

ISSN 1117-9481



ILORIN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY

Volume 12, October, 2020

AND

Volume 13, October, 2021

**Published by the
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF ILORIN, NIGERIA**

ILORIN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY
VOLUME 13, OCTOBER, 2021

LIST OF ARTICLES

11. Women Participation in Community Development Programmes in Delta State, Nigeria
Veta, Oghenechoja Dennis Ph.D 133-144
12. Effect of Domestic Violence on the Academic Performance of Undergraduate Students in Ilisan Remo Ogun State
Omozusi Mercy Omosefe (PhD, Fimpd);
Chinenye-Julius Augusta Ezinne (MPH); Ayoadé Praise Seye (BSW) 145-154
13. Effects of Guided-Discovery on Attitude Towards Learning Algebra Among JSS II Students in Zaria Metropolis, Kaduna State, Nigeria
Adeniran Babatunde Joseph; Lambaya Ibrahim Daniel;
Paul Emmanuel 155-164
14. Self-Efficacy, Anticipated Stigmatization, Depression and Health Locus of Control as Determinants of HIV Disclosure Intention: Implications for Treatment Policy
Abayomi O. Olaseni, Ph.D., Benjamin O. Olley, Ph.D.,
Olubusayo C. Tomolaju, Ph.D and Oguntayo R. 165-173
15. Prison Subculture And Rehabilitation Prospects Of Inmates In Oke-kura Prison, Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria
Abubakar, Abdulsalami; Araba Toyin Kafayat;
Lawal Afeez Folorunsho; Peter Adelaja Akerele; Paul Emmanuel 174-187
16. Industrial Conflict Resolution and Implications for National Development
Fatai Babatunde Onaeko, (Ph.d) 188-198
17. The Electoral Process and Challenges of Good Governance in Nigeria: The Oke-Ogun Example
Oluwaseunfunmi Olutayo; Olusegun Fariudeen Liadi;
Akinpelu Olanrewaju Olutayo 199-208
18. Research Outcomes And Utilization: Bridging The Communication Gap Between Researchers And End Users In Nigeria
Dr. Eddy Akpomera 209-217
19. Assessment Of Infrastructural Services Provision By The Federal Government in The South East Geo-political Zone and Implications For Restructuring
Sunday Evaristus Abonyi; Arinde-Simeon Titilayo Olamide;
Abdussalam Abdulhameed 218-228
20. "Don't Eat Like A Glutton": Reconstructing The Politics Of Palliatives Rendering in Akwa Ibom State During The First Wave Of The Covid-19 Pandemic In Nigeria
James A. Ekah, Patrick C. Okpalaeke, and Collins C. Okocha 229-238

WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN DELTA STATE, NIGERIA.

Veta, Oghenechoja Dennis Ph.D
Department of Social work,
University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria.
E-mail: veta.od@unilorin.edu.ng
choja4den@gmail.com (08037455247)

Abstract

This study investigated the level of women's participation in community development programmes in Delta state, Nigeria. A descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. A multistage sampling technique, comprising simple random, purposive, systematic methods, was utilised. The data for the study was collected from a structured questionnaire. Education, agriculture, health, training (skill acquisition), bore hole water, roads/paths, markets, and town halls were the community development programmes that were executed in the study area. Women's participation was low due to gender discrimination, lack of time, low education, lack of information, indifference, husbands' denial, lack of resources, and lack of government assistance. The implications of the findings for social work practice were discussed, and factors that would further enhance women's active participation in community development programmes were suggested.

Keywords: Women's participation, Community, Development, Programmes, Delta state, Nigeria

Introduction

Participation entails people's involvement in the selection, decision-making, implementation, evaluation, and sharing of benefits from development programmes/projects (Regional Partnership for Resource Development [RPRD], 2009). Community participation in development programmes/projects leads to the capacity building which enables the community to be more effective and efficient in the process of identifying, planning, implementing, monitoring, evaluating (Davids, 2009), and maintaining high levels of the projects' sustainability (RPRD, 2009).

