

**RATIONALIZING ODA WITH THE ADOPTION OF
COMMUNITY-DRIVEN DEVELOPMENT (CDD)
APPROACH IN NEPAL**

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Rationalizing ODA with the adoption of Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach In Nepal

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Abstract

This dissertation explains the ODA for Nepal and its effectiveness in development. Multilateral and Bilateral aid agencies have been literally working for the pro-poor, vulnerable, ethnics groups, women, and minorities of Nepal. The participatory approach was effective in reducing corruption in aid and the sustainability of projects in the context of developing countries like Nepal. A Series of development approaches was applied in the development history. This study tried to explain how effective they were in achieving the goal. Why was the participatory approach spreading widely rather than the top-down approach in development intervention history?

In the middle of the 1990s, the World Bank introduced the Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach. From the successful stories of the CDD approach in the World Bank's projects, this approach became popular in other donor agencies in a very short period of time. Major donor agencies increased their budget worldwide in a similar way in small infrastructures, empowering women, ethnics groups, vulnerable people, and in community awareness programs every year for the past two decades. Over the centuries, a self-help system has been practiced in the Nepalese community. The self-help system is close to the CDD approach. In this system, people come together to solve common problems in society.

It was easy to collaborate with aid agencies that adopt participatory approaches in the local development of Nepal. In Nepal, women, lower castes, ethnic, minorities, and vulnerable people were dominated by elites and men in Nepalese society. Women were limited in agriculture and household jobs, which were not measures in economics. Job disparities in the group were found to be higher. The participation approach helped to raise their voice, make them to educate them and improve their health status. The compulsory women's participation rule by the ADB and World Bank in the CDD program also helped women get out of the limited household jobs in society. Through participating in community group meetings, women were given opportunities to raise their voices regarding their needs and rights.

The study was conducted based on their improved life expectancy, health, education, HDI, and increased participation in local and national politics. This thesis is trying to find out "whether the CDD approach is a useful approach to development in the rural context of Nepal."

Key words: Official Development Assistant, Participatory approach, Community-Driven Development, women empowerment in Nepal, elite capture in Nepal, ethnics, minorities, and vulnerable people of Nepal.

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Abbreviations

ADP	: Area Development Program
CDD	: Community-Driven Development
CLDP	: Community Livestock Development Project
CEDAW	: Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
GDP	: Gross domestic product
HDI	: Human Development Index
ICR	: Implementation Completion and Results Report
IDA	: International Development Association
INGOs	: International Non-Governmental Organizations
IRDP	: Integrated Rural Development program
JICA	: Japan International Cooperation Agency
LDCs	: least developed countries
MoWCSW	: Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare
NGO	: Non-governmental Organization
NRs	: Nepalese Rupees
PAF	: Poverty Alleviation Fund
SCHP	: School and Community Health Project
UN	: United Nations
UNDP	: United Nations Development Program
USD (\$)	: United States Dollar
WB	: World Bank
WID	: Women in Development

Organization of Dissertation

Chapter 1: This chapter introduces the history of the Official Development Assistant and the Community-Driven Development (CDD) Approach. The author discusses the theoretical assumptions, key concepts of the CDD approach, ODA in Nepal, applied approach, and the CDD approach.

Chapter 2: In this chapter, the author includes previous studies in the fields of ODA and CDD approach. Opinions of intellectuals, books, papers, and valued surveys of scholarly sources are used to review the preceding studies. And the author discussed his preceding research review, published in different papers.

Chapter 3: This chapter explains the research objectives, research questions, hypotheses, research methodology, research, and overview of the project where primary data was collected for the study.

Chapter 4: This chapter explains about the CDD approach, elites and their influence in applied projects. The Author analyzes CDD in more detail using case studies to verify whether CDD really signifies participation, empowerment, governance improvement, and microfinance activities from the evaluation reports, data, and past stories where the CDD approach was applied by various agencies in Nepal in the past.

Chapter 5: This chapter analyze the success and failure of the projects based on global practices. Also review the CDD approach applied successful projects in other developing countries and the failure of the non-CDD approach applied projects in Nepal.

Chapter 6: This chapter is about data analysis from secondary data and interviews in the field survey, case studies and explanations, and in-depth interviews and reviews.

Chapter 7: This chapter analyzes the primary data, and findings from the field survey.

Chapter 8: This chapter is about the summary of the findings, of the study. The author concludes all the findings, makes a summary of this dissertation, and makes recommendations for further study.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND

This chapter introduces the history of the Official Development Assistant and the Community-Driven Development (CDD) Approach. The author discusses the theoretical assumptions, key concepts of the CDD approach, ODA in Nepal, applied approach, and the CDD approach.

1.1 Introduction

Most countries in the world are the least developed and developing. The classification of countries into developed, developing, or least developed categories is a complex task that involves assessing multiple indicators. One commonly used set of criteria includes the industrial base, human development index (HDI), and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth. The industrial base of a country is indicative of its economic structure, technological capabilities, and manufacturing capacity. Developed nations typically exhibit a diversified and advanced industrial base, featuring cutting-edge technology and a wide range of industries that contribute significantly to their overall economic output.

The Human Development Index (HDI), introduced by the United Nations, is a comprehensive measure that considers factors such as life expectancy, education, and per capita income. Nations with higher HDI scores are generally considered more developed, reflecting a better quality of life and a more educated populace. Additionally, GDP growth serves as a crucial metric in assessing a country's economic progress. Developed nations often demonstrate stable and sustained GDP growth, driven by innovation, efficient resource allocation, and robust infrastructure.

The correlation between a strong industrial base, high HDI, and robust GDP growth provides a foundation for categorizing countries as developed. These factors collectively contribute to the overall well-being of a nation's citizens, ensuring economic prosperity, access to education and healthcare, and technological advancement. However, it's important to note that these criteria are not exhaustive, and categorizing countries is a nuanced task that considers a multitude of economic, social, and political factors. Moreover, the dynamic nature of global economies implies that countries may transition between categories over time, emphasizing the need for a flexible and context-aware approach to classification.

Official Development Assistance (ODA) is a cornerstone of international cooperation aimed at fostering the growth and well-being of developing nations. This assistance, predominantly provided by governments or international organizations, serves as a vital lifeline for countries grappling with poverty, inadequate infrastructure, healthcare crises, educational deficiencies, and natural disasters. What distinguishes ODA is its concessional terms, often entailing low-interest loans, extended repayment periods, or outright grants, making it more accessible and sustainable for recipient countries. Moreover, ODA can flow through multilateral channels, such as the United Nations and the World Bank, or bilaterally, directly from one government to another.

Foreign aid can be defined as economic assistance from one country to another, the recipient typically being a less developed country (LDC). Aid is usually intended either to provide humanitarian relief in emergencies, to promote economic development, or to finance military expenditure. ODA has become the most important source of external receipts for the developing countries. Aid is basically focused on providing programs that directly meet people's basic needs. The history of the aid was more than 70 years. In the colonial era, aid was typically money from a rich country to poorer colonial countries with the intention of them becoming powerful nations. Mostly it went to build infrastructure. However, post-World War II and during the cold war the dramatic change in political, economic, and moral allegiances changed.

In another word foreign aid represents a multifaceted instrument for promoting global development, peace, and security. Whether addressing humanitarian crises, fostering economic growth, enhancing education and healthcare, or strengthening governance and security, foreign aid became important in improving the lives of millions around the world. By targeting root causes of instability such as poverty, inequality, and conflict, aid programs strive to create sustainable solutions that empower individuals, communities, and nations to thrive. However, foreign aid effectiveness relies on strategic planning, coordination, and accountability mechanisms to ensure resources are utilized efficiently and transparently.

Foreign aid, comprising bilateral and multilateral assistance, serves multifaceted purposes in addressing development challenges and humanitarian crises worldwide. Bilateral aid involves direct support from one country to another, often reflecting the donor's strategic interests or historical ties with the recipient. For instance, the United States' bilateral aid to countries like Afghanistan and Pakistan often aligns with its geopolitical objectives, focusing

on security assistance alongside development initiatives. Multilateral aid, facilitated through international organizations like the United Nations and the World Bank, pools resources from multiple donors to tackle global issues collectively. In the case of Nepal, multilateral aid from organizations such as the Asian Development Bank and the United Nations Development Programme supports diverse sectors such as infrastructure, education, and healthcare, aligning with national development priorities.

Development assistance constitutes a significant portion of foreign aid, aiming to foster sustainable growth and poverty alleviation in recipient countries. For example, Japan's Official Development Assistance (ODA) to Nepal has historically supported projects in infrastructure development, such as road construction and hydropower generation, to enhance connectivity and spur economic activity. Similarly, technical assistance initiatives funded by countries like Australia and the United Kingdom aim to build local capacities and strengthen governance structures in sectors like public administration and education. Humanitarian aid, in responding to emergencies, such as the devastating earthquakes in Nepal in 2015. International aid agencies like the Red Cross and UNICEF provided immediate relief efforts, including food distribution, medical assistance, and shelter support, to address the urgent needs of affected communities.

The first official foreign economic assistance was the Marshall Plan, designed by the United States to help war-devastated European countries during the late 40s. Beginning in 1948, the United States provided over \$12 billion, and more than 90% was in the form of grants. Because of this huge amount of aid, per capita aid increased substantially during the period in aid disbursement to Western Europe. The Marshall plan significantly contributed to the economic reconstruction of these countries. By 1950, the level of industrial production was found to be 25 percent higher than in 1938. (Browne, 1990)

United States, Britain and other allied nation gathered to discuss the management of the post war world economy in Bretton Woods. The agreement was known as “Bretton Woods Agreements” to establish a post war international monetary system with the U.S. dollar as the key currency and to aid war affected countries.

The relationship between Official Development Assistance (ODA) and economic development in developing countries has been subjected to empirical investigation since its emergence in 1950. Organization for Economic Development and Cooperation’s (OECD)

Development Assistant Committee (DAC) has measured resource flows to developing countries since 1961. The DAC first defined ODA in 1969 and tightened the definition in 1972. The DAC defined ODA as “those flows to countries and territories on the DAC list of ODA recipients and to multilateral institutions which are: i) provided by official agencies, including state and local governments or by their executive agencies; and ii) each transaction of which a. is administered with the promotion of the economic development and welfare of developing countries as its main objective; and b. is concessional in character and conveys grant element of at least 25 percent (calculated at a rate of discount of 10 percent).”¹

DAC includes 24 member countries: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, European Union, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Japan, Italy, Luxemburg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, South Korea, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, and the United States. European Union acts as full member of the committee and The World Bank, The International Monetary Fund (IMF) and United Nations Development Program (UNDP) also participated as observer.

The donor governments promised to spend 0.7% of GNI (Gross National Income) for ODA at the UN General Assembly in 1970. The deadline for reaching that target was the mid 1970s. An analysis of the three biggest donor nations (Japan, France, and US), conducted by Alesina and Dollar (2000) discovered that each has its own distortions to the aid it gives out. Japan appears to prioritize giving aid to nations that exercise similar voting preferences in the United Nations, France mostly sends aid to its former colonies and the U.S. disproportionately provides aid to Israel and Egypt.²

During the 1950s, economic growth was regarded as the main policy objective in developing countries. It was believed that through economic growth, poverty and social inequalities could be eliminated.³

Foreign aid was considered a necessary capital resource transfer mechanism that would result in high saving rates and consequently self-sustained growth for developing countries. In the 1950s, aid was seen principally as a source of capital that would push economic growth through higher investment.

1 <http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/officialdevelopmentassistancedefinitionandcoverage.htm>

2 Alesina Alberto, Dollar David “Who Gives Foreign Aid to Whom and Why? *Journal of Economic Growth*. 5(1), 2000 p 33-63

3 W.W. Rostow’s “take-off in to sustained growth” *The Economic Journal*, Vol. 66. No 261 Mar, 1956 pp. 25-48

During the 1960s, the concept of economic development was still dominated by GNP growth as the main objective. Insufficient saving at an early stage and foreign exchange at a later stage were identified as the key constraints for economic growth by the two-gap models developed by Hollis Chenery and his associates⁴. Within the framework of the two-gap models, the role of foreign aid is supposed to boost investment by reducing the saving gap and/or the foreign exchange gap.

During the 1960s, as sectoral development process began to be better understood, the focus was extended to the importance of investment on human capital and technical assistance.⁵

By the 1970s, development economists and practitioners began to realize the shortcomings of GNP-oriented development strategies. These included concerns about rising unemployment and inequality and a lack of progress in social developments despite economic growth in developing countries. Thus, the primary objective of aid shifted towards raising the standard of living of poor people through increased employment opportunities. Changing their foreign aid strategy, the World Bank, United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and other donors focused on anti-poverty programs. Many investment projects were diverted from traditional sectors such as power, transportation, and telecommunication to projects in agricultural and rural development and social services, education, and health (Brown, 1990). The foreign debt crisis severely hit the world during the 1990s. The Mexican financial crisis of 1982 spread to other developing countries. Donors began to emphasize external and internal balance; these became important objective and necessary conditions to restoration of economic growth and poverty alleviation. The World Bank and the IMF used a common strategy, the Structural Adjustment program, to tackle the debt crisis. The new approach shifted away from a strategy of aid-financed investment towards a strategy of aid-induced economic reforms.

Access to aid was made contingent upon the adoption of an appropriate policy framework, through the imposition of policy conditionality. Thus, during the 1980s and 1990s, Stabilization and Adjustment Programs became the dominant objectives of aid (Browne, 1990; UNCTAD, 2000). Under these programs, donors pushed recipient countries for the

4 Hollis Burnley Chenery, Moises Syrquin, "Patterns of Development, 1950-1970" Oxford University Press for the world bank, 1975

5 Erik Thorbecke, "The Evolution of the Development Doctrine and the Role of Foreign Aid, 1950-2000". In F. Tarp (ed.) Foreign Aid and Development: Lessons Learnt and Directions for the Future. 2000 pp 17-47

implementation of appropriate adjustment policies through conditionality attached to program lending. The effectiveness of conditional aid became a debatable issue in the 1990s.⁶

1.2 Background of the Study

Foreign aid, a key aspect of global economic relations, is categorized into distinct forms based on its nature, terms, conditions, and sources. Capital aid constitutes a significant portion of foreign assistance and involves the provision of financial resources for the development of infrastructure, industries, and other capital-intensive projects in the recipient country. This form of aid aims to promote long-term economic growth and sustainability by investing in fundamental assets that enhance a nation's productive capacity. Commodity aid, on the other hand, involves the direct supply of goods and services to the recipient country, providing essential resources such as food, medicine, or machinery. This form of aid addresses immediate needs and emergencies, contributing to social welfare and stability.

1.3 Benefits of foreign aid

1. **Infrastructure:** Investment in infrastructure, including the construction of roads, bridges, institutions, hydropower facilities, and sewer systems, not only facilitates economic growth but also generates employment opportunities and improves access to essential services. Building roads and bridges enhances connectivity, facilitating the movement of goods and people, thereby stimulating trade and commerce. The establishment of institutions promotes governance and administrative efficiency, creating a conducive environment for business and investment. Hydropower projects contribute to energy security, providing reliable electricity for households, industries, and businesses, which in turn spurs economic activities and productivity. Additionally, the development of sewer systems improves sanitation and public health, reducing the prevalence of waterborne diseases and enhancing overall quality of life.

2. **Agriculture technology improvements:** Improvements in agricultural technology are important to refining infrastructure in recipient nations' agriculture sectors. These improvements cover a wide range of innovations, including improved irrigation systems, mechanization, crop varieties resistant to pests and diseases, precision farming techniques, and enhanced storage and processing facilities. By integrating such technologies into agricultural practices, recipient countries can significantly boost productivity, increase yields, and enhance

⁶ Killick, T. "Principal Agents and the Failings of Conditionality", *Journal of International Development*, Vol. 9, pp. 483-95, 1997

the resilience of farming systems to climate change and other challenges. Moreover, these improvements contribute to the modernization and efficiency of agricultural infrastructure, promoting sustainable practices and reducing post-harvest losses. Access to better agricultural technologies empowers farmers to adopt more efficient and profitable farming methods, ultimately contributing to food security, poverty reduction, and rural development. Additionally, technology-driven improvements in the agricultural sector can stimulate economic growth by generating employment opportunities, attracting investment, and fostering innovation and entrepreneurship within rural communities.

3. **Education:** Foreign aid in education generate multifaceted benefits, particularly in the construction of classrooms, training of teachers, and fulfillment of children's basic educational needs. Building classrooms expands access to education, especially in rural and underserved areas, fostering inclusivity and equity. Additionally, teacher training programs enhance tutorial skills and instructional quality, ensuring that educators are equipped to deliver effective learning experiences. As a result, children receive better-quality education, laying the foundation for their future success. Access to basic educational needs such as textbooks, learning materials, and facilities like libraries and laboratories further enriches the learning environment, promoting holistic development and critical thinking skills among students. The education extends beyond the classroom, recognizing that educating a child is equal to educating a woman, a family, and ultimately, an entire community. Education for girls and women, in particular, has far-reaching benefits, as educated women are more likely to make informed decisions about their health, family planning, and overall well-being.

4. **Health:** Foreign aid in the health sector is a comprehensive approach aimed at improving overall well-being and reducing disease burden. This includes advantages such as providing vaccinations to prevent communicable diseases, ensuring access to safe drinking water to prevent waterborne illnesses, implementing hygiene education programs to promote healthy behaviors, and improving basic sanitation infrastructure to prevent the spread of infections. These interventions work synergistically to enhance public health outcomes, reduce mortality rates, and improve quality of life. Vaccinations protect individuals and communities from preventable diseases, while access to safe drinking water reduces the risk of waterborne illnesses like cholera and typhoid fever. Hygiene education promotes awareness about proper sanitation practices, handwashing techniques, and disease.

5. **Humanitarian issues and natural disaster emergencies:** Humanitarian assistance reports the urgent needs of populations affected by natural disasters and humanitarian crises, providing life-saving support and protection to vulnerable individuals. In the aftermath of natural disasters such as earthquakes, floods, or hurricanes, humanitarian organizations deliver emergency aid including food, clean water, medical supplies, and shelter to those affected. Emergency shelters are constructed to provide temporary housing for displaced populations, offering refuge and safety during times of crisis. Additionally, efforts are made to ensure the protection and rights of displaced persons, including measures to prevent abuse, and discrimination.

6. **National security:** Foreign aid can certainly play a significant role in enhancing national security by addressing underlying factors that contribute to instability and insecurity. By targeting poverty, unemployment, weak institutions, and corruption, foreign aid can help mitigate conditions conducive to extremism and terrorism. Investments in economic development, education, and job creation can provide alternative opportunities for marginalized populations, reducing the appeal of extremist ideologies. The aid aimed at strengthening governance structures, promoting transparency, and combating corruption adopts stability and builds spirit against internal and external threats. By supporting efforts to enhance the rule of law, promote human rights, and strengthen democratic institutions, foreign aid contributes to the establishment of stable and secure societies. Additionally, aid that promotes regional cooperation and conflict resolution can help address underlying tensions and prevent conflicts from escalating into threats to national security.

The foreign aid represents a multidimensional instrument for promoting global development, peace, and security. Whether addressing humanitarian crises, fostering economic growth, enhancing education and healthcare, or strengthening governance and security, foreign aid plays a crucial role in improving the lives of millions around the world. By targeting root causes of instability such as poverty, inequality, and conflict, aid programs attempt to create sustainable solutions that empower individuals, communities, and nations to thrive. However, foreign aid effectiveness relies on strategic planning, coordination, and accountability mechanisms to ensure resources are utilized efficiently and transparently.

From these points of view, foreign aid was categorized as (a) Capital aid, (b) Commodity aid and (c) Technical aid and (d) Financial Aid

a. Capital aid:

Capital aid refers to the provision of capital in cash or in kind for the implementation of projects to support balance of payment. Capital aid is a form of foreign assistance specifically directed towards financing projects that contribute to the overall economic development of a recipient country, with a particular emphasis on addressing balance of payment challenges. This type of aid involves the provision of financial resources, either in the form of cash or in-kind contributions, to support the implementation of capital-intensive projects. These projects often include infrastructure development, such as building roads, bridges, power plants, or other essential facilities that enhance the economic capacity of the recipient nation. The primary objective of capital aid is to bolster the recipient country's ability to generate income, strengthen its economic foundation, and ultimately alleviate balance of payment issues by fostering sustainable growth.

The significance of capital aid lies in its capacity to address the structural and long-term economic challenges faced by developing nations. By targeting projects that contribute to the expansion and modernization of critical economic sectors, capital aid plays a crucial role in fostering self-sufficiency and reducing dependency on external financial support. It not only aids in mitigating immediate balance of payment concerns but also lays the groundwork for sustained economic progress, empowering nations to achieve greater financial stability and resilience in the face of global economic fluctuations.

b. Commodity aid:

Commodity aid is a form of foreign assistance characterized by the transfer of surplus goods or products from donor countries to recipient nations. This type of aid is often tangible, involving the direct supply of specific commodities, such as food, medicines, machinery, or other essential goods. The primary aim of commodity aid is to address immediate needs in recipient countries, especially during times of crisis, emergencies, or when there is a lack of vital resources. Donor countries contribute their surplus stocks to help alleviate pressing issues like food shortages, health crises, or infrastructure deficiencies in the recipient nations.

The provision of commodity aid plays an essential role in humanitarian and emergency relief efforts, offering tangible support to countries facing acute challenges. By directly supplying necessary goods, donor nations contribute to meeting the basic needs of populations in crisis or those struggling with economic and social hardships. However, it is essential to navigate potential challenges associated with commodity aid, such as ensuring the appropriateness of the provided goods, avoiding disruptions to local markets, and fostering

sustainable solutions to address the root causes of the challenges faced by the recipient countries.

c. Technical aid:

Technical aid involves the training of the recipient's nationals and provision of skilled foreign personnel expert to carry out the required development tasks in the recipient country. Technical aid represents a critical dimension of foreign assistance that focuses on knowledge and skill transfer to the recipient country. This form of aid is characterized by the training and capacity building of the recipient nation's citizens and the deployment of skilled foreign personnel with expertise in specific areas. Technical aid aims to enhance the human capital of the recipient country by imparting specialized knowledge and skills that are essential for sustainable development. Training programs, workshops, and educational initiatives are common components of technical aid, development self-sufficiency and empowering local communities to address challenges independently.

The provision of skilled foreign personnel is another facet of technical aid, involving experts who collaborate with local counterparts to execute specific development tasks. These experts contribute valuable insights, experience, and technical knowledge, supplementing the recipient country's capabilities. This collaborative approach not only facilitates the successful implementation of development projects but also promotes knowledge sharing and the cultivation of a skilled workforce within the recipient nation.

d. Financial aid:

Financial aid takes the form of either grants or loans. Grants are usually gifts, not requiring repayment. They do not have repayment liability so they should be used in the projects with long gestation period such as social services. Loans on the contrary must be repaid. It generates the reserve flow from the recipient countries. Loans are of three types according to the period of maturity, they are long terms, mid-term, and short term. According to hardness of condition loans are classified into two types: soft loan and tied loans. They are differed according to the interest rate charged per annum and provision of payback period. Regarding tied and untied aid, tied aid is conditional aid and untied aid is unconditional or free from the obligation of procurement from donor country. Regarding motives, it is provided for different purpose such as humanitarian, political, strategic, and economic motives. In initial stage of development, foreign aid is indispensable. It is an economic necessity. Even the highly developed countries of present days took foreign aid in the initial stage of their development. They are the countries like UK, USA, USSR, Japan, and European countries.

1.4 Official Development Assistance to Nepal

Foreign aid has long been instrumental in shaping the development paths of numerous countries, especially those in the developing world, and Nepal. Over the years, Nepal has relied on foreign aid to support various aspects of its development agenda. Whether it was big infrastructure, improving healthcare and education, or addressing poverty, foreign aid was main source. As a recipient of foreign aid, Nepal has benefited from the support and collaboration of the international community.

The initiation of bilateral aid from the United States in 1951 marked a significant turning point, coinciding with Nepal's decision to open its borders to the global community. Subsequently, Nepal officially joined the ranks of aid-receiving countries when the entire budget of its first development plan (1956-1960) was funded through foreign aid. This underscores the critical role foreign assistance played in catalyzing Nepal's early development efforts, providing the financial resources necessary for foundational projects and initiatives.

Over the years, the continuity of foreign aid to Nepal has witnessed substantial growth, as indicated by data from the OECD report. In 1960, Nepal received Official Development Assistance (ODA) amounting to US\$60.170 million yearly. Fast-forward to 2020, and this figure had increased significantly to US\$1,756.90 million yearly.⁷ The steady rise in foreign aid reflects the international community's ongoing commitment to supporting Nepal's development initiatives. The aid has been instrumental in funding projects spanning various sectors, including infrastructure, education, healthcare, and poverty alleviation, contributing to the overall socio-economic advancement of the country.

Balancing the need for external support with long-term strategies for economic self-sufficiency remains a key challenge. Nepal's experience exemplifies the intricate relationship between foreign aid and national development, highlighting both the opportunities and challenges associated with relying on external assistance for sustained progress.

1.4.1 Total ODA to Developing countries, Asia, South and Central Asia and Nepal

Over the five decades spanning from 1960 to 2020 (see table:1.1), the Official Development Assistance (ODA) extended to developing countries, as documented in the provided data, illustrates a substantial increase in financial support. The total ODA to

⁷ OECD, Data extracted on 25 Sep 2022 11:28 UTC (GMT) from OECD.Stat

developing nations soared from US\$483,384.09 million in the 1960s to an impressive US\$1,854,330.08 million in the 2010s. This trajectory reflects the global community's heightened commitment to aiding developing regions, driven by a combination of humanitarian concerns, geopolitical strategies, and efforts to promote economic development. The data underscores the growing significance of international cooperation in addressing socio-economic challenges, with a particular emphasis on Asia, where ODA increased from US\$221,658.54 million in the 1960s to US\$566,603.00 million in the 2010s.

Table no 1- 1: Total ODA to Developing countries, Asia, South and Central Asia and Nepal

Total ODA			US\$ in million	
Year	Developing Countries, in Total	Asia in Total	South & Central Asia, Total	Nepal
1960-1970	483,384.09	221,658.54	113,867.59	1,035.65
1971-1980	737,572.51	302,051.06	107,170.98	2,056.61
1981-1990	1,006,427.84	332,906.61	118,781.38	5,061.73
1991-2000	934,301.26	314,366.52	93,380.18	4,530.41
2001-2010	1,234,767.89	387,126.01	153,157.82	5,531.40
2011-2020	1,854,330.08	566,603.00	258,017.72	11,480.64
Total	6,250,783.67	2,124,711.74	844,375.67	29,696.44

Source: OECD, Data extracted on 25 Sep 2022 11:28 UTC (GMT) from OECD. Stat

Increasing in on South and Central Asia, author observed a consistent rise in ODA, reaching a total of US\$844,375.67 million over the entire period. Correspondingly, Nepal, as a specific recipient within this sub-region, experienced a remarkable increase from US\$1,035.65 million in the 1960s to US\$11,480.64 million in the 2010s. This underscores the evolving priorities and targeted assistance efforts over the years. The data reflects the collaborative efforts of the international community in supporting the development countries.

1.5 Total ODA to Nepal

Official Development Assistance (ODA) plays a significant role in shaping the development of nations, particularly those like Nepal, which rely heavily on external assistance to address pressing socio-economic challenges.

Total Official Development Assistance (ODA) to Nepal serves as a vital source of support for the country's development endeavors, encompassing financial aid, technical expertise, and capacity-building initiatives. According to recent data from the Nepal Ministry of Finance and reports from international organizations such as the OECD, Total ODA to Nepal has shown notable fluctuations over the past decade.

Over the duration of six decades, from the 1960s to 2020 (see in table:1.2), Nepal's journey with ODA reflects a complex tapestry of opportunities and challenges.

In the 1960s, Nepal's economic landscape was characterized by limited domestic resources and underdeveloped infrastructure. During this period, ODA emerged as a lifeline, providing vital financial support to kickstart development initiatives and bolster the country's nascent economy. The influx of ODA enabled Nepal to embark on ambitious projects aimed at improving healthcare, education, transportation, and agriculture, laying the groundwork for future growth and progress.

The late 1970s seen a significant uptick in ODA to Nepal, driven by increased international interest in the country's strategic location and development potential. Multilateral programs, spearheaded by institutions like the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank (ADB), injected substantial funds into Nepal's development agenda, fueling infrastructure development, poverty alleviation efforts, and capacity-building initiatives.

The 1980s marked a period of rapid economic expansion fueled by robust ODA inflows. Nepal experienced a surge in total assistance, reflecting a growing commitment from donor countries and international organizations to support the country's development aspirations.

In the early 1990s, Nepal experienced a significant increase in Official Development Assistance (ODA) attributed to the advent of democracy in the country. The transition towards democratic governance sparked optimism among international donors, who saw Nepal as a promising candidate for development assistance. The establishment of democratic institutions

and the promise of political stability encouraged donors to invest in Nepal's socio-economic development, channeling resources into various projects aimed at infrastructure development, education, healthcare, and poverty alleviation.

However, as the late 1990s unfolded, Nepal faced a new challenge with the outbreak of the Maoist insurgency. The escalation of conflict and political instability associated with the insurgency caused concern among donors. Fearing that their investments might be jeopardized by the conflict, many donors began to withdraw or decrease their ODA to Nepal. The uncertainty surrounding the conflict, coupled with reports of human rights abuses and disruptions to development efforts, led to a loss of confidence among donors.

Consequently, the late 1990s seen a decline in ODA to Nepal as donors became more cautious and risk-averse in their approach. The Maoist war not only disrupted development initiatives but also created a challenging environment for aid organizations to operate effectively. The 2000s observed renewed efforts to leverage ODA for targeted interventions in key sectors such as infrastructure, education, and healthcare. Nepal's partnership with international donors deepened, leading to innovative projects and programs aimed at addressing emerging challenges such as urbanization, and social inequality. The 2010s represented a period of reflection and recalibration in Nepal's approach to ODA.

Table no 1-2: Total ODA to Nepal

Year	US\$ Million	Increased %
1960-1970	1,035.65	-
1971-1980	2,056.61	98.58
1981-1990	5,061.73	146.12
1991-2000	4,530.41	-10.5
2001-2010	5,531.40	22.09
2010-2020	11,480.64	107.55
Total	29,696.44	

Source: [OECD, Data extracted on 25 Sep 2022 11:28 UTC \(GMT\) from OECD.Stat](#)

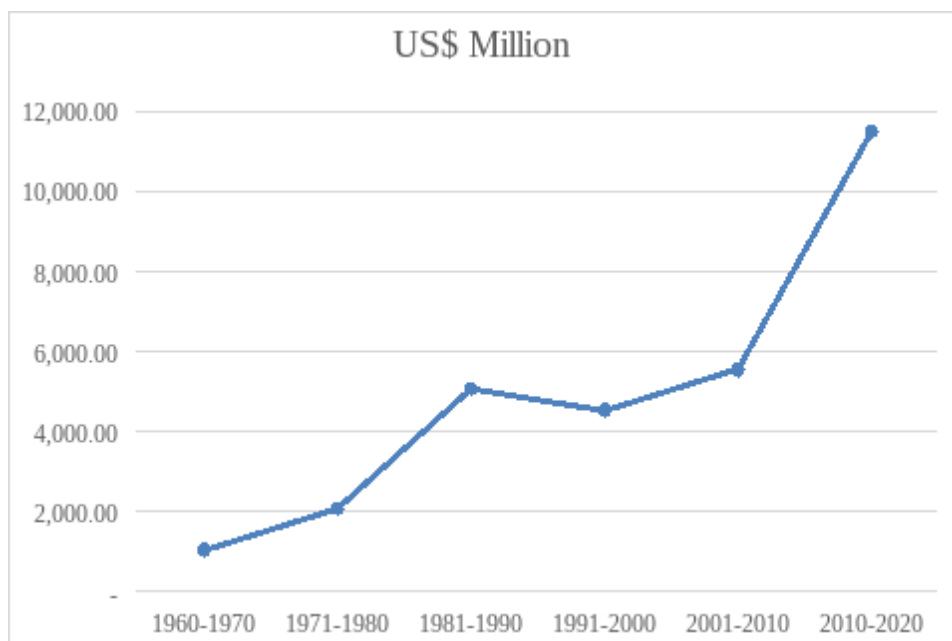
The table provides a comprehensive breakdown of Nepal's Official Development Assistance (ODA) across different decades, offering insights into the country's evolving relationship with international aid. In the 1960s, Nepal received approximately US\$ 1,035.65 million in ODA, indicating early efforts by the global community to support the nation's

development aspirations. This period likely saw investments in basic infrastructure, education, and healthcare, laying the groundwork for future development initiatives. The subsequent decade, from 1971 to 1980, observed a substantial uptick in ODA, reaching US\$ 2,056.61 million. This significant increase reflects heightened international attention and investment in Nepal's development, possibly driven by emerging development priorities and growing partnerships between Nepal and donor countries and organizations.

The favorable trend continued throughout the 1980s, when Nepal had a spectacular increase in ODA, reaching \$5,061.73 million. This significant gain, representing a 146.12 % increase over the preceding decade, demonstrates continued international support for Nepal's Development.

However, the 1990s saw a slight downturn in ODA, decreasing to US\$ 4,530.41 million, possibly influenced by internal conflicts and economic uncertainties. This period marked by political transitions and civil unrest may have impacted donor confidence and aid effectiveness, leading to a relative decrease in assistance compared to the preceding decade.

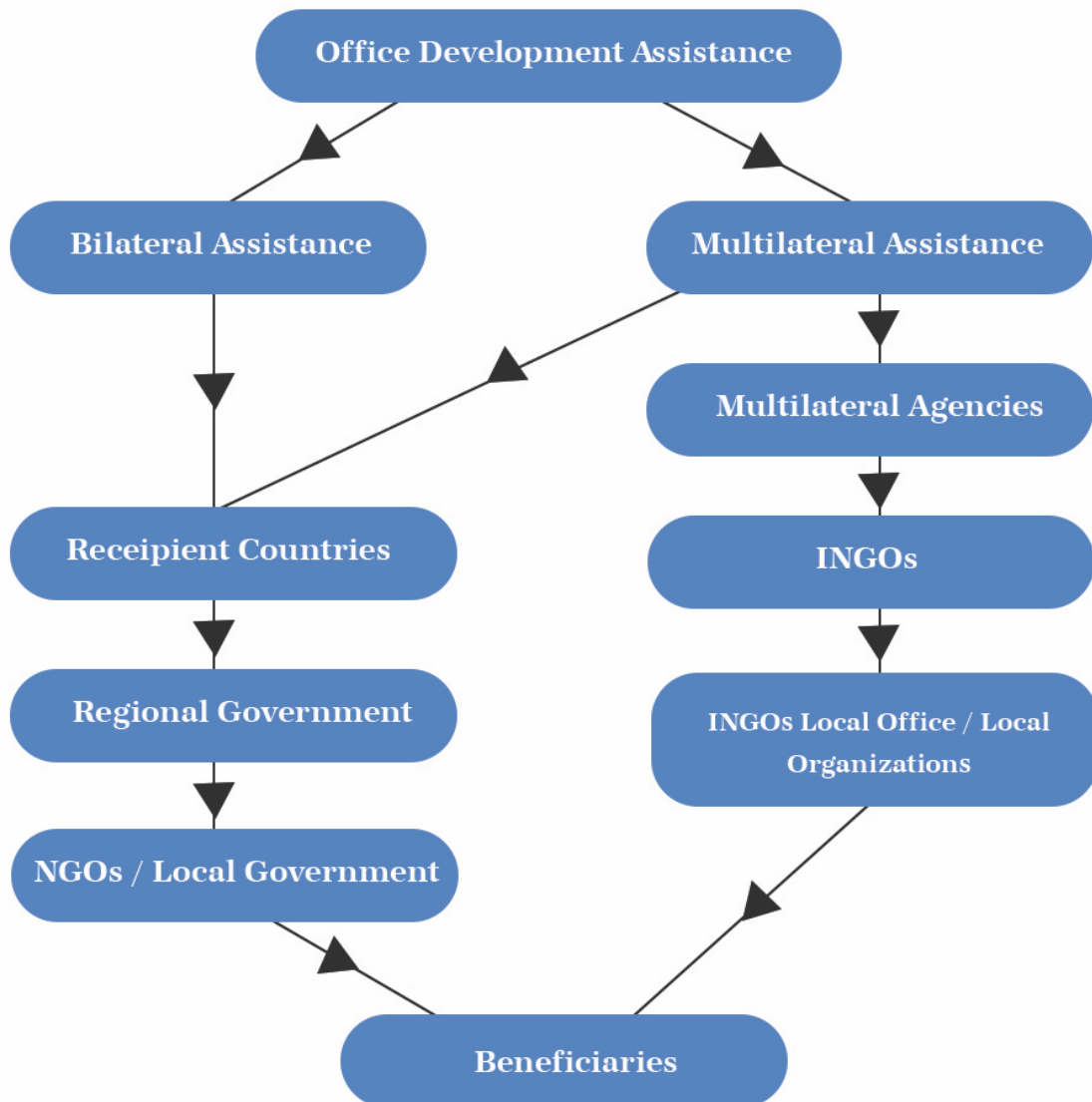
Figure 1: Total ODA to Nepal



The early 2000s witnessed a resurgence in ODA, totaling US\$ 5,531.40 million, indicating renewed international support for Nepal's development activities. This increase likely coincided with efforts to address the impacts of past conflicts, enhance governance structures, and accelerate progress towards global development targets. Moreover, the most notable surge occurred from 2010 to 2020, where ODA more than doubled to US\$ 11,480.64

million. This significant rise underscores growing recognition of Nepal's development needs and the imperative of international cooperation in addressing complex challenges.

Chart 1- 1: Official Development Assistance Flow Chart



1.6 Applied Approaches in International Development

In the series of development, various approaches are employed to address the complicated experiments faced by communities and societies worldwide. These approaches involve a spectrum ranging from centralized governance models to decentralized grassroots

initiatives, each with its distinct emphasis on sectoral development, technological innovation, or sustainability. Some agencies adopt centralized approaches, aligning with national government and institutions to implement large-scale development projects aimed to achieve development goal. The decentralized approaches prioritize community empowerment, economic growth of marginalized groups and local development promoting bottom-up solutions tailored to the specific needs and contexts of local people. Additionally, sectoral, and tech-led approaches control advancements in specific sectors or technological innovations to drive economic growth and societal progress.

Here are the approaches exercised in International Cooperation (see more in details in Chapter 2.2.1)

i. Centralized development approach: The Centralized Development Approach signifies to a method of planning and implementing development initiatives where decision-making and control are concentrated within a central authority, typically the government or a higher administrative body. In this approach, development policies, programs, and resource allocation are determined at the top level and then circulated downwards for implementation.

ii. Sectoral, technology-led, green revolution, irrigation development approach: This approach is a multifaceted strategy aimed at bolstering agricultural productivity and food security, particularly in regions grappling with low yields and food shortages. This approach encompasses targeted interventions within specific sectors, leveraging modern technologies and practices to enhance efficiency and sustainability. The strategy prioritizes the development like irrigation infrastructure to ensure reliable water access for crop cultivation, recognizing the critical role of water in agricultural production.

iii. Special area or target group, ADP, and IRDP, NGOs and private sector approach: In this approach major financial institutions prioritized poverty reduction and rural development through specific area and target groups. such Area Development Programs (ADPs), Integrated Rural Development Programs (IRDPs), and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and the private sectors. In this approach focused on community development programs, decentralization, participation, community empowerment and development of local institutions as earlier approaches.

iv. Community Based Organization Approach: In this approach, organizations are formed and managed by members of a community to address local needs and promote

community development. CBOs typically operate at the local level and are composed of community members with local government, and they come together to identify issues, plan, and implement solutions, and advocate for change. It works in collaboration with other stakeholders, such as NGOs, government agencies, and donor organizations.

v. **Community-Driven Development Approach:** this approach initiated in the mid-1990s, revolutionized development strategies by delivering communities with full control over project decision-making and implementation. Contrasting previous approaches where donor agencies or governments dominated planning, CDD empowers communities to take charge of their own development processes. This shift towards community ownership has proven successful, particularly in developing countries, due to its emphasis on active community participation at every stage, from project planning to execution. CDD places a strong focus on community empowerment, ensuring the inclusion of marginalized groups such as women, ethnic minorities, and vulnerable populations in decision-making processes.

vi. **Local Community-Driven Development:** In the mid-2000s, Local Community-Driven Development (LCDD) emerged as a paradigm shift in development approaches, focusing on grassroots participation and decision-making. LCDD emphasized partnerships between local communities and government institutions, empowering local governments to work closely with community members in planning, implementing, and monitoring projects. This collaborative approach was particularly effective in emergency and post-conflict situations, facilitating resource mobilization and promoting social cohesion. LCDD's success in diverse contexts highlights the importance of decentralized decision-making and community ownership in driving positive change at the grassroots level.

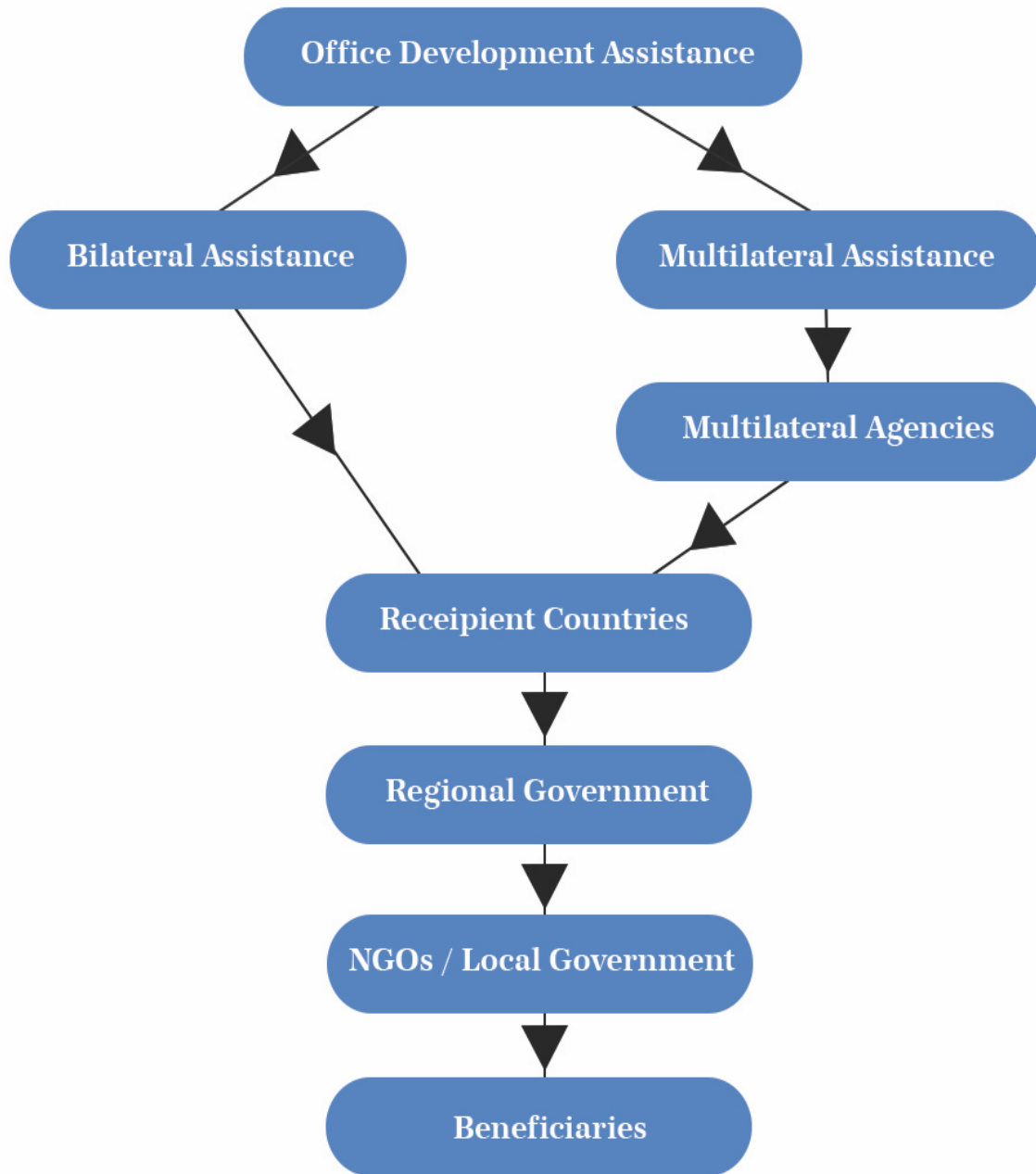
1.7 Community-Driven Development Approach

In the middle of 1990s, the Community-Driven Development (hereinafter referred to as CDD) strategies emerged in aid sector. It was a popular and reliable development plan in community because it provided control of the project selection, full authority of decision making to the community.

CDD gave control of decisions and resources to community groups. These groups often worked in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers, including elected local governments, the private sector, Non-government organizations

(NGOs), and central government agencies. CDD was a way to provide social and infrastructure services, to organize economic activities and resource management, to empower poor people, to improve governance, and to enhance security of the poorest communities.⁸

Chart 1- 2: ODA Chart Flow in CDD approach



⁸ Philippe Dongier, Julie Van Domelen, Elinor Ostrom, Andrea Rizvi, Wendy Wakeman, Anthony Bebbington, Sabina Alkire, Talib Esmail, and Margaret Polski, Community-Driven Development, Research gate, January 2004

CDD principles emphasized that community groups control their own development resources. In practice, however, questions remained as to how to distinguish the 'community' within which villagers' groups, or their representatives that could exercise collective control and that under the local elite dominance.⁹

The concept of the CDD was to build mechanisms for community to exercise resource control and stakeholder involvement in the process, which facilitates community access to information.

The aggregate of the actual or potential resources which were linked to possession of a durable network of institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition'(Bourdieu,1986). In his conceptualization of social capital, defined it as the amalgamation of tangible and potential resources intricately tied to the possession of enduring networks of institutionalized relationships. This nuanced definition emphasizes the multifaceted nature of social capital, encompassing both concrete assets and latent advantages. Bourdieu's characterization underlines the importance of ownership and control over these resources within durable social networks, highlighting that social capital is not only about the immediate benefits but also about the potential for sustained advantages over time. Moreover, the emphasis on institutionalized relationships underscores the significance of structured and organized social connections, whether within familial, professional, or community contexts, reflecting a deliberate and purposeful aspect of social capital formation. The mutual acquaintance or recognition within these networks reinforces the idea of reciprocity, emphasizing that social capital operates through a framework of mutual understanding and collaboration.

