a difficult subject in its actual setting is produced through the use of case studies. It is a well-known research strategy that is widely applied in a range of fields, especially the social sciences (Crowe et al., 2011). “The case study approach is particularly useful to employ when there is a need to obtain an in-depth appreciation of an issue, event, or phenomenon of interest, in its natural real-life context” (Crowe et al., 2011:1).

There is consensus in the literature that a successful people-oriented approach must be used to attain development objectives. It was believed that doing this would enable local communities to take control of their own development (Nawal, 2007; World Bank, 1999; Noel, 1998; Schneider and Libercier, 1995). The efficiency argument, which emphasizes generating better project outcomes, and the equality and empowerment argument, which emphasizes strengthening people's ability to improve or change their own lives, both reflect the participatory method. Therefore, this study is relevant, particularly to the contemporary grassroots development challenges facing both South Africa and Nigeria, and Sub-Saharan African countries at large.

1.3 Contextualizing the study communities in their national structures

Kayamandi and Bwari communities meet the definitional requirement of a community in this study. They are both seen as communities at the grassroots level, and they fall within the municipal or local government level which is the focus of grassroots development.



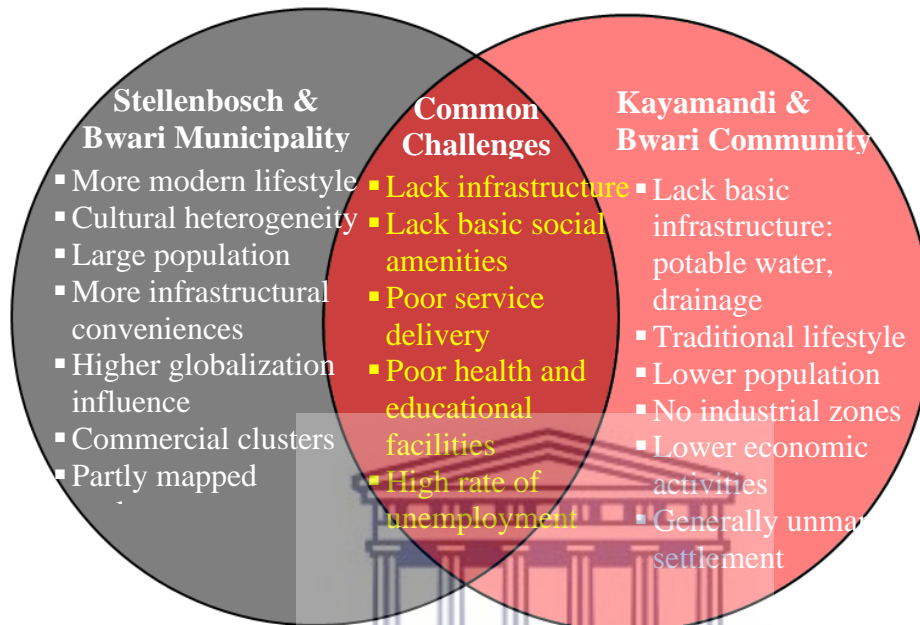
Source: Researcher's own Itemization

Figure 1.1: The diagram above shows Kayamandi and Bwari communities in the national structure of South Africa and Nigeria respectively.

The diagram shows the case study areas, and context, as embedded in the national structural contexts of both countries. It views South Africa and Nigeria as national territories, Western Cape and FCT-Abuja as provinces/states, Stellenbosch, and Bwari as local government areas (municipalities or area councils), and Kayamandi and Bwari as communities (research fields). From a participatory development perspective, the municipalities are the focus of development. In this investigation, Stellenbosch and Bwari municipalities (the focus of development) are home to Kayamandi and Bwari communities (the subject of development). These communities consist of individuals, families, and households. This study emphasized more individuals than families to extract their perceptions, opinions, views, and experience.

1.4 Some features of Kayamandi and Bwari communities as suitable cases for this study

These communities face a lot of challenges ranging from the lack of basic social amenities (potable water, good road, and light), high rate of unemployment, low-income level, high rate of poverty, high crime rate, good governance issues, lack of infrastructure (road, drainage, power), poor health and educational facilities. They also face grassroots challenges such as waste disposal problems, low economic activities, and a lack of non-farm development.



Source: Researcher's own Itemization

Figure 1.2 above shows Kayamandi and Bwari communities and the challenges they share within the municipalities.

Most of the residents depend on land-based livelihood options (David, 2011). Many other communal issues, such as land tenure practices and land access problems are common within these communities. Based on these issues, this research views Kayamandi and Bwari communities as geographically, physically, politically, and socially suitable for this study.

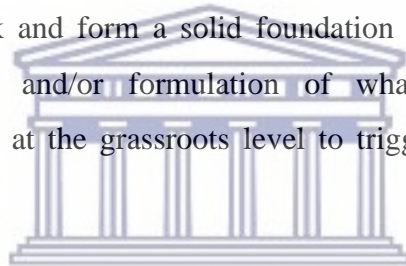
Interestingly, the issues and challenges that were investigated in this research, in many ways, represent the grassroots situation of the majority of communities in South Africa and Nigeria.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study explores the level of knowledge and nature of the participatory approach used by development providers (IDP and CSDP) and the analysis examines the level of communities' participation in developmental projects at the grassroots level and their willingness to

participate in their own development in both South Africa and Nigeria. Furthermore, this investigation aims to identify factors that could influence communities' participation in development projects, appraise women's participation in development initiatives in Kayamandi and Bwari communities, and identified ways through which participatory development targets could be achieved and enhanced.

The results from this study aim to reveal the nature of the approach used by the IDP and CSDP in both South Africa and Nigeria. The analysis brings to the fore the level of project staff knowledge in participatory development, factors that could influence participation, and the willingness of the communities to participate in developmental projects in their respective communities amongst other outcomes. This investigation intends to contribute to the growing literature on participatory grassroots development globally. The practical significance of this study is its contribution to the understanding of participatory development at the grassroots level to enable people-centered development, and to pinpoint common policy dilemmas. The research aims to serve as input for grassroots development policymakers. This study seeks to provide the basis for a rethink and form a solid foundation for development that is more inclusive, policy adjustment, and/or formulation of what participation that enables communities as change agents at the grassroots level to trigger real development (Robyn, 2003).



Most importantly, the results from the study contribute to the scanty scholarly literature in the area of participatory development practices at the implementation level in sub-Saharan Africa, and South Africa and Nigeria to be specific.

1.6 Purpose of the study

Civil society's call for grassroots development, including the provision of basic amenities, and service delivery by the government, has led to the creation of several grassroots development programmes including the IDP and CSDP in both South Africa and Nigeria respectively, warranted the need for an in-depth scientific study on participatory development in both countries. Therefore, this investigation has been carried out to shed more light on the nature of the participatory development approach used by development policy implementers, the municipal level of knowledge of participatory development, the level of civil society participation, and the willingness of the communities to participate in developmental projects.

A further aim is to assess the level of women's participation in developmental initiatives and finally to find ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced.

Participation in developmental initiatives has been central to the developmental drive of governments of different countries and development providers globally and in Africa to be specific. Among the several fora that have recognized the importance of people's participation, especially in Africa was the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation (Arusha, 1990). The adoption of this Charter by the countries that participated has somewhat created an awareness about the importance and need for communities' participation in development in Africa. However, despite this effort to bring participants to the fore, the beneficiary especially at the grassroots level in Africa has still been sidelined from developmental initiatives apart from being faced with other impediments to participation (Okotoni, 2009). Though the idea of participatory development has received much attention from development experts around the globe including sub-Saharan African development scholars (Udo et al., 2015; Okotoni, 2009; Cooke and Kothari, 2001, Chambers, 1992). In the case of South Africa and Nigeria, there is a dearth of scholarly information on the level of communities' participation in development initiatives and the nature of the participatory development approach used by development implementers in a developmental initiative that adopts the participatory approach.

1.7 Research objectives and questions

1.7.1 Research objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

- a. Examine the nature of participatory development approaches used by development implementers at the policy interface at the grassroots level (IDP and CSDP)
- b. Explore grassroots levels of participation and communities' willingness to participate, in other words how participation relates to their perceptions of agency
- c. Identify factors that can influence communities' participation in development projects
- d. Assess grassroots women's participation in development projects
- e. Explore ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced

1.7.2 Research questions

This study is directed by the following central research question: How can the impact of participatory development be enhanced using IDP and CSDP in South Africa and Nigeria as policy frameworks and how do these translate into action at the grassroots?

This generated the following specific sub-questions:

- a. What is the nature of participatory development approaches used by development implementers at the policy interface at the grassroots level (IDP and CSDP)?
- b. To what extent are the level of grassroots participation and the willingness to participate in development projects?
- c. What are the factors that can influence communities' participation in development projects?
- d. What is the level of grassroots women's participation in development projects?
- e. In what ways can participatory development targets be achieved and enhanced?

1.8 Overview of the research methodology

To address the research objectives and questions, this investigation engages the qualitative case-study research design with its methodologies for gathering, processing, and analysing the study data collected. Yin (2003) posits that a case study design becomes vital when the focus of the study is to answer 'how' and 'why' questions. This investigation strategy allows for the use of two-case qualitative methods needed with an in-depth study of the issues surrounding participatory development in these countries. This investigation comprises case study fieldwork undertaken in two townships or communities in South Africa and Nigeria that were purposively identified and selected based on features that are in line with the study objectives.

Despite the fact that Kayamandi township is only a few minutes away from the affluent Stellenbosch and Bwari is only a stone's throw from the prosperous municipal hub, both communities lack infrastructure, parks, and decent eating establishments, shops, and butchers (Jacob, 2016). The majority of people in Kayamandi live in shacks that stink from garbage dumps. This area is devoid of roads and services, and it is inaccessible to service vehicles. This results in unsanitary and filthy conditions. Waste and sewage removal vans, fire engines, and ambulances frequently have difficulty entering these overcrowded zones (Jacob, 2016).

In addition, the selection of these communities is to examine the nature of participatory development approaches used by development implementers, explore grassroots levels of participation and willingness to participate, and identify factors that can influence communities' participation in development projects among other objectives to reveal the views, opinions, and experience of all the study participants.

The qualitative paradigm employs an "array of attitudes and strategies for conducting an inquiry that is aimed at discovering how human beings understand, experience, interpret, and produce the social world" (Sandelowski, 2004) and emphasizes views and opinions instead of using quantification in the collection and analysis of data (Hammersley & Campbell, 2012). However, the case study approach has been criticized for not being able to provide findings that can be generalized. This was why Nieuwenhuis (2007) succinctly argues that case study research is focused on acquiring deeper knowledge and understanding of an event or situation as opposed to being quantifiable.

Qualitative research can be described as research that is centered on collecting descriptive data, communities' views stated verbally, and records of how members behave (Taylor, Bogdan, and DeVault, 2015). Qualitative research is not a rigid process, and inference is one of its merited outcomes (Maxwell, 2012). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) state that it entails studying things in their natural settings, and attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings communities attach to them. Qualitative research is fundamentally interpretive as it explores human experiences and their complexities to understand phenomena and explain human experiences (Rossman and Rallis, 2011). This research approach is suitable for this study because the data collection techniques in qualitative research allow the researcher to seek an understanding of the subject under scrutiny, ask open-ended questions, and allow participants to explain (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015; Creswell, 2013; Maxwell, 2012).

This research design allows for the use of both secondary and primary data collection techniques. Empirical evidence for this study is to be gathered using semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and observation. The semi-structured interviews allow for snowball questioning to get detailed responses to the guiding questions. In addition, the use of informal conversations, and observation are used to gain insight into the issues of participatory development in these communities. Secondary data will be collected through the review of

literature on participatory development, and project documents. Participants are chosen using purposive sampling (Maree, 2007). Fifteen (15) participants from each case study were interviewed. In total, thirty participants were interviewed for this study. Given the primary aim of this study, it is apparent that the qualitative approach would provide rich and deep data and a better understanding of participatory development from the communities' and project staff's standpoint. Detailed information on the research methodology employed in this study has been provided in Chapter 4 of this thesis. The figure below shows a summary of the research design.

Figure 1.3 below shows the summary of the research design for this investigation.



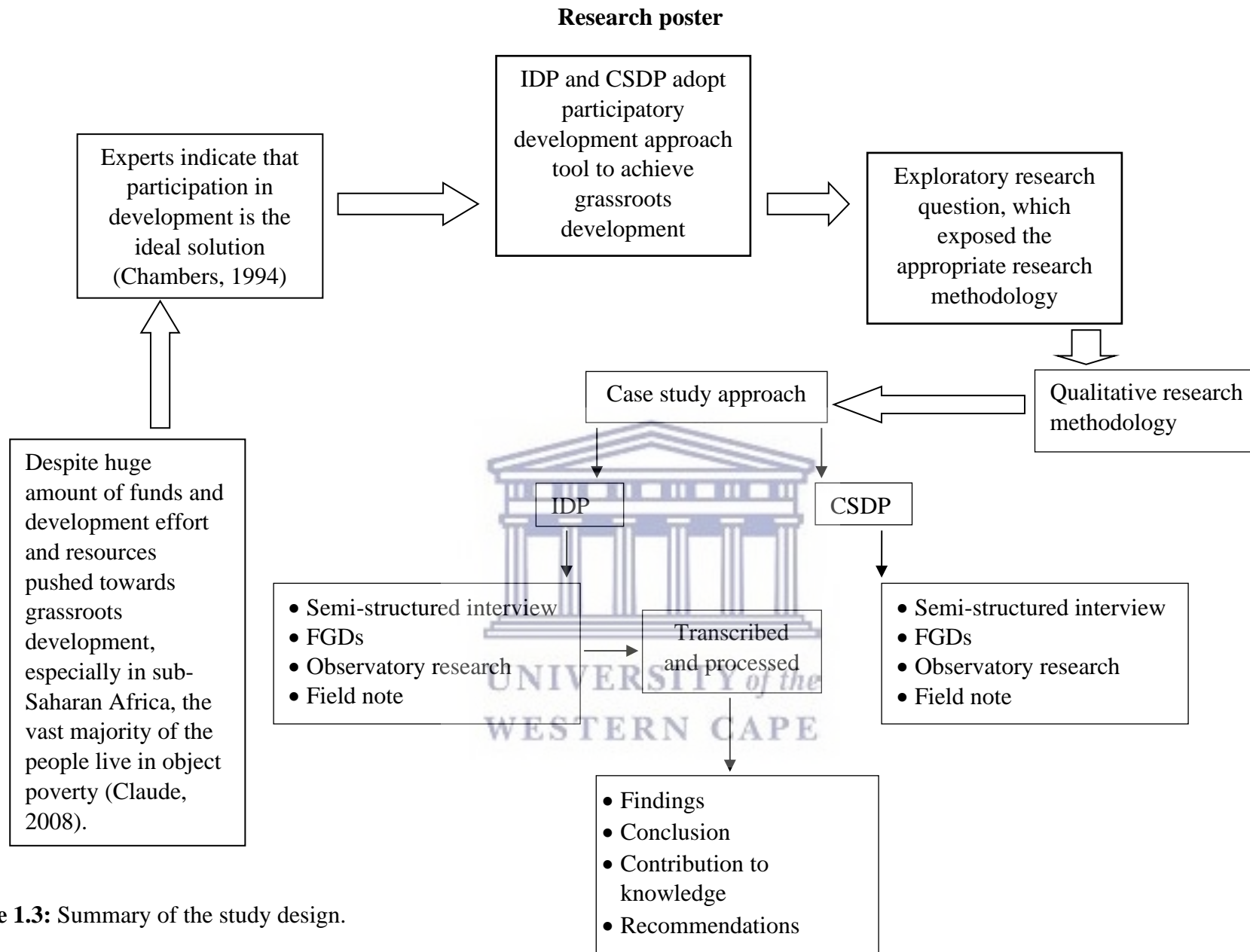


Figure 1.3: Summary of the study design.

1.9 Ethical considerations

To protect study participants and their identities, there are principles that researchers in all disciplines are required to follow in conducting research (Babbie, 1990). Therefore, the University of the Western Cape Ethical Clearance and Guide for conducting research becomes vital for this study. Before proceeding to the field for data gathering, the researcher obtained the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee clearance certificate to carry out this study. Prior to this, the Economics and Management Sciences Faculty Research committees provided research clearance for this study.

To ensure ethical standards were met in the case study investigation the researcher sought permission from the Stellenbosch municipality in the case of South Africa and the Community and Social Development Project in the case of Nigeria. In both cases, permission was granted to the researcher in writing. The information sheet and consent forms are to be given and read aloud to the participants in clear language.

1.10 Structure of the thesis

The thesis comprises seven chapters. This first chapter provided a background to the study by situating participatory development within the global discourse on participatory development as a tool to empower and uplift communities. The chapter unpacks the concept of participatory development within the idea of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and the Community and Social Development Project in South Africa and Nigeria respectively. It states the research problem, study purpose, objectives, questions, and research methodology. In conclusion, it outlines the thesis structure.

Chapter two explores the emergence of participatory development and discussed participatory development analysis as the critical analytical framework for this study. It highlights several definitions of participatory development, examines its concepts, and shows its genealogy. While it explores participatory development as a means and as an end, finally, the chapter reassesses the prospect of participatory development as a developmental tool.

In Chapter three, the study provides an overview of the development context of the case studies; South Africa's and Nigeria's development trajectories. The chapter explores the politics of participatory development and presents an overview of decentralization in Africa and South Africa

and Nigeria. In addition, the chapter highlights the role and impact of development implementers, NGOs, and the issues of gender and participatory development.

Chapter four describes the research methodology and design used. The chapter explores the techniques used in data gathering and how the data is analyzed. This chapter provides details of the study site and participants' selection.

Chapter five presents in detail the study findings from the South African case. In addition, the chapter discusses how these findings are used to address the research questions. This chapter further shows the main findings of this study and how they address the research questions posed by the study.

Chapter six discusses the study findings from the Nigerian case study. It highlights its peculiarity and shows a clearer view of the meaning of each theme generated. In addition, it presents how all the themes are related that eventually leading to the overall outcome of the study. Finally, the chapter shows how these findings were used to address the research questions posed by the study. Chapter seven concludes the thesis with a summary, conclusion, contribution to knowledge, and recommendation for further research.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter of the thesis lays the foundation for the study of participatory development. It provides the background of the study, and the study purpose and unpacks the relevance of participatory development as an approach to understanding the dilemmas of addressing development problems at the grassroots level. While there seems to be an increased acceptance of the participatory approach globally as a tool for unraveling development issues, especially at the grassroots level, there are still gaps between the analytical base and the practice of the concept. This chapter opens up the analytical gap that needs to be filled to enhance the impact of participatory development programs on targeted beneficiaries (communities). In addition, this chapter outlines the study research questions and objectives and gave an overview of how the study is carried out by way of research methodology. The next chapter turns to the genealogy of the participatory development approach and sets the analytical framework for this research. Chapter two highlights the debates on participatory development and critically examines how the approach has become popular as a tool for grassroots development initiatives globally.

Chapter Two

Unpacking the participatory development analytical toolbox

2.1 Introduction

Participatory development is introduced in Chapter one, which also gives the study's context within the larger global debate. The second chapter examines participatory development, a topic of discussion in the development discourse for many years. Through prior development theories, including growth, modernization, and dependence theories, it was possible to identify the origins of participatory development. The use of the participatory development method as the theoretical framework for this research is partially supported by the knowledge and insight gained from the literature on the subject. This was done in an effort to evaluate the current participatory development practices in South Africa and Nigeria. The notion and definition of participatory development are dynamic, as this chapter demonstrates. This research presents the conflict and possible benefits of participatory development as a "means" and an "end." Finally, this chapter examines the potential of participatory development as a tool for development in light of the growing divide between the general populace and the systems of government as well as between participatory development theory and practice.

Participation is now a powerful weapon for empowerment in the hands of many development agencies. Participation has multiple sides, according to Rahnema (1992), and in order to understand it, one must carefully explore all of its implications, which are inextricably tied to the core of interpersonal relationships and the sociocultural settings that influence them. Henkel and Stirrat (2001) say that the idea is based on specific practices and has clear religious overtones. While it is very easy to say that participation is an important component of development, encouraging individuals to participate is neither simple nor easy, claims White (1994). It is necessary to have a participatory capacity, but it must be built to empower people rather than just be seen as a building like a road or a dam (Uphoff, 1991:488). In order to become an arbitrary and ill-defined member of "the community," participation as a habit cannot be imposed on individuals or groups, claims Kumar (1994:76). Instead, it must grow gradually through time. According to Freire (1970), individuals may continue to behave passively and feel alienated even when asked to react differently if they are uninformed of the reasons for their socio-economic problems and lack the capacity to fully engage.

The hurdles preventing disadvantaged or weaker groups from actively engaging in their social and political settings must be recognized in such situations. Stockes (1995) asserts that participation should induce awareness or drive people to "become awake" and aware of their surroundings. Being awake in this context involves being aware of and participating in the social and political choices that are made in their local area and that immediately influence them as a group of individuals. However, if choices are forced upon them by other parties or even the government, they will very certainly be overturned eventually. When people participate in decisions that affect them, they are more likely to accept the results, even if they have a negative effect on people (Stiglitz, 2002).

Although there are many theories of development, the growth, modernization, and dependence theories are some of the most established and well-known conventional theories of development (Coetzee and Graaff, 1996). These ideas have occupied and controlled the development sector and practice in the Global South, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, since the 1950s. It is impossible to overstate the significance of development theories in society (Mahuntu, 2011). This research, however, examines the emergence of the discourse on participatory development from the perspective of the policy discourse on sustainable development, which was created to address significant inequities. The phrase "sustainable development" is now often used interchangeably in discussions about development since it is linked to a variety of definitions, interpretations, and meanings. If the term "sustainable development" is used literally, it refers to development that can be sustained indefinitely or for the duration of the specified period (Stoddart, 2011; Lele, 1991; Dernbach, 2003). The Brundtland Commission Report's definition of sustainable development is the most widely used, despite the fact that there are numerous others (Schaefer & Crane, 2005). The report defines sustainable development as the kind of growth that fulfills current demands without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own.

In light of the above, the study focuses on how participatory development techniques and the policy interface relate to discussions about sustainable development. According to the literature that is currently available on participatory development as a policy construct, professionals and experts in this field frequently use any of the terms below interchangeably: bottom-up approach, all-inclusive approach, people-centered approach, evolutionary approach, and participatory

development approach. Long (2001) asserts that the terms "participation" and "participatory development" are used synonymously.

2.2 An exploration of participatory development

Since the conclusion of the Cold War, development strategies have started to place more emphasis on grassroots empowerment, sustainability, capacity building, and participation. Rahnema (1992) said that even if most emerging nations were ruled by global capitalism, it was clear that liberal economics could not solve the problem of inequality in development.

According to Schech and Haggis (2000), ideas of growth predominated throughout the 1940s and 1950s. During this time, development planning was seen as a crucial instrument for bringing about the predicted changes in society, with the state serving as the "game-changer" in the process. Griffin (2000) concurs, equating development with social prosperity in general and economic expansion in particular. The underlying assumption is that when economic productivity rises, total income levels will follow suit, leading to an increase in income that will have a multiplier impact on welfare (shooting up welfare). As a result, the quality of life of the poor will rise in the same proportion. This strategy for development put more emphasis on economic change than on social and cultural change (Willis, 2005; Stein and Harer, 2000; Griffins, 2000).

Prior to the conclusion of the Cold War, modernization theory continued to be used as a development strategy to assist less developed nations in catching up to industrialized nations in terms of science and technology, industrialization, and high living standards (Griffin, 2000). The hypothesis did not significantly advance liberal conceptions of development but did become popular in the early 1960s. The concepts of Adam Smith (1776), David Ricardo (1817), and J.S. Mill (1848), among others, served as the foundation for the modernization thesis. Modernization theory emphasizes social and institutional changes, although economic issues are the main focus (Willis, 2005). The common knowledge behind the thesis was that local cultures and traditions must be abandoned or disregarded throughout the whole process in order for underdevelopment at the grassroots level to vanish (Smith, 2003). According to Brohman (1996), proponents of this school of thought contend that less-developed nations are behind other nations in both North America and Western Europe. According to Himmelstrand (1994), adopting a gradual and irreversible phased strategy and learning from the experience of the industrialized

world is the straightforward solution to this backwardness. Free commerce is a key component of this approach.

According to Brohman (1996), trade and industry, rather than agriculture, were the modernization theory's focal areas. Other important concerns, such as employment options, commodities, and services, were concentrated in the cities. The comprehensive phases of change and radical alteration that traditional society must go through to become contemporary are included in modernization methods (Hussain et al., 1981). Willis argues that even though the cultures of the most developed and least developed countries are different, modernization theory was praised and seen as a good way to help the less developed countries grow their economies (Willis, 2005).

However, this theory's influence persisted until the majority of the sub-Saharan African nations gained their independence. Two key characteristics of modernization theory are listed below:

1. A lot of money from the private sector is being spent to help western economies develop their agricultural and mineral resources.
2. constructing "big, flashy, capital-intensive projects using the latest in foreign technology and located where everyone could see them, which meant in or near cities" (Willis, 2005: 72).

Many African leaders who were considering how to advance their newly independent nations were convinced by the principles presented above and thought that making these capital investments would help create the personnel and financial resources necessary for a potential industrial revolution (Mahuntu, 2011). It was never the case, however, since the theory's main tenet was that Western nations would dominate and possess a significant percentage of the economies of their hosts, who were often less developed nations. The folks were worse off after this than before they met. Willis (2005), White (1994), Gabriel (1960), Pye (1966), and Apter (1968) all say that the thesis did a lot of damage to the customs and cultures of a number of different countries. Modernity theorists contend that measures aimed at improving the living conditions of the underprivileged often include the dissemination of knowledge and information about more cutting-edge industrial methods (Matunhu 2011). The expansion of massive infrastructure projects, including roads, dams, electricity lines, and trains, as well as ports and ports, showed the validity of modernization theory. The Bretton Woods institutions and governments of many nations

supported these initiatives since they were intended as development interventions (Matunhu, 2011). In other words, modernisation was seen to be a process of change in which both the person and the culture would be influenced by outside forces. According to Matunhu (2011), it entails sacrificing one's own cultural values in favor of those of the invaders, according to Matunhu (2011).

According to Brohman (1996), damage to local cultures has been done in a number of less-developed nations as a result of modernization theory. Local voices and wisdom were ignored. By ignoring the inclusion and participation of the target community, the theory achieves the marginalization of their commitment, creativity, and support of the intervention strategies. Matunhu (2011) criticizes modernization theorists for not considering the poor as the centerpiece of poverty reduction initiatives (Matunhu, 2011). Since they aren't allowed to take part, the development project becomes a forced initiative that doesn't take their ideas, experiences, or expertise into account.

According to Chambers (1974), the central planning strategy used during the 1950s and 1960s was started with the goal of raising everyone's standard of life. The objectives of the planning technique, however, have not been met. The number of impoverished and vulnerable individuals is rising as a result of this development endeavor (Chambers, 1974). According to Gerrit (1997), agricultural improvement programs were put into place in less-developed nations to make participation a reality via a trickle-down mechanism. Brohman (1996) contends that powerful farmers who were poised to embrace the most recent methods were also given knowledge about sophisticated technology, in addition to the enlightened class of farmers. Almost inevitably, other farmers would adopt a similar strategy, but this did not occur (Brohman, 1996). This approach not only helps and strengthens the farmers' financial situation, who are already well off but also adds to the already present disparity between the affluent and the poor (Brohman, 1996). According to Coetzee et al. (2007), the modernization theory's most serious flaw is a too simplistic interpretation of social development. So (1990) asserts that the proponents of modernization have a common methodology and frame of reference for discussing progress and that they are often generic and abstract. So, it seems likely that people who believe in this theory tend to be idealistic and want a perfect world.

Modernization theorists acknowledged participation as a strategy for raising consciousness and fostering citizenship via strategies like political engagement. According to Hickey and Mohan (2004), two eminent experts on participatory development, the goal of political involvement was to give the new political arrangements authority and to provide security, stability, and legitimacy for the government. Globally, development theorists have begun to debate and examine the methods and outcomes of the modernization strategy in less developed nations. These elements, in accordance with Nelson and Wright (1995), contributed to one analysis: international organizations became concerned about the grand plan or blueprint approach to development's continual failure and its inability to produce the desired results, particularly the reduction of poverty. Therefore, in underdeveloped nations, this resulted in dissatisfaction and a lack of interest in the process. Andre (1967), cited in Matunhu (2011), mentions that traditional development theories like modernity are false in his analysis of the post-colonial state. The academic claims that they fall short of highlighting the true relationship that exists between the "first world" and the world's regions with less developed nations (Andre, 1967, cited in Matunhu, 2011: 2). Similar to this, the Brandt Commission concluded that modernity-based development had failed (Brandt Commission, 1980 cited in Matunhu, 2011: 4). As a consequence, it was well recognized among academics working in the field of development that the post-World War II development strategies mostly failed to provide the outcomes required to meet the needs of the global populace. The problems with the modernization theory made room for new ideas, which led to the development of the dependence theory in the 1960s.

Dependency theory was historically an attack on the modernization school, which maintains that cultural and traditional belief systems, flawed developmental ideologies, and poor economic and political institutions, to name just a few, are inherent causes of underdevelopment in less developed nations (Willis, 2005). The earliest and most important departure from modernization theory and the creation of dependency theory happened in the middle of the 1960s (Willis, 2005). Among other theorists in Latin America, Raul Prebisch's idea attracted a lot of attention. Later, development theorists like Walter Rodney (1973), Claude Ake (1996), Immanuel Wallerstein (1976), Samir Amin (1974), and others, were interested in this school of thought.

Dependency theory came into existence as a result of the development providers' critical views of the post-World War II conventional approaches to economic development. This hypothesis, which originated in Latin America, focuses more on attempting to understand why the economies of the

Global South are failing and poverty levels are rising (Matunhu, 2011). In response to the claims made by the modernization school, Brohman (1996) contends that the primary reason for underdevelopment in these nations is the belief that the international division and specialization of labor will benefit the less developed countries by simply selling primary goods to the western countries and buying processed goods from them. This is so that the international economy may be divided into the core and peripheral economies and the less developed nations are prevented from growing. According to dependency theorists, peripheral countries' ongoing dependence on rich countries is the root of underdevelopment in less developed nations (Willis, 2005). They contend, as well, that the rich nations further exploit the less developed nations by taking advantage of the connection they have established. Matunhu (2011) says that the rise of dependence theory (Reid, 1995; Max-Neef, 1991; Gabriel, 1991) marks the beginning of a new era in which the developed world exploits the developing world.

Contrary to their modernization rivals, dependency theorists promote inward-looking development strategies as a means of overcoming underdevelopment. They contend that a number of external factors play a role in the economies of less developed nations' underdevelopment. According to proponents of this philosophy, the link between the economies of less developed countries and those of Europe and America is what leads to underdevelopment in these nations. According to dependence theorists, some of these external variables include colonialism, capitalism, uneven commerce between the core and periphery, globalization, international labor specialization, and slave trafficking (Andre, 1967, cited in Matunhu, 2011, p. 4). Dependency theorists show that all of these things make economic exploitation, imposition, political dictatorship, and capital flight possible or more likely.

In his book *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*, Rodney (1972) makes the case that the more unequal the relationship between A and B, where A is the developed nation, the more backward B becomes. This suggests that leaving this trap-like relationship is very difficult for the less fortunate country (B). The development of first-world countries is to blame for the underdevelopment of less-developed nations. As long as the connection is unequal, the latter will continue to dominate the former. Consider the 15th-century encounter between Africans and Europeans. Underdevelopment in Africa is the obvious result of this encounter (Rodney, 1972). According to Fanon (1961), Europeans produced what is known as "less advanced economic systems. The

author hates the gratefulness displayed by Africans when Europeans offer assistance. He contends that Africa's richness is what made Europe more prosperous. The author listed some of the inhumane acts committed by Europeans in Africa, including forced labor, slavery, and massacres (Fanon,1961).

Dependency theory proponents claim that underdevelopment in less developed nations is not such nations' inherent status. Theoretically, these nations were underdeveloped until being forcibly pushed into the global capitalist system, according to the theory's proponents (Amin, 1976). However, liberal public opinion, which acknowledges underdevelopment as a normal step in the development process with capitalism as part of it, opposes this central tenet of dependency theory. Amin (1976) asserts that foreign investment in less developed nations offers a natural conduit for the transfer of funds to the investor's country, which is the main reason for the underdevelopment of these nations.

Similar to how modernization theory's shortcomings led to critical analysis of the oversimplification of development, dependency theory also developed out of similar analytical frustration with analysis focused only on the nation-state, rather than the positionality of states in the global political economy (Amin, 1976). However, its detractors accuse dependency theories of failing to explain the post-colonial world (William and Brigitte, 1981). Willis (2005) describes how the dependency theory came under fire as it gained notoriety for overemphasizing and ignoring other elements, such as cultural, social, and political factors that serve as the foundation for growth. According to Matunhu (2011), dependence theory is also a top-down strategy for development since it assumes that the locals lack the necessary skills and knowledge to address their issues (Matunhu, 2011). Max-Neef (1991:256) argues in a similar spirit that "growth-focused towards the fulfillment of basic human wants cannot, by definition, be organised from the top downwards." Such progress can only come about as a direct result of the people's own actions, aspirations, creative minds, and critical consciousness; it cannot be imposed upon them by law or edict. People must lead development instead of being the conventional objects of development "(Max-Neef, 1991).

In accordance with William and Brigitte (1981), dependency theory was criticized for failing to account for the ways in which internal class dynamics and production structures in the periphery impeded the growth of productive forces. Additionally, they fault dependence theorists for being unable to distinguish between capitalism and feudal methods of controlling the direct producer and allocating surplus value. According to William and Brigitte (1981), dependency theorists overemphasize global specialization and labor division as the root causes of poverty, stagnation, and backwardness at the expense of local class formation. The theory is out of date and has failed to explain and detail changes in underdeveloped nations (William and Brigitte, 1981). Rahim (1994) claims that it became clear that these successful development paradigms did not live up to the "a priori expectations" in the search for long-term developmental solutions. As a result, development researchers started to examine the problem of development from various angles.

According to Hague (1999:42), "no universal framework of development for all societies" exists. In order to free their people from the chains of poverty, starvation, economic and political subjugation, and cultural and intellectual repression, less developed nations need to either create or fine-tune development alternatives to fit them. Rahim (1994:118) also suggests that development differs across systems. Race, religion, class, caste, occupation, gender, language, and subcultural traditions are socioeconomic and cultural factors that influence the structure of development, which is influenced by communities and their resources (Rahim, 1994). According to Hettne (1999), development involves changes in the political, social, cultural, and economic spheres. Hettne contends that when new problems emerge and public understanding grows, development should be an open-ended notion that is continually redefined (Hette, 1999). This is the start of a journey that will lead to more people using participatory development as a way to make things better.

New schools of thought that produced more people-centered approaches to development emerged as a result of dissatisfaction with the aforementioned theories and the requirement to include people in developmental projects. After carefully examining earlier theories, Egger (1995) concluded that the human element was what development efforts were lacking. The inclusion of people was another factor that development organizations considered in the design and execution of programs and projects. According to Davids et al. (2005), practitioners must be aware that the human element must be included and should be given the freedom to dictate and lead rather than

listen and follow for people's development to become a reality because these traditional theories of development cannot and do not bring about development. In order for the development providers (outsiders) to learn from the poor and the marginalized people, Chambers (1983) calls for a change in the process (insiders). Chambers claims that this will help with sustainable development (Chambers, 1983). International development organizations and other organizations reportedly started looking for a more inclusive strategy, according to Brohman (1996). An unorthodox method of development arose in the 1970s, as described by Chambers (1997). The need for a different development paradigm served as the impetus for participatory development to emerge. Cooke and Kothari (2001) say that the criticisms that called for the poor to be included in development projects helped to bring about participatory development. The notion that serves as the foundation for this investigation is summarized in the table below. It quickly outlines each of the prior ideas, including the participatory development approach and its definitions, underlying assumptions, and practical applications.



S/N	Theory	Definition	Assumption	Limitation
1.	Growth theory	Real GDP per person will perpetually increase because people pursue profits	An increase in production = increase in income with a multiplier effect on welfare; hence, the standard of living will increase = development	Criticized for neglecting the society it wants to develop with too much focus on economic transformation.
2.	Modernization theory	It is used to explain the process of modernization that a nation goes through as it transitions from a traditional to a modern society	It assumes the radical transformation of traditional society. It regarded the 'less developed countries should develop like the 'first world'.	Criticized for its dominant paradigm; Ignored cultural disparities between first world and less developed countries.
3.	Dependency theory	It focuses on the external factors (colonialism, globalization, systematic imposition of capitalism, forceful incorporation of less developed countries' economies into the world capitalist system) integration as that will affect development in less developed countries	The unequal relationship between the less developed countries and Europe and America is the cause of underdevelopment in less developed countries.	Criticized for its top-down, one-way approach and its propensity for looking down on local communities.
4.	<i>Participatory Development Approach (Bottom-up approach)</i>	<i>It is a development process, which is initiated through the people for the people. Ordinary people are seen 'as key agents in the process and development initiatives usually focus on their aspirations and strengths' Participatory development approach upturns the power relations – putting the last first and the first last. It centers on the primacy of people (stakeholders) in development. Specifically, the argument is that "people come before things; and poorer people come before the poor</i>	<i>Assumes that the answer to the problem of less developed countries development is in the community (people) itself: its needs, its capacities, and ultimately its own control over both its resources and its destiny. Assumes that, in development planning, the focus should be primarily on assisting the poorest in the society achieve goals that they have identified by themselves</i>	<i>This approach has been "called" 'the new tyranny' (Cooke and Kothari 2001) and tagged as a clever means of getting grassroots approval for an already decided project (Hilyard et al 2001).</i>

Source: Researcher's own itemization

Table 2.1: Summary of the genealogy of participatory development approach.