Women's participation in the community development process is very cardinal, this is because all community members have the right to participate in their community development activities. It is in this vein that the United Nations High Commission for Human Rights UNHCR (2010) stipulated that the right to development is inalienable and all peoples, including women, are entitled to participate in community development process by making contributions, and also enjoying its economic, social, cultural and political benefits. Therefore, community participation in community development programmes is expected to be built on trust, equality, mutual understanding and obligations, an empowering process that creates enabling environment for local people to actively take part in decision-making about their life situations. Therefore, participation involves information sharing, consultation, decision making, and initiating of action(s) (Chambers, 2005), in all of these stages, the community members, including women and youth, should be involved.

The countries where women are politically empowered to participate in leadership tend to be more egalitarian, inclusive, democratic and responsive (Naz & Ahmed, 2012). However, women in the rural areas are involved in several productive activities, which constitute the central pillar of rural development in developing countries, yet they are not visible in the mainstream of rural development policies and programmes (Latif, et al., 2015; Nseabasi, 2015). The assessment of the extent to which women participate in development programmes becomes imperative, across nations, particularly in developing countries. This is because sustainability in the realms of culture, society, economics and politics can be achieved only when women are politically empowered to participate actively in development programmes (Harris, 2010). Participation of stakeholder makes it possible to seek their views and identify how individual stakeholder can contribute towards meeting the identified challenges in a target community (Usadolo & Caldwell, 2016). However, women still lack independence and authority in decision-making, and they have no control over their conditions of life, and the right to participate in community development programmes in Africa (Fabricius, Koch, Turner & Magome 2013). Therefore, it is the central focus of this study to explore and assess women's participation in community development programmes in Delta State, Nigeria.

Literature review

According to Abison (2007) participation plays a major role in community development as it provides opportunity for all members to have a say in the development that affects them, identify their need(s) and provide the services based on available resources. In this process of community development, women are expected to participate actively for them to have a voice and ensure the sustainability in the outcomes. Ojukwu (2013) stresses that in any attempt to address community problems, women in particular are to engage in the activities that facilitate the process. This is because community development efforts in most developing countries have always succeeded and sustainable with women leading the way (Ojukwu, 2013), however, many women in rural areas prefer not to have equal status with their husbands or men Karkas (1999). Thus, gender reflects the relationship of power between women and men in a range of practices, ideas, and representations, including division of labour, roles, and resources shared by men and women (Kabeer, 1994, Moser, 1993). Gender relationship, as argued by Akpomuvie (2018), is a problem of exogenous cultures and their impact, particularly on African social structures.

Community development planning paradigms of the 1960s and 1970s developed from the colonial period when there was a top-down method to development which could not attain sustainability in rural development and poverty alleviation; this was because there was low participation of local people, particularly women in the development programmes (UNESCAP, 2009). In a patriarchal system in the developing nations, Nigeria inclusive, women's participation in community development programmes has not been encouraged as expected in previous development plans and approaches. Women were regarded primarily as dependents on men, making it unnecessary to plan and provide separately for their needs; they were to work in the fields and home to produce food and other crops to support their men or husbands, who worked in visible and masculine activities (Fapohunda, 2012). This ideology of non-involvement of women in development process continued until late 1970s when Women in Development (WID) and Women and Development (WAD) were introduced; WID was gender specific, focusing on women's participation in community development programmes. It was based on the belief that gender roles will change as women have an equal role to men in

education, development, employment and health services (Ramji, 1997), that is, WID focused on active women's participation in community development programmes for efficient and effective attainment of their goals (Australian Agency for International Development [AusAID], 1997). On the other hand, WAD emphasised the existence of social class and its exploitation in the developing countries. In other words, WAD focused on the need for a change in institutions and structures that create enabling environment for increased women's participation in development programmes (Ramji, 1997). However, these approaches did not question women's subjugation and the low value placed on women's activities in their various homes (Chitthathalath, 2006).

