CAPACITY BUILDING AND PROJECT SUSTAINABILITY IN NGOZI PROVINCE, BURUNDI: A CASE STUDY OF AGRI-BUSINESS PROJECT (PRODEFI)

BY

LOIC NDAYIZEYE

1161-06216-04021

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF KAMAPALA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY,

KAMPALA (UGANDA)

JUNE, 2018

DECLARATION

I do hereby declare that this research report is absolutely my original work and has never been submitted to any university or institution of higher learning for any award of a Diploma, Bachelors or Master's degree and that any ideas that are not mine but used in this research report has been duly acknowledged.

Name and Signature of Candidate

Name: 6606 | 2018

Date: 6606 | 2018

APPROVAL

This research has been conducted under my supervision and it is ready for submission to the examination committee.

Name Dr. Kiiza Charles

Signature:

Supervisor

Date: June 6, 2018

DEDICATION

I am dedicating this dissertation to four beloved people who mean so much to me.

First and foremost to my father Jean-Baptiste Ndayizeye who taught me the value of hard work and sacrificed a lot for my education.

Secondly to my mother, Jacqueline Musaninyambo, whose love for me knows no bounds, and who is always encouraging me even in times of failure.

Last but not least to my two sisters Karen Ndayizeye and Sabrina Ndayizeye whom I cherish so much and who always remind me that they have me in their prayers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to all of those whom I have had the pleasure to work with during this project. Each of the members of my Dissertation Committee has provided me with extensive professional guidance and taught me a great deal about scientific research. I would especially like to thank Dr. Kiiza Charles. As my supervisor for this research project, he has taught me more than I could ever give him credit for. He has shown me by his example what a good scientific researcher should be.

This work would not have been possible without the active support of the International Fund of Agricultural Development (IFAD) through agribusiness project PRODEFI. I am especially indebted to Mr. Olivier Simbananiye, head of the Monitoring & Evaluation Department at PRODEFI and to Mr. Egide Irambona, the chief officer of PRODEFI capacity building activities in Ngozi province who have been supportive of my research goals and who worked actively to provide me with their precious time to help me pursue those goals.

Nobody has been more important to me in the pursuit of this research project than the members of my family. I would like to thank my parents whose love and guidance are with me in whatever I pursue. They are my ultimate role models.

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the contribution of capacity building towards the sustainability of agribusiness projects in Ngozi province, Burundi. The study used crosssectional research design. It relied more on quantitative approach but was complemented by the qualitative approach in measuring the contribution of capacity building towards the sustainability of agribusiness projects. The data collection instruments used were questionnaires, interview guide and documentary review. The research was conducted in Ngozi province, Burundi. The findings showed that majority (70%) of the respondents acknowledge and commend the role of citizen participation on the sustainability of agribusiness through capacity building. Community involvement and local leaders' participation is acknowledged by the project beneficiaries at 69.2%. The findings further show that 58% of the beneficiaries of those who attended business planning and management trainings are able to manage the agribusiness project funds and, 54.3% of them acknowledged the promotion of early adoption of new farming technologies by PRODEFI. The study concluded that Capacity Needs Assessment, citizen participation, leadership base and individual skills are four essential elements required in the sustainability of agribusiness projects in Ngozi province. Skills were found to be the main determinant of success or failure followed by preliminary, structured and participatory Capacity Needs assessment activities, followed by the citizen participation in terms of decision making and the implication of local leaders in development initiatives. This study recommends the use of capacity needs assessment in all the capacity development activities as mandatory, preliminary and participatory stage. It also recommends improvement of farmer's access to planning & management trainings and exposure to new farming technologies to improve individual skills of farmers. The study further recommends involvement of influential local leaders in development initiatives to promote community sense of ownership of the project and encourages projects to promote beneficiaries participation in decision making process to achieve agribusiness project sustainability in Ngozi province, Burundi.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATIONii
APPROVAL iii
DEDICATIONiv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTSv
ABSTRACTvi
ACCRONYMSxi
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION
1.0 Introduction
1.1 Background of the Study1
1.1.1 Historical Perspective
1.1.2 Theoretical Perspectives
1.1.3 Conceptual Perspective4
1.1,4 Contextual Perspective5
1.2 Problem Statement6
1.3 Purpose of the Study7
1.4 Objectives of Study7
1.5 Research Questions
1.6 Scope of the Study7
1.6.1 Geographical Scope
1.7.3 Content Scope8
1.7.4 Time Scope
1.8 Significance of the Study8
1.9 Operational Definition of Terms9
CHAPTER TWO10
LITERATURE REVIEW10
2.0 Introduction10
2.1 Theoretical Review

2.3 Conceptual Framework	3
2.3 Related Literature Review	4
2.3.1 Capacity Building	4
2.3.2 Project Sustainability	5
2.3.2.1 Institutional Sustainability1	7
2.3.2.2 Household and Community Resilience	8
2.3.2.3 Structural Change	Э
2.2.4 Poverty Alleviation	1
2.3.3 The Role of Capacity needs Assessment in Project Sustainability22	2
2.3.4 The role of Citizen Participation in Project Sustainability2	3
2.3.5 The Effect of Leadership Base on Project Sustainability24	4
2.3.6 The Effect of Strengthening Individual Skills on Project Sustainability20	5
2.4 Empirical Studies2	7
2.5 Gap in Literature2	3
CHAPTER THREE29)
METHODOLOGY29)
3.0 Introduction	9
3.1 Research Design	9
3.2 Study Population29	9
3.3 Sample Size30	Э
3.4 Sampling Procedure30	Э
3.5 Data Sources30	Э
3.6 Data Collection Methods	1
3.7 Data Collection Tools/Instruments	1
3.7.1 Questionnaires	1
3.7.2 Interview Guide	2
3.8 Validity and Reliability33	2
3.8.1 Validity32	2
3.8.2 Reliability33	2
3.9 Data Gathering Procedure	3

3.10 Data Analysis	33
3.11 Ethical Considerations	34
3.12 Limitations of the Study	34
CHAPTER FOUR	36
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION	36
4.0 Introduction	36
4.1 Demographic Data of the Respondents	36
4.3 Field Findings	38
4.3.1 The Contribution of Capacity Needs Assessment to the Sustainability of Agribusines	ss38
3.3.3 The Contribution of Improving Individual Skills towards sustainability of	45
4.4 Relationship between Capacity Building and Project Sustainability	48
CHAPTER FIVE	50
DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	50
5.0 Introduction	50
5.1 Discussion of the findings	50
5.2 Conclusion	52
5.3 Recommendations	53
5.4 Suggestions for further Studies	54
APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE	64
APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW GUIDE	68

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.3.1: Target Population and Sample Size	30
Table 2: Gender of the Respondents	36
Table 3: Age Bracket of the Respondents	36
Table 4: Qualifications of the Respondents	37
Table 5: CNA is a preliminary stage of any capacity development process and forms the ba	sis of
planning.	38
Table 6: The CNA process is a structured and participatory approach through workshops ar	ıd
discussion with the beneficiaries.	39
Table 7: .As PRODEFI project facilitator, when CNA results do not align with the capacity	r
development response approach of PRODEFI already in place, does PRODEFI adjust the	
approach?	39
Table 8: Capacity Building in Agribusiness Projects in Ngozi Projects	40
Table 9: Contribution of Leadership base towards Sustainability of the Agribusiness Projec	ts43
Table 10: The Contribution of Improving Individual Skills towards Sustainability of	
Agribusiness Projects	46
Table 11: Pearson Correlation of Capacity Building and Project Sustainability	48

ACCRONYMS

ADB African Development Bank

CNA Capacity Needs Assessment

CCSC Community Cattle Solidarity Chain

CVI Content Validity Index

EIA Environmental Impact Assessment

ICRISAT International Crops Research Institute for Semi-Arid Tropics

IFAD International Fund for Agricultural Development

KAVES Kenya Agricultural Value Chain Enterprises

NAADS National Agricultural Advisory Services

NERCORMP North Eastern Region Community Resource Management Project

for Upland Areas

NGO Non-governmental Organization

PCGs Pre-cooperative Groups

PLCC Pearson Linear Correlation Coefficient

PRODEFI Value Chain Development Programme

UNDP United Nations Development Programmes

UNEP United Nations Environment Programme

USA United States of America

USAID United States Agency for Development

WHO World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, objectives, research questions, hypothesis, scope of the study, significance of the study and operational definitions of terms.

1.1 Background of the Study

This section includes the historical perspective, theoretical perspective, conceptual perspective, and contextual perspective.

1.1.1 Historical Perspective

Globally the concept of capacity building was first used in Alabama, United States of America (USA) in the 1950s and 1960s to make emphasis on enhancing the technological and self-help capacities of individual farmers in rural areas (Brough, 2013). In the 1970s, following a series of reports on international development, an emphasis was put on building capacity for technical skills of small holder farmers in rural areas of England and France (Smillie, 2014). In the 1980s the concept of capacity building expanded even more to Asian countries such Japan, India and Bangladesh to train and promote value addition among small sized farmers who were being exploited by meddle men and factory owners (Linell, 2013). The capacity building training emphasized collective formation of cooperatives by farmers such as savings and credit cooperatives so as to enhance their financial capability and improve their bargaining power in the market.

In sub-Sahara Africa, the concept of capacity building became common in 2008 when the United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) started using it in most of its agribusiness projects as a major tool to promote development in Africa (UNDP, 2009). UNDP promoted a capacity building approach to development in the 166 countries it is active in, among which included: Nigeria, South Africa, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda etc. UNDP in its many agribusiness projects such as crop farming, animal rearing and poultry focused on building capacity at an institutional level using a five–step process for systematic capacity building. The steps included: conducting training need assessment; engaging stakeholders on capacity

development; assessing capacity needs and assets; formulating a capacity development response; implementing a capacity development response, and evaluating capacity development (UNDP, 2009). In the same vein, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2009) launched several of its agricultural projects in Liberia, Senegal, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda etc. using capacity building approach. IFAD specifically emphasized the following in its agribusiness projects as strategies of capacity building: community ownership, building strength, strong leadership and voice, making decisions together, strong partnerships, and opportunities for learning and skill development (IFAD, 2009). Capacity building has been synonymously used across the globe to promote project sustainability.

In Africa, several agribusiness projects funded by the government, international non-governmental organizations and local non-governmental organizations have emphasized the principle of project sustainability by involving the participation of the beneficiaries and the local leaders. For instance in Uganda, agricultural projects such as National Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADs) have over the years focused on project sustainability through training the farmers in entrepreneurship farming and entrepreneurship agribusiness (Jorge, 2012). Furthermore, in Kenya, The Kenya Agricultural Value Chain Enterprises (KAVES) funded by United States Agency for Development (USAID) has worked with smallholder farmers to address constraints up and down the value chain such as agro-processors and input suppliers and develop fully-functioning, competitive value chains (USAID, 2013). The sustainability of the KAVES project has been achieved using community participation in and ownership of initiatives. By building on existing community assets and knowledge, USAID in partnership with Kenyan government through its various state agencies was able to promote positive community attitudes towards collaboration and collective decision-making(USAID, 2013).

In India, the North Eastern Region Community Resource Management Project for Upland Areas (NERCORMP) was initially designed to respond to a range of identified problems in remote areas of north-eastern India (IFAD, 2009). In accordance with NERCORMP principles, local groups were given great latitude in selecting the activities that make the most sense to them. Community projects were also implemented with significant contributions of local labor, materials and sometimes cash, each of which promoted a sense of ownership of the project and gave participants a genuine stake in ensuring sustainability. Project staff and their NGO partners

had the role of facilitators, but remained flexible in their approach, allowing design modifications and an extension period in an attempt to ensure sustainability. This approach made the community groups feel a strong sense of ownership of both the processes and the products (IFAD, 2009).

In Burundi, The Value Chain Development Programme (PRODEFI-in French) is promoting professionalization and organization among smallholder agricultural producers with viable agricultural value chains which is helping to reduce the country's grain and diary deficit (IFAD, 2016). The agribusiness project is targeted at assisting the public and private institutions, civil society, and organizations of rural poor people in forming quality partnerships to promote two main value chains such as rice and milk and six other secondary value chains. Furthermore, for the project to be sustainable, the funding organization (IFAD) is promoting building of human, physical and technical capacity building of poor smallholder farmers to enable them to protect their productive assets, increase their production of rice and milk and raise their incomes in a sustainable manner. The PRODEFI project has 387,000 beneficiaries across the eighteen provinces of Burundi. However, the study looked at Ngozi province to assess how PRODEFI project has been sustained due to capacity building initiatives promoted by IFAD since its establishment in 2014.

1.1.2 Theoretical Perspectives

This study was guided by the empowerment theory by Zimmerman and Perkins (1995). The theory assumes that for the individual (the micro level); the empowerment process is a process of increasing control and transition from a state of powerlessness to a state of empowerment. And for the community empowerment (the macro level) it is a collective social process of creating a resilient community, achieving better control over the environment, and decision making in which groups, organizations or communities participate. According to Perkins (1993), an empowerment theory requires a convincing integration of the micro and macro levels in order to make clear the interrelations among individual, community, and professional empowerment.

This theory is linked to sustainability concern since it suggests that empowerment-oriented interventions are effective only if they lead to enhancement of wellness while they also aim to ameliorate problems, provide opportunity for participants to develop knowledge and skills, and engage community members as collaborators instead of just assistance beneficiaries. In the

context of this study, capacity building through community empowerment involves intentional ongoing process centered on the local community involving different components such as mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain access to and control over those resources. Those resources include modern skill sets in improving production, trainings in strategic management of their agribusiness ventures and in leadership.