2.3 Participatory development approach

There are several development theories, as previously mentioned. But in this study, the research is steered and directed by the participatory development strategy. Since its inception, the participatory method has gained popularity in the modern development debate. The concept has been supported by professionals in development as a means of assessing the degree of community engagement in grassroots development activities. This notion of involvement was supported by theorists like Paulo Freire (1970), who subsequently created the emancipatory participation method. Participatory strategies put a strong emphasis on uplifting the weak and underprivileged members of society. The development of methods for political literacy within participatory development, which is based on empowering communities by using local knowledge rather than importing notions, has been influenced by Freire's theories (Waddington and Mohan, 2004). Broad and Beishon (1977) say that the idea that people should be able to take part in projects and talk about things that matter to them has been a big part of the push for more involvement.

The participative viewpoint corrects the existing one-sided structure in the social, economic, and political arenas by emphasizing the supply of fundamental requirements to inhabitants of less developed nations. Additionally, it emphasizes the inherent skills and knowledge base of the populace, with an emphasis on interactions at the community level (UNDP, 2004). According to Friedman (1992), quoted by Nawal (2007: 14), the alternative development model retains the poor's participation in a process that would eventually result in their empowerment. As a result, Brohman (1996) listed a few of the alternative model's initiatives, including decentralization and the right to obtain knowledge about any new technology or successful innovations. So, the Overseas Development Administration (1995), which Nawal (2007:21) talks about, says that the quality of life and economic growth would improve if the people who are supposed to be involved did so.

From the middle of the 1980s, concepts like participation, empowerment, bottom-up development, and using local knowledge for sustainable development started to appear frequently in development discourses. By the 1990s, the World Bank and most other multilateral institutions and development organizations professed to agree with the principles of participatory development (Henkel and Stirrat 2001). The Overseas Development Administration (ODA) (1995:2) then

adopts a social perspective on development and defines it as "a process through which economic growth and quality of life will be enhanced, as everyone will be engaged." The requirement that "some choices be outsourced to the periphery" is one of the most significant things that participation and the alternative model contribute (Vincent, 2004, p. 112).

The World Bank recognized in 1996 that information gathering, analysis, and presentation by external specialists alone do not result in societal transformation. Edward (1993) argues that the overall goal of participation in development is to empower grassroots communities. The World Bank (1996) admits that social change cannot occur through the collation of information presented by foreign professionals alone. Participation in this sense is concerned with motivating and encouraging participants to take actions that are the product of their own thinking and deliberations because they have more control over that when compared to external initiatives (Kumar, 2002). With participation, people take decisions, act and reflect on the outcomes of their actions. Accordingly, Rahim (1994) posits that the power to decide on the meanings and values of development rests with locals in the community. Rahim further mentions that the locals should benefit from the external knowledge and information brought in by expertise without pressure to accept it (Rahim, 1994).

Schouten and Moriarty (2003) also stress the importance of people's participation and thorough involvement in higher levels of decision-making if sustainability must be achieved. Schouten and colleagues argue that there are various levels of participation (Schouten and Moriarty, 2003). Some of these frequent terms are "passive participation" or "tokenism," which are at the low end of the scale (World Bank, 2001; Prokopy, 2005). As a result, Prokopy (2005) contends that money contributed to an already predetermined project is a very low form of participation, if not non-participation. Therefore, concepts such as "local knowledge," "empowerment," and "power tussle" have all emerged and have been linked to participation. Keough's research from 1998 shows that these ideas have contributed to what is often called a "new dimensional shift" in how people think about the relationships between themselves, their societies, and the global political economy.

However, the idea of participatory development did attract some criticism. Hickey and Mohan (2004) tackle the transformative nature of participatory development and call it a phantom. The participatory development approach has been tagged as "the new tyranny" (Cooke and Kothari 2001), branded as a means of getting ordinary people's approval for an already-decided project

(Hilyard et al. 2001). Participatory rural appraisal has been seen to ignore differences and put stress on relationships in communities because powerful people in the community are fighting over who has the most power (Guijt and Shah, 1998).

Having a fair opinion and having a just representation of the people at the grassroots level is a challenge in communities where ethnic minorities, including women, are marginalized. Women find it difficult to participate due to patriarchal restrictions imposed by their culture and traditions (Hooper, 2012). Mosse (2001) indicates that the participatory approaches have blended in and aligned with the blueprint development model but have not brought about any change in the development practice. Therefore, the idea of development from below is still a phantom due to the underlying supposition that the only path to community development is when they get or adopt technical assistance from experts (Nyamwaya, 1997). Participatory development experts, on the other hand, say that many of the criticisms of the participatory rural appraisal (PRA) approach are dealt with internally, through the PRA's built-in self-criticism and reflective practices (Chambers, 1997).

2.3.1 Applicability of participatory approach in analysing the case studies

Participatory approaches for development providers adopt the concept of participation that is built into many policies, such as the Integrated Development Plan and the Community and Social Development Project, which are the policy tools used to engage with communities at the grassroots level. This approach opens the avenue for the community to be involved in the first phase of needs identification through the last phase of project evaluation and ownership. In other words, participation in development entails including grassroots people from the planning stage all the way through to the final stage of being in charge of their own development. It adopts the community-driven, demand-driven, against supply-driven, mutual support capabilities of the people and focuses on communication and awareness, capacity building, mobilization, and empowerment for the people at the grassroots level (Sinkaiye and Ajayi, 2012). Because of this, the participatory approach is used as the theoretical framework for this study. This is because both the IDP (South Africa) and the CSDP (Nigeria) use a participatory approach to development.

The adoption of a participatory approach for this study allows the researcher to locate the study in a theoretical context. The IDP and CSDP were examined side-by-side through this lens. The

participatory approach brings out the reasons why this study is vital and how it looks within the broader context. The approach works well with the study because, among other things, it looked at the level of community participation and willingness to take part in grassroots development projects. It also looked at factors that can affect people's willingness to take part in development projects, as described in chapter one.

The participatory development approach forms the foundation for the research method and selection of both projects for this study in South Africa and Nigeria specifically. By critically engaging the participatory approach as a framework for this study, the study is better informed about factors impeding people's participation in the developmental initiative at the grassroots level in both South Africa and Nigeria. These inhibiting factors, combined, generally hinder achieving the impact of participatory development in both countries. With the adoption and use of the participatory approach by the IDP and CSDP, the people are supposed to be involved and take the lead in developmental projects at the grassroots level to achieve and enhance the impacts of participatory development in these communities. The question is, how participatory are these projects? What is the gap between the participatory development approach and practice within these projects? (Hickey and Mohan, 2004; Simon and Narman, 1999).

According to Mosse (2001), the increasing level of poverty and lack of inclusion combined with wrong or ill-informed development programmes that are untenable are clear signals and products of top-down planning and the exclusion of the local people in the entire process of grassroots development. Schumacher (2000) puts it more simply: people's ideas, views, and their own knowledge, including their immediate needs, are assumed to be taken into consideration by the provider of development; if not, there will be no real development, what he called "real fruits". Freire (1993) concurs that people are equipped with the ability to think critically and make decisions for their own social or economic good. The research used these analytical guidelines as practical tools to analyze community inputs and their meaningfulness. Arnstein has the same idea, which is why he says that "participation without redistribution of power is a pointless and frustrating process for the powerless" (Arnstein, 1969: 216).

Participating in development is widely seen as being an essential step toward democracy and the celebration of citizenship. Words that address and relate to democratic issues are being used more frequently, which demonstrates this. "Building democratic polities," "deepening democracy," and

"increasing democratic engagement" are some of these terms (Molebatsi, 2013). What is seen as a movement from viewing participants as beneficiaries to views that view participants as "makers and shapers" was brought about by changes in notions and interpretations of involvement (Gaventa, 2004: 29). Because of this, participation becomes a right, not an invitation to take part in a space that is given to beneficiaries.

The idea of "spaces for participation" is used in more subtle analyses of participation (Cornwall, 2002; Gaventa, 2004; Cornwall & Coelho, 2007; Winkler, 2011). Opportunities for participation in the creation of policy are generated inside these spaces by actors, such as the state or citizens. According to Cornwall & Coelho (2007:1), such spaces may be created and supported by the state, or they may be seen as territories taken over by the demands for the inclusion of civil society. In these circumstances (Cornwall, 2002:2), the concept of spaces for participation includes closed spaces, invited spaces, and created spaces (Gaventa, 2004:35). Actors in secluded spaces are said to be confined and have no intention of allowing other actors access. According to Cornwall (2002:24), invited spaces are "those into which people as users, citizens, or beneficiaries are invited to join by various sorts of authorities, be they governments, supranational organizations, or non-governmental organizations." Gaventa (2004:35) says that "created spaces" are "spaces claimed from or against those with power by those with less power or made more independently by them."

2.4 Exploring participatory development: definition and concept

The succeeding sub-sections discussed how the participatory development approach was conceived through a sequence of failures, a handful of successes of earlier models, and the search for a people-driven approach to development. This study discusses the participatory approach and shows how it formed the theoretical bedrock for this theoretical chapter and the thesis as a whole. In light of this, the next section talks about definitions, ideas of participation, and how they might help solve the problems facing grassroots development.

2.4.1 Participatory development: definition

Since its emergence, various experts have conferred various definitions of participatory development. Chambers (1992) calls it "people first" and "people-centered development". Jennings (2000) mentions that several other development experts (Conyers and Hills, 1990;

Chambers, 1992; Roodt, 2001) have loosely termed it participatory development. Mohan and Stokke (2000) say that the difference in definitions comes from the fact that proponents of participatory development see development as the same thing as pushing for societal change and a way to give power to the most powerless people.

The concept of participation is now more than eighty years old within the development sphere (Patrick, 2013). Participation has been examined and defined differently to the extent that there is no one generally accepted definition of the concept (Long, 2001). Participation is a very broad concept (Lane 1995), which means different things to different people (Kelly 2001). According to Nelson and Wright (1995), those who participate have a strong ideological stance. Likewise, Pelling (1998) indicates that the term "participation" has gone through a lot of contestations by different schools of thought, which has given it a variety of competing meanings and applications. The outcomes of all of the above are the differences in the meaning of participation: whom it is supposed to involve, its expected result, and how it should be carried out (Agarwal 2001). Again, Patrick (2013) contends that participation signifies people taking part in decision-making processes. It could also mean the level of people's involvement in development planning, projects, and practices.

The entire definitions, according to Campbell and Vainio-Mattila (2003), are simply echoes of those involved in developmental work who want to engage more intensely with their work. Participation could be "moral, amoral, or immoral; either forced or free; either manipulative or spontaneous" (Rahnema 1992). The same writer argues that participation is largely inclined toward desired goals and is to be considered a free enterprise. Similarly, White (1994) sees sincere participation as the freedom to express oneself while being guided by morals that are influenced by compassion and selflessness that also consider the feelings and values of other people. Patrick (2013) says that participation could be how people take part in a project, which could be anything from consultation to sharing information and making decisions.

Participation in development means being actively part of a decision that has to do with implementation processes, programmes, and projects as they affect the individual (Slocum et al., 1995). According to the Canadian International Development Agency (1991), participatory development is when people are actively involved in the entire development circle or phases. Vieira and Junho (1997) describe it as a source where new ownership is assumed as well as a form

of intentional, rational social action based on gains that individuals would get from working as a team for communal interest. ODA (1995) views it as a sacrifice to help create the necessary conditions that will reinforce and bring about significant empowerment of those who might have little or no control over the powers that dictate how their lives should be.

According to the Department for International Development (2000), participation is an enabler that gives people a way to use their right to take part in decision-making processes and get important information about them, which is part of the decision that will affect their lives. The Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) associated the concept of participation in democracy and equity goals as an objective in itself, which should be encouraged in all developmental initiatives. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (1997) indicates that participatory development is a partnership that is developed on the notion of dialogue among the stakeholders involved, where the agenda is collectively set, and local knowledge is sought and given preference. The OECD also says that participation shouldn't be seen as a way for donors to set the agenda. Instead, it should be seen as a negotiation that gives people a chance to be more than just recipients.

Participatory development is "a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them" (World Bank, 1996). This definition was criticized for generalization, that is, for assuming the same level for all actors and ignoring inequalities, which most of the time happen to be the key constraint for the poor and marginalized groups. This criticism led to an amendment in the World Bank's definition of participatory development with more emphasis on the poor and marginalized (primary stakeholders or beneficiaries). The amended definition as cited by Tandom and Cordeiro (1998) in Long (2001:18.) is, "a process through which primary stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, decisions, and resources that affect them."

Lahiri-Dutt (2004) describes participation as giving more attention to the opinion of the communities at the grassroots level as it relates to project procedures and execution, most importantly, if there exists a conflict of interest between the greater common good and local interest. Participation has several dimensions to it. This makes it a complex issue. Since it is more political than social, neutrality is always a challenge (Brohman 1996). But the above World Bank

definition of participation was used for this study because it clearly describes the role of the main people who will benefit from development projects if participation is to be achieved.

2.4.2 Participatory development: concept

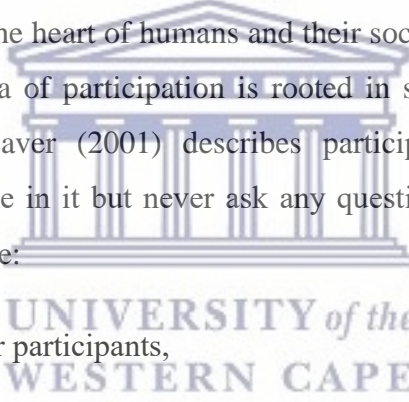
In trying to conceptualize and analyze participatory development within the length and breadth of this study, there is a need to find out the origin of the word and what exactly participation means. Participation is derived from the Latin words "pars", which is translated to "part", and "capere", which is translated to mean, "take," which means "to take part in" (Merriam Webster 2015, p. 625). Most of the time, it is referred to as the act of sharing governance activities among relevant actors. These actors can be different groups or classes of people: family, clan, kinship, local community, NGOs, CBOs, and private and public sectors at various levels (Griffin, 2000). Participation can also mean any kind of social interaction, no matter who you are or where you work. On page 268, the Oxford English Dictionary says that participation is "the action of taking part, having or being a part of; the fact or condition of sharing in common, with others or with each other."

Gaventa (2006) indicates that the idea of participation comes out of the assumption that every individual or group of individuals who are marginalized has the fundamental right to be allowed to participate in developmental initiatives that will affect their lives. Therefore, without the real inclusion of the people from the design to the evaluation phase of a project, there is no participation. Cees (2000) recognizes all the people within the community as stakeholders and partners in the development process. In the context of participatory development, everyone is of equal importance. Within the concept of participatory development, the people are supposed to be in the driver's seat; they are supposed to lead the process of identifying community needs (Philips, 2009). Furthermore, the people are also expected to find solutions to the community's needs identified. However, this is done through dialogue and communication with the people in the community to generate divergent views about a specific community need. The process of participation involves the involvement of everyone. That is, everyone must be treated equally in terms of the partnership, transparency, sharing power, and sharing responsibility (Dinbabo, 2003).

Existing literature reveals that the participatory approach is more effective due to the fact that it gives voice to the voiceless in terms of addressing community needs (Roodt, 2001). The focus of this approach to development is to neutralize the inequality that exists within the people in the

community. In addition to creating a development avenue that could build the capacity and empower those that are marginalized (Craig & Mayo, 1995). Participatory development has to do with the inclusion of people in all the processes and stages of the developmental initiative. Experts such as Chambers (1997) stress the importance of applying participatory approaches to development in all the phases and stages of development. The scholar specifically mentions the decision-making, evaluation, and monitoring stages (Chambers, 1997).

The development discourse has been ongoing for a long time, with various phases, and as a result, it has changed development approaches and their meaning over time. According to Ojha et al. (2005), development discourse has seen a gradual change from the transfer of technology around the 1970s to the most recent concept of participatory development. Jamal (2014) states that participatory development has become the latest concept in the sphere of development so much that it has fought its way into projects and programmes of national governments and multilateral organizations. There are several dimensions to participation (Rahnema, 1992); hence, to have a proper grasp of it, critically, there is a need to examine in detail the roots and various aspects of it, which are directly connected to the heart of humans and their socio-cultural realities. Henkel and Stirrat (2001) argue that the idea of participation is rooted in some form of tradition and has discrete religious nuances. Cleaver (2001) describes participation as 'an act of faith in development'; people just believe in it but never ask any questions, and it has been conceived around three (3) beliefs, which are:

- 
- (1) It is a 'good thing' for participants,
 - (2) 'Getting the techniques right',
 - (3) Power and politics are seen as dividing and obstructing factors.

Thomas (1994) supports the idea of participation and postulates that it has created room for the people to become the 'center point' of any form of development initiative that has a direct bearing on their daily lives rather than being objects of technology or process. According to White (1994), it is easier to conclude that participation is a vital factor for development, but the task of mobilizing people to participate is difficult and not as simple as that. It was against this backdrop that Kumar (1994) suggested that participation has to grow slowly within the individuals until the entire

community assimilates it and it becomes part of them. Participation is a learned and developed attitude; therefore, it cannot be imposed on anyone.

Bordenave (1994) also equates the emergence of a participative society with raising a child in the family, either by dialogue or by dictation. He stresses education and the role it plays in the preparation of future generations for a participative society, which is highlighted under the following conditions: the inclusion of a clear participatory administrative system in the school; the participation of students in community social events; and the practice of participative methods should be practiced in the classroom (Bordenave, 1994). Participation makes it easier to put plans into action through processes that will include and benefit all stakeholders. Citizens and the participation of other actors provide legitimacy and progress to developmental projects. This is attributed to the fact that people are in the best position to identify their own needs and find solutions to those needs. Therefore, if they do not participate, the project might be harmed or derailed in the end.

People need to be aware of the roots of their problems. Freire (1970) highlights that if people are not aware of what the causes of their problems and challenges are, their reactions and participation will certainly continue to be passive and alienated, even when asked to relax and be different. Therefore, the attitude of participation needs to be nurtured and developed so that people will freely be involved in community activities. Also, the less influential citizens of the community need to be informed of what their constraints to active involvement in social and political activities are. In trying to proffer a solution to the problems (oppression, exclusion, and emotional suppression of the less influential in the community), Freire (1970) suggests dialogue, reflection, and communication in order to subdue those issues. This enables them not only to become participants but also committed individuals. Stockes (1995), points out that participation should be able to make participants "become conscious" and aware of the realities that surround them. Stiglitz (2002) also acknowledges that in cases where people believe they have faithfully participated in a decision that affects their daily lives, they will certainly be willing to accept the outcome even if it is the reverse of their expectation. Alternatively, if decisions are brought to them (imposed on them) by an outsider (including the government), they are likely to reject them sooner or later.

In summary, participatory development is the active involvement of all stakeholders from the first to the last phase of the project. The goal of participatory development was to include previously excluded members of the community, build their capacity, and empower them. The approach allows the people to participate without hindrance in building and shaping their future with the available means they have or the ones given to them by donor agencies or development providers.

2.5 Why participatory development? Potential contributions and conflicts

According to Cooke and Kothari (2001), the debate about the purpose of participatory development is still ongoing, be it a means or an end. Project type, purpose, policies, the context of funding, and implementing agency all have a great role to play in defining the objectives of participation in a particular project. According to the OECD (1993), there are two main reasons why participatory development is important, and they are as follows:

1. By empowering different groups, individuals, and organizations to be able to negotiate with institutions and bureaucracies, participatory development is indirectly reinforcing civil society and the economy. This is vital because it provides the opportunity to be able to influence public policy and check the power of governments.
2. Participatory development nourishes and encourages efficiency, effectiveness, and sustainability of development projects and programmes.

To Rahnema (1992: 117), participatory development was introduced to perform four (4) different functions, which are.

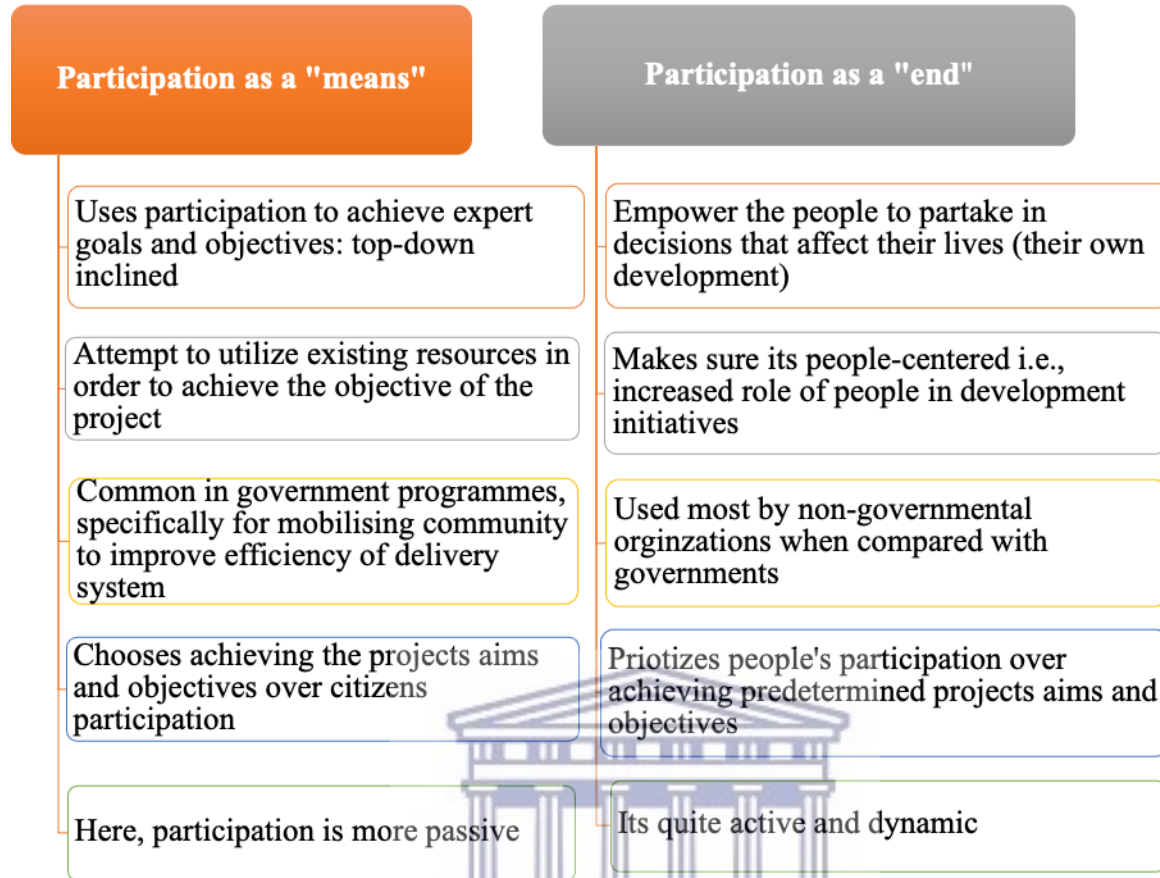
1. Cognitive function: in this case, development should be through participation. While community knowledge and understanding should form the base for a new form of development,
2. Social function: through participation, the people got new hope, and development is re-activated,
3. Instrumental function: instruments such as information about past projects, failures, and successes to prove the credibility of alternative strategies should be made available to the people,

4. Political function: this function was to make available and develop a new and different way of legitimating and empowering people and connecting the targeted populations.

Discussions concerning involvement as a "means" and as an "end" have drawn more attention in recent years. Both development professionals and field workers have been troubled for some time by the debate over whether participation is a "means" or an "end." According to Kumar (2002), there are two (2) distinct broad viewpoints on participation: one group sees it as a "means," while the other group sees it as an "end." According to research by Karl (2000), collaboration and cooperation among the participants in development initiatives and programs constitute participation as a "means." Participation is seen as an "end" because it provides individuals with enhanced abilities, information, and experiences that often lead to independence, self-reliance, and self-management (Karl, 2000). Tshabalala (2006) notes that local communities' involvement in grassroots initiatives has a distinctive practice.

According to the World Bank (2001), the degree of community immersion in development projects has served as the basis for categorizing participation; it is shallow if project decisions and management are solely in the hands of project staff, and deep when common, helpless, and poor people are sincerely and obediently included in all the stages and processes. According to Slocum et al. (1995), participation may be both a means to an end, where individuals are able to define and pursue their own objectives and an end in and of itself. According to Campbell et al. (2013), participation is a means to a goal, the sustained involvement of people affected in the process of solving a problem. Furthermore, according to Parfitt (2004), involvement as a "means" implies that the power dynamics between the development provider and the targeted people remain unaltered. The power dynamic between the people and the development provider has changed when participation is seen as an "objective," showing that the people are now more independent and stronger in the face of the donor.

The overview of involvement as both a "means" and an "end," as outlined by Kumar, is shown in the picture below (2002).



Adapted from: Kumar (2002)

Designed by: Researcher's own itemization

Figure 2.1: Participation as both a 'means' and an 'end'.

1. It is clear from academic writing that participation has evolved into a household idea. According to some academics, development objectives can only be met if a successful and efficient citizen-centered strategy is adopted. According to Cleaver (2001), the efficiency discussion, which emphasizes improved project results, and the equity and empowerment debate, which also emphasizes strengthening people's capacity to improve their own lives, are examples of participative approaches.
2. The debate above makes one thing quite clear: while some experts emphasize the empowerment perspective, others emphasize involvement from the efficiency (of projects)

point of view. But there is a clear difference between the two schools of thought on participation, which are:

1. Participation as a 'means'; this school of thought focuses on efficiency, effectiveness, and sustainability – from a governmental policy standpoint – formal spaces where the government ropes in communities to legitimise a process.
2. Participation as an 'end'; this school of thought emphasizes the promotion of participant's capability, empowerment, and self-dependence. This school of thought forms the base for identifying ways through which the outcomes of people's participation in developmental initiatives or projects could be enhanced. Critical analysis emphasises this isn't good enough. Participation as a tick box comes in (Berer and Phillips, 2005; Neefjes, 2000).

Participation as a "goal" is more suited for this examination, even if these two schools of thought served as the conceptual underpinning for this study's clear understanding of participatory development. Integrated Development Plan (IDP-South Africa) and Community and Social Development Project case studies were used to accomplish this (CSDP-Nigeria).

2.5.1 Participation as a 'means'

How much of the interests of the beneficiaries are captured in the initial phase (rather than in the middle of the project) serves as a "mean" of project effectiveness since the people may then share ownership of the initiative (ODA, 1995). Once again, ODA argues that efficiency may be attained by sharing information and shouldering some of the project costs (ODA, 1995). Concerning sustainability, is the difficulties and worries individuals have about their capacity to control both current and future duties and activities (ODA, 1995). In the literature (Schneider and Libercier, 1995), it is often said that including the idea of sustainability in development depends on getting people involved.

Since participation's introduction and adoption, some development providers have used it as a "means," while others have used it as both a "means" and an "end." Governments and development organizations have all emphasized the veracity of the notion of participation and shown a keen interest in it. Participation has remained a popular political buzzword (Rahnema, 1992). According

to Phillips (2005), the efficiency argument has led to assertions from a number of experts and analysts that the development providers are not interested in sharing power (primarily, decision-making authority) with the people (primary beneficiaries). Instead of seeing participation as a tool to attain project outcomes, it is preferable to view it as a goal in and of itself (Brohman, 1996). This implies that it must have some element of empowerment. Particularly when it comes to public involvement in development initiatives, consideration of power struggles or relationships becomes crucial. (1994; Lozare) It's important for the success of development processes that people understand and recognize the subtleties of power relationships.

2.5.2 Participation as an 'end'

Participation as a "means" and as an "end," representing both schools of thought, serves as benchmarks for measuring the degree of empowerment in participatory initiatives (Brohman, 1996). Participation has, of course, been given several interpretations depending on the situation. However, genuine engagement also involves some degree of empowerment (Schneider and Libercier, 1995). People must fortify themselves in order to take control of their own growth.

Therefore, empowerment is a condition of independence rather than a thing or service (Nair and White, 1994). The World Bank (2004) defined empowerment as the process of increasing people's capacity so they can make their own decisions and attain their desired outcomes. The basic objective of empowerment is to fortify and strengthen individuals (Berner and Phillips, 2005). It is impossible to overstate the value of communication in empowering communities. People might utilize communication to think back on their struggles and pose questions in an effort to come up with answers to their issues (Freire, 1998). The Freire method gave rise to the notion of empowering ordinary people via continuous and active involvement in discourse while they are still free. Conversely, dialoguing is a way for individuals to grow their thoughts and knowledge as a group, taking charge of their lives and the difficulties that come with it. If participatory development initiatives are to be successful, Brohman (1996) suggests faithfully empowering the people at the grassroots level. The notion of participation has empowerment as its only goal.

Every notion or thought has an opposite side that may also be considered. Which group of people—the impoverished, the disadvantaged, or the whole community—best answers the issue of who

needs empowerment, according to Mosse (2001)? The community as a whole needs to be empowered (Scheyvens, 1999). The community's residents should, however, be prepared and open to becoming empowered. Therefore, Kothari (2001) emphasizes that participatory development should constantly aim to empower the populace. Finally, the concept of empowerment tends to come up in discussions and debates about participatory development. People at the grassroots level might express their wants and views, establish a wish list, and order their requirements if they were given the authority to do so.

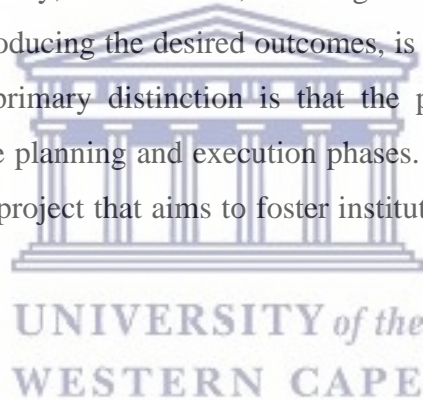
2.6 The prospect of the participatory approach as a developmental tool

The 1980s saw the emergence of the neo-liberal school of thought, which placed an emphasis on cost reduction and expanding public sector autonomy. According to Willis (2005), neoliberalism has taken center stage in the creation of global development policy. The World Bank and other international and non-governmental organizations that promote neoliberalism have embraced the participatory development concept and made it a key component of their grassroots development projects. According to Mayo and Craig (1995), the neo-liberal school has encouraged groups and governments in many nations to promote and pay greater attention to programs that include incorporating people into development. It is a cost-effective and effective method of development. The participatory development strategy increases project effects and sustainability while lowering public sector expenses, or the cost of operating a government (Willis, 2005). This is due to the fact that it engages all parties involved from the beginning to the end of the development process. This is crucial because it helps create institutions and gives individuals a sense of ownership over the endeavor.

According to Sillitoe (2002), among other approaches, the participatory development strategy turns out to be the best one for helping people comprehend and experience the pragmatic aspect of development. The strategy is becoming more popular and has been recognized by professionals as the most effective way to have an influence on people at the grassroots level as a result of the failure of the traditional development approach. According to Kothari (2001), the participative method is the best way to address the problems of unequal social and human development. The heart of the participative method, according to the same author, is the identification, gathering, interpretation, analysis, and expression of indigenous knowledge. This gives individuals the

capacity to alter what they don't like and control development programs, choices, and resources for their empowerment (World Bank, 2001). In general, the idea of lowering governance costs while increasing the effectiveness of projects is about getting more people involved in development projects.

The process approach allows for complete project design phases to be flexible and clearly state broader objectives; task inputs, outputs, and situational objectives are developed concurrently as the project is ongoing, in contrast to the expert-led approach, which has set goals and objectives, well-thought-out outcomes, and properly structured ways of carrying out its activities (ODA, 1995). Another means of reacting to the ineffective, bureaucratic, and centrally planned programs of the latter is the overall wave of migration from the traditional approach in the practice of development to a contemporary or people-centered approach. By including stakeholders, Mosse (1998) sees this transition to a people-centered strategy as a method to reduce the cost of operating the government and boost efficiency, effectiveness, and long-term sustainability. The traditional paradigm, which fell short of producing the desired outcomes, is being replaced in some way by an all-inclusive strategy. The primary distinction is that the process model takes longer to complete, particularly during the planning and execution phases. It must always evolve in some fashion, but this is crucial for a project that aims to foster institutional growth and sustainability (ODA, 1995).



2.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, participatory development is unpacked in detail and the study's analytical framework is established. The chapter maps the theoretical arguments between dependence, modernization, and growth theories and how they affected policy discussions on development to show how the method evolved. The chapter explores the development of participatory development, including its history, core ideas, and—most significantly—the ways in which it may be used to execute policies. Additionally, the chapter emphasizes the benefits of participatory development and critically evaluates its potential as a tool for policymaking to understand and address issues that affect poor and marginalized communities at the local level, particularly in the contexts of South Africa and Nigeria. The discussion of power decentralization in Africa in the next chapter is particularly focused on South Africa and Nigeria. The discussion of power

decentralization in Africa in the next chapter is particularly focused on South Africa and Nigeria. It also draws attention to the many participation spaces. The top-down approach and invited or created participation venues are two important aspects of participation that Cornwall (2000) highlights. Invented spaces are generated from the bottom up, as opposed to invited spaces, which are created top-down. Citizens are asked to participate in an invited space. This typically prompts inquiries about how engagement is started and managed (Cornwall, 2008). As argued by Nico C et al. (2011), participation is closely related to power logic surrounding decision-making, whether these logics are explicit or implicit, formal or informal, minimal or maximalist, egalitarian or not. They place particular emphasis on the material and actionist aspects of participation. The goal of influence is important, whether or not it is incorporated into democratic institutions.



Chapter Three

South Africa and Nigeria: the politics of participatory development

3.0 Introduction

The preceding chapter establishes the analytical framework for this research and explores the theoretical development of participatory development, including its background, key ideas, and definitions. The usefulness of participatory development in its present form as a tool for enhancing the lives of those at the periphery of society, at the grassroots level, was also critically reviewed. This chapter examines South Africa's and Nigeria's attempts at participatory development. The mechanics of decentralization's use in both nations are covered, as well as the technique itself. Additionally, it considers how development practitioners play a role and looks at gender dynamics in participatory development (Cornwall, 2003; Schneider and Libercier, 1995). The preceding chapter establishes the analytical framework for this research and explores the theoretical development of participatory development, including its background, key ideas, and definitions. The usefulness of participatory development in its present form as a tool for enhancing the lives of those at the periphery of society, at the grassroots level, was also critically reviewed in Chapter 2. Chapter three examines South Africa's and Nigeria's attempts at participatory development. The mechanics of decentralization's use in both nations are covered, as well as the technique itself. Additionally, it considers how development practitioners play a role and looks at gender dynamics in participatory development (Cornwall, 2003; Schneider and Libercier, 1995).

3.1 Decentralization in Africa: an overview

“[P]olitical decentralization in Western and Eastern Europe in the 1980s and 1990s has led to many local governments being granted greater powers by their central government (Wollman 2003; Goldsmith 2005)” As cited in Cameron (2013:67).

Decentralization is a concept that is used not just in developed nations but also in middle-income and developing nations. In several Asian, Latin American, and African nations, decentralization is classically shown by Cameron (2013). Several African nations started decentralizing their governments, reorganizing the colonial system that had been in existence. However, since the then-leader's commitment to democratic norms and principles was negligible, attempts in this direction

to achieve decentralization at the grassroots level were weakened (Nwanna, 2012). Decentralization was widely embraced in the majority of African nations as early as the 1970s. This is dependent on colonial legacies; hence, the reaction from African nations is mostly constrained by the effects of the past (colonialism) (Kersting et al., 2009). According to research by Kersting and colleagues, it would be challenging for Africa to have a stable democratic system at the national level if it is not stable at the grassroots level, and the opposite is also true. In other words, if democracy is not present at the national level, it will be weaker or non-existent at the local level. Because the "cultural and political" are not in harmony and are tugging in different directions without much agreement on democratic ideals, Africa is still unsure of which direction to follow. Kersting et al. (2009) say that effective and efficient local government is needed to make states and countries as a whole.

Decentralization stimulates bottom-up participatory development, improving local government and providing opportunities for public involvement (Muhammad et al., 2011). The whole purpose of development is to be reformed to place people in the limelight (Stohr, 1981). Participatory development is a tactic for more open management and increased community engagement (Muhammad et al., 2011). Policymakers have embraced the idea of decentralization, which is widely employed today, to encourage development. It has drawn increasing attention as a crucial component of strategies for eradicating poverty. In order to break down the administrative and physical constraints of development, the federal government must transfer authority to local governments. Power sharing is essential for sustainable development since it improves resource management and community involvement (Manor, 1995; Vaughan et al. 1980; Mills et al. 1990).

In nations that have tended toward it, the quest for democratic decentralization in Africa has encountered a number of obstacles (Kersting et al., 2009). According to Tordoff and Young (1994), the 1980s saw a rise in the need for a tangible, decentralized third tier of government in Africa as a result of internal and external pressure for democracy in African nations. According to Mahwood (1992), the waning of the centralized party state has led to a focus on good governance at the local level in the majority of African nations. In certain ways, these elements helped to pave the road for decentralization in Africa.

According to a decentralization study conducted in 2004/2005 with funding from the African Development Bank, "The decentralization process looked to be stuck in Nigeria and Namibia. The same analysis shows that recentralisation is probably going to happen again in Mali and Rwanda. The results reveal that the decentralization efforts in both Ghana and Senegal are hampered" (Millett et al., 2006: 63-88). Undoubtedly, the indigenous government systems have endured the test of time and resisted radical change. Despite several political and social attempts to undermine the existing system of government, the structures continue to be the means by which disputes are settled among the populace. Olowu (2003), on the other hand, compares decentralization in Africa and other parts of the world in more detail and finds that African countries tend to like centralization more than countries in other parts of the world.