Nevertheless, in order to effectively alleviate poverty, promote development, and achieve gender equality, requires women's empowerment by increasing their access to economic resources, education, information, communication technology and governance, including the capabilities to protect their human rights (UNESCAP, 2010). However, women empowerment cannot be achieved without a collaborative effort of both men and women in all nations, particularly in the developing countries. In line with this, another approach, known as Gender and Development (GAD) was introduced in the mid 1980s to ensure community participation, irrespective gender, in order meet the requirements for achieving sustainability in community development programmes. The GAD approach recognised that improvement on participation status of women should not just be women's affairs alone but also requires active participation of men in the development programmes (AusAID, 1997).

In Nigeria, the woman's question started to gain popularity the political agenda when the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985) was launched. Various national development plans, before and post-independence Nigeria, were gender blind and gave no specific place to gender issues (Akpomuvie, 2018). The customary practices of many ethnic groups in developing countries, particularly Nigeria, are biased by subjugating women to men and undermining their self-esteem, and their vital roles in community development programmes. The consequences of these practices and overall impact on gender bias, have established a feeling of inferiority in women thereby placing them in disadvantaged positions and often times make women to over play their femininity by accepting that they are a weaker sex (Akpomuvie, 2018). However, women have contributed profoundly to agricultural development, health projects, establishment of vocational skill acquisition centers, award of scholarship to indigent students, care for orphans and the disabled in their various communities where there are spaces for their active participation (Ijere, 2011; Oguomu, 2007; Okoli, 2012).

Scholars have conducted various studies in relation to women participation in community development programmes. For instance, studies conducted in China, Peru, South Asia, and rural Vietnam reported that women active participation promoted females' independence and welfare, and improved their income and health condition in their locales (Dineen & Le, 2015; Hamad & Fernald, 2015; Madhania, Tompkins, Jacka, & Fishera, 2015; Yang, 2012). However, there are several challenges or barriers to active women's participation in community development programmes, particularly in the developing countries (Shah, 2016). Women's participation in community development programs has been hindered by increasing women's workloads, family conflicts, exposure to domestic violence (Ashraf, 2014; Enloe, 2015; Sigalla & Carney, 2012), and husbands' interferences in their participation (Karim & Law, 2013). For Aminchi, (2015) poverty, socio-cultural belief, gender stereotyped and lack of awareness contribute to low level of women participation in development programmes.

Other studies revealed that lack of government incentives and assistance, lack of resources, lack of information and education, cultural values and discrimination against rural women were some of the factors contributing to their low level of participation in community development programmes (Kongolo, 2009; Ndambiri, 2018; Nseabasi, 2015). Similarly, poor education, inferiority position of women in the society, poverty, types of place of residence, age groups, religion, marital status, as well as traditions were discovered as the key challenges to women's participation in community development programmes (Chimerah et al., 2018; Karim & Law, 2013; Lelelit, Macharia, & Mburugu, 2017; Losindilo, Mussa, & Akarro, 2010). These hindrances to active participation of women in the development process have led to lack or inadequate implementation of programmes that reflect women's felt-needs and unsustainability in some community development programmes. Thus, the indicator of the level of social development of any society is the extent to which the women are empowered to participate in their community development programmes (Aamir, 2015; Latif, Usman, Kataria & Abdullah, 2015). In Delta State, the level of social development is not conspicuous, and the extent to which women participate in development programmes has not been explored and assessed in the available literature. To fill this gap in knowledge, this study sought to:

1. investigate the type of community development programmes executed in the study area.
2. examine the areas of women participation in the community development programmes executed in the study area.
3. identify the stages of women participation in the community development programmes executed in the study area.
4. determine the level of women participation in the community development programmes executed in Delta State.
5. Identify the problem(s) preventing women from active participation in the community development programmes in the study area.