1.1.3 Conceptual Perspective

Capacity building is defined by Eade (2012) as the process by which individuals and organizations obtain, improve, and retain the skills and knowledge needed to do their jobs competently. On the other hand, capacity building is defined by Kate and Coutts (2011) as the process of optimizing the skills of individuals and institutional support of one or more organizations. Furthermore, capacity building is defined by The Cotonou Agreement (2004) as the process that aims to facilitate, in conjunction with the stakeholders, a consolidation of their capacities at an individual, organizational and sectoral level to allow them to evolve and adapt to the new contextual requirements and fulfill their role within a governance structure. Accordingly, capacity building is defined by United Nations Development Programme ((UNDP), 2012) as the process by which individuals, organizations, institutions and societies develop abilities (individually and collectively) to perform functions, solve problems and set and achieve objectives.

Additionally, capacity building is defined by Wagner (2013) as a coherent set of activities by donors (bilateral and multilateral) and partner countries designed to enhance the ability of policy-makers, enterprises and civil society actors in a country to improve financial performance through policy and institutional strengthening as part of a comprehensive approach to achieve a country's overall development goals and poverty reduction strategies. In this study, capacity building was operationalized using expanding citizen participation, expanding leadership base, and strengthening individual skills.

Project sustainability is defined by International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2009) as ensuring that the institutions supported through projects and the benefits realized are maintained and continue after the end of the project. According to Snodgrass (2012), project sustainability is defined as the flow of positive outcomes and impacts that continue beyond the

duration of the project. Project sustainability is defined by Goedknegt (2012) as the ability of a program or organization to continue engaging community stakeholders to meet the needs of the community efficiently and effectively after the last sponsor is gone. Additionally, project sustainability is defined by Hermarij (2010) as when the project continues to deliver benefits to the project beneficiaries and/or other constituencies for an extended period after the Commission's financial assistance has been terminated. In this study, project sustainability was operationalized using institutional sustainability, household and community resilience, and structural change in community participation.

The relationship between capacity building and project sustainability is that if existing capacities are identified and enhanced to an optimal level which can ensure the community participation in the development initiatives, this will lead to an increasing in number of participants in decision making, and it will impact structural change since communities will be able to participate and point out the major social and economic challenges in their community, hence, will be taken as a project priority. Similarly, expanding leadership base by raising more community leaders through training can help in enhancing institutional sustainability.

1.1.4 Contextual Perspective

PRODEFI is a Value Chain Development Programme being funded by International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) in Burundi (Gereffi & Bamber, 2014). The program was initiated in 2014 with a total funding cost of the programme over six years being US\$57.9 million (FBU 112.6 billion). The objective of PRODEFI is to strengthen actions in support of production and value addition, mainly for rice and dairy products, by integrating them within a complete value chain. According to IFAD (2014), the programme is facilitating the creation and organization of functional and sustainable value chains integrating the interests of all actors, in particular farmer-breeders. PRODEFI's interventions are structured in three subcomponents: (i) rice value chain development, supporting rice production, value addition and capacity-building for actors: creation of 300farmers field schools, 125 facilitators, capacity-building for 9,000 producers and support for 22 pre-cooperative groups (PCGs) in rice processing and marketing; (ii) dairy value chain development, supporting production by distributing 2,625 heifers through the community cattle solidarity chain (CCSC), value addition by equipping nine PCGs with newly built milk collection centers and sales outlet equipment, and management and technical capacity building for value chain actors and setup of consultative platforms; and (iii) support for

diversification to develop alternative income sources for the target group by targeting promising value chains (community swine solidarity chain) and contributing to the creation of 14 community-based apprenticeship and nutritional rehabilitation venues, as well as market gardens at schools to improve nutrition (IFAD, 2014).

PRODEFI's interventions are ensuring that activities are grounded in existing systems and that enabling conditions are created for the long-term sustainability of achievements, and guaranteeing sustainable management of investments. Accordingly, the programme is positioned as an instrument to facilitate the emergence and sustainable development of a value chain approach in the natural region of Ngozi province (IFAD, 2015).

1.2 Problem Statement

Project sustainability is important because it shows the extent of the project's success and how the beneficiaries are reaping from it. When a project is sustainable, it implies that the leaders and the beneficiaries are in direct control of it in terms of participation in decision making, governance, accountability and management (Snodgrass, 2012). In Ngozi province, the agribusiness projects such as poultry farming, animal farming, crop farming and bee keeping have been funded by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) since 2014 with the intention of alleviating poverty among the vulnerable, women, and youth. However, IFAD has not scored the desired results. For instance, a survey by IFAD (2016) revealed that out of the eight counties in Ngozi that benefited from the funding; only 3 counties had at least 54%, 47% and 43% of sustainable projects after IFAD's initial funding in 2014. In the remaining five initial counties, less than 20% of the projects were sustainable after IFAD's initial funding. Fifteen (15) projects from 2 counties had failed completely (IFAD, 2015). One of the major causes identified to this failure is to achieve sustainability of their deliverables due to poor capacity building of the beneficiaries to sustain those deliverables after the programs (projects) support ends.

Therefore, with such poor cases of project sustainability, it can only mean that the poverty level will keep escalating and the number of people living below poverty line will keep rising, hence making them vulnerable to poverty and susceptible to diseases due to poor housing and limited access to safe and clean drinking water (WHO, 2014). It is against this background that the study intends to close the gap that exists, by establishing the potential contribution of Ngozi province

community capacity building in achieving genuine project sustainability in agribusiness projects funded by PRODEFI.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the contribution of capacity building towards the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi.

1.4 Objectives of Study

- i. To establish the contribution of capacity needs assessment to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi.
- ii. To establish the contribution of increasing citizen participation to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi.
- iii. To determine the contribution of expanding leadership base to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi.
- iv. To determine the contribution of improving individual skills to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi.

1.5 Research Questions

- i. What is the contribution of capacity needs assessment to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi?
- ii. What is the contribution of increasing citizen participation to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi?
- iii. What is the contribution of expanding leadership base to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi?
- iv. What is the contribution of improving individual skills to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi?

1.6 Scope of the Study

1.6.1 Geographical Scope

This study was conducted in Ngozi province occupied by over 660,717 people and is administratively divided into 9 communes (counties) namely: Busiga, Gashikanwa, Kiremba, Marangara, Mwumba, Ngozi, Nyamurenza, Ruhororo, and Tangara. Ngozi is located on the latitude of 2.8595⁰ South, longitude of 29.9279⁰ East. The province was chosen because

International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) first initiated agribusiness project in Ngozi province in 2012 which aimed at capacity building and project sustainability in Ngozi through agricultural and other sectors development.

1.7.3 Content Scope

This study was confined to the contribution of capacity need assessment to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province; the increasing citizen participation to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province; the contribution of expanding leadership base to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province; and the contribution of improving individual skills to the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi. Although factors affecting the success or failure of achieving project sustainability through capacity building can be various, the researcher chose to focus on the above factors because he considered them to be particularly relevant for the study as far as the PRODEFI intervention approach in capacity building (bottom up approach) is concerned.

1.7.4 Time Scope

This study reviewed a period of 5 years, that is, from 2012 to 2017, which period covers the beginning and current time for PRODEFI involvement in agribusiness project in Ngozi province, Burundi. The field data collection was done in a period of six months.

1.8 Significance of the Study

Youth empowerment through agri-business as one of the pilot sector to the economic growth of Burundi, capacity building in such project initiatives of either governmental or NGOs need to be implemented efficiently and rigorously for projects sustainability. Therefore, as the study investigated the contribution of capacity building towards project sustainability, it will unveil to those project initiatives the importance of promoting capacity building activities from their planning phases to achieve sustainability.

Furthermore, this study will be helpful to various policy making institutions such as the Ministry of Agriculture and Development and the Ministry of youth and sports in Burundi as they may use its findings and recommendations to generate effective policies to mitigate the issues of project failure caused by a number of factors including poor project management skills, corruption, poor

stakeholders involvement in the project management process especially during decision making, and so many others.

In addition, it is hoped that the findings of this study will contribute to the knowledge in the literature of capacity building and project sustainability and act as a reference source for future researchers who might be interested in conducting research in related areas.

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

Capacity Building: refers to the creation of an enabling environment with appropriate policy and legal frameworks; institutional development, including community participation (of youth in particular); and human resources development and building of managerial systems.

Capacity Needs Assessment: refers to an analysis of desired capacities against existing capacities which generates an understanding of capacity assets and needs, and informs the formulation of a capacity development response.

Project Sustainability: refers to the ability to ensure that the institutions supported through projects and the benefits realized are maintained and continue after the end of the project initial funding or sponsorship.

Institutional sustainability: refers to the ability of functional institutions to be self-sustaining after the project external funding ends.

Household and community resilience: refers to when resilient households and communities take intentional action to enhance the personal and collective capacity of their members and institutions to respond to and influence the course of change.

Resiliency: refers to a person's or a community's ability to bounce back or recover after adversity or hard times, and to be capable of building positively on the lessons learned and experiences of these hardships.

Structural change: refers to the structural dimensions of poverty to be addressed through the empowerment of poor and marginalized rural households.

Poverty Alleviation: refers to a set of measures both economic and humanitarian that are intended to raise ways of enabling the poor to create wealth for themselves as a means of ending poverty.

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to document and discuss related literature. The chapter is divided into sub-sections that include; theoretical review, conceptual framework, and related studies.

2.1 Theoretical Review

This study was guided by empowerment theory by Zimmerman and Perkins (1995). The theory assumes that for the individual (the micro level); the empowerment process is a process of increasing control and transition from a state of powerlessness to a state of empowerment. And for the community empowerment (the macro level), it is a collective social process of creating a resilient community, achieving better control over the environment, and decision making in which groups, organizations or communities participate. According to Perkins (1993), an empowerment theory requires a convincing integration of the micro and macro levels in order to make clear the interrelations among individual, community, and professional empowerment.

The potential for empowerment, like one's very humanity, exists in everyone, and the ability to make a difference is a component of human existence. Systematic and permanent limitation of one's ability to exert power is a negation of one's very humanity. A human agency ceases to be such if it loses the ability to influence the world in some way (McCobin, 2015). To be a human being in the full sense of the word, then, means to carry out intentional acts in order to achieve defined goals, that is to say, to influence the environment, to be able to bring about change.

Circumstances exist in which people's humanity, in this sense, is not realized. At times so many limitations are placed upon a person's ability to exert power that he is unable to act at all. Nonetheless, there is a fundamental difference between inability to act because one has no choice, and lack of ability to act. Not every case of inactivity may be seen as lack of ability to act (Zimmerman, 2000).

The contextual theory of empowerment confirms the connection between the private and the political. It analyzes individual issues in social life politically. The individual interprets the politics of her life on the basis of the knowledge available to her about political achievements in the social domain. In the Western democracies, people are conscious of certain social values.

They know that there exists a fundamental demand for autonomy and free independent functioning; and also that freedom and responsibility co-exist socially in a certain balance. Although people are not free in any absolute sense of the word, they are supposed to be free from limitations and conditions of exploitation, inequality and oppression. On the individual level a *private* political response to these ideas develops; Ftterman et al. (1995) calls this life politics. On the collective level, life politics focuses on what happens to people who have achieved a degree of consciousness and initial ability to act, and are in need of community empowerment processes in order to realize their aspirations for personal autonomy.

The individual, then, in seeking his personal political interpretation – a quest which is a result of the individual empowerment process – creates expectations for change on the social structure level. According to Zimmerman (2000), community empowerment takes place when expectations for change which have accumulated in the social structure in the form of abstract structures begin to materialize. In other words, one could say that individual empowerment creates a reservoir of community potential. Beyond this potential; community empowerment requires resources of its own in order to be realized. It draws these resources from two sources which must be available with a certain coordination between them: i) individuals who have come to recognize that they are interested in acting not only to realize their own personal desires, although still in the framework of improving their quality of life; ii) external change agent – professionals and others who are involved in a planned change process and contribute rules and resources to it meaning, legitimation, and power which support the creation of a community and its growing ability to influence the environment.

The concept of *life politics* emphasizes the democratic context of the concept of empowerment. The empowerment process is conditioned by what already exists by the social structure that enables or limits it. Regimes that do not recognize the individual's right to act and to change, and emphasize the duty of obedience as the essence of man, shape social processes in a very different way than the democratic regime which, at least on the expectations level, permits and encourages the individual's participation in public decisions (Ftterman et al. 1995).

Empowering professional practice encourages and facilitates processes of increased control of individuals and collectives over their lives and environments. It develops intervention methods

through which people can effect changes in their lives. In the empowerment process people learn to take on socially valuable roles, to exercise social skills, to exert interpersonal influence, to develop commitment, to take responsibility and to acquire political efficacy. The acquired abilities contribute to the joint goals of empowering themselves as individuals and as a community.

Wallerstein and Bernstein (1994) assert that resources of the individual kind exist in every environment and may also be discovered there spontaneously. Few communities have developed from situations of powerlessness to believe in themselves and ability to make independent decisions through their own inner resources alone (by *bootstraps* processes). The encounter between the community and practitioners who use empowering professional methods is not spontaneous; it is generally a synthetic occurrence embedded in a social system. It can stem from planned policy or from the professional's individual moral decision.