3.2 The post-apartheid South Africa: an overview

For many South Africans who were subjected to the oppressive apartheid regime, the advent of a new South Africa and democracy in 1994 represented a breath of fresh air and optimism. Apartheid was an oppressive regime used by the white minority to attack other racial groupings. This oppressive system was based on a divided structure that solely benefited the white race and had an effect on the uniform growth of the nation. Prior to 1994, this government's priorities were racially biased, uneven, and unequal, and it primarily served the interests of the ruling elite (Gueli et al. 2007). At this time, the white governing minority maintained a municipal system that was racially prejudiced and barred other races from participating in decisions that affected them, particularly at the local level. During this period of extreme power centralization, the center regulated and directed every element of social life. During this time, there was essentially little involvement at the municipal level due to the tight framework, particularly among non-whites. Following the outrage against apartheid planning in the 1980s for being segregationist, fragmented, and repressive to the blacks in South Africa, this resulted in a strong push for participatory planning from academics, unions, and individuals working in not-for-profit organizations (Harrison et al., 2008). In light of this, the nation decided after 1994 that it had a duty to constitutionalize participation and decentralize authority in all areas of government (Friedman, 2006).

In response, the African National Congress (ANC), which formed the first black democratic government in 1994, championed the ideas of community participation in its development policy

statements and adopted participatory planning in an effort to represent a significant paradigm shift from the past (ANC Policy Guidelines for a Democratic South Africa, 1992; Reconstruction and Development Programme, 1995). Throughout its history, the ANC has developed a policy vocabulary rich in concepts such as grassroots development and participatory government (RSA, 1996a, 1996b, 1996c, 1999). (RSA, 1998a, 1998b, 1999, 2000). The ideas behind participation grew into a big, positive idea that was essential to setting up regional institutions, procedures, and ways of doing things in local government.

After experiencing protracted racial warfare that tore apart the whole country, South Africa achieved democracy (Sithole and Mathonsi, 2015). Apartheid cemented racial inequality by denying the great majority of black people—who make up the bulk of the population—human and political rights and reserving citizenship and political involvement for the white minority (Mpfarseni, 2013). Unquestionably, racial separation served as the foundation for all other types of social division and contributed to the way South Africa is organized now, according to Habib et al. (2004). In metropolitan areas where townships lack fundamental social services, it has produced a kind of displaced urban and rural civilization (Harrison, 2008). According to Mariotti and Fourie (2014), after the nation transitioned to democracy, it became necessary to fix the problems (deliberate or not) left behind by previous administrations in order to put the nation back on the path to progress. The need to repair and bring about growth, equality and equal opportunity in post-apartheid South Africa became one of the key duties of democratic South Africa. How is this possible in a nation where there are several racial groupings and variations? With the assistance of other white papers, this issue helped to define and inspire the creation of the South African constitution that exists today.

According to Sithole and Mathonsi (2015), the adoption of democracy in South Africa was aimed at bridging the societal divide and creating a common nation where justice and fairness reign. According to Thompson et al. (2018: 5), it is "an attempt to overcome the destructive impact that apartheid rule had on the social fabric of those oppressed by white minority rule, namely the African, Coloured, and Indian populations." To Tapscott (2017), the country has travelled through a stringent process to overhaul the state to focus more on subduing the footprint of the tyrannical regime of apartheid and attempting to build an egalitarian society with orderliness. The post-

apartheid era has seen a rise in the question of how to close the development gap, specifically with reference to the grassroots in South Africa, which suffered a greater impact from the oppressive regime. Against this backdrop, many measures have been initiated to work with communities and provide opportunities for citizens, mostly the poor, in decision-making processes (Thompson et al., 2018). However, as Tapscott (2017) points out, even though some progressive reforms are in place, inequality and poverty remain serious challenges. This has significantly influenced the citizens' sense of progressive politics, particularly their support of the democratic rule. But this hasn't been easy because the community hasn't been involved enough in the political processes that go along with development (Matt, 2002).

Post-apartheid South Africa has seen decentralization, participatory, and direct democratic policies since its inception (Cameron, 2012). The point is institutionalized participation at the grassroots level, the transformation of the third tier of government, and turning around the inhumane regulations of the apartheid regime to become inclusive and developmental. This drive gave birth to the idea of developmental local government in South Africa (Cameron, 2012). This idea aims to bring into being a structure that will be closer to the people at the grassroots level that is committed to working with citizens and the community to find sustainable ways to meet social, economic, and material needs and improve the quality of their lives (RSA 1998).

To share ideas and have an impact on decision-making, participation is "an open, accountable procedure that allows people and groups within chosen communities to do so" (DPLG 2005:15). As a result, the National Policy Framework on Public Participation gives municipalities the means to make their operations democratic and people-centered as long as the results will have an impact on people (Chapter 10, NPFP, 2007). Developmental projects should include people directly from start to finish.

According to Biyela (2000), democratic rule provided the drive for South Africa's local government to change. The constitution was intended to take into account democratic ideals as well as the way South African municipal governments had traditionally worked. However, the 26-year-old democracy does not seem to be producing the desired results of a higher standard of living for the majority of the population (Tapscott 2006). The people anticipate that democracy would

naturally lead to better service delivery, particularly in black areas, which were worst harmed by the brutal apartheid system. But social and economic inequality are ongoing problems in South Africa. Marginalized people claim that democracy does not lead to the improvements in basic needs that were hoped for (Sithole and Mathonsi, 2015: 6). Sithole and Mathonsi conclude that a "soft chorus of Egypt was better" has resulted from the populace's discontent with the government's inability to address their demands (Sithole and Mathonsi, 2015: 6).

Harrison (2001) asserts that the 1996 South African Constitution established the foundation for the then-emerging system. The South African Constitution explicitly outlines the development mission and acknowledges local government as the third tier of government, but it also assigns the province and national governments an oversight supervisory function to keep an eye on the local government's operations. In order to position the local government to address the issue of the high rate of poverty, marginalization, and inequality carried over from the apartheid regime into the new South Africa, the National Department of Provincial Affairs and Local Government (DPLG) oversaw its evolution and transformation (DPLG, 2001: 7). White Papers were also created as a road map for the complete local government and participation framework. The Municipal Systems Act of 2000 and the Municipal Structure Act of 1998 are two examples of these white papers. Different sections of the law provide for various types of grassroots community engagement to enhance local government efficiency and effectiveness. Good examples are Sections 152 and 195.

In addition to being acknowledged as a local government for development, a number of additional duties were delegated to the third tier. The local and metropolitan municipalities are granted the right to establish ward committees as a fundamental component of local administration. The Municipal Systems Act of 2000 and the Municipal Structure Act of 1998 both provide that municipalities must annually provide complete information about the degree of engagement of individuals, communities, and community groups in local development discussions.

3.2.1 Decentralization in post-apartheid South Africa

In South Africa, decentralization began in 1996 with the Department for Constitutional Development serving as its precursor. According to Harrison (2001), the Decentralized

Development Planning (DDP) initiative was launched by the Department of Constitutional Development in partnership with the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) to support South Africa's integrated development planning process. However, the national and regional administrations were the subjects of controversy throughout the early stages of the transition from apartheid to the democratic era. Discussions for the local government's transition began after the national and regional consultations were finished. Local self-government is defined explicitly in the South African Constitution as a "local realm of government with the constitutional responsibility to carry out a variety of developmental obligations" (Constitution: Republic of South Africa 1996, Section 108).

According to Williams (2006), the South African Constitution gained international legitimacy following the apartheid system and is now referred to as a "modern Constitution" since it includes participatory concepts and other contemporary components of administration. In addition to receiving international recognition, the South African local government system has won plaudits for its emphasis on democratic principles and service performance. According to Kersting et al. (2009), the legacy of the apartheid government has led to a greater acceptance of decentralization in South Africa than in other areas of the globe.

The 1996 South African Constitution promotes and supports the inclusiveness of the grassroots in municipal issues, especially in the area of development. The legislation of the Municipal Systems Act (2000) and the Municipal Structures Act (1998) strengthened the constitutional obligation. In other words, by introducing democracy and some form of decentralization into grassroots developmental arrangements, the Acts became vital. Both Acts give cognizance to participation and input from the people at the grassroots level. The importance of grassroots participatory governance is clearly described in the local government Municipal System Act (Section 16, Chapter 4). The Act mandates that municipal councils create an enabling environment for individual and community participation in decisions that affect them. Furthermore, the local government is given the audacity by the Act to motivate and encourage the participation of communities through the Integrated Development Plans (IDP) processes. The Municipal System Act says that local governments should make all the plans they need to and give councilors and

staff the tools they need to encourage and make it easier for people to get involved in the communities they are in charge of.

According to Thompson et al. (2018), the 1996 South African Constitution requires the local government to deliver democratic and accountable governance while encouraging a system of participatory governance. The democratic and responsible administration must promote and provide the circumstances for participation in municipal affairs by local communities and community groups (Section 152). For instance, in Section 16.1 of the Municipal System Act:

A municipality must develop a culture of municipal government that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance. And just for this purpose encourage and create conditions for the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality (and) contribute to building the capacity of (i) the local community to enable it to participate in the affairs of the municipality and (ii) councilors and staff to foster community participation. (RSAb; 2000: Section 16.1).

The local or municipal government, according to the Act, must consider special categories of the population within the community in its developmental efforts. These are the disabled, women, other marginalized people or groups of people, and those who cannot read as well as write (Thompson et al., 2018). In addition, the White Paper (1998) on municipalities obliged the third tier of government to work together with local communities to find sustainable ways to meet their needs and improve the quality of their lives (Thompson et al., 2018). The White Paper on Local Government (1998: Section 1.4) indicates that:

municipalities must adopt inclusive approaches to fostering community participation, including strategies aimed at removing obstacles to, and actively encouraging, the participation of marginalized groups in the local community. At the same time, the participatory processes must not become an obstacle to development, and narrow interest groups must not be allowed to 'capture' the development process.

Participation is key in order to fighting for, grow, and bringing back democracy at the local level (Bucek and Smith, 2000).

However, in several cases, "real" participation has been faced with a lack of proper implementation. Participation is reduced to the mere ticking of attendance boxes, which is insulated by the idea of invited spaces (Thompson, 2014). People are only invited to participate in

an already pre-determined project and outcome. Cornwall and Gaventa (2000) describe it as a top-down and state-led approach; that is, the people's contribution becomes meaningless to facilitators or development providers, except to sign the attendance register. Cornwall (2002) defines "invited spaces" as a pretext where people are invited by the powers that be to seemingly participate in a process that is supposed to make them stakeholders in decisions that affect them. The opposite of invited space is claimed space (Cornwall 2008). The people create the claimed space for themselves.

Furthermore, the functionality of ward committees has been diluted in form with time. Ward committees appear to be the closest avenue of participation for people within communities, but they have devolved into mere blunt instruments in the hands of municipalities (Good Governance Learning Network 2009). In small municipalities, the situation is worse because there is no budget to support capacity building and less attention is paid to ward committees (GGLN State of Local Governance Report (2009/2010)). The greater proportion of the budget in such municipalities tends to focus on personal costs, including remuneration for the ward councilors (GGLN State of Local Governance Report (2009/2010)). A minimum amount of money from the budget is spent on service delivery to strengthen the governance system.

While there is constitutional and legal support in South Africa for encouraging participatory development at the grassroots level, the level and extent to which these white papers are invoked into reality and actions by the mandated authorities remain far behind. In most cases, the Ward Admin Committee and other local government participatory agents do not create the needed playing ground for the people to participate in meetings as they are supposed to (GGLN, 2013). Party politics, corruption, nepotism, lack of encouragement, and support for democratic participation from the side of the municipality are among several factors that writers such as Tapscott (2010) point to as militating against the effective and efficient functionality of ward committees. The lack of participation in issues of development at the grassroots level is a hurdle for both sustainable development and participatory democracy. This has had a negative impact on participatory democracy, as captured in the 1998 White Paper on local government. The story has been that the people are reluctant and are not able to take advantage of participatory opportunities created by the municipalities. Thompson and Matheza (2005), as cited in Thompson and Nleya

(2010): 86, indicate that "the poor are variously perceived as apathetic and reluctant to take advantage of the fresh opportunities available to them, especially now that apartheid has gone". So, some critics (Cooke and Kothari, 2001) see the participatory development perspective as a form of tyranny in development.

In general, Cameron (2013) notes that South Africa is merely an exception to the rule when it comes to decentralization in Africa from the top down. This is due to the tendency of most African nations toward centralization rather than decentralization, which is caused by a number of reasons, including colonial domination. Decentralization has gained traction in South Africa at both the provincial and municipal levels (Cameron, 2013). Decentralization, nevertheless, also presents some specific difficulties in South Africa. On the other hand, the author suggests that party politics in South Africa has an impact on decentralization. Vertical political power is not a barrier to decentralization in South Africa (Cameron, 2013). In this case, the provincial or local government is under the authority of a different political party than the party in power at the federal level, and it is no longer under its jurisdiction. According to Cameron, this will obstruct decentralization.

3.3 The Nigerian System: a historical review

According to Adegoke (2013), nearly all of the Sub-Saharan African nations are multi-cultural, multinational, and multilingual states. They are made up of a number of countries or ethnic groups that vary in size, culture, and history. Many nations acquired political independence from Britain in 1960, including Nigeria. When the nation gained independence, the residents anticipated that the colonial rulers' involvement, control, exploitation, and oppression would disappear (Nwanna, 2016). The indigenous people who finally rose to prominence as leaders were widely trusted and believed to be able to move the nation forward. Isa (2016) claims Nigeria has been a nation of interest in terms of political and economic growth. The former British colony is one of several post-colonial developing nations, and its commitment to development may serve as a valuable model for understanding the undeveloped nature of third-world political economies (Osita, 2016).

The agreement formed in advance of independence paid little or no attention to the political and social landscape at the local level; instead, it simply sought to maintain the power of the elites who could defend their ties to the British. Njoku (1997) agrees that the British political economy they

imposed on Nigeria at the time served primarily to exploit the Nigerian people economically while promoting the European capitalist economic system. The Nigerian State has been plagued by dependency-type connections since the British left because of the British's unequal and exploitative political and economic actions (Osita, 2016). As a result, the economy is now heavily dependent on the economies of the nation's metropolitan areas. According to Luqman and Lawal (2011), the colonists benefited from all the development infrastructure facilities developed at the time since they made it simple and free to carry raw materials to the point of assembling before they were transported to Europe and other areas of the globe. Duru (2002) emphasizes the fact that the colonists lived in places that were highly established and kept up to meet their standards, such as Kano and Lagos. The colony's sections and territories saw varying degrees of development. According to Osita (2016), the result is the split of the population between the centers (cities) and the villages (periphery), with the colonizers residing in the cities. This, according to the same author, caused the urban-rural division that has persisted in post-independence Nigeria. To put the nation back on the road of progress, the country underwent some required reforms; yet little to nothing has been accomplished (Aregbeshola, 2011).

Abraham (2010) asserts that from the third tier of the government's foundation, its name has undergone changes. First, the Native Authority was given by the colonial overlords. As time went on, it changed to Local Authority, and it is now Local Government. The colonial administration is often cited in the literature as the source of Nigeria's current local government structure. However, the Nigerian local government system was not included in the Nigerian Constitution prior to 1976. Isa (2016) claims that before 1976, Nigeria's local government system was mired in chaos, traditionalism, and, in some instances, neglect. The 1976 local government changes, which have received the greatest attention from academics, continue to serve as the foundation for the system's operation today. The government of Nigeria constitutionalized the local government system in 1979 to enable and reposition the third tier of government for efficient service delivery at the grassroots level. This is made clear in the Fourth Schedule of the Constitutions of 1979 and 1999 for the Federal Republic of Nigeria, along with certain obligations that don't just include economic planning and development.

Although the system has undergone several revisions to be repositioned for the system's only purpose—grassroots development—Yogboyaju and Akinola (2019) contend that the opposite is still true. Additionally, the third tier of government has never been free to exercise its function as the last branch of government at the local level (Isa, 2016). Similarly, the author points out that it supports the political interests and agenda rather than those of the poor and disenfranchised. This is one way in which the local political elites in South Africa and Nigeria are the same.

The 1989 Nigerian Constitution codified the most significant improvements in local government history that represent and advance the cause of citizen engagement in local governance. Sadly, soon after, in 1993, a military ruler overturned the Third Republic Constitution (Gboyega, 1993). The traditional council is given participating duties under Section 8 of the 1989 Constitution (Constitution of Nigeria, Decree 1989, Fourth Schedule). Participation is at the heart of the Nigerian local government system, claims Olowu (2005). Olowu says that if the local government didn't have participatory procedures, it wouldn't be able to reach its development goals (Olowu, 2005).

According to a number of academics, Nigeria's unequal progress is caused by the misuse of authority. Simbine and Oladeji (2010) contend that unequal growth is a result of the abuse of authority, both throughout the colonial and postcolonial eras. It won't be out of place to state, looking back on both the colonial and post-colonial periods, that the growth of Nigeria as a nation was dependent on the vested interests of the colonizers and the Nigerian leaders who succeeded the British. According to Osita (2016), the authorities of Nigeria concentrated on excessive spending and said that Africa was the focal point of their foreign policy rather than investing the significant riches from the surplus crude oil account in the development of Nigeria. According to Dodo (2009), several academics have also condemned the Nigerian government's participation in excessive spending in the 1970s while its populace endured extreme poverty. Since execution has been difficult and the necessary infrastructure has not been available for such programs, the majority of development interventions started after the colonists' departure have failed (Osita, 2016). The same author concludes that the problem of development has become alarming because Nigeria still hasn't reached the point of development even though it has a lot of valuable natural and human resources and has been independent for a long time.

3.3.1 Tenets of ethnicity in the Nigerian Developmental State

According to the research now in print, racial disparities have been a significant barrier to South Africa's growth. Ethnicity has also interfered with Nigeria's attempts to progress throughout the years. Reviewing Nigeria's political landscape after 1960 reveals, as Kalejaiye and Alliyu (2013) show, how ethnicity and military actions have impeded the country's aspirations for growth and democratic rule. This is concisely expressed by Otite (1990), who refers to ethnicity as a "virus" and one of the primary drivers of social unrest and political instability in Nigeria. Indeed, ethnicity is considered to be a major factor impeding Nigeria's growth.

The influence of ethnicity on local government in Nigeria continues to be crucial in discussions about the country's growth. Nigeria is one of the most ethnically and culturally varied nation-states, with significant variances in the languages, foods, attire, and kinds of social systems and structures that its citizens use. According to DFID (2003), Nigeria, after New Guinea and Indonesia, has the world's most ethnically and linguistically diverse population. Furthermore, this variety has significant effects on every area of the economy, including development. According to Otite (1975), it is debatable among researchers to provide the precise number because of the ethnic groupings in Nigeria's diverse and multidimensional makeup. According to Ottie, some academics assert that there are 250 ethnic groups in Nigeria, while others believe there may be as many as 374. (Ottie, 1975). DFID (2006) also notes that 470 is what some other studies say. Since new languages are often made and old ones are lost, it is hard to know how many ethnic groups and languages there are (DFID, 2003).

3.3.2 Decentralization in Nigeria

Nigeria has struggled with development issues ever since gaining independence. The decentralization of authority is one of several ideas put out as a way to overcome the obstacles to Nigerian development. Increased openness, accountability, grassroots engagement, and greater service delivery are predicted results of decentralizing authority (Isa, 2016). Local government changes in Nigeria started earlier in the 1970s, according to Kersting et al. (2009). However, the advancement of local government in the local environment was hampered by the national-level crisis. According to Abiola (2014), the government created a powerful and strict central authority

with little regard for or respect for the people. As a result of the federal government's consolidation of power, Nigeria's states (provinces) were denied access to their own economic and political activities. Because grassroots development efforts squandered resources, poverty levels rose as a result (Abiola, 2014). Taking control away from the center was just as difficult in 1999 when Nigeria tried to terminate military rule and return to a democratic government as it had been a few years before (Adetoye, 2016).

According to Olisakwe (2000), throughout time, Nigeria's real federalism has been impacted by sensitive topics including ethnicity, long-standing military rule, national development goals, democracy, and a rise in the number of states and local administrations. According to Babawale (2007), a number of morally charged issues have resulted from the Constitution's inadequate implementation since actual decentralization, as called for in the Constitution, has not been achieved. The top-down leadership, strict discipline, and devotion to law-and-order characteristics of the military regime's authoritarian form of government allowed for active citizen engagement, competitiveness, and collaboration. Because of this, it is hard to have a good, decentralized form of government in such a system (Okosun et al., 2016).

Due to a variety of issues, including corruption, insecurity, and religious conflicts (George et al., 2020), poor service delivery, resource allocation, and unfairness, the effectiveness of decentralization is also questioned in Nigeria (Othman et al., 2019). Ikeanyibe et al. (2020), Michael & Rich (2020), and Nurudeen & Marcin (2019) also talk about the budgetary and security problems that come up when local governments are given more power.

The prevailing consensus is that corruption, insufficient funding, and security make decentralization impossible. Political corruption occurs when the state electoral commission is used to deny people their right to vote. It also affects the deployment of any personnel who are seen as a threat to corporate interests, which results in the intimidation of workers by local governments. This may assist in explaining why selfish political motives were cited by Hasan and Tumba (2020) as a barrier to decentralization. Underfunding could make it harder to give people the basic services that the Constitution says they need.

The establishment of state and local governments in Nigeria is based on effective and efficient local governance. The situation in Nigeria, however, is different since the newly established states and local governments lack the funding necessary to manage their operations (Udah and Ndiyo, 2011). Some governmental organizations, such as local governments and wards, were created for political rather than developmental reasons (Okotoni, 2009). Typically, estimates of the population of a local government region range from 150,000 to 1 million (for large cities) (Udo et al., 2015). Even though state and municipal governments have received significant subsidies from the federal government since 1976, the lower numbers did not promote efficient service delivery (Olaniyi, 2013). The public has expressed reservations throughout the years about the need for more local government councils to be established to distribute the nation's tax resources (Kersting et al., 2009). In actuality, the final layer of the government's contribution to development is still more of a hope than a reality (Okotoni, 2009).

Additionally, without the local or municipal branch of government, neither the national nor state governments can connect with the millions of citizens living at the most basic levels of society (Adefeso and Saibu, 2014). Additionally, the majority of grassroots national development initiatives exclude local governments from participation (Olaniyi, 2013). The high rate of poverty and the absence of essential facilities and service delivery, including primary education, healthcare, and community water supply, are stark indicators of this neglect (Isah, 2016). There are a number of reasons for this, one of which is that the local government was established for political purposes (Okotoni, 2009). Among other problems, they lack financial independence and are unduly dependent on state and federal governments for practically everything they need to conduct their operations (Luqman and Lawal, 2011).

Municipalities in Nigeria have contributed very little, if at all, to service delivery. First, there is a lack of understanding of the concept of social service, which hinders social policy, especially at the municipal or local government level, claims Laleye (2012). Second, the local government suffers the weight and impact of the uneven division of social service activities since devolution lacks adequate financial support (Udah and Ndiyo, 2011). Third, the local government often cedes its role in providing social services to community-based groups, which diminishes the authority

and power of the local government as a branch of the government. In light of this, Laleye (2012) shows how important it is for citizens to be involved in getting services and in the political process.

In general, local municipal administrations are struggling financially and lack the required resources. As a result, they are unable to fulfill their constitutional duties to provide their communities with the most basic social amenities (Nwanna, 2016). According to Abraham (2010), the central government's subsidy is often utilized for recurring expenses, with less money spent on genuine development. The high rate of rural-urban migration; low agricultural productivity and output; high infant mortality rate; poor sanitation; illnesses; and high levels of illiteracy as a result of a lack of basic facilities such as water, to name a few indicators of this effect (Nwanna, 2016: 24). According to the results of (Nwant to, 2016), decentralization is intended to either bring required services closer to the people or bring the government closer to the people, depending on the results.

Overall, since African nations are multiethnic and have dynamic cultural distinctions, power-sharing from the strong center downstream will be reconsidered due to its effects on party politics (Olaniyi, 2013). Losing control is never easy for the ruling elite, particularly at the local level. This often results in the continuous consolidation of power for political purposes (Okotoni, 2009). An excellent illustration is a situation in Nigeria, where local governments are used as political pawns by the ruling class at both the province or state and federal levels for electoral objectives (Nwanna, 2016). The present Constitution (1999) assigns certain duties to each level of government, including the local or municipal government. However, this has not been upheld and adhered to. (Okotoni, 2009) Only colonial and highly centralized designs are chosen, put into place, and used, and real decentralization is discouraged.

Olaniyi (2013) concludes that Nigeria's lack of decentralization, particularly at the grassroots level, is the cause of poverty. The situation is different in South Africa, where the constitution specifically recognizes the separate roles and authority of municipal government along with its ability to generate money. The degree of political meddling in terms of changing the government or the political party in power has been somewhat constrained by this. When compared to other African nations, decentralization is well established in South Africa, as Cameron (2013)

underlined. However, decentralization in South Africa is not immune from difficulties, either (Cameron 2013).

3.4 Participatory development in practice: stakeholders, NGOs, and development implementers

Scholars feel that involvement is crucial for effective and sustainable development in the development discourse of today (Noel, 1998). Due to the growing focus on guaranteeing program efficacy via people's participation through bottom-up and grassroots program design, the concept of participatory development has become vital (Lele, 1991). The previous development strategy resulted in a misperception about project ownership and a lack of commitment from beneficiaries to the initiatives, rather than facilitating project sustainability and empowerment (Noel, 1998). This section is mostly about the strategies, roles, and effects of non-government organizations and development implementers.

3.4.1 Stakeholders in developmental initiative

Every development initiative aims to benefit the relevant groups and recipients (Karl, 2000). Most often, this group is referred to as stakeholders. In participatory development, the word "stakeholders" is often used to refer to all parties participating in the development process, including organizations and beneficiaries (Karl, 2000). The development intervention may have a good or bad influence on these groups in some manner, or it may have an effect on how the initiative or organization acts.

Karl (2000) proposes three (3) categories of stakeholders: primary stakeholders, or those who will be most directly impacted by a project; secondary stakeholders, or those who will act as intermediaries in delivering support to the primary stakeholders; and external stakeholders, or those who are not formally associated with a project but may be impacted by it. In a similar spirit, the three kinds of stakeholders in development interventions are described in various ways by the Overseas Development Administration (1995). These include beneficiaries, who are often regarded as major stakeholders, financial organizations (donors), as well as implementing agencies. The terminology used to identify individuals who benefit from development processes

and/or interventions has always evolved, from rural poor to target groups, beneficiaries, stakeholders or players, participants, and partners (El-Gack, 2007). Although the stakeholders may have diverse interests, Mosse (1998) made it apparent that their commitment and ownership are still crucial for the success of the project. Stakeholder analysis aids in project (project, policy, design, and implementation) success by identifying the important individuals or groups impacted by an intervention (Mohan, 2001). Karl (2000) says that development projects use stakeholder analysis to figure out who the important partners and participants are and who is in charge of making decisions, allocating resources, planning, putting changes into action, monitoring and evaluating progress, and so on.

3.4.2 Impact of non-governmental organizations (NGOs)

Over the last several years, non-governmental groups have taken the lead in promoting participatory development (NGOs). The skill sets of NGOs have the necessary instruments for community involvement in development processes (Willis, 2005). These have aided NGOs in winning the admiration, respect, and financial support of development funders, organizations, and donors. NGOs, as forerunners of participatory development, assist in resolving issues encountered by low-income people while also offering them creative alternatives (Brohman, 1996). According to Rahnema (1992), NGOs acquire a special status and are exempt from the administrative red tape that can cause delays in their activities. Because of their spontaneity, quickness, and ability to adapt to the needs of communities, NGOs, according to Brohman (1996), have an edge over traditional development groups. International NGOs typically carry out small initiatives to persuade the community to engage because they stress the value of involvement. This is due to the fact that for these global NGOs, involvement is seen as complete, a means to a goal, and an end in and of itself (Willis, 2005; Brohman, 1996; ODA, 1995).

Even though huge sums of money are spent on development aid every year, relatively little is known about the precise effects of initiatives on underprivileged areas (Baker, 2000). According to Chambers (1997), development providers, including donor organizations, governments of nations, NGOs, and banks, have contributed excellent thinking, energy, and power to development programs, but there have also been flaws and certain types of failure. These shortcomings are linked to the unbalanced development provider policies that often dictate resource allocation and

project structuring (Cernea, 1991). According to Baker (2000), the majority of development actors and providers are not concerned with evaluating project effects because they worry that the results would be unfavorable. They also believe it will be difficult, expensive, time-consuming, and technically complex (Baker, 2000).

The need for evaluative involvement has gained popularity as more third-world nations, particularly those with significant levels of poverty, choose and embrace participatory development over alternative development techniques. According to Chambers (1992), if project stakeholders don't employ community-based assessment involvement, they won't be able to accomplish sustainable development.

Since the 1970s, when it was adopted by development agencies and the development discourse, the idea of assessment participation has been intertwined with participatory development. There isn't yet a universally recognized standard for involvement. That may be explained by how different each group is. El-Gack (2007) asserts, however, that participation may be evaluated by using a yardstick for gauging an event's development. Due to the unpredictable nature of the procedure, it is crucial to know what to do at each stage of the evaluation process to determine where upgrading is necessary. Experts on participation emphasize the need for participation assessment in development efforts. The basic goals of participation evaluation in development projects should be to provide information on the impact of participation on project and programme results and performance, validate the cost and other investments in participatory development, and use the information as a basis for decisions, according to several authors (Karl, 2000:1; Bhatnagar, Rudqvist, and Woodford-Berger, 1996; Schneider and Libercier, 1995:48; Williams 1992).

Community involvement is essential in issue identification, goal setting, decision making, policy creation, implementation, contribution, monitoring, and evaluation for the effective assessment of participation in a developmental program. The process is not participative if the community is not participating in any of them (Nghah, 2012). Participatory methods have drawn criticism from some development specialists for disregarding the communities they are meant to support (Banerjee et al., 2010). How to incorporate the community is one of the biggest problems that most development initiatives encounter. When it comes to incorporating the community at the grassroots level, the majority of initiatives and/or programs are useless (El-Gack, 2007).

3.4.3 The role of development implementers

Participation depends heavily on giving the community the power to decide on hearing what they have to say, on paying greater attention to their needs, and on consultation.

Participation requires giving communities the freedom to take the lead, as well as hearing their opinions, attending to their needs, and discussing with them. In addition, it will be challenging to bring about a decent degree of social change if the communities that are intended to benefit from the development process and information are examined and presented by the specialists themselves (World Bank, 1996). Additionally, individuals with influence over the underprivileged need to sit down, listen to, and learn from those who are powerless in society (Chambers, 1997).

Community or development implementers continue to be the most significant group of individuals in participatory development processes (Mosse, 2001). Accordingly, Mathur (1995) states that they are known by a variety of titles, including extension workers, field workers, facilitators, researchers, and agents of change. They are crucial, according to Mathur (1995), who also claims that no NGO or development agency could function without them. Most notably among community workers who are actively involved with grassroots activities, the term "participation" emerged with a sort of passion and energy (Rahnema, 1992). Change agents serve as the link between initiatives and individuals, groups, or communities.

According to Mosse (2001), being personally engaged in community development initiatives allows people the possibility to study communities in great detail and create their own knowledge of the needs, preferences, and perceptions of the communities. Additionally, it aids in the development of their own perspectives and interpretations of community culture and perceptions, as well as of project policies and activities (Mosse, 2001). The novel theories and interpretations developed by field personnel may be advantageous or detrimental.

The actions and attitudes of the development workers are criticized by Chambers (1991).

The author makes the argument that many of the issues are brought on by development experts because they do not pay attention to and take into account the demands and knowledge of the poor. The researcher contends that if development specialists pay attention to the poor, they would discover a solution to their issues (Chambers, 1994). Kothari (2001) clearly summarizes it using

somewhat different language but a similar logic. According to the author, the organization supported certain development professionals, giving them leverage to influence or modify the process of community empowerment, negotiate or limit communities' options, or both. Participatory development has demanded a radical departure from the conduct of development professionals as a result of this unfavorable attitude (Francis, 2001). This transformation is more personal than institutional or governmental, according to Chambers (1997).

Development professionals or practitioners should put more emphasis on changing the mindset of development workers and their perception of the local communities as being passive targets of development programs rather than calling for increased community participation in development initiatives (planning and implementation). Second, communities should get more attention and authority instead of change agents or field workers (Lozare, 1994).

Development professionals are seen as victims of development initiatives, much like the natives, according to Taylor (2001). This is due to the fact that governments, development organizations, and funders have jurisdiction over both professionals and natives. The same author suggests that both of these groups, development experts and locals, can only use the organization as a means or source of subsistence (Taylor, 2001). In other words, community members and those hired by development groups are "dependents," making them weak in the eyes of the latter. According to Mosse (2001), project staff who attempt to be more pragmatic and inclusive in terms of communities' participation and who spend more time discussing communities' needs than actually providing services are frequently viewed as underperforming by both the project community and organisation. The same researcher discovered that communities only accept project field employees if they stand to gain from it.

Williams and Srivastava (2003) found that, rather than being the result of individual behaviors, the government personnel's lax attitude is directly related to several institutional constraints in Eastern India. Additionally, a few of such restrictions are:

1. They do not possess the required training, knowledge, and skills to work with the public
2. Organisation lacks career growth path for lower-ranking staff except for high-ranking staff which certain
3. They don't get motivation in terms of incentives for a good job done

4. Performance measurement and monitoring are most times done with the top-down approach (Williams and Srivastava, 2003).

It is impossible to overstate the importance of development practitioners or professionals. According to Brohman (1996), in order to foster connections with the communities via ongoing community participation in discussion and discourse, these communities need to be aware of how the local system runs. By ensuring that the communities have the necessary knowledge and information and helping them to make the best choice possible while still relying on their own thorough examination of the communities' circumstances, development specialists may also increase the capacity of the communities (Schonhuth, 2002). Kelly (2004) similarly emphasizes the significance of providing a favorable work environment for all participants in participative development, with a focus on professionals, but notes that doing so calls for openness and conversation. If the dispute between or among development professionals is not resolved, it might significantly affect their relationships at work or with their tasks, which would have a cascading effect on the project's result and impact (Tembo, 2003).

3.5 Gender and participatory development

There should be a balance of discussion and contribution among genders, a natural flow of information to all groups, and a combination of honestly shared responsibility and representation for effective and efficient participation. The question of whether there can be an open, equal, free, and fair debate between the genders remains unanswered (Izugbara, 2004). On paper, it is easily achievable. However, the reality does not always match the paper's achievement. Jolly (2000) contends that this is attributed to the fact that some people cannot put together words and express their views and opinions. Some may also not be confident enough to contribute when the professionals are around. Culture and tradition have also played a greater role in this regard, hindering women from participating and speaking in public even if they are part of a meeting and belong to a decision-making body (Izugbara, 2004). Therefore, comparing women and men, especially in the "Third World" countries, becomes very difficult.

This forms the basis for the general belief that women in "third world" countries are faced with many challenges and are at a disadvantage compared to their male counterparts. According to

Kabeer (2003), women are neglected when it comes to the main issues of representation (political), participation in decision-making processes, and access to opportunities (including equality of opportunities). Cornwall (2003) states that within the crux of the mainstream developmental projects and programmes, women's interests are being sidelined. Could this be why Weekes-Vagliani (1995) points out that there is a general notion that the contribution of women to the family is very important in rural and urban centers?

In reality, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, women at the grassroots level are not carried along as such but are left behind to encounter daily difficulties for the entire family (Weekes-Vagliani, 1995). According to the World Bank (2001), gender issues are central to participatory development and are critical, particularly when dealing with grassroots development. This was why this study also investigated the level of women's inclusiveness in the developmental initiative. The study looked at how much women took part in grassroots development projects in both case study areas. The results were talked about in detail in chapters 5 and 6 of this thesis.

3.6 Conclusion

Since its introduction in the 1970s, participatory development has gained widespread recognition in the global development discourse, despite some of its drawbacks. According to academic research, if the underprivileged people of the community take the initiative to identify needs, implement solutions, and evaluate their success, this would result in empowerment and sustainable development. If the communities are involved in making decisions, they will feel like they own the project and are a part of it, which will make them passionately defend it.

The politics of participatory development in South Africa and Nigeria are examined in this chapter. It gives a general overview of decentralization in Africa, focusing on South Africa and Nigeria in particular. While emphasizing the function and influence of NGOs and development specialists, it also addressed gender equality and participatory development problems. The ground-breaking research technique that was used in this examination is further explained in the next chapter. The study strategy, methods, and tools used to collect and handle the empirical data are all covered in depth in the next chapter.

Chapter Four

An explication of the qualitative research methodology and fieldwork approach for the study

4.0 Methodological framework and design

The previous chapter explores South Africa and Nigeria's participatory development structure. It also critically examines the society and government in both countries and highlights the role and impact of development staff. Furthermore, gender and participatory development issues were also discussed. This chapter focuses on the research method and approaches employed to gather, process, and analyze the study data to achieve the research objectives.

The broad objective of this qualitative study is to investigate the level of communities' participation in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level through the prism of IDP and CSDP by engaging with Kayamandi and Bwari communities in South Africa and Nigeria as case studies respectively. Specifically, this study examines the type of participatory development approaches used by those who implement development policies, the level of municipal knowledge of participatory development, the level of civil society participation, and the willingness of the communities to participate in development initiatives. Also, it aims to assess the level of women's participation and finally find ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced.

Grinnell (1993) asserts that one of the major issues facing all researchers is to select a clear and relevant research method. The method that is used for research is vital as it brings out the importance and systematic ways in which a researcher provides answers to the research questions and objectives. Therefore, the fact that the focus of this study is on the experiences, perceptions, and attitudes of participants while looking at other causative factors such as staff knowledge, a qualitative method was employed to focus on words and meanings (Darke et al. 1998) instead of the quantitative method. The qualitative research approach is usually used to answer the whys and hows of the dynamic nature of human behavior, opinion, and experience. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), confirm this by saying that the main aim of social science research is to have a clear understanding of the complexity of human dynamics and experience.

The qualitative research method is preferable in this context because it enables the researcher to understand and analyze the perceptions, experiences, and attitudes of participants in these projects (IDP and CSDP) and explores these within their distinct environments (Myers 2009). This research approach adopted for this study is chosen due to the scanty nature of the literature and primary research data on participatory development pertaining to the cases in South Africa and Nigeria.

