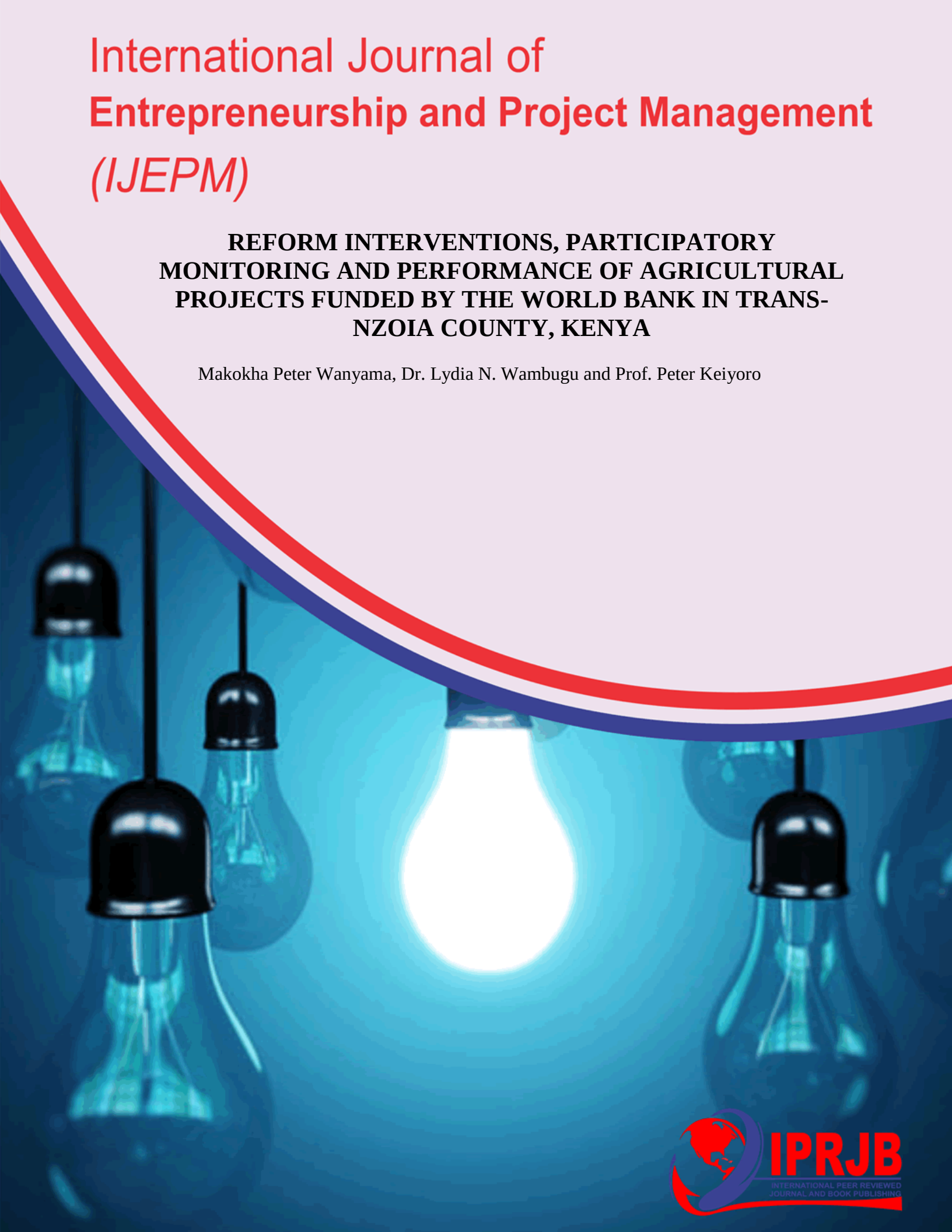
International Journal of
Entrepreneurship and Project Management
(IJEPM)

REFORM INTERVENTIONS, PARTICIPATORY MONITORING AND PERFORMANCE OF AGRICULTURAL PROJECTS FUNDED BY THE WORLD BANK IN TRANS-NZOIA COUNTY, KENYA