In essence, Bourdieu's perspective encourages a holistic view of social capital that goes beyond mere social connections, recognizing it as a dynamic and strategic accumulation of resources embedded within enduring social structures. This approach enhances our understanding of how individuals and communities navigate social landscapes to access and leverage the diverse benefits inherent in their network of relationships.

⁹ Fang, K. (2006). "Designing and implementing a community-driven development program in Indonesia." *Development in Practice* 16(1): 74-79.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the author includes previous studies in the fields of ODA and CDD approach. Opinions of intellectuals, books, papers, and valued surveys of scholarly sources are used to review the preceding studies. And the author discussed his preceding research review, published in different papers.

2.1 Literature Review

To review the existing literature on foreign aid effectiveness in relation to the narrow scope of this thesis, it is reasonable to look at studies about the role of foreign aid in poverty alleviation from two perspectives: economic growth - led and agriculture –led poverty reduction schemes.

Mihaly (1965) describes foreign aid as a post war phenomenon. He emphasized the importance of foreign aid is for the world's mutuality. In primary notion, he describes foreign aid as a basic "economic assistance" often regarded as a means of financing development rather than as a political tool. He further says that "In the aftermath of the Second World War, political necessities arising from changes in the world imposed a new dimension on diplomacy. The great power had ambition in Asia and Africa that traditional diplomatic methods could not serve".¹⁰

Foreign aid comprises grants or loans that one government or multilateral organization avails to a developing country to promote economic development and welfare. In other words, any money that benefits a developing country in granting concessional loans or non-concessional from a bilateral or multilateral organization is considered as foreign aid. To be foreign aid, it should be undertaken by the official agencies, bilateral or multilateral. It must be taken with the main aim of economic development for the welfare of the recipient country and not for profit motive.

When most economists talk about the effectiveness and role of foreign in combating poverty (rural and urban), they largely refer to its impact on the economic growth of the recipient states if economic growth leads to poverty reduction in the developing countries. World Bank specialists Ravallion and Chen (1997) analyzing 109 household survey results from 42

¹⁰ Mihaly, Eugene bramer, "Foreign Aid and Politics in Nepal: A Case Study", Oxford University Press, 1965, Pp. vii, 202.

developing and transitional countries find a strong association between the rate of economic growth and the incidence of poverty. Moreover, their findings suggest that the increase of the growth rate of the average household living standards is not accompanied by the increase in unequal income distribution. Further, their colleagues at World Bank, Dollar, and Kraay (2001) state empirically that the income of the poorest fifth of the society increases by the same proportion as the average income of the country rises. Acknowledging the importance of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), as well as national programs designed to boost economic growth in developing countries, they nevertheless, state that improvement of the living standards of the poor cannot be achieved by relying on growth only. Rather, economic growth should be selected as a target in the design and implementation of poverty reduction strategies with much focus on such growth-enhancing factors as good rule of law, open trade policies and macroeconomic stability. The World Development Report (2006) “Equity and Development” advises that a focus on equity is paramount when designing and implementing policies for growth and development stressing that economic growth and equity working complementarily can help achieve poverty reduction goals in the developing world.

Guided by these notions (economic growth-led poverty alleviation), the role of foreign aid in the process of poverty mitigation is assessed by testing if and how it affects the economic growth of the recipient states.

Despite the several publication and empirical studies in foreign assistance, there is still huge debate among the economists about the role of foreign aid in economic development. In the context of foreign aid, several books, booklets, journals, magazines, and article written by many Nepalese as well as foreign authors. There is huge debate for and against foreign aid. The economist like Rostow, Millikan, P. Hoftman and Rosenstein Rodan accorded a top priority to foreign aid in economic development. Rosenstein Rodan assumed that the internal economic aid would have two impacts, firstly mobilization of domestic saving, and secondly increasing rate of investment. According to him “Aid should be allocated where it will have the maximum catalytic effect of mobilizing additional efforts or preventing a fall in national efforts”.

Higgins (1968) emphasized the importance of foreign aid by saying that, the availability or absence of foreign aid of the right kind and in the right amount might take the difference between success or failure of a country’s own effort to launch a process of sustained economic growth. The most obvious thing is that foreign aid can fill the gap between capital requirements

for take-off into sustained growth and domestic capital for saving and required investment. He has explained the usefulness of foreign aid for the construction of roads, dams, electricity projects etc. So, the capital requirements of LDCs are not as high as that of developed and fast-growing economy. Because the development works on LDCs is equate with public utilities and often with necessities. He further emphasizes the importance of foreign aid due to low saving investment ratio in developing countries. Since it is unlikely that measures to increase voluntarily domestic saving along or even measures for voluntary and compulsory saving together could provide all the financial sources needed for development of underdeveloped countries. However, foreign aid has been a fundamental aspect, without which development process get obstructed in long-run.¹¹

Miskell (1968) states that foreign aid is closely associated with economic performance in two basic ways. First, various types of aid may provide a means of including policies and programs, which lead to improved performance. Second, aid may facilitate the implementation of policy for promoting improved performance necessary to achieve development goals. The goal of concessionary aid is to help countries achieve a level of performance which will enable them to develop at a satisfactory pace through the efficient use of their own resources. Thus, the function of concessionary aid is not primary to supplement the resources of recipient but rather to help the recipient mobilize its own resources and perhaps to attract public and private non concessionary external capital for achieving its development goals. In the theoretical literature on foreign aid, there is a tendency to identify self-help with actual performance in terms of certain quantitative indicators. Thus, an increase in the saving ratio constitutes an important indicator of self-help, assuming that if a government adopt correct policies the saving ratio will rise, similarly an increase in the rate of growth in exports and in investment are regarded as indicator of self-help.¹²

Samuel and Gupta (1993) said that foreign economic aid is intended to promote the economic development process in recipient developing countries. However, aid is given out of mixed motives viz. commercial, humanitarian, and strategic reasons. At one extreme is aid in its purest form and at the other end is said that is hardly aid because it is given in the form of loans with strings attached. The strings take the form of requiring the recipient country to purchase equipment materials etc. from the donor countries, usually at prices that are higher

11 Higgins, The Pakistan Development Review, 1968 retrieved from <http://www.pide.org.pk/pdr/index.php/pdr/article/viewFile/2659/2626>.

12 Miskell, R.F., The Economics of Foreign aid, Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company. 1968

than from alternative sources. Hence the actual net benefit to be recipient country from the least pure forms of aid can be zero or even negative. They further said that aid to be given and received there must obviously be a maturity of interest between donors and receiver. But the balance of interest within the framework of mutuality could determine the effectiveness of the aid for economic development. The implication is that the aid will have limited development effects if it is given mainly to further the commercial and political interest of the donor government or alternatively although given in the interest of the recipient country; it is utilized inefficiently by the recipient government. Basil (2000) evaluate the development assistance from the practical as well as theoretical point of view. He elaborated the techniques and method of aid evaluating cost benefit analysis, Unintended Effect and Rating (Scoring system). He discussed on a basic issue for the need of aid evaluation, why evaluate? For accountability or for lesson learning. On his book he explained a distinction between the accountability and lesson learning as the objective of aid evaluation. And he said that aid evaluation is vitally important for the lesson learning objective whose basic aim is to improve future performance.¹³

Todaro and Smith (2003) explain that, in principle, all governmental resources transferred from one country to another should be included in the definition of foreign aid. Even this simple definition, however, raises several problems. For one thing many resources transfers can take distinguished forms, such as the granting of preferential tariffs by developed countries to LDCs exports of manufactured goods. This permits LDCs to sell their industrial products in developed country markets at higher prices than would otherwise be possible. There is consequently a net gain for LDCs and a net loss for developed countries, which amounts to a real resource transfer to the LDCs, such implicit capital transfers or disguised flow should be counted in qualifying foreign aid flows. Normally however they are not¹⁴

Radelet (2006) concludes that aid can keep bad governments in power for too long, and can undermine incentives for saving, tax collection and private sector production. Aid relationships are made much more difficult by a complex chain of principal agent problems that weaken information flows, introduce myriad motivations for different actors and make monitoring and accountability more difficult. He also argues that the aid growth relationship is conditional on the policy or institutional environment but many of those results have been fragile.¹⁵

13 Samuel, S.N., & Gupta, D.B. Issues in applied economics, Australia: Macmillan Education Australia Pvt. Ltd. 1993

14 Todaro, M.P., & Smith S.C. Economic development. Dorling Kindersley(India) Pvt. Ltd. 200, licensees of Pearson Education in south Asia Oil, P.P. (2003)

15 Radelet, S. A primer on foreign aid, Center for Global Development, July, 2006

Shirazi, Mannap and Ali (2009) state that foreign aid has been a contributory towards fostering broad based development and complementing national development initiatives in the recipient countries. Like many capitals scarce nations, it conspicuously relies on foreign aid to finance saving investment gap and trade gap. The overarching aim of aid is to realize the national development strategy and prevail over the capacity gaps in effective public service delivery. In the country issue paper of The Colombo Plan: Development perspectives: says that Nepal must continue to rely on increasing external assistance for undertaking increasing development projects for two reasons. Firstly, the amount of internal resources mobilization less than what is required. Secondly, increasing current account balance deficit along with negative trade balance are affecting the economy adversely. The paper outlines the task ahead for the Nepal as; Nepal is in her critical stage of development. Her low production base, increasing trade deficits, the adverse current account balance. In this context, demand management alone is not sufficient for correction imbalances the economy. Therefore, it is imperative to improve the supply situation. For all foreign aid is necessary.¹⁶

Poudyal (1983) found a positive association between foreign aid and saving by using correlation and regression analysis. The study is based on the secondary data and materials and field observation. The main findings of the study are (a) foreign aid is being concentrated on infrastructure and neglected other sectors, (b) positive effect of foreign aid is more on saving than on consumption, (c) the GDP, domestic saving and consumption are highly stable function of foreign aid, (d) elasticity between GDP and domestic saving is higher than that of between GDP and foreign aid. Further he concluded that if aid is utilized in road construction, maximum benefits from roads can be obtained only if in areas opened by roads complementary development programs are lunched simultaneously like agriculture and industry etc. The study shows that there is a positive association between foreign aid and saving. Foreign aid is contributing to increase national efficiency through positive effect on income, saving and consumption. The level of GDP is also positively related to the inflow of foreign aid. The main objectives of this study were to examine whether the project is financed by foreign aid on GDP, saving and consumption.¹⁷

Poudyal (1988) performed regression analysis by using data from 1964 to 1982, between foreign aid and economic growth and aid and domestic saving. He found that foreign aid had a

16 Shirazi, N.S., Mannap, T.A.A., & Ali M. Effectiveness of foreign aid and human development, The Pakistan Development Review. 2009, 48 (4). retrieved From <http://www.pide.org.pk/pdr/index.php/pdr/article/viewFile/2659/2626>.

17 Poudyal, S.R., Impact of foreign aid on Nepal's development. Tribhuvan University: Center for Economic Development and Administration.1982

significant positive effect of GDP. The result shows a reasonably good overall fit. He has concluded that foreign aid in Nepal positively contributed to the country's GDP growth but substituted domestic saving. He also estimated the model using five years lag of aid. For that one- and two-year lag, the coefficients were found smaller and negative. But for the four- and five-year lag, the coefficient was positive and larger. Thus, he claimed that the long-running aid funded projects did not contribute to the economy in short run. The negative short run relationship between aid and growth was attributed to the use of domestic resources to support these long runs running foreign financed projects. However, descriptive data analysis made by Poudyal shows that there was more than 50 percent contribution of foreign aid to financing the development plans. The existing gap between foreign aid commitment and disbursement and aid utilization capacity of Nepalese economy was the main problem in this regard. His data analysis also found a noticeable shifts of foreign aid from transport and industry towards agriculture, power, and social services.¹⁸

Khadka (1991) said that Nepal relies heavily on foreign aid and donors coordinate development policy through the Nepal development forum; whose members include donor countries, international financial institutions, and international governmental organizations. Its reliance on aid increased 45 percent development expenditure in 1975 to about 56 percent in 1986 and aid GDP ratio increased from 2.6 percent to 6.9 percent during the same period. According to him, aid has not been effective in alleviation poverty in Nepal. On the contrary aid has created dualisms between urban and rural areas in terms of consumption, and it further widen gaps between haves and have not and social disparities is still growing. Aid neither helps to attain the goals nor to establish institutional political machineries. Hence, aid failed to alleviate poverty of the country because it was unable to grasp most of the population who live in rural areas. He has stated that the economic condition has not improved in Nepal despite the priority of aid because of an increase in the basic needs to the poor and rural development. Further, he stated that aid has contributed to the creation of physical capacity, but this has failed to create the necessary condition for breaking the barriers of development. It is stated that in fact declined in real terms by the 1970s and aid endorsed by international organizations and bodies remained unfulfilled. Finally, he added that learning from crisis is better than becoming chronically dependent on aid.¹⁹

18 Poudyal, S.R. Foreign trade, aid and development in Nepal, Commonwealth Publishers, New Delhi 1988

19 Khadka, N. "Foreign aid, poverty, and stagnation in Nepal", Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd India, 1991

Shrestha (2002) by analyzing sectorial distribution of Japanese aid found that Japanese grant assistance has highly concentrated in debt relief measures, transport, agriculture, power, and water supply. Japanese grant assistance has been provided to the industrial sector also but in little amount. In the industrial sector loan has also been provided which is NRs. 4240.3 million in amount. Similarly in the power sector loan has been provided of NRs. 9993.4 million. In an aggregate NR. 7631.4 millions of Japanese assistance is in the form of grant assistance while NRs. 14233.7 million is in the form of loan assistance.²⁰

Katuwal (2003) by comparing Japanese and US aid to Nepal After Restoration of Democracy concluded that most of the assistance provided by Japan was disbursed in communication (17.15%), transport (15.50%), economic management (12.83%), disaster preparedness (12.71%) sectors and on the other hand most of the assistance provided by US was disbursed in health (34.80%), human resource development (16.04%), agriculture (20.21%) and economic management (7.87%) sectors for the period of 1990-1999. It shows that the increase in Japanese assistance has been comparatively greater than that of US assistance and furthermore he states that percentage and amount of Japanese aid is significantly greater than US aid. He found that for the period of 1990-1999 amount of total Japanese aid disbursed in Nepal is \$ 673.75 million and amount of total US aid disbursed in Nepal is \$ 190.43 million.²¹

Lohani (2004) uses ordinary least square method to find out the effect of foreign aid on development and found all the variables except social aid have the expected signs, and all of them are significant at the 0.05 or 0.01 level. He found that the coefficient of FDI, domestic investment and GDP per capita have a positive impact on HDI. Further he states that countries receive a greater amount of aid if their total savings are low. Poorer countries usually have some of the lowest saving rates, and thus they receive more aid based on such a calculation of aid allocation. Further he found that FDI positively influences human development. When FDI as a share of GDP increases by one percentage, HDI increases by 0.00435, other things being same. Similarly, the regression analysis shows that an increase in domestic investment by one percent increases the HDI by 0.0035. Therefore, domestic investment towards schools, roads and hospitals plays a significant role in promoting the well-being of people.²²

20 Shrestha, P.P. Nepal and foreign aid with special reference to Japanese, Master's Thesis, Tribhuvan University Center Department of Economics, 2002

21 Katuwal, H.B. "A comparative study of Japanese and American aid to Nepal after restoration of democracy", Masters thesis, Tribhuvan University 2003.

22 Lohani Satish, "Effect of Foreign Aid on Development: Does More Money Bring More Development?" Honors Projects, Paper 18, Illinois Wesleyan University, 2004

2.2 Preceding Research and Review

To truly grasp the inner workings of international cooperation, it's crucial to study the strategies employed by influential institutions like the World Bank. The main focus is clear up the reasons behind the widespread use of the community-driven development approach globally. This exploration serves as a steppingstone for a detailed investigation into specific cases, such as the empowerment of women through community-driven projects in Nepal. The aim is to uncover the complex dynamics involved in fostering sustainable and inclusive development practices. Through examination of previous research, this chapter seeks to connect the motivations behind the World Bank's and ADB's strategy with the on-the-ground impacts, especially those concerning the empowerment of women in Nepal through community-driven development projects. This approach provides a comprehensive understanding of how international cooperation and grassroots development efforts are intertwined.

2.2.1 Why is WB (World Bank) widely adopting CDD (Community-Driven Development) approach in International Cooperation?

1. Introduction

Developing countries are usually recipients of foreign aid to run economic activities and development. Wise use of available resources, whether it is capital, financial or technical aid is imperative.

A group of people living in the same place or area is called a community. Either in developed or developing nations there are many communities for many goals, they make plans to achieve a goal. Community forms itself depending on their desire. It exists not only from few years or decades but from the time of human beings existing on the earth in different forms. The people from the community are familiar with their desires and needs in their community.

1. Series of Development approach:

After World War II, major financial institutions were established to support economic growth in war affected countries and least developed countries, such as World Bank, International Monetary Fund, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Afterward, regional and continental institutions were established as European Investment Bank, Asian Development Bank, Islamic Development Bank, African Development Bank, Inter-American Development Bank etc. The major concerns for all of institution is the development of its continent and developing countries in the world. Different development models were experienced by the time.

vii. Centralized Development Approach: In period of 1950s, when it was a time of post war, to come out the economic growth this model was exercised. In some countries like India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Indonesia, and other developing countries, obtained independence from colonization and separated in same period. In early period, they had challenges to govern the government and develop the country. In this approach community participation was minimal. Comilla Rural Development Program in Bangladesh was one of example.

viii. Sectoral, technology-led, green revolution, irrigation development approach: during the period of 1960s the development approach was replaced by sectoral approach. This

approach put emphasis on specific sector such as irrigation programs, technologies, green revolution. In this program, target groups were economically poor groups. In this approach, community participation was adopted but took form of consultation. When the project was finalized then administrators went to consult with community.

ix. Special area or target group, ADP, and IRDP, NGOs and private sector approach: in 1970s and 1980s the major financial institutions were involved in poverty reduction and rural development, by focusing on special area and target group were defined by special boundaries. Such as Area Development Program (ADP), Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP), Non-Government Organization (NGO) and private sector. In this approach focused on community development programs, decentralization, participation, community empowerment and development of local institutions as earlier approaches.

x. Community Based Organization Approach: in period of 1990s donor organizations focused on community participation by mediating NGOs but the planning phase was dominated by the donor agencies and recipient government. Somehow community was allowed participation in planning their project but through the NGOs.

xi. Community-Driven Development Approach: this approach has been developed mid 1990s and handed over all control over the project to the community. This approach was successful in developing countries because of community participation from planning to implement phase. This approach put emphasis on community empowerment through women groups, ethnic groups, and vulnerable groups' participation in the important decision of the projects.

xii. Local Community-Driven Development: in mid-2000, in countries which succeeded in administrative decentralization, local government developed another approach to respect dialogue between communities and local government. This approach was practiced in Mexico, Brazil, Indonesia, West Africa. It was widely used in emergency and post conflict situation.

As we know that development approach has been changed over time. Currently, the Community-Driven Development approach is popular among the donor agencies and recipient developing countries.

According to the World Bank, Community-driven development (CDD) programs operate on the principles of transparency, participation, accountability, and enhancement of

local capacity. From experience, it has been shown that when given clear and transparent rules, access to information, and appropriate technical and financial support, poor communities can effectively organize themselves to identify community priorities and address local problems. They can work in partnership with local governments and other institutions to build small-scale infrastructure and deliver basic services.²³

Since the mid-1990s, community-driven development has come out as one of the fastest-growing development interventions by NGOs, aid organizations and multilateral development banks. This continued investment in CDD has been driven mostly by a demand from donor agencies and developing countries to implement large-scale, bottom-up and demand driven, poverty reduction subprojects that can increase the institutional capacity of small communities for self-development.²⁴

CDD is a very popular development model in communities, allowing them to have greater participation in decision-making which affects their lives. The reasons for its popularity, first, communities are well known about their problems and needs. Second, they have good knowledge of use of resources, less chances of corruption. Third, it reduces the gap between government and communities to service delivery efficiently. David Hulme describes in his paper, "Projects, Politics and Professionals: Alternative Approaches for Project Identification and Project Planning" in 1994, that it is high time to think for alternative approaches for project identification and project planning. At that time, many evaluation results showed the poor results of foreign assisted projects to improve rural livelihoods. His argument was.

1. There is no single optimal project identification and planning approach, but rather a set of alternative approaches that are appropriate to different contexts.
2. Normative model of the project cycle should include a pre-project identification stage during which decisions are taken on the approach to project identification and planning that is to be utilized.
3. Given the nature of rural physical and socio-economic environment in poorer countries, and objectives of development projects, a hybrid model, incorporating elements of the political and orthodox technical models, offers the greatest opportunities for making more effective identification and planning methodologies.

²³ <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/communitydrivendevelopment> update 01, 2020.

²⁴ Matous, Petr "The making and unmaking of community-based water supplies in Manila". *Development in Practice*. 2013, 23 (2): 217–231.

Hulme concludes in his paper; the conflicting image of projects reflects political arenas in which powerful groups conflict and bargain in their attempts to set and manipulate the agenda for public funds. For rural and agricultural initiatives in developing countries, where uncertainty is high, knowledge is limited and intended beneficiaries are commonly peripheral to centers of local and national decision-making power, thus process approaches which make a serious attempt at beneficiary participation and beneficiary nurturing institution building are likely to be most relevant. The dominant image of the projects as a technocratic exercise must be replaced with a revised image that recognizes projects as arenas for conflict management, bargaining and trade-offs, and in which generated data and technical tools have the potential to clarify likely outcomes and shape arguments.²⁵

2. CDD as approaches for foreign aid

Let us now examine how CDD was translated into the project operation. We will review the case of the World Bank.

- Definition of community: the concept of community in CDD programs often refers both to geographical entities and to associations of people with shared interests or common predicaments.
- Community representation: CDD programs assume that communities are in the best position to voice their own interests. They are involved in selection of leader and members of community. This will be beneficial for women, ethnics, and minorities, which represents the poor people according to their own needs.
- Menu choices: Major part of the CDD is the operation allowing the community to control over the choice of investment. Local needs and agendas can be discussed in the community meeting and prioritization is done by the community.
- Financial arrangements and procurement: community is given authorities to overcontrol in financial resources, with specifics decided through discuss among community members.

25 David Hulme, "Projects, politics and professionals, alternative approaches for project identification and project planning" Institute for development policy and management, University of Manchester, 1994.

- Facilitating partners: In CDD program, NGOs, Governments bodies, financial institutions and implementation partners facilitate the planning and implementation process until achieving the expected goal.

3. Comparison of different approaches and their performances

Comparing with different approaches is difficult because each has its own specialties when such an approach was developed. In each approach, however, the main theme was to eliminate poverty. The target is poor people but still 8.2% of world population was under poverty line (US \$ 1.90/Day) as of data 2019. Due to Covid-19 it is projected to raise even up to 8.8% in 2020 according to Sustainable Development Goal Report 2020 released in June U.N. Department of Economics and Social Affairs.²⁶

Table no 2- 1: Comparison of performances by development approaches

Approaches	Centralized/Decentralized	Sectoral/Tech-led/green revolution	Special target group	Community-based Organization	Community-Driven Development (CDD)	Local Community-Driven Development
Sustainability	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate
Mobilization of local resources	low	Low	low	Moderate	High	Moderate
Easy to understand by locals	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	High	Moderate
Fund Efficiency	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	High	High
Participation	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	High	High
Support (women & minorities)	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	High	Moderate

²⁶ The Mainichi, July 24, 2020, <https://mainichi.jp/english/articles/20200724/p2g/00m/0in/049000c>

Sustainability: In approaches other than CDD, sustainability is moderate. Because in other approaches, they focus on a project, and after the completion of the project, people do not pay attention to the project. But in CDD people participate from the beginning are allowed to take important decisions to set framework of the project, to which they have strong ownership.

Mobilization of local recourses: In CDD more resources are mobilized from local than other approach.

Easy to understand by locals: In other approaches, poor people are not allowed to participate in setting the target of the project directly. Some of them do not understand the theme of the project. But in CDD, the project reflects their demand, so they know what the project is trying to achieve clearly.

Fund efficiency: In some approaches, people-are not informed of the fund operation. But in CDD all funds go to the community and the local people get chance to combine their resources to maximize effects, resulting in higher investment fund efficiency.

Participation: other than CDD poor people has low and minimal participation. In CDD all the members related to the project are from the poor, women, minorities, and vulnerable groups. It has maximum participation in all the way.

Support (women and minorities): obviously, the theme of CDD is to support women and minorities but in other approaches rarely address them.

4. CDD approach of World Bank

When CDD was introduced as development intervention approach, it has the following four assumptions. By introducing CDD, it will realize.

- Poverty alleviation: CDD can supports by mobilizing communities in bottom level.
- Prioritizing needs: CDD can better respond to the needs of the projects by allowing the community to define the needs by the people themselves.
- Local governance: CDD can improve the local governance by allowing the community to manage the resources of the project.

- Targeting: CDD can achieve better targeting by improving the alignment of services and investments with community priorities including the one of the poor and other vulnerable groups.

5. *Rationale of CDD*

Community-Driven Development is an effective mechanism for poverty reduction. Its mechanism has been developed to hand over all responsibility to local levels where the target group choose their desire project. And the group will participate from planning to implementation stage and even evaluation stages deciding the success or failure from the local people’s perspectives. It is designed for poor and vulnerable groups to raise their voice in community, to secure appropriate local governance and government entities with central government and Donor agencies freed from paying strict attention worrying about corruption and sustainability. Thus, the voice of poor people, and women has been strengthened in local politics and governance. With the CDD approach, elites and national politician cannot dominate the poor people, women, and vulnerable groups. It helped to reduce corruption.

Table no 2- 2:CDD Global portfolio of World Bank

World Bank Global portfolio in CDD			
Year	Total Investment US \$ in billion	No of projects	No of Countries
2017	15.4	166	70
2018	19.2	190	78
2019	21.6	219	79
2020	33	327	90

Source: World Bank CDD database as of June 2020

The above table shows, World Bank's global portfolio in Community-Driven Development (CDD) has seen significant growth and expansion in recent years. From 2017 to 2020, there has been a notable increase in total investments, the number of projects, and the number of countries involved in CDD initiatives. In 2017, the total investment stood at \$15.4 billion across 166 projects spanning 70 countries. By 2020, this investment had more than doubled to \$33

billion, with 327 projects implemented in 90 countries. This substantial growth reflects the increasing recognition of the effectiveness and importance of community-driven approaches in addressing development challenges worldwide. The rise in the number of projects and countries indicates a growing global interest and commitment to empowering communities and promoting participatory decision-making in development processes. This trend highlights the World Bank's continued efforts to support bottom-up development strategies that prioritize local needs and empower communities to drive their own development agendas.

6. CDD classified by World Bank as its range of operation.

According to World Bank report as of June 2019, there were 219 active financing for CDD projects in 79 Countries with \$21.6 billion. It increased from \$1.8 billion in fiscal year 2015 to \$4.1 billion in fiscal year 2019. Remaining \$280 million were from borrowers and \$413 million from donors. In year 1996, World Bank lending was only \$325 million for such projects.²⁷

The world Bank have become strong supporters of community development approaches. The Bank is supporting 190 active CDD projects valued at USD 19.2 billion in 78 countries around the world. Over the past ten years, the Bank has lent on average USD 2.6 billion towards CDD programs, representing 5 to 10 percent of overall Bank lending each year. Nor is this wave showing any sign of cresting. Countries such as Indonesia or the Philippines have acted to scale up donor-assisted community projects to cover their entire national territories and they now finance them from their national budgets, with Indonesia's parliament going as far as to embed annual community transfers to its 73,000 villages in its recurrent budget through a village law that currently transfers up to USD 7.3 billion per year. Fragile and conflict-affected countries such as Afghanistan and Myanmar have also undertaken CDD projects, with the National Solidarity Project in Afghanistan claiming as much as 25 percent of the government's budget from the Afghanistan Reconstruction Trust Fund to reach the country's more than 35,000 villages. Myanmar has similarly scaled-up its first-generation program to cover every state and region in the country.²⁸

From the successful projects, many developing countries scaled up the development plan from the national budget. In the case of Indonesia and Philippines, the economic rate of returns showed 86% and in India Internal rate of return was more than 40%. Women and

²⁷ Ghazala Mansuri and Vijayendra Rao 'Community-Based and -Driven Development: A Critical Review' February 2004

²⁸ Community-Driven Development Myths and Realities, Susan Wong, Scott Guggenheim, World Bank Group, Social, urban, Rural and resilience Global Practice May 2018

vulnerable groups' participation in active programs is more than 40%, which are the great sign for empowerment.

Table no 2- 3: Characteristics of CDD approach compared with other approaches.

Approach	Centralized development approach	Sectoral approach	Special area Approach	Community based organization approach	CDD	Local Community-Driven Development approach
Who plan	Recipient Government/ Donor Agencies	Recipient Government/ Donor Agencies	Recipient Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/Donor Agencies/NGO/Community	Community members	Community members and Local Government
Who implement	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/ Donor Agencies	NGO/Community	Community/NGO	Community members and Local Government
Who evaluate	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/Donor Agencies /NGO	Community/NGO	Community members and Local Government
Who finance	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/ Donor Agencies	Government/Donor Agencies	Government/ Donor Agencies/ partially by community	Government/ Donor Agencies
Size of the project	Big	Big	Big	Medium/Small	Medium/Small	Medium/Small
Facilitation by NGO	Low	Low	Moderate	High	High	Medium
Inclusion of women and minorities	Minimum	Minimum	Minimum	medium	Maximum	Medium

7. Achievements of CDD Approach²⁹

A Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF) project in Nepal introduced the CDD model from the year 2005. The cost of the project was \$48.88 million, including IDA grants \$15.22 million and \$26.22 million, and \$7.44 million by Government of Nepal and community organization. The project was closed on 1 Feb 2019. The Project covered 159,777 households and 5,530 community groups. By the project, the income of household increased from \$65 to \$370 annually. From the project women represented 67% of community organization participation. Similarly, 37% participation by Dalit(ethnic) and 44% participation by Janajati (minorities cast) was achieved. In contrast to the social dimension, overall financial evaluation of the project was, however, modest ones.³⁰

Table no 2- 4: World Bank Regional Portfolio

Region	Latin America and the Caribbean	Middle East and North Africa	Europe and Central Asia	Africa	South Asia	East Asia and Pacific
Number of Projects	26	4	10	78	42	6
Investment	\$1.9 b	\$200 m	\$500m	\$5.8b	\$7b	\$500m
Countries	15	4	6	32	7	6

Source: World Bank CDD database as of July 2017.

From World Bank Annual Report 2019, examples of some countries where CDD approach was adopted are listed in below.

²⁹ Ending poverty, Investing in opportunity, World Bank, Annual report 2019,

³⁰ Poverty Alleviation Fund project, project performance assessment report World Bank, June 28,2017

In Afghanistan: Since 2016, over 9,000 Communities profiles have been created, 8,800 new community development councils were elected, and almost 7,500 community development plans were completed to improve delivery of infrastructure and social services in rural and urban areas.

In Indonesia: Between 2007 to 2015, block grants were provided to improve health and education services. It reached almost 5 million people in roughly 5,500 villages across 11 provinces. 3.5 million women and children received nutrition counseling and support, and 915,000 children were immunized.

In Nepal: Since 2016, after the government adopted guidelines to generate employment for marginalized communities, over 70 percent of workers who were recruited for road maintenance have been women, 34 percent from underprivileged communities, and 35 percent from minority ethnic groups.

In Pakistan: Between 2015 and 2018, more than 900 schools across Balochistan province became operational. Over 53,000 children of which 72 percent were girls were enrolled in these schools, with 89 percent retention.

In Jordan: Since 2013, over 2,000 private sector jobs have been created for the most disadvantaged, with women-owned enterprises representing 85 percent of beneficiaries.

1.1.1 Conclusion

The Development model has changed over times. In the 1950s to 1960s it was called Centralized-Decentralized top-down model. From 1960s it was Sectoral Development Model, such as, Technology led/Green Revolution Irrigation Development. In 1970s to 1990s Special area/Target groups/ Area development Program was the trend. 1990s Community Based Development and Community-Driven Development approach came under the spotlight. Later in 2005 it was changed to Local and Community-Driven Development model. When talking about the development model, Community-Driven Development has good performance in distribution of funds, low cost, good quality and maintenance, sustainability of project, members participation, easiness to understand, local resource mobilization, women, and vulnerable groups empowerment aspect. By encouraging participation of community in the project from selection stage up to the completion, CDD realized less chances of corruption. Some case studies demonstrated women's and minorities' empowerment in the communities

being able to talk in front of many people. Perception gaps regarding the problems being faced by the communities were bridged between the local communities and central government. This was also an achievement of the CDD model. From the good experiences many countries started to allocate more fund from national budget to the projects employing CDD model generating successful stories in many countries.

Although CDD is so far achieving good governance and better fund utilization, we cannot deny the possibility for the elite to divert the precious development resources for enhancing their social and political influence. Together with the community members, we must be aware of it and remain vigilant.

2.2.2 Empowering Women by CDD (Community-Driven Development) Projects in Nepal

1. Introduction

This paper is the summary of the preceding research on the Nepalese Women's situation, which underwent a major change in the latter half of the 20th century and 2 decades of this century. To look at the transition, we will review the long-term changes in major indicators in education, labor disparities, job discrimination, legal protection, religious freedom, political protection, and role under the patriarchy system, which is the analysis framework of UN women. We will also review the impact of the CDD (Community-Driven Development) approach on the status of women.

The term empowerment has different meanings in different socio-cultural and political contexts. There are local terms associated with empowerment worldwide. These terms include self-strength, control, self-power, self-reliance, own choice, a life of dignity following one's values, being capable of fighting for one's rights, independence, own decision-making, being free, awakening, and capability- to mention only a few. Empowerment is of intrinsic value; it also has instrumental value. Empowerment can be economic, social, or political. In its broadest sense, empowerment is the expansion of freedom of choice and action. It means increasing one's authority and control over the resources and decisions that affect one's life.³¹

“Women's empowerment means creating the conditions for women to be able to make choices, which implies that women may have different preferences than men, but also different abilities to make choices in bargaining and access to resources (these constraints will be reviewed in the next chapter). Economic empowerment involves improving the ability of women to access resources and employment, higher productivity, and earnings, and to increase their income, assets, expenditure, and consumption they control. The legal and institutional barriers in the labor market and the way unpaid domestic work and care work are shared at the household and societal levels heavily influence this domain. Political empowerment is about participation and decision-making informal institutions, including local government, interest groups, civil society, and women's ability to set and influence the political discourse. Social

31 Hannatu Rwang Unanam, Impact of Women's Economic Empowerment in Development: An Evaluation of Development Exchange Centre in Plateau State, International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies, June2020 Vol. 8. No.1.pp.1-6, American Research Institute for Policy Development

empowerment refers to women's status in society, which depends on social norms, gender roles within the household and the community, and social capital.”³²

World Bank had launched the CDD approach to empower women and minorities through education, health, and economic activities to reduce poverty. CDD project provided equal opportunity for women and minorities to voice their opinions in decision-making concerning project activities. It used diverse strategies to ensure women and minorities participate in the need identification and selection process. To empower women and minorities, donor agencies obliged their (women and minorities) participation by minimum member rule in community formation.

CDD Project aimed to empower communities by mobilizing women and minorities in economic growth, who were, politically, and economically dominated by elites. The world Bank's strategy was the rule of minimum participation in the projects in local community development that gave control over planning and investment resources to community groups (including local governments). It was a powerful, effective instrument for empowering communities and delivering services to otherwise under-served populations. It was unique because it departed from traditional approaches to development that focused on enabling central governments. World Bank explains that “CDD programs were operated on the principles of transparency, participation, local empowerment, demand-responsiveness, greater downward accountability, and enhanced local capacity. Encouraging local decision-making and putting resources under the direct control of community groups has led to the efficient delivery of basic services and, when sustained over time, measurable reductions in poverty was supposed to be realized, particularly among the poorest populations and communities.”³³

CDD interventions rested on the principle of empowering communities. Yet, the gender-specific impacts of CDD, especially on women's empowerment, have not received due attention in the evaluation and, more generally, in the theoretical and empirical literature. There were several reasons for this. First, programs did not have gender-specific outcomes as explicit objectives. Second, even when they indicated that they wanted to increase women's participation and inclusion, programs were not very specific about which dimensions of female empowerment they could plausibly affect, which activities needed to be implemented to make a difference (and in what sequence), and in which timeframe, one could reasonably expect

³² Women's Empowerment in Rural Community-Driven Development Project, IEG (Independent Evaluation Group)/World Bank Group 2017

³³ Taking a Community Approach to Development, World Bank, October 2016

results. Finally, few impact evaluations measured the effects of CDD on various dimensions of empowerment in a sex-disaggregated way.³⁴

In short, empowerment is about self-strength, control, self-power, and self-choice of their dignity. Women were dominated in past years. Looking for their freedom in decision making in their life, CDD projects helped them identify urgent needs for human development like education, health, and economic growth.

2. Selecting beneficiaries with gender consideration

Selecting beneficiaries with gender consideration involves ensuring equitable participation and representation of both men and women in development programs and initiatives. This process recognizes the unique needs, priorities, and capacities of individuals based on their gender, aiming to promote gender equality and empower marginalized groups, particularly women and girls. Gender-sensitive beneficiary selection involves assessing and addressing gender disparities, biases, and barriers that may hinder women's access to resources, opportunities, and decision-making processes. It requires implementing inclusive and transparent selection criteria that consider gender-specific vulnerabilities, responsibilities, and contributions within the community.

2.1 Dimension of women empowerment in CDD

Social mapping involves the community members themselves in depicting various aspects of their habitation pattern and social infrastructure, such as the nature of housing, road networks, drainage systems, schools, and drinking water facilities. Unlike traditional top-down approaches led by experts, social mapping empowers local residents to provide firsthand insights into their living conditions and infrastructure needs. Following social mapping, wealth ranking is conducted to further refine the selection process, particularly for identifying members of self-help groups from among the below poverty line families. This process involves ranking households based on their economic status, assets, and income levels, allowing for the prioritization of those most in need of support and intervention.

According to Elakkiya, in participatory planning methodologies, social mapping and wealth ranking methods are used to identify the target population i.e., below poverty line family members. The social mapping depicts the habitation pattern, nature of housing, social

34 Women's Empowerment in Rural Community-Driven Development Project, IEG (Independent Evaluation Group)/World Bank Group 2017

infrastructure: roads, drainage systems, schools, drinking water facilities, etc. People make it not by experts. After social mapping, wealth ranking is conducted to select the self-help group members from below poverty line families. ³⁵

According to the World Bank, indicators of women empowerment are classified as in the following table.

Table no 2- 5: Indicator of Women empowerment by World Bank

Economic Empowerment	Political Empowerment	Social Empowerment
Income and Expenditure	Knowledge	Mobility and freedom of Movement
Assets	Participation	Status within household
Employment	Decision making	Women’s social status, social norms, and gender roles
Human Capital	Institution	Social Capital
Access to Infrastructure		Roads, drainage, school, water facility

With this method in mind, we will describe the situation of Nepalese women in the following.

2.2 History of Nepalese women

The situation of Nepalese women was inferior to men in social status, deriving from low levels of access to education, health care, economic and social opportunities. The Nepalese social system was based on Hindu philosophy, which empowers men and subordinates’ women. Women were treated as weak and dependent on men, socially, economically, and legally. In the 6th five-year plan (1980~1985) importance of women’s participation in the development process was expressed the first time in the national plan. Later on 8th five-year plan strategies for this are the following seven points: 1) Encouragement of women's participation in both traditional sectors and nontraditional sectors, 2) Encouragement of women's access to formal and informal education, 3) Securing for regular female staffs for employment and training programs, 4) Improvement of women's access to health service facilities, especially facilities

35 S. Elakkiya and M. Asokhan, Participation of Women members in a community- Driven development Project, Journal of Extension Education, Vol. 30. No 1, 2018

related to family planning/health services for mothers and children, 5) Improvement of women's access to financing, technology, programs to support plans to start new businesses, markets, employment opportunities, 6) Introduction of new technologies to lighten the burden for collecting firewood and fodder, water drawing, and housework to rural areas and 7) Revision of laws which are biased against women.³⁶

In the past century, Nepalese women were dominated and discriminated against by men up to the 1990s. Education was available only for men because men were the only ones who earn for a household, who would get a job with education. Women go to their husbands' houses when they get married. After marriage women are supposed to be housewife. Elderly people thought that to become a housewife there was no need for education with the results that the women were discriminated since when they got born. Due to early marriage customs, child mortality was higher in Nepal. In Early 1990s girls were forced to get married at the age of 7 by their parents. Women were cornered to the traditional role, set to the household task, e.g., fetching water, animal fodder preparation, and doing farm work, especially agriculture. Their contribution to the economy was a major one but treated to be nominal. In wages, women received 25 percent less than men, although the constitution in 1990 guaranteed basic rights to all citizens, without discrimination. An example of discrimination by sex in education will be shown in the following, where parents have encouraged boys to go to private school (boarding school where the education level is high), while girls were sent to public school (where the education level is lower).

From Table 1.8, we can find that women's literacy rate is increasing at a higher rate than males but still is not equal with males. In 1981 literacy rate difference between males and females was around 22%. At that time, literacy was important only among male society. It was only after the Rana regime that it was opened for the public but limited in the city area. Gradually, consciousness towards education has been raised in public. After the 1990 revolution primary schools were opened all over Nepal. Many INGOs entered Nepal and such NGOs were registered to enhance education, health for women, minorities, and socially dominated casts. As a result, the literacy rate of females from 1991 to 2001 increased by 17.5%, whereas the male literacy rate increased by 12.5%. In the past 4 decades, the female literacy rate has increased by 50%, while those of males was increased by 47% with female literacy rate increment being higher than male. A great role was played by NGOs and behind their

³⁶ Country WID profile, JICA planning department, December, 1999.

achievement, there was support from UNDP, World Bank, Asian Development, JICA, and initiatives of the Government of Nepal. As of 2018 total literacy rate of Nepal is 67.91%, with the remaining illiteracy delimited to the aging people who were unable to get education in their adult age.

Table no 2- 6: Literacy Rate in Nepal

Year	Adult literacy rate female (%)	Increased by (%)	Adult literacy rate male (%)	Increased by (%)	Different male and female (%)
2018	59.72	10.88	78.59	6.88	18.87
2011	48.84	13.95	71.71	9	22.87
2001	34.89	17.51	62.71	13.49	27.82
1991	17.38	8.23	49.22	17.55	31.84
1981	9.15	0	31.67	0	22.52

Source; <https://countryeconomy.com/demography/literacy-rate/nepal#:~:text=Nepal%20it%20has%2C%20according%20publishes,has%20increased%20in%20recent%20years.>

Table no 2- 7: Literacy rate comparison between urban and rural Nepal

Literacy rate in % in 2011		Urban	Rural
Total	66	82	62
Male	75	89	72
Female	57	75	54

Source: *Statistical Yearbook 2019*

Table 1.9 shows literacy rate differences between Urban and Rural areas.

Urban regions exhibited a notably higher literacy rate of 82% compared to rural areas, where the literacy rate was 62%. Gender disparities were also evident, with males recording a

literacy rate of 75%, substantially higher than females at 57%. This gender gap persisted across both urban and rural contexts, with male literacy rates consistently surpassing female literacy rates. In urban areas, male literacy stood at 89%, while female literacy was lower at 75%. Similarly, in rural settings, male literacy reached 72%, while female literacy lagged behind at 54%. Because of limited data, it is difficult to compare in a different year, but data shows that the literacy rate of females in rural areas was lower than the ones in urban areas. However, in many cases, literacy programs conducted in CDD helped rural adult women acquire minimum literacy.

Table no 2- 8: Life expectancy

Year	Female	Male
1960	35.56	35.55
1970	40.95	40.73
1980	47.03	46.42
1990	54.99	53.72
2000	63.34	61.16
2010	69.01	66.29
2015	70.93	68.11
2018	71.9	68.98

Source: World Bank data,

<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.IN?locations=NP>

The life expectancy of males and females in the 1960s was almost the same, females had a slightly higher life expectancy of 35.56 years compared to males at 35.55 years. By 2018, significant progress was evident, with females experiencing a life expectancy of 71.9 years, while males reached 68.98 years. This trend continued to improve steadily over the decades, with females consistently enjoying a longer life expectancy than males. If we see the above data, highest increment was in the 90s. Compared with literacy, it was in the 90s decade that improved female education changed life expectancy. One of the most frequently cited reasons

was a sharp drop in maternal and child mortality affected by the spread of hygiene-related knowledge among women.

The overall upward line reflects advancements in healthcare, nutrition, sanitation, and overall living conditions, contributing to longer and healthier lives for both genders.

Table no 2- 9: Human Development Index in Nepal

Year	HDI Female	HDI male
1995	0.35	0.46
2000	0.38	0.50
2005	0.42	0.51
2010	0.49	0.56
2015	0.53	0.60
2018	0.55	0.61

Source: UNDP, Human Development report

If we see the HDI index in the above table, comparing HDI from 1995 to 2018 female HDI increased by 0.20 in 23 years but in male HDI was increased by 0.15 only. Compared to the increased ratio HDI of females was higher than males. HDI is measured based on life expectancy, education, and per capita income. HDI between 0.350 to 0.549 is low, 0.550 to 0.699 is medium. 0.70 to 0.799 is high and 0.80 to 1.0 is enormous. The above data shows that Nepal improved in HDI from low to medium level in 23 years in both males and females.