The study was directed by the following central research question; how can the impact of participatory development be enhanced using IDP and CSDP in South Africa and Nigeria as case studies? Specifically, it addressed the following sub-questions

1. What is the nature of participatory development approaches used by development implementers at the policy interface at the grassroots level (IDP and CSDP)?
2. To what extent are the level of grassroots participation and the willingness to participate in development projects?
3. What are the factors that can influence communities' participation in development projects?
4. What is the level of grassroots women's participation in development projects?
5. In what ways can participatory development targets be achieved and enhanced?

4.1 Case study design

To address the main research question and sub-questions, and study the social dynamics of participation, its complexity, and multifaceted nature, the research employs a case study design, based on qualitative research methodological techniques. Yin (1994) argues that case studies are appropriate when the research questions are more explanatory ('how' and 'why') because such questions tend to be concerned with operational links that needed to be traced over time. Second, if the study does not require control over behavioral events, then a case study design is appropriate. Third, case studies are useful for focusing on contemporary events. Yin (2003) argues that a case study is desirable not only when the research questions of 'how' or 'why' are involved but when the events taking place are complex contemporary social phenomena. Schramm in Yin (2009) indicates that it will help illuminate a decision or set of decisions and stresses its appropriateness

for this study. In other words, the case study approach helps to develop an in-depth understanding of contextual and situational issues pertinent to this study.

McLeod and Elliott (2011) see case studies as an in-depth exploration of a single person, group, event, or community. According to Yin (2003), a case study approach is a comprehensive research strategy and not only a data collection method or design feature. Robineau Dugué (2018) puts forward that case studies create the avenue for extensive detail to be collected during data gathering and this is not the case when using other research designs.

Oakley (1974) posits that the information from in-depth interviews is far richer when compared with scheduled interviews that tend to restrict the interviewee. Hence, the use of the case-study approach in this research. The case study approach is most suitable for the use of multiple sources of data, which are very important in understanding real-life situations (Yin, 1994). It is specifically important for this research because of the difficulty this study would have faced when trying to generalize individual variables (experience, perception, and knowledge) that affect participation in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level.

Furthermore, there are two strands of case study according to Stake (2000): the intrinsic and instrumental. Stake (2000) indicates, "Research for an intrinsic case study is not undertaken because it illustrates a particular trait or problem, but because, in all its particularity and ordinariness, this case itself is of interest". While Vissak (2010:178) agrees by saying, "is especially important in studying topics that have not attracted much previous research attention". Again, the Vissak indicates that the "application of this method can be useful for transcending the local boundaries of investigated cases, capturing layers of reality, and developing new, testable and empirically valid theoretical and practical insights". This thesis engages research on two case study sites (Yin, 2003) as a path to discern and provide answers to the research questions and objectives instead of the single-case design.

This suits the target of this research, which uses both case studies to investigate and assess the level of participation in developmental initiatives grassroots level, present the perceptions, experiences, and opinions of the communities and help to bridge the gap between theory and practice of participatory development. The cases were selected because they both adopted the

participatory approach in project implementation at the grassroots level in these countries. This case study design is appropriate for this study because it allows for unpacking the complexity of participatory development, especially in real-time and real-life contexts (Crowe et al., 2011). In addition, the study's intention is not to compare both projects or cases but rather, comparatively look at the processes or practice of participatory development in both project implementations. Above all, this study supports better practices of participatory development at the grassroots level in both South Africa and Nigeria.

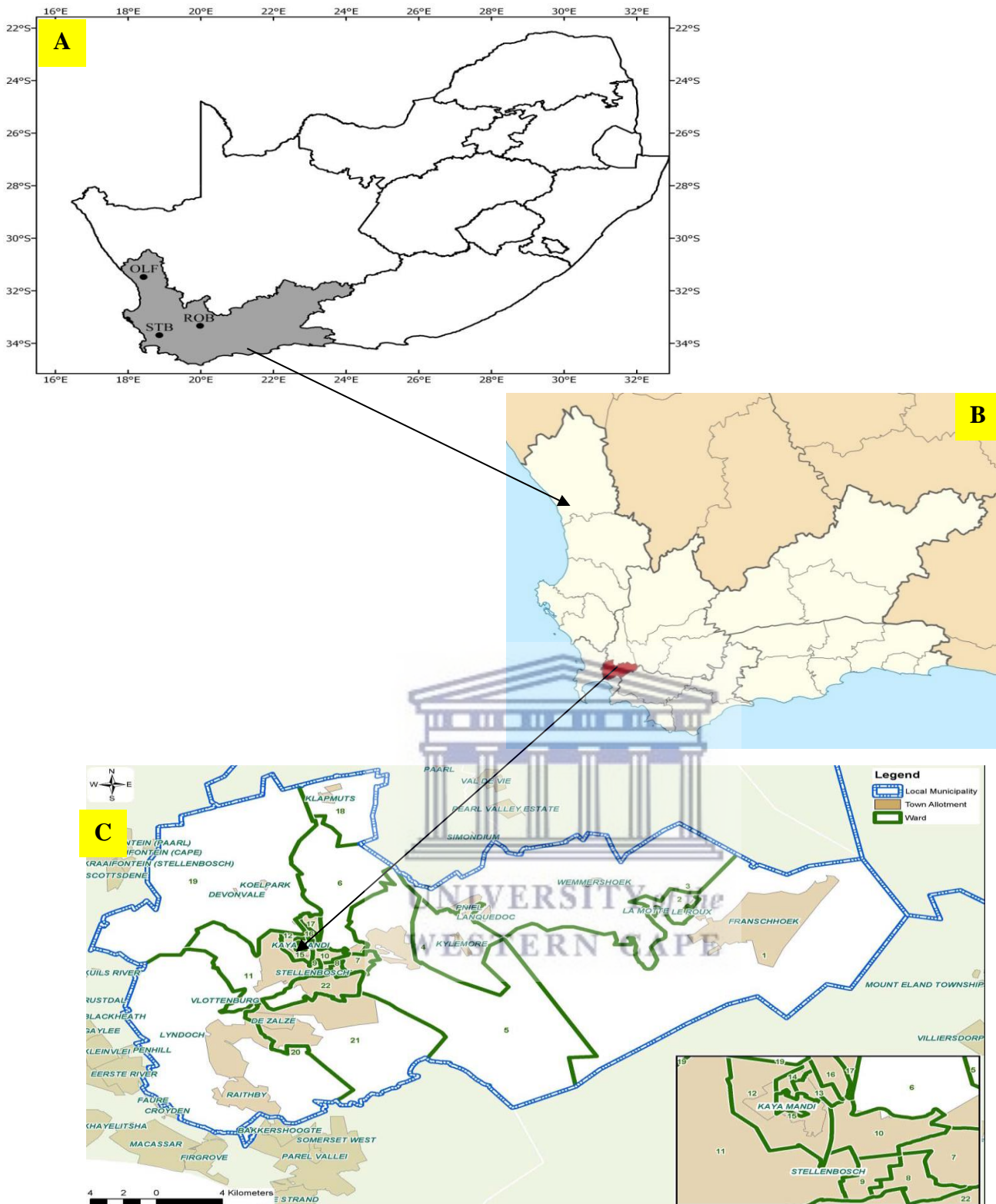
4.2 Description of study context

4.2.1 Kayamandi, Stellenbosch Municipality, Western Cape, South Africa.

Kayamandi is a community in the Stellenbosch municipality, which is also one of the municipalities in the Western Cape, South Africa. Kayamandi is situated to the west of Stellenbosch, along with the R304, approximately 6 km from the center of Stellenbosch (Osman 2003). Stellenbosch municipality is located in the heart of the Cape wine lands. It is situated about 50km eastwards from Cape Town next to Elsie's River. The municipal area covers approximately 900 km², lies between latitude -33° 55' 57.63" S, longitude 18° 51' 52.92" E, and has a population of approximately 200, 521 people (3rd Generation IDP 2012-2017).

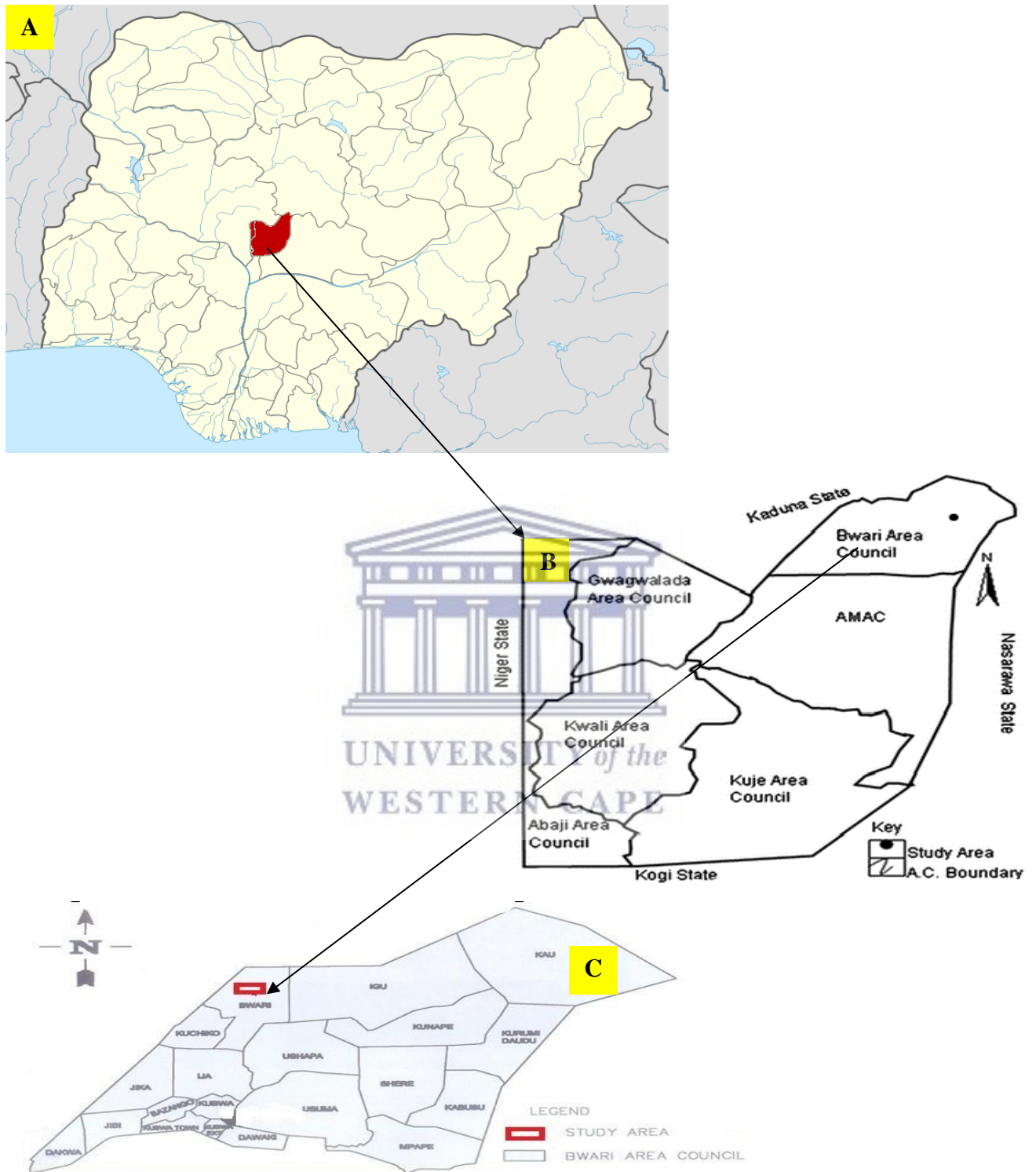
“The contrast between Kayamandi and the beauty and development of Stellenbosch is striking. Stellenbosch is often called "little Europe in Africa". The township lies in stark contrast against the hillside (Kayamandi), consisting of shacks, some permanent structures, several churches, a high school, a primary school, and a clinic” (Osman 2003:6). Generally, the weather in Stellenbosch is not that different from that of Cape Town. Therefore, its summer temperature most times goes above that of Cape Town with a 2°C (Osman 2003).

The maps below show the Kayamandi community in the national, provincial, and municipal contexts of South Africa. Map A shows the Western Cape province within South Africa. As seen on map B below, Stellenbosch is highlighted red, and Kayamandi is located towards the west of Stellenbosch visible from the center of the map of Stellenbosch (C). South Africa as a case study was discussed in detail in chapter three of this study. The selection of the Kayamandi community in Stellenbosch municipality as a case for this research was purposive. It is also due to its strategic location and the potential that provide a suitable unit of analysis for this research.



Source: Adapted from Julio et al (2006) & Stellenbosch IDP Document 2012-2017

Figure 4.1: Kayamandi community in the national geography of South Africa



Source: Adapted from Ahmed et al. (2012)

Figure 4.2: Bwari community (research site) located in the national context of Nigeria

4.2.2 Bwari, Bwari area council (municipality), FCT-Abuja, Nigeria.

Map A depicts FCT-Abuja on the Nigerian national map, shaded red in the middle. Interestingly, Abuja happened to be right in the center of the country. The second map (B) shows FCT-Abuja with its six area councils (municipal) and the Bwari area council or municipality, which is the study area, is on the top-right with the black dot. Then, the specific research field, the Bwari community was marked with a red rectangle visible towards the left from the center of the Bwari Area council, map (C).

The Bwari area council (municipality) which is among the six (6) area councils of the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja, Nigeria) houses the Bwari community. Bwari Area Council is located North of Nigeria's capital city (Abuja), with Kaduna State (province or region) to its North, Nasarawa State (province or region) to its East, and Niger State (province or region) to its West (Ahmed et al., 2012). It is located at an elevation of 584 meters above sea level and has an area of 914 square kilometers with a population amounting to 171,672 (Census 2006). It is located between 9°16'60" N and 7°22'60" E (Ahmed et al., 2012). Generally, Bwari lies exclusively within a tropical hinterland with prevailing features of high temperature and humidity all year round, while also experiencing pronounced wet and dry seasons, each lasting for about six months (Oriola, 2004). The onset of the rainy season is usually experienced in April, and most of the annual rainfall is recorded between July and September.

4.3 Sampling

Sampling is a strategy to make sure that any data collection methods are getting an accurate reflection of the population (Wadsworth, 1997). There are different methods of sampling in a qualitative study. According to Marshall (1996), convenient sampling makes it easier to involve the most accessible subjects and it is the least rigorous approach in a qualitative study. It is the least costly to the researcher, in terms of time, effort, and money, but may result in low-quality data and lacks intellectual credibility. Several qualitative research methods contain a convenience sampling component, but most of the time a more deliberate approach to sample selection is necessary. Marshall argues that judgmental sampling is the most popular and is often referred to as a purposeful sample. The best sample for addressing the study question is deliberately chosen. This may entail creating a framework of the factors that could affect a person's participation, which

will be based on practical experience in the research field, the body of available literature, and data from the study itself. Age, gender, and socioeconomic class might all be significant factors, but this is a more sophisticated approach than the straightforward demographic segmentation of epidemiological studies.

For theoretical sampling, Marshall explains that because qualitative study design is an iterative process, samples are typically more or less influenced by theory. Building interpretative hypotheses from the emerging data is necessary for theoretical sampling, which then involves choosing a new sample to test and further develop the theory. It is the main method for the grounded theoretical approach, but most qualitative investigations that call for interpretation will utilize some variation of it (Marshall, 1996).

The purposive sampling technique is used in this study to choose the study sites and participants. In qualitative research, the technique of purposive sampling is frequently employed. In this method, respondents are chosen based on their knowledge of the topic, prior experience with it, and/or the presence of certain characteristics that are of interest to the research (Biernacki & Waldorf 1981). Purposive sampling makes it a lot easier in reaching potential participants who were chosen based on their knowledge, experiences, involvement, and impact on participatory development processes.

Since this study aims to contribute to the body of knowledge on participatory development, both South Africa and Nigeria were purposively selected from the list of sub-Saharan African countries as case studies. The selection of these countries was influenced by the phenomenon under study, namely participation in community development projects (IDP and CSDP) in both countries that offered a chance for studying participatory approaches to development in its natural settings. The projects were located in two different countries where there were diverse groups of communities and ethnicities as well as similar, yet diverse physical environments, as discussed in previous chapters.

In line with the nature of purposive sampling, Kayamandi (South Africa) and Bwari (Nigeria) were purposively chosen due to the availability of participatory projects, willingness of the communities to partake in this study, interest, and eagerness of the municipalities and communities to be part of the project outcomes for better inclusive grassroots development. Accordingly, the analysis was

based on the experiences, perceptions, and attitudes of the communities involved in these two projects. In this study, the IDP and CSDP project staff, and the community members represented the case of interest. These cases were selected based on their availability to serve as participants in this study, and the relevance of their knowledge to the research interests.

4.4 Data collection

The crucial rule of case study investigation is the use of multiple sources of evidence (Yin 2013). To answer the research questions and help reach valid conclusions (Durrheim, 2006; Merriam, 2009) in this investigation, all the usual data collection techniques were used in the study, including semi-structured individual interviews, focus groups, observations, document reviews, and field notes. However, focus groups and semi-structured individual interviews were the main sources of primary data. This study utilized both primary and secondary sources of data gathering. Primary data consists of empirical information that is “personally collected” by the researcher while secondary data consists of information that is used but “not personally collected” by the researcher (Livesey, 2006:78).

These instruments were selected as they enabled purposeful and closed discussion between the researcher and the participants (Kothari, 2004). The semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions enabled the interviewer to probe participants' responses and ensured they understood the questions (Gerring, 2007; Green 2011). While secondary data were gathered through document analysis, books, journal articles, previous research papers, and various project reports and documents. Others were government documents, World Bank, IDP, CSDP reports, and project websites for example, the Stellenbosch Municipality and the FCT-CSDP websites.

Interviews

Interviewing constitutes one of the most common methods of data collection in social science research and has a variety of forms, including face-to-face verbal interchange between researcher and participants at individual or group level, mailed or self-administered questionnaires, and telephone inquiry (Fontana & Frey 2000). Interview data are useful for developing an in-depth description of the case under study (Stake 2000). Moreover, face-to-face interviews enable the researcher to understand the significance of human experiences as described by participants

(Minichiello et al. 1990). Therefore, in-depth face-to-face interviews of the project staff and community members who were actively engaged in community development projects were chosen as the primary method of data collection in this research. This method was particularly important to achieve a holistic viewpoint of the participants on the subject matter of the inquiry which is participation. The community members were first interviewed individually to get in-depth details from the communities' key informants because the participation of the community members cannot be overemphasized (Stein and Harper, 2000). This enables the researcher to obtain individual knowledge from the communities who are the primary beneficiaries and explore their thoughts, feelings, and beliefs about participation (DeJonckheere et al, 2019) before interviewing the project implementers.

Selection of the participants

Purposive sampling was used to choose the interview participants. This is a common sampling technique in qualitative research, where the respondents are chosen based on their expertise and prior knowledge of the topic or because they have certain traits that are relevant to the investigation (Biernacki and Waldorf, 1981). Therefore, those community members who actively engaged in community development programs, and who were well-informed and were able and willing to share their personal and community experiences of development were chosen to participate.

The first respondent in each study community was the contact person of the community identified at the planning meeting before commencing the fieldwork. The subsequent respondents were identified and contacted for interviews based on their knowledge and experience in relation to community development projects.

Originally, this study had planned to interview a maximum of 20 participants from each of the two study cases (communities and project staff). When the availability of participants became problematic, the sample size was reduced to a total of 30 respondents (fifteen from each case study area) interviewed across the two case study communities and project staff: 16 males and 14 females (Table 4.1 and 4.2) (Fusch & Ness 2015). Therefore, fifteen individual interviews were conducted for each case study area. All interview respondents were above 18 years of age and were mainly comprised of ex-councillors, staff of non-governmental and community-based organisations, informed traditional leaders, and elderly persons within these two communities who have

knowledge of IDP/CSDP and have had experience from working with any of these projects from the community side. While selecting the study participants, conscious efforts were made to maintain gender balance. Hence, out of a total of 30 respondents in the two study cases (communities and project staff), 14 were women.

Table 4.1 Study participants for the semi-structured interviews in both communities

Case/Community	Number of Key Informants			Total
	Ex-councillor	NGO Staff	Elderly persons/Traditional leaders	
Kayamandi	2	4	4	10
Bwari	2	4	4	10
				20

Table 4.2 Study participants for semi-structured interviews from both municipalities

Municipalities	Number of Key Informants		Total
	Project Staff		
Stellenbosch	5		5
Bwari	5		5
			10

Focus group discussion

The use of focus group (s) is also a widely used technique of data collection in case study research. It is a form of group interview where the researcher and a small group of participants interact on sets of targeted questions designed to elicit collective viewpoints on specific issues of the research interest (Ryan et al. 2013). There are two distinct orientations among scholars regarding the use of focus groups in social research – the individual social psychology perspective, and the social constructivist perspective (Belzile & Öberg 2012; Ryan et al. 2013). The former approach views the individual opinions of the focus group participants with respect to the phenomenon under study as stable personal constructs, whereas the latter considers the participants as social beings co-

constructing the meaning while in group interaction (Belzile & Öberg 2012). The research employs the constructivist perspective and uses the focus group method to go deeper into pertinent community issues that emerged from the in-depth interviews. The focus groups were conducted at the end of the data collection process in each study site and were based on emergent issues that required further exploration. Since there was already familiarity with the communities' context following the individual in-depth interviews, selection decisions on the focus group participants were made on the basis of their involvement in community development and issues of interest. The reason for the focus group discussions was to follow up and give depth to the results from the semi-structured interviews (USAID, 1996).

However, the National Democratic Institute (NDI, 2008,) found that when men are present, women tend to speak less in group settings. Therefore, the gender makeup of a focus group may limit women's capacity to express their ideas on some topics, particularly those that are gender-related (Steward, et al, 2002). To ameliorate and reduce the impact of the mixed gender sessions, and control gender, this study decides to have the same number of males and females for both focus group discussions. (NDI, 2008).

In this study, two focus group discussions were conducted: one from each case study area. The two focus groups comprised six and eight participants respectively. The focus group members were generally homogenous in terms of community engagement and had direct involvement in the issues of interest. Table 4.3 shows the number of participants involved in each focus group discussion in the study communities.

Table 4. 3 Focus group participants for both cases

Case	Number of focus group	Number of participants		
		Male	Female	Total
Kayamandi	1	3	3	6
Bwari	1	4	4	8
Total (FGD)	2			

Document review

During the research for this study, relevant published and unpublished documents were gathered and examined, including books, journal articles, project guidelines, previous research papers, policy and project documents, and project reports. The profiles with maps of each of the respective study sites provided background information on the study locations. These documents were important to understand the research contexts and the ongoing and past development activities in these communities. Published articles and unpublished theses on Kayamandi and Bwari provided different information on the development, participation, and livelihood situations of these communities. A general awareness of the participation and development concerns as well as other socio-economic issues of the study communities was also brought into the limelight by casual reports from online media, particularly Eye Witness News (www.ewn.co.za), Iol.co.za, Kayamandi Community on Facebook, and Groundup News.

To have a deeper understanding of both cases, the Stellenbosch municipality website, IDP documents, CSDP project reports, and other policy documents were examined. These reports were useful for understanding the objectives, strategies, and methods of development interventions and community participation, as well as for identifying the major players involved in community development programs in the studied region. The secondary information thus gathered helped the study to understand the overall context of the study population and guided this investigation in the primary data collection process.

In summary, the one-on-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with thirty participants from both case study sites who had the project knowledge and experience. Two focus group discussions were also conducted, one in each of the project communities (Kayamandi and Bwari communities). Focus group discussions were held each time after the completion of semi-structured interviews with the participants. Focus groups allow qualitative information that would not be as easily accessible without group interaction (Kitzinger and Barbour, 1999; Janesick, 2004). In each focus group discussion, the topic would be introduced, and the discussion would be facilitated to make sure the discussants did not derail, and a single individual did not dominate the discussion. In addition, an explanation was provided to each group, amongst other things, that the

crux of the discussion was to get their understanding, experiences, and perspectives on issues concerning community participation in developmental projects.

Observation

Observation of the physical and socio-economic settings of the communities under investigation was an important aspect of evidence collection for this research. Throughout the fieldwork, the researcher personally visited and interacted informally with community residents, CBOs, schools, health clinics, and tuck shop owners in these communities in addition to the formal interviews. This is done in order to become as familiar as possible with the communities, places, and issues that these communities' residents have towards their participation in development. By combining the interviewees' comments with the directly observed reality, this technique helped me make sense of their responses in relation to the study.

In both case study areas, the local residents' daily lives were closely observed, and ward plan and community cooperative meetings were also attended. One of the case study locations hosted a cultural event that was attended as well. These observations immediately influenced the data needed for the study since they enabled this investigation to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the cultural, socioeconomic, and community development contexts of the study communities. More importantly, these observations enabled this investigation to better understand how marginalized communities interpret the acts of others and themselves in relation to the topic being studied. The researcher saw some of the communities' formal development activities as non-participant observer, including group meetings, training sessions, workshops, and continuing physical development activities, which helped this study better understand how people engage in development contexts. To document the observations of numerous activities and pertinent interactions with the people, a thorough field note was maintained.

4.5 Field Notes

Noting social dynamics in the research field through field note observation became integral to the entire research process: this technique increases data quality and makes data analysis easier by providing social background and context. By using this method, observations were recorded. These insights later contributed in a way of providing important depth to the study. An ex-councilor in

the Kayamandi community in South Africa shared his experience of over 25 years. In the same vein, the Head of Bwari Community Cooperative gave deep and thoughtful insights into the travails of communities before CSDP came into being. The lists of project documents to be collected from project staff in South Africa and Nigeria were noted and collected. Field notes thus became a vital source of data for this study. The following section focuses on how the data gathered was reduced, processed, and analyzed.

4.6 Fieldwork and data collection procedures

As stated earlier, first, the countries and communities to be studied were purposively selected based on some features or characteristics that were in line with the purpose of the study (Yin, 2003). However, some additional features were the availability of participatory projects and the willingness of the community members to participate in this study. In addition, the researcher is from Nigeria and had work experiences with different grassroots projects while working with an international research institute. With this exposure, there was already familiarity with the peri-urban terrain and knowledge of working with communities at the grassroots level in Nigeria.

As background to the process of data gathering, using the internet, non-profit or non-governmental organizations, municipalities, and other agencies working with these communities were contacted. In the case of South Africa, after an online search, a non-governmental organization working in the Kayamandi community was contacted after which a meeting was scheduled. The first visit to the NGO and the community was on 22nd November 2018. At the meeting, a formal introduction about the project was done to the Head of the NGO. This was later followed by several other visits to the NGO and community as part of the observatory research process. The Head of the NGO then contacted a Councilor from the Kayamandi community to enable the data gathering process. Through the Councilor, the Stellenbosch municipality was contacted. This was followed by several other visits to the Stellenbosch municipality office where another meeting was organized with the IDP staff, and the project was also introduced to the staff. The staff was all excited about the project. Afterward, an approval letter to conduct research was given by the Stellenbosch municipality. This was so because the Kayamandi community falls under the jurisdiction of Stellenbosch municipality.

For the Nigerian case, it was during a meeting for a different project in Nigeria that a discussion was held with the FCT-CSDP General-Manager (GM) about what they do in the communities at the grassroots level. After a deep and detailed discussion about the CSDP project, an unscheduled visit was paid to the Bwari community in Nigeria, and a lengthy chat with the GM of the FCT-CSDP that works with the communities through the municipality (area council). After the meeting with the GM, an agreement was reached and verbal permission and approval to conduct research were given. While in South Africa, the researcher only followed up with emails. After a while, written approval or documented permission for this study was given to the researcher.

The first phase of the data collection began in South Africa with a pilot study. This made it easier and possible to make some amendments in terms of the instruments, guiding questions, and other data collection techniques that were to be used. The pilot study was indeed very helpful! It brought out nuances and challenges the research would have faced in the main study. Therefore, these issues were treated to enable a robust and reliable study outcome.

For the main study, almost all the study participants that were contacted in South Africa were interviewed face-to-face before the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic in early 2020. The onset of the Covid lockdown did affect the data collection process. Three (3) participants were then interviewed via phone with the aid of an application (Call Detail Record) that enabled the recording of the entire conversation before transcription. Meanwhile, while the data collection in South Africa was ongoing, the researcher kept contacting the FCT-CSDP General Manager and other potentially identified participants of the study in Nigeria. At the end of the data collection process in South Africa, the researcher then traveled to Nigeria for the second phase of data collection. Interestingly, all the study participants from the Nigerian case study were interviewed face-to-face. Before every interview session, the reason for the interview, focus group discussion, and research topic were always discussed in detail with all the study participants in the study countries.

While in the field, participants were asked questions to make sure they have an idea or understanding of this study. The face-to-face interviews helped in collecting reliable in-depth data. While conducting the semi-structured interviews with the study participants in both South Africa

and Nigeria, questions were asked in an open-ended way, allowing respondents to answer and elaborate freely. However, the entire data collection process was jealously guided. By constantly reminding respondents to be very clear and succinct, the discussions remained focused and in-depth.

Apart from the three (3) interviews conducted in South Africa via the phone with the community members, the remaining were conducted face-to-face and where the participants were relaxed and comfortable. Interviews took place in both countries in a variety of settings: community homes, schools, community health care centers, or informally out of doors, under a tree. Of course, with pride, some of the participants in the Bwari community led the researcher to visit a few participatory project sites to see and interact with other community members to hear their views. This enthusiasm showed how pleased local communities were to participate in projects and community needs they identified themselves. When the researcher noticed that other members of the community wanted to interject or add an opinion, they were encouraged to contribute. In addition, more informal community inputs were noted in the field's diary. In contrast, the participatory development project staff were interviewed in their various offices in these two countries.

From the semi-structured interview sessions in both communities in South Africa and Nigeria, the study was able to identify ex-councilors, community cooperative leaders, women leaders, and other participants who directly participated in any of the community's participatory projects. Then, the focus group discussion meeting was held, as mentioned above, with the study participants in school and community development centers respectively. On average, the focus group discussions comprised six to ten participants of one hour and thirty minutes in duration.

In addition to the semi-structured interviews conducted, the focus groups provided an in-depth understanding and brought up hidden nuances that were very vital and central to the study. Focus group discussion created the avenue for the display of participants' opinions, perceptions, and experiences and the tussle that comes with them as it gives credibility and adds to the semi-structured interviews and documents reviewed. Focus group discussion allows for gathering vital background information, and validating data already gathered (Stewart and Shamdasariu, 1990).

At the end of the focus group discussion, the researcher presented snacks and drinks to the participants. This also took place during some of the one-on-one semi-structured interviews. Vital to note, this was not given before the interview or shared with any of the study participants in both countries to curb possible biases and expectations. Rather, it was given at the end of the interview session as a gesture of goodwill and thanks.

Observing the interaction and communication between the project staff and the members from both communities in South Africa and Nigeria was a great value addition to this study. The researcher was privileged to attend one of the participatory appraisal sessions at the Bwari community during his fieldwork in Nigeria. With closed observation, the researcher could see how the project staff only were responding and facilitated the entire session. The community members were left to discuss their issues themselves and come up with a solution in terms of needs. Similarly, during the pilot study in South Africa, at the ward plan meeting at Kayamandi, the researcher was there to witness how the meeting was held. In addition, I heard from community members about their views as it relates to IDP and their participation in the processes. Keenly observing the IDP staff and their interaction with the community members forged in-depth research perspectives, which were triangulated with responses from the semi-structured interviews. Interactions amongst ward committee members, and councillors, proposing or opposing opinions greatly helped, assisted, and guided the researcher in results interpretation and connecting the participatory approach to practice.

The Ward Plan meeting is usually held for the community to either prioritized or reprioritized their earlier identified needs. According to Yin (2003), the technique of participant observation is another approach to collecting study data where the researcher is not just passive in the process but may decide to take part in some activities or events as they happen within the case study. The following section will deal with how the researcher employed the field notes to gather further data for this study.

4.7 Data analysis process

Data analysis was carried out continuously during the data collection processes as an iterative method. Data analysis, as a formal procedure, was a time-consuming but also creative, inventive,

and intriguing research approach that allowed the researcher to generate a thorough study report by putting the vast amount of obtained data into meaningful order (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). In social science research, there is much different research that necessitates the use of particular data collecting and analysis techniques, such as discourse data analysis techniques. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), there are essentially two streams of qualitative data analysis techniques. The first category consists of methodologies that are fundamentally related to a specific theoretical or epistemological perspective. For instance, phenomenological or grounded theory analysis, interpretive phenomenological analysis, and conversation analyses are some of those. The second stream contains adaptable analytical techniques, such as the popular thematic analysis, which are more generally applicable across a variety of contexts and are not fundamentally bound to a specific theoretical or epistemological perspective (Adu, 2019).

The thematic approach was chosen for this study mainly because of its adaptability and ability to fit into the study's constructivist paradigm of inquiry (Honebein, 1996). "Thematizing" (Holloway & Todres 2003: 347) the data is regarded as one of the fundamental generic abilities needed by researchers to do any kind of qualitative study (Braun & Clarke 2006). The act of turning qualitative data into discrete themes is known as thematic analysis (Boyatzis 1998). A theme is a significant component, a pattern of responses, or an interpretation of the data that is connected to the study topic (Ayres et al. 2003). The systematic organization, description, and interpretation of the observations with regard to the social phenomena under study constitute the process of encoding qualitative information into themes.

This study engages the qualitative research paradigm with a descriptive case study design in order to grasp and make sense of the communities' interpretations of events, experiences, and perceptions (Adu, 2019). To determine the level of communities' participation in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level, opened-ended and exploratory questions were asked to 20 participants (10 participants each) from the study communities in South Africa and Nigeria with two focus group discussions (one each). Also, to ascertain the nature of the participatory development approach and the level of knowledge of project staff on participatory development, a different set of exploratory questions were asked to 10 project staff (5 staff each from the two cases).

Furthermore, this study employs inductive and thematic content approaches for data analysis. While using the interpretation-focused coding strategy (Adu, 2019), the semantic approach was involved in analysing the explicit content of the data collected.

Important to note, chapters five, and six, and the data analysis part of chapter four of this thesis draws deeply on the works of Adu (2019) and Saldana (2016).

4.7.1 Data cleaning and preparation

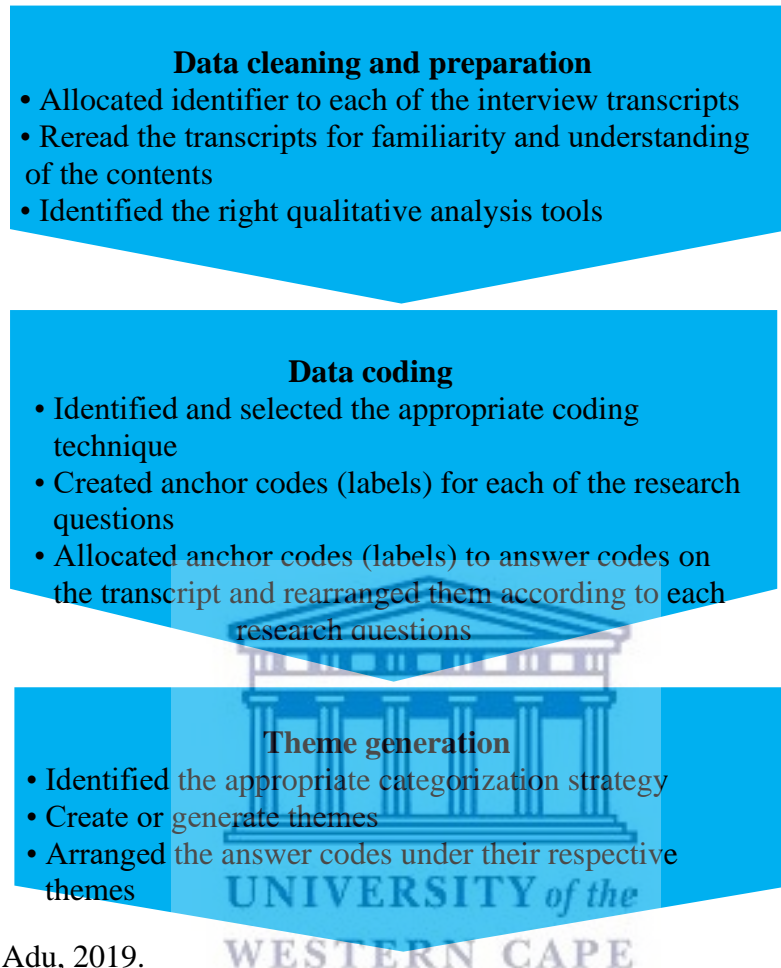
The process of analysing the data began by cleaning the thirty-two interview transcripts, including the focus group discussion, from both Kayamandi and Bwari communities. It continues by assigning identifiers (Adu, 2019) to each transcript, assigning each participant a pseudonyms, and getting familiar with the content of the transcripts to be able to determine the appropriate qualitative tools for analysis. To avoid loss of vital study information and for a deeper understanding of the subject matter, the study decided and chose to manually code the entire transcripts with the support of the Microsoft Word application (Adu, 2019).

4.7.2 Coding of gathered data

Looking at the main research approach and design, the purpose of the study, and the research questions with the type of data collected, this study settled for the interpretation-focused coding strategy as the most appropriate tool (Adu, 2017; Saldana, 2016). According to Adu, (2019), an Interpretation-focused coding strategy is usually employed to develop answer codes, which is the meaning deduced from the relevant or significant information in the transcript (see for example, figure 4.5 below). However, before engaging the above technique, all five research questions were assigned labels (Adu, 2019). And this label given to each research question is as well called anchor code (Adu, 2019).