Makokha Peter Wanyama, Dr. Lydia N. Wambugu and Prof. Peter Keiyoro



IPRJB
INTERNATIONAL PEER REVIEWED JOURNAL AND BOOK PUBLISHING

International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Project Management
ISSN 2518-2838(Online) 2520-9108
Vol.5, Issue 1, pp 79 - 103, 2020

IPRJB
INTERNATIONAL PEER REVIEWED JOURNAL AND BOOK PUBLISHING
www.iprjb.org

REFORM INTERVENTIONS, PARTICIPATORY MONITORING AND PERFORMANCE OF AGRICULTURAL PROJECTS FUNDED BY THE WORLD BANK IN TRANS-NZOIA COUNTY, KENYA

[1*]Makokha Peter Wanyama
Results Measurement Specialist-IFC: World Bank, Nairobi, Kenya
Corresponding Author's Email: pnmakokha@yahoo.com

[2]Dr. Lydia N. Wambugu
Senior Lecturer: School of Open and Distance Learning: The University of Nairobi

[3]Prof. Peter Keiyoro
Associate Professor: School of Open and Distance Learning: The University of Nairobi

Abstract

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to examine the moderating influence of participatory monitoring on relationship between three reform interventions (marketing, financing and capacity building) on performance of Agricultural projects funded by World Bank in Trans-Nzoia County.

Methodology: The study adopted descriptive survey design using mixed mode approach. Target population of this study was 800 farmers and 15 project officials. The study sample size was 268 respondents determined using the simplified Yamane formula of proportions. Quantitative data was collected using a structured questionnaire with 60 Likert-type questions while qualitative data was collected using the standardized interview guide and focus group discussions. This study is grounded on pragmatism paradigm which complements the epistemological, methodological and axiological underpinnings desired in mixed methods research. The primary data was analyzed descriptively and inferentially using frequency distribution (mean, frequencies, percentages and standard deviation), stepwise regression and multiple regression analysis with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20.0.

Findings: The combined reform interventions explained 22.6% variation in the performance of agricultural projects. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was 0.226 and adjusted R^2 was 0.221 meaning combination of reforms jointly explained 22.1% of variation in project performance. On the introduction of moderator variable (participatory monitoring) through stepwise regression, the value of R^2 increased from 0.221 (22.1%) to 0.5069 (50.69%), meaning participatory monitoring was responsible for 28.59% of variation in the performance of agricultural projects.

Unique Contribution to Theory, Practice and Policy: This study enriches the practice of participatory monitoring in project management and provides documented analysis and answers questions critical for credibility and utilization of participatory monitoring in programs. In terms of policy, considering that government of Kenya is working to develop systems to ensure development projects are delivered within confines of time, cost and client satisfaction, this study provides a pedestal upon which policy formulation on participatory processes can be anchored. The study therefore contributes immensely to the discipline of project management by providing the much-needed empirical data. This study will also support the re-engineering of project components such as layout and re-design processes by placing participatory approaches at core of project programming. The study provides quantifiable empirical evidence on the usefulness of participatory monitoring in pacifying the effects of poor project results hence enriching project management discipline.

Keywords: *Participatory Monitoring, Financing Reform, Marketing Reform, Capacity Building Reform, Performance of Agricultural Projects*

International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Project Management
ISSN 2518-2838(Online) 2520-9108
Vol.5, Issue 1, pp 79 - 103, 2020

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The practice of participatory monitoring has for a long time been considered a critical ingredient in the wider project measurement agenda. This practice entails tracking project outputs and anticipating impacts during design and implementation phases of a program (Thapa Ngwenya and Kaufmann, 2017). Participatory monitoring as a concept entails engaging stakeholders in project layout, appraisal and design of monitoring instruments and in routine activity tracking. This process seeks to ensure end-users in a project or a program are involved in its execution and are part and parcel of the implementation from the onset till eventual completion. This practice ensures beneficiaries in interventions are involved in determining project's destiny. Whereas participatory approaches in use today continue to evoke criticism and praise in equal measure, researchers such as De Vries, (2018); Rushford, Webster, Loiselle and Ferh 2016); Otieno & Kennedy (2016) advocate them as most ideal program delivery approaches.