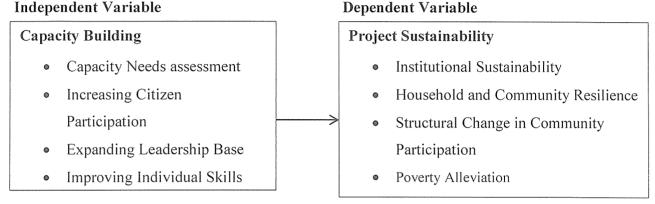
According to Zimmerman et al, (1992), the empowerment process produces a synergy that encourages the preservation and reproduction of the process. As the empowerment process progresses the empowering professional practice is reinforced and from the outcomes of the process and from the process itself it receives proofs of its effectiveness and in certain cases also legitimation from the system. On the action level, the practitioner accumulates experience and professional confidence, as well as new knowledge. On the structure level a potential for creating new social systems based on empowerment-enhancing communications, norms, and forms of authority is created. The empowerment process also limits the professional practice, because at its peak it eliminates the need for its services. The more the empowerment process progresses, the weaker becomes the dependence on professionals (principally on the empowering professionals, who deliberately avoid developing dependence), and they become less essential for the continuation of the process. When a community achieves empowerment it no longer needs the professional services that were essential in the stages of transition from powerlessness (McCobin, 2015).

This theory is linked to the issue of sustainability as it suggests that empowerment-oriented interventions are effective only if they lead to enhancement of wellness while they also aim to ameliorate problems, provide opportunity for participants to develop knowledge and skills, and engage community members as collaborators instead of just beneficiaries. In the context of this

study, capacity building through community empowerment involves intentional ongoing process centered in the local community, involving different component such as mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain access to and control over those resources.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework Showing the Relationship between Capacity Building and Project Sustainability



Source: adapted from Gouais (2013); Goedknegt (2012), modified by the researcher

The independent variable for this study is capacity building measured using Capacity Needs Assessment, Increasing Citizen Participation, Expanding Leadership Base, and Improving Individual Skills, while the dependent variable for this study is project sustainability measured using Institutional Sustainability, Household and Community Resilience, Structural Change in Community Participation, and Poverty Alleviation. The relationship between capacity building and project sustainability is that if existing capacities are identified and enhanced to an optimal level which can ensure the community participation in the development initiatives, this will lead to an increasing in number of participants in decision making, and it will impact structural change since communities will be able to participate and point out the major social and economic challenges in their community, hence, will be taken as a project priority. Similarly, expanding leadership base by raising more community leaders through training can help in enhancing institutional sustainability. This is because, with well trained, capable and equipped community members in leadership roles, the project will be sustainable. Furthermore, when individual skills are strengthened through various skills development platforms such as vocational training, workshops, seminars, symposiums etc., the community members will have various skills such as

technical skills, business management skills, agricultural practice skills, communications skills, interpersonal relationship skills etc., and such skills will help to promote household and community resilience, hence enhance project sustainability and achieve poverty alleviation.

2.3 Related Literature Review

2.3.1 Capacity Building

Capacity building has been defined by (Alaerts et al, 2011) as the creation of an enabling environment with appropriate policy and legal frameworks, institutional development, including community participation, human resources development, and strengthening of managerial systems. Capacity building refers to the approaches, strategies and methodologies used by developing countries, and/or external stakeholders to improve performance at the individual, organizational, network/sector or broader system level (Bolger, 2012).

Specifically, (Cayley, 2016) argues that capacity building is an empowering activity that strengthens the ability of voluntary and community organizations to build their structures, systems, people and skills so that they are better able to define and achieve their objectives, engage in consultation and planning, manage projects and take part in partnerships and service delivery. In other words, it is a dynamic and continuous process that achieves increasing self-awareness, internal evaluation and development and continuous forward momentum towards a goal or vision (Mcphee& Bare, 2015).

However, capacity building is a process unique to each organization because it must address the needs of the organization at a particular stage of development, taking into account the context within which that organization operates and the aims it is trying to achieve. Moreover, capacity building cannot be imposed on organizations, rather, voluntary and community organizations must embrace the capacity building journey and this requires an open and learning focused attitude. Above all else, it requires energy and commitment, not just to delivering a service, but to reviewing, evaluating and developing that service provision.

Certainly, capacity building has received growing attention over the past 20 years (Ontario Trillium Foundation, 2005). This enhanced interest in capacity building has occurred simultaneously with the shift in the voluntary and community sectors' pool of available funding, increased expectation to do more with less, and overall public expectations of accountability.

These changes within the sector have served to create challenges to organizational sustainability, which overall hinders the ability of nonprofits to do work that has impact.

Paradoxically, funders have often failed to recognize and support the strong two-way relationship between program success and organizational strength and sustainability (The California Wellness Foundation, 2001). Often, non-profits have found it easier to secure funds for a specific project with tangible outcomes rather than find resources to develop themselves internally. However, if organizational capacity is weak, then programs and services are bound to suffer (TCC Group, 2010). In fact, there is good evidence to suggest that organizational capacity matters to achieving programmatic outcomes (Light & Hubbard, 2002). Fortunately, more and more funders are recognizing this critical link by developing capacity building grants to support their grantees.

Burundi's extreme poverty is largely due to the fact that more than 90 percent of the population lives on subsistence agriculture and its agriculture sector has one of the lowest productivity rates in the world (DAI, 2013). Agricultural education and competency-based training are essential for building the human resource capacity required to improve agricultural productivity and to manage natural resources for sustainable development.

Development Associates International (DAI) supported Burundi's efforts to respond to changes in the world agricultural market that occurred in the 1990s, when Burundi was mired in crisis, and to revitalize the country's agricultural sector. Some of its projects are being implemented in Ngozi province especially in Ruhororo, Gashikanwa, and Busiga counties. In partnership with DAI, Burundi Agribusiness program (BAP) developed agro-enterprises based training system that raise awareness and literacy on diversifying economic opportunity; strengthening competitive, commodity-based value chains that link producers to domestic, regional, and international markets. IFAD (2009)

2.3.2 Project Sustainability

Project sustainability is the development, delivery and management of project-organized change in policies, processes, resources, assets or organizations, with consideration of the six principles of sustainability, in the project, its result and its effect (Silvius & Schipper, 2012). These six principles are: (1) balancing or harmonizing social, environmental and economic interests; (2) both short-term and long-term orientation; (3) both local and global orientation; (4) values and ethics; (5) transparency and accountability; and (6) consuming income, not capital.

Silvius et al (2010) said that the general insight is that sustainability in projects was about integrating economic, environmental and social aspects in the management of projects, and that that sustainability in projects should be regarded on the level of the project, its results and its effect. Silvius et al. (2009) derived the following definition of sustainable project by combining the triple-P (i.e. people management, process management, and performance management) element of sustainability and the life cycle perspectives: sustainable project management is the management of project-orientated change in policies, assets or organizations, with consideration of the economic, social, and environmental impact of the project, its result, and its effect, for now and for future generations.

Taylor (2008) argues that project sustainability needs to be incorporated into every stage throughout the project life cycle. Grevelman and Kluiwstra (2009) state, in line with Gareis et al (2009) that the alignment between sustainability and project management is still very rare. Their case study revealed no attention to sustainability within the project management process. It did however reveal that attention to sustainability was given to the project's deliverables; however attention to sustainability within the project process was absent. They claim that the reason for this is the lack of attention to sustainability in project management deliverables. Although that particular finding is not of great interest to this case study, it is an interesting finding.

Grevelman and Kluiwstra (2009) also found that although there is a lot of awareness regarding sustainability, the link to defining a sustainable process and methodology for project management is still absent. Labuschagne and Brent (2014) state that projects are the means by which sustainability on all three corporate levels (strategic, methodological, and operational) can be made, and that business has the responsibility towards society to actively engage in the sustainable arena.

This is underpinned by Silvius et al. (2010) who found that sustainability is the big mission factor in major project management guidelines of Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBoK). They give three reasons why they believe that sustainability should be on the agenda of project managers: investments in projects that are considered sustainable are less prone to the financial crises as non-sustainable projects; companies that have a strong sustainability image, like certain banks, show less loss of value than other banks; and public organizations are integrating criteria on sustainability in their procurement policies, thereby stimulating companies to be more active in this area.

IFAD (2010) in its annual report made an important observation regarding the scale at which project sustainability is evaluated by noting that, at the field level, the sustainability of agricultural projects is likely to be assessed in terms of viable production systems and the satisfaction of basic social and economic needs. On the other hand, sustainability at the regional or national level often places greater emphasis on a population's adaptability to a changing natural environment, factors contributing to (or constraining) social equity, and the coherence of national policy frameworks.

For the study, project sustainability was premised on institutional sustainability, household and community resilience, and structural change in community participation. These concepts have been discussed in details in the next section.

In addition to that, FAO Burundi(2009) suggested that Sustainable development is a systematic concept relating to the continuity of economic, social, institutional, and environmental aspects of human society as well as the non-human environment.

2.3.2.1 Institutional Sustainability

According to (TANGO International, 2014), institutional sustainability contains the following indicators: project designs incorporating institutional analysis and risk analysis; collaboration with existing national and sub-national institutions; creation of linkages between 'micro community' activities and 'meso/market sector facilities and services; phased project design that allows flexibility and internalizes performance incentives; investment in institutional capacity development; improved access to inputs and markets in support of technical and economic/financial sustainability; access to recurrent funding; exit strategies developed during

project design phase and refined throughout implementation; appropriate/feasible technical specifications for project activities (infrastructure, finance, etc.) that promote post-project beneficiary ownership; follow-up, continued support and supervision of newly established organizations; effective project management based on risk assessment, transparent budgeting and sufficient institutional viability; a clear vision of the group – known and shared among all members; rules and norms of the group known by members; sanctions known and enforced when needed; regular group meetings held; demonstrated skills of members in conducting group meetings and solving problems such as conflict resolution; greater confidence among members, especially women, with regard to joining public activities; regular attendance at group meetings; member participation in decision-making; growth of the common fund through member participation in savings and credit activities; and capacity to manage savings, credit disbursement and credit repayment programmes.

2.3.2.2 Household and Community Resilience

Malhotra (2013) argues that attainment of household and community resilience can be viewed as the ultimate measure of the sustainability of programme impacts. However, livelihood resilience is not captured by project M&E systems or review missions. Evidence from Ethiopia suggests that resilient households and communities share common characteristics across a variety of livelihood systems, socioeconomic contexts and climates. These indicators can be adapted to the context of IFAD-supported projects to develop indicators and indices to measure changes in resilience (Binswanger, 2014).

Binswanger (2014) argues that the common characteristics (indicators) of resilient households include: i) Income diversification: households across various livelihood contexts benefit from diversifying sources of income to manage climatic shocks more effectively. Limited available resources are used strategically to make investments that improve long-term livelihood security; ii) investing in quality improvements in their natural resource base to raise production: Resilient households often invest in soil conservation, water management, and reforestation to improve their yields; iii) openness to change and early adoption of extension packages: Resilient households are often the first adopters of new extension technologies and use credit effectively in investments; iv) propensity to save: Resilient households understand the value of saving income earned for future investments, rather than spending limited financial resources on nonproductive

items; v) strong work ethic: Resilient households are capable of committing considerable effort over a period of years in order to achieve their objectives, often despite community pressure not to work so hard; vi) joint decision-making with spouse: The majority of household heads in resilient households have positive relationships with their spouses and regularly consult them on all investment decisions. This common household vision seems to be very important to successful income diversification strategies; vii) high value placed on education: although many heads of resilient households may not have considerable education, they recognize the value of education for income diversification and try to ensure education for all their children, regardless of gender; viii) contingency funds: Resilient households living in areas prone to erratic climate fluctuations demonstrate the value of investing in contingency funds to manage risk; ix) family planning: Households with a large number of dependents often find it difficult to manage risk through savings or other mechanisms. Women with a greater number of children to provide for also find it more difficult to engage in income-generating activities. Resilient households understand the value of having spaced child births.

According to Cascio (2012), a number of enablers and inhibitors affect opportunities for communities to become resilient across a range of rural livelihood systems. Programmes are more likely to support community resilience if they adopt approaches allowing them to build on the enablers and reduce the effect of the inhibitors. Cascio (2012) discusses the following views as enablers') urban-rural linkages: as communication and transportation links to urban centers become stronger, opportunities for diversifying income sources become more feasible; ii) strong community social assets: collaboration and cooperation among community-level institutions (women's groups, savings groups, traditional leaders, faith-based organizations) provides an effective means of managing risk; iii) Support for human capital development: Resilient communities see the value of and actively support education as a means of improving livelihood security. They also have a commitment to supporting access to adequate health facilities and services for all community members; v) Resilient households as models in communities: Resilient communities often have examples of households that can serve as positive role models in achieving resilience.

Haziri and Heather(2013) points out the following as inhibitors: i) weak access to markets: communities that are isolated and have poor access to markets provide few opportunities for

diversifying livelihood strategies to manage risk more effectively; ii) poor communal management of natural resources: communities that are unable to formulate and sustain collective responses to factors such as soil erosion, deforestation, overgrazing and limited water resources are often not resilient in the event of a shock; iii) limited community involvement in the selection and implementation of interventions: communities that are not actively involved in the design and implementation of interventions are less likely to achieve resilience over the long term; iv) lack of educational and health facilities: communities lacking adequate access to education and health care are less able to rely on human capital as a means of building assets and managing risk; iv) limited and/or inflexible credit packages: limited access to financial services and/or limited ability to negotiate terms(interest, repayment schedules) present serious constraints on the resilience of communities in increasing cash-based economies.