Anchor code refers to a label (short phrase) assigned to each research question (Adu, 2019). The reason for developing anchor codes is to help in organizing the answer codes that are extracted from the transcripts systematically. To develop an anchor code, a research question is abbreviated. Thus “what is the level of community participation in development projects? Is shortened to the anchor code label: “*Level of participation*” or “*Level of community participation*” (Adu, 2019). All answer codes (shortened open-ended responses to this question) are then generated from the interview transcripts to elaborate on the anchor code (research question).

Figure (4.3) below shows the systematic approach engaged by the study to analyze the raw data collected from the field.



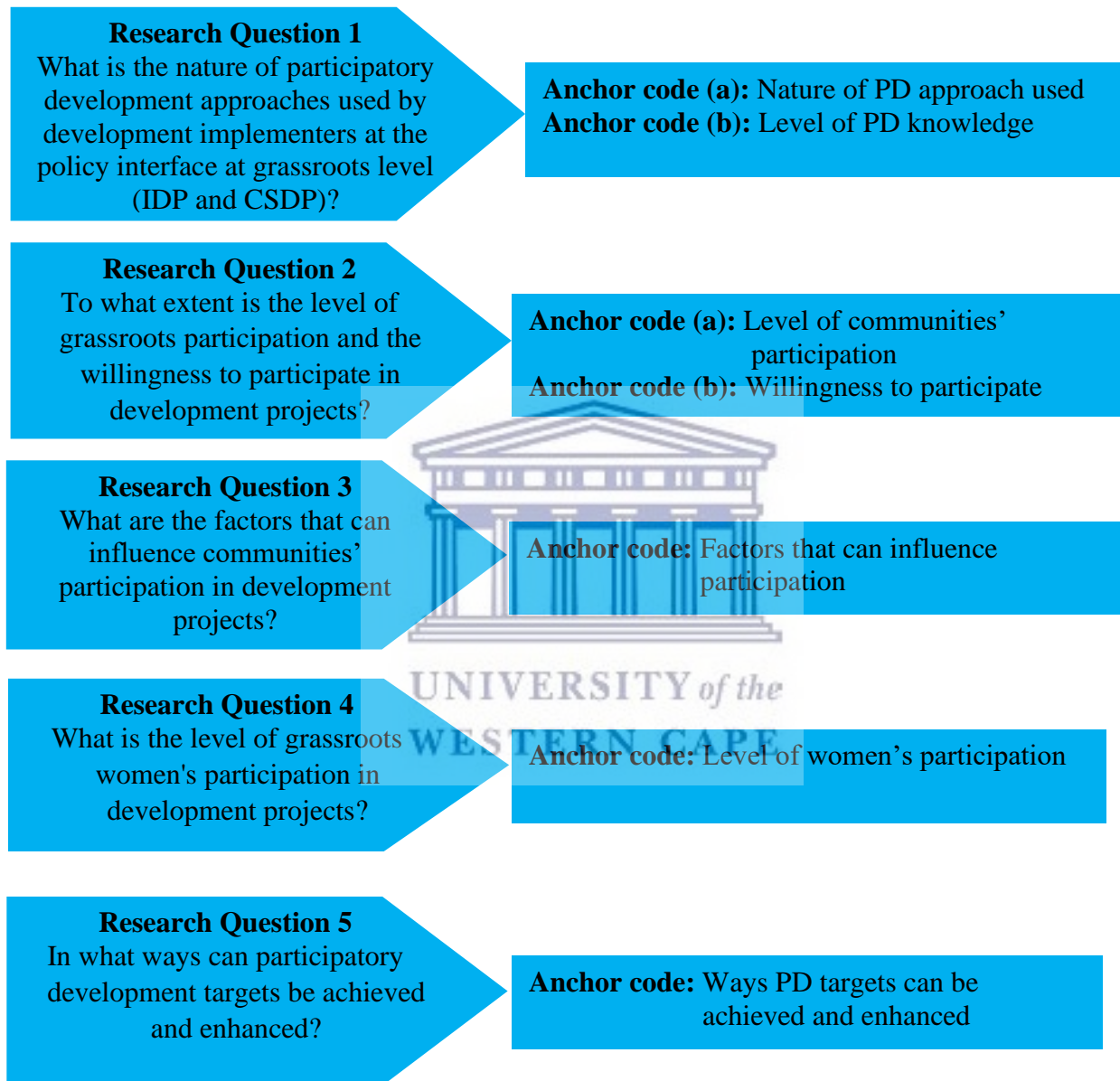
Adapted from: Adu, 2019.

Designed by: Researcher

Figure 4.3: Systematic approach to the study data analysis

Figure 4.4 below illustrates the research questions and the phrases that correspond, that is the anchor code. In this way, interview responses could then be linked to an anchor code, and thereafter answer code categories, which in turn generated themes. This enabled the easy identification of response similarities to each question (Adu, 2019). Generating anchor codes from the research questions before the process of coding is vital because the anchor code links each identified relevant excerpt on the transcript or significant information to the anchor code to generate a

thematic analysis of the qualitative responses to each question. This way of analysing qualitative information makes it easier to identify which identified relevant excerpt elaborates on a particular research question in a way that both discerns themes and patterns in answer responses (Adu, 2019). Determining the themes is much more difficult when simply analysing discursive responses as individual narratives in and of themselves.



Source: Researcher's own itemization

Figure 4.4: Research questions and their anchor codes

4.7.3 Theme generation

4.7.4.1 Identifying the coding strategy

When a case study approach is used in a study with data from semi-structured interviews, interpretation-focused coding is appropriate (Adu, 2019). Therefore, this study employs the interpretation-focused coding technique for the coding process, the study examines each piece of significant/relevant information derived from the interview transcripts (Adu, 2019) and then developed a short response (referred to as the answer code) to address each research question. Furthermore, the question response (or answer code) was distilled to two to five words. The code was then used to replace the original, more lengthy response (see for example **figure 4.5** below). This method makes it easier to determine thematic trends in the interview data.

This **figure (4.5)** is one of the 30 coded participant's (P8) transcripts.

138 R: Being discouraged by peer group, community members, whoever
139 Q: What can be done to increase peoples' participation?
140 R: If they can be consistent in what they said. Let's say, if you say like, everybody is gonna have
141 electricity, just do that and if it is not gonna happen, is very important to get the feedback if why
142 is not gonna happen. Communication I believe is the thing. And giving constant feedback.
143 Q: Do you think people are interested in doing NGO work or developmental work?
144 R: [They are] Just that they need to be given a platform to express and to show their skills and
145 stuff.
146 Q: Were you provided with the information and support you need to participate effectively?
147 R: They do sometimes but not often. So, most of the people hold their meetings without the
148 people from the municipality. And then they send maybe two or three people to go to the
149 municipality and approach them about the things that they need and then, nothing happens,
150 nothing change. So that is why is a problem.
151 Q: So, culture and tradition also affect participation?
152 R: [Yes].
153 Q: So, in your own view and given the issues so far discussed, what do you think the IDP should
154 do to empower its residents with regard to participation? Because, participation is key! Is key!
155 There is nothing...like you just mentioned now, the people are holding meetings without the
156 municipality people. When they finish holding meeting then they will now send people to go and
157 approach. You see that these people are even having the drive on their own to participate but
158 there is no assistance from the municipality.
159 R: [There is no motivation] They can motivate the people by being there whenever the people
160 need them. [Try to...just communication approach]. Communication and be consistent in what they
161 say. That is very important to me.
162 Sometimes again, the municipality is suppose to print flyers to give to the people in terms of
163 upcoming developmental work and give them an idea, educate the people, empower the people
164 so that you will be able to have the information they need to contribute. Because, if you are
165 telling somebody about solar panel and the person is in a rural community he doesn't know what
166 solar panel is, it is the responsibility of the municipality world-wide in local governance to teach
167 that person what solar panel is, its advantages and disadvantages. Then you now allow that
168 person to decide.
169 Q: So, has the municipality been able to create this type of awareness? Giving the people the
170 information they need to participate? Because, if the man doesn't know anything about what the
171 municipality is coming to do, he won't be able to participate.
172 R: As I mentioned earlier, sometimes they do and they only do it few times. And for instance,
173 they can do it maybe in January and then by June, you see that kind of period of time. Is a long
174 time. It is more periodic.
175 Q: What is your overall experience in the municipality on how it engages everyone and this
176 community of Kayamandi. Your overall experience. Has the municipality been able to engage
177 the people to participate to make them know, create an awareness...?
178 R: No.
179 Q: Generally, since you were born.
180 R: Hmm, hmmm. They try but you will see that is not working well. Why is not working? Is
181 because they are doing it when they need something from the community. If they can set up a
182 schedule and say maybe we need to meet maybe once in two months with the people. That is

A1a1j
Factor that affect participation: Discourage by peer group and community members

A1a1j
Ways PD targets can be achieved and improved: Consistent in what they say

A1a1j
Ways PD targets can be achieved and improved: Important to get constant feedback

A1a1j
Ways PD targets can be achieved and improved: Communication

A1a1j
Willingness to participate: They are willing!

A1a1j
Level of participation: Meeting information rarely

A1a1j
Willingness to participate: People held meetings without municipality

A1a1j
Factor that affect participation: Culture and tradition affect participation

A1a1j
Factor that affect participation: No motivation!

A1a1j
Ways PD targets can be achieved and improved: Been there for the people

A1a1j
Ways PD targets can be achieved and improved: Try to... (just communicate **quickly**)

A1a1j
Ways PD targets can be achieved and improved: Communication and consistent

A1a1j
Level of participation: Meeting support rarely

A1a1j
Level of participation: No engagement from municipality

A1a1j
Factor that affect participation: when they need something from the people

A1a1j
Ways PD targets can be achieved and improved: Set up meeting schedule

Answer codes are short phrases used to represent different aspects or themes in the lengthy responses given by study participants. Answer codes are relevant or significant information in the interview transcript that provide answers to the research question (Adu, 2019; Saldana, 2016). To develop answer codes from interview data, Adu (2019) warns that careful attention must be given to the meaning of the response provided by the participant as it relates to the research question. Caution should be applied in generalizing themes or patterns so as not to lose the original meaning of the participant's response. For example, in Lines 139-142 (see figure 4.5 above), one of the study participants was asked the question: "*What are the ways to enhance and achieve participatory development targets?*" Below is the response and it was simplified into codes (answer codes, in bold).

Response: If they can be *consistent in what they say*. Let's say, if you say like, everybody is gonna have electricity, just do that and if it is not gonna happen, it is very important to get feedback on why it is not gonna happen. *Communication*, I believe is the thing. And giving *constant feedback*.

After following the processes above, the highlighted text; *Consistency, constant feedback, and communication* are the relevant or significant information providing answers to the research question. Therefore, these key elements become the answer code that represents the lengthy response given by the study participant. In summary (and as seen in the comment section above, figure 4.5), both the anchor code and answer code for the above example are written below.

Ways PD targets can be achieved: ***Consistency, constant feedback, and communication***

This process was repeated for the entire thirty-two transcripts for this study including the focus group discussion scripts as well. Questions (or anchor codes) generated a number of answer codes that could be grouped thematically.

Answer codes were created from the interview data through a sequentially systematic coding procedure and were connected to each anchor code (research question). On the basis of the answer codes, categories and themes were subsequently developed. Assessing each answer code's qualities, looking at their shared traits, and grouping them according to those traits constitutes categorization (Charmaz, 2014; Creswell and Poth, 2018; Dey, 1993; Saldana, 2016). Since it involves placing answer codes in clusters according to what they have in common, this procedure

is also known as clustering or sorting. As a result, categories are a group of answer codes. The further analysis of categories, which reduces them to ideas that reflect sets of answer codes that address the research question(s), typically leads to the emergence of themes.

Simply said, an answer code is generated before a category and a category is generated before a theme. (Saldaa, 2016). Moreover, as the analysis progresses from answer codes to categories to themes, the level of abstraction of the concepts generated rises. When data is qualitatively analysed, the line between a code, category, and theme can sometimes become hazy because there may only be a few possible answers. These answers could be referred to as themes in this situation by a researcher. Additionally, after creating answer codes, a qualitative analyst may choose a dominant answer code—one that was frequently used or showed up most frequently on the transcript—and classify it as a theme. If no more investigation is required, these groupings produced might be referred to as themes (Adu, 2017).

South African case: Below is the breakdown of answer codes extracted from the fifteen transcripts

Transcript (Staff)	T₁	T₂	T₃	T₄	T₅						Total no. of code
No. of answer code	12	3	10	7	5						37
Transcript (Community)	T₁	T₂	T₃	T₄	T₅	T₆	T₇	T₈	T₉	T₁₀	Total no. of code
No. of answer code	22	19	14	38	19	15	13	36	30	34	240
Total no. of code extracted from 15 transcripts											277

Table 4.4: Shows details of answer codes extracted per transcript and the total number

Key: T₁ – T₁₀ = Transcript one – Transcript ten

The table below (4.5) shows the breakdown of answer codes generated according to each research question (RQ) – **South African case**

Research question	RQ1	RQ2	RQ3	RQ4	RQ5	Total code
No. answer codes per RQ	37	104	59	30	47	277

Table 4.5: Numbers of answer codes per research question

Key: Research Question = RQ

Tallying the answer codes for the South African case study revealed that 37, 104, 59, 30, and 47 answer codes were generated for Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, and Q5 respectively. For instance, in table 4.4, for the first research question (RQ1), $12 + 3 + 10 + 7 + 5 = 37$. The same additional procedure was applied to the remaining research questions during the code compilation process to arrive at a specific number of answer codes per research question. This means that 37 and 240 answer codes were generated from the project staff and community members' transcripts respectively. This becomes clearer when the number of answer codes under T₁ to T₁₀ is added up, it will be 240 answer codes. In total, 277 answer codes were created from the fifteen transcripts for the South African case study.

Nigerian case: The table below shows the breakdown of answer codes extracted from the fifteen transcripts

Transcript (Staff)	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅						Total no. of answer code
No. of answer code	25	21	28	20	19						112
Transcript (Community)	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	Total No. of answer code
No. of answer code	19	20	16	11	19	12	17	8	11	10	143
<i>Total no. of answer codes extracted from 15 transcripts</i>											255

Table 4.6: Shows details of answer codes extracted per transcript and the total number

Key: T₁ – T₁₀ = Transcript one – Transcript ten

Nigerian case: The table below (4.7) displays the codes generated according to each research question

Research question	RQ1	RQ2	RQ3	RQ4	RQ5	Total code
No. of answer codes per RQ	112	81	15	29	18	255

Table 4.7: Numbers of answer codes per research question

Key: Research Question = RQ

For the Nigerian case study, the tally showed that 112, 81, 15, 29, and 18 answer codes were generated for Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, and Q5 respectively. This indicated that while the project staff questions generated 112 answer codes, 143 answer codes were generated from the community members' transcripts. This means that 255 answer codes were identified and generated from fifteen transcripts for the Nigerian case study. Meanwhile, for the total number of answer codes generated, the additional procedure as applied in the SA case was also applied in this case to arrive at the number of answer codes.

Focus group discussion: The table below (4.8) shows the total number of codes generated from the focus group discussions conducted in both case study areas (SA and NG).

Focus Group Discussion	SA	NG
No. of codes per case	15	19

Table 4.8: Numbers of answer codes per case study area

From the focus group discussions (both case study areas), 15 and 19 relevant information were identified and coded from both transcripts.

Table 4.9: Answer code summary table

Case	Instrument	Answer codes	Total answer code generated
South Africa	Semi-structured interview	277	292
	Focus group discussion	15	
Nigeria	Semi-structured interview	255	274
	Focus group discussion	19	
			566

In summary, from the table above (4.9) 566 (277 + 255 + 15 + 19) answer codes were generated from the thirty-two transcripts including the focus group discussions from both case study areas (South Africa and Nigeria).

4.7.4.2 Identifying the sorting strategy

This study employed the individual-based sorting technique for easy grouping of answer codes based on their similarities. Answer codes are significant excerpts extracted from the transcripts or data. In other words, answer codes are relevant information identified and extracted from the transcript to help provide an answer to a particular research question. To generate answer codes, the study participants were asked questions (see appendices: 204-205, 206-207). The number of clusters is determined from the consolidating phase of the data reduction process. The strategy enabled the easy grouping of the consolidated answer codes into clusters for theme generation to address the research questions. However, the number of clusters used for this study ranges between three to eight clusters for each research question.

The process began by reading, rereading, and relating the meaning and commonalities of the answer codes with a particular research question in mind at every point. Then, a table (see table 4.10 below) was created with the intended number of clusters in mind. Followed by dropping the code with the highest frequency (main code) in the first column and that becomes Cluster 1. This process continued while constantly comparing the remaining answer codes with the main answer code (the answer code that was repeatedly mentioned) for commonalities or relationships. Once a relationship is established with the main code, the comparing answer code is dropped in the main answer code cluster (see table 4.10 below). Otherwise, the unrelated code is dropped into the next cluster or new cluster. At the end of this process, each cluster is given a name (theme) based on the commonalities of the members of that particular cluster (see table 4.10 below). Then that name becomes the theme.

Finally, all the digits or figures in front of each code were added up to determine the cluster with the highest frequency. The higher the digit or figure in front of each theme, the more important that theme is. In other words, the theme with the highest number is the most vital or main theme.

For instance, in table 4.10 below, theme two (2) which has the highest frequency is the main or major theme followed by other themes for this particular research question.

Table 4.10: Showing a cluster and theme generation table (extract from this study)

Cluster 1 <i>13</i>	Cluster 2 <i>18</i>	Cluster 3 <i>17</i>	Cluster 4 <i>4</i>	Cluster 5 3	Cluster 6 5
Never heard of IDP 12	Lack of inclusiveness 11	Top-down 7	Consider some opinions 2	No transport and support 3	Have heard on speaker plus pamphlets 4
Heard about IDP recently 1	No influence 2	Opinion not considered 7	Consider opinion (People already in politics) 1		Have Facebook page, social media 1
	People don't identify project 2	No participatory avenue 3	Misuse of social media 4 political activities 1		
	No feedback 3				
Theme 1	Theme 2	Theme 3	Theme 4	Theme 5	Theme 6
No knowledge of IDP (13)	Lack of inclusiveness (18)	Top-down approach (18)	Misuse of social media (18)	No meeting support (18)	Communication for meeting (5)

4.8 Credibility, and trustworthiness

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1998), qualitative study experts often use the word, trustworthiness, to check convergence between or among the data collected and the reality, they observed while in the study field. The results and findings reported in this study represent the voices, views, opinions, perceptions, and experiences of the study participants.

The research findings were verified with the study participants, particularly in terms of transcribed information representing their views, opinions, and voices. Research participants were given verbal feedback as to their inputs so as to confirm the authenticity of the contents of the transcripts.

Corrections were also made accordingly. Merriam et al (2002) describe this as member checking. This process was carried out in both case study sites. The research collection process also triangulated the outcomes from the semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, observatory research, and researcher's field notes to ensure convergence. This technique is usually engaged to determine convergence among the instruments used to data collect for a study data (Patton, 1999).

Apart from the checks on quality and veracity described here, the research collection process entailed listening to the thirty-recorded audio files twice and comparing each with the corresponding transcript to identify any errors. Furthermore, the researcher double-checked with the study participants in Nigeria to confirm if the contents of the transcribed scripts were actually their opinions, views, and experiences as shared earlier with the researcher (check for discrepancies). However, in the case of South Africa, the researcher also met with the majority of the participants. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), these are the processes to establish trustworthiness. As Creswell (2009) states, to fulfill the research standard of credibility, reliability, and validity data should be cross-checked to ensure the removal of any form of error that might have crept into the process of transcriptions. Likewise in the generation of answer codes, these were aligned with the empirical indicators extracted from the transcripts. A constant effort was made to ensure that any potential new answer codes were compared with the already existing answer codes for possible matches.

4.9 Limitations of the study

As with all qualitative research, the conclusions of this study are not intended for statistical generalization. In qualitative research, the concept of transferability describes the context-bound extrapolations of the findings that require speculation about the likelihood of applicability in other similar but not identical contexts (Patton 2005). Therefore, in as much as this study made use of different data-gathering methods that brought out the hidden nuances and created a deeper understanding of participatory development in sub-Saharan Africa at large and South Africa and Nigeria to be specific, the outcome of the study was faced with some challenges.

The case studies used in this investigation in South Africa and Nigeria are just two cases in the respective local governance geographical locations. A number of qualitative studies experts have

echoed their views and perceptions in this regard. According to Yin (2003), generalisation of findings from one case study to another is the biggest challenge in a qualitative study.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter describes in detail the qualitative research approach and design used in this study to address the shortage or lack of empirical study evidence of participatory development in the contexts of South Africa and Nigeria. The opening part of the chapter reiterated the research question and the main objective of the study, in order to demonstrate connections between the focus of the study and the kind of research method that was needed to provide answers to the research problem. The objectives of this study necessitated a research approach and design that is flexible enough to unpack the dynamics and nuances of participatory development in the context of two case studies.

This chapter provides justification for adopting a two-case study design, including the criteria for the selection of the cases. It discusses the sampling technique used, data collection instruments and procedures, and data analysis with emphasis on the basis for the selection of the specific data analysis method. It discusses how data were collected from the participants with semi-structured individual interviews, focus group discussions, observatory research, and field notes. It gives details of how anchor and answer codes were generated; clusters and categorization were carried out to generate themes for addressing the research questions posed by this study.

The focus group discussion added flavour to the data gathering processes and served as a tool that the researcher used to validate data gathered during the individual interviews. Observatory research was used as the notes taken during field visits enhanced the quality of the data gathered specifically and the entire research at large. This chapter highlights the probable shortcomings of qualitative research and the measures adopted to minimize such shortcomings and uphold the scientific firmness, credibility, and trustworthiness of the study. The following chapter presents and discusses the study findings from the South African case and how the case study helps to address the research questions posed by this study.

Chapter Five

Participatory Development in Kayamandi: Examining the IDP Participatory Process

5.0 Overview of the study

This chapter sets out to contextualise the main purpose of this qualitative case-study approach, namely, to investigate the level of people's participation in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level by examining IDP and CSDP participatory development tools in Kayamandi and Bwari communities in South Africa and Nigeria respectively. To recap, the research explores the level of knowledge and nature of the participatory development approach used by development implementers (IDP and CSDP project staff); explores the peoples' level of participation and their willingness to participate in development projects. In addition, this investigation set out to identify factors that can influence people's participation in development projects, assess women's participation in development initiatives in these communities, and extrapolate ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced.

In light of the above, the researcher gathered both primary and secondary data. The primary data sources were semi-structured interviews (thirty interview transcripts; fifteen from each country), focus group discussions (one from each country), and observatory research and field notes. For the secondary data sources, the research draws on books, journal articles, and published working papers about participatory development. The research process also made use of the IDP and CSDP official websites' project documents and reports.

The IDP and CSDP were found to be suitable cases for this study in that they both employ the participatory development approach to achieve grassroots development in their respective countries. The orientation of the two programmes forms the major reason for purposively selecting both projects as cases for this research.

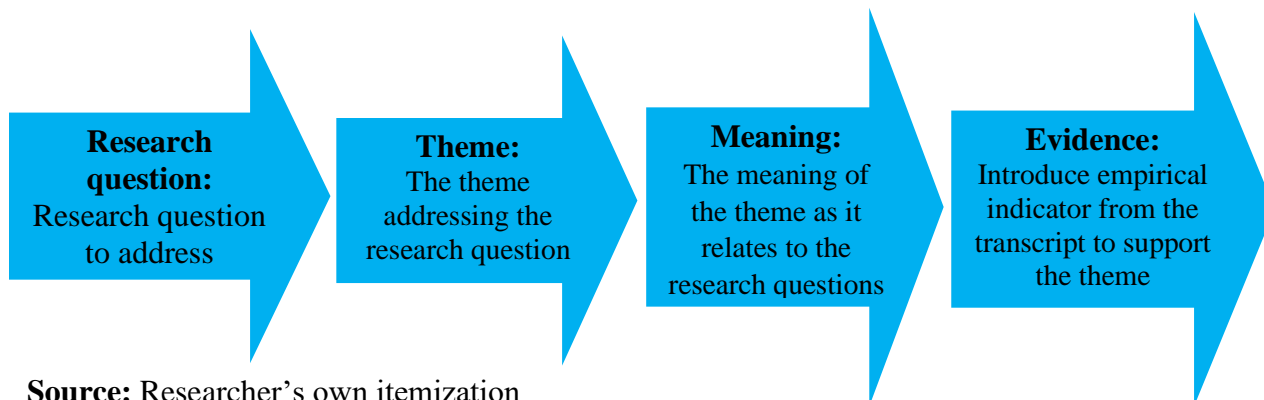
The five guiding questions were used during the interview sessions and were recorded to ensure the preciseness and quality of each transcript, and data gathering, and to encourage proper study data organization.

The analysis provided in the following three chapters seeks to elucidate the following:

1. Identification of the specific nature of the participatory development approach used by development implementers at the policy interface at the grassroots level in the two cases under study.
2. An understanding of the level of participation and communities' willingness to participate in development initiatives (IDP and CSDP).
3. Classification of eleven (11) factors that can influence communities' participation in grassroots development.
4. Provision of a picture of grassroots women's participation in development projects in the communities under study.
5. To pinpoint eleven (11) ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced

There is no one way of presenting qualitative study findings. There are three different methods, by which findings from the qualitative study can be presented and they are 1) Linear 2). Non-linear and 3). Synthesized (Adu, 2019). Adu posits that when the linear method of presenting qualitative study findings is employed, this order should be followed, first, the research question should be stated, the theme generated to address the research question, the meaning of the theme in relation to the research question and evidence from the data to support the theme generated (figure 5.1 below). The non-linear approach begins with the research question, evidence from the data, the theme, and the meaning of the theme as it provides answer to the research question (Adu, 2019). In other words, for the non-linear approach, the meaning of the theme comes last. The synthesized technique in presenting qualitative study findings is an integrated approach that is employed for grounded analysis. This entails the use of more evidence, themes, and meanings of each theme generated in addressing a particular research question (Adu, 2019).

While the synthesized method can be used mostly for grounded analysis, linear and non-linear are appropriate for case studies. For the sake of clarity and easy understanding, the research focus here is based on the linear method in presenting the findings from this study. The diagram below is a pictorial representation of the linear method of presenting qualitative findings.



Source: Researcher’s own itemization

Figure 5.1: Showing steps in presenting study findings

5.1 Presenting the study findings: The Kayamandi case

5.1.1 Demographic features of Kayamandi participants

As part of research ethics, this study takes cognizance of the anonymity of participants’ information. Therefore, it uses tables to show the demographic details of the study participants with a coded participants’ identity (ID). The relevant participants’ variables that are being intentionally selected are specifically to give insight into who the study participants were and to show how long the participants and the project staff have been living in the community and working in their present positions respectively.

This study comprises two case studies, Kayamandi and Bwari. For the sake of clarity and proper articulation, the study presented the cases separately.

To begin, the below tables (5.1, and 5.2) show the demographic details of the participants of the South African case study.

<i>Participant’s Identity</i>	<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Ethnicity</i>	<i>Level of Education</i>	<i>Years of Inhabitant</i>
<i>P₁</i>	30-39	Male	African	Degree	20 years
<i>P₂</i>	18-29	Male	African	Degree	Birthplace
<i>P₃</i>	30-39	Female	African	Degree	10 years +
<i>P₄</i>	30-39	Male	African	Degree	10 years +
<i>P₅</i>	30-39	Female	African	High school	10 years +
<i>P₆</i>	50-59	Male	African	High school	20years +

<i>P₇</i>	30-39	Female	African	Degree	25 years
<i>P₈</i>	40-49	Female	African	High school	10 years +
<i>P₉</i>	40-49	Female	African	High school	10 years +
<i>P₁₀</i>	30-39	Male	African	Degree	Birthplace

Key: P₁ = Participant 1.....P₁₀ = Participant 10

Table 5. 1: Participants’ demography (Kayamandi community participants)

With high regard for gender, the researcher ensures gender equity in the distribution of study participants. Therefore, the interviewees comprised five males and five females. The most common age group was 30-39 years. **Table 5.1** shows the individual demographics of study participants in terms of their age group, gender, and ethnicity. Others are their level of education and most importantly, how long they have been living in the Kayamandi community. Out of the ten study participants interviewed, two were born and grew up in the community while others have individually spent ten years and above in the same community.

Demographics of participants, IDP project staff, Western Cape, South Africa.

<i>Participant’s Identity</i>	<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Ethnicity</i>	<i>Years of working</i>	<i>Level of Education</i>
<i>S₁</i>	40-49	Male	Colored	10 years +	Master’s degree
<i>S₂</i>	50-59	Female	Colored	15 years +	Master’s degree
<i>S₃</i>	40-49	Female	Colored	10 years +	Honors
<i>S₄</i>	40-49	Male	Colored	30 years	Degree
<i>S₅</i>	50-59	Female	White	12 years +	Degree

Key: S₁ = Staff 1.....S₅ = Staff 5

Table 5.2: Features of staff participants

The above table shows the characteristics of the five IDP staff interviewed at the Stellenbosch municipality. Out of the interviewed study participants, three were female while the other two were male. The table also highlights the study participants’ age group, gender, ethnicity, and level of education.

5.2 Findings

5.2.1 Research question 1

What is the nature of the participatory development approach and knowledge used by development providers?

This question was divided into two parts for easy analysis:

- a. Nature of participatory development approach used by development providers'
- b. 'Staff knowledge of participatory development'

The first part (**1a**) of the question is:

'Nature of participatory development approach used by development providers Two (2) themes were generated to address this part of the question and they are,

- i. No specific participatory development approach was used (4)
- ii. People lead (2)

No specific participatory development approach used: 4

In trying to ascertain from the project staff the nature of the participatory approach the IDP used for grassroots development, data revealed that the IDP seems not to have employed any of the participatory approaches in its development drive in relation to the Kayamandi community. Participant **S₂** who has more than 15 years of experience in working with the IDP both at the municipal and provincial levels was unable to pinpoint any particular participatory approach used. Instead, the focus of the IDP seems to be on the reshuffling of staff. In the words of **S₂** in **Lines 267-273**

“So, we have intensified our public participation and elevated the attendance of more senior people so that what the public gets is a value add in terms of the feedback. The level is so high, is only directors and myself that will be present in a meeting maybe with other one Manager who is a good communicator and they manage. Nothing lower than a Manager level attend to give feedback to the public”.

For participant **S₄** who has worked more with the Kayamandi people in his 30 years of work experience at the grassroots level indicated that the participatory development approach to be used

each time is dependent on the political conduciveness of the participatory space. **Lines 333–340** capture his words “*So if the political arena dictates that we gonna stop the meeting for various reasons, we don't just like the official that are present or the councilors that are present, it chases the guy that now wanted to come to really learn more about what is going on in his community..... So, you know, the approach, I would say and I think your approach must deal with what the circumstances is...*”. In **Lines 258-273**, participant **S₂** acknowledged that, “*community keeps saying that municipality don't listen to us*”.

People lead: 2

The study data showed some evidence that people usually take the lead in their own development. Participant **S₁** who has over 10 years of working experience with the IDP, when asked about the approach of participatory development employed, the participant tried and described a series of events in **Lines 7-12** that, “*.... they should look at their previous year's priorities see if, which of those that have been concluded satisfactory and which of those that we can remove as a priority so that they are satisfied that this priority has been dealt with effectively. If they feel that the priority still needs attention, there is further issues they want to attach to that priority then they are welcome to put it on the priority list but then we ask them to rank it*”.

The second part (**1b**) of the question is:

‘Staff knowledge of participatory development’. This part of the question was addressed with three (3) themes and they are as follows:

- i. Knowledge from experience (4)
- ii. Limited knowledge of participatory development (4)
- iii. Lack of conventional training on participatory development (3)

Knowledge from experience: 4

It is obvious from the data collected that the IDP staff are dependent more on the knowledge they gained through experience. **S₂ Lines 64 - 66** clearly articulates this, “*I have been doing since 2002 and a little bit a lot since 2007 when I was working with the province doing IDPs and every year we will do an analysis of the IDP to through the budget*”. Participant **S₁ Lines 251 – 252** also

mentioned that “...we say listen, in terms of what the community requested, so we always refer them back to the information pack.....”

Limited knowledge of participatory development: 4

In the quest to establish the level of staff knowledge in participatory development, it appeared from the study data that the knowledge they have seems to have been gained while working on IDP projects. Like seminars and workshops as mentioned by participant **S2 Lines 149 – 155**, “*there are various programmes we are participating in. There are various fora we are participating, we have the IDP Managers’ Forum there we start also, a platform that we use to say Best Practices and see what municipality is doing and how we can maybe adopt it for our circumstances.....we were at a workshop which amongst various other things include Public Participation. So, we try to upskill ourselves*”. When the researcher probed participant **S2** further about having formal training on participatory development, her response in **Lines 77** was, “*No. It was a lot more theoretical but also (about) consultation ... on other side*”.

Lack of conventional training in participatory development: 3

The data revealed that the staff are more likely to lack conventional training and knowledge of participatory development. Participant **S4 Lines 40–44** indicated that “*But in Kayamandi specifically, we started in 1992 with the so-called Street Committees. So, what we did is, as Stellenbosch municipality, we went ahead about and we started to number and collect all the information of the people staying in informal settlement. And when we did that, we formed with the Street Committees in order to deal with the different challenges that community then raised from there*”. **Lines 79-81 of S2** also confirmed the above theme, “*...my biggest criticisms before I started here was that the way we do public participation is event-driven instead of actually using the content to be part of the municipal think-tank*”.

5.2.2 Research question 2

What is the level of peoples’ participation and their willingness to participate in ‘their own development’?

Again, the researcher separated this question into two different parts:

- a. 'Level of people's participation in their own development'
- b. 'Willingness to participate in developmental initiative'

The first part (a) of the question is:

'Level of people's participation in their own development'. Below are the eight themes that were arrived at to address **part a. of question 2:**

- i. No knowledge of IDP (13)
- ii. Lack of inclusiveness (19)
- iii. Top-down approach (17)
- iv. Never attended an IDP meeting (12)
- v. Poor communication and awareness (2)
- vi. Misuse of social media (4)
- vii. No meeting support (3)
- viii. Communication for meeting (5)



No knowledge IDP: 13

When people have no idea or knowledge of what IDP is, how can they participate in the process of need identification or their own development? In trying to find out the level of people participation from the study participants, the data showed that eight (8) out of the ten (10) participants interviewed have never heard of IDP before the research interview. When asked if P₅ has attended any IDP meeting even as he has been living in Kayamandi for over 10 years, his response in **Lines 6** was, “No. I don't know IDP”. This response is the same for **P₃ Lines 7** “never heard of IDP”, **P₄ Lines 5** “I don't know IDP” and **P₆ Lines 11** “Never heard of IDP”. This implicates the level of awareness of IDP and participation in the community. The remaining two (2) participants indicated that they heard about it but very superficially, “heard about it –not in-depth” (**P₂ Lines 26**), and “heard little” (**P₁₀ Lines 5**).

Lack of inclusiveness: 19

The theme above is the outcome of a further probe in trying to assess the level of people's participation in their own development. The study data revealed that the people were excluded from developmental projects in the Kayamandi community. **P₆** who has lived in the community for more than 20 years mentioned in **Lines 34 – 35** that, “*the councilors are not consulting us in terms of involving us in the meeting*”. The same participant stressed it further in **Lines 40 – 42** that “*the councilors are not consulting the voters because we are the voters of this ward. Councilors, they are doing what they want*”. **P₁₀** who was born in the Kayamandi community concurred that the “*municipality is just doing their own things*” in **Lines 25 – 26**. This is not too different from the response of **P₈** **Lines 89** who simply puts it, “*municipality don't sort our opinion*”.

Top-down approach: 17

Again, from the data gathered, it became obvious that the development approach used by the IDP especially as it relates to the local government development approach in the Kayamandi community is not far from the participatory approaches which development experts have condemned for not yielding real development fruits (Schumacher, 2000). This is the response of **P₁** in **Lines 44**, “*municipality not engaging the people*”. The researcher still captured the same participant's response in **Lines 88 – 89**, “*people's need not considered*”. This notion was repeated by **P₆** in **Lines 53-54** “*top-down from municipality*”, **P₁₀** in **Lines 24-25**. “*it was a top-down thing*” and **P₆** again in **Lines 132**, “*lack of inclusiveness*”.

Never attended IDP meeting: 12

Further queries on the level of participation revealed that the majority of the study respondents have never attended IDP meetings. ‘*No. Never attended. To be honest!*’ This is the response of **P₁₀** in **Line 14** in as much as he was born and grew up in the Kayamandi community. Meanwhile, **Lines 29-30**, “*But I've never attended any of the meetings of the IDP*” and **Lines 16**, “*No*” of **P₁** and **P₈** corroborated the response of **P₁₀**.

Poor communication and awareness: 2

From the study data, poor communication and awareness appeared to be one of hindrances to participation as it relates to the study community. This is evident in the responses of **P₁** **Lines 35-**

36, “*Sho! The information to the people. I feel like we're not getting enough*” and **P10 Lines 205**, “*No. Municipality is not creating awareness. Definitely not. That is a big no!*”

Communication for meeting: 5

The interview data revealed that, while a few of the study participants agreed that the IDP/Municipality have a social media presence (**P9 Lines 242**, “*I also seen they have a Facebook page, social media*”) to communicate with the people, they also occasionally distribute flyers (**P9 Lines 239**) and use loudspeakers to call for meetings (**P9 Lines 241-242**). To counterbalance this view, **P4** in **Lines 130-131** indicated that, “*I don't think there is even a (municipal) webpage for Kayamandi*”.

No meeting support: 3

The study data also showed that the majority of the participants do not get transport support to meeting venues (**P2- Lines 201**: “*Not where I stay! No transport and support*”). **P10 Lines 170** repeats the same problem, “*They don't give transport*”.

Misuse of social media: 4

The interviews cast a new light on how social media is being hijacked and misused for political activities and commentaries rather than for conveying developmental messages. **P4** disagreed with **P9 Lines 242** about the use of social media and indicated that even the social media page does not talk about meetings with the communities; rather, the page concentrates on what the municipality has done and politics. In **P4** words in **Lines 133-135**, “*...there is a page for the Stellenbosch municipality but it doesn't talk about meetings within the communities of Stellenbosch. You know, it only addresses the things that have been done by the municipality*”. *Yeah. So I think the communication is not is effective. You know...*”.