Participation in tracking project progress therefore leads to quicker execution, enables easier achievement of results, enhances ownership and often leads to sustainability (Kusters, Buck, De Graaf and Minang, 2018). The deals encapsulated in participation are deemed desirable since they help determine levels of stakeholder engagement, help expand program ownership and often facilitate sustainability of projects including impact. Whenever stakeholders are too involved in monitoring project progress, virtues such as transparency, efficiency in utilization of resources and value for money becomes the norm (De Vries, (2018). From the available empirical literature, the concept of project participation in development has been documented to a high extent and is deemed to be influential to the achievement of much-needed project results. Critical project parameters such as economy, efficiency, equity, economy and effectiveness desired in projects are as a result of the participation dynamics.

Participatory approaches are widely utilized in most project interventions but are seldom documented. The World Bank and other international development actors continue to utilize participatory approaches particularly in the fields of agriculture, health and rural development. These approaches grew out of much-hyped structural adjustment programs that were meant to modernize agriculture by creating markets, boosting productivity and expanding access to finance. Participatory monitoring focuses on increasing productive capacities, promote agribusiness, technology adoption and open up value chains.

1.1 Financing Reform

Financing reform has remained difficult to monitor due to the perceived and unmanaged sectoral risks that thrive in financial markets (Bara and Mugano, 2016). Some strategies designed to reform the sector to expand access to finance via simplifying the capital acquisition including farm credit, collateral requirements, payment services, insurance and capital-based structure were modelled by Bretton Woods's institutions and were meant to enhance improved access to finance for farmers so as to impact performance of smallholder outfits (World Bank, 2019). Accumulated evidence indicates that expanding access to finance greatly impacts growth through provision of credit to new ventures hence helping accelerate investments in agriculture and other productive sectors (Baloch, Saeed, Olah and Mate, 2018).

Against the broader policy context in expanding access to agricultural finance, there is need to focus on improving the sector by facilitating inclusivity (Dai, Lin and Zou, 2019). The role played

by intermediaries and key financial structures in expanding literacy need re-examination. Innovations such as mobile money transfers could help farmers' access credit easily. However, financial literacy on fiduciary management are necessary but not sufficient to transform the sector (Hamdaouni & Maktouf, 2020). Investment in financial literacy would enhance farmers' capacities to thrive in an increasingly resource-scarce environment. The need for financial sector deepening must therefore inculcate evaluation architecture beyond the simplistic dimensions advocated by the "iron triangle" criterion (Bara and Mugano, 2016).

Diversifying capital sources, developing crucial partnerships within the financial markets and designing innovative avenues for acquiring capital including equity financing, invoice discounting and warehouse receipting are some of critical avenues that small holders can utilize (Demetriades and Rousseau, 2016). To achieve the broader financial inclusion, structured financing models with expanded access, minimal transactional costs, refocused architectures oriented towards smallholder farmers, simplified lending procedures and reduced obstacles in credit acquisition and innovative repayment models are to be designed to reflect current realities (Christopoulos and McAdam, 2017). Given the Kenya's weak financial sector; emphasis should be placed on re-engineering credit infrastructure by designing alternative financial sector and capital acquisition models that are responsive to the unique needs of small holders.

1.2 Marketing Reform

Agricultural marketing opportunities have been declining despite the large number of interventions deployed (Bisena and Kumar, 2018). Higher productivity in agriculture presupposes interventions in four essential fields including policy, institutional capacity market integration, marketing research & technology transfer (Bisena and Kumar, 2018) Measures taken in these areas are expected to bring the strongest and lasting impulses to commodity marketing, food security and poverty reduction especially if paralleled with concomitant socio-political approaches such as participation and decentralization. The strategies to increase access to markets therefore need to include producer and processor groups and marketing promotion.

Amid the gloom of Kenya's rural business as usual or more accurately the lack of it, a profound transformation has been underway. Subsistence farming focused on household needs is becoming more diversified and better oriented towards markets (Pavithra, Gracy and Saxena, 2018). Under the best market conditions, market-oriented transition could lead to emergence of mixed-enterprise, market agriculture with only a portion of the farm devoted for household food production (Kathuria, Singh and Raina, 2019). This kind of transformation is not spontaneous but will result from favorable set of market conditions and a process where farmers are empowered within their settings. This was the kind of transformation that was desired by marketing reform interventions widely adopted by the World Bank in many interventions.