3. Changes in women’s legal rights

3.1 Law for Nepalese women and minorities in the past and present

In Nepal, the Muluki Ain (Civil Code) governs inheritance laws, which are derived from Hindu law. It was first adopted in 1854 and helped to preserve the socio-cultural values as defined by the Hindu religion by legally validating the caste system and other customs,

practices, and beliefs that existed in Nepal in those times. The Code did not provide any kind of protection for women about their property rights. For instance, all properties of the house shall only be divided among sons after the demise of the parents. In 1963, after the fall of the autocratic Rana regime, the Muluki Ain was completely revised. However, even the newly codified Muluki Ain remained discriminatory about women's rights to land and property, depriving them of their right to inheritance. The Muluki Ain was further amended and a clause on women's inheritance and property rights was included. The clause stated that if a woman remains unmarried up to 35 years of age, she should have a right to inherit property. However, the amendment was limited as it continued "if she gets married after getting a portion of the property, it should be returned to the brothers after deducting the marriage cost". After the declaration of the 1990 Constitution of Nepal and the Government's ratification of CEDAW in 1991, the need to support women's rights to property was highlighted by different women's and human rights groups. In 1993, the Supreme Court of Nepal issued a directive to the Government to introduce a bill in Parliament that would guarantee women's right to inherit property. Following the Supreme Court directive, the MoWCSW (Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare) drafted a bill, popularly known as the "Women's Property Rights Bill" to amend the existing Civil Code, which was tabled for discussion in the 11th session of Parliament. However, it was not until 2001 that a parliamentary committee unanimously declared that women should have equal rights to inherit property. The bill was eventually passed in Parliament on 14 March 2002 and came into effect on 27 September 2002.³⁷

Determined to create a society based on equity based on proportional inclusive and participatory principles to preserve and promote unity among diversity, a new law was introduced to create socio-cultural solidarity, tolerance, and harmony under multi ethnic, multilingual, multi-religious, multicultural, and geographical diversities, The law was also meant to ensure economic equality, prosperity and social justice by ending class-based, ethnic, regional, lingual, religious, gender-based and all forms of caste-based untouchability.

In new constitution 2072 (September 2015) had included special rights to women and minorities to empower them. In Article 23 Sub Clause 2: No discrimination shall be made against any citizen in the application of general laws on grounds of religion, color, caste, tribe, sex, sexual orientation, bodily condition, disability, the status of health, marital status, pregnancy, financial status, origin, language or region, ideological conviction, or any of these.

³⁷ Legislative provisions regulating women's access and ownership of land and property, International Organization for migration, 2016

Similarly, in Sub-Clause 3: The State shall not discriminate against citizens among citizens on grounds of religion, color, caste, tribe, sex, sexual orientation, bodily condition, disability, the status of health, marital status, pregnancy, financial status, origin, language or region, ideological conviction, or any of these. Provided that nothing shall be deemed to prevent the making of special provisions by law for the protection, empowerment or advancement of economically poor, socially or culturally backward women, Dalits, Adibasi, Janajati, Khas Arya, Madhesi, Tharu, farmers, laborers, suppressed classes, Muslim, backward class, minorities, marginalized, endangered communities, youth, children, the aged, gender-based and sexually-oriented minorities and the disabled or those who are physically or mentally incapacitated or citizens of backward regions.

In Article 47 Right to Social Justice:

- (1) Socially backward women, Dalits, Adibasi, Adibasi Janajati, Khas Arya, Madhesi, Tharu, farmers, laborers, suppressed classes, Muslim, backward class, minorities, marginalized, endangered communities, youth, children, the aged, gender-based and sexually-oriented minorities and the disabled or those who are physically or mentally incapacitated or citizens of backward regions shall have the right of participation in the structure of the State and public service based on inclusive principles.
- (2) Article 262 Clause 2, entry of women, Dalit, indigenous and ethnic nationalities, Khas Arya, Madhesi, Tharu, Muslim, citizens from backward class and backward region into the service of the Nepal Army shall be ensured based on the principle of equality and inclusivity by laws.

4. Facilitating social change with the help of international society

4.1 CDD projects for women in Nepal

Women and minorities from Nepal have experienced a high level of poverty and social discrimination because of their gender. The same types of discrimination also faced ethnic and minorities. In most of the CDD projects in Nepal, women's participation is higher than targeted participation in comparison with other similar projects.

An important example of community development among rural women in Nepal that includes social workers in the School and Community Health Project (SCHP), a joint project

of the Japan Medical Association, Japan's international development agency, and the Nepalese government. The SCHP's initial emphasis was on the organization of adult literacy programs and women's self-help groups, with the latter focusing on savings and credit resources, as well as skills development in food production and preparation. It is expected that the different targets of the program's streams could have powerful effects when appropriately combined. Sound and widely attended literacy programs, for instance, may provide greater chances of economic opportunities, while the esteem and knowledge afforded by increased literacy may impact social development. Rural women themselves, in this intervention, particularly valued post-literacy classes focused on sanitation, immunization, and family planning.³⁸

The Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF) was one of the projects prepared by the World Bank in 2004 providing poor and disadvantaged groups with direct access to resources. "The objective of the project is to carry out a demand-and community-driven approach to improve access to income-generating sub-projects and community infrastructure, benefiting groups so far excluded by reasons of gender, ethnicity, and caste as well as the poorest groups in rural communities in the past".³⁹

A project "Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women" implemented by the Asian Development Bank from 2002 to 2013 aimed to reduce poverty by empowering poor rural women and members of other disadvantaged groups such as ethnic and low-caste women. A report from the project stated that it achieved positive results for women and their communities. The achievement was decreasing the negative belief related to girls' education, child and early marriage, the appropriate role of women within and outside the home.

5. Social change generated through CDD in rural Nepal Society

The social status of Nepalese women changed rapidly in the latter half of the 20th century. We will review the change CDD introduced by international aid agencies which supported women's empowerment as well. The testimonies that follow are all from the report of the Ministry of women, children, and social welfare.

38 Empowering Rural Women Through a Community Development Approach in Nepal, Acharya S. Yoshino E, Jimba M, Wakai Susumu, Community Development Journal, Vol. 42. No 1 pp 34-46, 2007

39 World Bank 2004b,13

A Women savings and credit group member said: “a goat is like a bank check for us, we can sell it when we need cash.”⁴⁰

Women’s increased ability to start new small businesses or scale up traditional ones resulted in larger incomes, a considerable achievement in areas characterized by persistent and profound poverty. More specifically, evidence shows that in many of the project locations, incomes of households in general and women increased by 2–3 times after interventions. A member of Women Group reporting that “we did not have even ten rupees in our pocket before micro enterprises, now we have an asset of thousands of rupees that we can use at will.”⁴¹

Before the project, many women in the communities were forced to take loans from local moneylenders at high-interest rates. Most of these women endured humiliation and had to send their children as workers to their landlords until the loans were paid back. “Now the women are a step ahead in terms of economic matters,” said Keshari Chaudarhi, a Women Group woman member. Among the six VDCs in which the project was operated. The cooperative of these women was the mother and Women Savings and Cooperative Ltd., which had 181 groups and 10 committees and a total of 973 women members. Women Cooperative member, Phulasi, succeeded to become a model in uplifting marginalized women, who, aside from lacking economic opportunities, had no documented proof of identity in society. The main purpose of the cooperative was to empower its women members economically and socially.

Member of women group from Achham (District) were reported as saying, “We can do things ourselves; we are not dependent on men. In the past, saying the names of our husband and mother-in-law was social taboo, but such restriction does not exist anymore.”⁴²

The synergies created between the economic and social empowerment project initiatives are clear from the following quote Om Kumari Thakuri (from Ranichuri village): “After the construction of foot trails, our livestock is sold easily. Before this project, buyers hardly visited our village to buy animals due to the poor condition of the road. If they ever came, they would demand lower prices for the livestock because of the poor road conditions. After the improvement of the foot trails, many buyers started to visit our village and we could get good prices for our livestock.”

40 Government of Nepal, Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare, 2013. Project Completion Report Gender Equality and Empowerment of women Project.

41 Government of Nepal, Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare, 2013. Project Completion Report Gender Equality and Empowerment of women Project.

42 Gender Equality Results and Case Study Nepal: Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women Project, Mandaluyong City, Philippines: Asian Development Bank, 2016

The participation of women in financial activities like microfinance was found significant increased. Borrowing from community group(micro-finance) for income-generating activities are increasing. A loan from microfinance is used for goat farming, garden farming, buying a sewing machine, and other small household production. Saving propensity and loan repayment rates among women are equal to or higher than men. Women's literacy helped them to make bookkeeping of income and expenditure as well as financial planning. Group discussion in the community also saved from fraud. The impact of the awareness programs prevented human trafficking as well.

However, unmarried women member of the community seems a problem in continuity. After getting married, they will go to their husband's house. Due to marriage, participation of women in community group meetings declined.

Conclusion

The most common issue of Nepalese women in society was discrimination in many sectors, like education, health, national politics, and freedom in society and employment in the hardest physical work. Decades ago, girls were not allowed to go to school. Banned in constitution though, child marriage with older men still exists in some parts of Nepal. Domestic violence and sexual abuse are also serious issues.

The male mind was set that once a girl got married, she was in her husband's home. After marriage, she should engage in the household job, give birth, and engage in agriculture, which required no education. Family members stopped her going to school and sent her home in early marriage at the age of 7 years to 13 years. Women were forced to do household jobs and agriculture jobs, which were unpaid. At that time, they did not know about discrimination, violence, and the importance of education.

After the 1990s, when the country moved into democracy, freedom of speech started, the social activists started their movements in rural areas. Many projects were implemented to empower women and minorities. Such projects as the Poverty alleviation fund were based on the CDD (Community Driven-Development) approach. They encouraged women to organize themselves and to raise their voice in the group which is greater than the single voice. After that era, mothers came to know the importance of education. Later, they started to send their children to school. As mothers knew the problems deriving from illiteracy, mothers sent their girls to school so that daughters should not face them. Women started making their groups named "Mothers Group, Community Group, Women Co-operative group, etc." the main theme

was to develop their social, economic, and political status. Now many women in Nepal are engaged in various groups where they can discuss their problems, engage in economic activities, raise their voices against discrimination. Previously illiterate women now can read and write. They can speak in front of many people. They are now in local and national politics.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH OBJECTIVE, DESIGN AND METHODS

This chapter explains the research objectives, research questions, hypotheses, research methodology, research, and overview of the project where primary data was collected for the study.

3.1 OBJECTIVE OF RESEARCH

This study focused on the economic growth of the community members and the roles of the elite in mobilizing funds and how they manipulate aid in their favor. This study investigates the efficacy of the Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach within the framework of Official Development Assistance (ODA) mobilization in Nepal. Beginning with the global proliferation of the participation approach in the late 1980s, the evolution towards CDD marked a shift towards empowering local communities with substantial decision-making authority over development initiatives. This approach garnered significant attention due to its potential to foster sustainable development by tailoring projects to the specific needs and priorities of communities. Consequently, the World Bank's endorsement of CDD encouraged its adoption by various international aid organizations, governments, and non-governmental entities, reflecting a widespread belief in its ability to engender positive socio-economic outcomes.

Central to the study's inquiry are two key dimensions: first, assessing the impact of the CDD approach on the economic advancement of community members in Nepal, and second, examining the role of elite actors in mobilizing funds and potentially manipulating aid for personal or group gain. Through rigorous qualitative and quantitative methods such as interviews, surveys, and case studies, the study aims to elucidate whether CDD projects have effectively catalyzed economic growth, improved livelihoods, and enhanced overall well-being within targeted communities. Additionally, it seeks to uncover any disparities in aid distribution and utilization, particularly concerning the influence wielded by elites in steering resources towards their interests, potentially at the expense of equitable development outcomes for the broader populace.

By shedding light on these critical issues, the study contributes valuable insights to the discourse on development effectiveness and aid governance in Nepal. Its findings hold significant implications for policymakers, development practitioners, and stakeholders,

informing strategies to optimize the CDD approach's benefits while mitigating risks of elite capture and aid diversion.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTION

Research questions are based on one major question and four operational questions.

3.2.1 Leading research question

What factors is Community-Driven Development possible, relevant, and recommendable for development projects in Nepal?

3.2.2 Operational questions

a. To what extent is participation of local peoples, in particular women and vulnerable groups, realized in the project?

b. To what extent is influence and corruption from elite groups realized in the project?

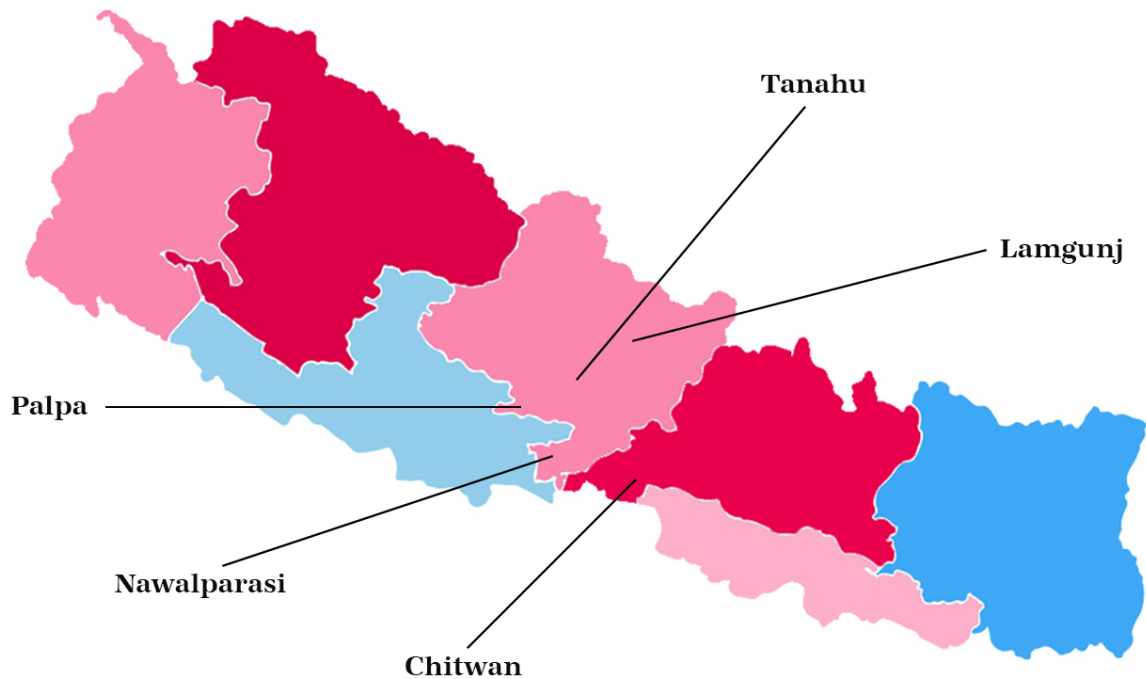
c. To what extent is cost reduction realized in the project?

3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

- ▶ Mixed research method (qualitative and quantitative) employed.
- ▶ For the study, the author used primary data and secondary data.
- ▶ In-depth interview and questionnaire survey was conducted.

3.4 THE STUDY AREA

Data was analyzed based on the survey, which was conducted in 5 districts of Nepal, among them 22 district Community Livestock Development Project (CLDP) was included. The Survey was conducted in 5 communities, 10 community members in each community, in total 250 members.



Method of data collection:

- i. field survey and interview with stakeholders
- ii. Review of projects evaluation reports
- iii. Stories from the projects.

3.5 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted with sampling method conducted in 22 districts of Nepal. Results of the survey will be represented as a sample. Nepal was characterized by its diverse geography, with communities scattered across mountains, hills, and plains. Accessing remote areas was challenging due to poor infrastructure and transportation, especially during the monsoon season when landslides and flooding were common. In many rural areas, literacy rates were low, affecting data collection methods. In some cases, individuals did not fully understand the implications of participation due to limited education. Building trust within communities was time-consuming, and in some rural areas, there was suspicion toward outsiders, including researchers.

3.6 OVERVIEW OF THE PROJECT

The Community Livestock Development Project (CLDP) was a comprehensive initiative aimed at enhancing the livelihoods of rural communities through the improvement of livestock management and productivity. This project's objective was to decrease poverty among 63,000 farming families in Nepal's three western development regions. This goal will be accomplished by enhancing family nutrition, increasing income, and creating job opportunities through better livestock management.

The Asian Development Bank (ADB), Government of Nepal, Rural Microfinance Development Center, and Microfinance Institutions from 2005 to 2010, the project targeted regions handling with poverty and food insecurity. CLDP was to empower marginalized groups, including women, minorities, and ethnic communities, by providing them with opportunities for skills development, leadership training, and access to resources within the livestock sector. Through a participatory approach, the CLDP engaged local communities in the planning, implementation, and management of livestock-related activities. By promoting the active participation of women, minorities, and ethnic groups in decision-making processes and project activities, the CLDP not only enhanced livelihood opportunities but also contributed to social cohesion and empowerment at the grassroots level. The aim of the Technical Assistance (TA) was to help the Government develop a project that could be funded from external sources.

At the beginning, the project was expected to cost \$33 million. This included from \$20 million (61%) from ADB, \$5 million (15%) from the government, \$6.5 million (20%) from RMDC and MFIs, and \$1.5 million (4%) from beneficiaries. However, when the project finished, it cost a bit more at \$33.13 million. The funding sources changed to \$20.33 million (61%) from ADB, \$5.4 million (16%) from the government, \$5.8 million (18%) from RMDC and MFIs, and \$1.6 million (5%) from beneficiaries.

The project successfully organized 184,680 households into 32,394 groups, with 10,429 for livestock production and 21,965 for credit. These groups further established 6,927 committees, with 2,534 dedicated to livestock production and 4,393 for credit and cooperative purposes. This surpassed the project's initial goal of organizing 164,000 beneficiaries into 3,450 farmer groups and 690 committees to access extension and marketing services for farm products.

CHAPTER 4: CDD APPROACH, ELITE, AND CASE STUDIES FROM NEPAL

This chapter explains about the CDD approach, elites and their influence in applied projects. The Author analyzes CDD in more detail using case studies to verify whether CDD really signifies participation, empowerment, governance improvement, and microfinance activities from the evaluation reports, data, and past stories where the CDD approach was applied by various agencies in Nepal in the past.

The community-driven development approach in livestock development in Nepal has been successful in promoting sustainable livestock farming practices and improving the livelihoods of rural communities. This approach ensured that the programs are appropriate for the local context and are owned and managed by the communities themselves. Through this approach, communities had been able to improve their livestock breeds, feed, and veterinary care by providing training and education, technical support, and access to appropriate tools and equipment as well as access to credit and other resources.

One of the significant impacts of the community development approach in livestock development in Nepal was the improvement in the quality and quantity of livestock products by marginalized groups, who were often excluded from traditional livestock development programs, who were allowed to participate actively in livestock farming and decision-making processes.

4.1 CDD Projects in Nepal

The Community Livestock Development Project (CLDP) in Nepal was a government-led initiative aimed at improving the livelihoods of rural communities through sustainable livestock development. Underwritten is a brief overview of the project:

(1) Objective: The main objective of the CLDP was to enhance livestock production, productivity, and marketing in targeted areas, thereby improving the income and food security of participating communities.

(2) Implementation: The project was implemented by the Department of Livestock Services with the support from the World Bank and other development partners. It was implemented in multiple districts across Nepal, focusing on areas with high potential for livestock development.

4.1.1. The Integrated Livestock Development Project (ILDP): The ILDP was initiated in Nepal in the mid-1980s with the primary objective of improving the income and livelihoods of small-scale livestock farmers. The project was implemented through a community development approach, which aimed to build the capacity of farmers to manage their livestock resources and improve their production and marketing skills. The ILDP established farmer groups as the basic unit of intervention, with technical support provided through training, extension services, and capacity-building programs. The project's success in promoting market-led livestock development in Nepal was evidenced by increased economic growth and income in the targeted communities.

4.1.2. The Caritas – Livelihoods Improvement Program (CLIP): The CLIP focused on improving the income and livelihoods of the marginalized communities in the Chitwan district of Nepal by promoting sustainable livestock production systems. The project was implemented through a community development approach, with the primary focus on empowering the target groups to take ownership of their development programs. The approach involved the formation of local committees, capacity building of these committees, and the establishment of producer groups for income generation activities. The project's success was attributed to the active involvement of the local communities in the design, implementation, and monitoring of the activities, which facilitated their ability to adapt, learn and implement sustainable livestock production systems.

4.1.3. The Livestock for Women and Child Nutrition Project: This project was implemented in rural areas of Nepal with the objective of improving the nutrition status of women and children. The approach adopted was participatory and community led. The project involved the formation of women's groups, where members received training in animal husbandry and livestock management. The project's significant achievement was the direct contribution to improving the nutritional status of women and children, increasing the household income, and strengthening the social status of women in the communities.

4.1.4. Earthquake Housing Reconstruction Project (EHRP): Following the devastating earthquakes in 2015, the EHRP implemented a CDD approach to support the reconstruction of earthquake-resistant houses in affected communities. Through the project, communities were actively engaged in the decision-making process. This participatory approach empowered communities, ensured cultural appropriateness, and led to the successful reconstruction of safer homes.

4.1.5. Rural Access Program (RAP): RAP, was implemented from 2003 to 2017, aimed to improve rural access and connectivity in Nepal. The project employed the CDD approach to involve communities in identifying and prioritizing road construction projects. Local communities formed road user committees and participated in the maintenance and management of the roads. This approach enhanced the sustainability of road infrastructure, improved transportation links, and facilitated economic development in rural areas.

4.1.6. Micro Enterprise Development Program (MEDEP): MEDEP was a long-standing program that has applied the CDD approach to support micro-enterprise development in Nepal. MEDEP has helped communities establish and expand small businesses, contributing to poverty reduction, employment generation, and inclusive economic growth.

4.1.7. Nepal Food Security Enhancement Program (NFSEP): The NFSEP was implemented from 2010 to 2016, aimed to improve food security and livelihoods in Nepal's remote and food-deficit regions. livestock-related projects. By enhancing agricultural productivity, promoting sustainable farming practices, and providing training and technical support, NFSEP contributed to improved food security and enhanced resilience among participating communities.

There is another case studies that highlight the application and impact of the Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach in Nepal:

4.1.8. Nepal Rural Community Infrastructure Project (NRCIP): The NRCIP, was implemented from 2003 to 2015. It focused on improving rural infrastructure through CDD principles. Communities in Nepal were involved in the identification, planning, and implementation of small-scale infrastructure projects such as schools, health posts, water supply systems, and rural roads. The project empowered local communities, leading to increased access to services, improved connectivity, and enhanced livelihood opportunities.

4.1.9. Livelihood Improvement of Vulnerable Farmers Project (LIVF): LIVF, was implemented from 2010 to 2016. It aimed to improve the livelihoods of smallholder farmers in Nepal. The CDD approach was utilized to identify community needs and develop sustainable solutions. established farmer groups, provided training in agricultural practices, and implemented income-generating activities.

4.1.10. Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF): PAF was a flagship program in Nepal that embraced the CDD approach to tackle poverty at the community level improving processes and access to

resources for income generation. The program supported a range of initiatives, including the establishment of small enterprises, vocational training, and community infrastructure development.

4.1.11. Small Town Water Supply and Sanitation Project (STWSSP): The STWSSP, was implemented from 2009 to 2018. It aimed to improve water supply and sanitation services in small towns of Nepal. The CDD approach was employed to involve communities in the planning, implementation, and management of water and sanitation systems. As a result, communities were able to prioritize their needs, construct water supply schemes, and establish maintenance mechanisms, leading to improved access to clean water and sanitation facilities.

These case studies demonstrated the successful application of the CDD approach in Nepal will lead to enhancement of community participation, local ownership, and sustainable development. By involving communities in decision-making processes and enabling them to implement projects based on their specific needs, CDD brought about positive changes in infrastructure, livelihoods, poverty reduction, and access to essential services in various regions of Nepal.

4.1.12 Community Livestock Development Project (CLDP)

Similarly, case studies highlighted the effectiveness of the CDD approach in various sectors, including housing reconstruction, rural access road, micro-enterprise development, and food security. CDD successfully addressed community needs and contributed to sustainable development outcomes in Nepal.

Key Components:

1. Livestock Infrastructure Development: The CLDP aimed to improve livestock infrastructure by constructing and upgrading livestock sheds, veterinary clinics, and milk collection centers. These infrastructural improvements helped enhance animal health, productivity, and market access for livestock products.

2. Livestock Production Support: The project provided technical training, extension services, and access to improved livestock breeds, feed, and veterinary services. It aimed to build the capacity of livestock farmers in areas such as animal health management, breed improvement, feed production, and efficient farming practices.

3. Community-Based Organizations (CBOs): The CLDP promoted the formation of CBOs, such as livestock user groups and cooperatives, to facilitate community participation, ownership, and decision-making in livestock development activities. These organizations played a crucial role in project implementation, monitoring, and sustainability.

4. Market Linkages and Value Chain Development: The project focused on strengthening market linkages and value chains for livestock products. It supported the establishment of milk cooperatives, facilitated access to milk chilling and processing facilities, and promoted collective marketing initiatives. This helped farmers fetch better prices for their products and increased their income.

Impact and Outcomes: The CLDP had several positive impacts on participating communities:

- **Improved Livestock Productivity:** Through better management practices, access to veterinary services, and improved breeds, the project contributed to increased livestock productivity, such as higher milk yields, improved meat quality, and enhanced incomes from livestock sales.

- **Enhanced Market Opportunities:** The project facilitated better market access for livestock products, leading to improved income for farmers. The establishment of milk cooperatives and milk chilling centers enabled small-scale dairy farmers to access formal markets and receive fair prices for their milk.

- **Community Empowerment:** The formation of CBOs empowered communities to take ownership of livestock development activities. Participating farmers gained knowledge and skills, which helped them make informed decisions, improve their livelihoods, and strengthen their resilience to shocks.

- **Sustainable Livestock Practices:** The project emphasized sustainable and environmentally friendly livestock practices, including improved feed management, waste management, and disease control measures. This contributed to the conservation of natural resources and the promotion of sustainable livestock production systems.

The Community Livestock Development Project in Nepal played a crucial role in promoting sustainable livestock development, improving rural livelihoods, and enhancing market opportunities for farmers. Through infrastructure development, technical support,

community engagement, and market linkages, the project positively impacted participating communities and contributed to the overall development of the livestock sector in Nepal.

4.2 Elite in Nepal

4.2.1 Introduction

Elite is known as a people who enjoy privileged status in community and society by their educational, economic, and political power. Elite have existed in central power on society for a long time all over the world. Even in developed and democratic countries, the elite have influence on decision making in communities. However, in developing countries, elites play major roles in decisions in the community as well as manipulate programs, especially infrastructure projects. Elites are in power by the wealth they have, political connections and other social status over poor people in the community.

The idea that CDD projects are prone to elite capture may seem somewhat counterintuitive. By allowing the intended beneficiaries to play an active role in the management of the projects, the very design of participatory development is supposed to limit the corruption often associated with top-down approaches to development. This ‘democratization’ of the development process is essentially meant to introduce a control mechanism over potential rent seekers.⁴³

Elite were motivated and influenced in activities by their seniors, national leaders, even the autocratic heads of state. However, to make powerful to elite had equal role-played by political leaders and other beneficiaries, easy to implement their interest in local level through elite in past. For example, a political party and its leader have to ultimate target is to win election and rule the nation. To achieve this target, they use local leaders and local elite as their demand whatever the cost is. Thus, local elite force to implement programs in their community and society in their own interest.

Jan Duchoslav concludes in his research; the evidence suggests that limiting the chiefs’ control over the projects by appointing a project management committee composed of randomly selected members of the community significantly lowers the level of elite capture from the projects as measured by the amount of cash requested instead of materials – money

43 Fritzen, S.A., Can the Design of Community-Driven Development Reduce the Risk of Elite Capture? Evidence from Indonesia. *World Development*, 35(8) 1359-1375, 2007

assumed to typically go straight into the chief's pocket. This is especially true in communities with strong and well-respected chiefs, where the chiefs otherwise tend to extract more cash out of the projects than their weaker counterparts. Measuring elite capture in terms of the value of materials missing from the project gives similar results.⁴⁴

Elite capture is a dynamic phenomenon, based on the ability to capture important mechanisms of power. It therefore presumes a sense of change and movement. There is nothing to state that the social group comprising the elite today will remain so forever. Over time, objective conditions that determine power structures may change and with it a new social group might stake claim to power and hence become the elite. Social discrimination involves a much more static and permanent idea about social inequality.⁴⁵

Anirudra Das Gupta and Victoria A. Beard's finding from case studies of four villages in Indonesia was mixed. The first in Kelor, elite controlled project, second, Tirta Kencana and Sekar Kamulyan, partly controlled by elite and democratic self-governance. In Kisma Wasana found in democratic format. In the first community — Kelor — the project was controlled by local elites, yet resources were targeted to deserving beneficiaries. The planning and development process was neither participatory nor democratic; however, it was accountable to the needs of the community, in particular the poor. In Tirta Kencana, the second community, there was broader community participation, but project leadership and decision-making continued to be controlled by elites. Yet, again, elites were accountable to the community. In the third case — Sekar Kamulyan — the community had a history of domination by corrupt, predatory political actors and UPP presented a new political and institutional opportunity to break out of a pattern of elite capture. In Kisma Wasana power was the most evenly distributed; however, the community decided to limit resource allocation to its poorest members.⁴⁶

Case study from the Gupta and Beard, not all Elite were corrupt. Some elite tried to control the project and some to capture it. Now poor are getting educated, they know about their rights. From this scenario, all the elite cannot control over project. However, to face the challenges of the project from experience and bearing capacity elite can accept challenge more quickly than others. It dependent on their intention how elite would like to present in community.

44 Jan Duchoslav, *Limiting Elite Capture in Community-Driven Development: Evidence from Randomized Controlled Trial in Sierra Leone*, Wageningen University, 2013

45 Diya Dutta, *Elite capture and Corruption, Concept and Definitions*. New Delhi, India; National Council of Applied Economic Research, 2009

46 Aniruddha Das Gupta and Victoria A. Beard, *Community-Driven Development, Collective Action, and Elite Capture in Indonesia*. Development and Change, 2007

Even in the most egalitarian societies, involving the community in choosing, constructing, and managing a public good is a process that will almost always be dominated by elites because they tend to be better educated, have fewer opportunity costs on their time, and therefore have the greatest net benefit from participation. It is not clear, however, that this always represents “capture” in the sense that elites appropriate all the benefits from the public good. It may therefore be useful to make a distinction between extreme forms of capture such as outright theft and corruption, and what one might call “benevolent capture.” However, when local cultures and systems of social organization result in tight control of community decisions by elites, more malevolent forms of capture become likely. For instance, the evidence shows that targeting is markedly worse in more unequal communities, particularly when the distribution of power is concentrated within elites. It is important therefore to understand what types of checks and balances are most effective in reducing capture and the systematic exclusion of poor and discriminated minorities. Again, the problem in assessing elite capture in CBD/CDD projects is that there are no studies which look at this question in the context of an appropriate counterfactual.⁴⁷

Findings highlight that contrary to what is stipulated in Nepal’s forest act and operational plans, the investigated community forest user groups are neither independent nor do they necessarily prioritize the basic needs of local forest users. While access to subsistence forest products remains largely unrestricted, tight control over timber is increasingly asserted by forest officials in close cooperation with local elites. The power of this coalition in part rests on expanding formal mandates during a national trend towards recentralization in community forestry policy. Notably however, power is also exercised through a de facto monopoly on information regarding forest related rules, prevailing uncritical acceptance of technobureaucratic ‘professionals’ by many forest users, and the corresponding suppression of open deliberation on critical issues. The resulting inflexible timber management regime geared towards minimal rather than optimal use of the forest has not allowed equitable access to common resources and related decision-making. It most affects those who urgently depend on the forest for timber and does not recognize the deficits within the administration itself.⁴⁸

Harrer explains more, what could be observed in practice was indeed a close cooperation among local elites and forest officials without encouraging participation or even

47 Ghazalan Mansuri and Vijayendra Rao, *Community Based (and Driven) Development: A Critical Review*, Development Research Group, The World Bank, 2003

48 Constantin Harrer, *By Whose Rules for whose needs? The power of elites, livelihood implications and potential for resistance in Two Nepalese community forest user groups*, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences Master Thesis No. 274 Southern Swedish Forest Research Centre 2016

informing the public. Decisive action upon mismanagement appears to be taken only after coming under scrutiny of CIAA. In their thinking that local people cannot be trusted to take independent responsibility of their forest and 48 apparently seeking personal profit themselves, forest officials perpetuate elite capture and forfeit an opportunity of more effectively safeguarding sustainability in community forests both biophysically and socially.⁴⁹

4.2.2 Elitism in Nepal

In traditional Nepalese society, power dynamics were deeply entrenched in factors such as caste, assets, ethnicity, religion, and class. Among these, the Brahmin and Chhetri castes held prominent positions. The Brahmins were typically involved in Hindu religious rituals, serving as priests, conducting worship ceremonies (pooja), delivering religious discourses, and imparting education. They learnt Sanskrit (a Hindu Language) which is necessary to study the priest books. At the same time priest creating his inheritor. Hence Brahmin community had a natural affinity to learning. the Chhetris, particularly within the Gorkha aristocracy, were predominantly engaged in administrative roles, governance, and military activities. Families like the Shah (the royal family), Rana, Kuwar, Basnyat, and Pandey played significant roles in both the royal court and military affairs during the 18th and 19th centuries. The Brahmin and Chhetri communities often inherited their roles and positions within the societal hierarchy, with many rulers and administrators belonging to the Chhetri caste. Before 19th century, king of Nepal respect to Brahmin in top caste because of priest profession. Even to death penalty to Brahmin from the King or other administrator, they never assassinate the brahmin. Sent them to out of their administrative boarder or rural area. They had belief that to assassinate to brahmin is evil. In Nepal such higher caste was continued to rule as political and administrative in past centuries and decades, even in present. Early period 1990 (access of education to the general people), a literate person could be administrator, governor, and security officer, i.e., involved in government job. That was the source of elitism from the power in Nepalese society. The ruling system has been changed but elitism exist in different ways.

4.2.3 Type of Elite in Nepal

Elitism in Nepal raised to the perpetuation of unequal power dynamics and privilege among certain groups within society, often based on factors such as caste, wealth, education, and political connections. In Nepal elitism was found long history from early period of

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monarchy. However, it was more developed from the era of Rana Regime their influence from the British colonial in India. When Rana Prime Minister Jung Bahadur Rana returned from Britain, he opened Durbar High School intended to elite in 1853. The school was open for public took nearly a century, after democracy in 1951.

- **Caste-based Elitism:** Historically, Nepal's society has been stratified along caste lines, with Brahmins, Chhetris, and other high castes enjoying social, economic, and political privileges. While legal discrimination based on caste has been officially abolished, caste-based prejudices and inequalities persist in various aspects of life, including access to education, employment opportunities, and social mobility.
- **Wealth and Class:** Economic disparities contribute significantly to elitism in Nepal, with affluent individuals and families exerting disproportionate influence in political and social spheres. The concentration of wealth among a select few exacerbates inequalities and perpetuates a cycle of privilege, limiting opportunities for socio-economic mobility among marginalized communities.
- **Educational Elitism:** Access to quality education remains unequal in Nepal, with urban, privileged individuals having better opportunities for education compared to those in rural areas or from disadvantaged backgrounds. Educational elitism further reinforces existing social hierarchies, as individuals with higher levels of education often occupy positions of power and influence in society.
- **Political Elitism:** Nepal's political landscape has long been dominated by elite political parties and leaders, who often prioritize their own interests over those of the broader population. Political elites wield significant influence over decision-making processes, perpetuating a system of patronage and nepotism that marginalizes marginalized groups and undermines democratic principles.
- **Gender Elitism:** Women in Nepal continue to face systemic discrimination and marginalization, limiting their participation in political, economic, and social spheres. Patriarchal norms and practices reinforce gender-based inequalities, perpetuating a culture of gender elitism wherein men hold disproportionate power and privilege.

- **Ethnic and Regional Elitism:** Nepal is a diverse country with numerous ethnic groups and regional identities. However, certain ethnic and regional groups have historically been marginalized and excluded from positions of power and influence. Ethnic and regional elitism manifest in unequal access to resources, representation, and opportunities for marginalized communities.

Major elites in Nepal by caste, wealth and found in Nepal. Royal family, Rana family, Thapa Family, Thakuri, Pandey and Kuwar family, Jimmal, Ditha and Sahu (local money lender or Businessman)

1. Royal Family:

The Shah dynasty, which ruled Nepal for over two centuries until the abolition of the monarchy in 2008, represented the pinnacle of political power and authority in the country. Members of the royal family held positions of privilege and influence, controlling key political institutions and resources. The Royal family created their elitism from center to in different region of Nepal for their convenient to rule Nepal. King deployed their family and brothers to certain area like eastern part, mid-western part, and far western part of Nepal as an area king.

2. Rana Family

The Rana family rose to prominence during the 19th century and effectively ruled Nepal as hereditary prime ministers, exercising authoritarian control over state affairs while the monarchy remained largely ceremonial. The Ranas monopolized political power, amassed wealth, and suppressed dissent, perpetuating a system of elitism and aristocracy. When the Junga Bahadur Rana became prime minister of Nepal, he declared himself as 2nd King of Nepal, monarchy as a ceremonial. He and his family ruled Nepal for 103 years as a direct dictatorship. In Hindu religion believes that king as a God Bishnu. Belief of that, to kill King and Brahmin (a higher cast in Nepal) is vice crime must be punished from God, Rana family continued ceremonial King to rule Nepal.

3. Thapa, Thakuri, Pandey and Kuwar Family

Before the Rana regime, The Thapa family, particularly during the 19th century, held significant control in Nepalese politics, with several members occupying influential positions in government and military circles. Thakuri, Pandey and Kuwar family These are among the

various aristocratic families that held feudal titles and landownership, enjoying privileges and status in Nepalese society. Members of these families often occupied positions of authority in local administration, military service, and political patronage networks. They were known as a brave for war. Being happy with their bravery or other good job, they were rewarded by big and cultivate land by King. Then they started their elitism in surrounding by power of ties with royal family. They were called as a Raja(king) in that area like Raja Babu, Kazi Saheb.

4. Jimmal

Jimmal is a post of small village or area leader of Panchayat (era of dictatorship of monarchy). In Panchayat period, King or their regional head appointed Jimmal to governance their dictatorship in local level. They were in juridical issues in local area. Local people had to follow their rule and order, otherwise they must be liable to punish.

5. Dithha

Dithha is also a post of local governance created by Royal family to collect tax or impose their governance. They impose their elitism to poor people, if they did not pay tax, government can punish on recommendation.

6. Sahu (Local money lender or Businessman)

Sahu is called who has lots of money, lands, and cattle. Who can transaction on demand, before bank and financial institution were established, Sahu were source of financial functions. They were source of donation to local leaders, local and social infrastructures. Because of political ties and money Sahu ruling their elitism. They controlled commerce, trade, and finance, accumulating wealth and leveraging their economic resources to exert influence over politics and society.

7. Political Elites

After the democracy in Nepal some of elites took political shelter to continue elitism with power of money and assets. This became common in Nepal the person who donates the political parties, they participate in politics and becomes leader. Whose reality is a businessman. They manipulate projects, bargain in many terms.

Elites, including powerful families, politicians, and businessmen, often exploit their influence and connections to prioritize projects that serve their own interests while neglecting the needs of marginalized communities. This manipulation can take various forms, from the unfair allocation of resources and contracts to the co-option of regulatory bodies and suppression of dissenting voices. Such practices not only perpetuate social and economic inequalities but also undermine the effectiveness of development initiatives, delaying Nepal's progress towards inclusive growth and poverty reduction.

Elite do their business very systemically either they were political or local elite, would like to enjoy their powerful social status. In the monarchy era, King, his families, relatives, and King's supporter made a syndicate in local level called pancha (a leader selected by their high social status) to implement their interest of Panchayat (autocracy). It followed for long time, in some cases they were decides in legal issues and punished to poor people. That kind of local elites lends unofficial loan to poor people in high interest rates. If poor people were unable to pay back the loan, they immediately took over assets of borrower. In some cases, poor people worked as bonded labor to pay interest of their borrowing. If any political leaders go against the local elite, they be afraid of losing election. From this fear, many political leaders make local representee to elites in local level. Thus, local elite became more powerful in their society and poor people are poorer from social and economic aspect. Even today, local elite tries to make member in community either themselves or their representative from own family to keep influence community and society. In developing countries poor people are struggling for survival. Their democracy was to survive in daily life and sill it continues.

In the Monarchy period, the development projects, INGOs were implemented programs in Nepal on interest of royal family. We heard in many books that Queen Aishwarya had interests in INGO's programs. She forced to recruit royal family or relatives in decision making post in INGO's local office. The person who recruited by power from Roy family, who had nothing to work, only how they can be privileged from the programs. This trend was followed by others from top to bottom. In the early period of monarchy and in Rana Regime, the local governance was operated by the person who was directly appointed by the Royal family. Their duty was to collect tax either in cash or cash crops (like rice, wheat, corn, and millet). Some of them received huge fertile land from King and became more powerful from name, fame, and wealth. From this way the elitism developed in Nepal. The elite of Nepal would like to their representation either in chairperson or as member in committees, like forest user's groups,

school management group water management group and other groups, which were formation for the local development. In some time, poor local had no option to choose elite in terms of money and time they spent for travel to follow-up programs.

The Royal family set up several trusts for conservation (e.g., For biodiversity, heritage) and controlled their governance. Although stated goal of the nature conservation, trust was to let local people benefit from biodiversity conservation, the unstated goal appeared to be to provide a center for recreation for elites, primarily the Royal family and their allies. However, it is not only the intentions of the ruling elite that need to be critically examined; there is also needed to understand of international conservation organizations working in Nepal.⁵⁰

4.2.4 Elitism Stories from Nepal

A group states, “local elites got the opportunity to play their dirty games and commit irregularities after the agency workers left. The rumormongers alarmed members that the money could be taken away if they join the cooperatives. With the fear of losing money after the agency the Dhanimani (wealthy and powerful elite) people started to ask the loans for Rs 2000/3000 like that. They knew that there was not that much fund to meet such demand. While the project was active, rules were perfectly respected. There were fines for breaching the rules.”⁵¹

In case of Panchbhaiya Community Forest Users Group, group was formed in 1995. The community forest was handed by District Forest office to community. In executive committee with 11 members, 7 members are brahmin (higher caste), 1 Chettri, 2 Gurungs and 1 Dalit (lower caste). Committee raised total fund 66,000 in total to forest management programs. The fund was used to support the operation of the school, temple, health post and relief to flood victim and poor by giving out loans with 24%/year interest.⁵²

In above case, finding was pro-poor (ethnic and called Dalit a lower cast) participation in executive is lower than high class. Author explains that refusal of the Dalits to serve

50 Netra Prasad Timsina, *Natural Resources and Livelihood in Nepal: Political economy and political ecology perspectives*, Chapter 3 page 49, *Livelihood insecurity and social conflict in Nepal*, edited by Bishnu Raj Upreti and Ulrike Muller-Boker, South Asian Regional Coordination office, swiss national Centre of Competence in Research North-South 2010

51 Adhikari Krishna, *Social Capital and its "Downside": The Impact on Sustainability of Induced Community-Based Organizations in Nepal*, Article in *World Development*, February 2010

52 Bir Bahadur Khanal Chhetri, *The Dynamic of Pro-poor strategies: analysis of four different Community Groups in Nepal*. FORMATH, vol 18, 2019 Bir Bahadur Khanal Chhetri, *The Dynamic of Pro-poor strategies: analysis of four different Community Groups in Nepal*. FORMATH, vol 18, 2019

executive member due to time constraints. Dalits cannot afford loan for economic activities due to high interest rate.

All local elites were not corrupted as presented in many previous studies. In some cases, because of local elite's political ties became more worthy in budget allocation in their communities, for community infrastructures and development sector through provoking to related authorities. In a study found positive impact of elitism in two School Management Committee in mid-western part of Nepal conducted by Sanjay Hamal.

A guardian from Sarada Secondary school, we need a capable person as School Management Committee chair. Capable in a sense that who can bring resources and other education related materials for the school. You see, we did not have separate toilets for girls, and this was creating discomfort and was detected as a prime reason for absenteeism among girl students during the time of menstruation. We tried to get funds from the District Education Office but were unable to do it because of the budget shortage. The Chair's genuine effort was able to bring the funds from JICA to build these toilets. Building toilets had two advantages: it reduced girls' absenteeism on the one hand and on the other hand, the parents of poor kids got employment during the building of toilets.⁵³

Another guardian from the same school, The Chairman always calls for a meeting when any decision regarding the school is to be made. Even if we do not have time to attend the meeting for any reason that day, the meeting is cancelled and is scheduled for the next day when most of us are available. He has been the Chairperson since the inception of the school, so he takes care of the school to his level best. You see, financial details are also made public and discussed in meetings. Moreover, because of his political ties, he can bring necessary resources to school. This is the reason we select him unanimously every year.⁵⁴

It is true that some elites left their positive impact in their communities. A guardian from another Muna Secondary School, I remember the school had opened as an informal gathering for the backward and poor Tharu community children under the chairmanship of the incumbent Chairperson. The school was established to educate children from the poor and backward Tharu community. The school was initially run in the evening time so the children

53 Sanjay Hamal, Understanding Education Decentralization and 'Sustained' Elite Capture – Explicating Cases from Two Public Schools, *Journal of Education and Research* March 2018, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 29-45

54 IBID

could attend school after their days' work. Because of its off-hour operation and attendance of more than ninety-five percent Tharu children, the school was called 'Night Tharu School'. Later, the school got its name from a local philanthropist, who had donated a handsome amount for the construction and renovation of school buildings. You know, the chairperson is the one who had done all the hard work to bring new life to school.

When asked about the holding of office for a prolonged period, guardians from both schools had a similar line of voice: During the time of transition and weak or no local elected representative, there is a need for one-upmanship that provides stability and trust towards each other rather than frequently changing leadership'. The retention of the same individual was not perceived as the perpetuation of one-upmanship and elite capture, but it was reiterated 'as effective and efficient leadership, capable of performing and serving the school better by bringing resources to the school'. The unanimous selection and continuation of the same person was also seen as 'reducing the annoying and expensive way of choosing (rather than going into the election) the SMC president both in terms of time and effort.'⁵⁵

4.3 CDD Applied Projects In Nepal By Agencies

In Nepal, several agencies, including the World Bank, Asian Development Bank (ADB), non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and the government itself, have implemented Community-Driven Development (CDD) projects to empower local communities and promote sustainable development. Projects such as the Nepal Community Development Program (NCDP) led by the World Bank and the Community Infrastructure and Livelihood Project (CILP) overseen by ADB exemplify these efforts by focusing on improving access to fundamental infrastructure like roads, water supply, and electricity, while also emphasizing agriculture development and water resource management.