The second part (**b**) of question 2 is:

‘*Willingness to participate in development initiative*’. Three (3) themes were generated to tackle this question and they are as follows:

- i.** People are willing to participate in developmental initiative (14)
- ii.** No community project meeting (7)
- iii.** Unwillingness of the youth (2)

People are willing to participate in developmental initiative: 14

A question was asked to the study participants to find out the willingness of the people to participate in development projects in their community. Interviews suggested that most people in the community are willing to participate in their own development only if they get the needed support. As indicated by **P₁** in **Lines 41-45**, *“I mean they want things to be upgraded you know. Everyone is looking for the integration, you know, the development of our community. We approaching wintertime everything is shambled you know. So everyone do want to like a development in our community. I feel like the municipality they are not doing much to engage people.....”*. It is also evident in the responses of **P₄** in **Lines 310 -311**, *“And last year we had I think about three or four meetings, you know, that we even spoke about the issue of crime in our community”* and **P₅** in **Lines 75-76**, *“Yeah. Sometimes we make the meeting alone without the councilors. Then we talk about electricity”*.

No community project: 7

The interview data illustrated that the Kayamandi community seems not to have initiated any participatory development project in its own right. When posed with the question on community projects to the participants, **P₆** in **Lines 88** stated that *“I am not aware of any project”*. Also, **P₈** in **Lines 94** confirmed that *“None”*. However, another set of few participants mentioned that the community has never organized a developmental meeting (**P₂** in **Lines 35-36**, *“I can’t remember. It was organized by the municipality. There was never a meeting organized by the people that I know or that I attended”*). A further probe indicated that service delivery is affecting the people’s willingness to participate in developmental projects or programmes in the community. This is evident in the response of **P₂** in **Lines 53-54**, *“Look. I would say people yes, they are interested and they will like to only if it will really happen”*.

Unwillingness of the youth: 2

The interview data revealed that there is a sign of unwillingness to participate by the youth of the community. When the researcher asked **P₄** who has lived in Kayamandi for over 10 years to describe the willingness of the Kayamandi people to participate in development projects, **P₄** respond in **Lines 143**, *“Young people I will talk about, they are not willing”*

5.2.3 Research question 3

What are the factors that can influence people's participation in development projects?

For this question, eight (8) themes were arrived at to respond to it accordingly and they are:

- i. Broken promises (15)
- ii. Meetings are more political than developmental (11)
- iii. Poor communication and lack of awareness (10)
- iv. Lack of service delivery (9)
- v. Lack of education (2)
- vi. Lack of feedback and neglect of the people's opinion (4)
- vii. Impact of apartheid (1)
- viii. Reduced impact of culture and tradition (1)

Broken promises: 15

The research data revealed that the Kayamandi community representatives vocalized their discontent with the political nature of the IDP process and many broken promises (**P₅ Lines 182**) made to them by the IDP. Therefore, this is influencing their level of participation, as they no longer trust the IDP anymore. This is clear in the words of **P₁** in **Line 91**, “*people like they've lost maybe, trust with them or perhaps*”. In the same vein, **P₁₀** in **Lines 144 -146** indicated that it “*is very exhausting. I do not see any change that is the thing. There is no motivation; there is nothing inspiring in these meetings because you hear the same thing over and over again. I mean, I have heard from people that participated in these things that no!*”. This frustration was poured out by **P₅** in **Lines 35-36**, “*Sometimes, they come, they promise us to give us the electricity but they didn't give us*”.

Meetings are more political than developmental: 11

The interview data showed that IDP meetings are more political than developmental. All study participants stressed this point. That they only get to see the participatory middlemen (Ward Councilors and Administrators) during elections and/or campaigns only or when they want to

canvass for votes. And this has been a demotivating factor for them in terms of participation in developmental initiatives. P₄ who has lived in the Kayamandi community for over 10 years indicated in **Lines 193-196** that, “... they turn out to be more political because I think the engagement, you know, then it becomes more political because as I've said before, that because people already have knowledge that they have before they came to the meeting. So they use politics to discuss issues that ordinary people are not aware of”. P₈ in **Lines 66-67** confirmed this, “I don't like those kinds of meetings. I don't want to be involved in those kinds of meetings because politics are always involved”.

Poor communication and lack of awareness: 10

From the interview data, it was obvious that there were issues with passing either meeting or other development information to the people in the community and this impeded their level of participation. P₄ in **Lines 127-129** indicated that “...but the timing when have they have to announce the meetings you know; I think it's either too short or too early. You know, there isn't a consistent announcement”. Again, all the study participants stressed the fact that the people know almost nothing about the IDP. Therefore, IDP on its own seems to lack an awareness strategy. As indicated by P₁ who was born and grew up in Kayamandi in **Lines 154-155**, “So, if it were like for them had a strategy in terms of the awareness to the community, I think these things would have been getting better you”. The municipality seems not to be doing enough in terms of creating awareness and this is clear in the response of P₁₀ in **Lines 205** “No! Municipality is not creating awareness”.

Lack of service delivery: 9

The respondents' answers showed that lack of service delivery is a major contributor to the factors that influence participation at the grassroots levels especially in the community under study. P₁ who has lived in Kayamandi for 20 years indicated in **Lines 104** that, “...deliver the services that I am there for the people”. His response is not different from that of P₉ in **Line 154**, “not seeing any change”. Participant P₅ in **Lines 124** also held the same view, “they cannot help because all the time we make the meeting nothing happens”.

Lack of feedback and neglect of the people's opinion: 7

The lack of feedback and not considering the people's views emerged as a key factors influencing participation at the grassroots level. **P₉** in **Lines 162-167** mentioned that *“why should I attend a meeting if they gonna speak about the same thing again over and over again? And they no gonna even keep us up-to-date as to what, ok guys we spoke about these, this is the outcome of the meeting that we came about and this is the thing, this is the way forward that we think we should take. So, I think is about feedback”*. **P₈** who has also lived in the community for over 10 years also felt that people's opinion is not being considered in the process by the project staff. She stated this in **Lines 89**, *“They don't sort their opinion”*.

Lack of education: 2

The study findings highlight the lack of education as another factor influencing participation at the grassroots level, especially in Kayamandi. This was clear in the response of **P₄** in **Lines 17-20**, *“But I think it was almost useless you know for our elderly people because they are not educated. I think the level of information that we using, you know the PowerPoint Slides, the diagrams they were using you know, I think they were not really serving”*. The same participant made it clearer in **Lines 107-108**, *“...because the people are uneducated. You know, and they feel they don't have the skills necessary to participate”*. Therefore, this lack metamorphosed into a lack of necessary skills to participate.

Impact of apartheid: 1

Apart from other themes generated to address the factors that influence participation at the grassroots level especially in, communities in South Africa, the issue of the past, apartheid, also emerged as one of the factors as shown by the study data. Participant **P₄** felt the people and Kayamandi community are being isolated because is Black-dominated (**P₄** in **Lines 148-149**, *“they think that they are being isolated”*). The same participant in **Lines 344-347** indicated that *“I believe as well the issue of the past, apartheid in South Africa is also playing a role in our understanding of things, you know, and we can actually, unfortunately, cannot ignore that fact. It's part of our history and how do you then look at the injustices...”*.

Reduced impact of Culture and tradition: 1

For the people of the Kayamandi community, the impact of culture and tradition on participation seems to be insignificant. This is evident from the response of **P10** in **Lines 179-183**,

“Nooo! Not really. I don't think so. No, influence of culture and tradition no no! The truth is a lot of people who are, even in Eastern Cape, you know, there is electricity I mean in the villages because, yeah is no longer...every village you find electricity, road, and everything. But, here also you know, you are faced with the same issues but, even in Eastern Cape, the culture doesn't even play a role in preventing things to be done”.

However, **P9** who is a female participant responded on the opposite in **Lines 210-216**,

“This is how we were raised and something we which we just cannot let go, we cannot just unlearn just like that so, is stocked with us. So, for example, this woman and children, for example, there is a lot of children who have point of use that they will like to raise in meeting but you cannot do that because you are just a child. I think that also have an influence in to how the wellbeing of the community and the meetings are conducted. So, I think the culture also has a major effect on that. Culture has huge of influence on participation”.

5.2.4 Research question 4

This question specifically addressed the level of women's participation in developmental initiatives in this community.

To address this research question, four (4) themes were generated, and they are:

- i. Increased women participation (7)
- ii. Opinion considered (7)
- iii. Women attend meetings (6)
- iv. Reduced influence of culture and tradition (3)

Increased women participation: 7

Interestingly, the study data showed a major increase in the level of women's participation in development especially in the Kayamandi community as mentioned by **P10** in **Lines 110**, *“Actually, is the other way here. You find that women are more involved than men”*, the resultant effect of this increase in women participation as indicated by **P4** in **Lines 179-180**, *“Because all 4 community or what you call them hmmmmm Ward Councilors, the 4 of them are all women. So I*

do think, you know, their voices are being heard". However, in as much as it seems like the women are willing and the influence of culture and tradition is insignificant, their participation seems still partial. **P3** in **Lines 105-106** indicated that *"They are willing and allowed depending upon the experience and bravery and the education"*.

Women's opinions considered: 7

The data revealed that the voices and opinions of women were considered during meetings. This may suggest a higher level of women's participation. For **P10** the Kayamandi community is his place of birth strongly believed that the views and opinions of women were considered in **Lines 100**, *"Definitely! They are considered"*. This notion was repeated by **P4** in **Lines 177**, *"I do believe that the opinions are being considered"*.

Women attend meetings: 6

As seen in the data, women in the community are free to attend meetings. When asked if women are allowed to attend a meeting, **P8** who is a female participant and has been living in Kayamandi for over 10 years indicated in **Lines 108**, *"Yes. They attend meetings"*. This was not different from the response of **P10** in **Lines 96**, *"Yeah yeah! Of course, they are allowed"*.

5.2.5 Research question 5

What are the ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced?

To address this research question, seven (7) themes were generated, and they are:

- i.** Improve service delivery and more staff presence (12)
- ii.** Inclusiveness and transparency (11)
- iii.** Increased awareness and group engagement (9)
- iv.** Effective communication and timely feedback (8)
- v.** Honesty and trustworthiness (6)
- vi.** Use of CBOs and Street Committees (2)

vii. Capacity building and empowerment (3)

Improve service delivery and more staff presence: 12

As a way of achieving and enhancing participatory development targets, improvement in service delivery and more staff presence in the community appeared to be the most talked-about as part of solutions from the data collected. **P₁₀** who was born and grew up in the community indicated in **Lines 124-128** that,

“the government just has to deliver! Because I mean you get to this meeting and you hear the same promises that were made five years back the same thing. And now you say these things have been said before and we have not seen any change and they will tell you that no this is a different structure, different people are involved and everything is new so we gonna deliver and then still, they do the same thing they don't deliver”.

This is not the same for **P₁** who was also born in the same community. **P₁** in **Lines 125-126** thundered that, *“be visible to the people not only when they need something from the people. Even when people need something from them”*. However, **P₉** in **Lines 173-174** concurred and added that *“first of all, it would be to be more visible in community and to actually consider the peoples’ viewpoints and engage and plan with the people. When they are doing something”*.

Inclusiveness and transparency: 11

The study material highlights the view that if communities are included and the officials are transparent, there is a higher likelihood that participatory development targets within communities will be achieved and enhanced. As indicated by **P₂** in **Lines 95-96**, *“I would say try to engage the people of the community when they planning stuff to do in the community”*. Also, it worth discussing the excerpt from **P₉** in **Lines 175-176** where the participant indicated that, *“More transparency....do we have a budget for A, B, C? Yes! So, how much is the budget? This! So, how do you hope to do this? Buy D, E, and F. So, more transparency”*. Whereas **P₁₀** hit the nail on the head in **Lines 132**, *“There is no transparency! I think that is one of the issues”*.

Increased awareness and group engagement: 9

From the data gathered, more awareness and group engagement are likely to contribute largely to achieving participatory development targets. **P₂** in **Lines 110-111** stressed that *“Look, the people do not know about the municipality. The only thing is that the municipality needs to come to the people and create awareness”*. The same participant in **Lines 243** indicated that *“door-to-door*

engagement” would be so much instrumental in this regard. “Spread the word to people” are the words of participant P₁₀ in Lines 189. P₉ in Lines 226-236 indicated that

“I think is also to have like Youth Forum. The youth, as I just mentioned earlier that you know as a child you cannot disagree with an elder especially in public. You know, I think they should more like Youth Forum and women can get like a Women Forum if there is such a thing Women Forum can get together where you know that this group of women, we discuss mainly the needs. Because as a man, I cannot tell you about what a woman, I can but a woman would know more of what a woman needs. And as a child, and as a youth and a child, I cannot tell you what I need most, I mean, I cannot let an adult to tell me that you, no, you know kids they love this and they love this and they love this and they love this. Because kids they will know more and youth will know, more what the youth needs more than what an adult does. So, I think if we can have more, not like segregated but more like a woman to woman, youth to youth, man to man where we discuss the matters and situations that is affecting the above stated”.

Effective communication and timely feedback: 8

The interviews illustrate communities’ perceptions of the need for effective communication and timely feedback would contribute hugely to achieving and enhancing participatory development targets at grassroots levels. Participant P₈ who has lived for over 10 years in the Kayamandi community aggressively indicated, in Lines 160-161 that, *“try to...just communication menh! Communication and be consistent in what they say, that is very important to me”*. It was a loud voice for P₆ in Lines 159-160, *“you are elected, if you don’t communicate with the community, haaah, you don’t want much in Kayamandi...COMMUNICATE, FINISH!”*. Again, P₈ in Lines 140-142 stressed the importance of constant feedback and consistency in achieving and enhancing participatory development targets. In her words, *“If they can be consistent in what they said. Let us say if you say like, everybody is gonna have electricity, just do that and if it is not gonna happen, is very important to get the feedback if why is not gonna happen. Communication I believe is the thing. And giving constant feedback”*.

Honesty and trustworthiness: 6

It was obvious from the interviews that staff honesty and trustworthiness are great factors in achieving and enhancing participatory development targets. P₂ in Lines 96-98 mentioned that *“after meeting with the people, they should not go sit back and relax and they should actually be out there and implement whatever they said in the meeting. Because when dealing with people is*

very important that you keep it right". "I think whenever we have a meeting; the IDP or government should stick to their words" These are the words of **P10** in **Lines 86**. For **P6** in **Lines 75-78** is *"Trust. Because if we put you there and see, no no no no they people will say, no no no no no. But in terms of that, 5 years that we are by the councilor and the people have no no no. We vote someone not to be, we vote her as a councilor, is to do what we as voters mandated you to do"*.

Use of CBOs, NPOs, and Street Committees: 2

The interviews highlighted that if the IDP/Stellenbosch municipality liaises and works with the already existing community-based or non-profit organizations in the Kayamandi community, it would become easier to achieve the targets and enhance participatory development in the community. **P7** in **Lines 160-161** indicated, *"Yes! I think they should work with them because they are the people that are making a difference"*. The use of Street Committees is key and this is why **P4** in **Lines 313-317** suggested that, *"I think if they can be structured like that, small structures in each and every community, I think because that they encourage participation in their small streets and communities. And I think that if there is participation, those small participation in each and every Zone of Kayamandi, they can expand, it can be easy than to have a meeting because they are already active as well"*.

Capacity building and empowerment: 3

Community capacity building and knowledge have been identified as central to achieving the targets and enhancing participatory development at the grassroots level. It was clear in the response of **P4** in **Lines 370-371**, *"Yeah. I think again I talk of the issue of empowerment. It's very hard to participate on something that you don't have the knowledge and the skill"*. The same participant indicated in **Lines 386-387** that, *"the municipality need to be empowering the people so that they can be part of the solution. If not, we will not want to be part of the solution because we do not know how to"*.

The table below shows the summary of the study findings: themes generated, their meanings, and evidence from data collected.

Anchor of the research question	Theme	Meaning	Evidence from data
1a. Nature of participatory development approach used by development implementers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No specific PD approach used 	The IDP seems not to have employed any of the participatory approaches in its development drive in relation to the Kayamandi community	S₂ in Lines 267-273 “So, we have intensified our public participation and elevated the attendance of more senior people so that what the public gets is a value add in terms of the feedback. The level is so high, is only directors and myself that will be present in a meeting maybe with other one Manager who is a good communicator and they manage. Nothing lower than a Manager level attend to give feedback to the public”.
1b. Staff level of participatory development knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Knowledge from experience ▪ Limited knowledge of PD ▪ Lack of formal training on PD 	The IDP staff are dependent more on the knowledge they gained through experience	S₂ Lines 64 - 66 clearly articulated this, “I have been doing since 2002 and a little bit a lot since 2007 when I was working with the province doing IDPs and every year we will do an analysis of the IDP to through the budget”.
2a. Level of communities' participation in development projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No knowledge of IDP ▪ Top-down approach 	<p>The people have little or no knowledge of IDP</p> <p>The people are still excluded as the approach remains supply-driven instead of demand-driven</p>	<p>P₅ in Line 6 was, “No. I don’t know IDP”. P₃ Lines 7 “never heard of IDP”, P₄ Lines 5 “I don’t know IDP” and P₆ Lines 11 “Never heard of IDP”.</p> <p>P₆ in Lines 53-54 “top-down from municipality”, P₁₀ in Lines 24-25. “it was a top-down thing”, and P₆ again in Lines 132, “lack of inclusiveness”.</p>
2b. Willingness to participate in development projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ People are willing to participate in development projects 	Most people in the community are willing to participate in their own development only	P₁ in Lines 41-45 , “I mean they want things to be upgraded you know. Everyone is looking for the integration, you know, the development of our community. We approaching wintertime everything is shambled you know. So everyone do want to like a development in our community. I feel like the

		if they get the needed support.	<i>municipality they are not doing much to engage people.....”.</i>
3. Factors that can influence communities’ participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Broken promises ▪ Meetings are more political than developmental ▪ Lack of service delivery 	The people appeared tired of the several unfulfilled promises made to them by the IDP. Therefore, this impedes their level of participation, as they no longer trust the IDP anymore	P₁ in Lines 91 , “ <i>people like they’ve lost maybe, trust with them or perhaps</i> ”. P₁₀ in Lines 144 -146 indicated that it “ <i>is very exhausting. I do not see any change that is the thing. There is no motivation; there is nothing inspiring in these meetings because you hear the same thing over and over again. I mean, I have heard from people that participated in these things that no!</i> ”.
4. Level of grassroots women’s participation in development projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Increased women participation ▪ Opinion considered ▪ Women attend meetings ▪ Reduced influence of culture and tradition 	The data showed an increased level of women participation as a result of reduced influence of culture and tradition	P₁₀ in Lines 110 , “ <i>Actually, is the other way here. You find that women are more involved than men</i> ”, P₄ in Lines 179-180 , “ <i>Because all 4 community or what you call them hmmmmm Ward Councilors, the 4 of them are all women. So I do think, you know, their voices are being heard</i> ”.
5. Ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Improve service delivery and more staff presence ▪ Inclusiveness and transparency ▪ Increased awareness and group engagement 	Improvement in service delivery, more staff presence in the community, inclusiveness, and transparency are way participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced	P₁₀ in Lines 124-128 that, “ <i>the government just has to deliver! Because I mean you get to this meeting and you hear the same promises that were made five years back the same thing. And now you say these things have been said before and we have not seen any change and they will tell you that no this is a different structure, different people are involved and everything is new so we gonna deliver and then still, they do the same thing they don’t deliver</i> ”.

Table 5.3: Findings summary table for the **South African** case study

5.3 Analysis of participatory development perceptions in Kayamandi: South Africa case

To recap, this chapter examines the interview data from Kayamandi to explore the main research question and five sub-questions unpacking the impact of participatory development by using IDP and CSDP project processes in South Africa and Nigeria.

The 5 sub-questions were distilled into anchor codes and answers discussed above. Each of the sub-questions is discussed below in relation to the critical analysis of participatory development explored in chapters 1, 2, and 3. Hence, it discusses the central themes that emerged from interview data as highlighted above (Table 5.3).

5.3.1 Nature of participatory development approach and knowledge used by development implementers – *response to research question one (1)*

The first objective of this study was to examine the nature of participatory development approaches and knowledge used by the development implementers of the participatory process. In the Stellenbosch case, this is the Stellenbosch municipality. This study finding on the nature of the participatory development approach used by the IDP reveals it did not engage the participatory development approaches in as much as it claimed to be participatory.

Furthermore, none of the study participants (staff) was able to pinpoint a particular approach the IDP employed in achieving grassroots development, especially with regard to the Kayamandi community. The IDP process has kept up with the lip service of mentioning how the community has the chance to participate in identifying their needs. But how can it be possible when the people indicated in reverse (as shown in the data) that they have no knowledge of the IDP? Apart from not being able to identify any participatory development approach used, the staff also lack the basic knowledge of participatory development. Therefore, it was no coincidence when the study findings (**1b below**) demonstrated that, the project staff lacks formal or conventional training in participatory development. To add salt to injury, this study observed the incessant complaints by the community that the municipality does not listen to them (**S₂ Lines 118**) as the outcome of the absence of a specific participatory development approach as a tool to drive the entire process. This seems to suggest that the complaint will continue so long as the people are not in the ‘driver’s seat. Because in as much as the IDP was designed to assist in solving community challenges at the

grassroots level, it seems it has ignored or isolated the ‘real people’ it was thought to benefit. This looks closely like what Pretty (1997) describes as passive participation.

The data vividly shows that municipal staff are dependent more on the limited knowledge of participatory development they gained through experience, than through training in participatory development processes. The majority of participants mentioned they had either (i) never heard of the IDP or (ii) known about the IDP but had not taken part in it. How would the community people participate if they were unaware of the IDP? This simply means that the municipality did not employ the participatory development approaches that would have created awareness, nor the avenues for the community to participate in ways they found meaningful.

According to Chambers (1994b), participation gives local communities the power to be in charge of investigations, fosters a sense of ownership over the development process, and firmly establishes them in positions to identify, decide, and manage their objectives for action, participation can strengthen the weak and the disadvantaged (Chambers, 1994b). This is possible if the locals are given the opportunity to interact and negotiate with local power brokers in order to enable them to make decisions that have legal force, as suggested by Arnstein. The ability to participate in discussions, engage in negotiations, and reach legally binding choices implies that the underprivileged will have the power and influence over projects (Arnstein, 1969), which will foster a sense of empowerment. Jones et al. (2001) contend, however, that empowerment as a result of participation depends on both the acts of the outsiders and the local communities' consciousness and capacity to create transformative processes for themselves. Additionally, empowerment is viewed as context-specific, therefore empowerment in one environment does not necessarily imply empowerment in another. In other words, empowerment resulting from participation is dependent upon the appropriate and deliberate actions of both the development implementers and the consciousness and capabilities of the communities.

In order to enhance and achieve participatory development targets in Kayamandi, there is a need to create awareness and build the capacities of the community and understand the reality of the communities (Uphoff, 1991; Tembo, 2003). This study shows that communities' participation in development projects is influenced by previous experiences the communities had with development implementers. As a result of those experiences, people constructed their own views regarding development providers' credibility to bring about positive change.

By adopting participatory approaches and incorporating grassroots communities in decision-making, participatory development advocates hope to improve accountability, reduce inequality, and ultimately eradicate poverty (Mansuri, Ghazala; Rao, Vijayendra. 2011). Participatory strategies put a strong emphasis on uplifting disadvantaged grassroots communities. In participatory development, which is based on empowering communities by utilizing local knowledge rather than importing concepts, Freire's theories have had an impact on the creation of methods for political literacy (Waddington and Mohan, 2004). According to Broad and Beishon (1977), the ideological conviction that people should have the right to participate in projects and matters that affect them has contributed significantly to the pressure for greater participation.

The results of this study, however, are consistent with (White, 1994), who contends that while it is relatively easy to say that participation is an important feature of development, engaging the participatory approach is neither simple nor easy. To address the transformative aspect of participatory development, Hickey and Mohan (2004) describe this aspect as unrealistic. Cooke and Kothari (2001) claim that a participatory development strategy is a new form of oppression in which communities only consent to projects that have already been decided (Hilyard et al, 2001). However, according to Kothari (2001: 143), grassroots communities have the strongest reason to question and confront power structures and relationships since they are "brought or even bought" to promote conformity by the promise of aid in the development processes.

Grassroots development is a discursive field involving complex interfaces of numerous stakeholders with disparate power, position, and the authority having distinct and occasionally conflicting interests (Long & Ploeg, 1989; Leeuwis et al., 1990; Long & Long, 1992). As a result, adopting participatory approaches for implementing participatory projects should be viewed from the aspect of project sustainability and encouraging participatory democracy as discussed in chapter two above.

5.3.2 Level of communities' participation and their willingness to participate in development projects – response to research question two (2)

The second objective of this study was to explore the level of communities' participation and their willingness to participate in their own development. The level of communities' participation was put to check and the data exposed a very low level of people's participation. The data showed that the majority of the study's participants fall within the typology of the passive level of participation (Pretty and Vodoule, 1997). Pretty and Vodoule describe this stage of participation as where the people will only be informed about what will likely or what has already happened. This has a huge resultant effect on project sustainability specifically and development at large. By extension, this could be attributed to the top-down development approach still in practice as shown by the data. Furthermore, all the study participants as revealed by the data mentioned '*no knowledge of IDP severally*'. This finding exposed the fact that little is known about the IDP in the Kayamandi community. Furthermore, this may also suggest why the general level of participation is low in the community. Because the community can only participate if they have some amount of knowledge about the IDP and what it does. The multiplier effect of this was seen on other themes generated such as '*lack of inclusiveness*' which was the second theme with the highest frequency. This indicated a clear exclusion of the targeted beneficiaries of the project from the process.

As stated above, one of the major findings this investigation revealed in the understanding of participatory development was the emergence of the '*top-down approach*' used by the IDP. All the study respondents mentioned that the approach used by the IDP project staff is top-down. In the context of this study, this means, the IDP in this present day still determined what the needs of the people were. It simply implies that the IDP knows what the people need more than the people themselves do. This portrays the people of the Kayamandi community as socioeconomic indicators in a predetermined project by the IDP. This issue kept coming up frequently during all the interview sections including the focus group discussions. As one of the interviewees puts it, '*the municipality is just doing its own thing*'. Most of the proponents of participatory development have argued in favor of the people as '*leaders or drivers*'. Experts also pointed to the fact that the experience, knowledge, and ideas of the people should not be undermined because it is about their lives and livelihood. It is about them and to achieve the targets and enhance participatory

development, Chambers (1994), suggests that the people take the lead while external experts remain as facilitators.

From the results of the study, almost all of the study participants mentioned that they have not heard of and had never attended the IDP meeting. Even the very few participants that indicated that they attended, disheartening to say, we're not sure if it was an IDP meeting or not. This cast a new light on the level of IDP awareness in the Kayamandi community. According to data, the IDP indicated that it communicates with the people, allowed them to lead the processes of development (theme **1a** above), and is working on giving them improved feedback. This suggests that there is a disconnect at this point. Then, it is obvious from the two sides (people and IDP) that either the information did not reach the people or there was no information at all. There is no overlap of information about the needs of the people. This makes the IDP look like a foreign concept to the people and a sort of sideshow from the municipality. Therefore, it seems the IDP process in that sense is flawed. Because only a few might have attended the meeting if at all but the majority of the people are left out.

On the other hand, it seems like the participatory intermediaries: Ward Administrators and Councilors are not effective enough. As pointed out by one of the respondents at the municipality, *'Ward Councilors do not report or give feedback to the people properly so, the IDP office becomes the scapegoat to the people'* (Conversation: 17.10.2019).

Other vital findings that the result of this investigation showed were the lack of meeting support like transportation to and from the meeting venue, misuse of social media for political purposes, poor communication between the IDP and the people, and lack of awareness. These have impeded greatly the level of peoples' participation in development initiatives with a negative effect on achieving and enhancing the targets of participatory development at the grassroots level.

The finding on the willingness of the people to participate in developmental initiatives revealed that the people were strongly willing to participate. As shown by the data, the people have an idea about the concept of participatory problem-solving. However, this willingness was not matched with any community project according to the study data. More so, the youth did not see themselves

as part of the solution to the issue of development at the grassroots level, especially in the Kayamandi community, so they were lackadaisical about participation.

This study reveals a very low level of community participation. This low level of participation is tied to 'no knowledge of IDP' that appeared in the data several times. These results support Gupta's (2014) contention that participation in community development programs put forth by development implementers rarely results in participation and the empowerment of disadvantaged communities. On the grounds that they are less likely to give marginalized communities the ability to influence or control development decisions and instead produce forms of control that are more complicated to confront, development critics have long questioned the mainstream participatory development approaches (Mayo & Craig 1995; Cleaver 2001; Kothari 2001). The majority of community empowerment-focused participatory spaces matched the "invited space" of participation with limited opportunity to influence the development processes and outcomes. Because of this, community members perceived few opportunities to exert more control over development choices despite a growing trend of participation in development initiatives.

Participatory spaces in development can be "invited" or "claimed," as demonstrated by Gaventa (2006b) and Cornwall (2002). The most common type of participation in development practices is invited participation, in which the development organizations set up official forums for the beneficiaries to engage in discussion, negotiate, and come to a consensus in order to generally realize the objectives of the project. Participation in these consensus-oriented fora typically has an apolitical bent because the main goal is better project management and control rather than participant empowerment (Craig & Porter 1997). However, claimed participation is a more organic kind of engagement, where participatory spaces are either independently produced by the disadvantaged groups or they are given the opportunity to claim such spaces from the influential other players (Gaventa 2006b). Since claimed participation is fundamentally a political process and is not restricted to attaining a specific goal, it has a greater potential to change the social order in favor of those who are marginalized.

5.3.3 Factors that can influence communities' participation in development projects - *response to research question three (3)*

The third objective of this study was to identify the factors that can influence people's participation in development projects. Eight factors militating against participation in grassroots development, especially in the Kayamandi community were identified. The major factor according to the views of all the respondents is *'broken promises'* followed by the fact that *'meetings are more political than developmental'*. Broken promises and lack of service delivery, over the years from the side of the politicians and IDP or municipality, made them feel it was a waste of time to attend any meeting organized by the IDP. These points were louder during the focus group discussion in the community. All the study participants repeated the issues surrounding *'broken promises and lack of service delivery'* severally. According to the data, even at the meeting, the agenda is usually not followed rather it will be twisted and become political. Poor communication and lack of awareness too were other novel findings of this study. In conclusion, the people indicated that they know little or nothing about the IDP therefore, they could not participate.

Lack of feedback and neglect of peoples' opinions were also other issues that sprang up severally in this study. All the interviewees stress the fact that the community rarely gets feedback from the IDP. In addition, even if it happens, it is a repetition. *"We will look into it"* is one of those types of responses the people get whenever they visit the municipality to ask for feedback. *"The Mayor of Stellenbosch has never set her foot in Kayamandi. Just imagine! Is not even like 5 minutes drive from here to there, he has never been to this place"*. This is an excerpt from one of the transcripts. The people seem to be very discouraged about issues of participation in community development. To top it all, *"He doesn't really care about what is happening, you know so..."* Therefore, they have come to a point where they now believe the municipality does not really care about them.

According to the study findings, 'broken promises' topped the list of factors that could influence community participation in development projects. As presented above, almost all the study participants mentioned that the municipality and the politicians do not keep to promises made to them. Therefore, they see the IDP meeting attendance as a waste of time. Lack of service delivery and feedback are other factors that could influence their participation in development projects.

There are concerns that, despite the apparent necessity of participation in development processes, it does not necessarily result in the empowerment of the underprivileged (Mansuri et al., 2013). According to Hildyard et al. (2001:70), development agencies should prioritize the needs and political advancement of marginalized populations if they are sincere about the issues of sustainability, equity, and poverty reduction. Hildyard et al. argues that in order to foster receptivity, flexibility, patience, open-mindedness, non-defensiveness, curiosity, and respect for others' opinions, development organizations must assess their internal hierarchies, training methods, and office culture (Hildyard et al., 2001). According to Freire (1970:135), an exclusive atmosphere will continue to exist if the conditions that rule a project are authoritarian, rigid, and powerful. In fact, the success of participatory development projects depends on donors' and implementing agencies' willingness to adopt a process approach, delegate clearly defined roles and decision-making authority to local stakeholders, as well as involve various related institutions as partner organizations (Eylers and Foster, 1998).

The idea of service delivery to the communities at the municipal level, inherent in participatory processes of development activities, is problematic in that the communities are deprived, and this led to the emergence of 'broken promises' in the study data. When promises of service delivery are not met as promised by the municipality, the community feels deprived. Such deprivation is definitely a grave concern for the communities, but it does not stand alone. Rather it is intricately associated with long-standing racial, economic, and political injustices vested with unequal social relationships of power. Most participatory development projects ignore the unequal power relationships and hence have limited scope to empower the participants. They aim to improve the situation of the communities within the existing socio-economic landscape without any fundamental transformation of the society (Morgan 2016).

The study results show that the communities are not only denied productive resources and opportunities in terms of participation but also feel neglected due to a lack of feedback from the municipality. Therefore, projects that aim to restore the lost trust in the municipality and trigger participation would be helpful to enhance their agency. And increase their confidence.

5.3.4 Assess women's participation in development projects in the Kayamandi community - *response to research question four (4)*

The fourth objective of this investigation was to assess the level of women's participation in development initiatives in the community. A high level of women's participation was observed from the collected data, analysis, and field discussion during data collection. The fact that all four (4) Ward Councilors were women (*Discussion with a Ward councilor on 21.10.2019*) signifies the likelihood of increased women's participation not only in politics but been vocal with influence in the community. This could also imply that their opinion is been considered and they are listened to. A further novel finding from the study was that culture and tradition have been identified to have an insignificant impact on the level of women's participation in the Kayamandi community. The reason for this as shown by the data was that women are most times the 'breadwinners' of the family. Important to note, in as much as it seems the women are willing and the influence of culture and tradition is insignificant, their participation is still partial. **P3 in Lines 105-106** indicated that "*They are willing and allowed depending upon the experience and bravery and the education*".

Even while the data shows improved participation of women in politics as stated above and has led to fresh insights and helped to foster an appreciation for their knowledge and zeal in development, it hasn't changed the fact that their involvement in development is still insignificant (Nawal, 2007). The majority of individuals most impacted by service delivery are women, by a large margin (Subethri, 2000). Women hold a significant position in a social context within a society due to the gender-specific responsibilities and roles they play. They must participate in and regularly be consulted on municipal planning, decision-making, and assessment (GAP and Foundation for Contemporary Research, 1998). Participation is therefore a requirement of developmental planning within the objectives of the IDP, not just a matter of planning being competent or just a kind acknowledgment of women as a "formerly marginalized" group (Subethri, 2000).

The fact that the White Paper on Local Government acknowledges the need to address the needs of specific marginalized target groups, such as women, the youth, and the disabled, complicates issues of organizational culture within the development context (Shikha, 2015). Policy acknowledges that, among other things, addressing women's gender-specific demands is essential to successfully transform South African society (Subethri, 2000).

Women play a crucial role in the development environment because they make up more than 50% of the population, the majority of whom reside in previously designated apartheid spaces and communities, and who have specific gender roles relating to household maintenance, energy production, and water provision (Shikha, 2015). In addition, women make up a significant portion of the disabled and young people, who must be taken into account on their own merits.

The partial nature of women's participation in grassroots development especially in the case of Kayamandi is in tandem with the argument put forward by Hooper, (2012). Hooper asserts that it is difficult to gather a fair viewpoint and have a just representation of the populace at the local level in places where ethnic minorities, particularly women, are marginalized. Due to patriarchal constraints imposed by their culture, customs, and male supremacy, women find it challenging to engage (Hooper, 2012). The four female councillors of the Kayamandi village are not viewed by the locals as representing their interests, but rather those of the municipality, as was mentioned above in this chapter. According to Mosse (2001), while the participatory approaches have assimilated and are in line with the blueprint development paradigm, they haven't actually changed how development is carried out in terms of side-lining women.

The change to transformative politics gives municipalities the chance to assume responsibility for ensuring that the IDP process incorporates gender-specific implications in planning, implementation, and regulation. Unfortunately, many localities may fail to recognize how the IDP framework has the power to alter women's lives by allowing them to participate in local governance (Subethri, 2000).

5.3.5 Ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced - response to research question five (5)

The fifth objective of this research was to find out ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. The data dug out seven ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. The study findings reveal that if service delivery is improved with more staff presence in the Kayamandi community participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. All the interviewees stressed the fact that the municipality just needs to deliver. As one of the study participants puts it, *'being there whenever the people need them is key*. This is most likely because the people feel distant from the IDP/Municipality.

This also came up severally during the focus group discussion. From the data, another participant mentioned that he knows the councilors live in Kayamandi, but he has never met any of them. The same participant indicated that the Mayor only came to Kayamandi once and that was when there was a protest about the issue of housing. Before and after that visit, no IDP/Municipality staff visited the community to know what is happening.

Another key finding that emerged from the data was inclusion and transparency. These have been identified according to the data as ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. Data showed that if the people are included and project staff are transparent about finances, there is a likelihood that the targets of participatory development in the community will be achieved and enhanced. Therefore, not including the people by using the traditional top-down approach as mentioned by **P10** *'it was a top-down thing so, the people don't have much to say in the project'*, will not only create more challenges to the already existing ones at the grassroots level but continue to hinder the achievement of participatory development results and impact.

Effective communication and timely feedback were also some of the factors this investigation brought out as likely ways in which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. One of the participants stressed the importance of communication *'Try to...just communication menh!'* (**P8**). The same participant indicated that *'Communication and be consistent in what they say. That is very important to me'*. The data have also shown that giving timely feedback is akin to achieving and enhancing participatory development targets. An interviewee indicated that *'I think is about feedback'* (**P9**).