Better access to market information and financial services are necessary conditions to the adoption of capital intensive, higher yielding technologies (Pavithra, Gracy and Saxena, 2018). Documented information on farm-level marketing in Kenya is limiting however, it is worth noting that micro-credit provision does not guarantee sufficient support for agricultural transformation (Bisena and Kumar, 2018). Other factors like training in post-harvest technology and assistance in establishment of storage and marketing facilities are crucial. The major challenge of implementing market reforms in Kenya today is to design and develop an input-output marketing

structure that supports sustainable increases in farm productivity for small scale farmers and orient them towards sustainable production. Market interventions therefore aspire to open up available space and ensure smallholders access reliable commodity markets (Pavithra, Gracy and Saxena, 2018). Agricultural commodity marketing is accorded invariable consideration in development space.

1.3 Capacity Building Reform

Capacity building has become a central pillar to the development of many low-income Countries (Ojoyi, 2017). Empirical evidence suggests that achieving better outcomes require increased investment of financial resources and adequate capacity to use those resources. Enhanced capacity therefore plays a critical role in sustainability of economic outcomes and in reducing reliance on external assistance over the medium term. Farmer organizations and producer groups are increasingly relying on capacity enhancement to improve productivity & enhance performance (Matthisen 2017). Available documentary evidence is unequivocal that improving local capacities directly impacts overall growth. Investment in skills is therefore critical to improving productivity. Enhanced capacities would therefore improve household income.

Capacity building is important to change farmer's attitude and equip them with better skills to be able to generate income, this is regardless of their level of education (Reich, Berman and Bitran, 2019). Though authors such as Ismail, (2019) acknowledge the importance of formulating measures to determine capacity enhancement, the published literature suggests that efforts to measure outcomes associated with capacity building are at very early stages of development. In contrast, the practice-based information, drawn largely from gray literature through discussions with practitioners, elaborates the concept of capacity building by discussing experience in measuring elements of capacity and the influence of capacity building on productivity processes. Effective capacity enhancement is therefore central pillar in future project programming (Hart & Bank Katende, 2018). Documented empirical evidence shows that achieving better outcomes requires increased investment in the effective utilization of minimal resources including human, financial and technical (Ojoyi, 2017).

The local capacity is believed to play a role in sustainability of outcomes and reducing reliance on external assistance in the long-term (Reich, Berman & Bitran, 2019). It is in this regard that organizations and communities are increasingly relying on capacity building practices to enhance their inert performance. Improved performance of most project interventions is henceforth based on the enhancing internal capabilities that would in turn impact overall economic growth and livelihoods (Ika and Donnely, 2017).

1.4 Objective of the Study

This study sought to examine the moderating influence of participatory monitoring on the relationship between reform interventions and performance of agricultural projects funded by the World Bank in Trans-Nzoia County, Kenya.

1.5 Hypothesis of the Study

The following hypothesis was tested:

H_0: The strength of relationship between reform interventions and performance of agricultural projects is not moderated by participatory monitoring,

H_1: The strength of the relationship between reform interventions and performance of agricultural projects funded by World Bank is moderated by participatory monitoring.

1.6 Statement of the Problem

While there is considerable enthusiasm on the role of participatory monitoring in modern project management, claims that the practice improves project performance have hardly been tested empirically. Despite donors such as World Bank splashing millions of dollars in rural development projects, there's still a lot of disenfranchisement by stakeholders on the results being achieved by some of these projects (World Bank, 2019). While panacea for revamping project performance appears on course; many projects continue to post poor results, meaning most interventions do not realize the desired results.

A review of results from thousands of World Bank funded projects indicates that poor and questionable performance is a common occurrence despite the myriad reforms in place. In order to bridge the gap between the massive investments in projects and actual results achieved, there was need to establish the contribution of participatory monitoring as is widely practiced on project performance. It is against this background that this study sought to quantify the moderating influence of participatory monitoring in development projects using Trans-Nzoia County in Kenya as a de-facto environment.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

The practice of participatory monitoring involves stakeholders in checking the progress of project interventions. This practice has been in use for decades and is viewed as the best model for tracking progress. Other approaches such as collaborative evaluation, development monitoring and empowerment evaluation are also utilized in projects but to a less extent (De Vries, 2018). Forms of participation in monitoring are distinguished by depth of stakeholder involvement. Participatory monitoring is therefore a routine and complex concept that can be utilized at any stage of the project since it has inert capacity to take different approaches. The complexity in the adoption of participatory processes depends on how 'participation' as a concept is interpreted. The construct 'participation' in the context of tracking progress has divergent interpretations (De Vries, 2018).