2.3.2.3 Structural Change

Changes in underlying societal power structures and empowerment of the community are important indicators of sustainability. However, structural changes are typically the most difficult to achieve as well as the most difficult to measure. These aspects of sustainability could take decades, but indicators to measure these changes need to be included in country programme strategies. Several indicators to measure empowerment are in use by various organizations such as IFAD, world Bank etc. They include measures such as community control and management of resources, as well as increased participation by poor people in the institutions that make decisions and administer the resources that affect their lives (Binswanger, 2013).

The Community Capabilities Index is another measure of empowerment that may be well suited to the prevailing context of IFAD's development projects. The index uses the following indicators: ability to take initiative; ability to manage village funds; ability to organize; ability to manage communal lands; and level of achievements (Haziri& Heather, 2013).

CARE Nepal developed an index to measure women's empowerment that uses indicators related to assets and opportunity primarily with respect to literacy levels, levels of self-confidence, membership in external organizations such as credit/savings and user groups, and degree of involvement in reproductive decision-making (TANGO International 2014). Drawing on the frameworks developed by diverse organizations, previous studies have developed potential indicators of women's empowerment at different levels of aggregation (Malhotra 2013).

However, it is critical to note that changes in one or two indicators will not capture the state of women's empowerment. An index needs to be developed that captures a number of different aspects of empowerment. Malhotra (2013) lists the following as potential household- and community-level indicators of women's empowerment: i) house level:- women's control over income; relative contribution to family support; access to and control of family resources; freedom of movement; participation in domestic decision-making; ability to make childbearing decisions; use of contraception, control over spouse selection and marriage timing; freedom from violence; knowledge of legal rights; and domestic support for exercising rights; and ii) community level:-women's access to employment; ownership of assets and land; access to credit; involvement or representation in local trade associations; access to markets; visibility in and access to social spaces; access to modern transportation; participation in extra-familial groups and social networks; shift in patriarchal norms (such as son preference); representation of the female in myth and ritual; shifts in marriage and kinship systems, indicating greater value and autonomy for women (e.g. later marriages, self-selection of spouses, reduction in the practice of dowry; acceptability of divorce); and local campaigns against domestic violence.

2.2.4 Poverty Alleviation

The extent and depth of poverty in the developing world is a disgrace. Over 1.1 billion people (30 percent of the population) live in absolute poverty, with only a dollar a day or less per person to meet food, shelter, and other needs. Not surprisingly, hunger, malnutrition, and associated diseases are widespread: more than 700 million people do not have access to sufficient food to lead healthy, productive lives; millions more live on the edge of hunger; and more than 180 million preschool children are significantly underweight. The majority of these people live in rural areas and agriculture is their main occupation. Most of the rural poor are small and marginal farmers, landless agricultural workers, fisher folk, artisans, female headed households, the aged and infirm, and children. World Bank Group (2008) .The incidence of poverty is highest among female heads of households and children.

Poverty cannot be completely eradicated, as it largely caused by human factors. Over the past years there has been a lot of Poverty Alleviation Programs designed to break the cycle of poverty in many households and communities in the world. Poverty alleviation involves the strategic use of tools such as education, economic development, health and income redistribution to improve

the livelihoods of the world's poorest by governments and internationally approved organizations. They also aim at removing social and legal barriers to income growth among the poor. 2007 Human Development Report (HDR), UNDP

Accelerated agricultural growth, based on increasing land and labor productivity, has been a cornerstone of successful poverty reduction. With increasing productivity, millions of poor people in Africa benefit through cheaper food and higher rural incomes, but also linkages mean that rapid agricultural growth stimulates economic diversification to other activities where growth is generally faster and labor productivity and wages are higher. (John B. 2005)

2.3.3 The Role of Capacity needs Assessment in Project Sustainability

Capacity Needs Assessment is a process of evaluating actual existing gaps within farmer groups in terms of knowledge, skills, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats, assets and other elements required for them to achieve the pre-specified objectives.

Despite the existence of capacity development process over the years, it has been mostly considered in the form of supportive training programs to strengthen skills, processes and systems as a need to achieve goals and meet objectives.

As it is suggested that capacity building has a direct impact on project sustainability, most projects fail to achieve sustainability because the capacity building process did not incorporate proper capacity needs assessment in their agenda.

To support the capacity development process effectively, it requires identifying what key capacities already exist and what additional capacities may be needed to reach objectives. This is the purpose of a capacity needs assessment. A capacity needs assessment is an analysis of desired capacities against existing capacities which generates an understanding of capacity assets and needs that can serve as input for formulating a capacity development response that addresses those capacities that could be strengthened and optimizes existing capacities that are already strong and well founded. It can also set the baseline for continuous monitoring and evaluation of progress against relevant indicators and help create a solid foundation for long-term planning, implementation and sustainable results.

As described in the UNDP Report of 2007 on Capacity Development, Capacity Needs Assessment stands out as an important part of the capacity development process. Capacity Needs Assessment should be conducted before any interventions are done with the community as it will act as a guide on the activities to be carried out and how to incorporate them in the development process. The responsibility of Capacity Needs Assessment lies with the Project teams of institutions implementing a program with community groups.

Capacity Needs Assessment acts as the entry point to the components of the Strengthening Rural Institution model including capacity development, enterprise development e.g. linkages to markets and finance; and platform development. Therefore Capacity Needs Assessment provides a structured and participatory approach to assessing capacity needs and filling gaps by uniting several minds towards a common vision. When proper capacity assessment is done prior the capacity development process, the community gets his capacity enhanced where it needs to be done and ensure a good control over their resources hence leads to project sustainability.

2.3.4 The role of Citizen Participation in Project Sustainability

Citizen participation is a community based process, where citizens organize themselves and their goals at the grassroots level and work together through nongovernmental community organizations to influence the decision-making process (Kamarah, 2015). Citizens get most involved in this process when the issue at stake relates directly to them. Furthermore, citizen participation occurs when all the stakeholders cooperate to implement changes.

The new aid paradigm has seen participation as useful not only in enhancing the effectiveness, efficiency, and coverage of the project benefits, but also in encouraging self-reliance of the project participants (Kleemeier, 2010). Participation is useful for the achievement of sustainability because sustainability depends on the role played by stakeholders, particularly those directly concerned with projects or programmes, such as Government and the implementing agency, and those who will gain the benefits, the intended participants (Australian Agency for International Development, 2010; Brinkerhoff & Goldsmith, 2012). The intended participants are important because these people are the ones who can decide to continue or to stop the use of services created by development projects. Thus, genuine stakeholders' participation has become a critical factor in promoting project sustainability (Bigdon & Korf, 2012; Lyons et al, 2011).

Some research has found a positive relationship between participation and project sustainability. For example, a study of small farmer projects in ten African and Latin American countries found a link between the involvement of small farmers in project decision-making and the willingness of farmers to make a resource commitment to the project (Bhatnagar & Williams, 2012). Two World Bank studies on participatory projects (Narayan, 1995; Sara & Katz, 1997) and a study on 17 water supply schemes in the Malawi Rural Piped Scheme Program (Kleemeier, 2010) have shown that projects with participatory approaches are more sustainable than projects with little or no participation.

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in their study of 52 project evaluations found a positive relationship between participation and the success of projects (Vos, 2015). Post-evaluation reports from African Development Bank (ADB) and the International Crops Research Institute for Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) on irrigated and rainfed agriculture in Asia presents evidence that stakeholders' active participation has been critical to the success of the project and its sustainability.

Research on sustainability of the integrated coastal management projects in Indonesia and the Philippines presents evidence that a participation indicator is most strongly correlated to project sustainability (Pollnac& Pomeroy, 2015). This indicator includes the type of participation involved, which includes the contribution of money or time, and having influence on both project planning and changes after project implementation. The authors suggest that project sustainability requires a combination of both community involvement and locally appropriate benefits (Pollnac& Pomeroy, 2015).

2.3.5 The Effect of Leadership Base on Project Sustainability

Leadership is a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organization goals (Omolayo, 2016). A leader can be defined as a person who delegates or influences others to act so as to carry out specified objectives. Today's organizations need effective leaders who understand the complexities of the rapidly changing global environment. If the task is highly structured and the leader has good relationship with the employees, effectiveness will be high on the part of the employees. A study by Swamy,

(2014) revealed that democratic leaders take great care to involve all members of the team in discussion and can work with a small but highly motivated team.

The broad concept of leadership can be summarized in three interrelated domains: personal characteristics of the leader, leadership style and situational theories (Fryer, et al. 2014). In other words, leadership is a dynamic behavior and a leader's role with regard to an ideal style varies with different circumstances and traits. Consequently, no ultimate leadership behavior exists and the many ways that leadership has been conceptualized will influence "the relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes" (Daft &Pirola-Merlo, 2015).

Therefore, dealing with rapid, complex, and often discontinuous change requires effective leadership. Although the importance of leadership has been regarded as a success factor for organizations, in regard to project context there have still not been enough empirical studies on the association between leadership style and project success (Yang et al. 2014). However, overall project success consists of several dimensions that depend on the manager's leadership style and competences. Corresponding to the competence school of leadership, Dulewicz and Higgs (2015) performed a comprehensive review of current theories and determined fifteen leadership dimensions that can be grouped under two competences; intellectual (IQ) and managerial (MQ), and a personal characteristic measurement named emotional and social dimensions (EQ).

Schell et al, 2013 argues that projects are more likely to achieve their goals with a broad base of leadership support from community stakeholders and partners, including local businesses, media representatives, community and tribal leaders, youth and their families, and others with a vested interest in the project. Key champions are the leaders from the different partner organizations, businesses, faith-based institutions, government, and other stakeholders who are committed to the project's vision (Savaya& Spiro, 2011). Key champions use their influence to broker connections, channel resources, build networks, and generate support for the project. Community leaders that bring new people into decision-making are building community capacity. Schell et al, 2013 posits that the chance to get skills and to practice and learn leaderships also important part of the leadership base.

2.3.6 The Effect of Strengthening Individual Skills on Project Sustainability

Strengthening individual skill emphasizes enhancing an individual's capacity to promote change within themselves (Mcphee & Bare, 2015). A community that uses all kinds of resources to create opportunities for individual skill development is building community capacity in an important way. As individuals develop new skills and expertise, the level of volunteer service is raised.

Jugnarain (2016) argues that a successful project requires having people with the right skills, knowledge and availability to deliver the project and ensure its longer term sustainability. Jugnarain (2016) adds that one also needs to make sure that the support functions of his/her office will be able to take on the additional workload generated by the project. Most projects, however, are not handed a group of people with all the necessary skills and knowledge. It is therefore necessary to build capacity by increasing the knowledge and skills of individuals, and strengthening the supporting organizational structures and systems that are needed to effectively deliver the project over the long-term. According to United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (2016), it involves: assessing what capacity is required, assessing what capacity is available, and then addressing the gap between the two.

According to United Nations Development Programme (2015), assessing and building capacity enables project managers to put the required people, structures and processes in places to deliver the project and to use them to their maximum potential. Specifically it helps to: define specific capacity requirements. That is to say, new skills may be required (and therefore training may be needed, new staff may need to be hired, or new partnerships may be sought). In such a condition, management may need to implement new processes, use different systems or change structures or working relationships. The roles of existing staff may need to change, so that a part of their role contributes to the project (UNDP, 2015).

2.4 Empirical Studies

Liberato et al, 2011 conducted a study with the aim of identifying all domains used in systematically documented frameworks developed by other authors to assess community capacity building; and to identify the dimensions and attributes of each of the domains as ascribed by these authors and reassemble them into a comprehensive compilation. Relevant published articles were identified through systematic electronic searches of selected databases and the examination of the bibliographies of retrieved articles. Studies assessing capacity building or community development or community participation were selected and assessed for methodological quality, and quality in relation to the development and application of domains which were identified as constituents of community capacity building. Data extraction and analysis were undertaken using a realist synthesis approach. Results revealed that eighteen articles met the criteria for this review. The various domains to assess community capacity building were identified and reassembled into nine comprehensive domains: "learning opportunities and opportunities of skills development", "resource mobilization", "leadership", "participatory decision making", "assets based approach", "sense of community" and "development pathway" Six sub domains were also identified: "shared vision and clear goals", "community needs assessment", "process and outcome monitoring", "sustainability", "commitment to action" and "dissemination". The study concluded that the set of domains compiled in this review serve as a foundation for community-based work by those in the field seeking to support and nurture the development of competent communities.

Gouais et al, 2013 in his study examined the process of building capacity in developing countries. A review of relevant literature was undertaken outlining the components of capacitybuilding. An outline of a best practice guide, created by United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), for developing a training programme was given. A questionnaire was sent to a number of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) trainers with experience of capacity building programmes, to establish the similarities in practice to the best practice guide. The study established that training is only one aspect of capacity building and will only be effective if the framework for conducting and EIA is in place, in terms of effective legislation, responsible organizations and the political will to accept findings of EIA reports.