Theoretical framework

This study anchors on empowerment theory. Its origin is credited to Solomon (1976). According to the originator, the core assumption of the theory is that personal, interpersonal and environmental resources are needed to update the skills, knowledge and motivation of people to achieve valid social roles. Carr (2011) defines empowerment as a process of nurturing opportunities for people to take ownership in becoming self-sufficient, self-confident, and self-supporting in social, political, economic, and psychological awareness. This process assists individuals to perform self-assessments of power that exist within them, to enable them to maximise control and use the power to produce desired outcomes. Empowerment is the capacity of individuals, groups and/or communities to take control of circumstances, exercise power and achieve their own goals, and the process by which, individually and collectively, they are able to help themselves and others to maximise the quality of their lives (Adams, 2008). Thus, where there are situations of domination, empowerment becomes a process of building people's capacities for positive social change; and as such, it could be adopted to resist domination (Guo & Tsui, 2010). Maton (2008) defines empowerment as a group-based, participatory, developmental process through which marginalised or oppressed individuals and groups gain greater control over their lives and environment. This theory guided the study to investigate whether women were given, generally, the opportunity to participate in decision making and implementation of relevant choices that actually meet their life aspirations in the study area.

Methodology

A descriptive survey design was adopted for this study. The design was considered suitable because it assisted the researcher to collect primary data from a sample through a structured questionnaire. This design was essential for this study for it is economical, and mindful of time limits.

This study was conducted in rural and urban communities of Delta State, Nigeria. Delta state was formerly part of the then Mid-Western state from 1963 to 1976 and later became part of Bendel State, from 1976 to 1991. Bendel (Ben-Del) meant Benin-Delta to reflect the integration of Benin and Delta provinces into a state. Delta State, located in the South-South geopolitical region of Nigeria was created on the 27th of August 1991 out of the defunct Bendel State. In the beginning, the state was made up of twelve local government areas, they were later increased to 19 in 1996. Presently Delta State is made up of 25 Local Government Areas in three Senatorial Districts: Delta Central, Delta South and Delta North. Delta Central is made up of the Urhobo; Delta North is made up of the Ukwani and Igbo; while the Ijaw, Isoko and the Itsekiri made up Delta South. Delta State shares common boundaries with four other states: Anambra State on the east, Ondo State on the west, Edo State on the north and Bayelsa State on the south. The state occupies a land mass of about 17,163 square Kilometer with its capital at Asaba. The target population for this study were females of 18 years and above, which was 1,163,436 (National Population Commission, 2016) projected figure. The sample size for the study was statistically determined to be 280 using Yamane's formula (1973).

A multistage sampling technique, comprising clustering, purposive, systematic methods, was adopted. The existing three Senatorial districts (Delta Central, Delta South and Delta North) were adopted as clusters. Using the purposive sampling method six communities, one rural and one urban, were chosen from each of the clusters based on the availability of community development programmes. Also, a major street in each of the urban communities, and a quarter in each of the rural communities were purposely selected based on their nearness to the location of the programmes/projects. Thereafter, a systematic sampling method was used to select two eligible respondents from every other 5th household in each of the buildings on the selected streets/quarters until the required number of respondents in each community was attained.

The data for the study was collected from a structured questionnaire administered by the researcher and two research assistants who were primary school teachers in the study communities. The data collected were carefully edited to ensure completeness, consistency and accuracy, and the analysis was based on 265 questionnaires that were completely filled and returned. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used for the analysis. In characterising the respondents, descriptive statistics such as percentages, the frequency tables were employed.

Results

Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

The study focused on the following Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents: Age, and educational qualification. Details are shown in Table 1:

Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents (n = 265)

Age (in Years)	Frequency	Percentage
- -	56	21.1
28 — 37	76	28.7
38 — 47	82	30.9
48 and above	51	19.3
Educational qualification		
No Formal Education	45	17.1
FSLC	35	13.2
WASC/SSCE	61	23
ND/NCE	39	14.7
B.Sc./HND	47	17.7
Post Graduate	38	14.3

Table 1 shows that 21.1 percent of the respondents were within the age range of 18 — 27 years, and 28.7 percent were 28 — 37 years. Also, Table 1 shows that majority (30.9.3%) were within the age range of 38 — 47 years, while 19.3 percent were 48 years and above. 17.1 percent of the respondents had no formal education, 13.2 percent had First School Leaving Certificate, 23 percent (majority) had West African School Certificate.