Government programs like the Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF) and the Local Infrastructure Development Partnership Program (LIDPP) have empowered communities to identify and address their development priorities through participatory planning and implementation processes.

These programs empower communities to identify their most pressing development needs and collaborate with local authorities to address them effectively. Through participatory planning and implementation processes, communities gain ownership of projects, ensuring that interventions align closely with their priorities and aspirations.

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4.3.1 World Bank Projects in Nepal

Table no 4- 1: Programs implemented by different agencies in Nepal.

AGENCIES	World Bank	UNDP	Asian Development BANK	US AID	JICA	WVIN
PROGRAMS	Central Government (Central Agencies)	Sustainable Development Goals	Energy	Agriculture and Food Security	Agriculture and Rural Development	Child Protection
	Social Protection	Democratic governance	Transport	Democracy, Human Rights, and Governance	Basic Education	Education
	Sub-National Government	Inclusive Economic Growth	Agriculture/Natural resources and Rural Development	Earthquake Reconstruction and Disaster Resilience	Health	Health and Nutrition
	Health	Gender Equality and Social inclusion	Water and Other Urban Infrastructure and services	Economic Growth and Trade	Support for Decentralization and Peace Building	Livelihood
	Other Industry, trade & service	Resilience	Education	Education	Strengthen capacity building of the central Government	Nepal Innovation Lab
	Other Agriculture, Fishing and forestry		Health	Environment and Global Climate Change	Transport	Policy and Advocacy
	Others public administration		Finance	Global Health	Water Supply	Resilience and Disaster Risk Reduction
			Public sector management		Urban Environment	
			Industry and trade		Electric Power	
			Information and communication technology			
		Multisector				

4.3.1.1 Poverty Alleviation Fund

The World Bank and IDA funded the Poverty Alleviation Fund project in Nepal from 2004 to eliminate poverty. The objective of the project was to implement a community-driven approach to access income-generating sub projects such as infrastructure, ethnics, caste, and poor people of the rural part of Nepal. The Project's fund was allotted in three phases. In the first phase, fund was provided for livestock, trade, agriculture and forest, services sector, and manufacturing.

PAF categorized into four Pillars,

i. Social Mobilization

The target communities were organized and mobilized by the community themselves. The community organization group formation method was used to categorize individual households into Pro poor, medium poor, poor, and non-poor groups. This process was easy to prioritize the community organization for social mobilization from maximally poor to minimally poor.

ii. Income Generation

Community members were engaged in income-generating activities. That raised income and improved their livelihood. Community members' income generating activities

could be either agricultural or service based, that enhanced the production and service to increase income.

iii. Small scale Community Infrastructure

PAF helped the community organizations to build small scale infrastructure. Old infrastructures were repaired, or new infrastructures were made. They were meant to help the community for their day-to-day life. A small financial or technical help from the PAF changed the life of the community members. This kind of infrastructure were built, managed, and maintained by communities. In this small infrastructure projects, rural roads, trails culverts, bridges, drinking water system, irrigation, small hydro, collection centers and deep-bore systems for irrigation were included.

iv. Development and Building of Capacity

PAF emphasized skill enhancement and local empowerment by awareness and training activities. The program involved community members themselves into project cycle, which enhanced the community members' skill, especially those of women, vulnerable and poor people. The sub projects helped capacity building in local bodies and micro-finance activities.

To be eligible for the PAF assistance, Community Organization must be registered in PAF in prescribed format which should be poor community in social mapping and assessment. Organization must implement program with participation of poor, women, and vulnerable groups. Community organization responsible for financial activities, must disclose information to community members and to the general public as requested. Main positions like Chairperson, secretary and treasurer must be from women, vulnerable groups, and ethnics.

In PAF projects, the community organization found minimum 20 to maximum 40 members. A case of Khar VDC-4, Khar from Darchula District. PAF's partner organization was Samaj Kalyan. Samaj facilitated the Micro Irrigation Project with three communities. From the project 71 households including 4 Dalit households benefitted. 3.5 K.M. long canal irrigated 11 hectares of land of 3 communities. Before the project farmers cultivated two crops in 2 seasons only. But now they can cultivate varieties of crops and increase their food securities for more

3 months than before. The project not only increased food security but also created social harmony in the society.

Another case in village Dumsikharka and surrounding villages was an illegal farming of Marijuana, which was main source of income. It promoted corruption by paying escort to police to farm marijuana. Those who were unable to pay to police were locked in jail. PAF supported NRs 3.5 million to construct 4.5 K.M. road to connect market Dandabas nearest market to village. In the past they had to walk carrying their product for 6 KM to the nearest market. Which consume more time and increased cost to use porters. Due to the increased cost of the product, it was hard to sale in market. Because the market price of vegetables was low, farmers were in the marijuana business which was easy to cultivate in low cost.

Dumsikharka and surrounding village were largely inhabited by ethnic community. Communities of three Village development committees identified that there were needs for road to carry and their product to market. PAF's partner Organization Manohara Development Institute "Panikharkha Rural Road Users Committee" constructed the road to connect market. Committee members increased their agriculture product and increased their income four times more than before. This road also contributed to the children to get better education to the nearest town Hetauda and Palung bazar. A member Mr. Chiring Thing said, "I increased my income to Rs 20,000 from Rs 5000, which helped raise his 7 children. I do not need to borrow loans from the local money lenders at an exorbitant interest rate. From the project 8,000 people benefitted.

Another story of Mr. Gopal Nepal from Jumla district who applied revolving fund (NRs. 50,000) in furniture business and succeed to earn NRs. 30,000- 35,000 per month. He employed five people in his business. He believed that his social status was heightened. He further planned to invest in handmade paper in upcoming days. He was counted as a model entrepreneur in his village.

The story of Mr. Dinesh Sunar from Jumla district who invested from the revolving fund in seasonal vegetable farming such as Garlic, Cauliflower, Cucumber and Mustard in 1 ropani (495 sq. m) of land and yielded worthy returns from vegetable farming. He took a second loan from revolving fund and invested into Cow for milk selling. Currently he has 3 cows and sells 15-liter milk every day. His earning from vegetable was NRs. 80,000 per month and earning from milk selling was NRs.30,000 per month.

Let us review the story of Ms. Amirka Devi Yadav from Siraha district having 10 family members. She started regular saving and borrowed NRs.18000 from PAF community organization for a retail business. She earned profit and subsequently repaid the loan on an installment basis. She earned NRs. 1,200 per day. She purchased 5 kathas (1,650 m²) land. Furthermore, to enlarge her business, she borrowed loan NRs 50,000 to acquire additional profit. She became an example in her community.

Let us review the story of Mr. Mangal Prasad Kurmi resident of Kapilbastu district having 28 members in his family and spending their life as community change agent in vegetable farming. Before joining the PAF, Mangal and his wife used to depend on private moneylender for borrowing the loan at high interest rate (36% per year) to meet their livelihood and other household expenses. PAF invested in irrigation scheme for the same community which made all family members to engage in agriculture. Now, he and his wife are providing agriculture inputs and technical suggestions to other group members. He became a leader of farming in his community.

Next the story of Ms. Tika Thapa from Dailekh district. She took loan amounting NRs. 40,000 from PAF in the year 2002 BS for a buffalo and started selling milk and yogurt that helped her support to live with her 2 children and her parents. Ms. Tika has been taking all responsibility for both children including her father and mother after her elder sister left home. She wished to start animal husbandry as enterprise if she gets loan NRs. 100,000.

The story of Mr. Judha Bahadur Khadka from Pyuthan district. After having loss in goat raising, he purchased a sewing machine from second loan. Now he operates 5 sewing machines and has trained 60 to 70 individuals. He saves about 30 to 35 thousand rupees every month.

Next the story of Ms. Dhana Maya Giri from Pyuthan district. Her family condition was inferior. After taking a loan from the revolving fund, she invested in vegetable farming. Now she has a better livelihood. With the income from vegetables like tomato, cauliflower, she was able to buy buffalo and sell milk. Now she has earned respect in a community.

Next the story of Ms. Mamata Gurung from Doti district. She took a loan from the revolving fund and invested in poultry. Now she raises 1000 chickens in her farm and earns NRs. 150,000 per month from poultry. She is selling chickens to Silgadhi and Dipayal. If she gets technical training and support, she could upgrade her business.

4.3.2 Asian Development Bank Projects in Nepal

ADB supported Nepal in education, health, agriculture, water, rural development, transport, energy, and public sector management. ADB's cumulative sovereign and non-sovereign co-financing commitments, was US \$ 140.43 billion. From 1970 to 2021, ADB implemented 3165 projects. 56

Some of the major projects in Nepal were Community-Based Water Resource Management Approaches for Hill and Mountain Ecosystem, Commercial Agriculture Development Project, and Community Livestock Development Project.

People who migrated from the hilly and rural regions to the Terai (plane) region increased in mid 1990s. There were lots of reasons to migrate into Terai area, some of which are food insecurity (increased family but limited land in hilly region, insufficient food for the family for whole year), insufficient fertile land to cultivate rice, natural resources were available near to home because of huge area of Jungle, East-West highway (easy access to transport) and near to India. Increased population in the area could not meet the existing system. Long distances to fetch water in the dry season became most problematic for women. Fetching water also meant the high risks of attack by wild animals. People used to fetch from surface-based water pumps and drink them directly, that increased the skin diseases.

Small Towns Water Supply and Sanitation sector project was prepared by ADB and with technical assistance of JICA. The project was implemented in community participatory approach. NGOs carried out to implement the awareness program for hygiene, community participation and ownership. WUSC (Water Users and Sanitation Committee) was organized to implement the project.

Local shop owner and head of the WUSC Mr. Sher Man Tamang expressed his happiness getting water in his village with help of the project. The committee collects money from the users to operate and maintain service. This is a small amount, which even the poor people can afford, he added.

Another user, Shanta Chaudhari said, we can drink straight from the tap, and no one gets sick. Lack of clean water and latrine in rice field due to not having restroom at home was the major problem in indigenous Tharu community. Lal Mani Chaudhary, local member of the

Constituent Assembly said, in his child time no Tharu family had a toilet, or a water tap because of the poverty. But now, the time has changed. The poor people were not only having the access of the clean water and sanitation but also took part in making decisions.

Narayan Shrestha, Principal of the local primary school said, now students hardly fell sick and missed the class. Toilets and water tap built by the WUSC in the school yard helped them to get healthy life.

From the project 29 small towns benefitted. 834 kilometers of water pipes was installed. 70, 306 beneficiaries conducted for public awareness campaigns, in which 51, 181 were females and 19,125 were males. In the health and sanitation training, 3,133 community stake holders participated, of which 1,847 were female.⁵⁷

“Before the project, women were afraid to talk about their rights in society. For example, a simple handshake was incomprehensible except among their family and relatives. This is due to women rights enhancement” said Parvati Tiwari, a member of Tiwari community. She talked much more about sanitation, and water. In her community four out of nine members are women. Men and women are equal like two wheels of an oxcart, she added.

Nepalese government-run program supported by the ADB, was drilling wells, and provided good sanitation, water supply, health and hygiene, education in 29 small towns of Nepal through community participation in Banskhor village.

The settlement of Rajpur, a collection of hamlets on a River line plain sculpted with rice paddies and clumps of mango trees and bamboo, is located about 40 kilometers from Banskhor. With native Tharus and Dalits at the lower end of the Hindu caste system, Brahmins and Chhetris at the upper end, and a few Muslim families, the community had a mix of castes and ethnic groups. The project erected 55 iron hand pumps, one of which was outside the mud-wattled residence of Bishnu Bista. A few years ago, sharing a water pump with neighbors of a lower caste would have been inconceivable for a woman of high status like Bishnu. However, she claimed that in Rajpur, everyone who participates in the water and sanitation program must share. "Water access used to be a source of tension and even conflict," said Mina KC, a member of the community. "High castes would prevent low castes from using easy sources of water,

⁵⁷ Asian Development Bank, Small Towns Water Supply and Sanitation Project, September 2011

and women would walk for miles to get water. This instilled resentment, gossip, and even violence. That was not the case for anyone involved in this program. Not any longer." She added. Banshkor village served as a model village for Nepal's Community-Based Water Supply and Sanitation Project, which was funded by the Asian Development Bank.

In the village of Khimtibesi, Milk Producers Cooperative Organization buys milk from farmers. Electrification from Khimti project enabled cold storage for the milk. Before, milk was sold directly to the local market. A local, Chandra Bahadur, said he increased the number of cows for the purpose of milking. That helped him to increase income which supported his daughter's further education. More than 400 such farmers benefited by using cooperative to sell milk.

Another farmer, Gambheera Said, we had to carry the milk to town in shoulder basket. After the project, she carried milk in metal containers to the cooperative and market with track. The Project changed the life of local people and working environment as well as income also changed because of it.

4.3.3 Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) Projects In Nepal

JICA has long history of support to Nepal in health, education, and technical assistance in big and small infrastructure. JICA's support as grants aid, loan, and technical assistance to Nepal. In the grant aid JICA provides fund to use in basic infrastructure, health and medical care and other humanitarian aid. Japan is famous for technology in the world. Japan provided technical assistance by dispatching experts, technical equipment, personnel training from and to Nepal. In loan, JICA supported Nepal by providing loan for major infrastructure in minimum interest rate. Building a Tribhuvan Teaching hospital in Nepal, which is still serving poor people of all around the Nepal at low cost. BP highway is another project aid of JICA. This Highway connected eastern Terai to Kathmandu in short distance. which helped to increase the income of the surrounding villages from highway. Major projects are small and big infrastructure like building roads, hospitals, schools, improved airport, urban water supply and energy. JICA's policy of assistance for economic growth to reduce poverty, governance with decentralization, and disaster risk reduction.

JICA supported electrification in Nepal, with major projects Kali Gandaki “A” Hydro power Project which generated 144 MW, Kulekhani I and II, Bajhang Hydro power and under process project Tanahu Hydropower 140 MW for Nepal. JICA’s Urban Environment Improvement Program focused on water supply and Waste Management. In this program JICA assisted urban and Small Towns water supply and sanitation.

JICA’s support to BP Highway started to construct in 1996 and completed in 2015. Benefitting surrounding corridor farmers. Highway passes four districts Kavre, Sindhuli, Ramechhap, and Bardibas. The Highway connected capital city Kathmandu with the eastern part of Terai in shortest distance, which boosted the economy of farmers. JICA launched programs to commercialize agriculture for farmers during the Highway construction period.

Mr. Thir Bahadur Tamang is a resident of Mangaltar village near the BP highway. Before the project, he never imagined that his agriculture products could get good value from home. Tamang said, farmers like me, who planted various types of high-class vegetable seeds got support from the Department of Agriculture. Now, I do not need to go out of my village for work as I am getting good value from my vegetables in the village. According to the report, yearly household income increased from Rs 19,189 to Rs 39,102 in year 2012 to 2015.

The project provided training with producers to produce marketable products. Women made up 60% of producers’ group, and their family economy changed as well. Now, all families are engaged in same vegetable farming. With profit from the sale of vegetables, we have now plan to start new business in the future, a women member of the producers group said. In this area SHEP approach was applied by JICA. SHEP approach was an approach which realizes ‘Market-oriented Agriculture’. This approach transformed agriculture from “grow and sell” to “grow to sell”.

According to JICA’s report on Education for all project, JICA built more than 9500 classrooms in period of 1994 to 2014. This program was partnership program with Save The Children Japan. Many children from poor families did not go to school due to their family duties for fetching water, collecting wood for cooking, and household work. By working together with the community people, NGOs, and local government helped to implement the slogan for “getting children out of work and into school”. The result of the project was more than 30,000 children were newly enrolled in school in short period of 2003 to 2006.

4.3.4 International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

The IFAD is a sister organization of the United Nations. This organization was set up as an international financial institution in 1977, to finance agricultural development.

The IFAD has launched 18 projects in Nepal. IFAD financing was US\$ 353.84 million with the total project cost of US\$ 847 million and more than 1 million household benefitted. IFAD's investment reinforced these efforts addressing poverty, inequality, rural infrastructure and services, income generation, good governance and promotion community cohesion and resilience.

High Value Agriculture Project:

Most of Nepal is mountainous. In the mountainous areas, there is very small and slope land. Due to lack of sufficient irrigation supply, farmers are dependent on rainfall. IFAD helped small holder farmers cultivate high value crops, vegetables, fruits, and medicinal and aromatic plants in hill and mountain area.

Let us hear from Nim Bahadur Kami, Resident of Aamkholi village located in western part of Nepal. He joined a farming cooperative and begun to attend training a learned new farming technique. His production increased rapidly, and he had confidence to experiment with new crops. Before, he used to work in India long hours duty for 15 years.

Piyola Oli is another farmer who had no idea of modern agriculture when she became member of Pavitra Krishi Sahakari (farmers' cooperative). With the support of the cooperative, she learned to adopt modern agriculture farming. The problem was to find the high-class seeds in the rural area. She learned to produce good quality seeds from her own farm. From the quality seeds her income increased because of the quality seeds.

Nishha Timilsena, she was a fruit trader. She used to purchase fruits from small farmers from the western rural part of Nepal. Lack of good packages, poor roads, and not having refrigerated truck, her fruits were damaged early before she was able to sell in the market. With the help of local cooperative, she arranged scale and packaging which helped Nisha to preserve good quality and accurate value for the farmers. soon she had plan to buy and own her truck to reduce unnecessary commission, to share profit to colleague farmers.

Ramkali Baswal was a member of Mulpani Agriculture and Livestock Cooperative. Her son and daughter-in-law received agriculture technology training. They got 125 seeds of turmeric seeds from the cooperative. To solve the irrigation problem, they got training to apply mulching and inter-cropping techniques. Ramkali's elder son was working overseas. She was planning to call her son to come back to Nepal to help the family farming business to increase its productivity.

4.3.5 CDD IN WORLD VISION INTERNATIONAL NEPAL(WVIN)

World Vision International (WVI) is an International Non-Government Organization (INGOs). This is a Christian relief organization working for children, women, and community to reduce poverty and to bring justice to ordinary people. WVI worked in Nepal in 1982 donating its service in healthcare sector. In 2001 it was officially registered as a World Vision International Nepal (WVIN). Later, the service of WVIN was expanded to include local development sectors in rural parts of Nepal. The services were nutrition, water, health and sanitation, education, and equality. At initial phase, WVI started its activities in few districts. Later WVI expanded its service in the southern part of Nepal, where children were unable to get the basic education due to poverty. Because of the illiteracy and caste system, discrimination was higher in the rural part rather than urban part of Nepal. Up to 2010 WVIN claimed that more than 200,000 people benefited from its service via community development, relief, and advocacy programs.

Programs implemented by WVIN.

1. Child Protection
2. Education
3. Health and Nutrition
4. Livelihood
5. Nepal Innovation Lab
6. Policy and advocacy
7. Resilience and Disaster Risk Reduction

To implement the programs, WVIN involved itself with some projects cooperating with partner NGOs, such as community-based trainings, and awareness programs. The clean water project in Kailali district became possible with the 'Cash for Work' program, with municipality, project team and communities identifying the project. People from two wards (10 and 11) of Godawari municipality benefited from the clean water supply. Before the project, they used to walk an hour to fetch water. After the project, the local community benefited in two ways, 1. clean water supply nearby homes, and 2. employment opportunities to install a pipeline and construction work. Here the community involved themselves as laborers, with local government also in association with WVIN as well.

In another case, in 2019, the Strengthening Inclusive Education (SIKAI) project distributed bicycles for 253 girls from vulnerable families in a community school. In the Terai area, children have to walk for a long way to get an education. Sometimes children had to help the family with household work in the morning and then go off to school. Already tired from the morning tasks, they became more tired during the long walk to school. Sometimes their being late for school makes them uncomfortable in front of other students. Even from their tiredness they could not concentrate in class. The project helped the community by providing bicycles to girls who can travel safer than before and improve their education by being on time in school. Sunita from the Sarlahi district got a bicycle from the project. She expressed her happiness by never being late for school for seven kilometers far from home and will not miss the class again.

According to WVIN, 21 Saving groups established in Gorkha and Nuwakot district with 478 vulnerable community members. Women's participation found higher than men in the area. Each group members received training for financial and capacity building. Members of each group gathered once a month to maintain passbook of their savings, loans, and repayment. Groups members were happy from developed saving habits of men and women equally. The saving was useful for urgent household needs as well as who need financial support to start new business at a low interest rate. The many women members are active in groups even some of them were leading the group as chairperson. One of member of Kalika Savings Group, Meena was from poor family of Gorkha district said, she was in urgent need of cash for her daughter's medical treatment. She got a loan on time in minimal interest rate from Kalika Saving Group. The treatment was possible from that loan.

This is an example of a poor and vulnerable family in Nepal who must depend for their urgency with elites or others. Now, the problem is solved by getting cash from their saving or a loan from a group.

Shova Giri, Chairperson of the Kalika Saving Group, said, this saving is just the beginning. In future our fund will be bigger, then we can invest in small scale business. Which is useful for poor farmers to empower economically.

SKYE (Skill and Knowledge for Youth Empowerment) club is another strategy to empower youth and develop the community. Sky club is a small group of youths (aged 18-26). The club selects youth leaders from the community. They have weekly meetings to discuss their problems, ideas, and solutions that can contribute to the communities. The club concept was designed for youth-focused economic development. The theme learnt from experiments to create leadership, employment, and entrepreneurship. It claimed that on 19 July 2018, WVIN and its partner organization established 131 SKYE clubs with in four districts.

Chandan is a young boy from the Sunsari district. The earnings from his father, family was struggling for the daily life. Chandan's family participated in the livelihood training provided by WVIN. After the training his father got barber equipment to start his own business. learnt from the training his mother doing her own vegetable farm where they got nutrition. Chandan also participated in the sponsorship program by WVIN. He was selected as a club leader because of his confidence and leadership skills. His leadership was active in community activities like cleaning the community area, awareness about alcohol and drugs. they were cooperating with community and local government. The program changed the life of a family, empowered a youth for community development.

Some of youth leaders shared their experiences being as a club leader. Being a leader in a club changed their lives by sharing things confidently, fairly talking about the discrimination in the communities. A young girl, Kalpana from Rupendehi, who a student of management is also, shared her experience as a club leader, glad that her association in the club has exposed to her such wonderful opportunities for the leadership growth. She added more her experiences, club members work together to identify the community problems and market opportunities and the to plan and implement community service-learning and social entrepreneurship-learning project response. In her leadership, the club successfully completed a greenery project. Next project was looking to establish garbage box to promote cleanliness

in the community. These are some examples of how a small help from an international organization improved the life of a whole family.

Conclusion

As we have seen, the economic status of the farmers has improved with a little effort of donor agencies. Agency wise their investment sector was different. But the most common sector was education, health, water, sanitation, and agriculture. Investments in these sectors were found helpful to the improvement of nutrition and economic growth. From the increased economic activities farmers were able to get microfinance. Their saving from agricultural products created new fields of investment, new ideas and helped them send their children to higher education. Awareness programs helped them be educated and healthy.

Major agencies launched their program in CDD approach. However, other agencies launched their program using their own method but the most common was participatory approach. They taught farmers to be united, to form community, to identify their problems and work together to solve them. Common word for agencies were making community to launch their program. Community itself create social harmony in the society like Nepal, where there were different castes, ethnics, and minorities. The women were empowered to be involved in economic, social, and micro finance activities. They became aware of their rights, able to talk in front of many people and fight against domestic violence.

CHAPTER 5: SUCCESS AND FAILURE OF THE PROJECTS

This chapter analyze the success and failure of the projects based on global practices. Also review the CDD approach applied successful projects in other developing countries and the failure of the non-CDD approach applied projects in Nepal.

5.1 Success and Failure of the Development Projects

The success and failure in international development projects can be attributed to various factors. Success often stems from effective planning, clear objectives, adequate resource allocation, stakeholder engagement, and efficient execution. Additionally, projects that prioritize sustainability, local ownership, and community participation tend to achieve long-term impact and resilience. On the other hand, failure may result from poor planning, inadequate funding, lack of stakeholder buy-in, corruption, political instability, cultural barriers, and external shocks. Additionally, projects that fail to adapt to changing circumstances, address root causes of development challenges, or incorporate lessons learned from past experiences are more likely to falter. Overall, successful international development projects require a holistic approach that addresses economic, social, environmental, and governance dimensions while fostering partnerships and innovation for sustainable change.

5.2 Successful CDD Approach Applied Projects in Other Countries

Community-Driven Development (CDD) approaches have been successfully implemented in various countries around the world, contributing to grassroots empowerment and sustainable development. For example, Sauri Millennium Village Project in western Kenya has effectively empowered communities to identify and address their development priorities, leading to improvements in infrastructure, education, and healthcare. Similarly, Rural Livelihood Development Program in Afghanistan, The Livelihoods and Economic Recovery Project in Northern Uganda, The Cash for Work Project in Ethiopia, these successful CDD projects highlight the importance of local participation and ownership in development processes, resulting in tangible improvements in living standards and community resilience.

5.2.1 The Sauri Millennium Village Project in Western Kenya

The Sauri Millennium Village Project was established in 2004 to combat poverty and food insecurity in western Kenya. The project adopted a community development approach where community members were empowered to identify their problems and needs, and then work collaboratively with project staff to develop solutions. In the livestock sector, the project

provided livestock to community members and trained them on animal husbandry practices. The community was also trained on the value addition and marketing of livestock products to enhance income generation. The project subsequently focused on the establishment of cooperatives for the community to market their products, and in particular developed a milk cooperative which helped to create a sustainable market for dairy products.

Millennium Village Projects were initiated as a holistic approach to poverty reduction, emphasizing integrated interventions in multiple sectors such as health, education, agriculture, and infrastructure. These projects aimed to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which have now been succeeded by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

In the context of Western Kenya, the Sauri Millennium Village Project may have focused on addressing local challenges and improving various aspects of community well-being. Potential impacts of MVPs in similar settings can include:

1. Poverty reduction: MVPs often aim to alleviate poverty by implementing interventions that enhance agricultural productivity, promote income-generating activities, and improve access to education and healthcare services.

2. Improved access to education: Projects was focus on improving school infrastructure, increasing enrollment rates, and enhancing the quality of education. This can lead to increased literacy rates and improved educational outcomes among community members, particularly children and youth.

3. Enhanced healthcare and nutrition: MVPs typically prioritized healthcare interventions such as the construction or renovation of health facilities, training of healthcare workers, and the provision of essential medical supplies. These efforts improve access to quality healthcare services and contribute to improved nutrition and overall health outcomes.

4. Agricultural productivity and food security: In rural areas, MVPs often focused on agricultural development to increase crop yields, promote sustainable farming practices, and provide training and support to farmers. These initiatives enhanced food security, increased income from agriculture, and improved the resilience of farming communities.

5. Infrastructure development: Projects included infrastructure development, such as the construction or rehabilitation of roads, bridges, water supply systems, and electricity networks.

These improvements can enhance connectivity, access to markets, and overall socio-economic development in the region.

The impacts of the Sauri Millennium Village Project in Western Kenya would require a detailed assessment of the project's implementation, outcomes, and evaluations conducted in that specific area.

We found significant higher agricultural productivity, self-consumption, production margins, and total (surrogate) income, but an insignificant impact on cash income among targeted households, when compared to similar ones in neighboring villages. These outcomes are explained by a large allocation of productivity gains to self-consumption, instead of to the market. Despite showing sizeable effects of the MVP, the results call for revising of the assumptions about the relationship between agricultural productivity and cash income on which the MVP and other rural development interventions rely on.⁵⁸

5.2.2 The Rural Livelihood Development Program in Afghanistan

This project was initiated by Oxfarm in 2003 to 2006, 293 villages from 5 districts of Afghanistan, with a focus on improving rural livelihoods through asset creation, income generation, and skills development. The program used a community development approach that involved working with community members to develop sustainable solutions to their challenges. In the livestock sector, the project trained community members on animal husbandry practices, provided them with improved livestock breeds, and established veterinary services. The project also supported the establishment of local cooperatives to enable community members to market their livestock products collectively.

The Rural Livelihood Development Program (RLDP) in Afghanistan aimed to support and improve the livelihoods of rural communities in the country. It was focused on various aspects, including agriculture, infrastructure, education, and access to basic services. They often aim to enhance agricultural productivity, promote sustainable farming practices, provide training and capacity building to farmers, improve access to markets, and develop rural infrastructure such as roads, irrigation systems, and storage facilities.

These programs also focused on diversifying income sources for rural communities, encouraging entrepreneurship, and empowering women and marginalized groups. They played

58 Wanjala, Bernadette M. & Muradian, Roldan, 2013. "Can Big Push Interventions Take Small-Scale Farmers out of Poverty? Insights from the Sauri Millennium Village in Kenya," *World Development*, Elsevier, vol. 45(C), pages 147-160.

a crucial role in poverty reduction, food security, and overall socio-economic development in rural areas.

Impact of The Rural Livelihood Development Program in Afghanistan

However, rural development programs like RLDP generally aim to achieve positive outcomes for rural communities. Here are some potential impacts:

- 1. Improved livelihoods:** RLDP enhanced the income and livelihood opportunities for rural populations by promoting sustainable agricultural practices, providing training and technical assistance, and facilitating access to markets and credit.
- 2. Poverty reduction:** By supporting rural communities, RLDP can contribute to poverty reduction efforts by increasing agricultural productivity, creating employment opportunities, and fostering economic growth in rural areas.
- 3. Food security:** Enhancing agricultural productivity and supporting farmers through RLDP can improve food security by increasing the availability and accessibility of nutritious food for rural populations.
- 4. Empowerment and social inclusion:** Rural development programs often aimed to empower women and marginalized groups by providing them with training, resources, and opportunities for economic participation, thereby promoting social inclusion and gender equality.
- 5. Infrastructure development:** RLDP may invest in developing rural infrastructure such as roads, irrigation systems, and storage facilities, which can improve transportation, irrigation, and post-harvest handling capabilities, leading to increased agricultural production and income.
- 6. Increased Education:** Raising awareness for girls and boys was the great achievement of the project. Women and men raised their voices to educate their child. Teachers were trained to improve education. A Female teacher was hired to teach girls in under the of 10.

It is important to note that the impact of RLDP in Afghanistan or any specific program can vary based on various factors, including program design, implementation, local context, and external challenges. To assess the precise impact of RLDP in Afghanistan, it would be necessary to refer to official reports, evaluations, or studies conducted on the program's outcomes and effectiveness.

5.2.3 The Livestock Development Project in Somalia

The Livestock Development Project was implemented by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in Somalia with a focus on improving livestock nutrition and production, as well as enhancing market access for livestock products. The project used a community development approach where community members were engaged in all stages of project planning and implementation. In the livestock sector, the project trained community members on animal health and husbandry practices, established veterinary services, developed feedlots for improved livestock nutrition, and supported the establishment of livestock markets. Through the project, community members were able to improve their livestock production systems, which helped enhance their income generation.

Livestock development projects in general had several potential impacts:

1. Livelihood improvement: Livestock was a crucial source of income and livelihood for many communities in Somalia. Livestock development projects enhanced livestock productivity, improve animal health services, and provide training and support to livestock keepers, resulting in increased income and improved livelihoods.

2. Food security: Livestock development projects contributed to food security by promoting sustainable livestock production, improving animal nutrition, and increasing the availability of animal protein for communities.

3. Market access: These projects improved market access for livestock producers, facilitating the sale and trade of livestock products. By connecting producers to markets, livestock development projects can enhance income opportunities and economic growth.

4. Resilience and drought mitigation: In Somalia, a country prone to drought and other climate-related challenges, livestock development projects focused on building resilience among livestock keepers. This also involves interventions such as improved water management, veterinary services, and the established early warning systems to mitigate the impact of drought and other natural disasters on livestock and livelihoods.

5. Capacity building: Livestock development projects provided training and capacity-building programs to livestock keepers, improving their knowledge and skills in animal husbandry practices, disease management, and market-oriented approaches. This empowered livestock keepers with the necessary tools to improve productivity and overall efficiency.

5.2.4 The Livelihoods and Economic Recovery Project in Northern Uganda

The Livelihoods and Economic Recovery Project was successfully implemented by the International Rescue Committee in Northern Uganda with the aim of improving the livelihoods of communities affected by conflict. The project used a community development approach, which involved working with community members to identify their problems and develop solutions to address them. In the livestock sector, the project provided training on animal health and husbandry practices, distributed improved livestock breeds, and established veterinary services. The project also supported the establishment of local cooperatives to enable community members to market their livestock products collectively. Through the project, community members were able to diversify their income sources and improve their livelihoods.

- 1. Food Security:** The IRC promoted nutrition-sensitive agriculture programmed to improve the nutrition of the most vulnerable. This program addressed one or more of the underlying causes of malnutrition, including inadequate food availability or access, poor care and feeding practices, and weak health and sanitation environments. Women's empowerment and health problems were critical elements of nutrition sensitive agriculture, because women's decision-making, control of resources and workload, directly impact their ability to provide healthy and nutritious food for them and their children.
- 2. Women's Economic Empowerment:** Economic empowerment enabled women to access income-generating opportunities and improved their earning potential. This contributes to their financial security, allowing them to provide for themselves and their families. They were encouraged to start and grow their businesses. With access to training, capital, and support networks, women entrepreneurs can contribute to economic growth, create employment opportunities, and drive innovation.

Implemented household gardens and small livestock programs: Agricultural inputs, training on sustainable production techniques and nutritional information are provided to vulnerable populations.

5.2.5 The Cash for Work Project in Ethiopia

The Cash for Work Project in Ethiopia was implemented by the International Labor Organization (ILO) with the aim of providing income-generating opportunities to communities affected by drought. The project used a community development approach, which involved

community members in the design and implementation of the project. In the livestock sector, the project provided training on animal husbandry practices, established veterinary services, and distributed veterinary inputs. The project also supported the establishment of local cooperatives for the marketing of livestock products and provided cash-for-work opportunities related to food security, livestock production. Through the project, community members were able to generate income from livestock production and enhance their livelihoods.

- 1. Improved Income:** Cash-for-work project created short-term employment opportunities for individuals who were unemployed. This allowed them to earn income to support themselves and their families. The programs were useful to improving farmers food security.
- 2. Poverty Alleviation:** By providing income to vulnerable communities, cash for work project contributed to poverty reduction.
- 3. Infrastructure Development:** Many cash-for-work initiatives focus on improving local infrastructure, such as road construction, water management, or environmental conservation. These projects enhance the quality of community infrastructure and services, benefiting the local population in the long run.
- 4. Skills Development:** Cash-for-work programs often include training components to enhance the skills and capacities of participants. This equips them with new skills, making them more employable and empowering them to pursue alternative income-generating opportunities beyond the project duration.
- 5. Social Cohesion:** By engaging community members in collective work, cash-for-work projects fostered a sense of social cohesion and cooperation. Participants work together towards a common goal, strengthening community bonds and promoting a sense of unity.

In summary, these case studies show that the Community-Driven Development approach can be effective in livestock development projects. This approach involves working closely with communities to understand their needs and priorities and supporting them to develop sustainable solutions that are appropriate for their local context. This approach helps to build the capacity of communities to manage their own resources, achieve food security, and build resilience to shocks such as droughts and conflicts.

5.3 Failure of Non-CDD projects

Engaging in development projects sponsored by multilateral and bilateral institutions is a common approach for developing nations seeking to enhance their infrastructure and economies. These enterprises, often backed by objects like the World Bank, aim to assist countries in achieving specific economic and social objectives such as education improvement, livelihood enhancement for farmers, infrastructure development, and healthcare standard elevation. While the historical contributions of the multilateral system to global progress and poverty reduction are significant, not all development projects reach their intended goals.

During the era of adjustment and liberalization, the aid delivery system faced challenges, particularly due to the weakening of government-led coordination. As countries implemented economic reforms guided by IMF and World Bank adjustment programs, donor coordination became more aligned with these policies. However, the donor community is diverse, with varying experiences and priorities, leading to a wide range of supported projects and programs. This diversity, alongside the relatively strong coordination of policy conditionality, created tension within the aid delivery system. This scenario has contributed to reducing aid effectiveness and disrupting developmental processes in least developed countries (LDCs) over the past two decades. In summary, while there was coordination around policy conditionality, the diversity among donors and their supported initiatives has posed challenges to aid effectiveness and hindered developmental progress in LDCs.

The rate of project failure in developing countries has been found to be higher than the rate in developed countries.⁵⁹

The factors contributing to the failure of development projects in developing countries are diverse, covering issues related to project design, management, political support, and effective implementation. Recognizing and addressing these challenges is determining for enhancing the design and execution of future projects, ensuring their effective contribution to the sustainable development of the countries involved. The six cultural dimensions may explain why corruption exists in government projects. These dimensions include power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and indulgence.⁶⁰

⁵⁹ Ogwueleka, A. (2009). Value and Risk Management in Construction Projects-smart strategy. *Journal of Environmental research and Policies*, 4(1):89–93.

⁶⁰ G Hofstede, 1983 “Cultural dimensions for project management”, *International Journal of Project Management*, Volume 1, Issue 1, , Pages 41-48,

Non-Community Driven Development (non-CDD) projects are characterized by a top-down approach to decision-making and implementation, where external entities or centralized authorities play a predominant role in shaping the project. Unlike Community-Driven Development initiatives, non-CDD projects often have limited community participation in the planning and execution phases. Decision-making tends to be centralized within organizations, government agencies, or other external bodies, relying on professional expertise and technical knowledge rather than actively involving the community in shaping the project's direction.

In non-CDD projects, large-scale infrastructure initiatives are a common example where decisions are made at higher administrative levels, and community input may be less influential in determining project priorities.

In the realm of construction projects, the contractual structure can take different forms, with the project owner engaging in direct agreements with main construction contractors and consulting engineers or opting for alternative arrangements. This could involve hiring a managing contractor to oversee the entire project or dividing it into separate packages with various contractors. Unfortunately, corruption can seep into any of these contract scenarios, compromising the fairness and integrity of the project. Political influence often plays a significant role in shaping these contracts. Decision-makers within the government or public entities may favor certain contractors based on political affiliations rather than merit, potentially leading to biased selections and distorted allocation of contracts. This influence can adversely impact the efficiency and transparency of the procurement process, increasing the risk of corruption within the construction project.

“The policymakers and project management practitioners would be able to use findings as a guide during government program or project implementation to avoid corrupt practices that may eventually influence failure. Specifically, the use of hard copies of project documents should be replaced with electronic ones; this will help reduce corruption and delays in accessing projects documents, which forces practitioners to indulge in corrupt practices. This can also help with easy access to project documents by the media and the general public, which will help with monitoring and transparency.”⁶¹

61 Isaac Sakyi Damoah, Cynthia Akwei, Isaac Oduro Amoako, David Bothie, “Corruption as a Source of Government Project Failure in Developing Countries: Evidence From Ghana” *Project management Journal*, July 2018 49(3):17-33

During the pre-qualification and tendering phases, which are important stages in selecting contractors, the involvement of the project owner, potential bidders, and bid evaluation consultants becomes paramount. Political interference at this juncture can result in favoritism, where certain contractors may gain an unfair advantage due to political connections rather than their qualifications or capabilities.

5.3.1 Characteristics of Non-CDD Projects:

Non-Community-Driven Development (CDD) projects typically exhibit several distinct characteristics. Firstly, decision-making processes in non-CDD projects are often centralized, with key decisions made by external stakeholders such as government agencies, international organizations, or private investors, rather than through participatory mechanisms involving local communities. This top-down approach can result in limited input from community members regarding project objectives, priorities, and implementation strategies. Additionally, non-CDD projects may lack mechanisms for community participation and empowerment, leading to reduced accountability and transparency in project management. Instead of emphasizing community ownership and engagement, these projects often prioritize efficiency, cost-effectiveness, and achieving predetermined outcomes.

1. Centralized Decision-Making: In non-CDD projects, decision-making is typically centralized within an organization, government agency, or another external entity. This approach has a top-down governance structure where political leaders within the government play a pivotal role in shaping and implementing development initiatives. Political leaders, generally at higher levels of authority, have tremendous influence over project planning and execution, making critical decisions about resource allocation, policy formation, and project prioritization. This centralized model promotes efficient coordination but may result in restricted community participation in decision-making processes. Political leaders, driven by broader policy goals and political considerations, hold the primary responsibility for defining project objectives and strategies. The challenges may arise when the perspectives and needs of local communities are not adequately considered, potentially resulting in projects that do not align with the realities and priorities of the grassroots. Balancing the efficiency of centralized decision-making with the necessity of community engagement becomes crucial for the success and sustainability of the projects.

Limited Community Participation: In the CDD projects, where community participation is a foundation, non-CDD projects may involve less direct involvement of community members in the planning, execution, and monitoring phases. When communities feel excluded from decision-making processes or perceive that their needs and concerns are being overlooked, they are more likely to resist or oppose the project.

Limited community participation in development projects can impede the effectiveness and sustainability of initiatives intended to benefit local populations. When communities are not actively involved in the planning, decision-making, and implementation processes, it can lead to a lack of understanding and ownership of the projects. This can result in a disconnect between the intended goals of the projects and the actual needs and priorities of the community members. Furthermore, insufficient community engagement may contribute to resistance or opposition from the local population, hindering the smooth execution of projects and potentially causing social tensions. To address this issue, it is crucial for governments and project planners to adopt inclusive approaches that actively involve community members, consider their perspectives, and ensure that development initiatives align with the cultural and social context of the area.

Promoting community participation involves creating platforms for dialogue, consultation, and collaboration between project implementers and local residents. This not only fosters a sense of ownership and empowerment within the community but also enables project planners to tap into local knowledge and insights. Inclusive community engagement can contribute to more sustainable and contextually relevant solutions, as the projects will be better aligned with the actual needs and aspirations of the people they are designed to benefit. Additionally, transparency in communication and providing information about the projects can help build trust and overcome potential skepticism, fostering a more positive and cooperative relationship between the stakeholders involved.

2. Professional Expertise: Non-CDD projects often rely on professional expertise and technical knowledge from external sources, such as consultants, experts, or project managers, rather than prioritizing the local knowledge and skills within the community.

In non-community-driven development (CDD) projects, a common characteristic is the heavy reliance on professional expertise and technical knowledge sourced externally. This often involves the engagement of consultants, experts, or project managers who bring

specialized skills to the implementation of initiatives. While these professionals contribute valuable insights and technical proficiency, the challenge arises when their involvement sidelines the utilization of local knowledge and skills within the community. This exclusion may lead to a disconnect between the project objectives and the realities on the ground, as local nuances, cultural considerations, and community-specific needs may be overlooked in the decision-making processes. Consequently, the projects may struggle to gain community buy-in and face difficulties in achieving long-term sustainability.

To address this issue, it is essential for non-CDD projects to strike a balance between external expertise and the utilization of local knowledge. Incorporating the perspectives of community members in the planning and decision-making stages ensures that projects are culturally sensitive and aligned with the community's aspirations. Additionally, capacity-building initiatives can be implemented to empower local individuals with the necessary skills, enabling them to actively participate in and contribute to the project.

3. Top-Down Implementation: The implementation of non-CDD projects often follows a top-down approach, with directives and plans flowing from higher levels of authority to the grassroots level.

Non-community-driven development (CDD) projects frequently adopt a top-down implementation approach, where decisions, directives, and project plans are formulated at higher levels of authority and subsequently cascaded down to the grassroots level. In this hierarchical structure, government agencies, international organizations, or central project management teams typically hold the decision-making power. While this approach can provide efficiency in project management and resource allocation, it often neglects the nuanced needs and perspectives of local communities. Local stakeholders, who possess valuable insights into the social, cultural, and economic dynamics of their communities, may find limited opportunities for meaningful participation in shaping the projects that directly impact their lives.

The top-down implementation of non-CDD projects can lead to challenges such as a lack of community ownership, diminished motivation among local participants, and potential resistance from those who feel excluded from the decision-making process. Additionally, the imposition of externally determined project goals without sufficient consideration for the unique context of each community may result in projects that are less responsive to local priorities and may struggle to achieve sustained success. To enhance the effectiveness of non-CDD projects, there is a growing recognition of the importance of incorporating bottom-up

approaches that actively involve local communities in the planning, implementation, and evaluation stages, fostering a more inclusive and participatory development process.

4. Resource Allocation: Resource allocation in non-CDD projects may be based on predefined criteria set by external entities, with less emphasis on community needs assessment and priorities.

In non- CDD projects, resource allocation often follows predefined criteria established by external entities, such as government agencies, international organizations, or central project management teams. These criteria may prioritize overarching development goals, economic considerations, or political objectives, rather than placing a primary emphasis on community needs assessment and localized priorities. As a result, the allocation of resources may not align closely with the specific challenges and aspirations of the communities directly affected by the projects. This can lead to a disconnect between the intended outcomes of the projects and the realities on the ground, hindering the projects' ability to address the most pressing issues faced by local populations.

5.3.2 Types of Non-CDD Projects:

Non-Community Driven Development (non-CDD) projects encompass a diverse range of initiatives that are characterized by a centralized decision-making structure and reduced community participation. One prevalent category includes large-scale infrastructure projects, where governments or private corporations lead the planning and implementation without extensive community input. These projects often involve the construction of highways, bridges, or utilities, and decisions are made based on technical expertise and predefined criteria rather than active involvement from the communities they affect.

Another type of non-CDD project is seen in national health programs, where centralized authorities dictate healthcare policies and interventions. While these programs aim to address public health challenges, decisions on resource allocation, healthcare infrastructure, and service delivery are typically made at higher administrative levels, potentially limiting community input. Additionally, government-led economic development programs fall within the non-CDD realm, focusing on broader economic policies and strategies without prioritizing the active participation of communities in decision-making processes related to economic development initiatives.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives constitute another category of non-CDD projects, where businesses or philanthropic organizations may design and execute projects without extensive community engagement. CSR initiatives often prioritize predefined social or environmental goals set by the sponsoring entity, and while they may contribute positively to communities, the level of community involvement can vary, with decision-making power resting more heavily with the organization providing funding or resources. In summary, non-CDD projects manifest in various sectors, each demonstrating a centralized decision-making approach that distinguishes them from Community-Driven Development initiatives.