Participatory monitoring therefore advocates that ultimate beneficiaries in a development intervention such as the poor, the disadvantaged and the disempowered, should ideally lead the development efforts to define outcomes needed to be achieved by those projects or interventions (Thapa, Ngwenya & Kaufmann, 2017). Project monitoring is therefore a routine project process where primary stakeholders are active participants in that intervention. The practice is designed to ensure that stakeholders take the lead in tracking and making sense of progress made towards the achievement of self-selected results. In this process, stakeholders are expected to draw actionable conclusions. This therefore imply that stakeholders are a driving force in identifying project priorities, tracking progress as well as making sense of progress towards achieving the shared results. This therefore is a self-reflecting mechanism.

To fulfill salient requirements of participatory monitoring, stakeholders at the local level, actively get involved in project implementation where they determine parameters of the exercise, identify indicators to be measured as well as participate in data collection and analysis processes. This practice is built on the premise that each phenomenon or reality unfolding in an intervention has multiple facets that needs to be understood and measured by stakeholders (Otieno & Kennedy, 2016). Within participatory monitoring framework, there exists lots of realms that advocate for stakeholder consultation and involvement. Again, participatory process in project monitoring promises to ensure that primary stakeholders are actively involved in designing own interventions, measuring the performance of those interventions and ensuring that project deliverables are achieved within confines of budget, time and scope (Kusters, Buck, De Graaf and Minang, 2018). Participation is therefore critical in improving delivery.

While there are limitations in the application of the concept of participation in projects, the effectiveness in influencing empowerment and possibly the sustainability of project outcomes cannot be viewed independently (Rushford, Webster, Loiselle and Ferh, 2016). Whereas concept of participation is not well grounded empirically speaking, the practice is deeply rooted in most interventions today. The practice of community and stakeholder involvement is not new. This process is well documented and justified on two grounds-procedural & substantive. According to De Vries, (2018), procedural strand claims the concept of participation is a fundamental concept whose benefits emanate from the utilization of the due process in reaching public decisions. Individuals who often involved in this process benefit by feeling valued, feel more connected with the project resulting in a sense of self-efficacy (Otieno and Kennedy, 2016).

Despite many positive outcomes of participatory monitoring, the approach is not without shortcomings. Kusters, Buck, De Graaf and Minang, (2018), in a correlational study, found that participatory monitoring is based on community indicators which are often highly specific and localized. This, the study opines, limits the application of common community indicators for evaluating programs that span geographical space. Again, the practice limits the comparability of results in the monitoring process. Other criticisms stem from its application. If participation applied in various contexts, beneficiaries suffered the 'inclusion perspective' and little on 'decision perspective'. In other words, attitude in most cases is that of 'ticking the boxes' while claiming that engagement was substantial. It is worth noting that participation does not address the issues inherent in non-participatory methodologies.

This is a contradiction to cardinal objective of participation which is 'to give power to the people'. These limitations are summarized by authors such as Thapa, Ngwenya & Kaufmann, (2017) and (Kusters, Buck, De Graaf and Minang, (2018) who argue that the main issues bedeviling participatory models are mainly methodological limitations, lack of scientific rigor, naivety of complexity of the process, the group dynamics and power relations. The practice has also been criticized for reducing concept of participation to diagnostics, myth of instant analysis of local knowledge, the tyranny of techniques involved, the instrumental character of participation, underestimation of costs and the difficulty of managing group dynamics. These shortcomings however, do not outweigh the many benefits associated with participation (De Vries, 2018).

Project monitoring as a practice is widely utilized in measuring and benchmarking the performance of many development undertakings. The World Bank has specialized in utilizing this approach described in different connotations as impact evaluation, outcome tracking and anticipated impact monitoring (Rushford, Webster, Loiselle & Ferh, 2016). There exist many other project tracking approaches such as judicial monitoring, result estimation and utilization-focused monitoring though not applied on a significant scale. Output tracking as widely applied is relatively a new concept that is credited for improvement of short-term deliverables. Though it continues to evoke criticism from different quarters, the concept is fast gaining traction. In view of this, a number of commentators' advocate for a wider measurement strategy to include approaches such as key performance indicators, cost effective analysis and rapid appraisals.