Table 1 also shows that 14.7 percent, 17.7 percent, and 14.3 percent of the respondents had National Diploma/National Certificate of Education, Bachelor of Science/ Higher National Diploma, and Post Graduate qualifications respectively.

Table 2: Type of community development programmes executed by women (n=265)

Type of programmes	Yes	No
Education	198 (74.7%)	67 (25.3%)
Agriculture	147 (55.5%)	118 (44.5%)
Health	169 (63.8%)	96 (36.2%)
Training (skill acquisition)	92 (34.7%)	173 (65.3%)
Borehole water	82 (30.9%)	183 (69.1%)
Roads/paths	78 (29.4%)	187 (70.6%)
Market	117 (44.2%)	148 (55.8%)
Town hall	192 (72.5%)	73 (27.5%)

Table 2 clearly shows that the majority (74.7%) of the respondents indicated that education was the programme executed in their communities, 55.5 percent indicated agriculture, 63.8 percent indicated health, and 34.7 percent said training (skill acquisition). Also, table 2 shows that 30.9 percent of the respondents it was borehole water, while 29.4 percent, 44.2 percent, and 72.5 percent mentioned roads/paths, market, and town hall respectively. The most common community development projects in the study communities were the market, town hall, health centre, and school.

Table 3: Participation of women in the community development programmes (n=265)

Stages of participation	Yes	No
Selection	73 (27.5%)	192 (72.5%)
Planning (decision-making)	85 (32.1%)	180 (67.9%)
Implementation	184 (69.4%)	81 (30.6%)
Monitoring	79 (29.8%)	186 (70.2%)
Evaluation	36 (13.6%)	229 (86.4%)
Areas of participation		
Provision of land	52 (19.6%)	213 (80.4%)
Provision of security	61 (23%)	204 (77%)
Financial contribution	112 (42.3%)	153 (57.7%)
Provision of labour	168 (63.4%)	97 (36.6%)
Provision of raw materials	77 (29.1%)	188 (70.9%)

On the stages of participation of the respondents in the community development programmes, Table 3 shows that 27.5 percent of the respondents participated in the selection of the programmes, 32.1 percent participated in their planning (decision-making), 69.4 percent participated in their implementation, 29.8 percent participated in the monitoring of the programmes, while only 13.6 percent were involved in their evaluation.

Also, Table 3 reveals that 19.6 percent of the respondents were involved in the area of provision of land, 23 percent were involved in the provision of security. 42.3 percent, 63.4 percent, and 29.1 percent were involved in financial contribution, provisions of labour, and provision of raw materials respectively.

Table 4: The level of participation of women in the community development programmes (n=265)

Level of participation	Yes	No
Always	62 (23.4%)	203(76.6%)
Often	150 (56.6%)	115 (43.4%)
Rarely	184 (69.4%)	81 (30.6%)

On the level of participation in the community development programmes, Table 4 shows that 23.4 percent of respondents agreed that they always participated in the programmes, 56.6 percent participated often, while the majority (69.4%) said that they rarely participated.