1 Large Infrastructure Projects:

Mega infrastructure projects led by government agencies or private corporations may follow a non-CDD approach, with decisions primarily made at higher administrative levels. Large infrastructure projects represent a significant category within the realm of non-CDD initiatives. These projects involve the planning, design, and implementation of substantial physical structures such as highways, bridges, airports, and utilities. One defining characteristic of large infrastructure projects is their centralized decision-making structure, typically led by government bodies, private corporations, or public-private partnerships. The decision-making process often relies on technical expertise, engineering considerations, and predefined criteria, with limited direct input from the communities that will be impacted by the infrastructure.

The scale and complexity of large infrastructure projects necessitate careful planning and coordination among various stakeholders. Funding for these projects may come from government budgets, international aid, or private investors. Due to the significant financial investments involved, decision-makers prioritize efficiency, feasibility, and long-term sustainability. Community engagement in large infrastructure projects tends to occur during the initial planning stages or through consultation processes, but the actual decision-making authority lies with the entities overseeing the project. Challenges may arise in instances where local needs and concerns are not adequately addressed, leading to potential resistance or lack of social acceptance.

2 National Health Programs:

National Health Programs represent a category of non-Community Driven Development (non-CDD) projects that are centrally directed and implemented by national governments to address public health challenges. These programs have a leading role in

defining healthcare policies and actions, frequently without considerable community in decision-making process.

In these efforts, the government takes the lead in setting health priorities, allocating funding, and executing interventions based on national health plans and expert recommendations.

The decision-making structure of National Health Programs is typically centralized, with key policy decisions being made at higher administrative levels of the government. This centralized approach allows for consistency and uniformity in healthcare policies across the nation, but it may limit the direct influence of local communities in tailoring health interventions to their specific needs. While these programs aim to improve overall public health outcomes, community engagement may be more focused on the implementation and delivery stages rather than shaping the foundational policies of the program. This dynamic can present challenges in ensuring that health interventions effectively address the diverse and context-specific health needs of different communities within the country. The success of National Health Programs hinges on striking a balance between centralized decision-making for uniform policy implementation and recognizing the unique health challenges faced by diverse communities. Effective communication channels and mechanisms for community feedback become essential to ensure that the implemented health strategies align with the nuanced needs of the population. As with other non-CDD projects, navigating the tension between centralized planning and community-specific adaptation is critical in achieving sustainable and equitable health outcomes.

3 Corporate Social Responsibility Initiatives:

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives constitute a distinct category of non-Community Driven Development (non-CDD) projects. In these initiatives, corporations or philanthropic organizations undertake projects with the aim of contributing to social or environmental causes. What sets CSR initiatives apart is their often-centralized decision-making process, where the sponsoring entity, be it a corporation or a philanthropic organization, takes the lead in designing and implementing projects.

In the context of CSR, the decision-making authority rests primarily with the company or organization providing the funds or resources for the initiative. While the intended impact is positive and aligns with broader societal or environmental goals, the level of community

involvement can vary. Communities may be consulted during the planning stages, but the overall direction of the initiative is determined by the entity funding the project. This centralized approach aims to ensure alignment with the corporate or philanthropic mission, but it also poses challenges related to understanding and addressing the specific needs and nuances of the communities being served. Balancing the organizational priorities with the local context remains a critical consideration in the implementation and success of CSR initiatives within the broader framework of non-CDD projects.

4 Government-Led Economic Development Programs:

Government-led economic development programs play a pivotal role in shaping a nation's economic landscape by implementing targeted initiatives to spur growth, enhance competitiveness, and improve overall living standards. These programs often encompass a spectrum of strategies, ranging from substantial investments in critical infrastructure such as transportation and energy systems to fostering innovation and technological advancements. Tax incentives, subsidies, and regulatory reforms are commonly employed to attract both domestic and foreign investments, creating a favorable business environment. Additionally, education and workforce development initiatives are integral components, aiming to equip the population with the necessary skills to meet the demands of evolving industries. By strategically addressing specific economic challenges and leveraging a mix of policy measures, these programs aim to create a robust and sustainable economic foundation.

For instance, countries like China have implemented ambitious initiatives such as the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), emphasizing extensive infrastructure development to enhance global connectivity and trade. In contrast, India's Make in India focuses on promoting domestic manufacturing and fostering innovation to bolster economic growth. The success of such programs often hinges on effective collaboration between the public and private sectors, continuous evaluation, and adaptability to changing economic dynamics.

5.3.2 Project Failures In Developing Countries

Project failures in developing countries often stem from a combination of systemic challenges deeply rooted in their socio-economic fabric. Limited local capacity and resources, including a scarcity of skilled professionals and financial constraints, frequently hinder the effective planning and execution of projects. Additionally, poor infrastructure and logistical hurdles pose significant barriers, impeding the seamless implementation of initiatives. Political

and governance issues, such as corruption and political instability, further exacerbate project challenges, leading to mismanagement of funds and disruptions in continuity.

Wanniarachchi, D.. (2022), discusses the phenomenon of failed government projects in developing countries, reasons for project failure include poor financial management, corruption, inadequate planning and estimation, ineffective communication, and socio-cultural and political interference.⁶²

The use of intermediaries in concealing corrupt payments is a common practice employed by entities seeking to engage in bribery while minimizing the risk of detection. One prevalent method is through the engagement of agents, who act as intermediaries between the bribing company and the ultimate recipient of the illicit payment. These agents often enter into seemingly legitimate agency agreements, detailing services that may be exaggerated or entirely fictitious. The payment under such agreements typically exceeds the value of the purported services, sometimes expressed as a percentage of the contract price. The agent, upon the company winning the contract, then transfers part or all of the payment to the dishonest representative of the project owner or government, often using offshore bank accounts for added opacity.

It was apparent that project failure is very frequent in developing countries and in particular, Nigeria, with several causes, effects and consequences. Some of the causes established were poor financial capacity; inaccurate costing and corruption; incompetence and lack of knowledge; poor planning and estimation; poor communication; poor contracting and contractor practices; frequent design scope changes and errors; socio-cultural and political interference; poor leadership and corruption.⁶³

Joint ventures provide another avenue for concealing bribes. International joint ventures may utilize agency agreements to mask bribery arrangements, with the partner residing in the jurisdiction least likely to uncover or penalize the bribery taking a leading role. Alternatively, a joint venture partner, possibly connected to a representative of the project owner or a government minister, may receive an inflated share of profits as a way of transferring the illicit payment. Social and cultural factors, including insufficient community engagement and

62 Wanniarachchi, D. "The reasons for the failure of public projects in sri lanka as a developing country and the state of the country after the failure, With a mainly focus on the mattala airport project. 8, 2022

63 King M. E., Manu R., "Government project failure in developing countries: A review with particular reference to Nigeria" Global Journal of Social Sciences, vol.19, Mar 27, 2020

resistance from local populations, contribute to the misalignment of projects with the actual needs and preferences of the target communities. Inadequate planning and monitoring mechanisms, combined with dependencies on external factors, create a challenging environment where projects may falter due to a lack of realistic assessments and adaptability.

Another common cause of failure in non-CDD projects in developing countries is the insufficient involvement of local stakeholders in the decision-making process. When local communities are excluded from key discussions and decision points, there is a risk of overlooking valuable insights, local knowledge, and potential challenges that may arise during project implementation. This lack of participation not only undermines the sense of ownership but also hampers the successful execution of the project. Moreover, the failure to engage with local communities may lead to a perception of external imposition, where the project is seen as an alien intervention rather than a collaborative effort aimed at fostering sustainable development.

Inadequate financial and technical resources pose additional challenges. Non-CDD projects in developing countries may suffer from insufficient funding, leading to delays, compromised quality, or premature termination. Technical expertise is crucial for the successful implementation of projects, and a lack of skilled personnel can result in poorly executed initiatives. This is particularly evident in sectors such as infrastructure development, where the absence of specialized knowledge can lead to suboptimal outcomes, delayed timelines, and increased costs. In summary, the failure of non-CDD projects in developing countries often stems from a combination of inadequate localization, limited community involvement, and insufficient financial and technical resources, highlighting the importance of context-specific planning and community engagement for successful project implementation.

The execution of government projects in any nation holds paramount importance for the well-being and progress of its citizens, as these initiatives form the fundamental building blocks that contribute to national growth and development. Successful project implementation serves as a tangible and visible sign of a country's advancement and its commitment to addressing the needs of the populace. However, in developing countries like Nigeria, a significant proportion of government-initiated projects are often categorized as failed endeavors.⁶⁴

64 Hanachor, M., 2013. Community Development Projects Abandonment in Nigeria: Causes and Effects. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3 (6), 33-36.

5.3.3 Causes Of Project Failure Globally

Project failure can occur globally due to a variety of reasons. Here are some common causes:

- A. Poor Planning and Estimation:** Inadequate project planning, including unclear objectives, unrealistic timelines, and insufficient resource allocation, can lead to project failure. Without a well-defined roadmap, projects are prone to delays, cost overruns, and misalignment with stakeholder expectations.
- B. Poor Communication:** Ineffective communication among project stakeholders, including team members, clients, and external partners, can lead to misunderstandings, delays, and conflicts, hindering project progress and success.
- C. Political Instability:** Political instability, including changes in government, civil unrest, or regulatory uncertainty, can disrupt project continuity, undermine investor confidence, and impede decision-making processes.
- D. Inaccurate Costing and Corruption:** Incorrect budgeting and financial mismanagement can lead to cost overruns and resource shortages, while corruption can undermine project integrity and divert funds away from their intended purpose.
- E. Poor Contracting and Contractor Practices:** Weak contract management and unethical contractor practices, such as bid-rigging or kickbacks, can result in substandard workmanship, delays, and legal disputes, jeopardizing project outcomes.
- F. Ineffective Leadership:** Poor leadership, including lack of vision, direction, or accountability, can contribute to project failure. Strong leadership is essential for guiding teams, making strategic decisions, and navigating challenges throughout the project lifecycle.
- G. External Factors:** External factors such as changes in market conditions, regulatory requirements, or geopolitical instability can significantly impact project outcomes. Failure to adapt to external influences can render project plans obsolete or unfeasible.
- H. Socio-Cultural and Political Interferences:** Societal norms, cultural practices, and political interference can impede project implementation by creating resistance, bureaucracy, or conflicting agendas, complicating decision-making and delaying progress.

By addressing these common causes of project failure through proactive planning, effective communication, and robust risk management, organizations can increase the likelihood of project success and achieve their desired outcomes.

5.3.4 Non-CDD Project Failures In Nepal

Project failures in Nepal, like in many developing countries, stem from a variety of factors ranging from governance issues to logistical challenges. Corruption, poor planning, inadequate funding, and political instability have been identified as significant contributors to project failures in Nepal. Lack of community participation and consultation can also lead to projects that do not adequately address the needs of local populations. These failures result in wasted resources, delays in development, and frustration among stakeholders.

Aaron Wildavsky, writes in his paper explores the reasons-insufficient information, few and poor project proposals, inability to program foreign aid, opposition of the finance ministry, and severely limited capacity to administer development-given for the failure of planning. Special attention is paid to the tortuous release of funds and the effort to overcome basic political and administrative factors through surface changes in the form of organization for planning.⁶⁵

In Nepal, project failures often stem from a combination of factors similar to those outlined in the common causes of project failure. Poor planning and estimation contribute to unclear objectives and unrealistic timelines, exacerbating issues such as inadequate resource allocation and delays in project implementation. Ineffective communication among project stakeholders, including government agencies, NGOs, and local communities, further complicates matters, leading to misunderstandings and conflicts. Political instability in Nepal, characterized by changes in government and civil unrest, disrupts project continuity and undermines investor confidence. Additionally, issues such as inaccurate costing and corruption, poor contracting and contractor practices, ineffective leadership, and socio-cultural and political interferences hinder project progress and success.

Almost half of the projects of strategic importance for nation's development failed to meet 50 percent of the performance target in the last fiscal year, signalling tepid pace at which development works are moving ahead. The government has categorised 21 development projects, mostly infrastructure, as 'national pride'. This implies these projects are vital for the country's overall development. Acknowledging the importance of these projects, the government has ensured these projects do not face any funding problem during construction

⁶⁵ Wildavsky, Aaron. "Why Planning Fails in Nepal." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 17, no. 4 (1972): 508–28. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2393830>.

phase. Also, the prime minister has the authority to make direct intervention if these projects encounter any problem.⁶⁶

Here are some examples of the Non-CDD project, and big projects that failures in Nepal.

1. Melamchi Water Supply Project

The Melamchi Water Supply Project in Nepal is a significant initiative aimed at addressing the water scarcity issues in the Kathmandu Valley, which faces challenges due to rapid urbanization and population growth. The project involves diverting water from the Melamchi River in Sindhupalchowk District to Kathmandu through a tunnel system, providing much-needed drinking water to the valley residents.

As early as 1973, during the formulation of the water supply master plan, the Melamchi River was recognized as a viable water source for meeting the escalating demand for drinking water in the expanding Kathmandu Valley.⁶⁷

The Melamchi Water Supply Project was initially projected to cost US\$ 464 million in 2000 AD. However, after restructuring in February 2008, the project's total cost was revised to US\$ 317.3 million, with a completion date set for June 2013. Funding for the project is jointly provided by various agencies, including the Asian Development Bank (ADB), Japan Bank for International Cooperation (JBIC), Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), Nordic Development Fund (NDF), Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), and the Government of Nepal (GoN). Out of the total, Subproject I, which includes the Melamchi Water Supply Project (MWSP), will utilize US\$ 249.4 million, with contributions from ADB (41.62%), JBIC/JICA (19%), NDF (4.2%), OPEC (5.5%), and GoN (29.63%).⁶⁸

The Melamchi Water Supply Project (MWSP) in Nepal has been marked by a series of challenges and setbacks throughout its implementation timeline. Initiated in 1998, the project faced funding issues early on, with several major donors withdrawing support due to various

66 <https://kathmandupost.com/money/2016/09/13/almost-half-of-national-pride-projects-fail-to-meet-target>, Accessed on 10 Dec 2023

67 Phuyal, R., Bhattarai, M. and Devkota, N. (2020) Dynamics of Financing, Governance and Socioeconomic Benefits of Melamchi Water Supply Project in Nepal: Lessons Learnt. *Modern Economy*, 11, 1359-1375. doi: 10.4236/me.2020.117097.

68 Government of Nepal, Melamchi Water Supply Development Board, <https://www.melamchiwater.gov.np/about-us/melamchi-ws-project/project-description/> accessed on 20 December, 2023

reasons, leading to a significant financial deficit. Political upheavals, such as the Maoist insurgency, further disrupted progress. Management issues, including the termination of contracts with appointed companies due to performance concerns, added to the delays and complexities. Despite efforts to restructure the project and bring in new contractors, issues persisted, including financial disputes and tragic accidents at the construction site. Natural disasters, like the 2015 earthquake, also hindered progress. While some milestones, such as the completion of tunnel sections and pipeline installation, were achieved over the decades, the project continued to face challenges with missed deadlines and contractual disputes, highlighting the complexities and difficulties in executing large-scale infrastructure projects in challenging environments.

The Melamchi water supply project in Kathmandu has become emblematic of a recurring tradition where it has been inaugurated multiple times(5 times), dating back to the tenure of Prime Minister Sushil Koirala and continuing through the leadership of the current Prime Minister, Pushpa Kamal Dahal. This practice underscores a concerning pattern of premature celebrations and political posturing, where inaugurating the project has been used as a symbolic gesture to claim credit and showcase progress, even though the project may not yet be fully functional or operational. This tradition not only highlights the challenges and delays faced by the project but also raises questions about the effectiveness of such ceremonial inaugurations in addressing the longstanding water supply issues in Kathmandu.

The Melamchi Water Supply Project has not only experienced cost escalations but also significant delays and uncertainty, largely attributed to various stakeholders such as donors, contractors, bureaucrats, and politicians. The involvement of multiple parties with differing agendas, interests, and priorities has led to bureaucratic hurdles, political interference, and challenges in decision-making processes. The project is often cited as one of the failure projects in the country.

2. Budhigandaki Reservoir Hydropower Project

The Budhigandaki Reservoir Hydropower Project, boasting a capacity of 1200 MW, has been under discussion for nearly five decades, with a pre-feasibility study completed almost 40 years ago. Initiated with a pre-feasibility study in 1984, the project remained dormant until 2006 when it was opened to international bidders, yet garnered no interest. Revived in 2011 due to severe power shortages, the government aimed to pursue it as a national pride project

with domestic funding. Later, the Ministry of Energy, Water Resources, and Irrigation opted for a company model to proceed with the project.

The project, initially intended to significantly enhance the country's electricity supply that has encountered a series of politically motivated changes since 2011, leading to uncertainty regarding its construction timeline. Despite a detailed design by Tractebel in 2016, China's sudden involvement in 2017, without bidding, led to controversy under the Nepal Communist Party's leadership. Initially awarded to China Gejuwa Group of Company (CGGC) for an Engineering, Procurement, Contract with Finance (EPCF) model. The decision to award the contract to the Chinese company without a tender in September 2018 was met with controversy, further complicating the project's progress. Despite being slated for completion by 2022, the project has faced delays, with the Chinese contractor, China Gezhouba Group Corporation, yet to initiate construction. The agreement was later canceled by the new government, opting instead for domestic investment under the leadership of NEA. The project's history reflects a debate between domestic and foreign investment approaches, with shifting strategies based on changing government policies and priorities.

The irrigation aspect has been completely overlooked in the project's design, according to a review committee formed by the government. About 100,000 hectares of land in Nawalparasi and Chitwan districts downstream could have benefited from irrigation, which appears to have been disregarded, possibly to maintain good relations with India. Another concern is the dam type proposed in the design. For Nepal's seismic activity, rock-filled dams would be more suitable than concrete double arch dams.

The water flowing from the reservoir during dry months, produced by submerging Nepalese land and through local investment, should yield financial returns if utilized by India. Contrasting India's deeper interest in Nepal's water resources for irrigation purposes in the Gangetic plains. This situation highlights the complex interplay of politics, economic interests, and regional dynamics surrounding large-scale infrastructure projects in Nepal.

The Budhi Gandaki project made numerous promises to locals, including resettlement plans, to persuade them to hand over their land. However, these promises have largely gone unfulfilled, leading to widespread dissatisfaction among affected communities. Despite some individuals benefiting from compensation payouts, many marginalized and poor families feel neglected and resentful. The compensation amounts, although higher than government rates,

are insufficient for those who rely on their land for sustenance. The informal land market operates at much higher rates than government allocations, exacerbating the disparity. The lack of clarity and delays in resettlement plans further compound the frustration among locals.

Efforts to complete the Budhi Gandaki project remain mired in chaos and uncertainty. Despite ongoing discussions and initiatives, the project continues to face numerous challenges and obstacles. Issues surrounding land acquisition, compensation, and resettlement persist, leading to dissatisfaction and unrest among affected communities.

CHAPTER 6: SECONDARY DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERVIEWS

This chapter is about data analysis from secondary data and interviews in the field survey, case studies and explanations, and in-depth interviews and reviews.

In this chapter author analyzed ODA and its impact in Nepalese society. Author chosen data in period of 2002 to 2013, at that period the Community livestock development program was implemented. Reason to select the period, ADB's CDD approach also became part of the development increment in health, education, and agriculture.

In the previous chapter we discussed the ODA was major source for development in Nepalese economy. In this chapter, we will discuss how CDD approach in ODA became effective in development of HDI for poor people, women, minorities, and vulnerable people of Nepal. In the perspective of HDI value, Nepal improved from low HDI 0.399 in 1990, increased to medium 0.602 in 2021. Which means Nepal improved in HDI indicators in last two decades. Nepal is largely dependent on ODA, agriculture, and remittance till the date. When the third world boosting their industrial economy in the mid of 20th century, at the same time Nepal had no schools, hospitals, roads, industries, and electricity. Agriculture contributed nearly 10 percent of GDP with 65% employed in the national economy. Half of the expenditure budget contributed by ODA. Poverty is not only known as a material deprivation but also detached from education, health, infrastructure, and democracy. According to the national census 2021 more than 2.2 million Nepalese are living abroad looking for the better job. Form their remittance follows nearly 10% of the GDP of Nepal. The major cause of migration was poverty, unemployment, and conflict in the nation.

After the people's movement in 1990, aid flow to Nepal increased. Major donor agencies, DAC countries increased their aid to Nepal. At the same time, Nepal receiving multilateral, bilateral, and technical assistance. Increased number of NGO registered reached over 39,000 up to 2014. Among them more then 25000 were registered purpose of Rural and Community development.

6.1 SECONDARY DATA ANANALYSIS

In this section, the study focused on analyzing secondary data collected from various sources. Secondary data analysis based on the increased activity of NGOs, ODA to Nepal, the rise in the number of schools, the increase in the number of health posts, and the growth in

agriculture production and livestock presents an opportunity to assess the broader impacts of these trends on socio-economic development. By examining existing data sources, Author investigated the effectiveness of NGO interventions, the allocation and utilization of ODA funds, the accessibility and quality of education and healthcare services, and the overall growth and sustainability of the agricultural sector.

6.1.1 Activities of NGOs (Non-Government Organizations) had been increased.

After the restoration of multi-party democracy local NGOs are registered to support to the local people. They were supporting as a bridge between rural, poor, minorities and vulnerable people, government and INGOs. NGO's development paradigm that supported people-centered activities, including women empowerment, elderly literacy support, human rights when government was unable to deliver service on time lack of decentralized service.

Table no 6- 1: Number of NGOs registered in Nepal.

Sector	No of NGOs
AIDS and abuse control	98
Child welfare	1149
Community and rural development	25403
Educational development	517
Environmental protection	1451
Handicapped and disabled	758
Health Services	875
Moral Development	1146
Women services	2967
Youth Services	5395
Total	39759

Source: department of social welfare council

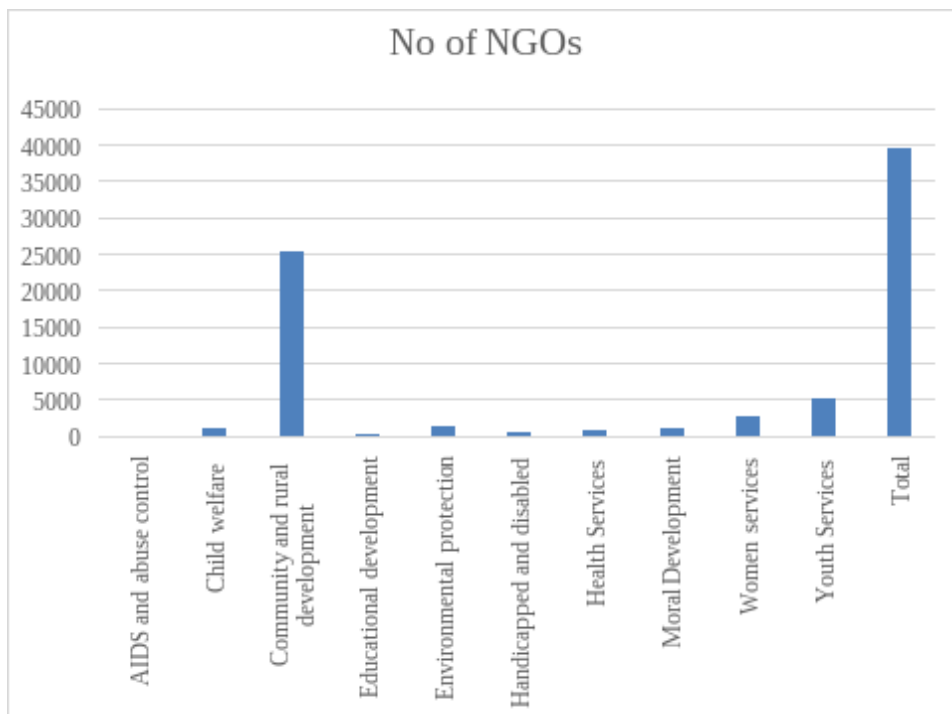
The table 6.1 presents data on the number of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) involved in various sectors. These NGOs play a vital role in addressing social and development issues. It is evident from the table that the sector with the highest number of NGOs is

"Community and rural development," which boasts a significant 25,403 NGOs. This highlights the substantial focus on rural development activities in this region, reflecting the importance of uplifting rural communities and promoting sustainable development.

Another notable sector is "Women services" with 2,967 NGOs, indicating a strong emphasis on addressing gender-related issues and supporting women's empowerment. This reflects the recognition of the importance of gender equality and women's well-being in societal development. Additionally, "Youth Services" with 5,395 NGOs suggests a concerted effort to engage and support the younger population, potentially focusing on education, skill development, and youth-related issues.

In contrast, sectors like "AIDS and abuse control," and "Educational development," have comparatively lower numbers of NGOs.

Chart 6- 1: No of NGO registered in Nepal.



6.1.2 Official Development Assistance has been increased.

Mid of 90s ODA commitment and receipt ratio to Nepal increased rapidly. Nepal is one of the major ODA receiving country in Asia. Though she could not progress as much as received ODA ratio. Major causes of effective utilization of ODA, that complicated procedures in finalizing process, difficulties timely procurement components and procedures for contract. Nepalese public purchase law is also a major hurdle in the timely completion of the aid-based

projects. Which minimized the priorities of donor's and their interests. Thus, donor agencies mainly prioritized their development program in local infrastructure and humanitarian aid. Where local community people are directly involved in the project planning to evaluation phase. The Reason behind that Community driven-development approach became effective approach in Nepalese context.

Table no 6- 2 : ODA Commitment and net receive by Nepal.

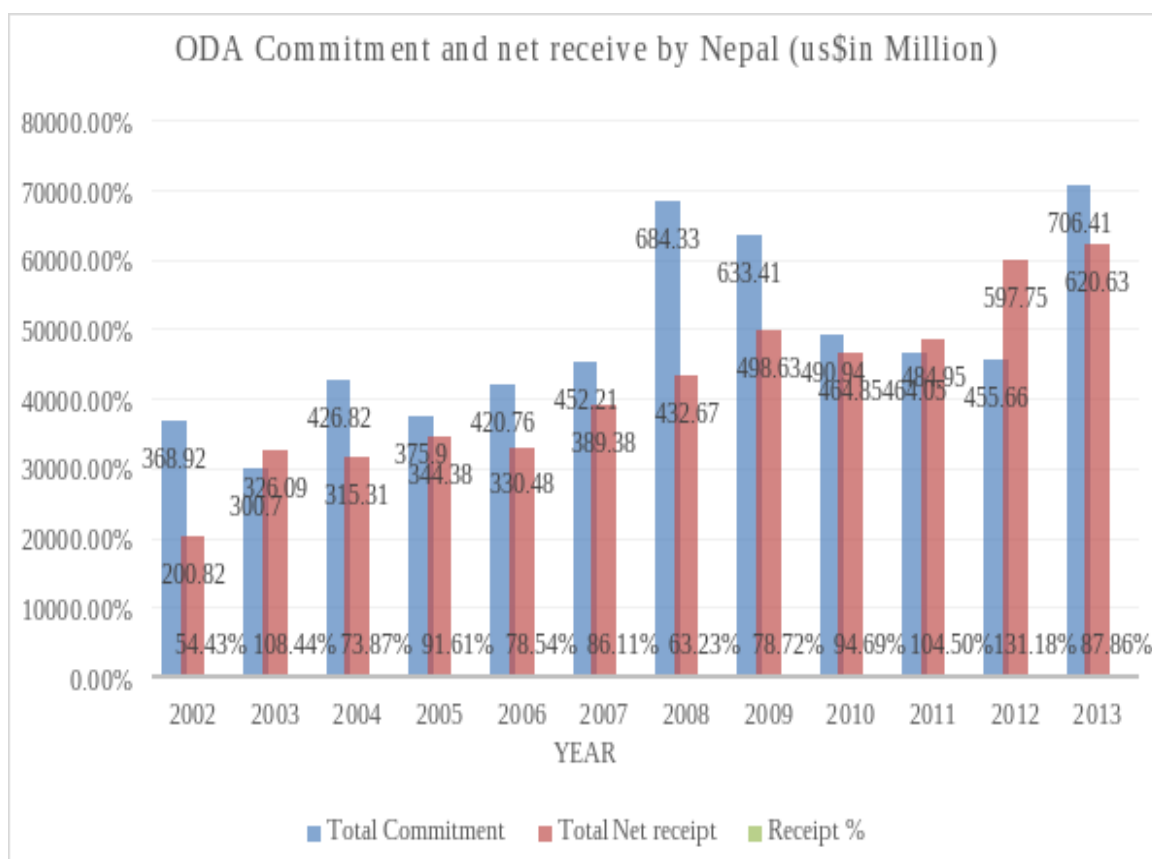
Year	Total Commitment (US \$ in million)	Total Net receipt (US \$ in million)	Receipt %
2002	368.92	200.82	54.43
2003	300.7	326.09	108.44
2004	426.82	315.31	73.87
2005	375.9	344.38	91.61
2006	420.76	330.48	78.54
2007	452.21	389.38	86.11
2008	684.33	432.67	63.23
2009	633.41	498.63	78.72
2010	490.94	464.85	94.69
2011	464.05	484.95	104.50
2012	455.66	597.75	131.18
2013	706.41	620.63	87.86

Source: Data extracted on 7 Jan 2023 17:20 UTC (GMT) from [OECD. Stat](#)

From the above table, Net receipt ratio nine out of 12 fiscal years lower than the total commitment. Which means, Nepal is unable to use all the amount aid on time as much as donor agencies committed. However, mid 90s to early 2000 era, Nepal was suffered by conflict over the nation. The rebels destroyed large number of infrastructures, physical attacked to foreign aid-based projects in the conflict period. Which affected to utilize all the aid on time. Micro finance activities declined at the same time as labor migration increased rapidly. A decade long conflict and insurgency decreased the mission of ODA as much as targeted. Such a conflict

period donor' belief in commitment and disbursement was remarkable to increase Nepal's development.

Chart 6- 2 : ODA Commitment and net receive by Nepal.



6.1.3 Coverage of education was improved.

Education is backbone of the development. Late 1990s education awareness boosted in Nepal. In mid 80s education was limited only elite families. In such period, gender disparities in the education eliminated in the school. Both girl and boys enrolled for primary education significantly. Awareness program lunched by government, INGOs and donor agencies in associated with local NGOs. For the full and beneficial inclusion of indigenous people, women and linguistic minority's education goal achieved in the development and consolidation. Below table describes in more details increment of schools and students.

Table no 6- 3: Number of Schools and Students Primary, Lower secondary and Secondary

Academic Year	Primary		Lower Secondary		Secondary	
	School (absolute number)	Student (in thousand)	School (absolute number)	Students (in thousand)	School (absolute number)	Student (in thousand)
2001	24915	3792	7331	1058	4111	449
2002	26638	3928	7917	1133	4541	458
2003	27268	4025	8249	1210	4741	511
2004	24746	4030	7436	1445	4547	588
2005	27525	4502	8471	1375	5039	587
2006	27901	4515	8880	1301	5329	679
2007	29220	4419	9739	1444	5894	671
2008	30924	4782	10636	1467	6516	715
2009	31655	4901	11341	1604	6928	790
2010	32684	4952	11939	1700	7559	812
2011	33881	4783	13791	1813	8233	849
2012	34298	4577	14447	1823	8416	878
2013	34743	4402	14867	1828	8726	897

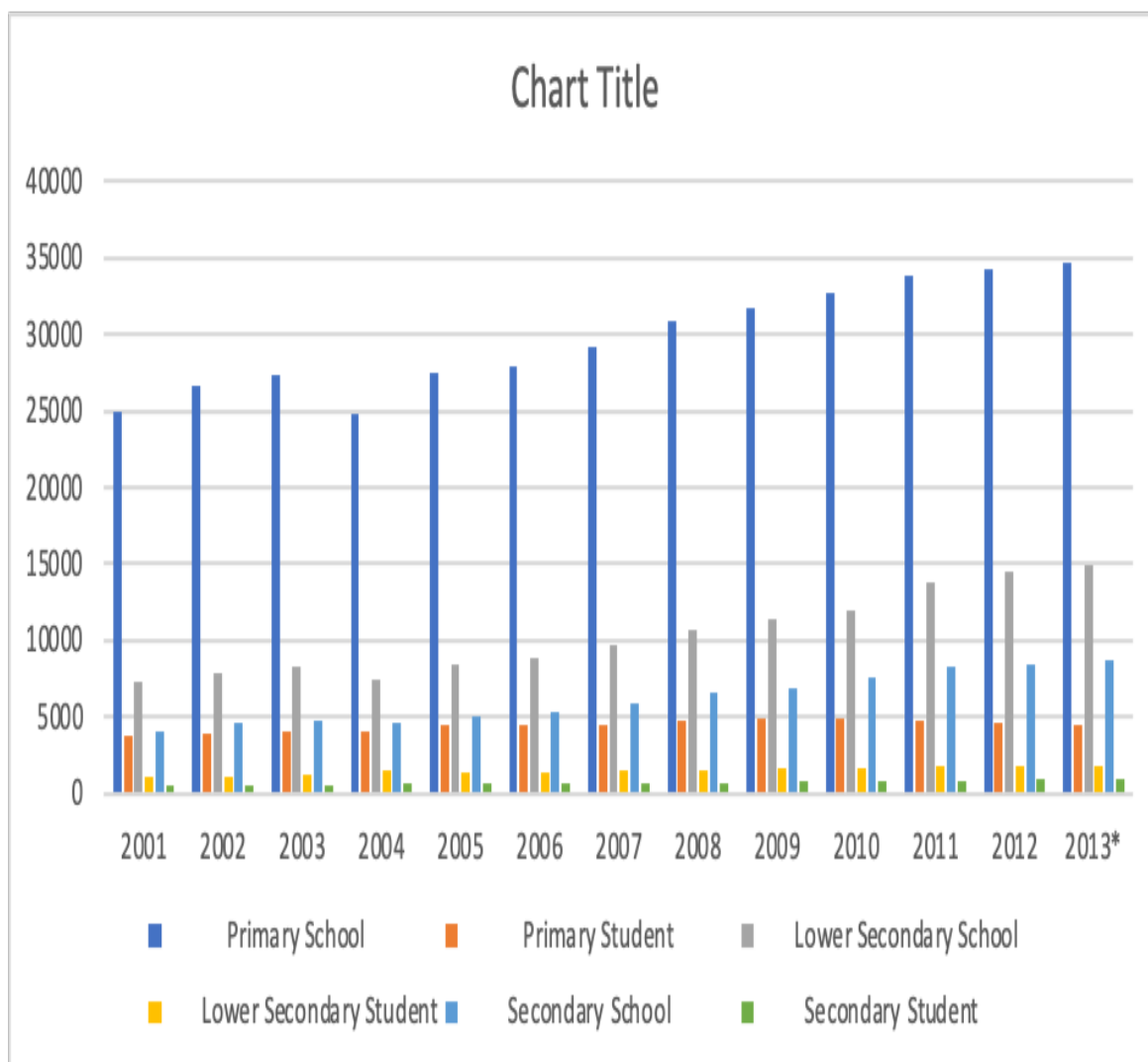
Source: Central bureau statistics, statistical yearbook 2013

In the above table it shows increment of school in a decade. Nearly 10,000 new primary schools were built, around 7000 lower secondary schools were built, and 4000 secondary schools were built in period of 11 years. Similarly, 700,000 students enrolled in primary school, 800,000 in lower secondary school and 400,000 more students were enrolled in secondary school. Reason behind the increment in school and student enrollment were, international aid, assistance by International NGOs, support of national NGOs. Increment in government's investment in education also played a major role. As some human right agencies and childcare organization's reported children were deployed by maoist in moist insurgency.

During the Maoist insurgency, there were instances where Maoist forces would march through schools and sometimes even close them for their own programs. While this period marked a significant achievement in the education sector of Nepal, with increased emphasis on education and community involvement, there were also challenges. One major obstacle to child education was geographical difficulties, particularly in remote areas where schools were often far from home and access was difficult by mountainous terrain and poor roads. Many communities responded to this issue by building schools in their villages, resulting in a rise in

the number of schools and enrollment rates. During this time, private schools began to appear, with the majority concentrated in metropolitan regions.

Chart 6- 3: Number of Schools and Students Primary, Lower secondary and Secondary



6.1.4 Hospital and health post increased

Nepal's health status was very poor in early 90s. Early marriage, lack of education was main problem of health issue in Nepal. Immune system was poor due to poor nutrition. Large population of Nepal living in rural community has been in poverty. They were the one who faced high risk of infection, lack of hospitals, unwanted pregnancy. Those were the major problems in rural area. In late 90s, government of Nepal increased health posts, sub health posts in rural areas, and in urban area hospitals. In rural area, where less access of the means of transportation to the health post and sub health post treatment was provided in health post. Minor health problems were solved in nearby the village. For the major health issues, they

were referred to the major hospitals in urban area. Health awareness programs, distribution of family planning materials decreased the child and mothers' mortality.

Table no 6- 4: No of Hospitals and Health posts

Fiscal year	Total Health Institution	Hospitals	Primary Health Care Centers	Health Posts	Ayurvedic Services Centre ++	Sub-Health Posts	Hospital Beds
2002/03	4228	83	10	700	287	3148	5250
2003/04	4221	83	10	700	287	3141	5250
2004/05	4210	87	6	699	287	3131	6796
2005/06	4216	87	6	699	293	3131	6796
2006/07	4191	87	6	676	293	3129	6944
2007/08	4195	94	5	699	293	3104	6944
2008/09	4392	102	5	676	293	3114	6944
2009/10	4392	102	207	1176	291	2617	6944
2010/11	4393	102	208	1698	291	2095	7049
2011/12	4393	105	205	2175	293	1615	7035
2012/13	4393	107	204	2175	293	1615	7285
2013/14	4485	107	215	2175	293	1695	7550

Source: Source: Central bureau statistics, statistical yearbook 2013

The above table shows the nationwide increased of number of health institutions. Hospitals were increased slowly, but health care centers, health post and sub health post were increased rapidly. From the year 2008, numbers of sub health post were decreased. Instead, health post was increased. That means sub health post were upgraded into health post. Service and workforce in health post has been upgraded than the sub health post. The report shows in 2003, the total no of health institution was 4228, gradually increased up to 4485 in 2013. The no of health posts increased 3 times with in 10 years.

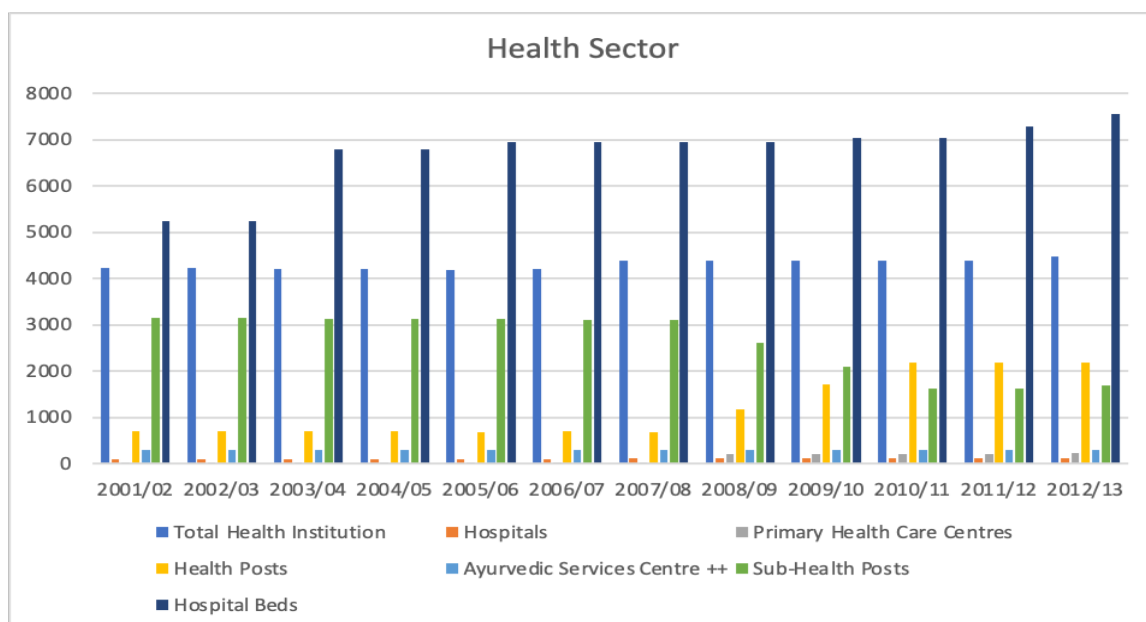
From 2002 to 2013, Nepal underwent significant transformations in its healthcare sector, marked by various initiatives and improvements aimed at enhancing healthcare access and

quality. International organizations and NGOs played a crucial role in supporting Nepal's healthcare sector in that time. They provided funding, technical expertise, and resources to strengthen the country's health care infrastructure and built the capacity of healthcare workers. Especially in rural part of Nepal where poor access the transportation, health post, health care education contributed to improve overall health sector, and added more skilled healthcare workforce.

The CDD approach helped bridge the gap in healthcare access, particularly in remote and marginalized areas. Communities were directly involved in identifying healthcare infrastructure needs, such as the construction of health posts and the recruitment of healthcare workers. This resulted in the establishment of healthcare facilities in areas that previously lacked access to even basic medical services. Additionally, the CDD approach facilitated community-based health promotion and education initiatives. Residents were engaged in health awareness campaigns, leading to increased knowledge about hygiene, sanitation, family planning, and disease prevention. This not only improved health-seeking behaviors but also contributed to a reduction in preventable diseases and improved maternal and child health.

The public awareness and community involvement were encouraged to promote health-seeking behavior, sanitation, toiletries in remote areas and preventive measures. Health education programs and campaigns were launched to inform the population about sanitation, hygiene, and disease prevention. Community health volunteers played a significant role in disseminating health information and providing basic healthcare services at the grassroots level.

Chart 6- 4: No of hospitals and health posts



6.1.5 Agriculture Production increased.

As we know, Nepal is agriculture country and economic dependency in agriculture is more than 65%. In Nepal, the increase in agriculture and milk production has profoundly improved nutrition and food security for its population. Agriculture is the backbone of Nepal's economy, with a significant portion of the population engaged in farming. Over the years, there has been a concerted effort to modernize agriculture practices, promote sustainable farming techniques, and introduce high-yield crop varieties. In Nepal average food supply in terms of calorie per person per day was 2430 Kcal and the proportion of undernourished population was 16 percent during 2004-2006 (FAO, 2009). The mean food grains availability including potato at the end of the Tenth Plan (2002-2007) was 280 kg per capita per year.

6.1.5.1 Milk production increased.

Milk production has also witnessed substantial growth in Nepal. The government and various development organizations have supported dairy farming through initiatives like improved animal husbandry practices and access to better livestock breeds.

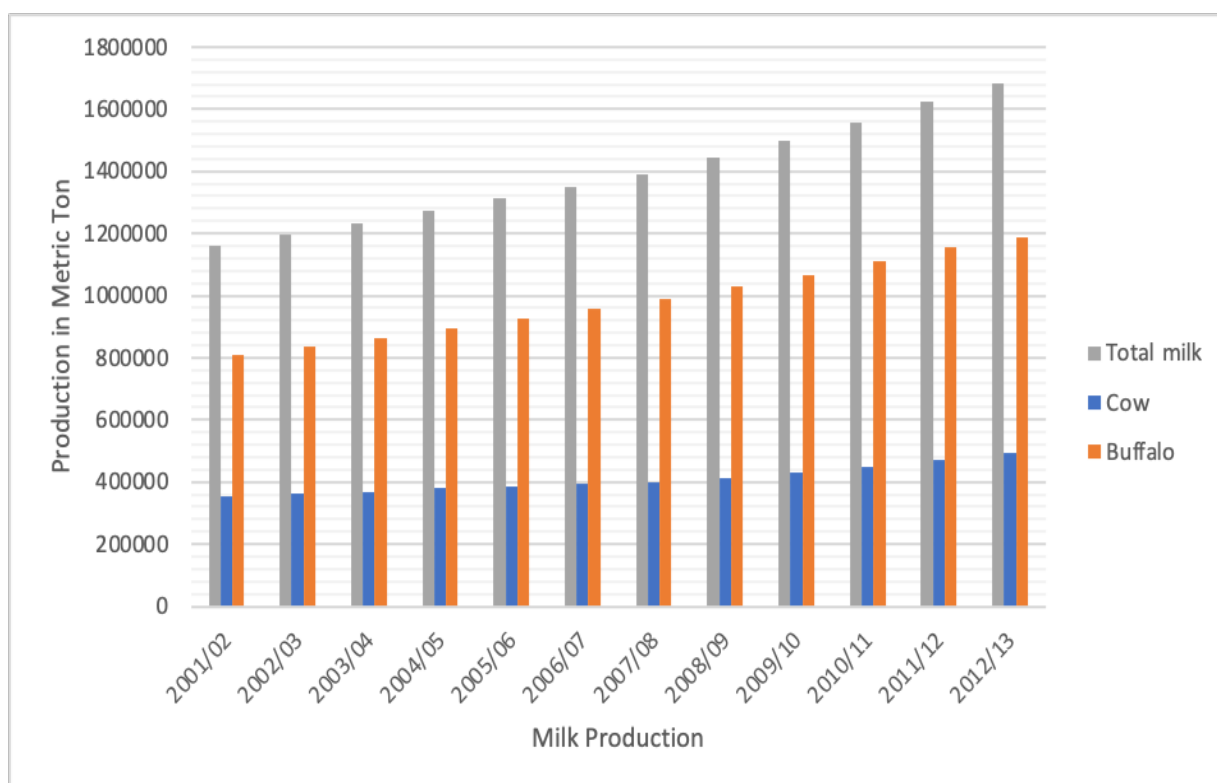
Table no 6- 5 Total milk production

Fiscal Year	Cow	Buffalo	Total milk (mt.)
2001/02	352090	806690	1158780
2002/03	361555	834376	1195931
2003/04	368531	863322	1231853
2004/05	379637	894591	1274228
2005/06	385290	926850	1312140
2006/07	392791	958603	1351394
2007/08	400950	987788	1388738
2008/09	413919	1031500	1445419
2009/10	429030	1066867	1495897
2010/11	447185	1109325	1556510
2011/12	468913	1153838	1622751
2012/13	492379	1188433	1680812

Source: Department of livestock, Ministry of Agriculture

In the above table 6.5 shows increased status of milk production. Total milk production in year 2001/2002 was 1158780 metric ton. Which was increased to 1680812 metric ton in year 2013. The government of Nepal recognized the potential of the dairy sector in improving rural livelihoods and reducing poverty. Consequently, it implemented policies and programs aimed at promoting dairy farming. These initiatives included financial incentives, subsidies for feed and fodder, and the establishment of dairy cooperatives. These cooperatives facilitated milk collection, processing, and marketing, providing farmers with a structured and efficient supply chain that encouraged them to livestock farming. In results, every year around 40000 metric tons added in total production.