From the data, some of the participants stressed awareness and group engagement. **P9** suggested *"door-to-door engagement"* with the people as one of the ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. As indicated above, this will increase staff presence in the community, give a sense of belonging to a sphere of government to the people and give them the feeling that the government cares about them and their needs. Group engagement: Woman-to-woman, youth-to-youth, man-to-man is the engagement pattern suggested by **P10** as one of the ways to achieve and enhance participatory development targets. This participant pointed out that

this will lead to the openness of every section or group of the community as group need differs. Finally, the use of CBOs and Street Committees also emerged as ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. The participants explained that the CBOs and Street Committees know the people and community better than the IDP. That involving them in the process will not only hasten up the process of service delivery but also build confidence and trust in the people and bring about a sense of belonging to the local structure of governance.

This study shows, specifically in the Kayamandi community, that the municipality neglects the community. This is not unexpected based on earlier findings during data gathering. Mubita et al., (2017), posit that despite the romanticization of it by its proponents, participation does not always result in the benefits stated. The municipality distanced itself from the community and this is why the participants had no knowledge of IDP therefore, the idea of empowerment that comes from participation turns a mirage. Meanwhile, Edward (1993) argues that the overall goal of participation in development is to empower grassroots communities.

The need for effective communication as suggested by the study participants indicates that there is a huge communication gap between the Kayamandi community and the IDP/Stellenbosch municipality. This is why the study participants suggested, improved service delivery, inclusion, and transparency, effective communication among others as ways to improve participatory development. This supports the claim that participatory development is "the new tyranny" (Cooke and Kothari 2001) and is used to obtain the consent of communities for a predetermined goal (Hilyard et al 2001). The transformative nature of participatory development is addressed by Hickey and Mohan (2004), who refer to it as a "phantom." Because participation will not always yield the claimed results (Mubita et al., 2017).

The World Bank (1996) admits that social change cannot be through the collation of information presented by foreign professionals alone. The community must be included. The capacity of communities needs to be enhanced to enable participation. Participation in this sense is concerned with motivating and encouraging participants to take actions, which are the product of their own thinking and deliberations because they have more control over that when compared to external initiatives (Kumar, 2002). With participation, the communities take decisions, act and reflect on the outcomes of their actions. Accordingly, Rahim (1994) posits that the power to decide on the

meanings and values of development rest upon locals in the community. Therefore, the inclusion of communities in development projects, effectiveness in communication, and the inclusion of CBOs and Street committees become important to enhancing and achieving participatory development targets.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter presents the main findings from the interview data collected from Kayamandi. It shows how the data responded to the main research question and the five sub-questions by using the IDP in South Africa. Thus, it discusses how the central themes address the questions posed by this study. In other words, it reveals and discusses the findings from the Kayamandi community and shows how these findings were used to respond to the research questions.

A wide range of study findings on participatory development was supported by the additional data supplied by these case studies. This study confirms the literature that highlights the drawbacks of participatory projects, highlighting their instrumental character and efficiency-focused approach as opposed to their focus on empowering participants, transforming communities, and fostering participatory democracy (Cleaver, 2001; Mosse, 2001; Kothari, 2001; Gaventa, 2004; Hickey and Mohan, 2004). Additionally, it enhances and validates some of the arguments presented in the literature (Korten, 1991; Kottack, 1991; Tombo, 2003) that stress the significance of gender and inclusion aspects when developing participatory development initiatives. The findings of this study offer a further understanding of how development implementers and local communities interact and highlight the potential negative impact of broken promises, lack of feedback, and lack of service delivery by the participatory middlemen (Councillors and Ward Committees). This study raises further concerns regarding development implementers' policies and credibility because the community has little, or no trust left in the municipality.

Despite claiming to use a participatory approach, the IDP followed a conventional framework that limited people's ability to participate in initiatives. The results of the participatory approach have been negatively impacted by neglect, a lack of concern for the community, and a lack of communication with the community. Communities also lack the abilities and knowledge necessary to interact, participate, and establish relationships with development implementers.

Chapter Six

Participatory Development in Bwari: Examining the CSDP Participatory Process

6.0 Presenting the study findings: The Bwari case

6.1 Demographic features of the Bwari participants

As part of research ethics and respect for participants' information, this study takes cognizance of the anonymity of respondents' data. Therefore, the researcher used tables to show the demographic details of the study participants with a coded participant's identity (ID). The relevant participants' variables that were intentionally selected were specifically to give an insight into who the study participants were specifically to show how long the participants and the project staff have been living in the community and working in their present positions respectively.

In a tabular form below, this section shows the demographic details of the study participants of the Nigerian case study.

Demographics of participants (Bwari community, Nigeria)

<i>Participant's Identity</i>	<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Identity</i>	<i>Level of Education</i>	<i>Length of period living in the community</i>
<i>P₁</i>	40-49	Male	African	Primary school	Birthplace
<i>P₂</i>	50-59	Male	African	High school	Birthplace
<i>P₃</i>	40-49	Male	African	Primary school	25 years +
<i>P₄</i>	40-49	Male	African	High school	Birthplace
<i>P₅</i>	50-59	Male	African	Diploma	10 years +
<i>P₆</i>	50-59	Female	African	High school	21 years +
<i>P₇</i>	40-49	Female	African	Diploma	Birthplace
<i>P₈</i>	30-39	Female	African	High school	15 years
<i>P₉</i>	40-49	Female	African	High school	19 years
<i>P₁₀</i>	30-39	Female	African	High school	25 years

Key: P₁ = Participant 1P₁₀ = Participant 10

Table 6.1: Participants' demography (Bwari community)

The researcher ensured that gender issues does not arise throughout the study as it relates to the selection of study participants. Therefore, gender uniformity was observed. This was why out of the ten participants interviewed, five were female and the other five males. The most common age

group was 40-49 years. **Table 6.1** shows the individual demographics of study participants in terms of their age group, gender, and ethnicity. Others are their level of education and most importantly, how long they have been living in the Bwari community. Interestingly, four out of the ten study participants interviewed were born and grew up in the same community. While two other participants have individually lived 25 years, the remaining four participants have lived in the community for 10, 15, 19, and 21 years respectively.

Demographics of participants - CSDP project staff, Abuja, Nigeria.

<i>Participant's ID</i>	<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Identity</i>	<i>Years of working</i>	<i>Level of Education</i>
<i>S₁</i>	40-49	Male	African	8 years +	Master's degree
<i>S₂</i>	50-59	Male	African	7 years +	Degree
<i>S₃</i>	50-59	Male	African	7 years +	Master's degree
<i>S₄</i>	40-49	Female	African	4 years +	Degree
<i>S₅</i>	40-49	Male	African	7 years +	Degree

Key: S₁ = Staff 1.....S₅ = Staff 5

Table 6.2: Features of the study participants

The features of the five CSDP staff interviewed by the researcher are presented above in **Table 6.2** above. One female and four male staff were interviewed. This obvious imbalance in gender is because of the prevailing global health issues (Covid-19) as at the time of fieldwork. As a result, the female staff were reluctantly exempted from coming to the office. However, they were all interviewed individually in places they deemed comfortable and fit. The table also highlights the study participants' age group, gender, ethnicity, and level of education.

6.2 Findings

6.2.1 Research question 1

Nature of the participatory development approach and knowledge used by development implementers.

This question was divided into two parts for easy analysis:

- A. 'Nature of participatory development approach used by development implementers'
- B. 'Staff knowledge of participatory development'

The first part (**1a**) of the question is:

'Nature of participatory development approach used by development implementers. Three themes were arrived at from the data to proffer a solution to this part of the question and they are,

- 1) Participatory rural appraisal (10)
- 2) Community-driven development (9)
- 3) Local knowledge (2)

Participatory rural appraisal: 10

The data revealed that participatory rural appraisal is the approach of participatory development that was employed by the CSDP project staff to get the people to participate. As indicated by participant **S1**, a project field officer for eight years in **Lines 73-76**, that *"needs are identified through participation. Just as we have said, the tool is PRA. It is the tool employed by CSDP field officers (PRA). Because all needs are identified through rural appraisal by the people themselves. The people identified needs, the people discussed the problem, and the people proffer solution to their problem"*. The same staff added in **Lines 78-79** that, *"CSDP staff only assist, facilitate and guide. But the people are on the front seat"*. *"Without getting the PRA right, there is no way the project will be implemented"* **S3** reaffirmed in **Lines 37-38**.

Community-driven development: 9

It was obvious from the data that the approach engaged by the CSDP is community-driven. Participant **S2** who is a field officer with seven-year experience of working with grassroots people in **Lines 56** indicated, *"the approach is Community-Driven Development"*. Participant **S4** explained further in **Lines 29-31**, *"is a CDD approach where the communities are placed at the driver's seat, they decide what they want. So, from the design up to post-evaluation, the communities, that are the beneficiaries, are involved in all the processes"*. The emphasis remained on CDD in **Lines 233-234**, *"The CSDP in the whole, if you check the PIM is CDD (Community-Driven Development). We allow the community to decide on what they want"* (**S3**).

Local knowledge: 2

As shown by the data, the approach used by CSDP seems not to have excluded anyone or any concept including the knowledge of the people living in the Bwari community. **S₁** in **Lines 20-22** stated that *“As it relates to CSDP means that every member of the community is important irrespective of their gender or disability. They are important. And in CSDP context, local intelligence of the community members is essential in achieving developmental objectives”*. Also, **S₃** in **Lines 77** succinctly captured it, *“we learn from the people”*. The same participant in **Lines 92-95** mentioned *“the key, uh, vision of this project is Learning by Doing. You learn from the community and the community learns from you. The CSDP project is not about the degree you have in the class with theory aspect, but if you go to the community, you learn a lot in the rural community”*.

The second part (**1b**) of the question is:

‘Staff knowledge of participatory development’. Four themes were generated to tackle part (**1b**) of the question, and they are as follows:

- 1) Knowledge from experience (13)
- 2) People as drivers (12)
- 3) Bottom-up (12)
- 4) Lack of conventional training on participatory development (8)



Knowledge from experience: 13

When trying to ascertain if the project staff have conventional knowledge of participatory development, the study data showed that the project staff are dependent more on the knowledge they gained while working, that is, knowledge from experience, on-the-job training: workshops, and seminars. This was clear in the response of **S₁** in **Lines 12-14**, *“My name is S₁. I am a Chemical Engineer by training (laughing) but I am now working in CSDP. I have been in CSDP for the past; this is my 8th year working in rural development. I work with CSDP as Operations Officer involved in fieldwork”*. When asked if participant **S₃** has attended any formal education on participatory development before, the participant simply responded in **Lines 33-34**, *“Yeah! I have attended a*

training on participation - PRA. In our own project, we call it PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal).

People as drivers: 12

As revealed by the data, the project staff seems to have a reasonable amount of knowledge of participatory development. **S₁** in **Lines 73** mentioned that *“needs are identified through participation”*. The same participant (**S₁**) in **Lines 20-21**, indicated, *“Every member of the community is important irrespective of their gender or disability. They are important. And in CSDP context, local intelligence of the community members is essential in achieving developmental objectives”*. Their level of knowledge was also proven by **S₃** in **Lines 105-107**, *“By the time you go, you allow them to participate and they come, they will be able to tell you that, women will be able to tell you where the project should be/not sited”*. **S₄** in **Lines 113-114** reaffirmed their level of knowledge, *“but you don't take the lead, you only initiated the discussion while you get their input”*.

Bottom-up: 12

The responses from the participants about their level of participatory development knowledge seem to suggest a higher level of knowledge in the bottom-up approach. Participant **S₂** with seven years of community development work experience categorically stated in **Lines 148-150**, *“No! The People lead of course... From the onset!”*. Participant **S₅** in **Lines 214, 216-217** also gave an insight, *“For me, I'm very ok with the PRA... Yes. I am very ok because is a bottom-up approach. And if you want a result, that is just the best approach. Is community-driven”*. In **Lines 237-240**, **S₃** briefly describes the processes, *“They identify projects themselves. That is why I told you that it took us about 3 days to even package and come about the Community Development Plan. One, you have to sensitize the Community. The second day, the community have to choose the project themselves; the community have to elect their officials that is the CPMC officials themselves”*

Lack of conventional training on participatory development: 5

It was obvious from the data that the project staff seems to lack formal or conventional training on participatory development before being engaged in the CSDP project work. All of the study participants indicated that they attend workshops and pieces of training to be able to acquire

PRA/community-driven/bottom-up knowledge. This is evident in the response of participant **S₃** in **Lines 34-37**, *“In respect to CSDP as a project, when you are employed if the recruitment is conducted if you come on board, the first training you attend before you even go to the community is a PRA Training, that is Participatory Rural Appraisal Training. Because that is the key role”*. Participant **S₂** also concurred in **Lines 43**, “Yes. I attended workshops”

6.2.2 Research question 2

Level of communities’ participation and the willingness to participate in development projects?

This question was separated into two parts for easy understanding, and they are:

- 1) ‘Level of grassroots participation in their own development’
- 2) ‘Willingness to participate in development initiative’

The first part (**a**) of the question is:

‘Level of communities’ participation in their own development’. Three themes were generated to address this part (**a**) of question 2 and they are:

- 1) People lead and identify needs themselves (26)
- 2) High meeting attendance and participation (19)
- 3) Adequate knowledge of CSDP (9)

People lead and identify needs themselves: 26

In trying to find out the level of people’s participation in development projects at the grassroots level, particularly in the Bwari community, the data gathered showed that there is a high level of participation to the point that, the community projects were needed earlier identified by the people. This is evident in the response of **P₂** in **Lines 25-26**, *“Yes yes! We identify the project by ourselves. And the most important ones, those are the ones we picked”*. In agreement, **P₃** in **Lines 68-69** stated that *“We started the projects ourselves and we ended it by ourselves. Their role was just to facilitate and check. The CSDP staff come here daily to check the project activities”*. Also, **P₄** in **Lines 24-25** emphasized the same notion, *“No. We selected the project by ourselves. Even some of the projects we selected, we cannot do all because of the money”*. The study data also showed

that the people were in the “driver’s seat”. Participant **P₂** who was born and grew up in the community mentioned in **Lines 98** that “*Yeah. They just assist*”. This is also the same for **P₁** in **Line 116**, “*They listen to us. Quite ok, they listen to us*”.

High meeting attendance and participation: 19

The data revealed a high level of meeting attendance among the people and participation in their own development. **P₅** in **Lines 20-21** described how the meeting was usually held, “*Yes. It is an interactive meeting where we have members of the CSDP interacting with the community members*”. In **Lines 19**, **P₉** indicated that “*We sit in a circle form. We all face ourselves*” (participatory sitting arrangement). **P₆** in **Line 22** clearly mentioned that “*We sit down in circle. We do not have Oga*” (**Oga** means Boss in Nigeria). When the researcher probed further, **P₅** in **Lines 29-30** screamed that “*No! We sat around. There was no differentiation. We formed a circle and everybody was seeing each other*”.

Adequate knowledge of CSDP: 9

The data from this investigation established that the people from the Bwari community have good knowledge of CSDP and the work it does. **P₁₀** in **Lines 9, 11-13** stated that “*Yes. I hear about them...: I heard that they are doing a project for us. Like the school, they built it. And if we have another thing to do, they will assist us to do it. I heard that they are assisting people to do projects in different communities*”. Also, **P₉** in **Lines 13-14** noted that “*Yes. I just know about it because I have seen the small work they have done. Like the borehole up there. That is what I know about it*”.

The second part (**b**) of question **2** is:

‘*Willingness to participate in developmental initiative*’. To address the question, *three (3) themes were generated, and they are as follows:*

- 1) People are strongly willing to participate and contribute (8)
- 2) Construction of borehole and classroom foundation (6)
- 3) Community security outfit (2)

People are strongly willing to participate and contribute: 8

The result from the data gathered showed that the people, specifically from the Bwari community were interested in development with a high level of willingness. This is clear in the response of **P₄** in **85-87**, *“Yes! We are ready. If there is any assistance they can do to us, we are ready to pay 10%. We will not complain. We know where we can get it. So that our community will be satisfied”*. Again, their willingness was expressed by **P₃** in **110-113** where the participant vividly stated that *“Because we now trust them. We also ready and willing to contribute another 10%. Because we have seen, what the CSDP can do. Go to our hospital and see how everything”*.

Construction of borehole and classroom foundation: 6

The willingness of the people as shown by the data collected was displayed in their construction of a borehole and classrooms before the emergence of the CSDP, especially in their community. Participant **P₇** whose Bwari community was his birthplace specified in **Lines 28-29**, *“These classrooms, we started it. There was another one there which have been demolished”*. Participant **P₉** specifically mentioned the presence of a borehole before the arrival of the CSDP in the Bwari community. In her words, *“P₉ in Lines 21-22, “There is one borehole before CSDP came. The manual (hand pumping) borehole”*.

Community security outfit: 2

The study data revealed that the people were willing and ready to participate in grassroots development especially as it relates to securing lives and properties in the Bwari community. This was clear in their quest for finding a solution to the security challenges they had at the time. In **Lines 43-44**, **P₃** noted that *“Yes. We are holding security meetings. Because there was a time that thieves were disturbing us. Like 1999, 2000, 2001, we have problems of thieves here too much”*.

6.2.3 Research question 3

Factors that can influence communities’ participation in development projects

Three themes were generated to respond to this question, and they are:

- 1) Lack of awareness (8)
- 2) Wrong meeting times (4)

3) Lack of trust (3)

Lack of awareness: 8

Lack of awareness was one of the major factors that can influence participation that emerged from the data collected. **P10** in **Lines 43-50** indicated that,

“Apart from the time, maybe they are busy. You know we women are too busy. We cook, attend to children's assignments, and do many other things. Apart from that, this is the major problem; WE DONT USE TO KNOW THE TIME OF THE MEETING. Maybe I am in my shop now and they are doing meeting, how do I know that meeting is going on? I will not be able to know. So, if they can tell everybody that there will be a meeting tomorrow or next week with details then, I can plan and attend. Even if I have things to do, I can easily suspend it for the meeting. The major problem is that WE DONT USE TO KNOW THE TIME THAT THEY ARE DOING THE MEETING”.

The same factor was reported by **P8** in **Lines 45-47**, *“Although, I do not know the time they use to do the meeting. Sometimes they will just call us and say there is a meeting this evening or tomorrow. And we didn't hear or know about it before, maybe we have somewhere to go or have something to do”.* Again, the data brought out the same issue in the responses of **P9** in **Lines 33**, *“Yes. But we do not know the actual time for the meeting”.*

Wrong meeting times: 4

“Wrong meeting times” appeared from the data collected to be another factor that can influence peoples’ participation. As clearly stated by **P2** in **59-61**, *“Although, I do not know the time they use to do the meeting. Sometimes they will just call us and say there is a meeting this evening or tomorrow. And we didn't hear or know about it before, maybe we have somewhere to go or have something to do”.* The participant was also born and grew up in the community. Also, **P9** in **Lines 37** bluntly put it, *“That is the only problem we have. We do not know the meeting time”.* **P7** in **Lines 49-51** related the meeting time with working hours, which impede on peoples’ participation, *“Because some of them are working somewhere. And when a meeting is scheduled during their working hours, then it affects some of the time”.*

Lack of trust: 3

The study data showed that the absence of trust is one of the factors that could militate against peoples’ participation in grassroots development. **P3** in **Lines 86-88** indicated that *“The major*

thing is fear. Fear of fraud from the side of CSDP. If not for some of us who already know how things are, when we were working over there, some people were just like, those people are wasting their time, they will soon run away”. P₄ concurred in **Lines 65-66**, “Fear is affecting them but people have been seeing what we achieved now and they are now showing interest by asking, how was the meeting? People have been coming out now”.

6.2.4 Research question 4

Level of women's participation in developmental initiatives in this community

To address this research question, three themes were generated, and they are:

- 1) High level of women participation (10)
- 2) Opinion considered (10)
- 3) Reduced impact of culture and tradition (7)

High level of women participation: 10

The data showed a high level of women's participation in development initiatives. As seen in the response of P₁ in **Lines 69-71**, “Yeah yeah yeah! Even our community, for our community here, is a woman that is our Treasurer. So, and we have PRO the same woman that is PRO. Our Secretary is Man and Assistant Secretary is a woman”. P₅ in **Lines 60** also stressed the fact that there are more women than men in terms of participation, “There are more women than men ooo!”. The same participant gave a reason for the high level of women participation in **Lines 62-65**, “You know women; they feel more of the impact. Men, we are too busy. Just like they called me that you are going to be around here by 9-10 am, I was working somewhere. But women are always on the ground. So, when the fellas come, we are calling for a meeting, women will be more”.

Opinion considered: 7

A further probe by the researcher to ascertain if women were given listening ears and their opinion considered, P₇ in **Lines 45-46** indicated that, “Yes. And they listen to them too. Everybody is equal sir. Women come to meeting, they are allowed to speak and the opinions are also taken”. P₃ in **Lines 65-66** confirmed that “Yes. Very well. They listen to them and take their opinions. They also

listen to us all". Their response is not different from that of **P8** in **Line 33**, "Yes. They listen and count to their opinion"

Reduced impact of culture and tradition: 7

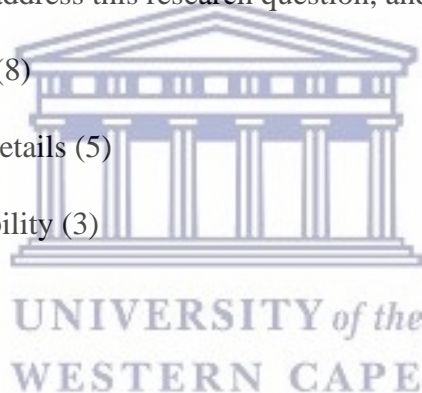
The data revealed that culture and tradition seem to have a reduced impact on women's participation in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level mainly in the Bwari community. As indicated by **P5** in **Lines 67-68**, "*No hindrance. There is nothing. Women are more interested. All the programmes listed, they stand to benefit more; like the Borehole, the School, and Health Centre they benefit more*". "*No no, no nooooo!*" was the response of **P1** in **Lines 83** when asked if culture and/or tradition impede women's participation.

6.2.5 Research question 5

Ways through which participatory development targets can be enhanced and achieved?

Four themes were developed to address this research question, and they are:

- 1) More participatory projects (8)
- 2) Consistent awareness with details (5)
- 3) Transparency and accountability (3)
- 4) Incentive (2)



More participatory projects: 8

The data revealed that the continuation and/or availability of more participatory projects is one of the ways to achieve and enhance participatory development targets. **P3** in **Lines 109-113** confirmed that if,

"they should bring more projects to this community and you will see everybody outside. Because we now trust them. We also ready and willing to contribute another 10%. Because we have seen, what the CSDP can do. Go to our hospital and see how everything is been fixed. Even these classes, are good and ok for our children to come and learn in it".

P4 in **Lines 74-75** indicated in confidence, “As you people have started and we trust your people now, we just need more projects to encourage people to come out”. **P5** in **Lines 100-103** suggested that participatory development targets could be achieved and enhanced by,

“Just to encourage them to do more of the project. Like the one we have now, we are just praying that we have another this year all things being equal. When they see more of these projects coming up, people will be interested. They will not just come once and disappeared. It becomes a regular thing. So, I think it will create more interest and participation”.

Consistent awareness with details: 5

The investigation showed that detailed information about the meeting should be disseminated early enough to enable proper planning from the people’s side. This will contribute largely to achieving and enhancing the targets of participatory development. **P8** in **Lines 58-59** states that “They should be informing us ahead of time so that we can plan. You see all these my friends, I just rush to go and call them”. In agreement, **P9** in **Lines 40-43** suggested that “if there is going to be a meeting, maybe a week to the date, they can announce it with details. They could use other women and men to say, please, inform your people or colleagues that there is going to be a meeting on a particular day, time, and venue”. In addition, **P5** in **Lines 89** emphasized, “More Awareness! Awareness should be created more if not we can’t achieve anything”.

Transparency and accountability: 3

The fear of fraud or being duped has been an obstacle in achieving and enhancing the targets of participatory development as obvious in the study data. **P3** in **Lines 90-91** stated that “The fear of 419 (it means fraud in Nigeria). That CSDP might run away with the money and everybody will go back home”. This was why **P5** in **Lines 92-96** in a loud voice suggested that

“Of course! Of course! Transparency and accountability. Like those days when we were doing it at the menial level, zonal level, we have challenges of light, and the rest of them, when we were doing it. Most time people we say, the money we paid last time, we did not see what came out. But if people are sure that as they giving the money, they are seeing the outcome, of course, it will encourage participation and targets will be achieved”.

Therefore, if project staff are transparent and accountable, participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced especially in the Bwari community.

Incentive: 2

The data cast a new light on incentives as one of the ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. P₆ in Lines 56-60 indicated that

“Some people if they do not go and hustle, they will not eat. And the meeting we do not use to share anything including money. So, for them to leave what they are going to do and come to meeting they find it difficult. And money for this project we cannot begin to share it. Because if you do, this project will not stand here, and you have a query. So, that is what I know that is making them not to respond very well like that”.

The above response is not different from that of P₁₀ who has lived in the community for over 20 years. The participant concurred in Lines 52-54 that, *“You know us, women, we like glittering things, we like to hear that they are sharing free things or giving out gifts. If they try this, women will be everywhere there will not be space even honestly”.* The result showed that giving incentives to cushion time spent in the meeting would greatly contribute to achieving and enhancing the targets of participatory development.



The table below reveals the summary of the study findings: themes generated, their meanings, and evidence from data collected

<i>Anchor of the research question</i>	<i>Theme</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Evidence from data</i>
1a. Nature of participatory development approach used by development implementers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Participatory rural appraisal ▪ Community-driven approach ▪ Local knowledge 	The CSDP employs the PRA approach. It is a community-driven approach.	S1 in Lines 73-76 , “needs are identified through participation. Just as we have said, the tool is PRA. It is the tool employed by CSDP field officers (PRA). Because all needs are identified through rural appraisal by the people themselves. The people identified needs, the people discussed the problem, and the people proffer solution to their problem”.
1b. Staff level of participatory development knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Knowledge from experience ▪ People as drivers ▪ Bottom-up ▪ Lack of conventional training on participatory development 	The project staff is dependent more on the knowledge they gained while working, that is, knowledge from experience. But a high level of knowledge was shown by the data	S1 in Lines 12-14 , “My name is S1. I am a Chemical Engineer by training (laughing) but I am now working in CSDP. I have been in CSDP for the past; this is my 8th year working in rural development. I work with CSDP as Operations Officer involved in fieldwork”. S3 in Lines 33-34 , “Yeah! I have attended a training on participation - PRA. In our own project, we call it PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal).”
2a. Level of communities’ participation in development projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ People lead and identify needs themselves ▪ High meeting attendance and participation ▪ Adequate knowledge of CSDP 	High level of participation and the people identified their needs and drives the process of their own development	P2 in Lines 25-26 , “Yes yes! We identify the project by ourselves. And the most important ones, those are the ones we picked”. P3 in Lines 68-69 , “We started the projects ourselves and we ended it by ourselves. Their role was just to facilitate and check. The CSDP staff come here daily to check the project activities”.
2b. Willingness to participate in development projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ People are strongly willing to participate and contribute ▪ Construction of borehole and classroom foundation 	Willingness to participate in grassroots development is very high	P4 in 85-87 , “Yes! We are ready. If there is any assistance they can do to us, we are ready to pay 10%. We will not complain. We know where we can get it. So that our community will be satisfied”. P3 in 110-113 , “Because we now trust them. We also ready and willing to contribute another 10%. Because we have seen, what the CSDP can do. Go to our hospital and

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Community security outfit 		<p>see how everything”. P7 in Lines 28-29 that, “These classrooms, we started it. There was another one there which have been demolished”.</p>
<p>3. Factors that can influence communities’ participation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of awareness Wrong meeting times Lack of trust 	<p>When information about the meeting is not properly, timely, and accurately disseminated, it impedes peoples’ level of participation</p>	<p>P10 in Lines 43-50, “Apart from the time, maybe they are busy. You know we women are too busy. We cook, attend to children's assignments, and do many other things. Apart from that, this is the major problem; WE DONT USE TO KNOW THE TIME OF THE MEETING....”. P3 in Lines 86-88, “The major thing is fear. Fear of fraud from the side of CSDP. If not for some of us who already know how things are, when we were working over there, some people were just like, those people are wasting their time, they will soon run away”.</p>
<p>4. Level of grassroots women’s participation in development projects</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High level of women participation Opinion considered Reduced impact of culture and tradition 	<p>Increased level of women participation in grassroots development with reduced impact of culture and tradition on participation</p>	<p>P1 in Lines 69-71, “Yeah yeah yeah! Even our community, for our community here, is woman that is our Treasurer. So, and we have PRO the same woman that is PRO. Our secretary is Man and Assistant Secretary is woman”. P5 in Lines 60 also stressed the fact that there are more women than men in terms of participation, “There are more women than men ooo!”.</p>
<p>5. Ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More participatory projects Consistent awareness with details Transparency and accountability Incentive 	<p>More inclusive development initiatives at grassroots level is among the ways participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced</p>	<p>P3 in Lines 109-113, “they should bring more project to this community, and you will see everybody outside. Because we now trust them. We also ready and willing to contribute another 10%. Because we have seen what the CSDP can do. Go to our hospital and see how everything is been fixed. Even these classes, are good and ok for our children to come and learn in it ”. P4 in Lines 74-75, “As you people have started and we trust your people now, we just need more project to encourage people to come out”.</p>

Table 6.3: Findings summary table for the **Nigerian case study**

6.3 Analysis of participatory development perceptions in Bwari: Nigeria case

Chapter six looks at the interview data from Bwari in order to analyse the main research question and five sub-questions that explore participatory development in Nigeria using CSDP project approaches. The anchor codes and answers described above were created by condensing the five sub-questions. Below, each of the sub-questions is addressed in relation to the critical analysis on participatory development discussed in the three introductory chapters above.

6.3.1 Nature of participatory development approach and knowledge used by development implementers – response to research question one (1)

The first objective of this investigation was to examine the nature of participatory development approaches and knowledge used by the CSDP. In trying to find out the nature of the participatory development approach used by the CSDP, the findings gathered from the data reveal that the CSDP engaged the PRA (participatory rural appraisal) approach in achieving grassroots development especially as it relates to the Bwari community. All the study participants indicated that PRA was the tool the CSDP employed to bring about grassroots development. A participant was further probed about the meaning of PRA (participatory rural appraisal), and he responded, “*The PRA is one of the community-driven development tools in grassroots development*”. The findings also revealed that cognizance was given to local knowledge in the community. This theme (value for local knowledge) confirmed the staff’s high level of knowledge in participatory development in **1b** below.

The study findings on the level of staff’s knowledge of participatory development revealed that the CSDP project staff lack formal knowledge of participatory development. Having the basics, formally, of participatory development would form a better foundation for the staff to grow upon and would greatly improve the practice of participatory development at the grassroots level. The findings showed ‘*knowledge from experience*’ as a theme with the most tally. Therefore, it implies that the CSDP project staff were dependent on knowledge from experience, as they do not have formal training on participatory development or a background in social science. This was obvious in the data gathered. Because all the study participants interviewed indicated that they have to be trained on PRA immediately after being recruited. Followed by several other on-the-job pieces of training and workshops to build their capacity for the tasks. However, this may suggest why the findings from the data gathered confirmed that the staff have adequate knowledge of participatory

development specifically, that of participatory rural appraisal, in as much as they lack formal training in participatory development.

The main finding for this specific question is the adoption of the participatory rural appraisal by the CSDP project in relation to the Bwari community. The adoption of this approach led to community-driven development as shown by the data presented above. Participation may boost a project's efficacy and success through approaches like PRA by giving locals the chance to think critically and come up with their own answers (Oakley, 1991). The adoption of PRA by the CSDP is obvious in the high rate of participation as seen in the study data. This enables the community to 'claim' its own space (Thompson, 2014). Participation enables the incorporation of local knowledge, skills, and resources in the design of projects and programmes, which leads to project and programme effectiveness as it is now viewed as a prerequisite to successful project and programme completion, as stated by Chambers (1994b:1257). Participatory methods "enable local people to use their own categories and criteria, to generate their own agenda, and to assess and indicate their own priorities." Participation can guarantee that a project or program is being implemented in a way that meets the demands of the people. Additionally, Chambers (1994b) backs up this claim by asserting that participatory procedures are more reliable, affordable, timely, and beneficial.

However, Mosse (2001) challenges the claim that participation can result in local communities' empowerment, particularly that of the marginalized. This is so that organizations using participatory approaches like PRA cannot modify or question the bureaucratic, centralized, and administrative institutions that have complete control over decision-making and resource allocation and even disallow participation. According to Cornwall and Pratt (2010), PRA practice does not appear to be empowering, particularly in a collective sense, as it is just used to extract information, which is the incorrect application and is not what is intended. Arnstein's notion that what is claimed to be participation on the lower rungs of the participation ladder is actually non-participation supports this. This is due to the fact that the locals are controlled and only employed to rubber-stamp or engineer their support.

6.3.2 Level of communities' participation and their willingness to participate in development projects – response to research question two (2)

The second objective of this study was to explore the level of communities' participation and their willingness to participate in grassroots development projects. The findings from the above about the level of communities' participation and their willingness demonstrate a high level of communities' participation with four vital findings. First, the community has an adequate level of knowledge about the CSDP. Second, the results showed high meeting attendance and participation. Third, the people lead and identify their needs themselves. Lastly, the identified needs are the ones executed. The findings located the participants in the last stage of participation, which is the self-mobilization level (Pretty, 1994). Pretty maintains that, at this stage, the people identify their needs solely. They can seek advice from development providers but overall, they are in control and in-charge resources.

There seems to be a strong relationship among the themes generated for the question, "*level of communities' participation*" and "*willingness to participate in developmental initiatives*". This was because the results for the latter showed that the people were strongly willing to participate in development initiatives in their community, which was matched with the construction of a community borehole. A conclusion that can be drawn from this finding was that the strong willingness to participate in the grassroots developmental initiative was informed by the adequate knowledge of CSDP the people have. This seems to be the reason why, together as a community, they were able to construct a water borehole and started the construction of a classroom for the community primary school before the CSDP intervened. As seen in the results of the findings, the people's willingness was also demonstrated when they were asked to pay counterpart funds (10%) of the total project cost. The study data revealed that it was never a challenge for the people to raise money and contribute. This strong willingness seems to be a product of the trust the people now have for the CSDP.

The study demonstrates a high level of community participation. However, this is a representation of the privileged few communities who could raise the 10% counterpart fund or those that have rich and influential individuals within the communities. The counterpart fund is 10% of the total project sum that the community has to pay toward project implementation. Moreover, the level of the community's participation in development projects is influenced by the capacity of the

community, and the development implementer's knowledge' among other factors (Nawal, 2007). Regarding the Bwari community, the following factors have influenced their participation negatively in the project thereby increasing their level of participation and willingness to participate; poverty and lack of knowledge when dealing with development implementers; exclusion from planning processes; level of education and local traditions.

As shown in chapter one of this thesis (figure 1.2), the features of the Bwari community show poverty. The community's members are poor and lack the required knowledge to deal with project implementers thereby, they are at the mercy of development providers. They tend to lean more towards externally funded projects because they do not have trust in the government due to their previous experiences in community projects. In addition, if the type of assistance presented to the community by external organizations is a pressing need, they become vulnerable and accept it without deciphering its conditions.

To Cooke and Kothari (2001), participation merely offers different ways to include the poor in the projects of major organizations that continue to be virtually unaccountable to those they are supposed to assist. In other words, participation is only a different way to advance old top-down development agendas while creating the illusion that a more inclusive project is being implemented that will empower the poor and the excluded (Cooke and Kothari, 2001).

Therefore, for real participation, people must be able to communicate their goals, circumstances, and awareness of those circumstances. According to Freire (1970:77), we should engage in discourse with others to learn about their perspectives and circumstances rather than trying to force our own views on them. According to Forester (1989), this indicates that our acts may be liberating and empowering rather than merely eliciting feedback if we listen and respond with sensitivity and care. Without an open conversation, Stiglitz (2002: 169) claims that there will always be a suspicion that decisions were taken in favor of particular interests rather than the interests of the society. According to Freire (1970:70176), genuine dialogue is impossible without critical thought on the part of the dialoguers. He contends that communication cannot exist without discourse and that meaningful education cannot exist without communication.

6.3.3 Factors that can influence communities' participation in development projects - *response to research question three (3)*

The third objective of this study was to identify the factors that can influence people's participation in development projects. Three factors that can influence participation in grassroots development, especially in the Kayamandi community were identified. The key findings that emerged were a lack of awareness, wrong meeting times, and a lack of trust. In the case of the first finding which was highly ranked, the people complained of not being aware of the meeting schedules. A participant asked, *"if I do not know when, where, and the time they will hold a meeting, how do I participate?"* Wrong meeting time repeatedly came up in the findings. This implies that the time for a meeting could influence participation. Therefore, meeting times should be convenient for the people in the community if not; their level of participation will be affected. In addition, when the meeting is scheduled without consulting the people or members of the community then, participation would be affected. The most vital factor that emerged was a lack of trust. A participant indicated that *"if I don't trust you, I cannot do anything with you"*. This suggests the people must trust the CSDP if not, they will not be interested in participating in or attending project meetings. The discussion below ensued between the researcher and one of the study participants:

Researcher: Please, what do you mean by lack of trust?

Participant: Fear of scammers

Researcher: How do you mean, please?

Participant: I do not want to be duped

Researcher: Oh! Now I get you. Laughed....

This finding implies that it greatly influences participation as it keeps the people at bay. The people were afraid of fraudsters.

When asked about the factors that can influence communities' participation, particularly with respect to their participation in the CSDP, 'wrong/no knowledge meeting times', 'lack of trust', and lack of awareness appeared the most in the data gathered. In other words, the community cannot participate if they are not aware. Also, their participation will be limited if they have no knowledge of meeting times. Their participation in the project is also deterred by a lack of trust in the development providers. This issue of trust is tied to their previous experience with other development providers in their community as shown by the data.