Table 5: Reasons for irregular participation of women in the community development programmes (n=203)

Reason	Yes	No
Gender discrimination	124 (61.1%)	79 (38.9%)
Lack of time	115 (56.7%)	88 (43.3%)
Low education	123 (60.6%)	80 (39.4%)
Lack of information	181 (89.2%)	22 (10.8%)
Indifference	92 (45.3%)	111 (54.7%)
—	105 (51.7%)	98 (48.3%)
Lack of resources	143 (70.4%)	60 (29.6%)
Lack of government assistance	155 (76.4%)	48 (23.6%)

Table 5 shows that 61.1 percent of the respondents, who did not participate always in the community development programmes, said that it was as a result of gender discrimination, 56.7 percent pointed to lack of time, 60.6 percent indicated low education, and 89.2 percent (majority) indicated lack of information. Also, Table 5 shows that 45.3 percent of the respondents claimed that theirs' was a result of a feeling of indifference, 51.7 percent, 70.4 and 76.4 percent mentioned husbands' denial, lack of resources, and lack of government assistance respectively.

Discussion

This study revealed that education, agriculture, health, training (skill acquisition), bore hole water, roads/paths, markets, and town halls were the community development programmes executed in the study area. Also, this study discovered that majority, 184 (69.4%), of the women mainly participated in the community development programmes at their implementation stage. Other stages of their involvement include selection, planning (decision-making), monitoring, and evaluation of the community development programmes, but at a minimal level. This finding shows that women's participation in the community development programmes was at a low level, and as such, most of the programmes did not address the felt-needs of the women and were not sustainable. This finding is opposite of previous studies

which revealed that women active participation promoted females' independence and welfare, and improved their income and health condition in their locales (Dineen & Le, 2015; Hamad & Fernald, 2015; Madhania, Tompkinsa, Jacka, & Fishera, 2015; Yang, 2012).

Also, this study found out that the majority of the women rarely and often participated in the community development programmes compared with those who always participated in the programmes. This was, as a result, of several reasons, which include gender discrimination, lack of time, low education, lack of information, indifference, husbands' denial, lack of resources, and lack of government assistance. This finding is in line with previous findings which revealed that women's participation in community development programmes was hindered by lack of government incentives and assistance, lack of resources, lack of information and education, cultural values, and discrimination against rural women (Chimerah et al., 2018; Karim & Law, 2013; Kongolo, 2009; Lelelit, Macharia, & Mburugu, 2017; Losindilo, Mussa, & Akarro, 2010; Ndambiri, 2018; Nseabasi, 2015).

Implications for social work practice

This study revealed that education, agriculture, health, training (skill acquisition), bore hole water, roads/paths, markets, and town halls were the types of community development programmes that were executed in the study area. The majority of the women (64.4%) participated in the projects' implementation stage. Other stages of their participation include project selection, planning (decision-making), monitoring and evaluation. The overall participation of the women in the development programmes was mainly, rarely, and often as against always participation. This was a result of gender discrimination, lack of time, low education, lack of information, indifference, husbands' denial, lack of resources, and lack of government assistance. This finding suggests that there is a need for the inclusion of social workers in community development programmes in Nigeria, particularly in the study area.

Social workers would work in collaboration with Community-Based Organisations (NGOs), Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), and social policy makers to ensure that community development policies are formulated to enhance active women's participation in development programmes. Also, they would work collaboratively with the women and other members of the communities, utilising advocacy framework, and the empowerment theory, in ensuring active participation of target community members, including women, in their community development programmes. This will help to widen the community's scope of relevant choices, reflect their felt-needs in implementation of programmes, and attain sustainability in such programmes in the various communities.

Conclusion

In conclusion, a descriptive survey design was adopted for this study to investigate women participation in community development programmes in Delta State, Nigeria. A multistage sampling technique, comprising simple random, purposive, systematic methods, was utilised. The primary data for the study was collected from a structured questionnaire. Education, agriculture, health, training (skill acquisition), bore hole water, roads/paths, markets, and town halls were the community development programmes that were executed in the study area. Active women's participation was hindered by gender discrimination, lack of time, low education, lack of information, indifference, husbands' denial, lack of resources, and lack of government assistance.