Chart 6- 5: Total milk Production



Yearly buffalo milk production was almost 2 times higher than cowmilk in Nepal. Traditionally, farmed buffaloes are well suited to the diverse climatic condition for Nepal they are hardy animals that can thrive in hilly and mountainous region. Hi-breed cows are import from India which was costly compared to domestic breed buffaloes.

Another reason for increased buffalo milk is a cultural preference for buffalo milk in Nepal, particularly for traditional dishes and dairy products. This demand for buffalo milk has encouraged its production, compared to cow milk.

6.1.5.2 Livestock Production

In the period from 2004 to 2013 found significant growth in livestock production, driven by improved animal husbandry practices. Farmers gained access to improved breeds major livestock species cattle, buffalo, poultry, sheep, goats and pig which were bred for higher productivity. That increased the country's economy and food insecurity. Nepal had significant population of livestock for milk and meat. Goat and sheep rearing is popular in Nepal for meat and commercial wool from the sheep.

Table no 6- 6: Total livestock

Year	Cow	Buffalo	Sheep	Goat	Pig	Poultry	Total
2001/02	6,978,690	3,700,864	840,141	6,606,858	934,461	21,779,004	40,840,018
2002/03	6,953,584	3,840,013	828,286	6,791,861	932,192	22,669,011	42,014,947
2003/04	6,966,436	3,952,654	824,187	6,979,875	935,076	23,429,196	43,087,424
2004/05	6,994,463	4,081,463	816,727	7,153,527	947,711	23,182,079	43,175,970
2005/06	7,002,916	4,204,886	812,085	7,421,624	960,827	23,614,334	44,016,672
2006/07	7,044,279	4,366,813	813,621	7,847,624	989,429	24,319,428	45,381,194
2007/08	7,090,714	4,496,507	809,480	8,135,880	1,013,359	25,056,604	46,602,544
2008/09	7,175,198	4,680,486	802,993	8,473,082	1,044,498	24,864,409	47,040,666
2009/10	7,199,260	4,836,984	801,371	8,844,172	1,064,858	26,140,126	48,886,771
2010/11	7,226,050	4,993,650	805,070	9,186,440	1,108,465	38,908,670	62,228,345
2011/12	7,244,944	5,133,139	807,267	9,512,958	1,137,489	45,548,101	69,383,898
2012/13	7,274,022	5,241,873	809,536	9,786,354	1,160,035	48,375,975	72,647,795
Percent	4.06	29.40	-3.78	32.49	19.45	54.98	43.78

Source: Department of livestock, Ministry of Agriculture

Data from the above, over the span of 12 years, there was a significant increase in total livestock production in Nepal. Starting at 40.8 million units in 2001/02, it grew steadily to reach 72.6 million units by 2012/13. This represents an overall growth of 43.78%.

Among the livestock categories, buffaloes showed the most substantial increase, with production growing by 54.98%. Buffaloes emerged as a dominant livestock category during this period, possibly due to their suitability for various agricultural tasks and dairy production in the region. While buffaloes exhibited the highest growth, cows, sheep, goats, pigs, and poultry also showed consistent growth over the years. The poultry sector experienced significant expansion, with production nearly doubling during this period. Sheep and goats showed moderate growth, with a positive overall trend. These livestock categories are crucial for meat production and play a significant role in the livelihoods of many rural communities.

Cattle, represented by cows and buffaloes, remained a cornerstone of livestock production in Nepal. While cows showed a relatively stable trend, buffaloes experienced a remarkable increase, reflecting their importance in milk and meat production. The data illustrates a positive trajectory in livestock production in Nepal over the examined period. This growth is indicative of the country's increasing focus on animal husbandry and agriculture, highlighting the role of livestock in Nepal's economy and food security.

Table no 6- 7: Crops Production

Fiscal Year	Pulses (Mt.)	Fruits (Mt.)	Vegetables (Mt.)	Total Production (Mt.)
2004/05	271.30	548.00	2081.79	2901.09
2005/06	267.45	535.45	2190.10	2993.00
2006/07	274.37	575.09	2298.68	3148.14
2007/08	269.77	630.56	2538.90	3439.23
2008/09	255.38	686.21	2754.40	3695.99
2009/10	262.35	707.00	3004.00	3973.35
2010/11	318.36	831.60	3203.00	4352.96
2011/12	327.15	885.52	3400.90	4613.57
2012/13	356.70	1086.85	3409.70	4853.25
2013/14	294.71	940.73	3472.06	4707.50

Source: *Department of livestock, Ministry of Agriculture*

From the above table shows that an expansion of a variety of fruit, vegetables, and pulses during this decade. Total production increased from 2,901.09 metric ton in 2004/05 to 4,853.25 metric ton in 2012/13, marking a substantial growth of approximately 67.13% during this period.

The production of pulses remained relatively stable over the years, with some fluctuations. While there were minor ups and downs, the production in 2012/13 was slightly higher than in 2004/05, indicating a modest increase of 31.15%.

The production of fruits experienced consistent growth throughout the period. From 548.00 metric ton in 2004/05, fruit production increased significantly to 1,086.85 metric ton in 2012/13, marking an impressive growth rate of approximately 98.88%. This growth reflects the potential for fruit cultivation and the increasing demand for fruits in Nepal.

Vegetable production demonstrated steady and robust growth, more than doubling over the years. From 2,081.79 metric ton in 2004/05, it reached 3,409.70 metric ton in 2012/13, showcasing a remarkable growth rate of approximately 64.14%. The growth in vegetable production is indicative of increased focus on horticulture and vegetable farming.

6.2 In-depth Interviews with Officials and Cooperative members

For the study purpose, recently conducted a series of in-depth interviews with government officers in Nepal, focusing on their perspectives and insights into the Community Livestock Development Project. This initiative holds great significance in Nepal, where agriculture and livestock play a crucial role in rural livelihoods. The interviews were guided by a carefully crafted questionnaire designed to extract valuable information from these officers, who are instrumental in the planning and execution of the project in the country.

These interviews provided a unique opportunity to gain firsthand knowledge from government officials closely involved in the Community Livestock Development Project in Nepal. They shared their experiences, challenges, and successes related to the project's implementation. Moreover, their insights into the impact of the project on local communities, including aspects such as income generation, food security, and sustainable agriculture, were particularly enlightening. Through these interviews, obtained a comprehensive understanding of the project's intricacies and its potential to drive positive change in Nepal's rural areas.

The information gathered from these interviews will serve as a valuable resource in shaping my research findings and recommendations concerning the Community Livestock Development Project in Nepal. By tapping into the expertise and experiences of government officers, the interview's aim to contribute to a more nuanced and informed discussion on how this project can continue to support rural development and enhance the livelihoods of Nepali communities.

Rudra Poudel, Project Director

Poudel Rudra who was the Project leader of CLDP in Nepal stated that Lamjung, Tanahau, Palpa and Nawalparasi were the major four leader districts of CLDP. In the initial phase of Project, the social mapping has done that was very helpful different factors such as image of living conditions, the nature of households and social infrastructure. Further he mentioned that they found the level of poverty in district and VDCs of farmers who have had food which they can survive less than 3 months, and less than 6 months. The project was concentrated specially on women, lowest income group farmers, depressed and the lowest caste, ethnic group, minorities, and backward class.

He answered the following when he has been asked about the working model of CLDP. He stated that there used to be a Livestock action team in district which assign the VDCs to collect realistic data about the society including several factors namely farmers' demographics, social infrastructure, economic condition, sustainability and so forth. Subsequently, VDCs further assign the wards to do survey which has done with the help of local leaders and NGOs. After collecting complete and adequate data there after only the project made the livestock and resources available to priority group. There used to receive about 200-300% over applications to take the opportunity from CLDP. Therefore, sensible priority selection was mandatory. After completing the processes CLDP provide livestock. For "Bakhra Paicho" after borrowing mother goat for 18-24 months program the farmers should provide about 3 female kids to the Livestock service team (LST) which LST will further distribute to applicants in the pipeline. The kids of the village were also so attached with the mother goats provided by project. Either they themselves arrange the grass in their leisure time or helped their parents. Further livestock service center helped farmers for grass seeds, cage for livestock and vaccines. Equally and significantly farmers themselves has also played a vital role in succeeding the project. Last but not the least the NGOs had important participation in project for social mobilization.

The success of the project was attributed to the collaborative efforts between Village Development Committees (VDCs) and wards, facilitated by the coordination with NGOs. Leveraging their familiarity with the farmers' demographic backgrounds, VDCs played a significant role in ensuring the effective implementation of the project. Beneficiary farmers experienced numerous positive impacts as a result of the project intervention, including increased income, empowerment of women in decision-making processes, a notable decrease in alcohol consumption among ethnic and minority groups leading to reduced incidents of domestic violence, heightened social recognition within the community, and strengthened solidarity among women's groups. Beneficiary farmers after projects had found plenty of positive impact in their life including: -

1. Increased income.
2. Women being capable of decision making.
3. Decreased in consumption of alcohol in "Ethnics and Minorities" which reduced domestic violence.
4. Gained social recognition from society.

5. Women's group solidarity became strong.

Chandra Rana retired veterinary Doctor.

Dr. Rana said that the project named CLDB in Palpa district was first emerged lending the farmers a mother goat which they had to return after that mother gives birth to kids. that was begging phase of the project whose intention was to uplift the farmers and other people's way of living. Then after project gradually developed by making package like 10 goats per 10 household. The project also had provided cages and other essentials. The "Goat Paicho" program was highly effective in hilly areas. Moreover, other livestock like mother goats, pigs, cows were also had been provided to people of community targeting women in the community. People were taught about livestock and its management through various trainings. So that the uneducated and the backward class of society were also enlightened about the importance of livestock farming. Livestock farmers started to grow special grass to make grass supply sufficient to livestock with the help of project. When After the youth returned form aboard Covid-19, they also started livestock farming. But during pandemic demand for milk was less than supply.

On an average 2-300 goats are usually supplied to different districts like Dhading, Lamjung etc. in festivals and special occasions. livestock manures were also sold for the agricultural purpose. This made an extra income along with selling goats and milk. For depositing and withdrawing the cash the farmers needed to go to bank and must do bank transaction which enforced them to learn new things that ultimately elevate their lifestyle as well. lastly, he included that the co-operation from local government bodies were lacking, as they are not making sustainable plans to promote livestock farmers. He stated that the project itself was a sustainable project.

Yubraj Gyawali (Officer, District Livestock Department Palpa)

Regarding CLDP, Yubraj Gyawali from Palpa district stated that the project was established around 18 years ago. At first the project's feasibility study was did. The factors which had considered during feasibility study were interests of farmers, marketability, practicality, and sustainability. During feasibly study, they found mainly 3 kinds of people resided in community and they were lower level, medium level, and upper level. They found

that true and main need of farmers were livestock as they wanted to enhance their life standard increasing existing earning level. Magar community were about 52-54% of the total population of the community. As per Gyawali, about 15 people out of 100 who come under lower income level group were interested in pig farming, 60-70 out of 100 were interested in goat farming and rest who came under upper level were interested in cow farming respectively. Collaborating with ADB the project has made special program and packages for women of the society that of course played important role in equity in household and society. As project was for all people around the district and community so there was not competitive environment instead a racial harmony was seen in implementation phase.

Indented collaboration of NGOs, the projects has made different mini projects like “Krishak Pathsala” temporary “Agriculture school and garden” where farmers were taught all about livestock farming. The farmers were so positive and interested as they pay 2-3000 rupees for transportation for importing milk giving cows. Without grass production none of livestock farming can develop therefore project had provided adequate resources to do grass farming for farmers as well. Different technical help was done by projects like providing freezer, livestock insurance policies, cages for livestock. On an average the milk production is 2500 liters per day. Now, many farmers have registered their business and earning around 150000-500000 rupees per year. Then it was so easy for livestock farmers to contact the representative as there were plenty of livestock service offices to help farmers. But these days there are only few, further he stated that local Government is not being able hire expertise in these areas. He said that for community, small projects are more beneficial than big ones. The population is decreasing in village, but the number of households remain same therefore to boost the living standard of those households and to utilize unused lands of village small but effective projects must be made as a substitute to big and time taking projects. He believes that carrying all the people from different background will create harmony in society and helps in development.

Mr. Goit, retired veterinary Doctor, Nawalparasi

Mr. Goit, from the district Nawalparasi regarding CLDP stated that the project’s target was to welfare the limited income people, backward group, and women.

At first, the project organized some orientations whose motive was to know the needs of farmers regarding livestock choices like cows, goats, buffalos, and pigs respectively. Then they started to distribute the livestock to farmers as per their needs. Gradually, the grass farming

lessons were taught to farmers along with many other process-oriented trainings like PRA, SIA, scale mobilization, gender mobilization etc. There was a livestock action team to cooperate with project and farmers. The main purpose of CLDP in Nawalparasi was to boost economic level of community. Later, many uneducated farmers were also become able to make an extra level of income from livestock that is why they became capable to send their kids to school and colleges for the brighter future. Due to the project the society was in a position to break the cycle of poverty. Utterly, lower income and uneducated people of the society were highly benefited along with other group of people. The project helped farmers in society to earn a living, generate additional income, become self-sufficient (especially women) and be use of other in need.

CHAPTER: 7 PRIMARY DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter analyzes the primary data, and findings from the field survey.

To find out real scenario of the project, conducted a comprehensive field survey in Nepal, focusing on education, health, economic improvement, in social improvement empowerment of women, minorities, and small farmers from the community livestock development. The significant discovery was the adoption of modern agriculture, women participation higher than before. And minorities raised their voices fearlessly, without hesitation. Women empowerment in rural areas had increased access to education, health, and microfinance activities. All the respondents replied to the tradition gender and ethnics norms are eliminated.

In the aforementioned study, a total of 250 respondents were selected for field surveys across five districts: Chitwan, Nawalparasi, Palpa, and Tanahu. Each district was represented equally, with 50 respondents from each. The respondents were drawn from five different communities within each district, with 10 individuals selected from each community. This sampling approach ensured a diverse representation of the population, including women, ethnic groups, minorities, and farmers. By including a range of perspectives from various demographic groups, the study aimed to gather comprehensive data that accurately reflects the experiences and perspectives of the communities surveyed.

Table no 7- 1: Field of Survey

District Name	Frequency	percent	valid percent	Cumulative percent
Chitwan	50	20	20	20
Lamjung	50	20	20	40
Nawalparasi	50	20	20	60
Palpa	50	20	20	80
Tanahu	50	20	20	100
Toal	250	100	100	

1. Gender

The gender of respondents consist of male and female. The frequency and the percentage of the respondents are depicted in the table 7.3.

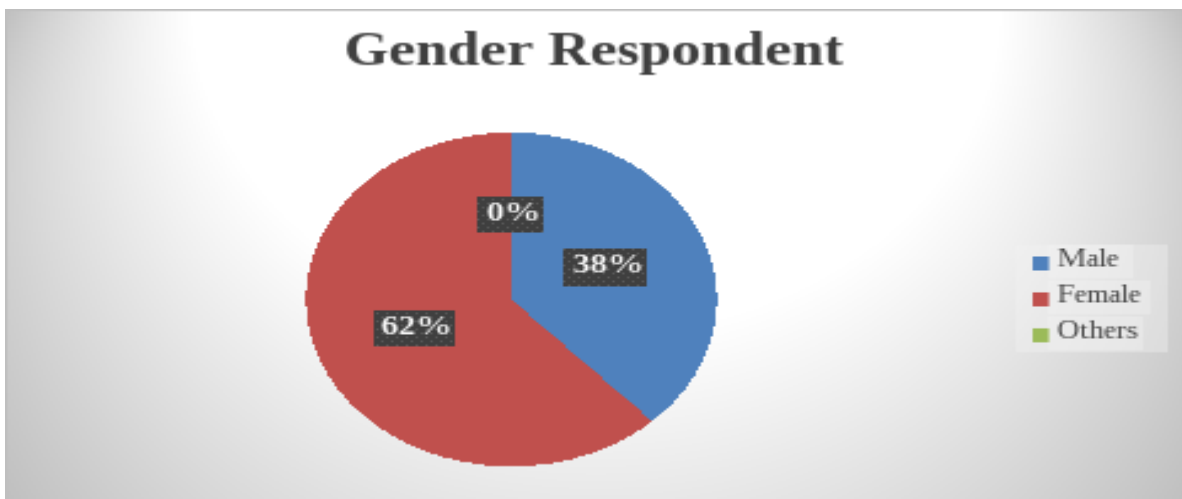
Table no 7- 2: Gender of respondent

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	95	38
Female	155	62
Others	0	0
Total	250	100

The above table the survey aimed to include a diverse representation of respondents in terms of gender. Among the 250 respondents, 62% identified as female, while 38% identified as male. This gender balance is essential for obtaining a comprehensive understanding of the perspectives and experiences of both men and women in the context of the survey's objectives.

The fact that the majority of respondents, 62% are female suggests that the survey may focus on issues or topics that are of particular relevance or interest to women. This could include topics related to gender equality, women's empowerment, or other areas where a female perspective is valuable. By including both male and female respondents, the survey aims to be inclusive and representative of the entire population or target audience. This approach allows for a more comprehensive analysis of the survey results.

Chart 7- 1: Gender of respondent



2. Income source and Dependent

Income source and dependent of the respondents is categorized into 6 groups they are dependent, self-employed, Government job, private job, business, and others. The classification of the respondents under this category are presented by frequency and percentage.

Table no 7- 3: Income Source and Dependent

Income Source and Dependent				
	Frequency	percent	valid percent	Cumulative percent
Dependent	111	44.4	44.4	44.4
Employed	8	3.2	3.2	47.6
Government job	8	3.2	3.2	50.8
Private job	22	8.8	8.8	59.6
Business	73	29.2	29.2	88.8
Others	28	11.2	11.2	100
Total	250	100	100	

This table provides an analysis of income sources and the dependency of a sample population. The first category, "Dependent," indicates that 44.4% of the sample population relies on others for their income, suggesting that a significant portion of the population may not be financially self-sufficient and relies on external support for their livelihood.

In contrast, the categories of "Employed" and "Government job" each account for only 3.2% of the sample population. This indicates that a relatively small percentage of individuals are employed in either the public or private sector, suggesting potential limitations in employment opportunities or workforce participation. The cumulative percent of these two categories combined is 50.8%, indicating that just over half of the sample population is engaged in formal employment.

The most prominent category is "Business," with 29.2% of the population engaged in entrepreneurial activities. This suggests a relatively high level of entrepreneurial spirit or opportunities for self-employment within the sample group. Lastly, "Others" account for 11.2%, which could encompass various income sources not explicitly categorized. Overall, this table

provides insights into the income distribution and dependency patterns within the sample population, highlighting the diversity of income sources and the significance of external support for a substantial portion of the population.

3. Income level before and after the Project

Table no 7-4: Income of household before and after project

Income	Before Project			After Project			% change
	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid	
<10000	1	0.4	0.4	0	0	0	-0.4
10000~50000	240	96	96.4	0	0	0	-96
50000~100000	7	2.8	99.2	16	6.4	6.4	3.6
100000~500000	2	0.8	100	178	71.2	77.6	70.4
>500000	0	0	100	56	22.4	100	22.4
Total	250	100		250	100		

The above table presents the income levels of households before and after a project, along with the corresponding frequencies and percentages. According to the presented data, the household income level less than 50,000 rupees does not exist after the project. The data demonstrates positive income mobility, with households transitioning from lower income brackets to higher ones after the project's implementation. Remarkably, the percentage change in the "100,000~500,000" income bracket is substantial, showing an increase of 70.4%. Similarly, income of household more than NRs 500000 had been increased by 22.4%. Overall, the project had beneficial impact in elevating raised household income level of the respondents.

This suggests that the project positively impacted raising household incomes, potentially through income-generating activities or economic opportunities introduced by the project. The data reveals a positive impact of the project on household incomes, with a notable increase in households earning higher incomes after the project's implementation. This suggests that the project has had a meaningful economic impact on the surveyed population, improving their financial well-being and potentially contributing to poverty alleviation in the community.

4. Do you know the case, someone try to divert the project fund for their favor?

Table no 7-5: Do you know the case; someone try to divert the project fund for their favor?

	Frequency	Percent
yes	21	8.4
No	229	91.6
Total	250	100

The data indicates that a significant majority of respondents, constituting 91.6%, answered "No" when asked whether they are aware of any cases where someone tried to divert project funds for their favor. In contrast, only a minority, 8.4% of the respondents, answered "Yes" to being aware of such cases. This data suggests that, based on the respondents' knowledge, instances of attempted fund diversion within the projects are relatively uncommon or not widely known within the surveyed population. The high percentage of "No" responses imply a level of trust in the management and integrity of project funds, indicating that respondents do not perceive widespread corruption or misuse of funds in the projects they are aware of.

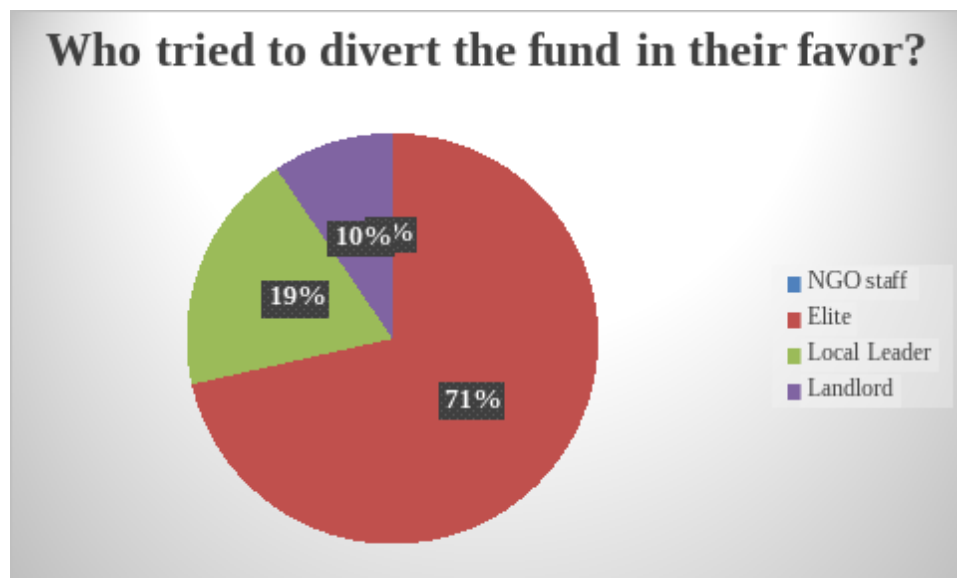
Table no 7- 6: Who tried to divert the fund in their favor?

Who tried to divert the fund in their favor?		
	Frequency	Percent
NGO staff	0	0
Elite	15	71.4
Local Leader	4	19
Landlord	2	9.5
Total	21	100

The data indicates that among the respondents who identified someone as attempting to divert project funds, a significant portion, 71.4%, mentioned "Elite" individuals as those who have made such attempts. This suggests that respondents perceive members of the elite class, which often includes influential and affluent individuals, as potentially involved in fund

diversion activities. Additionally, 19% of respondents cited "Local Leaders" as individuals who have tried to divert project funds, highlighting concerns about leaders within the community who may misuse resources for personal gain. A smaller percentage, 9.5%, mentioned "Landlords" as being involved in such activities.

Chart 7- 2: Who tried to divert the fund in their favor?



It is important to note that "NGO staff" received zero mentions, indicating that respondents did not perceive NGO staff as being involved in fund diversion attempts. This could be seen as a positive perception of the integrity and trustworthiness of NGO personnel in the context of project fund management. Overall, the data highlights the need for vigilance and transparency in project management, particularly in addressing concerns related to the potential misuse of funds by elite individuals and local leaders within the community.

5. How CDD is practiced in Nepal and how inclusive is it?

Table no 7- 7: Practice of the fund transfer

Practice of the fund transfer	Frequency	Percent
i. Selection of the leaders by election	0	0
i. Transfer of fund to the community cashier directly	0	0
ii. Regular meeting of community	250	100
Total	250	

Above table shows all respondent answered the practice of fund transfer and the establishment of responsibility in the event of fund misuse within a community setting. Notably,

all 250 respondents, representing 100% of the surveyed population, indicated that regular community meetings are held as a practice. the data shows that the other two practices, namely "Selection of the leaders by election" and "Transfer of fund to the community cashier directly," received zero responses,

At the implement time all decisions made by community meetings the data mentions that responsibility is made clear in case of fund misuse, although specific percentages or details regarding this aspect are not provided.

Table no 7-8: Acceptance process of the project

Acceptance process of the project	Frequency	Percent
i. Community asked to government for the project or aid.	238	95.2
ii. Local elite asked for the target project.	2	0.8
iii. NGO were selected the target project area.	10	4
iv. The Government decided the project implementation area, and the community accepted it.	0	0
v. Donor agencies decided the project area.	0	0
	250	100

In table 7-8, The data in the table provides insights into the dynamics of project selection and initiation in the surveyed community. Notably, the majority of respondents, accounting for 95.2%, indicated that the community itself had requested the project or aid from the government. This reflects a strong sense of community agency and proactive engagement in addressing local needs and development priorities. It suggests that the community members were actively involved in identifying and advocating for the project that they deemed essential.

In contrast, a very small percentage of respondents (0.8%) mentioned that local elites were responsible for requesting the target project. While this percentage is minimal, it indicates that in some cases, influential individuals or groups within the community may play a role in initiating projects. Such instances may raise questions about the inclusivity and

representativeness of the decision-making process, as it might not always align with the broader community's needs and priorities.

Furthermore, 4% of respondents mentioned that NGOs selected the target project area. This suggests that non-governmental organizations may have been involved in identifying and implementing projects in the community. NGO-driven projects often bring external expertise and resources, which can be valuable, but it is essential to ensure that the selection process is transparent and aligned with the community's interests.

None of the respondents reported that government agencies or donor agencies unilaterally decided the project implementation area without community involvement. This reflects a positive aspect of community-driven development, where projects are typically initiated in response to local demands and needs, ensuring a more participatory and community-centric approach.

6. How Were the Voices of women reflected?

The role and representation of women’s voices in the Nepalese community have evolved, influenced by cultural, social, and political factors. Historically, Nepal has been a patriarchal society with well-defined gender roles. Women’s voices were often marginalized, and they were expected to fulfill traditional roles as homemakers and caregivers. Their participation in the decision-making process, both at home and in the broader community, was limited.

Table no 7- 9: How were the voices of women reflected?

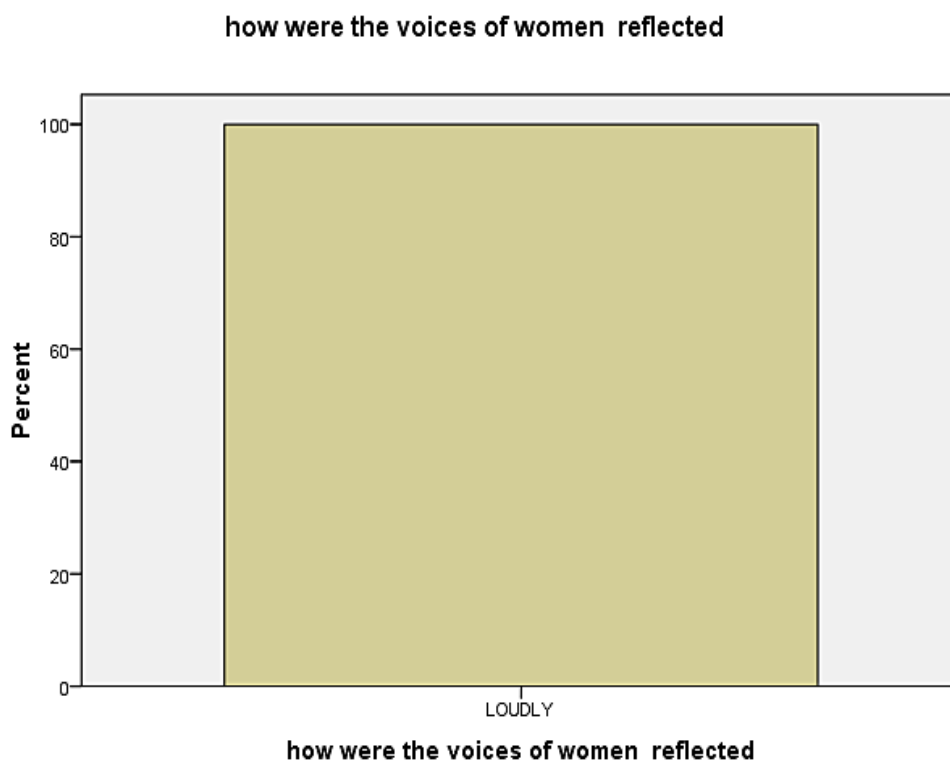
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
LOUDLY	250	100	100	100.0
Not so much	0	0	0	
LOUDLY	250	100.0	100.0	100.0

From the above table 100% respondents answered that women’ voice was reflected in the community, there is no discrimination in community being as women. Their voices were presented loudly and fearlessly in the mass meetings. Their involvement in community activities was a role model to men as well. In other words, all 250 respondents believe that women's voices were prominently and effectively represented or heard in the context of the

project or initiative under consideration. Nepal's agriculture development policy (NAP-2004) requires at least 50% women's representation and participation in all aspects of agricultural enterprises.

This common response suggests that there was a high level of attention and emphasis on ensuring the active and meaningful participation of women in decision-making processes related to the project. This is a positive indicator of gender inclusivity and empowerment within the community, where women's perspectives and contributions are acknowledged and valued. The absence of any respondents indicating that women's voices were "Not so much" reflected is significant, as it implies that there were no dissenting views or concerns about the level of women's representation or participation in the project. This indicates a strong commitment to gender equity and active engagement of women in community development initiatives.

Chart 7- 3 How were the voices of women reflected.



A farmer respondent Mr. Gopal Shrestha, from Agraha Agricultural and Cow Firm, “Now women more concern about the grass, seeds, siemens and feeds when it is available not? If not, why? Women raised their voices in the community loudly and fearlessly. Women not only talk about farm related issues but also raised their voices to avoid social and political influences. In our community women's participation was higher than the men. Especially, in CLDP program had complete package to empower women, minorities, and small farmers. initially encourage to community formation, based on majority of women, minorities, and Ethnic. Then they empower for economic, education and awareness activities.”

Women’s rights organizations and activist, international donor organization played crucial role in raising awareness about gender issues and advocating for women’s rights. They have organized campaigns, protests, and initiatives to address issues like gender-based violence, child marriage and discrimination.

7. How were the voices of minorities reflected?

The voices of minorities in Nepal have historically faced challenges and have often been marginalized due to the dominance of major ethnic and cultural groups. However, there have been significant developments in recent years that have contributed to increased representation and recognition of minority voices.

The Asian Development Bank recognized that marginalized groups, including ethnic and religious minorities, often face unique challenges that vulnerable that need to be addressed to achieve sustainable development. ADB has supported minorities inclusion in Nepal through a CDD approach. In the community, CLDP included ethnic group related programs, who had few lands they were involved by community formation. Members of the co-operative are involved in cow, goat, poultry farming and pig farming, as of their interest. But all the members found the same livestock farming. That means they diversified their agricultural farming in the same community, which created no lack of market opportunities.

Table no 7- 10: How were the voices of ethnic groups, minorities and vulnerable people reflected?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
LOUDLY	250	100	100	100.0
Not so much	0	0	0	
LOUDLY	250	100.0	100.0	100.0

From the above data, no discrimination was found in the community, being a minority. In a cooperative group the voice of the minorities was reflected. Their voices were represented in the community meetings. 100% of the respondents answered that the voice of minorities called out.

A minority respondent from MS Thapa, Tripureshwor Agriculture Cooperative, said, “We, some minorities were involved from the beginning in this cooperative. We never felt discriminated against as a minority. Despite that, we were prioritized in every cooperative meeting, in seed distribution, and in other training. Whatever we proposed in the community meeting, they appreciated being the participant with innovative ideas. We are looking for this kind of community-based project, which has low cost, feels our ownership, increased economy, long-term sustainability, and social harmony. In the initial period, we individually formed small farms. When we went to sell our milk, the buyers hesitated to buy our milk being ethnics and minorities. but now we collect our milk in cooperative and sell it in market. Our group members went far in marketing, and they bargained for the best price. Now there is no need to worry about the market and price because a group voice is louder than a single. We only focused on how to increase our production. We are educating our children in the capital, income from our own farm and common agriculture farm. This helped us to live our happy life.”

President of same cooperative Mr. Bed Prasad Sapkota added We never discriminated our member being as women, minorities, and ethnics. More than 70% of members are else than man. We promote, encourage, and empower them to participate in community meetings, training, and programs. From the training they learnt much more and implemented it in life. From the theme of group farming, centered milk collection system, all the members benefited

equally. No one is biased by their caste or being a woman in our cooperative. Our CLDP taught us to be organized to achieve a common goal.

3. How were the voices of the small farmer reflected?

The Small farmers are known, who have limited land to farm and economically poor to start their own farm. They have limited access to sources. CLDP strongly supported small farmers by capacity building, sustainable agricultural practices, and access to credit. The communities have initiated their own farm plan irrigation systems, siemens distribution, grass cultivation and seeds banks. These communities’ initiatives reflect the voices and priorities of small farmers at the local level. Training and educational programs catered to the specific needs of small farmers, such as sustainable farming practices and economic management, empowered them to make informed decisions and improved their farming methods.

Table no 7- 11: How were the voices of small farmer reflected?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
LOUDLY	250	100	100	100
Not so much	0	0	0	100
LOUDLY	250	100	100	100

From the above table 100% respondents replied that all the small farmers voice were reflected in the project. The CLDP had plan create community group of 10 to 20 members. From the community group, categorized into pro-poor group, poor group, and middle-class farmers. In the initial stage project distributed grass seeds, technical support, training then distributed livestock to pro-poor group. Then arranged distribution channel through cooperative marketing and micro finance. In the next year newborn livestock from first stage (pro-poor group) should be passed to poor group. That means all the farmers were facilitate from the project.

One the respondent from Nawalparasi Ms. Sita Dhakal said, “I am a woman having with 5 family members in the early period we did not have money to invest. NGO members give us brief description about the project and asked to community formation. We are less

educated but had idea of traditional farming. Suddenly accepted the proposal. I started from five cows produced 20ltr milk daily. Now I have more than 63 cows including nine calves. Produce more than 200 ltr milk daily. I built a house for my family, income from this and some loan from our cooperative. I sent one of my Son to Australia for higher study. Mother-in-law cannot work so hard. Husband and elder son are helping me in this farm. CLDP had a complete package for small farmer like me. I would like to expand my business, invest in infrastructure including chilling VAT.”

She was informed in the cooperative meeting, one of international organization supporting farmers. The application process was crucial. 20 percent of total budget should invest by farmer 30% compulsory should be bank loan but no guarantee, rather bank load will approve or not. If not approved all the investment in proposal writing and others will be waste. If bank loan was approved, then only the remaining 50% will get in grant from the organization.

She added again, “I am a literate small farmer, cannot write good proposal myself. I paid 40 thousand to write a proposal which was compulsory to get loan. But the Bank did not believe us, and small farmers like me. All the money I spent on proposal that became useless. Such projects are only for big farmers who had already a lot of money, assets, banks also trust to hem not us, sadly said. Policy should be made who has enthusiasm for agriculture. These papers(proposal) are useless, so I kept it useless proposal in cupboard. I believe CLDP did a lot for small farmers like me not rather than other projects did for us”.

8. What kind of group are engaged in livestock firms and enterprises?

Variety of groups and stakeholders found engaged in livestock farming in the surveyed area. Mostly women were found engaged in livestock farming.

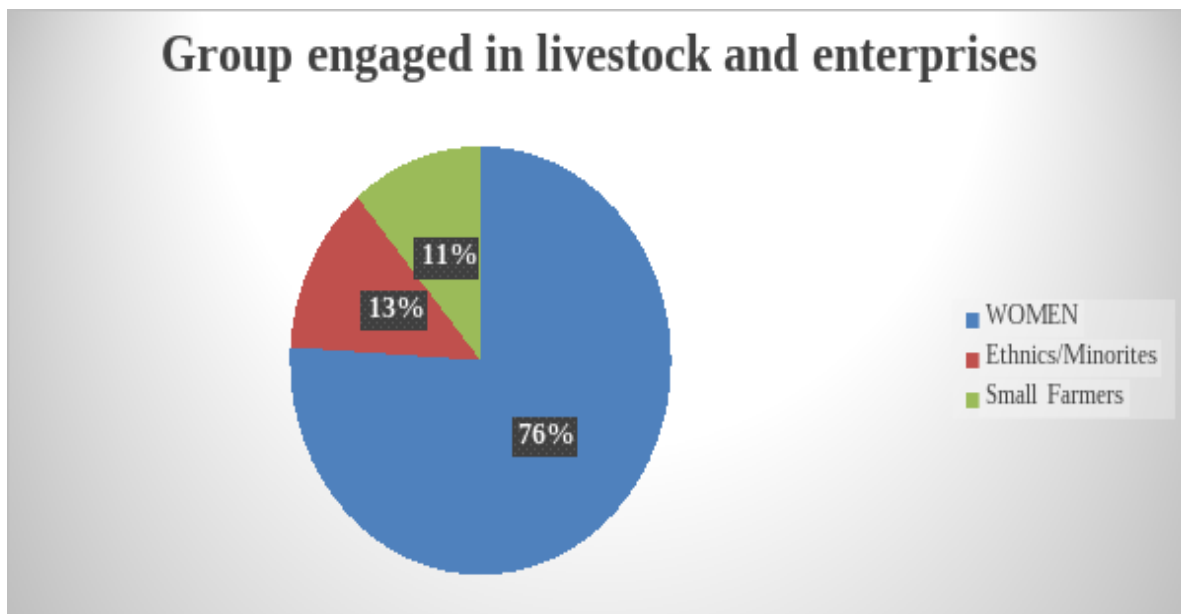
Table no 7- 12 What kind of the group are engaged in livestock firms and enterprises?

Group	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
WOMEN	190	76	76	76
Ethnics/Minorite	32	12.8	12.8	88.8
Small Farmers	28	11.2	11.2	100

From the table 76% women groups are engaged in livestock farming and 12.8% were engaged from the ethnics/minorities in the livestock farming and 11.2% were from the small

farmers. Higher variation was found in women's participation in livestock farming. Similarly, 12.8% engaged from indigenous and ethnic women communities, who were farming poultry and pig farming, some were in the got. 11.2% small farmers mainly from the male group who belongs to low-income level. This does not mean men are not involve in One of the main reason the women participation higher than the man is, government facilities less tax rate is women to empower women in multiple sectors.

Chart 7- 4: What kind of group are engaged in livestock firms and enterprises?



9. What kind of groups/people engaged in established chilling vat milk collection and slaughterhouse?

In Nepal, mainly collection center collects milk from the farmers. store in the collection center and sent it to the central collection center. Very few farmers have this chilling vat machine because of this cost. Thus, most of the chilling vat was owned by community groups, cooperative and big farmers, or business companies. CLDP mainly assisted the chilling vat to private firms and Co-operative. Where most of the women engaged in the cooperative. Mostly, individuals operate slaughterhouse and meat shops. Very few organized slaughters houses are in the operation but organized slaughterhouse not available in the urban part of Nepal. In few meat shops had icebox to keep meat frozen and keep the hygiene. The awareness program, training were conducted, refrigerator were distributed to the slaughterhouse to sell hygiene meat shop to maintain the hygiene.

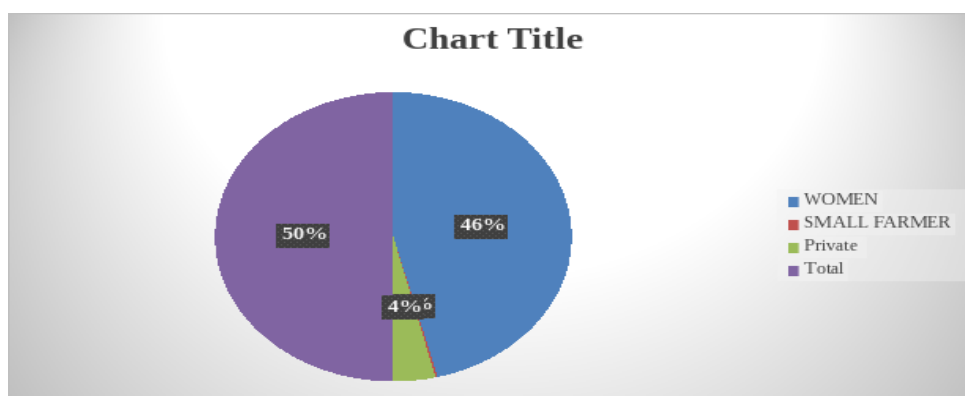
Table no 7- 13 What kind of the groups/ people are engaged in established chilling vat, milk collection and slaughterhouse.

Groups	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
WOMEN	230	92	92	92
SMALL FARMER	1	0.4	0.4	92.4
Private	19	7.6	7.6	100
Total	250	100	100	

From the above data, it provides insights into the composition of individuals engaged in the establishment of chilling vats, milk collection, and slaughterhouses. Notably, the majority of respondents, constituting 92%, indicated that women played a significant role in these activities. This highlights the active participation of women in the dairy and livestock sector, emphasizing their crucial role in various stages of the supply chain, from milk collection to slaughterhouse operations. Such involvement of women is vital for promoting gender inclusivity and empowering women in the agricultural and livestock sectors.

A small percentage of respondents (0.4%) mentioned "Small Farmer" as being engaged in these activities. While this percentage is minimal, it suggests that there maybe individual small-scale farmers involved in dairy and livestock-related ventures, indicating the diversification of livelihoods within the community. Small-scale farmers can contribute to local agriculture and economic development by participating in activities such as milk collection and slaughterhouse operations. 7.6% of respondents indicated "Private" engagement in these activities. This category likely refers to private businesses or enterprises that are involved in establishing chilling vats, milk collection, and slaughterhouses.

Chart 7- 5: What kind of the groups/ people are engaged in established chilling vat, milk collection and slaughterhouse.



Mr. Poudel from the Nawalparasi said, “At the beginning of my farm period, I just had few cows, small milk production so I never felt of its necessary. Nowadays I produce more than 200lt milk and I have storage problem. If I had a chilling VAT machine, I was able store, collection from other farmers and export on my time and price.

Table no 7- 14 Community formation by groups

Community Formation by		
Participation in training	Frequency	Percent
Women participate	146	58.4
Minorities participate	57	22.8
Small Farmer participate	41	16.4
Others	6	2.4
Total	250	100

The data presented in the table provides insights into the formation of community groups through participation in training programs, categorizing respondents based on different demographic groups. The majority of respondents, comprising 58.4%, indicated that women participate in community formation. Such participation often leads to the establishment of women's groups or networks aimed at addressing specific community needs or challenges.

A significant proportion of respondents, at 22.8%, mentioned the participation of minorities in the community formation. This indicates an effort to include marginalized and minority communities in community development activities, which is important for promoting inclusivity and addressing disparities.

Moreover, 16.4% of respondents cited the participation of small farmers in training programs. Small-scale farmers often face unique challenges, and their involvement in community formation can help them share experiences and collaborate on solutions to common issues.

Lastly, 2.4% mentioned "others," which encompass various demographic groups or categories not explicitly mentioned in the table.

Chart 7- 6: Community formation by groups

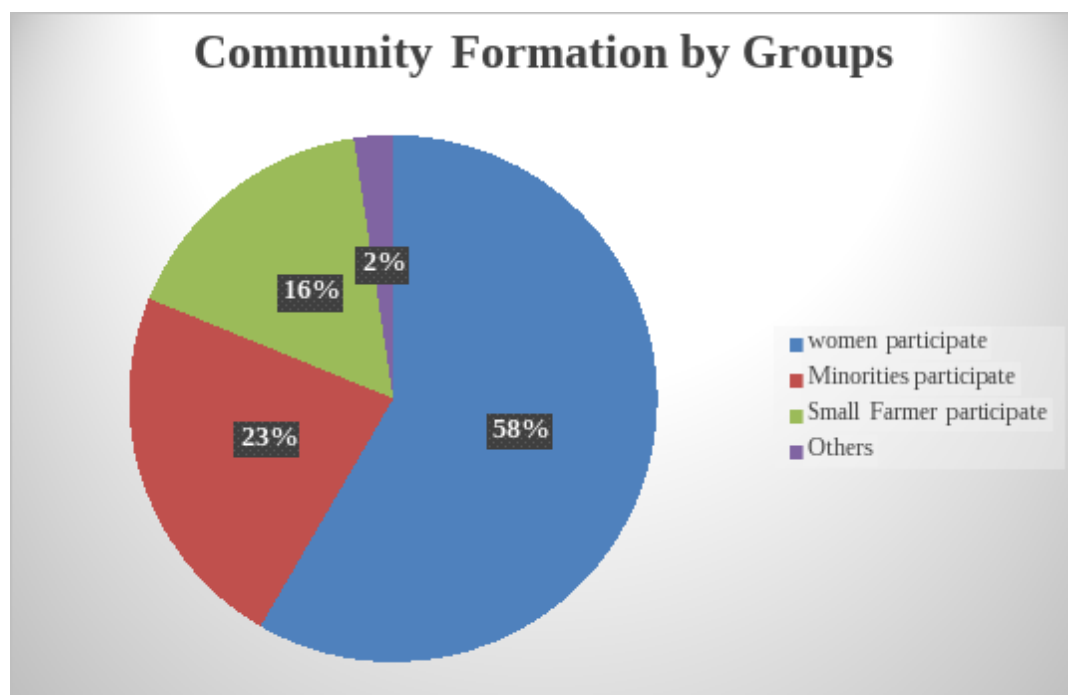


Table no 7-15: Total participation in marketing training

Marketing Training		
Participation in training	Frequency	Percent
Women participate	113	45.2
Minorities participate	51	20.4
Small Farmer participate	56	22.4
Not participated	30	12
Total	250	100

In the above table 45.2% women were participated in the marketing training. The Differences between women and small farmers is half. Similarly small farmer followed to

women by 22.4% and 20.4% were minorities. 12% of respondents were not participated in the marketing training.