2.5 Gap in Literature

The literature reviewed by the researcher generally presented the concept of capacity building and project sustainability at a macro level using case studies from other countries which may not have the same field challenges and realities as Burundi. It did not measure capacity building using the variable of capacity needs assessment, increasing citizen participation, expanding leadership base, and improving individual skills especially with this case study of Prodefi project in Ngozi province, hence presenting a content gap that the study addressed by establishing the contribution of capacity building in achieving sustainability of agribusiness projects in Ngozi Province, Burundi. Furthermore, none of the available studies have been done in Ngozi, Burundi hence presenting a contextual gap that this study covered.

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter covers the research design, study population, sample size, sampling procedure, data collection method, data collection instruments, validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis, ethical consideration and limitations of the study.

3.1 Research Design

This study used a cross-sectional research design. Cross-sectional research design is a type of observational study that analyses data collected from a population or a representative subset at a specific point in time (Sekaran, 2003). The researcher preferred to use this design because it provides a clear 'snapshot' of the outcome and the characteristics associated with it, at a specific point in time. Furthermore, cross-section studies are capable of using data from a large number of subjects and because they use survey techniques to gather data, they are relatively inexpensive and take up little time to conduct (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

Furthermore, the study relied more on quantitative approach but was complemented by the qualitative approach. Qualitative approach is predominantly used for data collection instrument or data analysis procedure that generates or uses non-numerical data (Creswell, 2011). On the other hand, quantitative approach is predominantly used for data collection instrument or data analysis procedure that generates or uses numerical data (Creswell, 2011).

3.2 Study Population

The study population was 9,000 participants from Ngozi province identified as the main project stakeholders which include: PRODEFI project facilitators (125), local leaders (80), and PRODEFI beneficiaries (8,795). PRODEFI 2014 first term report which indicates the number of total PRODEFI beneficiaries in the 8 counties of the province of Ngozi as well as its Staff members was used to identify respondents of the study. (PRODEFI Portfolio Performance Report No 3518, 2014)

3.3 Sample Size

The sample size of this study was determined using Sloven's formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(\alpha)^2}$$
, where n=sample size, N=target population, and α =0.05 level of significance.

$$n = \frac{9,000}{1 + 9,000(0.05)^2}$$

n = 383

Therefore, the sample size of the study was 383 respondents.

Table 1.3.1: Target Population and Sample Size

Target Population	Sample Size
125	5
80	4
8,795	374
9,000	383
	80 8,795

3.4 Sampling Procedure

This study used simple random sampling to select the facilitators and local leaders to avoid bias. Stratification sampling was used to divide Ngozi province into eight strata. The researcher used simple random sampling to select beneficiaries of PRODEFI project from each stratum (county).

3.5 Data Sources

This study used primary data sources collected using questionnaires and interview guide, and secondary data collected using documentary review. The primary data was used because it provides the research with first-hand information of what the current situation is on the field. The data was collected and analyzed by the researcher to comply with the research objectives of the study.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

The study employed different data collection methods, namely: questionnaire survey, and interview. It also used documentary review to collect data from reports, websites, books, and other publications to complement other data collection instruments. The questionnaire was designed to align with the study objectives and was administered to beneficiaries. The questionnaire tool was preferred because it is easy to administer, saves time and allows for doubts to be clarified on spot from many respondents (Sekaran, 2003). On the other hand, the interview tool was used to collect data from the project facilitators, and local leaders. The researcher preferred this method because it enabled the researcher to probe more and even read nonverbal expressions of the key informants.

3.7 Data Collection Tools/Instruments

This study employed the following data collection instruments: questionnaires, and interview guide, and documentary review.

3.7.1 Questionnaires

The questionnaire was the main data collection instrument for the study. A questionnaire was used because it is easier to administer, less costly, and ensures greater depth of response (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). This study employed close ended questionnaires (structured questionnaire). The questions were confined to a given set of options and the respondents were asked to choose the option with the statement that they agree or disagree with. To achieve this, a five Likert scale was used, where 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; not sure; 4=agree; and 5=strongly agree. The five Likert scale was preferred by the researcher because it captures all the ideas, views and opinions of the respondents. Furthermore, the questionnaire was divided into three sections, namely section A, B, and C. Section A captured information about the profile of the respondents, that is, gender, age, education, marital status, and no of household members. Section B captured information about capacity building which was measured using: expanding citizen participation (5-items), expanding leadership base (5-items), and strengthening individual skills (5-items). Section C captured information regarding project sustainability and was measured using: institutional sustainability (5-items), household and community resilience (5-items), and structural change in community participation (5-items).

3.7.2 Interview Guide

The researcher also used interview guide to collect data from key informants, who in this case were the local leaders and project facilitators. These were interviewed because the researcher considered them to have very precise and key information that could establish the relationship between capacity building and project sustainability in Ngozi province, hence the need for a face to face conversation to ask for even more explanations. Each face to face interview schedule lasted for approximately 45 minutes to 1:30 hours per day for five working days in a week. Their responses were recorded using pen and paper. The main themes included capacity building and project sustainability. The researcher preferred this data collection tool because it helped in capturing verbal and nonverbal information including body language, which can indicate a level of discomfort with the questions or indicate the level of enthusiasm for the topics being discussed in the interview (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

3.8 Validity and Reliability

3.8.1 Validity

To ascertain the validity of the instruments, content validity was adopted. The instrument was validated by the researcher's supervisor at the College of Humanities and Social Sciences. He ensured that the instrument represented the entire range of possible aspects to be used in the study. He made comments on the relevance of the questions, the clarity of the questions, the simplicity of the questions, and ambiguity of the questions. The questionnaire was modified in line with his recommendations. Furthermore, content validity index (CVI) was used; where CVI value was greater than 0.70, the instrument was considered to be valid, otherwise, the instrument was rejected. (Amin, 2005).

$$CVI = \frac{items declared valid by experts}{total number of items}$$

3.8.2 Reliability

In order to ensure that the research instruments were reliable and could consistently produce reliable data when administered, the researcher determined its reliability by measuring the consistency of the instrument. This reliability analysis was conducted in a pilot survey prior to official data collection so as to ensure that the instruments provide reliable data for the study. Test- retest method of measuring reliability was used by the researcher to ensure that the

instruments provide consistent measurements. Ten beneficiaries were selected and the instruments were administered on them twice within a two weeks interval, and the obtained results were correlated using Pearson Linear Correlation Coefficient (PLCC). If the results in each test were found to be consistent, the instrument would have been assumed to be reliable. The standardized Cronbach's alpha can be defined as;

$$\alpha_{ ext{standardized}} = \frac{K \bar{r}}{(1 + (K - 1)\bar{r})}$$

Where K is as above and \bar{r} the mean of the K(K-1)/2 non-redundant correlation coefficients (i.e., the mean of an upper triangular, or lower triangular, correlation matrix).

3.9 Data Gathering Procedure

An introduction letter was obtained from the Directorate of higher Degrees and Research of Kampala International University, Uganda to help the researcher to solicit approval in order to administer the research instruments which included questionnaires and interviews. During the administration of the research instruments to the selected respondents, they were properly and adequately oriented on the study and why it was being carried out. The respondents were requested to sign the informed consent form. They were also guided on how to fill the questionnaires, and the importance of answering every item of the questionnaire without leaving any part unanswered. The respondents were requested to kindly fill in the questionnaire in time. After collecting the questionnaires, they were thoroughly checked to ensure that all items were adéquately filled by the respondents.

3.10 Data Analysis

Data findings were fed into SPSS version 20.0 that helped in analyzing the findings. The analysis was done by an expert in data analysis using computer packages that fed the data into SPSS. Thereafter, the researcher analyzed and interpreted the data. The analysis was generated through mean and standard deviation with both frequencies and means as presented in the tables. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis was used to determine the predictors of project sustainability by the independent variables (i.e. increasing citizen participation, expanding leadership base, and improving individual skills).

3.11 Ethical Considerations

The ethical considerations that were adopted in this study were guided by the recommendations made by Saunderset al, 2007 which argue that participation in research should: be voluntary and based on informed consent; ensure there is no harm to the participants; be anonymous and confidential; and not deceive subjects.

To fulfill the criteria of voluntary participation and informed consent, the researcher advised eligible participants to sign a Consent Form, which included information on the purpose of the study, the benefits of taking part in the study as well as the rights of the participants.

To avoid any harm that might affect participants, the researcher paid special attention to the physical and psychological comfort of participants throughout the research process as well as in any communication leading to or following the discussion. Participants were not pressurized to answer questions that they felt uncomfortable with, and were offered the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any point, highlighting the discretional nature of their participation.

To prevent any harm to the identity of participants or the organization they belong to, the researcher offered anonymity to all project facilitators and local leaders interviewed throughout the whole process. Furthermore, confidentiality was considered by not mentioning the source of data.

Finally, in order to not deceive respondents, upon establishing the first contact with them, the researcher introduced himself using the university identity card and the letter from the Directorate of higher Degrees and Research of Kampala International University, Uganda permitting him to carry out the research.

3.12 Limitations of the Study

- i. Questionnaire retrieval: the stated number of respondents was not reached as some questionnaires were not returned due to circumstances beyond the researcher's control. The researcher gave out 383 questionnaires and managed to retrieve 343 questionnaires (89%) which is higher than the minimum return rate of 70% acceptable in social sciences (according to Amin, 2005).
- ii. The researcher had no control over honesty of the respondents and personal biases.

- To mitigate this issue, the researcher clearly explained to the respondents that the findings will be used strictly for only academic purposes.
- iii. Uncooperative behavior of some respondents, un-approachable respondents and those who were reluctant to give information limited this study. However, the researcher mitigated this by assuring the respondents that the study is for academic purposes only and the researcher presented his university identity card and university letter permitting him to carry out the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the study investigation; the findings are based on the objectives of the study. The findings include the demographic data of the respondents and information collected from the respondents.

4.1 Demographic Data of the Respondents

This section includes the gender of the respondents, the age bracket, educational background and household level of the respondents.

Table 1: Gender of the Respondents

Category	Frequency	Percent
Male	200	52.2%
Female	183	47.8%
Total	383	100%

Source: Field Data, 2017

The findings show that majority of the respondents were male participants (52.2%) while the females were 47.8%. The findings hence show that both categories of the gender category participated in the research. This means that capacity building and project sustainability in Burundi involves both the men and women of the community.

Table 2: Age Bracket of the Respondents

Category	Frequency	Percent
Less than 20 years	75	19.6%
20-29 years	95	24.8%
30-39 years	95	24.8%
40-49 years	58	15.1%
50 and above	60	15.7%
Total	383	100 %

Source: Field Data, 2017

The findings show that many of the respondents were in the age groups of 30-39 years (24.8%) and 20-29 years (24.8%). Further, the research shows that those that were less than 20 years old (19.6%) also participated as well as those who were 40-49 years (15.1%) and those who were 50 years and above (15.7%) Hence the research showed that all categories in the listed age brackets were involved as shown in table 2.It also highlights the fact that majority of the beneficiaries are still dynamic and potentially productive since 69.2% of the respondents were in the age bracket between 20 and 39 years old.

Table 3: Qualifications of the Respondents

Category	Frequency	Percent
Never went to School	104	27.2%
Primary	126	32.9%
Secondary	76	19.8%
Post-Secondary	77	20.1%
Total	383	100%

Source: Field Data, 2017

In the section of the qualifications of the respondents, the findings show that many of the respondents had attained primary education (32.9%) followed by those who did not go to school (27.2%). Those that had attained a secondary level certificate were (19.8%) and those that had a post-secondary education were (20.1%). Therefore, all categories participated in the research. This, therefore, means that most of the participants had lower education levels and could have resorted to farming and other agricultural projects which are being funded in the community.

This fact paints a picture of a community where agribusiness in rural areas is done at a very small scale as a means of survival. However, the agribusiness industry in Burundi in general has a small number of educated farmers who achieved higher education and who are engaged in extensive agriculture with big production, but these were not among beneficiaries of PRODEFI because the project targeted the small farmers, hence they were not subjects to this study.

4.3 Field Findings

4.3.1 The Contribution of Capacity Needs Assessment to the Sustainability of Agribusiness Projects.

This section presents the various findings that were realized based on the contribution of Capacity Needs Assessment in the sustainability of agribusiness Projects in Ngozi province. Respondents from this section were specifically PRODEFI project facilitators who were interviewed and the close ended questions were there to complement the interview responses which will be shown in this section.

4.3.1.1 Capacity Needs Assessment (CNA)

Table 4: CNA is a preliminary stage of any capacity development process and forms the basis of planning.

Particular	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	5	55.55%
No	2	22.22%
Not Always	2	22.22%
Total	9	100%

Source: Field Data 2017

The above table shows that out of 9 PRODEFI project facilitators in Ngozi province, 55.55% of them agreed with the fact that CNA is a preliminary stage of any capacity development process and forms the basis of planning, while 22.2% of them disagreed with that statement, and 22.22% of them told us that this is not always a preliminary stage. In fact, while interviewing the 22.22% who said that CNA was not a preliminary stage to capacity development process, majority of them confessed that in most cases, the project has a capacity building framework which they apply in most of the counties without considering conducting a CNA. This has been justified to me as a means of reducing the capacity building budget.

During interviews, Project facilitators insisted on the fact that the CNA is a very important stage of any capacity development activity, and they revealed to me that facilitators working in counties where CNA was not properly done find very difficult to work with the communities in managerial and leadership trainings.

Table 5: The CNA process is a structured and participatory approach through workshops and discussion with the beneficiaries.