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proffered, to further enhance active participation of women, and other members of the communities, in community development programmes in Delta State, Nigeria, and elsewhere:

1. All tiers of government, and development agencies should formulate development policies that create enabling environments for women to participate actively in community development projects across the Delta state, and Nigeria, in general.
2. There is need to involve social workers to be in charge of community development programmes in Nigeria. This will enable social workers to collaborate with other social service providers to create opportunities for active participation of community members, including women, in development programmes to enhance sustainability in such programmes across the study communities and Nigeria in general.
3. There is a need for government to create enabling environment, through community development policies, that will improve skill acquisition programmes in the rural communities of Delta State, Nigeria. This will empower and assist women and other members of the communities to participate actively in community development programmes.
4. There is a need for the formulation of social policies that will ensure free education for Nigerians, particularly for the girl child. This will help to a large extent in empowering the girl child, and subsequently women, to acquire the knowledge and skills to actively participate in community development process in their various communities.

References

- Aamir, A. (2015). *No woman no politics*. Retrieve from http://tns.thenews.com.pk/nowoman-no-politics/#.V7gQK_197IU.
- Abison, O. (2007). *Social theory and social structure*. New York: The Press.
- Adams, R. (2008). *Empowerment, participation and social work* (4th ed.). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Akpomovie O. B. (2018). The challenges of rural women participation in development in Delta State. *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 6 (1), 185 - 189.
- Alter, S. (2007). Could the work system method embrace systems concepts more fully? *Information Resource Management Journal*, 20(2), 33-43.
- Amagoh, F. (2008). Perspectives on Organizational Change: Systems and Complexity Theories. *Innovation Journal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal*, 13(3), 1-14.
- Aminchi, D. (2015). Factors influencing low level of women participation in literacy programme in Maiha Local Government Area of Adamawa State. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6 (15), 183 – 188.
- Ashraf, A. H. M. (2014). Microcredit and power: Examining how and why women encounter domination in Bangladesh. *Development in Practice*, 24(3), 327 - 338.
- Australian Agency for International Development. (1997). *Gender and development: Australia's aid commitment*. Retrieved from www.ausaid.gov.au/publications/pdf/genderanddevelopment_policy1999.pdf.
- Carr, G. F. (2011). *Empowerment: A framework to develop advocacy in African American grandmothers providing care for their grandchildren*. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5402/2011/531717>
- Chambers, R. (2005). *Ideas for development*. United Kingdom: Earth scan.
- Chimerah, R., Shauri, H., Wokabi, F. & Dzoga, M. (2018). Determinants of women participation in livelihood development activities: A case of Kinango Sub-County, Kwale County, Kenya. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 8 (8), 57 – 64.