The data in the table 8.22 provides insights into participation in marketing training programs, categorized by different demographic groups. Notably, the majority of participants were women, accounting for 45.2% of the respondents. This suggests that there is a strong interest and active engagement of women in marketing training, which is a positive trend for gender inclusion and economic empowerment. Encouraging women's participation in marketing training can lead to increased economic opportunities and financial independence, addressing gender disparities in economic sectors.

The minorities and small-scale farmers also participated in marketing training programs, with 20.4% and 22.4% of respondents, respectively. The inclusion of minority groups and small farmers in marketing training is crucial for promoting equitable access to resources and markets. These training programs can empower marginalized communities with the knowledge and skills needed to improve their income through effective marketing strategies.

However, it is worth noting that 12% of respondents indicated that they had not participated in marketing training. This highlights a potential area for further outreach and inclusivity in training program access, ensuring that a broader section of the population can benefit from such initiatives to enhance their marketing and economic prospects.

Chart 7- 7: Total participation in marketing training

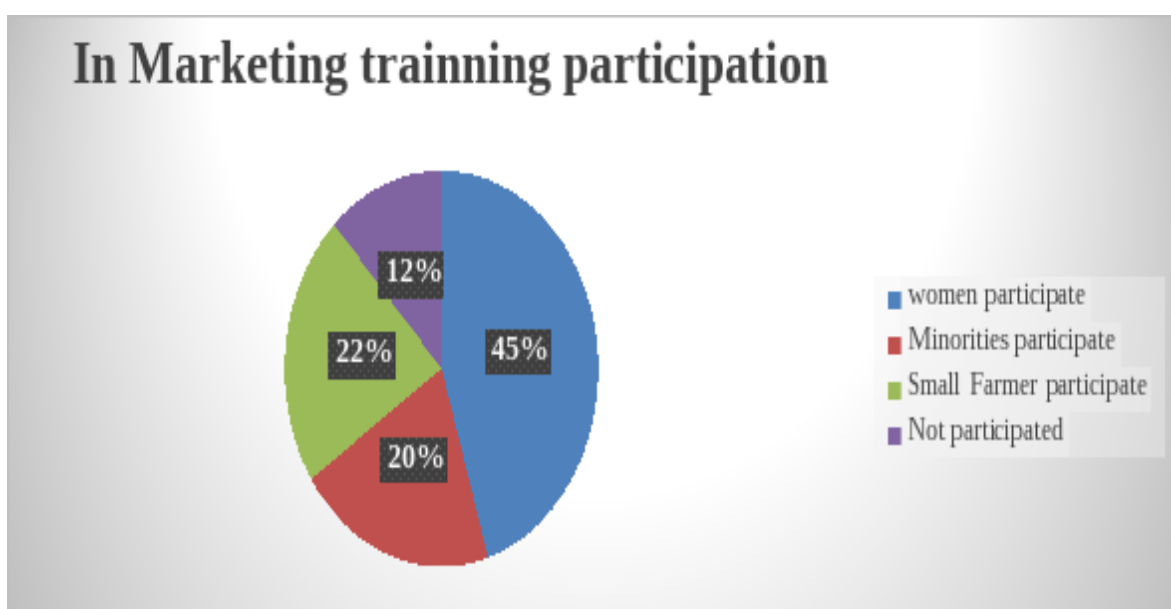


Table no 7- 16: Community formation process was fair?

Was the community formation process fair?	Frequency	Percent
Yes	214	85.6
No	30	12
Cannot say	6	2.4
Total	250	100

The Data in table 7.16 provided, a substantial majority of respondents, comprising 85.6%, believe that the community formation process was fair. This indicates a positive perception among the surveyed population regarding the fairness of the community formation efforts. It suggests that many community members believe that the process of forming community groups or networks, possibly through training or other initiatives, was conducted in an inclusive and equitable manner, considering the diverse needs and voices within the community.

However, it is important to note that 12% of respondents indicated that the community formation process was not fair. While this is a smaller percentage compared to those who perceived it as fair, it signifies that there are concerns or reservations among a portion of the surveyed population regarding the fairness of the process.

Chart 7- 8: Community formation process was fair?

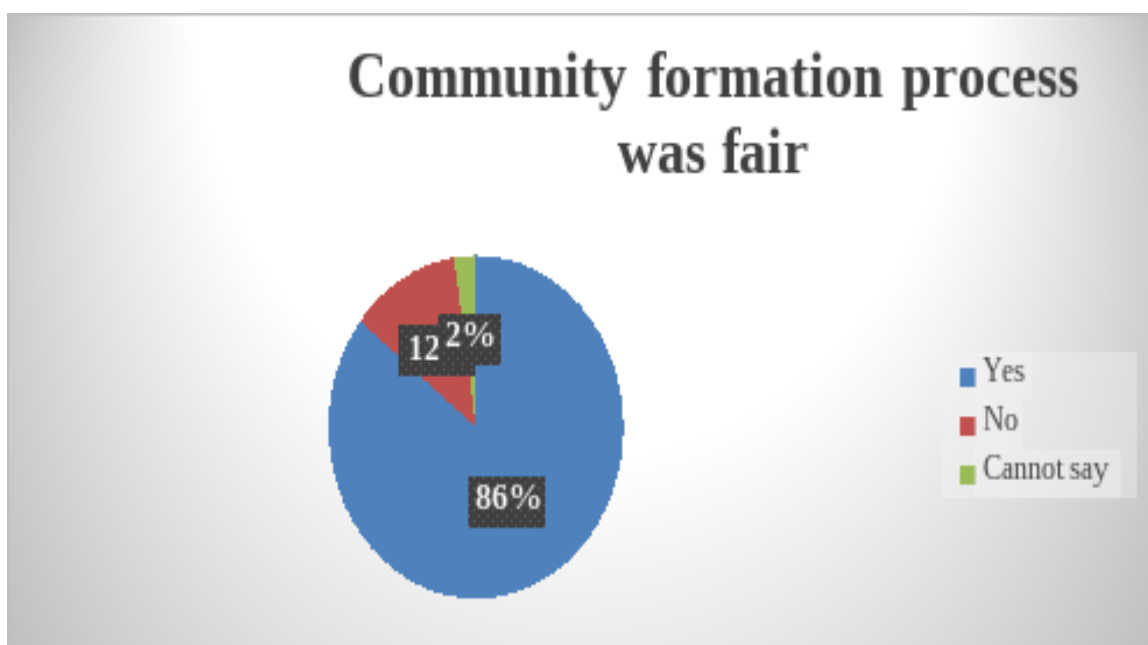


Table no 7-17: Was your voice represented in your community formation process?

Was your voice represented in your community formation process?		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	199	79.6
No	47	18.8
Cannot say	4	1.6
Total	250	100

The data presented in the table 8.24 suggests that a significant portion of respondents, accounting for 79.6%, feel that their voices were represented in their community formation process. This is a positive indication of inclusive and participatory community development efforts.

However, 18.8% of respondents indicated that their voices were not represented in the community formation process. It is essential to address these concerns and work toward ensuring that community formation processes are genuinely participatory, transparent, and inclusive, providing opportunities for all community members to have their voices heard and considered. The small percentage (1.6%) of respondents who could not definitively state whether their voices were represented may reflect a lack of awareness or clarity about the community formation process.

Chart 7- 9: Was your voice represented in your community formation process?

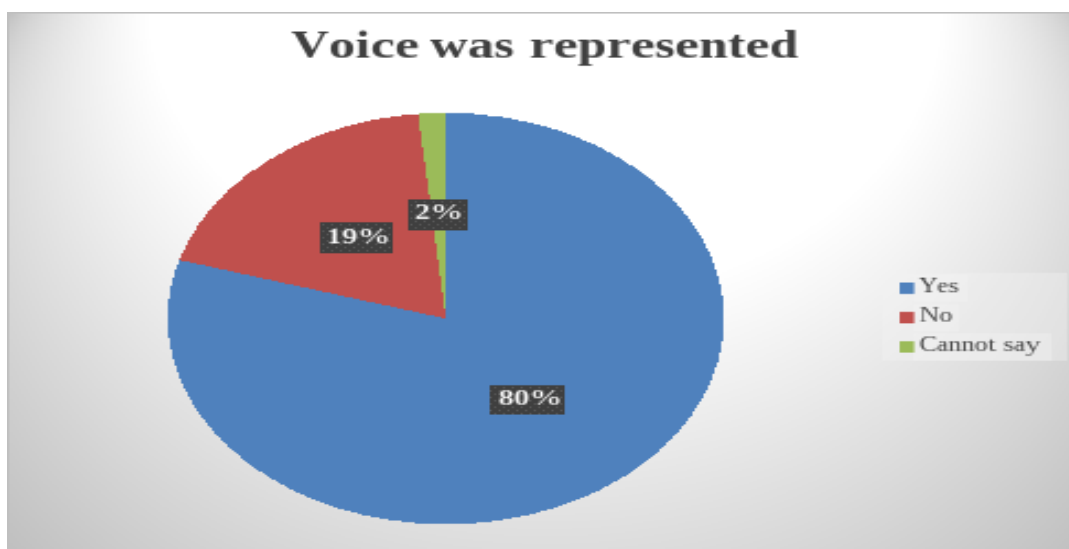


Table no 7-18: Did you get what you asked for?

Did you get what you asked for?		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	94	37.6
No	92	36.8
Cannot say	64	25.6
Total	250	100

The data presented in the table indicates that there is a mixed perception among respondents regarding whether they received what they asked for. A relatively large portion of respondents, accounting for 37.6%, reported that they did get what they asked for. This suggests a level of satisfaction with the outcomes of their requests or demands, which could pertain to various aspects, such as community services, development projects, or resources. This level of satisfaction among a significant portion of respondents may reflect successful responsiveness to community needs and preferences.

Conversely, 36.8% of respondents indicated that they did not get what they asked for. This suggests a level of unmet expectations or dissatisfaction with the outcomes of their requests. Moreover, a notable percentage (25.6%) of respondents could not definitively state whether they got what they asked for. It underscores the importance of transparent communication and engagement with the community to improve awareness and understanding of the results of their requests and the decision-making processes that influence them.

Chart 7- 10: Did you get what you asked for?

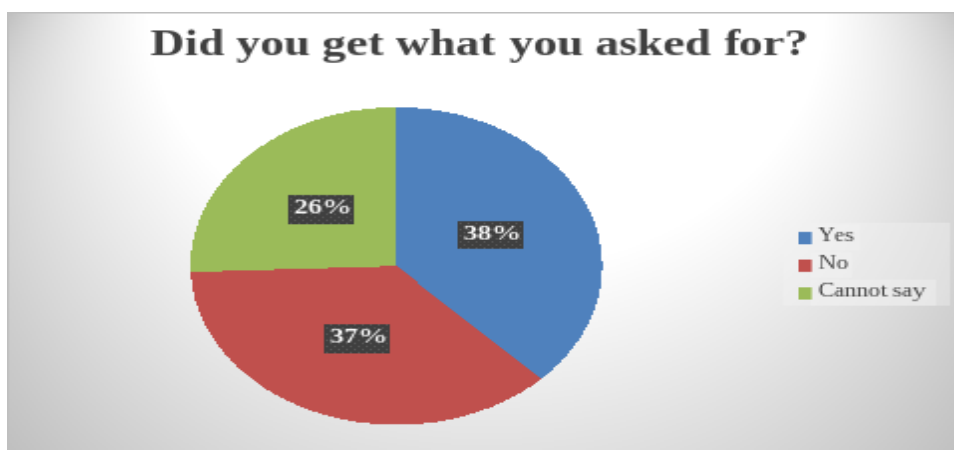


Table no 7- 19: Was service timely delivered?

Was service timely delivered?		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	189	75.6
No	28	11.2
Cannot say	33	13.2
Total	250	100

The data from a survey regarding the timely delivery of a service shows A significant majority of respondents, comprising 75.6%, reported that services were delivered on time. This suggests a positive perception of service providers' ability to meet delivery deadlines and efficiently deliver services as expected. Timely service delivery is crucial for ensuring that community needs are met promptly, and this perception reflects a successful aspect of the service provision.

11.2% of respondents indicated that services were not delivered on time. While this percentage is relatively low, it suggests that there maybe instances where delays or inefficiencies in service delivery have been experienced.

13.2% of respondents expressed uncertainty by stating "Cannot say." This may indicate a lack of knowledge about the timeliness of service delivery or enjoying in existing servicer whatever they expected.

Chart 7- 11: Was service timely delivered?

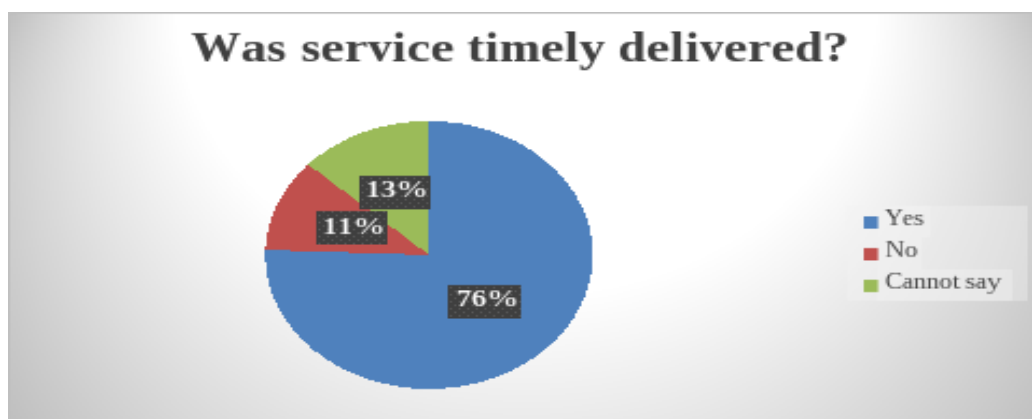


Table no 7-20: Was there any corruption?

Was there any corruption?		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	4	1.6
No	213	85.2
Cannot say	33	13.2
Total	250	100

According to the above data, the majority of respondents, totaling 85.2%, reported that there was no corruption associated with the project. This reflects a positive perception of transparency, accountability, and integrity in the project's implementation. It is essential to note that the majority's perception of a lack of corruption is crucial for building trust and confidence in development initiatives.

The data presented in the table reveals perceptions regarding the presence of corruption in the context of the project. A relatively small percentage of respondents, constituting 1.6%, indicated that there was corruption associated with the project. This suggests that there is a perception among a minority of respondents that corrupt practices may have occurred during the project's implementation. The nature and extent of this corruption, however, are not detailed in the data.

Only 13.2% of respondents indicated "Cannot say," implying uncertainty or a lack of specific knowledge about the presence or absence of corruption. This suggests that some respondents may not have had sufficient information about the project's financial and operational aspects to form a clear opinion about corruption. Efforts to enhance transparency and provide information to the community about project finances and processes could potentially reduce this uncertainty.

Chart 7- 12: Was there any corruption?

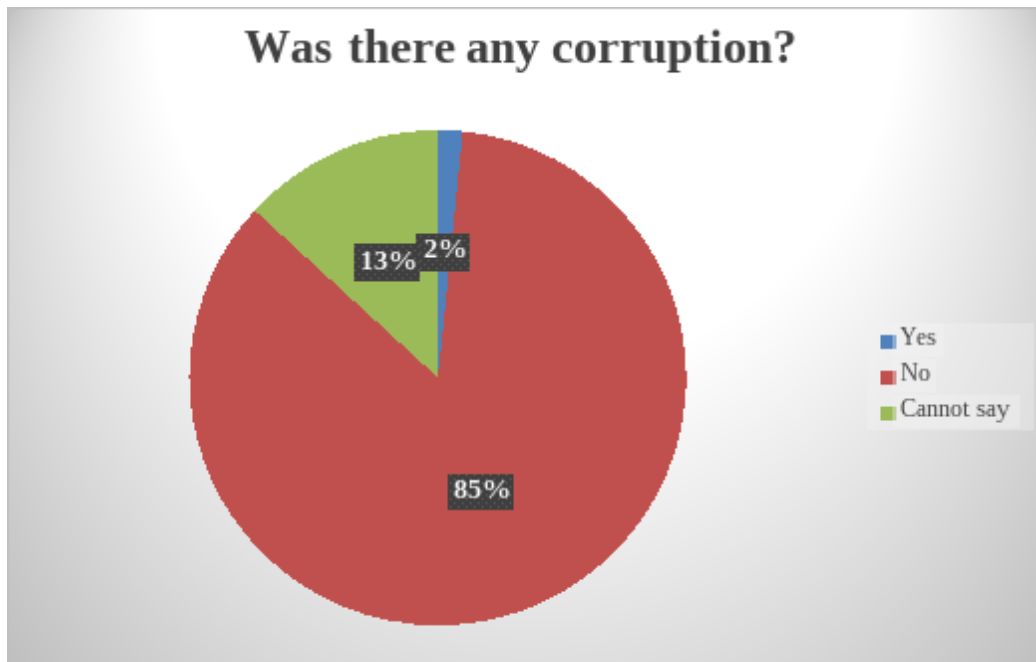


Table no 7-21: Did you think fund was used properly?

Did you think the fund was used properly?		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	221	88.4
No	3	1.2
Cannot say	26	10.4
Total	250	100

The above chart clearly shows that a significant majority of respondents, comprising 88.4%, reported that they believed the funds were used properly. This indicates a high level of trust and confidence in the financial management and accountability of the project. When community members have faith that funds are being utilized effectively and transparently, it fosters a positive perception of the project's integrity and contributes to its success.

A very small portion of respondents (1.2%) indicated that funds were not used properly, which is a low percentage and may not be a major concern. While this percentage is minimal,

it suggests that there are concerns among a small subset of respondents regarding financial accountability. Addressing such concerns is important to maintain public trust and ensure that funds are used in a responsible and efficient manner.

A moderate portion (10.4%) could not make a conclusive judgment, indicating some level of uncertainty or lack of information among this group. This data indicates a generally positive perception regarding the proper use of funds, with only a minority expressing doubts.

Chart 7- 13: Did you think fund was used properly?

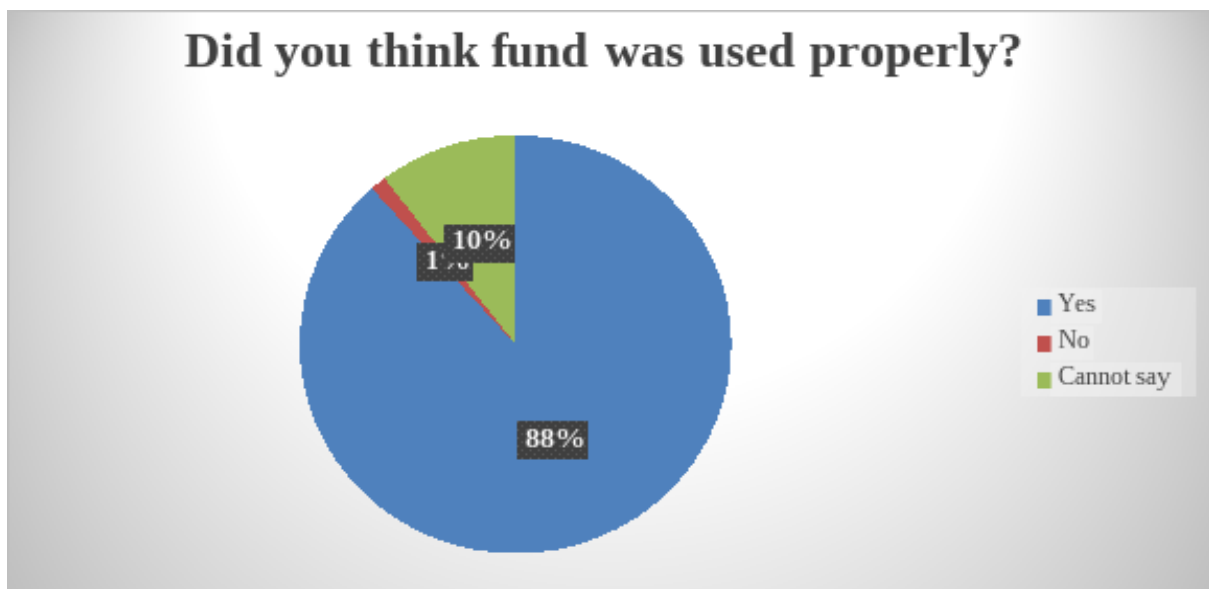


Table no 7-22: How did you know this project?

How did you know about this project?	Frequency	Percent
Donor Agencies	0	0
NGOs	79	31.6
Government officers	16	6.4
Community meetings	155	62
Total	250	100

The data in the table highlights the sources through which respondents became aware of a specific project. It is notable that the majority of respondents, comprising 62%, learned about the project through community meetings. This suggests that community-based communication and engagement mechanisms play a significant role in disseminating

information about development projects in the area. Community meetings often serve as a vital platform for sharing project updates, soliciting feedback, and fostering community participation and ownership.

NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations) were another crucial source of information, with 31.6% of respondents indicating that they learned about the project through these organizations. NGOs frequently collaborate with local communities on development initiatives, making them instrumental in both project implementation and communication. Their involvement in raising awareness about projects reflects their role as intermediaries between donors or government agencies and the communities they serve.

Government officers played a relatively smaller role in project awareness, with 6.4% of respondents citing them as a source of information. This suggests that while government agencies are often involved in project implementation, their communication efforts may not be as prominent or direct as community meetings or NGOs. To enhance transparency and community engagement, governments may need to consider more robust communication strategies to keep the public informed about ongoing projects.

Overall, the data underscores the importance of community engagement and local communication channels, such as community meetings and NGO involvement, in disseminating information about development projects. Effective communication is essential for ensuring that community members are well-informed about project objectives, progress, and outcomes, fostering a sense of ownership and participation in the development process.

Chart 7- 14: How did you know this project?

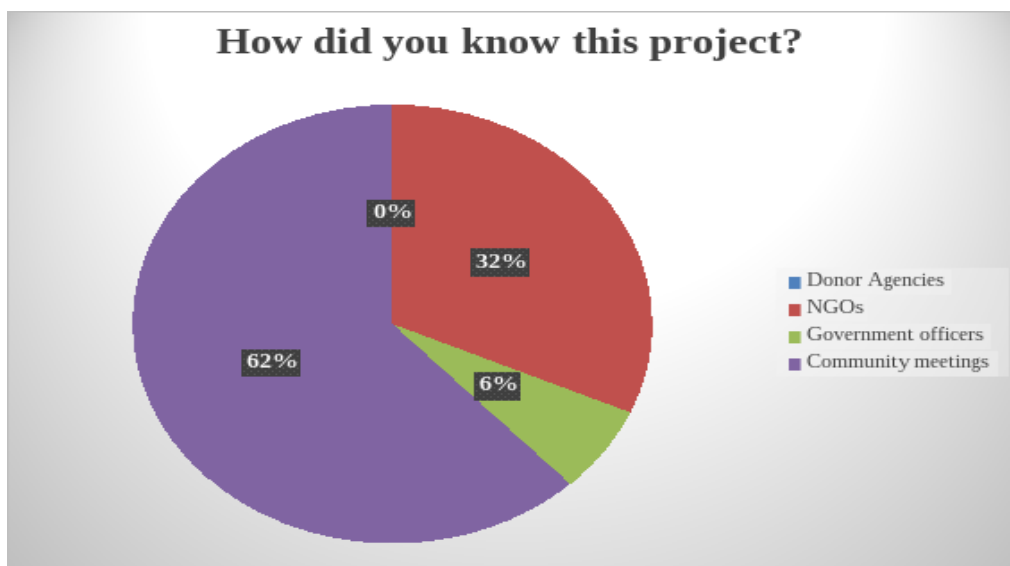


Table no 7-23: When did you start the community formation?

When did you start the community formation?		
	Frequency	Percent
Before the project	218	87.2
After the project was introduced	32	12.8
I do not remember	0	0
Total	250	100

The above table 7.23 indicates the timing of community formation processes in relation to the introduction of the project. Notably, a significant majority of respondents, accounting for 87.2%, reported that community formation began before the project was introduced. This suggests that in the majority of cases, community groups or networks were already established or in the process of forming before the specific project under consideration was initiated. This could indicate pre-existing community structures, local initiatives, or historical collaborative efforts among community members.

Conversely, 12.8% of respondents indicated that community formation occurred after the project was introduced. This implies that the project itself played a role in catalyzing or formalizing community groups or networks. In such cases, the project likely catalyzed for community mobilization and engagement, bringing community members together around shared goals and objectives.

Importantly, none of the respondents mentioned that they could not remember the timing of community formation. This suggests a strong awareness and recall among the surveyed population regarding the sequence of events related to community formation and project introduction. The data indicates that community formation in the surveyed area occurred both before and after the introduction of the project. Understanding the timing of community formation is valuable for project planners and implementers as it can influence project design and engagement strategies, depending on whether communities were pre-existing or formed in response to the project.

Chart 7- 15: When did you start the community formation?

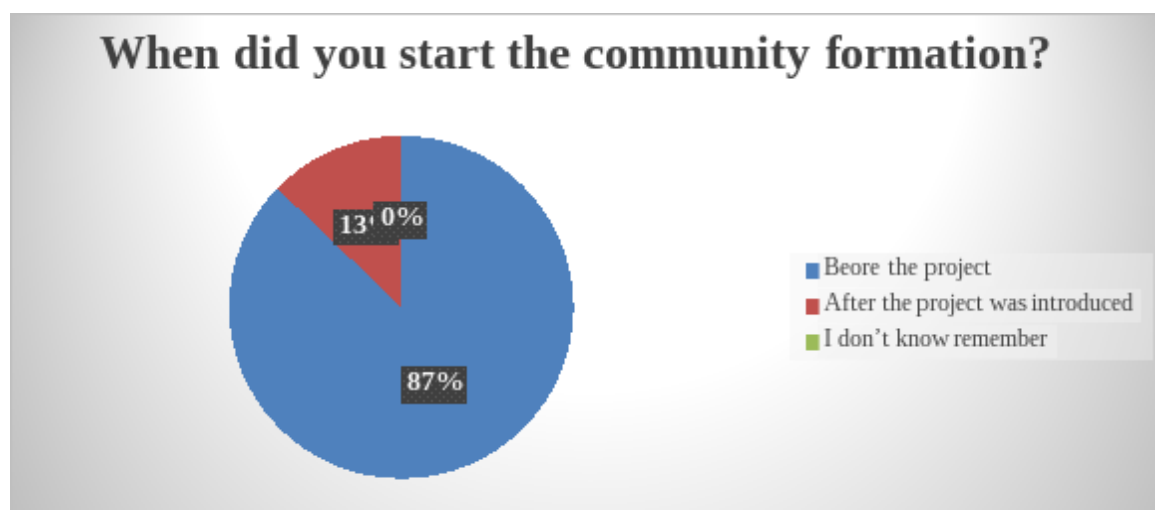


Table no 7- 24: Who decided to formation? Or with whom you discussed?

Who decided to formation? Or with whom you discussed?		
	Frequency	Percent
Donor Agencies	0	0
NGOs	139	55.6
Government officers	16	6.4
Community meetings	95	38
Total	250	100

The above table 7.24 shows that the decision-making process and stakeholders involved in the formation of community initiatives. Notably, the majority of respondents, accounting for 55.6%, indicated that Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) played a significant role in the decision to form community initiatives. This suggests that NGOs are actively engaged in community development efforts and collaborate closely with community members to identify and address local needs and priorities. The involvement of NGOs in the decision-making process can bring valuable expertise and resources to support community-driven initiatives.

Community meetings were mentioned by 38% of respondents as a key platform for decision-making and discussion regarding community formation. This underscores the importance of grassroots engagement and participatory decision-making within the community.

Community meetings serve as a democratic forum where community members can collectively voice their opinions, shape project ideas, and make decisions that align with their shared goals and aspirations. This data indicates that community meetings play a vital role in ensuring that initiatives reflect the community's needs and aspirations.

Government officers were mentioned by 6.4% of respondents as being involved in the decision to form community initiatives. While this percentage is relatively small, it signifies that government agencies are also part of the decision-making landscape. Effective collaboration between government bodies, NGOs, and community meetings can foster a comprehensive and holistic approach to community development.

The data suggests that community formation decisions are influenced by a combination of stakeholders, with NGOs and community meetings being the most prominent. The involvement of multiple stakeholders, including government officers, reflects a multi-faceted approach to community development, where various perspectives and expertise converge to address local needs and enhance the overall well-being of the community.

Chart 7- 16: Who decided to formation? Or with whom you discussed?

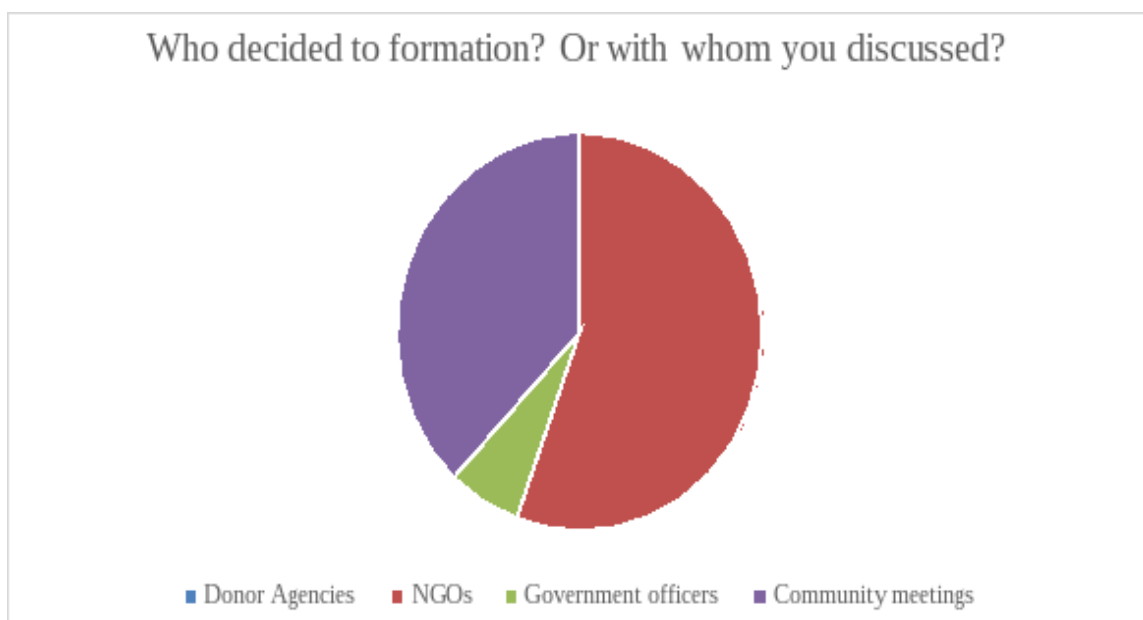


Table no 7- 25: The process of electing community leader?

The process of electing community leader?		
	Frequency	Percent
Level of Education	231	92.4
Assets (political or social trusts)	2	0.8
others	17	6.8
Total	250	100

In the above table significant majority of respondents, accounting for 92.4%, mentioned "Level of Education" as a key determinant in the selection of a community leader. This suggests that education plays a prominent role in the selection process, indicating that community members may value leadership candidates who have a certain level of formal education. This perception could stem from the belief that education equips individuals with the knowledge and skills necessary for effective leadership and decision-making. Comparatively 6.8% of respondents mentioned "others" as factors that influence like local elite the selection of a community leader. This implies that in some instances, political or social connections and influence may play a role in the leadership selection process. A very small percentage of respondents (0.8%) mentioned "Assets (wealthy person)" as a factor influencing the selection of a community leader. Such connections can be leveraged to garner support and trust from the community, potentially influencing the outcome of leadership elections.

Chart 7- 17: The process of electing community leader?

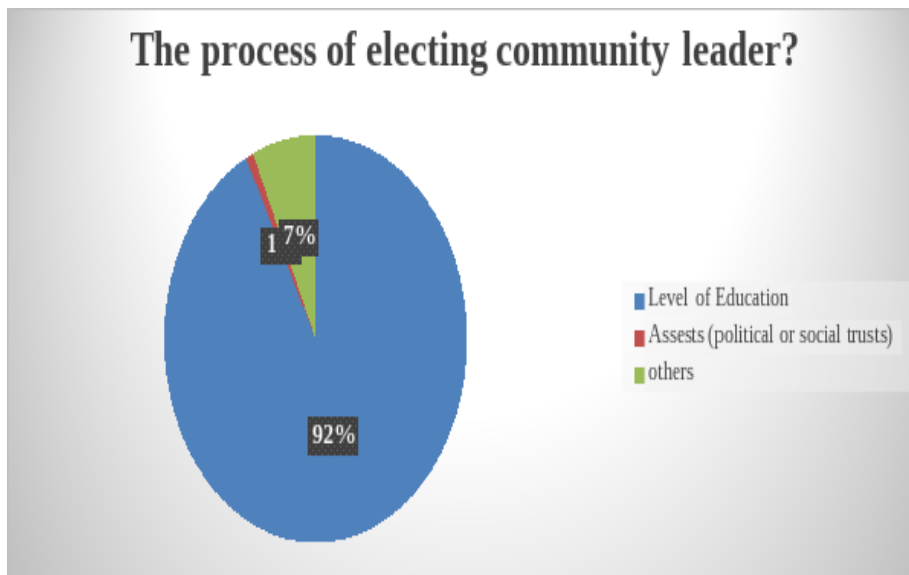


Table no 7- 26 Did the community have meeting to decide the implementation acceptance projects?

Did the community have a meeting to decide the implementation acceptance projects?		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	216	86.4
No	19	7.6
I do not remember	15	6
Total	250	100

In the above table 7.26 majority of respondents, comprising 86.4%, reported that the community did have meetings to decide on the acceptance of projects. This reflects a strong culture of community engagement and participatory decision-making, where community members actively participate in discussions and decisions regarding project acceptance. Such inclusivity is crucial for ensuring that projects align with community needs and priorities. The community was involved in decision-making processes related to the acceptance and implementation of projects.

And 7.6% of respondents indicated that there were no meetings to decide on project acceptance. This suggests that in a minority of cases, the decision-making process may have been more centralized or top-down, with community members having limited involvement in project decisions.

Only 6% of respondents stated that they could not remember whether there were meetings or not to accept project. This indicates that there are needs improvement in communication and documentation of community meetings and decision-making processes. Ensuring transparency and awareness regarding project acceptance meetings is essential for adopting a sense of ownership and accountability among community members.

Chart 7- 18: Did the community have a meeting to decide the implementation acceptance projects?

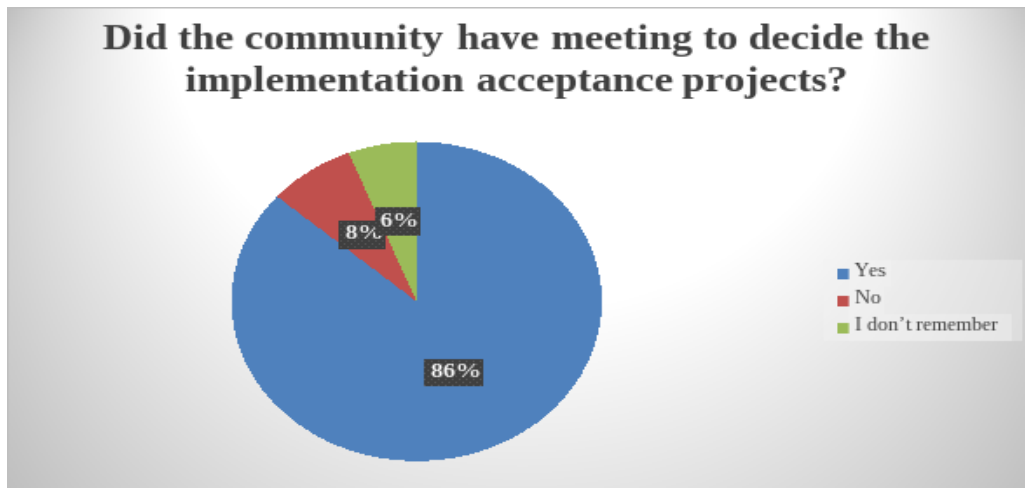


Table no 7-27: Income level before and after the project?

Income level before and after the project?	Frequency	Percent
Increased	239	95.6
No change	11	4.4
Decreased	0	0
Total	250	100

The data in the above table highlights a highly positive perception among respondents regarding the impact of the project on income levels. A significant majority, constituting 95.6% of respondents, reported that their income levels increased after the project's implementation. This overwhelmingly positive view suggests that the project has had a substantial and tangible impact on improving the financial well-being of the surveyed population. The increase in income could result from various project-related factors, such as economic opportunities generated by the project, skill development, or enhanced access to markets.

Only a small percentage of respondents, 4.4%, indicated that their income levels remained unchanged after the project. While this percentage is relatively low, it implies that there is a subset of the surveyed population who did not experience significant changes in their income despite the project's implementation. This suggests that there may be variability in the economic benefits of the project, and further investigation could help identify factors contributing to this subgroup's income stability.

None of the respondents reported a decrease in income levels after the project. This absence of negative income impacts was a positive outcome and indicates that the project has not had any adverse economic effects on the surveyed population.

Chart 7- 19: Income level before and after the project?

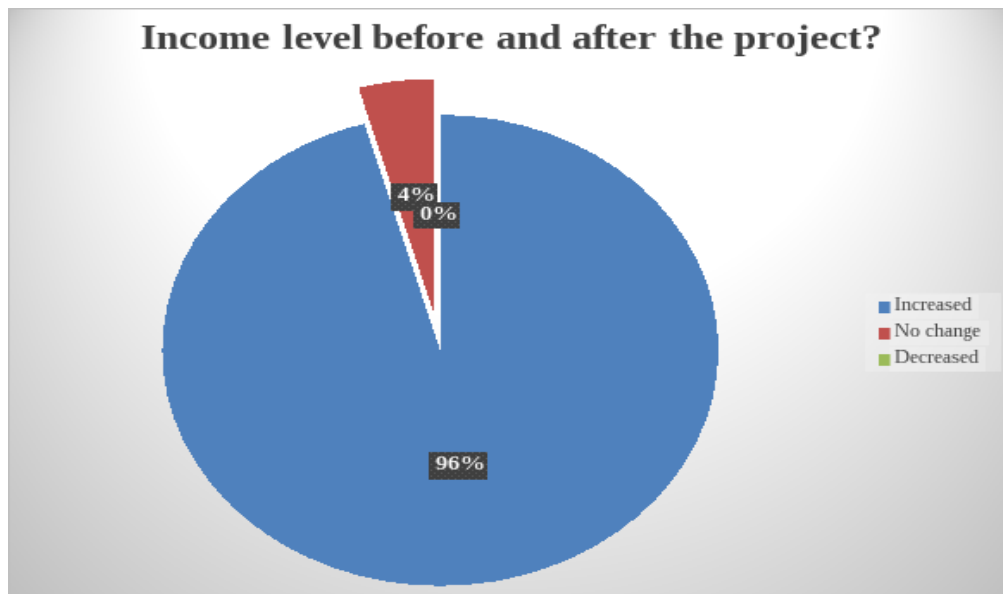


Table no 7-28: Health status improved or not after the Project.

Health status improved or not after the Project.		
	Frequency	Percent
Increased	241	96.4
Some how	9	3.6
Do not know	0	0
Total	250	100

The data shown in the table indicates a highly positive perception among respondents regarding the impact of the project on health status. A significant majority of respondents, constituting 96.4%, reported that health status has increased after the project's implementation. This overwhelmingly positive view suggests that the project has had a substantial and noticeable impact on improving the health outcomes of the surveyed population. The improvements in health status could encompass various aspects, including better access to healthcare services, increased awareness of health practices, and overall enhanced well-being.

A smaller percentage of respondents, at 3.6%, mentioned that health status has improved "somehow." While this percentage is relatively low, it indicates that there may be certain nuances or areas within health improvement that respondents feel have not seen as significant progress. These respondents may acknowledge overall improvements but may also identify specific aspects where further efforts or enhancements are needed.

none of the respondents indicated "I don't know," reflecting a high level of awareness and perception regarding the impact of the project on health status. This suggests that the improvements in health status were discernible and well-understood by the surveyed population, highlighting the effectiveness of the project in positively influencing health outcomes.

Chart 7- 20: Health status improved or not after the Project.

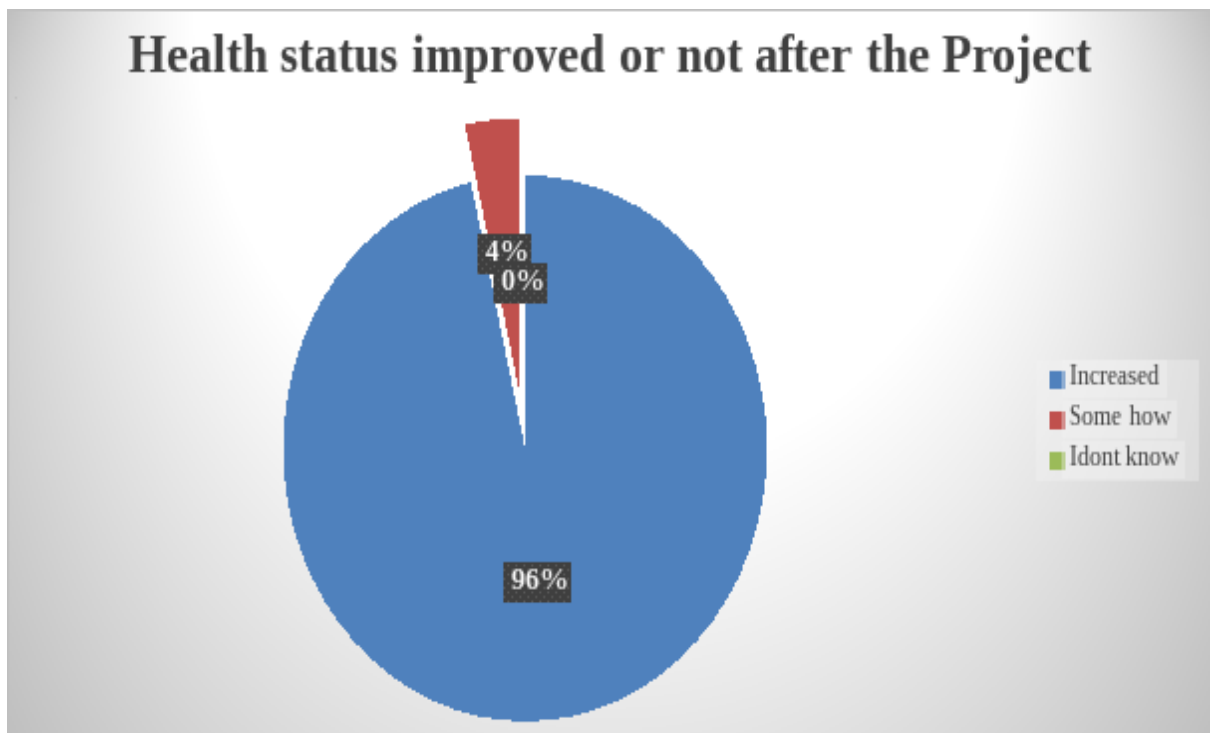


Table no 7-29: Education status improved or not?

Education status improved or not?		
	Frequency	Percent
Increased	236	94.4
Some how	11	4.4
I do not know	3	1.2
Total	250	100

The data in the table no 8.35 reflects respondents' perceptions of whether the education status has improved. A significant majority of respondents, constituting 94.4%, reported that education status has increased. This is a positive and optimistic view, indicating that many individuals in the surveyed population believe that there have been improvements in education. These improvements may include increased access to education, better educational facilities, enhanced quality of teaching, and higher literacy rates, among other factors.

The percentage of respondents, at 4.4%, mentioned that education status has improved "somehow." This suggests that while there have been certain positive changes in education, they may not be as significant or widespread as desired. These respondents may acknowledge improvements in certain aspects of education but still see room for further enhancement.

Only a very small fraction, 1.2%, expressed uncertainty by stating "I don't know." This could reflect a lack of awareness or access to information about changes in education status. To address this, efforts could be made to ensure that information about educational developments and improvements is effectively communicated to all members of the community.

The majority of respondents in this survey have a positive perception of improved education status. However, it is essential to complement these perceptions with objective data and evaluations to gain a comprehensive understanding of the actual progress in the education sector and to identify areas that may require further attention and improvement.

Chart 7- 21: Education status improved.

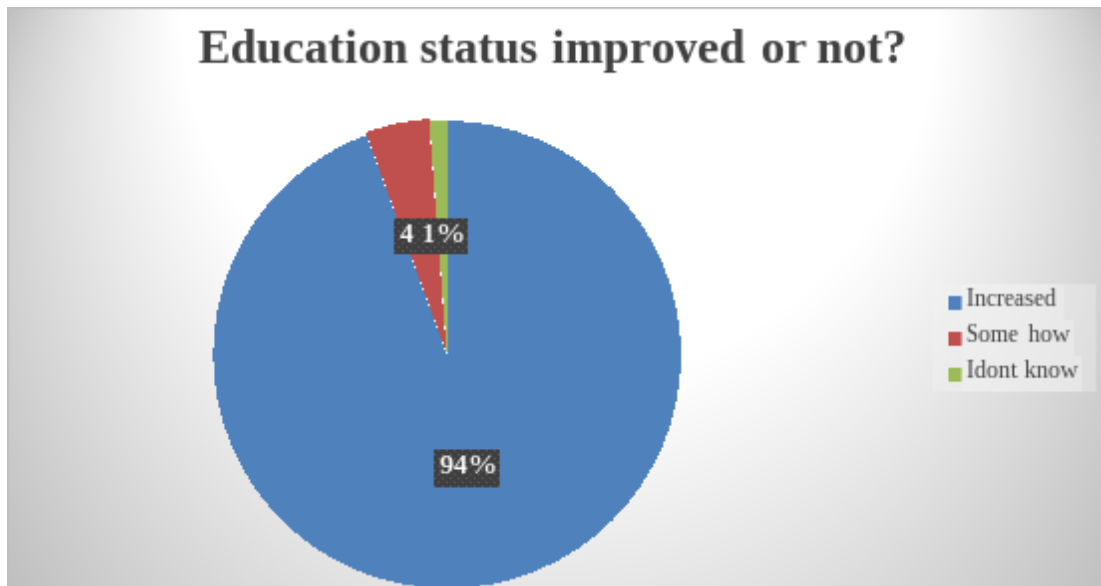


Table no 7- 30: Does discrimination exist in your community?