Particular	NO of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	6	66.66%
No	2	22.22%
No Response	1	11.11%
Total	9	100%

Source: Field Data 2017

The above table shows that out of the 125 PRODEFI project facilitators in Ngozi province, 66.66% of them agreed with the fact that the CNA process is a structured and participatory approach through workshops and discussion with the beneficiaries, while 22.22% of them disagreed with that, arguing that the CNA is not always a participatory approach .11.11 % of them didn't react to this question. During the interviews, PRODEFI project facilitators revealed that beneficiaries enjoy working with facilitators in CNA activities, because as small farmers, they like to see their humble contributions being considered by project facilitators. This leads in most of the cases, to a deep involvement of these small farmers into the project activities.

Table 6: .As PRODEFI project facilitator, when CNA results do not align with the capacity development response approach of PRODEFI already in place, does PRODEFI ? adjust the approach?

Particular	NO of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	4	44.44%
No	2	22.22%
Not Always	3	33.33%
Total	125	100%

Source: Field Data 2017

The above table shows that out of 125 PRODEFI project facilitators, 44.44% of them agreed with the fact that PRODEFI adjust its capacity development framework to fit the CNA results of a given area, while 22.22% of them disagreed with that 33.33 % of the said that not always

every time PRODEI adjust its approach. Project facilitators revealed during interviews that, when the approach is not adjusted, the beneficiaries show less interest in managerial and leadership trainings.

4.3.1 Contribution of citizen participation to the sustainability of agribusiness projects This section presents the various findings that were realized based on the role of citizen participation in the sustainability of agribusiness in Ngozi Projects. Respondents were requested to choose their respective answers basing on Likert's five point scale whether they agree or disagree with the statements in the questionnaire by indicating the number that best describes their respective answers. On a continuum of 5-1, the following abbreviations were adopted: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Not Sure (NS), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). The mean and standard deviation results were arrived at using SPSS computations.

Table 7: Capacity Building in Agribusiness Projects in Ngozi Projects

	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
tements	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Mean	Std Dev
e agri-business project reficiaries are often included decision making processes	56(14.6)	45(11.7)	14(3.7)	157(41)	111(29)	3.56	1.39
e local leaders of the nmunity are often consulted in project process	79(20.6)	31(8.1)	8(2.1)	212(55.4)	53(13.8)	3.34	1.38
e agri-business project is often en to the participation of the al mainstream media in its ivities	95(24.8)	44(11.5)	14(3.7)	147(38.4)	83(21.7)	3.20	1.52
agri-business project often comes the participation of al nongovernmental anizations.	90(23.5)	40(10.4)	27(7.0)	214(55.9)	12(3.1)	3.05	1.32
e agri-business project ports civic leadership training development.	58(15.1)	16(4.2)	8(2.1)	242(63.2)	59(15.4)	3.59	1.24
e agri-business project often ruits many people to take up dership positions in its various grams	112(29.2)	45(11.7)	23(6)	122(31.9)	81(21.1)	3.04	1.57
e agri-business project grams promote economic racy among its beneficiaries	82(21.4)	89(23.2)	38(9.9)	143(37.3)	31(8.1)	2.67	1.36

Source: Field Data, 2017

Note: Figures outside the parenthesis represent the number of respondents who responded to a given statement while those in the parenthesis represent percentages of respondents out of the total number of respondents.

Basing on the findings presented in table 4 above, it is clearly evident that majority of the respondents agree with capacity building in agribusiness projects being relevant to the community, some respondents strongly agreed (29%) while others agreed (41%) with agribusiness project beneficiaries being often included in decision making processes which means that the community is always involved in decision making.

Further, many of the respondents agreed (55.4%) and strongly agreed (13.8%) with the local community leaders being often consulted in the project initiation and implementation, which means that the community is always informed in which project is coming up and how it is going to benefit the community.

For these farmers to maintain benefits from the local mainstream media activities, it is necessary that they be trained to maintain and use them efficiently and effectively to enhance their competitive edge through the media and other platforms (38.4% and 21.7%). Access to necessary sources of information empowers farmers to trade efficiently. Düvel and Terblanché, 2004 stated that for emerging farmers to be successful, marketing access is of critical importance. Project facilitators during interviews revealed that one of the barriers that hinder famers to engage in extensive agribusinesses ventures comes from the fact that local farmers have their perceptions on the value of formal market over exaggerated. And the main cause of this is the lack of information about the agribusiness industry at small scale (county) in the local mainstream media (radios stations). This would help famers to interact with other stakeholders through radio program for example, therefore, get to be realistic about the value of the market in which they are engaging in. In order to have sustainable cash flows, farmers should have access to sustainable markets at all times.

Access to affordable inputs in a short distance from the point of production is necessary for efficient and effective production (Hart and Burgess, 2005). Hence it plays an important role in ensuring profitability and sustainable production.

The findings therefore imply that majority of the respondents acknowledge and commend the role of citizen participation on the sustainability of agribusiness through capacity building, community involvement and local leaders' participation, the media coverage and other forms of awareness in the community as evidenced in table 5.

4.3.2The Contribution of Leadership base towards Sustainability of Agribusiness Projects

This section presents the various findings concerning the impact of leadership base on the project sustainability of the agribusiness project and how its success can be used to implement and manage the overall projects. Respondents were requested to choose their respective answers basing on likert's five point scale on a continuum of 5-1, the following abbreviations were adopted: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Not Sure (NS), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). The findings are presented in table 6 below. The mean and standard deviation results were arrived at using SPSS computations.

Table 8: Contribution of Leadership base towards Sustainability of the Agribusiness Projects

	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
atements	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Mean	Std Dev
ne agri-business project is omoting institutional vnership of project stivities.	80(20.9)	161(42)	34(8.9)	103(26.9)	5(1.3)	2.46	1.14
ne agri-business project wards its leaders for good erformance	79(20.6)	31(8.1)	8(2.1)	212(55.4)	53(13.8)	3.56	1.39
ne agri-business project icourages volunteer leaders its various programs	95(24.8)	44(11.5)	14(3.7)	147(38.4)	83(21.7)	3.78	1.41
ne agri-business project ograms promote skills evelopment among eneficiaries	98(25.6)	99(25.8)	46(12)	65(17)	75(19.6)	3.07	1.48
ne agri-business project is omoting collaboration with tisting national and bnational institutions	38(9.9)	81(21.1)	23(6)	90(23.5)	151(39.4))	2.19	1.23
ne agri-business project has omoted investment in stitutional capacity evelopment.	53(13.8)	99(25.8)	46(12.1)	53(13.8)	132(34.5)	2.69	1.08
ne agri-business project has approved access to inputs and arkets in support of chnical and onomic/financial stainability	99(25.8)	38(9.9)	27(7.0)	94(24.5)	125(32.6)	3.28	1.62
ne agri-business project is omoting income versification in its programs	88(23)	65(17)	7(1.9)	104(27.2)	119(31.1)	3.26	1.59
ne agri-business project is omoting access to fordable credit.	49(12.8)	47(12.3)	1(0.2)	141(37.1)	145(37.9)	3.75	1.40
ne agri-business project is omoting household opensity to save.	104(27.2)	99(25.8)	72(18.8)	52(13.6)	56(14.6)	2.63	1.39

Source: Field Data, 2017

Note: Figures outside the parenthesis represent the number of respondents who answered to a given statement, while those in the parenthesis represent percentages.

The findings in table 8 are based on the responses from the respondents regarding the contribution of leadership base on the sustainability of agribusiness in Burundi. According to the findings, 151 respondents (39.4%) strongly agreed with the agribusiness project promoting collaboration with existing national and subnational institutions as it has been done with the partnership with ISABU (Agricultural Sciences Institute of Burundi) who provided modern seed to the farmers. The findings also show that 80 respondents (20.9%) strongly disagree with the agribusiness project promoting institutional ownership of project activities whereas 26.9% of the respondents also agree with the statement and 8.9% are not sure, this means that despite the existence of leadership base in project sustainability, it is still lacking in regards to institutional capacity ownership of project activities.

Further, the findings also indicate that the agribusiness has promoted investment in institutional capacity development with the application of leadership base (34.5) and 13.8% and also the agribusiness project encourages volunteer leaders in its various programs (83%) as compared to promoting institutional ownership of project activities (26.9%) and 1.3%). These findings show that leadership base is realized at a certain extent and hence affects sustainability of the agribusiness as showed by the responses from the field study in table 6.

According to the results, the agri-business project is promoting access to affordable credit (13.6 and 14.6) although the responses are disputed by the majority that says otherwise. This is because it is unclear how emerging farmers could believe that the aforesaid factors play no role in their successes, whilst, it is known that without land, transport, disease control and proper security, production could be severely affected and consequently the profit could be adversely impacted. These results therefore, reflect the level of incapacity on the part of emerging farmers. Improvements are needed in order to rectify unwanted situations. In the context of the findings low success rates are not appreciated. Therefore, interventions are required to improve success rates. On the basis of this, farmers were afforded the opportunities to indicate which of the identified factors need improvement in order to ensure a better success rate.

The findings reveal that many emerging farmers do not see any importance of their business plans. This observation confirms the findings that emerging farmers do not use their business plans to run their enterprises (CDS, 2007). This perception might be as a result of the fact that business plan requires some technical capacity to understand. Therefore, for emerging farmers to comprehend and use business plans, it will be necessary that these farmers are continuously mentored on how to use their business plans.

3.3.3 The Contribution of Improving Individual Skills towards sustainability of Agribusiness Project

This section presents the findings from the results that were collected through the effect of strengthening individual skills on the sustainability of agribusiness projects. Respondents were requested to choose their respective answers basing on Likert's five point scale whether they agree or disagree with the statements in the questionnaire by indicating the number that best describes their respective answers. On a continuum of 5-1, the following abbreviations were adopted: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Not Sure (NS), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). The findings are presented in table 7 below. The mean and standard deviation results were arrived at using SPSS computations.

Table 9: The Contribution of Improving Individual Skills towards Sustainability of Agribusiness Project

	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		
tements	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Mea n	Std Dev
e agri-business project is moting strong work ethics ong its beneficiaries	85(22.2)	89(23.2)	14(3.7)	79(20.6)	116(30.3)	2.96	1.50
e agri-business project is moting early adoption of v technologies among the mers	67(17.5)	74(19.3)	34(8.9)	161(42)	47(12.3)	3.12	1.34
agri-business project reficiaries have the ability ake initiatives.	57(14.9)	50(13.1)	6(1.6)	120(31.3)	150(39.2)	3.67	1.47
e agri-business project reficiaries have the ability nanage agribusiness funds.	222(58)	32(8.4)	-	3(.8)	126(32.9)	2.84	1.39
e agri-business project has moted women's access to ployment.	117(30.5)	36(9.4)	18(4.7)	164(42.8)	48(12.5)	2.97	1.50
agri-business project reficiaries have the ability nanage cooperative lands	54(14.1)	48(12.5)	39(10.2)	218(56.9)	24(6.3)	3.29	1.19
e agri-business project reficiaries have olvement or representation ocal trade associations.	21(5.5)	6(1.6)	3(.8)	282(73.6)	71(18.5)	3.99	.86
e agri-business project has up capacity to manage ings, credit disbursement credit repayment grammes.	78(20.4)	56(14.6)	22(5.7)	137(35.8)	90(23.5)	3.27	1.48
e agri-business project gram promotes planning lls among its beneficiaries	79(20.6)	79(20.6)	51(13.3)	84(21.9)	90(23.5)	3.36	1.43
grams promote technical lls among its beneficiaries	56(14.6)	81(21.1)	12(3.1)	139(36.3)	95(24.8)	2.88	1.33

Source: Field Data, 2017

Note: Figures outside the parenthesis represent the number of respondents who answered to a given statement, while those in the parenthesis represent percentages.

The findings in table 9 indicate that the effect of strengthening individual skills on the sustainability of agribusiness project with a high response from the respondents indicating that agribusiness project beneficiaries have the ability to manage agribusiness funds (58%) and also the agribusiness project is promoting early adoption of new technologies among the farmers (42 and 12.3%). This means that community participation strengthening in development projects has become an important element in the design and implementation of development projects.

The findings further show that the agribusiness project beneficiaries have the ability to take initiatives (39.2% and 31.3%) hence participation of the community is in the form of Community Based Development and is among the fastest growing mechanism for channeling development assistance. The aim of community participation in CBD projects is not only to reverse the existing power relations in a manner that creates agency and voice for the poor but also to allow the poor to have more control over development assistance. It is expected that this will result in the allocation of development funds in a manner that is more responsive to the needs of the poor, better targeting of poverty programs, more responsive government and better delivery of public goods and services, better maintained community assets, and a more informed and involved citizenry that is capable of undertaking self-initiated development activity (Mansuri and Rao 2003).

Evidence on the performance of community participation approach is scant, but the work that is available suggests that practioners may be overoptimistic and naive about the benefits of the approach (Mansuri and Rao, 2004a). The empirical literature on community participation acknowledges that there may be a large gap between the idealized textbook representation of the concept and nonprofit organizations experiences with the approach. Case studies show that for a variety of reasons the textbook benefits do not always materialize.

Given that community participatory processes are known to be expensive, demanding and timeintensive, it is vital to better understand the effect of this approach on the sustainability of community development projects. In fact, Mansuri and Rao (2004a) conclude that little is known about the effects of community participation on community-based projects. They attribute ignorance on this matter to a lack of thorough and systematic evaluations with counterfactuals.