The case study found that although the projects encouraged and claimed to adopt participatory approaches, community members were not engaged in a process through which participation could achieve empowerment or create real changes in their lives. Mosse (2001) contends that participation has lost some of its radical meanings. Cleaver (2001) asserts that participation has evolved into a belief system that individuals follow without much thought. The inference is that involvement does not always result in the claimed benefits, despite being glorified by its proponent. The outcome of people's participation in the projects was influenced by a lack of awareness, wrong or no knowledge of meeting times, and a lack of trust in the development providers.

This suggests that primarily, designing participatory development programmes requires an in-depth understanding of prevailing social, economic, political, and physical environments (Nawal, 2007). Secondly, development providers should adopt approaches that accept negotiations with communities and challenge oppressive situations. Finally, if participatory development is to achieve its objectives, local communities must be provided with resources, information, and skills.

Therefore, these findings fit well with the concept of 'invited space' by Cornwall (2002) and 'claimed space' by Thompson (2014). Cornwall defines 'invited spaces' as "those into which people (as users, citizens or beneficiaries) are invited to participate by various kinds of authorities, be they government, supranational agencies or non-governmental organizations" (Cornwall, 2002: 24). This stands in contrast with 'claimed spaces' (Thompson, 2014; Thompson and Wet, 2018) that individuals create for themselves. However, a lot of work still needs to be done for the process to become more successful, especially in areas like participatory fora, mobilization, transparency, capacity building, sustainability, and accountability (Cooke & Kothari 2001).

6.3.4 Assess grassroots women's participation in development projects in the Kayamandi community - response to research question four (4)

The fourth objective of this investigation was to assess the level of women's participation in development initiatives in the Bwari community. The study findings displayed a high level of women's participation. This was ascribed to the fact that women occupied several positions in the community's cooperative and other developmental groups within the community. However, very few of the participants mentioned that they could not attend meetings due to wrong meeting times, and household activities. The data also revealed that sensitive positions like the position of Treasurer for any of the CSDP community must be a woman according to the project guidelines.

While further queries also showed that, their opinions and input were considered during the meetings. Moreover, apart from having more women in attendance during the focus group discussion, all the participants indicated that culture and tradition have almost no impact on women's participation.

As in the case of the Kayamandi community in South Africa, the data reveals a high level of women participation in the CSDP project in the Bwari community, they were also faced with hindrances to participation. Issues such as domestic work, culture, and tradition among others were mentioned by some of the study participants. Thus, their participation is still limited. This showed how cultural ideology might affect and control gender relations at the grassroots. This research reinforces Baum's (2000) recommendations that, in particular, community members be assisted by development planners in reviewing their cultures, identifying flaws, and accepting change.

According to Mark et al (1995), due to the significance that women play in economic development and their marginalized condition, the subject of women's participation in participatory projects has drawn more attention from researchers and donor organizations worldwide. The terms and conditions of women's participation in the economic arena, in other words, the new developments led to an increase in the number of women in the labor market, but the impact on their quality of life and decision-making process is still to be seen, according to Kabeer (2012). There is abundant evidence that in most African countries, development initiatives and strategies are developed without taking rural women's participation into account (Hunger Project, 2000). They have less time to participate, less access to decision-making, and less chance of having their perspectives heard (World Bank, 2011). In the literature on participation and gender, the issue of women's underrepresentation in the development process is well documented (Kongolo, 2002; Kabeer, 2011).

Cornwall (2003) contends that while it may be vital to provide women's opinions a platform by including them on existing committees, this may not be sufficient if female participants do not care about other women or if male members do not appreciate their perceptions and concerns.

6.3.5 Ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced - response to research question five (5)

The fifth objective of this research was to find out ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced. The data brought to the limelight four ways participatory

development targets can be achieved and enhanced especially in the Bwari community. The interviewees ranked “more participatory projects” as a key factor. The findings revealed that the more participatory projects they have in the community, the more people participate to make sure the targets are achieved and enhanced. Another factor that sprang up as a way to achieve and enhance participatory development targets was “consistent awareness with details”. They stressed the fact that the call for a meeting usually takes them unaware. In addition, most times, they get scanty details about the meeting, which was usually not enough for them to plan accordingly. Therefore, more awareness with full details about time and other relevant information seems to likely lead to achieving and enhancing the target of participatory development.

Another key finding that emerged from the data was that transparency and accountability. As seen in the data, the fear of being scammed or duped has been an obstacle to participating in developmental projects in the community. Therefore, the CSDP as a team has to build confidence in the people by being transparent and accountable in its dealings to earn trust from the people. This according to data will improve participation with multiplier effects on achieving and enhancing the targets of participatory development.

Finally, the findings showed that providing or giving incentives during or after meetings will lead to an increase in participation. The extended effect will be on achieving and enhancing the targets of participatory development. The incentives could be in monetary form or gift items. Meanwhile, the study data showed that there is a strong relationship between incentives and participation, especially for women in the Bwari community.

The major way participatory development targets can be enhanced and achieved as shown by the data is by having “more participatory projects” in the Bwari community. In other words, the more projects the community attracts, the more likely the members will be able to participate. Also, the more they will be exposed to learning the concept of participation while building their capacity. Hence, this main finding supports contemporary development scholars including Mubita et al (2017) who have been advocating for the inclusion of local people's participation in development practices. The guiding principle behind this is the conviction that grassroots communities should be given consideration for participation in projects that have an impact on their lives. Involving the community in some aspects of those projects and programmes would lead to better results

through the connection between development aid and its intended beneficiaries (Mansuri and Rao, 2012). Communities are recognized as the authors of their own history and change agents through the participatory development approach (Stein and Harper, 2000). In other words, participation can help the weak and disadvantaged become more powerful because it allows communities to direct participation, instills a sense of ownership in the development process, and firmly establishes them in positions to identify, decide, and manage their own action priorities (Chambers, 1994b).

Additionally, Edward (1993) asserts that the main objective of participation in development is to strengthen local communities. The World Bank (1996) acknowledges that social transformation cannot be achieved solely through the collection of data supplied by outside experts. In this view, participation is concerned with inspiring and enticing participants to do activities that are the result of their own consideration and thought because they have more influence over those than external initiatives (Kumar, 2002). Rahnema (1992) draws attention to the fact that participation has a variety of dimensions and that, in order to understand it fully, it is important to carefully consider all of its implications, which are intricately linked to the essence of interpersonal relationships and the sociocultural contexts that shape them.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter provides a detailed description of the findings from the Bwari community's experience in participating in the CSDP project. Unlike the IDP, the CSDP specified and engaged the participatory approach in the Bwari community. It shows how the community participated and it critically analyzed the outcome of their participatory experience vis-à-vis their capacity in terms of participatory development. Factors that influence community participation in the project were dealt with together with women's participation. Finally, this chapter highlights ways in which participatory development targets can be enhanced and achieved and demonstrate how development project implementers barely consider the unique life situation of grassroots communities. Instead, most development interventions were universal in design, mostly technical in nature, and planned by outside agencies whose agenda fitted poorly with the local context. Thus, this chapter contributes to the argument on participatory development presented in the preliminary chapters of this thesis that hammered on the issues that are sacrosanct when designing a participatory project.

Chapter Seven

Conclusion and recommendations

7.0 Introduction

This study's overarching goal is to examine the level of communities' participation in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level through the prism of IDP and CSDP using Kayamandi and Bwari communities in South Africa and Nigeria as case studies respectively. The research sheds light on how inclusive both projects have been, both in policy and practice and to what extent communities were involved in both projects, using the Kayamandi and Bwari communities as case studies, respectively. The specific goals are to investigate grassroots levels of participation and communities' willingness to participate, or how participation relates to their perceptions of agency, and explore the nature of participatory development approaches used by development implementers at the policy interface at the grassroots level (IDP and CSDP). Assess the engagement of grassroots women in development initiatives, identify elements that might affect community participation, and lastly, finds out ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced.

The study data was gathered, processed, and analyzed using a qualitative case-study research design and associated methodology. The thirty participants (15 from each case study location) who were interviewed for this research were chosen using the purposive sampling approach. The research employed semi-structured individual interviews, focus groups, observations, document reviews, field notes, and all the typical qualitative data-gathering methods. The major sources of primary data, however, were focus groups and semi-structured individual interviews. While secondary information is acquired by looking through books, journal articles, past research papers, project reports, and other documents and document sets. Other sources included official government papers, reports from the World Bank, the IDP, and the CSDP, as well as project websites like those for the Stellenbosch Municipality and the FCT-CSDP.

Summary of the study findings from both case studies at a glance

How can the impact of participatory development be enhanced using IDP and CSDP in South Africa and Nigeria as case studies?

Sub-question	IDP South Africa	CSDP Nigeria
RQ1 What is the nature ¹ of the participatory development approach and knowledge ² used by development implementers?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. No specific participatory development approach used 2. Knowledge from experience 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Participatory rural appraisal (PRA) approach used 2. Knowledge from experience
RQ2 What is the level ³ of grassroots participation and their willingness ⁴ to participate in development projects?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Low level of participation 4. Willing to participate (without project) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. High level of participation 4. Willing to participate (in a project)
RQ3 What are the factors that can influence communities' participation in development projects?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Broken promises ▪ Meetings are more political than developmental ▪ Poor communication and lack of awareness ▪ Lack of service delivery ▪ Lack of feedback and neglect of people's opinion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of awareness ▪ Wrong meeting time ▪ Lack of trust
RQ4 What is the level of grassroots women's participation in development projects?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ An elevated level of participation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ High level of participation
RQ5 What are the ways through which participatory development targets can be achieved and enhanced?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Improve service delivery and more staff presence ▪ Inclusiveness and transparency ▪ Increased awareness and group engagement ▪ Effective communication and timely feedback ▪ Honesty and trustworthiness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ More participatory projects ▪ Consistent awareness with details ▪ Transparency and accountability ▪ Incentives

Table 7.1: Study findings at a glance

7.1 Findings

According to the study's results, the Kayamandi community was not the focus of the IDP's participatory development strategy. This means they are completely cut off from the participatory procedures. Because of this, the majority of participants said they were unaware of the IDP before the one-on-one interview. It would be difficult for the community to get engaged if they were unaware of the IDP at the time. The research indicates that this has the impact of resulting in a low level of involvement. It is reasonable to argue that, when examining the nature of IDP participation methods, such techniques do not seem to have been adopted by the IDP when they interacted with the Kayamandi community. Also, it seems that the IDP's claim that it has adopted participatory development for the Fourth Generation 2017–2022 is mostly a lie.

Additionally, this has repercussions for participatory development practice, particularly in the context of case studies. According to Chambers (199b), involvement places local communities firmly in a position to define, choose, and manage their action goals. It also provides them with the authority to be in control of investigations and develops a feeling of ownership over the development process. The weak and the disadvantaged may be strengthened via participation. This is feasible if, as stated by Arnstein, the communities are given the chance to engage and bargain with local power brokers in order to allow them to make choices that have legal force. It is implied that the impoverished will have power and influence on initiatives (Arnstein, 1969) if they are able to participate in talks, negotiate terms, and make decisions that have consequences. This will promote a feeling of empowerment. Therefore, adequate community involvement in the development process is necessary in order to fulfill development goals. According to Schumacher (2000), there won't be any true progress, or what he termed "real fruit," if the supplier of development doesn't take into account the communities' ideas, attitudes, and their own expertise, including their current needs.

In the case of the Bwari community, the data shows that the CSDP employed the participatory rural appraisal (PRA), and this reflects in the high rate of participation as seen in the data. Oakley (1991) posits that participation may boost a project's efficacy and success through approaches like PRA by giving communities the chance to think critically and come up with their own answers.

This supports the finding that the study participants demanded more participatory projects as a way to enhance and achieve the targets of participatory development. In addition, participatory techniques, according to Chambers (1994b:1257), "allow communities to utilize their own measures to establish their own agenda, and to assess and express their own priorities,". Thus, participation makes it possible to include community expertise, resources, and information into project design, which increases project effectiveness since it is increasingly recognized as a requirement for successful project completion.

However, the divisions and strained relationships that already exist in communities as a consequence of power struggles among the community's powerful members have been shown to be ignored by participatory rural evaluation (Guijt and Shah, 1998). According to Cornwall and Pratt (2010), PRA practice does not seem to be empowering, particularly in a community sense, since it is just used to collect information, which is the incorrect application and is not what is intended. Participatory strategies that obscure deeply embedded local power structures, like PRA, may reinforce dominance (Mosse, 2001). Failing to address situations in which local culture excludes certain groups of people can limit participation (Cleaver, 2001). Participatory methods are vulnerable to domination since they are, by their very nature, public events claims Mosse (2001). As a consequence, disagreements and problems with leadership could arise and go unresolved, and people might forget their original objectives. As a result, promoting participation via the use of local power and organizational structures that already exist runs the risk of preserving current inequalities rather than bringing about the necessary social change (Mosse, 2001). Freire (1970) advises discourse, reflection, and contact to address the issues of exclusion, oppression, and emotional repression of the less powerful members of the community. They may grow as participants as a result.

To be fair on the question of what types of participatory development are appropriate, Cornwall (2008) makes the argument that given the complexity and variety of the ecosystems in which different development providers operate, a uniform participatory technique would not work well in places with diverse cultural, social, and political systems. "Understanding these dynamics asks for an approach that considers participation as a fundamentally political process rather than a method," is the argument that Cornwall (2008:281) makes. Because participation is influenced by

the political backgrounds of the participants and institutional systems (Cornwall and Pratt, 2010) that prevent communities from becoming more empowered, participation should be seen as political in order to achieve empowerment (Williams, 2004). In order to take into account disparities in power and interest, it is essential to look at how engagement affects power networks. It goes without saying that participatory techniques won't be able to help or serve the interests of already strong organizations or politically connected community representatives.

The data obtained during the fieldwork shows that the Kayamandi community participated in the IDP at a relatively low level. Nearly all the research participants repeatedly said that they had "no understanding of IDP." As the fieldwork interviews revealed, little is known about the IDPs in the Kayamandi village. Only if the community is aware of the IDP and what it does, will it be able to contribute? Could the study's results provide a hint of top-down development?

The importance of involvement in development is stressed by many development professionals. For instance, Kumar (1994:87) argues that the need for self-reliance, as well as ecological issues, gender equality, human rights, international peace, and democracy, were emphasised by the new movement. Schneider and Libercier (1995b:56) support the idea that participation should be the focus of development activities by modifying current ideas and methods, encouraging new connections among the parties involved, and seeing people as partners and masters of their own fates. According to research from the World Bank that was released in 1999 (World Bank, 1999a), involvement boosts ownership, draws long-term attention to human rights problems, makes development initiatives more sustainable, stimulates learning, and puts emphasis on outcomes.

The study also shows that the Bwari community participates actively in its developmental affairs. The high degree of engagement, on the other hand, is related to the problem of poverty and the lack of skills needed to interact with project implementers. As a result, the community is dependent on those who provide development. Due to their prior involvement in community initiatives and the need for quick results, the community tends to choose projects that are externally supported more than those that are not. Participation with underprivileged communities is also more difficult since development practitioners are eager to complete their tasks and deliver outcomes. Participation is thus solely intended to support the organization's objective (Mosse, 2001) and is often used by organizations as a form of manipulation. Furthermore, there is a chance that

individuals won't participate in a project unless they stand to earn something from it, such as cash, food, or other material advantages. Because they won't have the essential empowerment to become independent, individuals will continue to be reliant on the implementer/donor agency's activities, which has an effect on beneficiary graduation (Mosse, 2001). Additionally, if a community is offered aid by a donor that meets an urgent need, they become gullible and take it without understanding the terms. Their involvement is thus uninformed. It then turns into a passive activity (Pretty, 1995).

Therefore, participation, according to Cooke and Kothari (2001), only provides an alternative means to engage the poor in the initiatives of significant organizations that continue to be essentially unaccountable to the people they are meant to help. In other words, participation is a new way to push out-of-date, top-down ideas about development while giving the impression that a project is being done to help the poor and the excluded (Cooke and Kothari, 2001).

Therefore, this research suggests that development providers should support communities' capabilities and find ways to support individuals and groups who have no control over or access to factors of production in order to reverse the situation of passive participation. Identifying the possibilities and limitations of these changes in connection to representation, power, resources, and skills is also necessary to comprehend the communities' capacities for change and growth. In particular, it is necessary for development agencies to change their approach to policy. Building the capacity of the communities and developing responsible and transparent procedures that guarantee inclusion and fairness are essential steps in achieving this. Schumacher (2000) said that there won't be real progress, or what he called "real fruit," if the development provider doesn't take into account the communities' ideas, attitudes, and knowledge, as well as their current needs.

According to the study's results, "broken promises" and "lack of service delivery" (over time from politicians and the municipality/IDP) are the main things that might affect community engagement in development initiatives. Some of the research participants also complained of a "lack of feedback." The community began to question the purpose of attending an IDP meeting when services are not being provided as a result of these participatory processes. When could the IDP/municipality not abide by its commitments and when won't the IDP provide feedback? During the neighborhood focus group discussion, these topics came up more often. During the focus group

discussion, the people involved in the research had many chances to talk about the problems with "broken promises and lack of service delivery."

Involving communities and coming up with solutions to participation-related issues can be beneficial for both communities and development organizations in terms of empowerment, project efficiency, effectiveness, responsiveness, sustainability, enhancing community capabilities, and fostering self-reliance (Mubita et al., 2017). This instance demonstrated how unfulfilled promises, a dearth of services, and a dearth of feedback limited community involvement. The results of this case study raise questions concerning the efficacy of public discourse and service provision. As a result, people in the community no longer trust the IDP and the city government and have doubts about them.

The CSDP case emerged as the most significant conclusion from the CSDP case as a factor that might affect community involvement in development programs. For the study's female participants, this factor was most prevalent. They grumbled that meetings frequently took place while they were cooking or dropping off the kids at school. As a result, they cannot participate. This has the consequence that problems affecting women may be readily forgotten. It also means that the conventional family division of labor has not altered. This served as an illustration of how cultural ideology may influence and control gender relations at the local level. This thesis supports Baum's (2000) recommendation that development implementers should first and foremost assist community people in critically evaluating their cultures, identifying weaknesses, and accepting reforms. Second, they should be aware that their own values might be different from those of the community.

It's interesting to note that the research demonstrates higher female involvement in Kayamandi's example. This is related to the fact that all female councilors serve in the community of Kayamandi's four political wards. This conclusion has given rise to optimism for more female involvement in grassroots politics as well as development. However, the bulk of the residents do not see these councilors as their own, but rather as representatives of the municipality. The councilors, in their opinion, do not speak for or represent their interests. This is a result of the above-described problem of unfulfilled promises, which causes the community to lose faith in the municipality. The data from the Bwari community also shows a high degree of women's

engagement in the initiative, similar to what was seen with the Kayamandi. However, domestic duties once again limit their ability to participate. 2017 (Mubita et al.) This demonstrates the influence that cultural ideology may have in determining how individuals interact with one another on a basic level.

Therefore, Nawal (2007) highlights that women's engagement in development is still at an appallingly low level. Therefore, efforts to boost women's involvement in development should be strengthened. According to Mark et al. (1995), women are commonly excluded from participatory development initiatives, unless certain steps are made to ensure their complete involvement. So, programs don't meet the unique needs and interests of women and don't use their skills and interests to their full potential.

The conclusion in the Kayamandi example demonstrates that better service delivery is the primary means through which participatory development goals may be met and improved. All of the Kayamandi case study participants seem to see this as being very important. The Bwari story demonstrates that the key to enhancing and achieving the goals of participatory development is "more participatory initiatives." The community indicated that if people took part in these programs, they would gain more knowledge about the idea of participatory development. As a result, participation has benefits and drawbacks of its own, but it should be encouraged in order to give communities a voice in choices that affect their daily lives. In 1993, Edward makes the case that the major objective of involvement in development is to give local communities authority.

7.2 Recommendation for future research

The opinions and expertise of the community are crucial to the development process. The researcher advises that the views of the people must lead, and the people must be allowed to drive the entire process while project staff or development providers facilitate, if any development provider that adopts participation as a tool to achieve grassroots development is to achieve its aims and goals.

The findings of this in-depth research into participation of communities in development suggest that further qualitative case studies of this kind are necessary throughout Africa in order to fully

harness the perspectives and experiences of the local populace for an in-depth examination. This could provide a fresh insight into participatory development and help us understand how participatory methods are used on the African continent. Future case studies could also examine elements that may have an impact on the degree of community involvement as well as strategies for achieving and enhancing participatory development objectives that directly benefit the marginalized in ways that contribute to community-based development empowerment.



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PARTICIPATION INFORMATION SHEET FOR SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW WITH THE PEOPLE

RESEARCH TITLE: Investigating participatory development in South Africa and Nigeria, a case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari Municipalities.

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by **Alaji Friday (3878790)**. It is in partial completion of the researcher's thesis towards the Ph.D. Degree in Public Administration at the School of Government, at the University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

Before you decide to participate, it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what it would entail. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. If you are unclear about anything, I would be happy to answer any questions you may have.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research project is to collect data to assess the level of people's participation or inclusiveness in developmental initiatives at the grassroots level in both South Africa and Nigeria using the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) as case studies respectively. Therefore, it is for purely academic purposes.

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AND YOUR INVOLVEMENT

We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you meet the set criterion for the population of interest and your participation will help other people. You will also be asked of your participation, knowledge, experience, perception, and role if any in the operations of IDP/CSDP in your community. The study will be done in South Africa (Kayamandi) and Nigeria (Bwari). The interview will last approximately for an hour. And it can take place at kayamandi/Bwari or any other location you feel is convenient for you.

CONFIDENTIALITY & ANONYMITY

Please be advised that the results of the study will disclose neither the organization's particulars nor the individual particulars, as to maintain confidentiality at all times. Any

information that can connect the responses to an individual or organization will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. The researcher shall keep all records and tapes of your

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participation, including a signed consent form, which is required from you, should you agree to participate in this research study, locked away at all times.

(Example: All the data will be kept in password-protected computer files known only to the researcher. Data collection sheets and audiotapes will be kept safely in a lockable filing cabinet accessed only by the researcher. All raw data including written documents and tapes

will be destroyed after three months of the final dissertation being marked and graded. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.

RISKS OF THE RESEARCH?

There are no risks to participating in this research as all data and information will be kept confidential. Moreover, the individual or organization details will not be divulged for any reason.

Or

The risk/s of the study are outlined as follows:

- There are no risks to participating in this research.

BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH

The Benefits of this research are outlined as follows:

- It will spring out new perspective in understanding participatory development issues in South Africa, Nigeria, and sub-Saharan Africa at large
- It will pour more light on the nuances in participatory development and eventually shape legislation and give voice to the voiceless.
- It will also make it possible for the researcher to achieve his goal

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary, which means that you are free to decline from participation. It is your decision whether or not to take part. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind - and without giving a reason. You may also choose not to answer particular questions that are

asked in the study. If there is anything that you would prefer not to discuss, please feel free to say so.



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PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

There are no costs to the participant for partaking in this study.

INFORMED CONSENT

Your signed consent to participate in this research study is required before I proceed to interview you. I have included the consent form with this information sheet so that you will be able to review the consent form and then decide whether you would like to participate in this study or not.

QUESTIONS

Should you have further questions or wish to know more, I can be contacted as follows:

Student Name	: Alaji Friday
Student Number	: 3878790
Mobile Number	: 0655554257
Work Number	: 0655554257
Email	: 3878790@myuwc.ac.za
I am accountable to my supervisor	: Prof. Lisa Thompson
Department	: School of Government
Telephone	: +27846763261
Fax	: N/A
Email	: lthompson@uwc.ac.za

This research project has received ethical approval from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

Tel. 021 959 2988,

Email: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za



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CONSENT FORM FOR SEMI-STRUCTURE INTERVIEW

RESEARCH TITLE: Investigating participatory development in South Africa and Nigeria, a case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari Municipalities.

I have read the information presented in the information letter about a study being conducted by **Alaji Friday (3878790)** towards a Ph.D. Programme in Public Administration at the School of Government (SOG) at the University of the Western Cape. South Africa.

This study has been described to me in a language that I understand, and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered.

I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and was informed that I may withdraw my consent at any time by advising the student researcher.

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree to participate in this study.

Participant Name : _____

Participant Signature : _____

I give consent for audio recordings to be taken:

Agree	Disagree

Date : _____

Place : _____

Student Researcher : Alaji Friday

Student Researcher Signature : _____

Student Number : 3878790

Mobile Number : 0655554257

Email : 3878790@myuwc.ac.za

I am accountable to my supervisor : Prof. Lisa Thompson

Department : School of Government (SOG)

Telephone : +27 846763261

Email : lthompson@uwc.ac.za

This research project has received ethical approval from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

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PARTICIPATION INFORMATION SHEET FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

RESEARCH TITLE: Investigating participatory development in South Africa and Nigeria, a case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari Municipalities.

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by **Alaji Friday (3878790)**. It is in partial completion of the researcher's thesis towards the Ph.D. Degree in Public Administration at the School of Government, at the University of the Western Cape. South Africa.

Before you decide to participate, it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what it would entail. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. If you are unclear about anything, I would be happy to answer any questions you may have.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research project is to collect data to assess the level of participation or inclusiveness in developmental projects in rural communities in both South Africa and Nigeria using the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) as case studies respectively. Therefore, it is for purely academic purpose.

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AND YOUR INVOLVEMENT

We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you meet the set criterion for the population of interest and your participation will help other people. You will also be asked of your participation, knowledge, experience, perception, and role if any in the operations of IDP/CSDP in your community. The study will be done in South Africa and Nigeria. The interview will last approximately for an hour. And it can take place at kayamandi/Bwari or any other location you feel is convenient for you.

CONFIDENTIALITY & ANONYMITY

Please be advised that the results of the study will neither divulge the organization's particulars nor the individual particulars, as to maintain confidentiality at all times. Any information that can connect the responses to an individual or organization will remain

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confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. The researcher shall keep all records and tapes of your participation, including a signed consent form, which is required from you, should you agree to participate in this research study, locked away at all times.

(Example: All the data will be kept in password-protected computer files known only to the researcher. Data collection sheets and audiotapes will be kept safely in a lockable filing cabinet accessed only by the researcher. All raw data including written documents and tapes

will be destroyed after three months of the final dissertation being marked and graded. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.

RISKS OF THE RESEARCH?

There are no risks to participating in this research as all data and information will be kept confidential. Moreover, the individual or organization details will not be divulged for any reason.

Or

The risk/s of the study are outlined as follows:

- There are no risks to participating in this research.
-

BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH

The Benefits of this research are outlined as follows:

- It will spring out new perspective in understanding in participatory development issues in South Africa, Nigeria and sub-Sahara Africa at large
- It will pour more light on the nuances in participatory development and eventually shape legislation and give voice to the voiceless
- It will also make it possible for the researcher to achieve his goal

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary, which means that you are free to decline from participation. It is your decision whether or not to take part. If you volunteer to



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be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind - and without giving a reason. You may also choose not to answer particular questions that are asked in the study. If there is anything that you would prefer not to discuss, please feel free to say so.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

There are no costs to the participant for partaking in this study.

INFORMED CONSENT

Your signed consent to participate in this research study is required before I proceed to interview you. I have included the consent form with this information sheet so that you will be able to review the consent form and then decide whether you would like to participate in this study or not.

QUESTIONS

Should you have further questions or wish to know more, I can be contacted as follows:

Student Name	: Alaji Friday
Student Number	: 3878790
Mobile Number	: 0655554257
Work Number	: 0655554257
Email	: 3878790@myuwc.ac.za
I am accountable to my supervisor	: Prof. Lisa Thompson
Department	: School of Government
Telephone	: +27846763261
Fax	: N/A
Email	: lthompson@uwc.ac.za

This research project has received ethical approval from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

Tel. 021 959 2988,

Email: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za



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CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

RESEARCH TITLE: Investigating participatory development in South Africa and Nigeria, a case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari Municipalities.

I have read the information presented in the information letter about a study being conducted by **Alaji Friday (3878790)** towards a Ph.D. Programme in Public Administration at the School of Government (SOG) at the University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

This study has been described to me in a language that I understand, and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered.

I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and was informed that I may withdraw my consent at any time by advising the student researcher.

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree to participate in this study.

Participant Name : _____

Participant Signature : _____

I give consent for audio recordings to be taken:

Agree	Disagree

Date : _____

Place : _____

Student Researcher : Alaji Friday

Student Researcher Signature : _____

Student Number : 3878790

Mobile Number : 0655554257

Email : 3878790@myuwc.ac.za

I am accountable to my supervisor : Prof. Lisa Thompson

Department : School of Government (SOG)

Telephone : +27 846763261

Email : lthompson@uwc.ac.za

This research project has received ethical approval from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

Tel. 021 959 2988.

Email: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za

Titled: Investigating participatory development in South Africa and Nigeria: A case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari Municipalities.

1.0 Bio-data

Name and ID No: You must not fill (optional)

Surname:

Initials:

Tel. No:

Title:

1.1 Identity

1.2 Gender

1.3 Marital Status

1.4 Spoken language

1.5 Province Municipality Community

1.6 Age Group

1.7 Length of period living in this community

1.8 Occupation

1.9 Highest level of education (indicate only one please)

1.9.1 Basic Education

1.9.2 Higher Education (University/College)

1.9.3 Postgrad. Qualification

2.0. Assess the level of participation

3.1 Do you know what Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is? _____

3.2 Have you attended IDP meeting before? _____

3.3 Describe your experience in IDP/CSDP meeting you have attended? How the meeting take place? _____

3.4 Describe the nature of project meeting feedback you get from project staff. And how often _____

✓ At what level/stage was your community involved in the project? _____

✓ Has your community ever been given a chance to identify and prioritize potential projects to your community? If yes, give an example _____
If no, why? _____

✓ Do you feel your views are taken into consideration after meeting? _____

3.5 At what point are the opinions of community members sought and considered by project staff as part of the decision-making process? _____

Willingness to participate

3.6 Describe any development project initiated and implemented by the community, without the intervention or support from the IDP or CSDP _____

3.7 Were there a time when the community hold a developmental meeting on its own? _____

3.8 Do you think people are interested and willing to work with development providers? _____

3.9 Were you provided with the information and support you need to participate effectively? If not, what should be done next time to improve this? _____

4.0 Describe your willingness and that of your community members to participate in development projects? _____

Women's participation

- 4.1 Can you share your experience on women's participation in developmental initiatives in this community? _____
- 4.2 Are women allowed to attend a developmental meeting? _____
If not, why? _____
- 4.3 Are their views and opinion considered? _____
- 4.4 What are the factors or conditions affecting women's participation? And how can they be improved? _____

Factors affecting participation

- 4.5 What do you think are some of the factors that can affect people or discourage people from participation, especially in development/project meetings? _____
- 4.6 How can they be overcome? _____
- 4.7 Identify a time you didn't participate in a development project and meetings in your community and why you chose not to? _____

Improving participatory development

- 4.8 What motivates you to attend developmental/project meetings each time? _____
- 4.9 What are the factors that could promote or increase people's participation? _____
- 4.9 What should be done to improve participation in the community development process in your community? _____
- 5.0 What do you think of development projects or interventions in your community? _____
- 5.1 How far do you think the municipality has gone in relation to citizens' participation in development projects? _____
- 5.2 What is your overall experience on how the municipality engages everyone living in this community in effective participation in projects and programmes? _____

3.0 Project staff (IDP & CSDP) – Knowledge of and nature of PD approach use

Knowledge of participatory development

2.1. Introduction

- ✓ How long have you been working in your present job position? _____
- ✓ What does participation mean to you in relation to the project and how do the people participate in a project? _____
- ✓ What is your background in participatory development or people-centered development? _____

2.2 Have you an intensive knowledge of participatory development? _____

-
- ✓ Have you attended any training programmes on community development or people's participation? If yes, where? _____ how long was the training? _____
Explain how useful it was to your work _____

- ✓ What mechanisms does your municipality have in place for beneficiaries to be participative in the project? _____

- ✓ Describe how to get the people to participate _____

Nature of the participatory approach used

2.3. Describe how you usually involve or include the people in the process of their own development _____

- ✓ At what point do the opinions of community members are sought and considered by project staff in deciding on community projects? _____

2.4 At what level (e.g. Project processes) does your municipality involve citizens, community groups, and local associations in project identification, design, and implementation? Few examples, please

2.5 Identify an instance where the project staff interacts, share experiences, and learn from the local people? _____

2.6 Does project design allow for modifications from project participants? If yes, give an example (modifications) _____ If no, why? _____

2.7 Does your municipality have mechanisms or approaches that allow citizens within the community to participate in development projects? If yes, can I have an example?

- ✓ Were the people involved in the choosing/selection of priority projects in their communities? If yes, how were they involved? _____
If not, why? _____
Who decides which project and where project work should be done? _____
- ✓ At what point were the people involved in defining/outlining the activities that needed to be carried out in the project? _____

2.8 How often does the municipality interact with community members and local associations to discuss matters that affect their well-being? _____

Other questions

2.9 How far do you think your municipality has gone in relation to citizens' participation in development projects? _____

- ✓ What are the factors or main problems that constrain people's participation in development projects? How could they be overcome? _____
- ✓ Generally, what are the factors you think could promote or increase peoples' participation in development projects? _____
- ✓ Does your municipality have platforms to communicate (not just sending information, but interacting) with citizens and groups in the community? If yes, how? _____
- ✓ What are the measures put in place to make sure everyone who lives in this community has a say in decisions that shape their lives? Example, when deciding on constructing a new community center or housing, does the municipality dialogue with all stakeholders concerned on a practical level or through emails, social media, and other communication platforms? _____

Focus Group Discussion (FGDs) Guiding Questions

Project titled: Investigation Participatory Development in South Africa and Nigeria: A case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari Municipalities.

No personal data that identifies you will be published and the views you express will remain anonymous. Any data that does identify you will not be shared outside the project without your consent

(People)

1. What are your general views on the IDP/CSDP project/programme as a whole?
2. What kind of support and encouragement do you get from IDP/CSDP in terms of participation? Can anyone give an example?
3. How do IDP or CSDP project meetings take place?
4. How have you contributed and at what stage of the project? Any example?
5. What is it like for women to participate in project processes in this community? Any constraint?
6. What can be done to motivate or enhance people's participation?
7. Have you carried out any project on your own without the intervention of the IDP or CSDP?
8. What are your perceptions of IDP/CSDP about this community? Are its efforts (projects, initiatives, funds) targeted on the right priorities?
9. How do you participate in the needs assessment or problem identification that led to the IDP or CSDP project?
10. Do you have all the required information to attend a project meeting?
11. How do you think participation can be enhanced or improved in this community?
12. How are decisions taken with regard to the project after identification?
13. What recommendations do you have for IDP/CSDP for improving service delivery through citizens' participation in this community?



30 June 2020

Mr F Alaji
School of Government
Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

Ethics Reference Number: HS 20/4/43

Project Title: Investigating Participatory Development in South Africa and Nigeria, a case study of Stellenbosch and Bwari Municipalities

Approval Period: 26 June 2020 – 26 June 2023

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the above mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

Please remember to submit a progress report by 30 November each year for the duration of the project.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

Director: Research Development
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X 17
Bellville 7535
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27 21 959 4111
Email: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za

NHREC Registration Number: HSSREC-130416-049



STELLENBOSCH
STELLENBOSCH • 7MIEl • FRANSCHHOEK
MUNISIPALITEIT • UMASIPALA • MUNICIPALITY

Enquiries: Shireen De Visser

Tel: 021 808 8035

Email: Shireen.Devisser@stellenbosch.gov.za

Our Reference: 3/5/3/5

Date: 02 October 2019

Alaji Friday
University of the Western Cape
Robert Sobukwe Rd
Bellville
CAPE TOWN
7535

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

The purpose of this letter is to inform you that the Stellenbosch Municipality hereby gives you, Alaji Friday, a PhD Scholar at the University of the Western Cape (UWC), permission to conduct field investigations for your research titled "The Integrated Development Planning (IDP) South Africa and the Community and Social Development Project (CSDP) Nigeria: A Case Study-based Analysis".

Sincerely yours,


GERALDINE METTLER
MUNICIPAL MANAGER



UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

Tel: +27 21 808 8025 | Email: mm@stellenbosch.gov.za

Physical Address: 3rd Floor, Main Building, Main Street, Stellenbosch, 7600 | Postal Address: PO Box 17, Stellenbosch, 7599
Website: www.stellenbosch.gov.za



FCT COMMUNITY AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (C.S.D.P)

World Bank Assisted

No. 4 Ngozi Okenjo Iweala Way, Utako District, Abuja, F.C.T.

Tel: 08086168772, 08037043958, 08033149179, 08034942560

E-mail: fcscdp@gmail.com



Your Ref: _____

Our Ref: _____

RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	28 th November 2018
Validity of the Research Approval:	2019
Name of Researcher	Alaji Friday
Address of the Researcher:	School of Government, University of the Western Cape, Robert Sobukwe Road, Bellville, 7535 South Africa
Telephone Number:	+27655554257
Email Address:	alaji_friday@yahoo.com
Research Topic:	The Integrated Development Planning (IDP), South Africa and Community and Social Development Project (CSDP), Nigeria. A Case Study Base Analysis

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. This approval is granted for you to conduct research at the Federal Capital Territory - Community and Social Development Project (FCT-CSDP), Abuja, Nigeria. You are required to engage the office in advance before your arrival.

The manner in which you conduct your research must be guided by the standard of confidentiality in data collection and research. FCT-CSDP promotes the generation of new knowledge and supports new research. It also has a responsibility to be sensitive to the rights of the people in the community where the FCT-CSDP projects are being carried out. This office will require you to respect the rights of the people who wish to participate in interviews and/or surveys.

Please be at liberty to contact this office should you require any assistance to conduct your research or specifically require access to staff and some documents that might assist your research project.

Yours sincerely


Dr Shuaibu U. Adamu
General Manager FCT CSDA