- Chitthathalath, S. (2006). Community development projects and the status of ethnic minority women in the Moksuk-Tafa, Bokeo province, Laos. *Community Development Journal*, 42 (3), 299 - 316.
- Davids, I. T. (2009). *Participatory development in South Africa: A development management perspective*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Dineen, K., & Le, Q. V. (2015). The impact of an integrated microcredit program on the empowerment of women and gender equality in rural Vietnam. *Journal of Developing Areas*, 49(1), 23 - 38.
- Enloe, C. (2015). Closing reflection: Militiamen get paid; women borrowers get beaten. *Politics & Gender*, 11 (2), 435 - 438.
- Fapohunda, T. M. (2012). Gender and development: Challenges to women involvement in Nigeria's development. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2 (6), 14 - 28.
- Guo, W. & Tsui, M. (2010). From resilience to resistance: A reconstruction of the strengths perspective in social work practice. *International Social Work*, 53(2), 233-245
- Hamad, R., & Fernald, L. C. H. (2015). Microcredit participation and women's health: Results from a cross-sectional study in Peru. *International Journal for Equity in Health*, 14: 62 DOI 10.1186/s12939-015-0194-7. Retrieved from <https://equityhealth.biomedcentral.com/track/pdf/10.1186/s12939-015-0194-7.pdf>
- Harris, A. (2010). Mind the gap: Attitudes and emergent feminist politics since the third wave. *Australian Feminist Studies*, 25(66), 475 - 484.
- Ijere, S. (2011). *Rural community resources*. London: Macmillan Educational Ltd.
- Karim, K. M. R., & Law, C. K. (2013). Gender ideology, microcredit participation and women's status in rural Bangladesh. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 33 (1/2), 45 - 62.
- Kongolo, M. (2009). Factors limiting women's involvement in development: Lesson from Ithuseng, South Africa. *African Research Review*, 3 (4), 13 - 30.
- Latif, A., Usman, A., Kataria, J. R., & Abdullah, M. (2015). Female political participation in South Asia: A case study of Pakistan. *South Asian Studies*, 30 (2), 201 - 213.
- Lelelit, L. S., Macharia, D. & Mburugu, K. N. (2017). Influence of social-cultural factors on women participation in wildlife conservation projects: A case of Northern Rangeland Trust Samburu County. *International Academic Journal of Information Sciences and Project Management*, 2 (1), 520 - 540.
- Losindilo, E., Mussa, A. S. & Akarro, R. R. J. (2010). Some factors that hinder women participation in social, political and economic activities in Tanzania. *Arts and Social Sciences Journal*, ASSJ-4. Retrieved from <http://astonjournals.com/assj>
- Madhania, F. I., Tompkins, C., Jacka, S. M., & Fishera, A. (2015). Participation in micro-finance programmes and women's mental health in South Asia: A modified systematic review. *Journal of Development Studies*, 51(9), 1255 - 1270.
- Maton, K.I. (2008). Empowering community settings: Agents of individual development, community betterment, and positive social change. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 41(1-2), 4-21.
- National Population Commission. (2016). *Projected figure of Delta State*. Abuja: NPC.
- Naz, A., & Ahmad, W. (2012). Socio-cultural impediments to women political empowerment in Pakhtun society. *Academic Research International*, 3 (1), 163 - 173.

- Ndambiri, A. M. (2018). Determinants of women participation in community development projects: A case of Mombasa County, Kenya. *International Journal of Social Science and Technology*, 3 (1), 2415 - 6566.
- Nseabasi, S. A. (2015). Women and rural development in Nigeria: Some critical issues for policy consideration. *Social Sciences*, 4 (5), 110 - 118.
- Oguomu, R. (2007). *Community development corporations*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Ojukwu, U. G. (2013). Understanding rural and community development in Nigeria; Theory and practice. Nimo, Anambra State: Rex Charles and Patrick Limited.
- Okoli, K. (2012). *The women empowerment framework*. Onitsha: Uchechi Publishers.
- Parrish, M. (2010). *Social work perspectives on human behaviour*. New York: Open University Press.
- Ramji, S. (1997). The many faces of women and development. *The peak*, 96 (13), 18 - 26.
- Regional Partnership for Resource Development. (2009). *People's participation in development*. Nairobi: Signal Printers.
- Sigalla, R. J., & Carney, S. (2012). Poverty reduction through entrepreneurship: Microcredit, learning and ambivalence amongst women in urban Tanzania. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 32(4), 546 - 554.
- Teater, B. (2012). *An introduction to applying social work theories and methods*. New York: Open University Press.
- UNESCAP. (2009). *Participatory approaches to rural development and rural poverty alleviation*. Retrieved from www.unescap.org/pdd/publications/poverty_and_development/participatory_rural.
- UNESCAP. (2010). *Gender equality and empowerment section*. Retrieved from www.unescap.org/esid/gad/
- UNHCR. (2010). Declaration on the right to development: Resolution/adopted by the General Assembly. Retrieved from www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/3b00f22544.html
- Usadolo, S. E. & Caldwell, M. (2016). *A stakeholder approach to community participation in a rural development project*. Retrieved from <https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/open-access-at-sage>.
- Yamane, T. (1973). *Statistics: An introductory analysis*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Yang, L. (2012). Empowered or disempowered? Women's participation in a development project in rural China. *Asian Journal of Women's Studies*, 18 (3), 38-67.