4.4 Relationship between Capacity Building and Project Sustainability

Table 10: Pearson Correlation of Capacity Building and Project Sustainability

Correlation refers to a technique used to measure the relationship between two or more variables. When two things are correlated; it means that they vary together. Correlation coefficients can vary numerically between 0.0 and 1.0. The closer the correlation is to 1.0, the stronger the relationship between the two variables. A correlation of 0.0 indicates the absence of a relationship. A statistically significant correlation is indicated by a probability value of less than 0.05. This means that the probability of obtaining such a correlation coefficient by chance is less than five times out of 100. For -0.80 there is a statistically significant negative relationship between class size and reading score (p < .001), such that the probability of this correlation occurring by chance is less than one time out of 1000. (James,2004)

			Project
		Capacity building	sustainability
Capacity building	Pearson Correlation	1	311**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	383	383
Project sustainability	Pearson Correlation	311**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	383	383

^{**.} Correlation is significant at 0.01 levels (2-tailed).

The study found out that none of the independent variables is significant at the $P \le .000$ confidence level. In light of this non-significance, it can be inferred that the independent variables do not have a significant influence on the agribusiness project. The R2 value of -331 indicates that this result can only explain 0% of the variability. This result indicates that the respondents were of the opinion that those farmers who attend training have 34.4 % better chances of making profits. These perceptions reveal that emerging farmers attach value in

attending trainings as a source of production efficiency. These results confirm the opinion of experts who regard attending training as more crucial in running enterprises or production processes (Nieman et al, 2004).

This chapter focused on the findings from the research field which have been presented in tables in accordance with the research objectives. Therefore, based on the current case study of agribusiness project (PRODEFI), the research indicates that there is a positive correlation of the role of capacity building and project sustainability in the development of the community in Ngozi province.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings based on the research objectives. The discussions are based on all the major findings of the study as well as those of major authors who made research in the same field. The chapter further presents the conclusion, recommendations, and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Discussion of the findings

The first objective sought to examine the role of Capacity needs assessment in the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province. The findings on Capacity needs assessment indicated that more than a half of the respondents (70%) agreed with the statement that CNA is a preliminary stage of any capacity development process and forms the basis of planning in agribusiness project in Ngozi province. Comparing this results to the 27% of PRODEFI beneficiaries who had their project sustainable after PRODEFI initial funding in 2014 in terms of location, this study has found out that 88% of the project facilitators who agreed with this statement comes from the counties with the most high rate of project sustainability namely Ngozi, Gashikanwa and Ruhororo. This means that CNA being a preliminary stage to any capacity building process has a significant impact on the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province. As suggested by Muller .C in his 2010 publication on strengthening Rural communities, Capacity Needs Assessment acts as the entry point to the components of the Strengthening Rural Institution model including capacity development, enterprise development e.g, linkages to markets and finance; and platform development and platform development.

The findings further on Capacity needs assessment further indicated that beneficiaries enjoy working with facilitators in CNA activities, because as small farmers, they like to see their humble contributions being considered by project facilitators. This leads in most of the cases, to a deep involvement of these small farmers into the project activities.

The second objective examined the role of citizen participation in the sustainability of agribusinesses in Ngozi Projects. The findings on citizen participation indicated that majority of

the respondents agreed with the statement that the project beneficiaries are often included in decision making processes (Mean = 3.56), 41% of the responses indicate that the respondents agree that they are involved in decision making and also 29% strongly agreed with the statement. This means that there is a positive perception by the community regarding how community capacity building is improving their participation and involvement in development initiatives like the small scale agribusiness project. This also shows that the local leaders collaborates with project facilitators and beneficiaries to direct development efforts towards the areas where it is most needed.

The third objective sought to establish the contribution of leadership base on the sustainability of agribusinesses. More than half of the respondents revealed that their local leaders deserve awards for their involvement and leadership towards development (55.4%) compared to those that didn't agree with the statement (8.1%). Project facilitators during interviews highlighted the effort of local leaders in carrying out sensitization of the community members that aren't aware of the projects in the community and therefore brought the projects to their attention. 32.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that the agribusiness projects had also improved access to inputs and markets in support of technical and social economic development while 9.9% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Respondents (Project facilitators) revealed that this was achieved by the help of local leaders who worked in close collaboration with the project to set up partnerships with several governmental institutions like ISABU who provided farmers with selected and modern seeds for their crops. The local leaders also facilitated the establishment of small cooperatives as a means of exhibition of the farmers' production. The approach to rural community development is always through local leaders who not only act as pioneers of projects but also help in influencing and motivating their people to action (Ajayi and Otuya, 2006). Nicolas ozor in his 2009 publication stated that for any rural community development to be successful, influential local leaders must be involved else they might undermine the progress of such programs. Therefore, any agency or organization like PRODEFI coming up with a development program for the community must initially "clear" with these influential local leaders, a process otherwise referred to as legitimization it. This has been successfully achieved in PRODEFI agribusinesses project in Ngozi province as findings showed in table 5.

The fourth objective investigated the effect of improving individual skills towards sustainability of agribusiness projects. The results indicated that majority of the respondents agreed with the fact that agribusiness is promoting early adoption of new technologies among the farmers (Mean = 3.12). In view of this result, it can be deduced that extension officers(those who work with farmers to enhance their capacity in terms of use of new technologies, marketing strategies for their productions, day to day management of a small business) need to be re-trained in order to provide valuable information to the farmers so that they can put it to practice.23.5% of the respondent also strongly agreed that the agri-business project program promotes planning skills among its beneficiaries while 20.6% of respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. That can only show us that effort to improve access to those training to all farmers is still needed. According to Wagner (2013) constant evolution of both production and forecasting technology, and ever-changing market trends impact every farm business or agriculture-related project. Therefore, regardless of whether you are managing a small project or a large company, building the skills to manage a value-added project or business is an important goal. Improving management skills is a never-ending process.

5.2 Conclusion

The study examined the contribution of capacity building on sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province. The empowerment theory by Zimmerman and Perkins (1995) adopted as the lead theory for this study was verified by the findings of this study. This theory is linked to sustainability concern since it suggests that empowerment-oriented interventions are effective only if they lead to enhancement of wellness while they also aim to ameliorate problems, provide opportunity for participants to develop knowledge and skills, and engage community members as collaborators instead of just assistance beneficiaries

The study concludes that Capacity needs assessment, citizen participation, leadership base and individual skills are four essential elements required in the sustainability of agribusiness projects in Ngozi province. Underperformance due to lack of optimal skills caused by numerous factors including undergoing through trainings without assessing existing skills against desired skills; depict poor capacity building initiatives to improve the skills of agribusiness project beneficiaries (farmers). As evidenced by the responses from the field findings, in Ngozi province, that challenge is being dealt with in many different ways mainly by promoting preliminary,

structured and participatory Capacity Needs assessment activities, citizen participation in decision making, promoting leadership involvement in projects initiatives and improving farmer's planning skills and exposure to modern farming technologies. Agribusiness owners overestimate the value of their products on the local market, whilst their perception on the value of training in terms of business planning and business model is realistic. It is worth nothing that the majority of the farmers use increase in income as a measure of their success more than increase in profit. Findings in the study indicate that more than half of these farmers, 58% have limited financial management skills and, therefore, need training on financial management.

Farm profit was also used as a measure for success of farming enterprises. Overall, financial planning and business management is lacking. It can be argued that business mentorship and apprenticeship need serious consideration for profitability and sustainability of these agribusinesses.

Furthermore, skills were found to be the main determinants of success or failures, followed by financial resources, good prices and infrastructure. This is consistent with the findings of previous researcher (Tustin, 2003). The respondents argued that increase in production, capacity training, access to finance and extension services need to be highly prioritized in order to ensure success and sustainability.

Based on this study, many of farming projects still suffer from lack of skills, financial access, and infrastructure and extension services despite the numerous interventions by both private and public sector.

5.3 Recommendations

According to the findings related to the first objective of this this study which was to establish the contribution of capacity needs assessment on the sustainability of the agribusiness project in Ngozi province, it has been shown that capacity Needs assessment being a preliminary and participatory stage to any capacity building process has a significant impact on the sustainability of agribusiness project in Ngozi province. Therefore, it is recommended that preliminary, structured and participatory Capacity Needs assessment activities should be the starting point of any capacity building activity as it will act as a guide on the activities to be carried out and how to incorporate them in the development process.

The findings presented major challenges associated with the first objective which was to determine the contribution of citizen participation on the sustainability of agribusiness projects and therefore it is recommended that all role players in the agricultural sector incorporate citizens in all their development projects. Because Burundi has a high population growth rate, abject poverty, unemployment and a high level of malnutrition, and because farming is beleaguered by low productivity, the country is left with no choice but to improve the livelihood of poor rural communities and those living in commonages. It is very important that in the process of decision making from the early stage of planning, that the agribusiness project involves much the community to decide for themselves what problem among the many have the project should tackle first and what is the best approach to adopt.

Furthermore, on the second objective which was to determine the contribution of expanding leadership base on the sustainability of agribusinesses, the study recommends that there is need for more involvement of influential local leaders in the agribusiness project as the community in most of the cases considers them as role models. This creates in the community a sense of ownership of the project which helps a lot in the process of sustaining project deliverables.

On the matter of individual skills and sustainability of agribusinesses, which was dealt in the third objective, it is recommended that there is further need to improve farmer's access to planning & management trainings and exposure to new farming technologies to improve individual skills of farmers. In fact, due to limited project budget, not all farmers in the targeted counties got the chance to attend trainings, yet most of them fit the selecting criteria. So, it is recommended that the project if possible should extend the budget allocated to the managerial and leadership trainings and exposure to new farming technologies as it has been shown that skills were found to be the main determinant of success or failure of achieving project sustainability.

5.4 Suggestions for further Studies

Although attempts have been made in this study to research information on the contribution of capacity building to project sustainability by looking at PRODEFI agribusiness Project as a case study in Ngozi province, important issues still exist due to time limitation that was imposed to this study. Additional research on the following topics will help to shape and enhance the future contribution of capacity building in agribusiness project sustainability:

- Extension services and agribusiness project sustainability in Ngozi province
- Women's empowerment and agribusiness project success in Ngozi Province

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alaerts, G., Blair, T., and Hartvelt, F. (2011). Strategy for Water Sector Capacity Building: Proceedings of the UNDP Symposium. *IHE Report Series*(24).
- Amin, N.E. (2005). Social Science Research, Conception, Methodology and Analysis. Kampala: Makerere University Printery.
- Australian Agency for International Development. (2010). Promoting practical sustainability. Canberra: Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID). Retrieved on 29th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.ausaid.gov.au/publications/pdf/sustainability.pdf.
- Bigdon, C. &Korf, B. (2012). The role of development aid in conflict transformation: Facilitating empowerment processes and community building. Retrieved on 29th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.berghof-handbook.net.
- Binswanger, H. (2014). *Measuring empowerment in national CDD programmes in the Africa region*. Presentation made to the Workshop on Measuring Empowerment: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives, held at the World Bank, Washington, D.C., 4-5. World Bank.
- Bolger. J. (2012). Capacity Development. Canadian International Development Agency, Quebec.
- Brinkerhoff, D.W. & Goldsmith, A.A. (2012). Promoting the sustainability of development institutions: A framework for strategy. *World Development*, 20(3), 369-383.
- Cascio, J. (2012). The Resilient World. Open the Future. http://openthefuture.com/the resilient world.html.
- Cayley, C. (2016). Literature Review On Capacity Building For The Voluntary And Community Sector. The Bishop's Action Foundation.
- Chikere, C. C., &Nwoka, J. (2015). The Systems Theory of Management in Modern Day Organizations A Study of Aldgate Congress Resort Limited Port Harcourt.

 International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, 5 (9), 1-7.

- Creswell, J.W. (2011). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. (4thedn.). Pearson Education, Boston.
- Daft, R. L., & Pirola-Merlo, A. (2015). *The Leadership Experience*. Asia Pacific Edition 1 ed.; Cengage Learning Australia: South Melbourne.
- Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2015). Assessing leadership styles and organisational context. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. **20**: 105-123.
- Eade, D. (2012). Capacity-building: An Approach to People-centered Development. Oxford, UK: Oxfam UK and Ireland.
- Fryer, B., Ellis, R., Egbu, C., & Gorse, C. (2014). *The practice of construction management:* people and business performance. (4thed.). Blackwell Publishing.
- Ftterman, D., Kalftarian, S., & Wandersman, A. (1995). Empowerment evaluation: knowledge and tools for self-assessment and accountability. Thousand Oats, CA: Sage.
- Gereffi, G., &Bamber, P. (2014). Burundi in the Agribusiness Global Value Chain: Skills for Private Sector Development. Retrieved on 28th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.cggc.duke.edu.
- Goedknegt, D. (2012). Sustainability in Project Management A case study at University of Applied Sciences Utrecht. *PM World Journal I (4); 1-18.*
- Gouais, P.J. (2013). Capacity Building for Environmental Impact Assessment: A Review of Training Practices in Developing Countries. Master's thesis of University of East Anglia.
- Grevelman, L., &Kluiwstra, M. (2009). Sustainability in Project Management, A case study on Enexis. Thesis, International MSc Real Estate Management at the University of Greenwich (United Kingdom), in collaboration with Saxion University of Applied Sciences Deventer (the Netherlands).