Does discrimination exist in your community?		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	3	1.2
No	241	96.4
I do not know.	6	2.4
Total	250	100

The data in Table 7-30 shows that the majority of respondents, totaling 96.4%, indicated that there is no discrimination in their community. This reflects a positive perception of a harmonious and non-discriminatory community environment, where individuals are treated fairly and equally regardless of their backgrounds or identities. Such perceptions are encouraging and suggest that there may be efforts within the community to promote inclusivity and social cohesion. The data presented in the table suggests that the perception of discrimination within the community is relatively low among the surveyed population. A very small percentage of respondents, constituting 1.2%, reported that discrimination exists in their community. This indicates that, according to the majority of respondents, there is a perception of inclusivity and equality within the community, where discrimination based on various factors such as ethnicity, gender, or religion is not a prevalent issue.

A small fraction of respondents 2.4% expressed uncertainty by stating "I don't know." This may indicate a lack of awareness or limited exposure to instances of discrimination within the community. It is important to note that the perception of discrimination can vary among individuals, and further investigation may be needed to understand the specific contexts or experiences that influence these perceptions.

In summary, the data suggests that the majority of respondents do not perceive discrimination as a prevalent issue within their community. While this is a positive indicator of social harmony, it is essential to remain vigilant and proactive in addressing any potential instances of discrimination and promoting inclusivity and equality within the community.

Chart 7- 22: Does discrimination exist in your community?

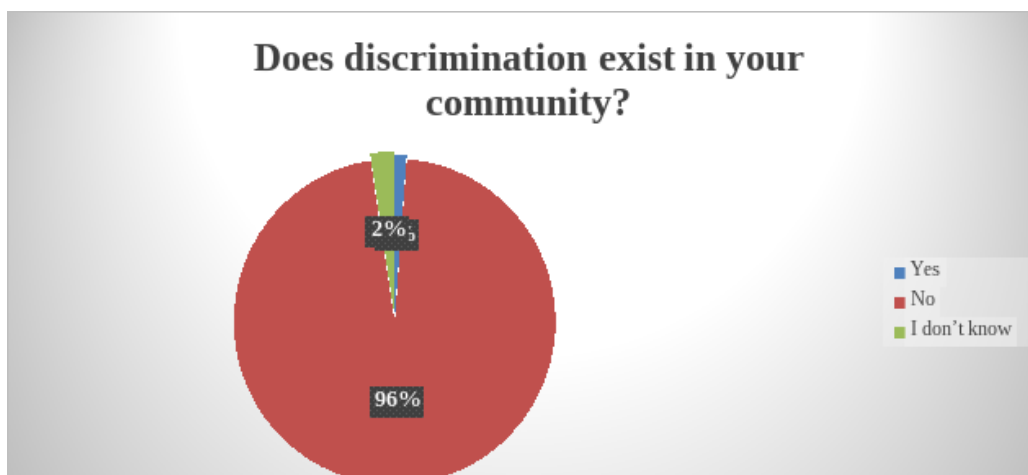


Table no 7- 31: Did social and living standard increased?

Did social and living standards increased?	Frequency	Percent
Yes	237	94.8
Some how	7	2.8
I do not know.	6	2.4
Total	250	100

From the above, it appears that a significant majority of respondents, accounting for 94.8%, believe that social and living standards have increased. This positive perception

suggests that many of the surveyed population has experienced improvements in their social and living conditions over time. These improvements could encompass various aspects, including income levels, access to education, healthcare, and overall quality of life.

A smaller percentage of respondents (2.8%) indicated that social and living standards have improved "somehow," suggesting that while there have been certain improvements, they may not be as substantial or widespread as desired. The specific nature of these improvements or areas of concern would require further investigation.

Lastly, 2.4% of respondents expressed uncertainty, indicating that they do not know whether social and living standards have increased. This could be due to a lack of awareness or a neutral perception of the changes in their living conditions. The majority of respondents in the survey believe that there have been improvements in social and living standards, indicating a positive trend in the perceived well-being of the surveyed population. However, it is essential to conduct more in-depth assessments and studies to gain a comprehensive understanding of the specific factors contributing to these perceptions and to address any remaining challenges in improving living conditions for all segments of the population.

Chart 7- 23: Did social and living standard better improved?

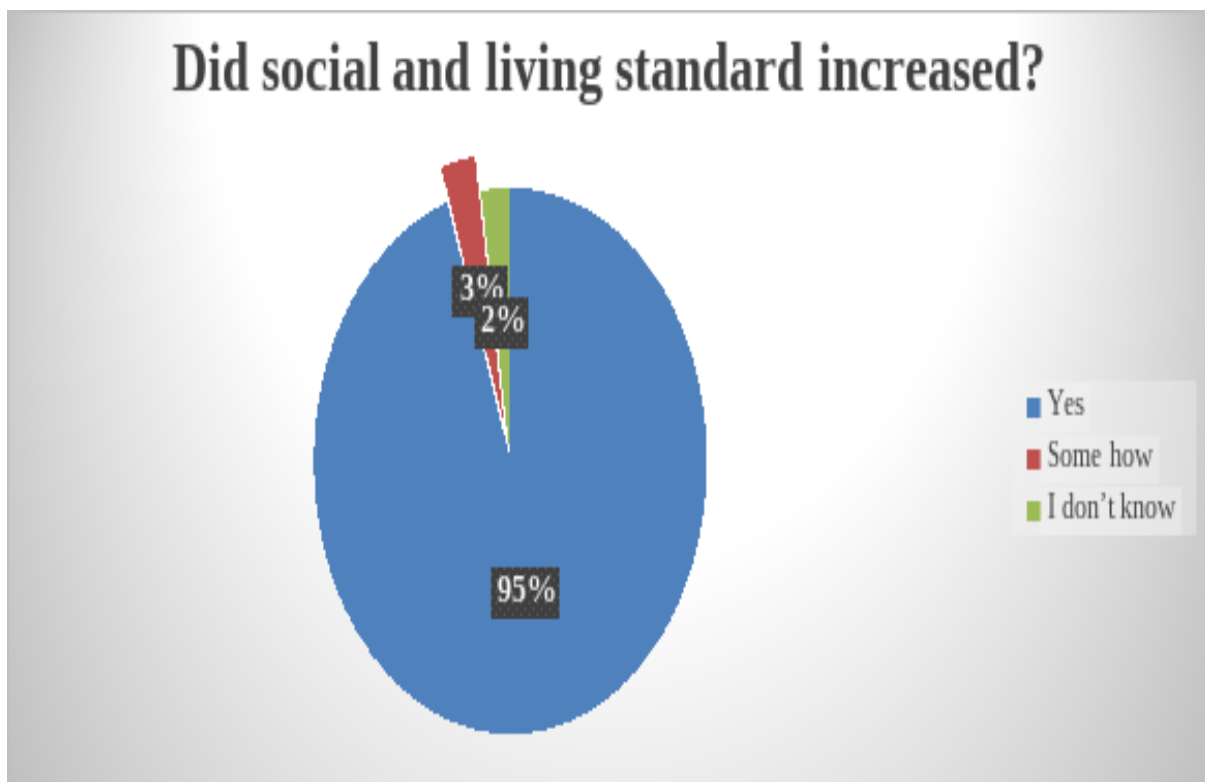
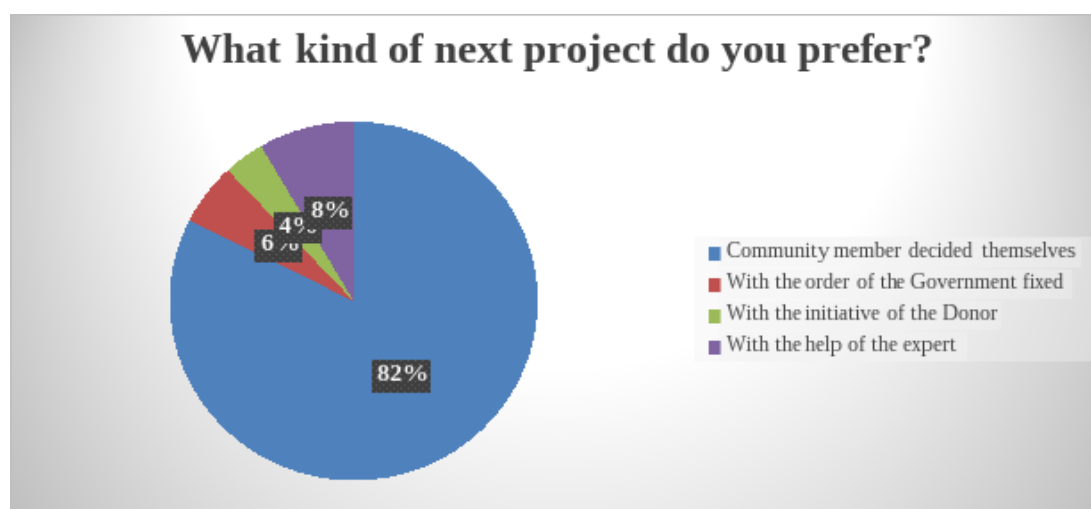


Table no 7- 1: What kind of next project do you prefer?

What kind of next project do you prefer?	Frequency	Percent
Community members decided themselves	206	82.4
With the order of the Government fixed	14	5.6
With the initiative of the Donor	9	3.6
With the help of the expert	21	8.4
Total	250	100

The data presented in the table indicates preferences for the initiation of the next project, with respondents having the option to select from different approaches. The majority of respondents 82.4% prefer community members to decide on the next project themselves, indicating a strong inclination towards participatory and community-led development. This suggests a desire for local ownership and involvement in project decision-making processes, which can enhance project sustainability and community engagement.

Chart 7- 24: What kind of next project do you prefer?



A smaller percentage of respondents 5.6% favor projects initiated with the order of the government fixed, suggesting a willingness to align with government priorities and policies. Meanwhile, a relatively small proportion 3.6% prefers projects initiated with the initiative of the donor, possibly indicating a willingness to accept external funding and support. Lastly, 8.4% of respondents prefer projects initiated with the help of experts, emphasizing the importance of technical guidance and expertise in project planning and execution.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION AND SUGGESTION

This chapter is a summary of the findings of the study. The author concludes all the findings, and makes a summary of this dissertation, and contains recommendations and suggestions for further study.

Nepal has receiving foreign assistance from 1951 bilateral aid from USA when opened its boarder to the world. Nepal's' development depended on foreign assistance. From history of ODA to Nepal increasing every year. Donor has their own priority sector to allocate their aid. As on data of OECD record, Nepal received in total US\$1035 million in first decade (1960-1970) of ODA history. This was increased US\$11,480 million in 2011 to 2020. In the early year of the national budget was depended on ODA. In the Monarch era (before 1990) established many industries, small and big infrastructures. The main sources were foreign aid. However, aid was under control the monarch and their siblings wherever they would like to use it. Rarely benefited from the aid people of the remote area. Poverty remains the same even the aid was increasing yearly. Poor and rural people were far away from education and health service.

In 1991, Nepal moved into democracy. Freedom of speech, social movement were commenced to women, ethnics, vulnerable, and marginalized groups in rural part of Nepal. INGOs and NGOs were established in Nepal, targeting to education, health, nutrition, sanitization, and social violation. At the same time World Bank launched the participatory approach, CDD approach in their development projects. Mid 1990s, rapidly increasing of NGOs, also helped to spread of the CDD approach in Nepal.

8.1 Discussion

From the above studies, analytical reviews, case studies and participatory approach were very useful to developing countries like Nepal. This approach gave opportunity local people to choose projects on their needs and desires. Minimized elites influence in the local development projects. Finding was described below.

- 1. Official Development Assistance:** Nepal got equal opportunity from the multilateral and bilateral agencies to develop like other developing countries. Increasing in ODA shows

that Nepal received almost US\$ 297 billion in 70 years of Aid history. The question is how many people get served from the ODA?

Evaluating the increased literacy, HDI and life of expectancy shows that, this was impossible without Aid. Big infrastructure like big highways, small roads, hydroelectricity dams and other projects were great role of aid. Directly or indirectly people of Nepal got benefited. Some of them increased skills, employment, and economic growths.

2. Applied Approach in Nepal: In Nepalese ODA history, many approach was applied to Nepal. Early period top-down approach was popular. This approach applied in many countries like Nepal. In this approach donor and recipient government vested their intention and plan to the local people whether they need it or not. Political and local elite were much more got benefitted from the aid rather than poor and pro poor people. Sustainability of small infrastructure were found poor. Very small amount of aid reached targeted people. The participatory approach was applied mid 1990s. The NGOs became local partner bridge to Aid agencies, recipient Government to connect the local people. In this approach local people were unite for a common goal on their needs and desires. Local NGOs and partners assisted them in technical, economically, training, and awareness programs. In CDD approach applied projects, where community group were directly involved in the small infrastructure found sustainable, avoided elites from the projects. In area elites were involved in favor of local people or to maintain their social works in the local. CBO (Community Based Organization) and LCBO (Local Community Based Organization) were active in late 1990s. CBO and LCBO intended to collaborate with local government to connect the local community groups. However, in this approach there was chances of corruption in local government and governance.

3. Community Group Formation: In initial phase, NGOs promoted to unite, assisted them to group formation. To create community groups, people emphasized on education to be a leader of the community, who can speak, travel and who can give to the community groups for day-to-day activities. Many of them were found from their own community. But in some cases, they were selected from local elites because of the link to national politician for the budgetary purpose and leisure time to travel on their own expenses. The elite leading community found that they were responsible to the community so found less possibility corruption. Though there was possibility of moral corruption like take a benefit in many opportunities to from national level to local people, as well as using as vote bank to local. Study in community groups found mixed reaction in formation of community leader.

- i. The President/Leader: In selection of president of the group found to can speak fearlessly in front of mass, demand their needs to upper level, and can raise voice of the groups.
- ii. The Secretary: community member prioritized education to select a secretary within community, who can keep good record of budget, source of aid, expenses of received aid and microfinance activities.
- iii. Member: No sets of requirements to be a member of community. The most common part in every community formation found that, they were from same village, either same or different caste or marginal groups, who lived together in same village or in the same society.
- iv. Empowerment: Programs set by government, NGOs, and donor agencies. Women of the community has ownership to accept the program or not. All of the community women members have discussed in the community meeting either accept or not? What was the benefit to individuals and community.

8.1.1 Whether CDD works in rural Nepal context?

CDD approach has proven that it was effective approach in rural contexts in Nepal. The government of Nepal often faced challenges to implement poverty reduction projects due to geographically difficulties. Where rural communities initiate the projects themselves, nothing is better than this approach. The Success of CDD projects in rural Nepal underscores the adaptability and effectiveness of this approach in addressing the diverse and complex challenges faced by rural communities, making it valuable tools for the development.

What is the realistic approach to make CDD work?

There are a few key approaches that can be taken to make a community-driven development approach work in Nepal:

Engage the local community: The local community should be engaged at every stage of the development process. This can be done by conducting community meetings, focus groups, and surveys to gather input and feedback.

8.1.1.1 Build capacity: Capacity building is an important part of community-driven development. This includes providing training and support to local leaders and organizations, so they can take ownership of the development projects and see them through to completion.

8.1.1.2 Foster open communication: Open communication is essential for successful community-driven development. This means creating a transparent and accessible feedback process and providing regular updates to the community on the progress of the project.

8.1.1.3 Empower women and marginalized groups: Community-driven development should focus on empowering women and marginalized groups, who often have limited access to resources and decision-making processes.

8.1.1.4 Utilize technology: Technology can be an excellent tool for community-driven development, especially in rural areas. This can include using digital platforms to gather feedback and disseminate information and utilizing smartphones and other devices to connect with communities.

8.1.1.5 Sustainability: Members from the community had enthusiasm to develop their community socially and economically, they participate sense of ownership and commitment to its long run functionality. Capacity building equipped members with the skills and knowledge needed for maintenance and repairs, ensured the small infrastructure's continued operation. The local contribution, whether in the form of labor or recourses, Forster a sense of responsibility and investment in the project's success, made community more inclined to project and maintain infrastructure, and its sustained for long.

8.1.2 Can CDD work as designed (minimizing elite capture influence, empowerment of minorities and women).

The community-driven development worked as designed to minimize elite capture and promote empowerment of minorities and women. One key factor was to ensure that all members of the community had an equal voice in decision-making processes and are given the opportunity to participate in project implementation. This was achieved by engaging in participatory planning, involving women and minority groups in leadership positions, and

establishing transparent monitoring and evaluation systems. Additionally, it was important to address power imbalances and create spaces for marginalized groups to participate in community development initiatives. With these strategies in place, community-driven development was an effective tool for promoting inclusive and sustainable development in Nepal.

Nepal's continued exercise of the community-driven development approach in its local government budgeting was a testament to its commitment to inclusive and sustainable development. Past experiences have shown that when communities are actively involved in the decision-making process, development initiatives are more likely to succeed, as they address real and pressing needs. The decentralization of power, participatory budgeting practices, and an emphasis on inclusivity and accountability have all contributed to the enduring relevance of this approach in Nepal.

As Nepal continues to evolve and face new challenges, maintaining its commitment to community-driven development in local government budgets will be crucial in ensuring that the diverse needs and aspirations of its citizens, including women, minorities, and farmers, are effectively addressed. This approach not only strengthens the bonds between local governments and their communities but also fosters a more resilient and inclusive society for all Nepalese citizens.

8.1.3 Why Community Driven Development?

Members of the Community are always conscious of the project's long run sustainability and willing to participate in maintenance activities. Most of the respondents of five districts shared that the development agency coordinated with the government to implement many kinds of development work to achieve the target objectives. It would be better to work in collaboration with the government. CLDP launched for the first time to work at community level on livestock sector collaboration with government and other stakeholders. CLDP Projects taught us to work in joint ventures (Government and NGOs) to achieve the target goals. These projects were successful projects because it was for the benefit of the farmer, especially women farmers. This success might be due to the collaboration between stakeholder staff and the agricultural farmer, and later farmer groups took ownership. There was breakdown of the government after the local level election and there was a lack of trained human resources or shortage of trained human resources. It was difficult for the new staff to perform their duties.

“sanggiyata aaye pachi link yej nai tuteko cha, rajya kamjor hudai gayeko cha pahila pashusewa huda jun hami krisak ko ghar dailomaa pugne ra samasya pahichaan garne, samaadhaan garne jastaa kura ko abhaaw bhayeko cha chh/saat barsako awastha herda janasakti ko abhaaw raheko cha.”

However, CLDP projects work for low level income people and at community level. They formulated more than 600 groups, and some groups were changed to cooperatives and groups were involved in the registration process. Some groups and committees change cooperatives now.

Gopal “After this project, 4/5 cooperative were established. Before this project there were many committees, but now they were converted in to cooperative. In past existing committees like Chinari milk production cooperative, in pokharathok, Tansen, Luhu Milk Production dairy production, Sita Kunda Milk Production, and Rampur Buffalo Development Committee merged into cooperative with members of more than two hundred.”

“aayojanaa aayepachi tehi bela charpaanch wota sahkari nirman bhaye pahile deri paket samiti thiye ahile sahkari paribartit bhaye. chinari dugdh utpaadan sahkari taansenbaar pokharathok maa raheko cha. luhu dugdh utpaadan sahkari sasthaa taansen bazar ani rampur sita kunda dugdh utpaadan sasthaa pahila rampur bhaisi bikash samiti bhanne thiyo”.

After CLDP launched, farmers learned about grass cultivation, and they formulated a ‘Grass Cultivation Committee’ (*Ghas Samiti*), in which 20–25 members were engaged. Farmers involved in grass cultivation for their animals started exporting grass to other neighbor districts. At the same time CLDP provides a budget for repairing their animals’ barns, likewise they also develop bridges between the farmer and market. As a whole, CLDP projects provided full packages to the farmer from grass cultivation knowledge to animals and shelter for the animals, and they provided a market to sell the farmers’ production. These kinds of services lead to an increase in the number of animals and an increase in income as a whole.

Mr. Poudel, “now I have 75 cows, 40s are still milking. In the early period I had an income 30,000Nrs but now I am getting 300,000Nrs Monthly from farm.

“ahile 75 wota gaai chan jasmadhya 40 gaai le dudh dinchan pahila masik 30,000 jati hunthyo ahile 300,000 samma hucha”

Mrs. Rama Thapa said, when I started goat farm I had only 2 goats but within 4 years I earned 190 thousand rupees from the goat farming.

“dui wota baakhraa paalan garera 4 barsamaa tehi baakhraa baat 1 lakh 90 hajar aamdani praapt gareko thiye.”

Mr. Karki from Nawalpur cooperative, initially 18lts milk were produced by 5 cows then gradually it increased up to 29 cows, now the production of milk per day is 75lts.

“surumaa 5 wata gaai paalan gareko teti bela dinko 18 litar dugha utpaadan hunthyo ahile aayer 5 gaai baat 29 gaai banna puge ani dinko 75 litar dugh utpaadan hunegareko cha.”

8.2 Conclusion

Between 1960 and 2020, the Official Development Assistance (ODA) to Nepal has experienced significant growth, totaling US\$29,696.44 million over the period. This increase reflects a trend of rising international support for Nepal's development efforts. Notably, ODA saw a substantial increase during the 1980s and 2010s, with a particularly sharp rise of 146.12% between 1981 and 1990, and a significant surge of 107.55% between 2010 and 2020. These periods coincided with heightened international focus on development aid and assistance to Nepal, driven by various factors such as geopolitical considerations, humanitarian needs, and strategic partnerships.

Concurrently, the increased ODA has facilitated the implementation of numerous Community-Driven Development (CDD) approach projects in Nepal. This approach empowers local communities to identify their own development priorities, plan and manage projects, and allocate resources effectively. As ODA to Nepal grew over the years, so did the application of the CDD approach, which aligns with the principles of decentralization, community participation, and ownership. These projects have addressed a wide range of development challenges, including infrastructure development, poverty reduction, education, and healthcare.

The Community Development Projects (CLDPs) in Nepal have demonstrated remarkable efficacy in addressing key developmental challenges while fostering inclusivity, sustainability, and empowerment at the grassroots level. Through active community participation, these projects have realized tangible benefits across various dimensions,

including real participation of local people, maximum involvement of women and vulnerable groups, cost reduction, avoidance of excessive influences of elite groups, reduction of corruption, bridging the gap between community desires and national interests, sustainability, low cost realization, and empowered voices of marginalized communities.

One of the most striking aspects of CLDPs is their emphasis on bottom-up approaches, where local communities are actively engaged in decision-making processes, project planning, and implementation. This participatory approach not only ensures that development initiatives align with the needs and priorities of the people on the ground but also fosters a sense of ownership and responsibility among community members. By empowering marginalized groups, particularly women, minorities, and ethnic communities, CLDPs have facilitated the creation of strong, interconnected networks that advocate for their rights and drive positive change at both local and national levels.

Moreover, CLDPs have proven to be cost-effective and sustainable, leveraging local resources, knowledge, and labor to achieve meaningful and long-lasting results. By bypassing intermediaries and fostering transparency and accountability, these projects have minimized the chances of corruption and ensured efficient utilization of resources for the benefit of the intended beneficiaries.

In conclusion, the success of CLDPs in Nepal serves as a testament to the transformative power of community-led approaches in development. By prioritizing inclusivity, sustainability, and empowerment, these projects have not only improved the livelihoods of local communities but also contributed to broader national development objectives.

1. Participation of local people in the project was real without manipulation:

Majority of the study participants across all the sites (Chitwan, Palpa, Tanahun Nawalparasi and Lamjung) unanimously shared that there was a collaboration among the farmer, government stakeholder (livestock officer) and CLDP team member. The CLDP project emphasized development for the community level. At the initial stages, the CLDP project formulated different groups and committees at the community level. They further claim that in each group there were 10 to 15 members in a group and 20 to 25 members in the committee. A committee was formed by 5 community level groups. CLDP projects provided full coverage support on the livestock sector for the farmers. They provided grass cultivation techniques, insurance facilities for the animals, marketing for farmer production and CLDP

project help to farmers to increase their production and reduce their investment cost. They further help to reconstruct the barns or shed.

“farmers took this project as a need and fill.”

CLDP followed the bottom level approach in which they ranked the people according to their economic status. They conducted a household survey for the verification of the ranking system. They found the three types of ranking system i.e. top level, middle and low level. According to their level, farmers had different choices and interests towards the livestock, likewise it also changes according to their caste.

“small farmers are benefitted from pig farming than others and wastage from making domestic alcohol, can be used to pig farming. So, this program was popular in the Magar community in Palpa.

“Low level ka maanis haru bagur paalne tir jane garthe kinabhane bagur bata chhito phaaidda hune and palpa ma magar jaati ko maanis le raksi banaaudaa kadha niskane huda tehi kadha bagur kaa laagi dherai laabhadayek hune hunale magar jaatile bagur paaln ruchaane garthe”.

According to the statement of the livestock officer, they worked in groups and gathered information about the people's interest and choices towards farming. Out of 100 people, 60% people have interest in cow farming and 30% in goat farming, 10% people chose pig farming remaining. And 10% in others. We prepared the proposal according to the scientific data that we collected in the field, and we submitted to them, likewise CLDP or donors provided the budget according to people's interest.

2 Maximum Participation of women and vulnerable groups were realized:

Most of the respondents shared that low- and middle-class women participated in the projects. They regularly attended the group's meeting. The CLDP project focuses more on women development and empowerment. Likewise, they formulated various women groups for conducting women development. Women were hardworking and very initiative working in a group rather than men comparatively.

“mahila samiti banaayer baakhra paicho karyakram sanchalan gareka thiyau. palpa ma tin char wata mahila samiti lai sahakari ko rupma rupaantarana garna saphal bhayeko thiyau yesma CLDP project ko thulo haat raheko cha”.

One of the respondents argued that CLDP projects emphasis on women empowerment more than other projects. These projects formulated the different women groups for economic and social empowerment to the women. He further claims that 50 % of women engaged in animal husbandry at present.

3 Cost reduction was realized:

The main objectives of the CLDP Project were to increase the production of farmers and to reduce investment cost. Likewise, these projects inform the farmers towards the cost reduction and develop the capacity of the farmer in terms of resources for animal husbandry. These projects helped to plant high protein grass for animals to produce a high quantity of milk from the cow. This project also helped to improve the animal's shed or barn. These projects help technical and financial assistance to the farmer for the production improvement and cost reduction on their animals' husbandry.

“hamile 10 dekhi 20 hajar samma lai goth sudhar garna sayog gareka thiyau sathai dudha dine pashuka laagi bhaner duwaani kharch dui hajar dekhi tin hajar samma sahayog gareka thiyau.”

One of the respondents of Nawalparasi shared that at the initial stage after registering the agricultural cooperative firm there was a limited number of farmers who produced milk, however after the CLDP project launched and provided the training on husbandry. There were no. farmers and they produced milk in large volume. This would happen after CLDP introduced the various types of grass. These projects also help in the marketing sector by converting different groups into cooperatives.

“yeuta kisan koi laagi waa dugdh byawasaaya ko laagi pashu lai chaahine ghaas ra bajar ko aawasyakataa ho jun cldp aayojanaale diyeko thiyo jasle krishak lai dherai phaaidda pugeko thiyo”

4 Avoidance of excessive influences of elite groups was realized:

CLDP projects worked at community level or grass root level. These projects worked in a group rather than individually. While formulating the group, they follow the inclusive methods. 10 to 15 members in each group. At the initial level, They coordinated with the government sector (livestock officer). CLDP projects jointly studied the need assessment at the community

level. They ranked the household according to the income of the household. According to the need assessment, they prepared the proposal in collaboration with the government. Donor launched the budget based on the proposal or majority need, therefore there was avoidance of excessive influences of the elite group.

5 Reduction of corruption was realized:

CLDP projects work in groups at community level. Government and NGOs worked in joint ventures. These projects firstly identified the people's needs and ranked the household based on the household income and their livestock background. Farmers should be in the registration process of their farm, otherwise we are disqualified to be involved in the farmer groups. According to the need assessment and regular meeting, the concerned body prepared a proposal and donors launched a budget based on the proposal. Therefore, there was less chance of corruption.

CDD projects worked in groups rather than individually. Every member should have registered in the cottage and small industry, otherwise they are ineligible to enter a group. They conducted the regular meeting in a group and All members of the groups discussed the issues and opportunities in a group and made the final decision based on their final discussion. The decision is made by the majority of the members. They discussed their interest and demand in a group and submitted a proposal according to their group discussion, and they received the budget based on the proposal. Therefore, community people participated in a group in every step of the process of budgeting and in the implementation parts which reduce corruption in a group.

CLDP have demonstrated a lower susceptibility to corruption in Nepal when compared to some other development initiatives. One significant reason for this was the high degree of transparency and accountability built into the CLDP. In this project typically involved active community participation in decision-making and oversight, ensuring that project funds were allocated and spent transparently. This participatory process created a system of checks and balances where community members, including women and marginalized groups, monitor project activities, budgets, and expenditures, reduced opportunities for corruption.

Furthermore, CLDP often employ a bottom-up approach, where local communities are actively involved in project planning and implementation. This means that funds were channeled directly to the community level, bypassing multiple layers of intermediaries, and

reducing the likelihood of funds being siphoned off by corrupt officials, elites, or middlemen. Additionally, the close-knit nature of many rural communities in Nepal fostered a strong sense of social accountability, as community members were more likely to hold their peers accountable for any misconduct. Overall, the combination of transparency, community involvement, and efficient fund allocation inherent in CLDP projects acts as a deterrent to corruption and promotes the responsible use of resources for the benefit of the intended beneficiaries.

6 Reduced gap

CLDP project had important role in bridging the gap between a community's desires and national interests in Nepal. This project operated on the premise that local communities possess valuable insights into their own development needs, and by empowering them, it becomes possible to align their aspirations with broader national objectives. By actively engaging with local communities to identify their needs and priorities, CLDP ensured that development initiatives resonate with the desires and aspirations of the people on the ground. This bottom-up approach was instrumental in making sure that national development goals are rooted in the lived experiences and demands of the communities themselves. This project fostered a sense of responsibility and accountability among communities. As they actively participate in project planning, implementation, and monitoring, community members became more invested in the success of these initiatives. The heightened sense of ownership ensured that projects are implemented with greater diligence and efficiency.

When local communities seen tangible results that align with their desires, they were more likely to support and contribute to national development objectives. The empowered and capacity-building that occurred through CLDP project that created a multiplier effect. Communities equipped with skills, knowledge, and a greater sense of agency contributed to a wide range of development efforts, which turned serves national interests. For instance, when communities were actively involved in education, healthcare, and infrastructure development, the overall human capital of the nation improves, aligning with broader national development goals.

7 Sustainability

Sustainability of Community-Driven Development (CDD) Projects in Nepal has a rich and impactful history. Over the years, Nepal has recognized the importance of empowering its

communities to drive their development initiatives, leading to the long-term sustainability of such projects. One significant aspect of this sustainability is the formation of strong and cohesive communities that are actively involved in decision-making and project management.

In the past, Nepal has successfully implemented CDD projects that focused on addressing critical community needs, such as infrastructure development, education, healthcare, and agriculture. These projects involved local communities in the planning, implementation, and monitoring phases, ensuring that the projects aligned with their unique requirements and priorities. As a result, communities not only received essential services but also gained valuable skills and knowledge, contributing to their long-term sustainability.

Community formation through CDD projects in Nepal has fostered a sense of ownership and responsibility among local residents. This empowerment has led to communities taking proactive measures to protect and maintain project assets, even after the completion of the projects. Moreover, the social capital built during the CDD process has strengthened trust and collaboration among community members, enabling them to address emerging challenges and continue pursuing sustainable development initiatives. This historical commitment to CDD has made a significant difference in the lives of Nepali communities, promoting self-reliance and resilience for a sustainable future.

8 Realized Low Cost

CDD project provides infrastructure at lower cost than non-CDD projects. CLDP projects also assist in development of the infrastructure for their animal shed and for the marketing of their production, however other projects have many complications regarding the infrastructure and other technical problems. It was easy to develop any infrastructure because the whole group took ownership and initiative, however other non-CDD programs followed a top-down approach, and it was difficult to find the people's interest and choices. These kinds of programs lead to unsustainability at the community level. Which output might be un efficiency and un effectiveness of the programs. CDD projects emphasized the people's interest and choices which would run long term effect.

Community-Driven Development (CDD) projects in Nepal have often been recognized for their cost-effectiveness when compared to other development initiatives. One key reason behind their lower costs is the active involvement of local communities in the project cycle. By engaging community members in identifying needs, planning, and implementation, CLDP

projects reduced the need for costly external consultants and intermediaries. Local communities often have a deep understanding of their own needs and are motivated to find cost-effective solutions that are suitable for low cost in sustainable product.

CLDP projects benefit from the efficient use of local resources and labor. Community members contributed their own resources, whether through financial contributions, in-kind support, or voluntary labor, which significantly reduced the costs in infrastructure. Moreover, the projects often rely on locally available materials and traditional knowledge, minimizing the need for expensive imports or specialized equipment. This localization of resources and expertise not only lowers costs but also strengthens community ownership and sustainability, as communities are more likely to maintain and repair infrastructure they have been directly involved in building. In this way, CLDP projects demonstrated that involving local communities in development initiatives not only empowers them but also ensures that limited resources were used efficiently to achieve meaningful and cost-effective results.

9 Empowered voice

“Group voice is more powerful than single voice”, so to raise voice of dominated women, minorities, and ethics CDD could be helpful from local to national level.

The collective power of group voices has consistently proven to be more influential than individual voices, and this principle holds true in the context of raising the voices of marginalized communities like women, minorities, and the ethnic groups in Nepal.

CLDP formulated different groups at the community level to achieve the project objectives. The main objectives of the projects were to uplift women and minorities by economic and social development. Therefore, they worked in the livestock sector in groups. Most of the rural areas people engaged in agriculture, especially in the livestock sector. Community driven projects worked for the empowerment of women by economic and social development. Most of the women could not find public space due to the social and economic issues. However, CDD projects help the women and minorities group to interact in public space and raise their opinion in public space. The CCD project worked in groups rather than individually because group voice was more powerful than single voice.

At the local level, CLDP empower marginalized groups by actively involving them in decision-making processes. Through participatory approaches, these communities are

encouraged to identify their unique needs and priorities, which forms the foundation for project planning and execution. This not only ensures that projects directly address the pressing issues faced by these communities but also instills a sense of ownership. Empowered communities are more likely to collectively advocate for their rights and concerns, presenting a unified front in dialogs with local authorities.

CLDPs foster the creation of networks and alliances among marginalized groups. Collaborative efforts in project implementation led to the formation of strong, interconnected communities. These networks extend beyond the project's immediate scope, enabling collective advocacy at provincial and national levels. The united front of these communities strengthens their ability to influence policymakers and demand equitable representation and rights.

On a national scale, CLDPs have the potential to catalyze transformative changes. Empowered marginalized communities gain confidence in their leadership abilities and become more adept at advocating for their rights. Their collective voices resonate in national conversations on crucial issues, such as gender equality, minority rights, and social justice. Ultimately, this can lead to policy reforms and initiatives that address the systemic inequalities faced by these communities, making their voices not just heard but acted upon at both the local and national levels.

CLDP project played vital tool for raising the voices of marginalized communities like women, minorities, and ethnic groups. Through empowerment, collaboration, and advocacy, CLDPs enable these communities to drive positive change from their local contexts to the national stage, contributing to greater social justice, equity, and inclusivity in Nepal's development landscape.

When powerful donors insist on certain "terms and conditions" in exchange for providing aid to governments, it underscores a complex interplay of interests and power dynamics. These terms and conditions often reflect the donors' political, economic, or strategic interests, which they seek to advance through their aid contributions. Such conditions may include requirements for recipient countries to implement specific policies, undertake certain projects, or grant concessions that align with the donors' agendas. However, this practice can perpetuate a system of dependency and unequal power relations, where recipient countries are compelled to prioritize the interests of donors over their own development needs. Moreover, the imposition of terms and conditions can undermine the sovereignty and autonomy of

recipient governments, limiting their ability to pursue independent development strategies. To address this issue, it is essential to promote transparency, accountability, and ethical behavior in the negotiation and implementation of aid agreements.

8.3 RECOMMENDATION

Based on the data provided across various dimensions, several recommendations can be made for the planning and implementation of the next project:

1. Community Engagement and Participation:

The data consistently highlights the importance of community engagement and participation in decision-making processes. Therefore, it is recommended that the next project continue to prioritize community involvement at every stage, from project identification and design to implementation and monitoring. Strategies such as community meetings and inclusive decision-making should be further emphasized to ensure that the community's needs and priorities are effectively addressed.

2. Transparency and Communication:

The data also underscores the significance of transparent communication regarding project finances, processes, and outcomes. It is crucial to maintain a high level of transparency to address concerns related to corruption and ensure that community members have a clear understanding of the project's objectives and progress. Effective communication channels should be established to keep the community well-informed about project-related matters.

3. Gender Inclusivity:

The data indicates a positive perception regarding the representation of women's voices and their participation in the community. To build on this, the next project should continue to prioritize gender inclusivity, ensuring that women have equal opportunities for leadership and decision-making roles. Gender-responsive strategies should be integrated into project design and implementation to promote women's empowerment and gender equality.

4. Education and Skill Development:

The data reveals the importance of education, particularly in the context of leadership selection. Therefore, the next project can consider initiatives focused on

education and skill development to empower community members with the knowledge and skills needed for leadership roles and active participation in project-related activities.

5. Anti-Discrimination Measures:

While the data indicates a low perception of discrimination within the community, it is essential to remain vigilant and proactive in addressing any potential instances of discrimination. The next project should incorporate measures to promote inclusivity and tolerance, with a focus on ensuring that all community members are treated fairly and equally.

6. Continuous Monitoring and Evaluation:

To ensure that project objectives are met and that community needs are effectively addressed, it is recommended that the next project includes robust monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. Regular assessments should be conducted to measure the project's impact on various dimensions, including health, education, income levels, and community development, to make informed adjustments as needed.

7. Sustainability:

The next project should prioritize sustainability by considering long-term impacts and outcomes. This can involve capacity-building initiatives, the establishment of community-driven institutions, and strategies that empower the community to continue managing and benefiting from project outcomes even after project completion.

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APPENDIX:

CDD Projects by World Bank

Region	Project Name	Amount (\$ M)	Sector
Region	Africa		
Mozambique	Mozambique Primary Health Care Strengthening Program	930	Primary health care
Malawi	Lilongwe Water and Sanitation Project	102	
Cote d'Ivoire	Support to Nutrition Sensitive Agriculture and Capacity Development of Small and Marginal Farmers	3	Agriculture and Capacity Development
Kenya	Water and Sanitation Development Project	330	Water and sanitation
Burundi	Local Development for Jobs Project	50	Agriculture market and Commercialization
Region	East Asia and Pacific		
Indonesia	Indonesia Social Assistance Reform Program	4,932	Social Protection; Social Protection
Lao	Green Resilient Growth DPF	39	Sanitation, Agriculture, and forestry
China	Shaanxi Poor Rural Areas Community Development Project	150	Agriculture Commercialization
Solomon Islands	Solomon Islands Community Benefit Sharing Pilot Project	3	Water supply
Papua New Guinea	Water Supply and Sanitation Development Project	77	Water supply and Sanitation
Region	Europe and Central Asia		
Uzbekistan	Livestock Sector Development Project	237	Livestock
Kyrgyz	Engaging Communities for Better Schools in the Kyrgyz Republic	3	Education
Kyrgyz	Sustainable rural water supply and Sanitation	43	Water supply
Kazakhstan	Education Mobilization Project	77	Secondary Education
Region	Latin America and Caribbean		
Brazil	Paraiba Sustainable Rural Development	80	Water Supply

Haiti	Sustainable Rural and Small-Town Water Supply and Sanitation Additional Financing	20	water Supply
Chile	Chile - Public Health Sector Support Project	80	health
Region	Middle East and North Africa		
Yemen	Yemen Emergency Health and Nutrition Project Second Additional Financing	200	Health
Lebanese	Roads and Employment Project	200	Rural and Inter-Urban Roads
Morocco	Strengthening Agri-Food Value Chains	200	Agriculture

Source: World Bank database

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was specially designed based on major questions as below.

Where is the country in its processes of decentralization and of local and community empowerment?

- How can the conditions that are conducive to LCDD be established?
- How can adverse institutional barriers be overcome?
- How is LCDD sequenced?
- What is to be scaled up?
- How can total and fiscal costs be reduced?
- Local and community-driven development
- How can the program be financed?
- How can co-production problems be managed?
- How can LCDD be adapted to the local and national context?
- How will field-tested manuals, toolkits, and scaling-up logistics be created?

To find the results above questions, a questionnaire was asked as designed in 3 different parts for survey. First for government staff/agencies Second for Local leaders and third one is members farmers groups member, women, and minorities group members.

For Government Agencies

Name:

Serial No:

Organization:

Designation:

1. How CDD is practiced in your community and how inclusive is it?
 - i. Community asked to government for the project or aid.
 - ii. Local elite asked for the target project?
 - iii. NGO were selected the target project area?
 - iv. Government decided the project implementation area. And the community accepted it?
 - v. Donor agencies decided the project area.
2. Who identifies and prioritizes activities of the project? who decided the priorities?
 - a. Government
 - b. NGO
 - c. Donor
 - d. through community meetings
3. Did the project meet the needs the community members?
 - i. Yes
 - ii. No
 - iii. Cannot say.
4. What was/is the most significant problem of community in Nepal?
 - I. Fund shortage
 - II. Opposition from the local elite
 - III. Unexpected shift in the market situation
 - IV. Conflict among the community members

5. Did the Government's Policies and programmes influence that selection process of the project?

- i. Yes ii. No ii. Not felt

If yes how?

6. Did you think community can take charge of its development activities?

i. Yes, If yes, why?

ii. No If no why?

iii. Cann not say.

7. Did you think every community will accept the project?

i. Yes

If yes, why?

iv. No

If no, why?

v. Cannot say.

8. What conflict exists in community?

i. Yes ii. No

If yes,

i. gender discrimination

ii. Caste discrimination

iii. Poor discrimination

9. Did CDD approach produce sustainable impact in your community?

i. Economic impact ii. social impact iii. other impact

FOR MEMBERS

Name (Head of Household):

Serial No:

Organization/Community Name:

Designation in Community/Organization:

District:

Rural Village Development Committee (RVDC)

1. Number of Members in Household

<3Person	3~5 person	>5 person	
Kids	Adult(10-18years)	19-65 years	over 66 years

2. Number of members in household

Total	Male	Female	Others
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3. Education

3.1 Literate members

a. Primary education	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
b. Secondary education	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
c. Higher secondary	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
d. University level	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

3.2 Illiterate members	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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3.3 Educated

ii. Male

a. Primary education	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
b. Secondary education	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
c. Higher secondary	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

d. University	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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iii. Female

a. Primary education	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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b. Secondary education	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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c. Higher secondary	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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d. University	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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4. Income source and Dependent (employment)

I. Dependent	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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II. Employed	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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III. Government Job	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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IV. Private job	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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V. Business	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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VI. Others

Foreign Employment	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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Unemployed	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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engaged Agriculture	all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
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5. Household income before and after project implemented.

Before project

After Project

- i. Women speaks up, i. loudly, ii. Not so much
- ii. Minorities speaks up, i. loudly, ii. Not so much
- iii. Small farmers speak up, loudly, ii. Not so much

10. What kind of the groups/people are engaged in livestock firms and enterprises?

- i. Women ii. Ethnics & Minorities iii. Small farmers

11. What kind of the groups/people are engaged in established Chilling vat, Milk collection center and slaughterhouse?

- i. Women ii. Small farmers iii. Private

12. How were the groups of women, small dairy farmers and minorities organized and asked to participate in the programs?

- i. Women ii. Minorities iii. Small farmers iv. Others

13. Total participation in marketing training?

- i. Women ii. Minorities iii. Small farmers iv. Not participated

14. Was the community formation process was fair?

- i. Yes ii. No iii. Cannot say.

15. Was your voice represented in your community formation process?

- i. Yes ii. No iii. Cannot say.

16. Did you get what you asked for?

- i. Yes ii. No iii. Cannot say.

17. Was service timely delivered?

- i. Yes ii. No iii. Cannot say.

18. Was there any corruption?

- i. Yes ii. No iii. Cannot say.
19. Did you think fund was used properly?
- i. Yes ii. No iii. Cannot say.
20. How did you know this project?
- i. Donor Agencies ii. NGOs iii. Project officer iv. Community meetings
21. a. When did you start the community formation?
- i. Before that project came
- ii. After the project was introduced
- iii. I don't remember.
- b. Who decided to formation? Or with whom you discussed?
- i. Donor Agencies ii. NGOs iii. Project officer iv. Community meetings
22. The process of electing community leaders?
- i. Level of Education
- ii. Assessts (political or social trusts)
- iii. others
23. Did the community have meeting to decide the implementation acceptance projects?
- i. Yes ii. No iii. I don't remember
24. Women participation % in your community?
- i. <30%. ii. 31%~50% iii. 51%~75% iv. >76%
25. Ethnic members participation in your community?
- i. <30%. ii. 31%~50% iii. 51%~75% iv. >76%

26. Income level before and after the project?
- i. Increased
 - ii. No Change
 - iii. Decreased
27. Health status improved or not after the Project.
- i. Yes
 - ii. Somehow
 - iii. I don't know.
28. Education status improved or not?
- i. Yes
 - ii. Somehow
 - iii. I don't know.
29. Does discrimination exist in your community?
- i. Yes
 - ii. No
 - iii. I don't know
30. Did social and living standard increased?
- i. Yes
 - ii. No
 - iii. I don't know
31. What kind of next project do you prefer?
- i. Community member decided themselves.
 - ii. With the order of the Government fixed
 - iii. With the initiative of the Donor
 - iv. With the help of the expert