- Haziri, E. K., & Heather, K. (2013). Measuring and accounting for community capabilities in Kordofan, Sudan. *Discussion Paper* 00730. Washington, D.C.: International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI).
- Hermarij, J. (2010). *The Better Practices of Project Management*. Dhirita B.V., Oudekerka/d Amstel, The Netherlands.
- IFAD (2010). Evaluation of IFAD's regional strategy in Asia and the Pacific: Corporate-level evaluation. Report No. 1779.Office of Evaluation. Rome.
- IFAD (2014). Proposal for a grant to the Republic of Burundi for the National Programme for Food Security and Rural Development in Ngoziprovince. President's report.
- IFAD (2015).Programme de Développement des Filières-Deuxième Phase (PRODEFI II).

 Rapport de conception détaillée.Rapport principal et appendices.
- IFAD (2016). Value Chain Development Programme.retrieved on 29th Sept, 2017 from: tps://operations.ifad.org.
- International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2009). Sustainability of rural development projects. *Occasional Papers*, Knowledge for development effectiveness.
- Jorge, M. D. (2012). Empowering Rural Producer Organisations within the World Bank Initiatives: A Capitalization Study. Uganda Country Case Study.retrieved on 29th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.naads.or.ug
- Jugnarain, S. (2016).Resources for Implementing the WWF Project & Programme Standards.

 Building Project Capacity. Retrieved on 30th Sept, 2017

 from:https://intranet.panda.org/documents/folder.cfm?uFolderID=60983
- Kamarah, U.I. (2015). Sustainable rural development: Semantics or substance? The study of rural projects in North Western Sierra Leone (1985-1995). USA: University Press of America, Inc.

- Kate, R., & Coutts, J. (2011). Evaluating Empowerment: The human element of capacity building. *Rural Industries Research and Development*, 4: 34-42.
- Kleemeier, E. (2010). The impact of participation on sustainability: An analysis of the Malawi rural piped scheme program. *World Development*, 28(5), 929-944.
- Labuschagne, C., & Brent, A.C. (2014). Sustainable Project Life Cycle Management: the need to integrate life cycles in the manufacturing sector. *International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, 11(1), p.3-15.
- Liberato, S.C., Brimblecombe, J., Ritchie, J., Ferguson, M., & Coveney, J. (2011). Measuring capacity building in communities: a review of the literature. *BMC Public Health*, 11 (850), 1-10.
- Linell, D. (2013). *Evaluation of Capacity Building: Lessons from the field.* Washington, D.C: Alliance for Nonprofit Management in Asia.
- Lyons, M., Smuts, C., & Stephens, A. (2011). Participation, empowerment, and sustainability: (How) do the links work?. *Urban Studies*, 38(8), 1233-1251.
- Malhotra, A. (2013). Conceptualizing and measuring women's empowerment as a variable in international development. Paper presented at the Workshop on MeasuringEmpowerment: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives, held at the World Bank, Washington,D.C., 4-5 February 2013. International Center for Research on Women.
- McCobin, A. (2015). A Theory of Empowerment.Retrieved on 27th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.studentsforliberty.org.
- Mcphee, P., & Bare, J. (2015). Introduction' in De Vita Carol J and Fleming Cory (2001) Building Capacity in Non-profit Organizations The Urban Institute, Washington.
- McShane S. L., & Von Glinow, M. (2003). *Emerging Realities for the workplace revolution*, (2ndedn.). McGraw-Hill, New York.

- Miller, J.H., & Page, S.E. (2007). Complex Adaptive Systems. An Introduction to Computational Models of Social Life. Princeton: Princeton U.P.
- Mugenda, O. & Mugenda, A, G. (2003). *Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Nairobi: Africa Center for Technology Studies.
- Mullin, L. J. (2005). Management and organizational behaviour, (7thedn.). Prentice Hall, England.
- Nanjundeswaraswamy, T. S., &Swamy, D. R. (2014).Leadership styles. *Advances in Management*, 7(1), 57-62.
- Narayan, D. (1995). The contribution of people's participation: Evidence from 121 rural water supply projects. Environmentally Sustainable Development Occasional Paper Series No.1. Washington, DC: The World Bank. Retrieved on 29th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2006/12/29/0 00011823_20061229153803/Rendered/PDF/38294.pdf
- Omolayo, B. (2016). Effect of Leadership Style on Job-Related Tension and Psychological Sense of Community in Work Organizations: A Case Study of Four Organizations in Lagos State, Nigeria, *Bangladesh e-Journal of Sociology*, 4(2).
- Perkins, D.D. (1993). Empowerment theory, research and policy. Symposium conducted at the biennial conference on community research and action.
- Pollnac, R.B. & Pomeroy, R.S. (2005). Factors influencing the sustainability of integrated coastal management projects in the Philippines and Indonesia. *Ocean and Coastal Management*, 48: 233-251.
- Potter, C., &Brough, R. (2013). Systemic capacity building: a hierarchy of needs. Health policy and planning in Alabama, USA.Oxford University Press.19 (5): 336–347.
- Sara, J., & Katz, T. (1997). Making rural water supply sustainable: Report on the impact of project roles. Washington, DC: The UNDP-World Bank Water and Sanitation Program. Retrieved on 29th Sept, 2017 from:

- http://www.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2005/08/03/0 00090341_20050803104704/Rendered/PDF/331050global1ruralreport.pdf
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2007) *Research Methods for Business Students* (4th edn). Harlow: FT Prentice Hall.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill-Building Approach* (4thedn). New York: Wiley.
- Silvius, A.J.G., Brink, J., van den, K. A. (2010). Sustainability in Project Management; Questions and Responsibilities. *International Conference on Sustainability in Business (ICBS)*, Putrajaya, November 2010.
- Silvius, A.J.G., Schipper, R. (2010). *A Maturity Model for Integrating Sustainability in Projects and Project Management*. 24th IPMA World Congress, Istanbul, November 2010.
- Smillie, I. (2014). *Patronage or Partnership: Local Capacity Building in a Humanitarian Crisis*. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press.
- Snodgrass, D. (2012). *A Note on Indicators of Sustainability For Value Chain Projects*. United States Agency for International Development (USAID).
- Stoner J.A.F (2010). Management, (6thedn.). PHI Learning, New Delhi.
- TANGO International (2014). Indicators of social inclusion, livelihood security, conflict and disaster preparedness. Tucson, AR.
- Taylor, T. (2008) A Sustainability Checklist for Managers of Projects.Retrieved on 25th

 September, 2017 from: http://www.pmforum.org/library/papers/2008/PDFs/Taylor-1-08.pdf.
- The Cotonou Agreement (2004). NSA user's manual. Drafted by ECDPM for the ACP Secretariat February 2004.

- Turner, R. (2010). Responsibilities for Sustainable Development in Project and Program Management.in Proceedings of IPMA Expert Seminar February 2010, Zurich, Switzerland.
- United Nations Development Programme ((UNDP), 2009). Supporting Capacity Building the UNDP approach.
- United Nations Development Programme (2012). Supporting Capacity Building the UNDP approach. UNDP.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2015). Supporting capacity development, UNDP approach.Retrieved on 30th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.undp.org/capacity.
- United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (2016). Ways to Increase the Effectiveness of Capacity Building for Sustainable Development. Retrieved on 30th Sept, 2017 from: http://www.unep.ch/etb
- USAID (2013).Kenya Agricultural Value Chain Enterprises (KAVES).U.S. Presidential Initiative,Feed the Future.
- Von Bertalanffy, L. (1973). *General System Theory* (Revised Edition), George Braziller, New York.
- Vos, R.J. (2015). Participation-Who owns it? Enhancing community participation on Bohol Island, Philippines. A thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Philosophy in Development Studies. Massey University: New Zealand.
- Wagner, L. D. (2013). Why Capacity Building Matters and Why Nonprofits Ignore It. *New Directions for Philanthropic Fundraising*, (40), 103–111.
- Wallerstein, N., & Bernstein, E. (1994). Special issue: community empowerment, participatory education and health. Part I and II. *Health Education Quarterly*, 21 (23), 141-419.

- Weihrich, H. (2008). *Management.A global and entrepreneurial perspective*.(12thedn.).McGraw-Hill, New Delhi.
- Yang, L.R., Huang, C.F., & Hsu, T.J. (2014). Knowledge leadership to improve project and organizational performance. *International Journal of Project Management* 2014; **32**: 40-53.
- Zimmerman, A.M. (2000). Empowerment Theory. *Psychological, Organizational and Community Levels of Analysis.*
- Zimmerman, M. A., & Perkins, D. D. (1995). Empowerment theory, research, and application. *American Journal of Community Psychology*; 23 (5), 569.579.
- Zimmerman, M.A., Israel, B.A., Schulz, A., &Checkoway, B. (1992). Further explorations in empowerment theory: An empirical analysis of psychological empowerment. *American journal of community psychology*, 20: 707-727.

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Gender	
a) Male	b) Female
2. Age	
a) Less than 20 years	b) 20-29 years
c) 30-39 years	c) 40-49 years
d) 50 and above	
3. Education Level	
a) None	b) Primary
c) Secondary	d) Post-Secondary
4. Number of household members	
a) Less than 5 members	b) 5-10 members
c) More than 10 members	

SECTION B: CAPACITY BUILDING

Please use the following scales to indicate/tick the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements in the table below. Scale: 5=Strongly agree; 4=Agree; 3=Not sure; 2=Disagree; 1=Strongly disagree

#	Capacity Building	1	2	3	4	5
A	Expanding Citizen Participation					
1	The agri-business project beneficiaries are often included in decision making processes.					
2 ,	The local leaders of the community are often consulted in the project process.					
3	The agri-business project is often open to the participation of the local mainstream media in its activities.					
4	The agri-business project often welcomes the participation of local nongovernmental organizations.					
В	Expanding Leadership Base					
1	The agri-business project supports civic leadership training and development.					
2	The agri-business project often recruits many people to take up leadership positions in its various programs.					
3	The agri-business project rewards its leaders for good performance					
4	The agri-business project encourages volunteer leaders in its various programs.					
C	Strengthening Individual Skills					
1	The agri-business project programs promote skills					

	development among beneficiaries.			
2	The agri-business project program promotes planning skills among its beneficiaries.			
3	The agri-business project programs promote technical skills among its beneficiaries.			
4	The agri-business project programs promote economic literacy among its beneficiaries.			

SECTION C: PROJECT SUSTAINABILITY

Please use the following scales to indicate/tick the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements in the table below. Scale: 5=Strongly agree; 4=Agree; 3=Not sure; 2=Disagree; 1=Strongly disagree

#	Project Sustainability	1	2	3	4	5
A	Institutional Sustainability					
1	The agri-business project is promoting institutional ownership of project activities.					
2	The agri-business project is promoting collaboration with existing national and subnational institutions.					
3 ,	The agri-business project has promoted investment in institutional capacity development.					
4	The agri-business project has improved access to inputs and markets in support of technical and economic/financial sustainability					
5	The agri-business project has set up capacity to manage savings, credit disbursement and credit repayment programmes.					

В	Household and Community Resilience			
1	The agri-business project is promoting income	 		
,	diversification in its programs.			Access to the second se
2	The agri-business project is promoting access to			
ک ا	affordable credit.			
	arrordable credit.			
3	The agri-business project is promoting household			
	propensity to save.			
4	The agri-business project is promoting strong work			A POPPER
	ethics among its beneficiaries.			
5	The agri-business project is promoting early			
	adoption of new technologies among the farmers.			
C ·	Structural Change in Community Participation			
1	The agri-business project beneficiaries have the			
	ability to take initiatives.		1.00	
	The said have fainting have the			
2	The agri-business project beneficiaries have the			
	ability to manage village funds.			
3	The agri-business project has promoted women's			
	access to employment.			
4	The agri-business project beneficiaries have the			
	ability to manage communal lands.			
	The easi hyginess project hanaficiaries have			
5	The agri-business project beneficiaries have			
	involvement or representation in local trade			
	associations.			

The End

Thank You for Your Time and Participation

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW GUIDE

For Project Facilitators and Local Leaders Only.

Capacity Building

1. Capacity Needs Assessment (CNA)

- **a.** CNA is a preliminary stage of any capacity development process and forms the basis of planning.
- **b.** The CNA process is a structured and participatory approach through workshops and one on one discussion with the beneficiaries.
- c. As project facilitator, when CNA results do not align with the capacity development response approach of PRODEFI already in place, does PRODEFI adjust the approach?
 - 2. What capacity building strategies are in place to promote:
 - 3. Citizen participation in the project?
 - a) Expansion of leadership's base?
 - b) Strengthening of individual skills?

4. What are the common indicators to track the progress of the suggested:

- a) Capacity building strategies to promote citizen participation in the project.
- b) Capacity building strategies to promote expansion of leadership's base.
- c) Capacity building strategies to promote strengthening of individual skills.
- 5. As project facilitators; how monitoring and evaluation of the capacity building activities helps the project team to make informed decisions to achieve Project sustainability.

Project Sustainability

- 1. What are some of the recorded success of the Agribusiness Project in the last past 2 years?
- 2. As project facilitators and local leaders, how institutional sustainability can support the recorded success of the Agribusiness Project to achieve household and community resilience?
- 3. What are some of the most common challenges faced by the project?
- 4. How were the above mentioned challenges addressed?

- 5. What are the lessons learnt from those challenges that will help future project to achieve sustainability?
- 6. How was the community involved in addressing those challenges at different levels of their participation in the Project?

THE END