Process of tracking project outputs is undertaken once the project is being implemented. Tacking outputs has been cited for improving the project performance architecture. This has necessitated measurement of results beyond the simplistic criteria comprising time, cost and quality parameters. Simplistic criterion has been cited for inadequate coverage in measurement of project results (De Vries, 2018). The criterion is cited for shallow and short-term focus. In view of mounting criticism, development agencies such as the World Bank designed broad based measurement criteria that include sufficient outputs critical in capturing community quantitative benefits. Participation in tracking project outputs does not only demonstrate capacity to appraise projects but also helps in bringing out specific outputs critical in ensuring interventions remain firmly on course.

While the knowledge of effectiveness of project results is vital, it is important to note the reasons for effectiveness and the circumstances under which results are likely to be replicated. In contrast to plain monitoring approaches, which report mean differences in outputs between treatment and comparison groups, the theory-based tracking of results involves mapping out the causal chain from inputs to outcomes and testing the underlying assumptions (World Bank, 2019). Most interventions within the policy realm are of a voluntary, rather than coercive nature hence determining their outputs is crucial. In addition, project interventions are often active rather than passive, requiring a greater rather than a lesser degree of participation amongst stakeholders. This process demands that project outputs are checked regularly so as to ensure interventions remain on track.

Participation in tracking outputs therefore assesses changes attributable to a particular intervention, program or policy. Results desired in most interventions could be intended or unintended. In contrast to impact monitoring, which examines whether targets were achieved, routine participatory tracking approaches are structured to answer how the performance of projects behave if interventions are not undertaken. This process involves counterfactual analysis, that is, "a comparison between what actually happened and what would have happened in the absence of these interventions". The practice of participatory monitoring seeks to answer the cause-and-effect questions in any project and show extent of implementation of those cause-and-effects. Participation in tracking progress of projects is widely documented as corroborated by authors such as Rushford, Webster, Loiselle and Ferh, (2016) and Thapa, Ngwenya and Kaufmann, (2017).

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded on three theories: the theory of change, the outcomes theory and responsive-constructivist evaluation theory.

2.2 Theory of Change

This theory emerged in the 1990's at Aspen institute roundtable on community change developed as the means to evaluate comprehensive community initiatives. Notable methodologists like Huey Chen, Peter Rossi, Michael Quinn Patton, Heléne Clark, and Carol Weiss are proponents of this model (Kaul, 2017). Theory of change is a type of methodology used in measuring project performance. This theory is critical expanding philanthropy and government driven development initiatives such as rural development and maps backward to identify the necessary preconditions to explain process of change by outlining causal linkages in a project or intervention. This theory defines building blocks required to bring about change and shows how long-term goals will be reached and what will be used to measure progress of interventions. Theory of change postulates that participants in any intervention need to be clear about identifying measurable indicators and in formulating action plans. This theory grounds the performance aspects of this study as it helps determine change processes desired in results measurement. Theory brings out pertinent distinction between desired and actual outcomes and requires stakeholders to model their results before they decide on forms of interventions (Kaul, 2017). This theory is critical in grounding outputs that are demanded in an evaluation exercise by utilizing data in decision making. This theory focuses not just on generating knowledge but also on its effectiveness.

2.3 Responsive-Constructivist Evaluation Theory

Responsive-constructivist evaluation theory is also called the 4th generation evaluation theory and was developed by Guba and Lincoln in 1989 as an interpretive methodology useful for conducting evaluations. This theory is an adaptation of responsive evaluation approach that was first introduced by Robert Stake in 1975. This theory underpins the project performance aspects envisaged in this study. The theory postulates performance of project interventions must attempt to be responsive to concerns and issues voiced by stakeholders in their own terms. The theory brings subjectivity and pluralism into value construction and helps project evaluators own perceptions during evaluation processes.

This theory grounds this study in agitating for a monumental shift in program evaluation and monitoring as conceptualized. The theory points out inherent problems faced by the previous generation of evaluators such as politics, ethical dilemma, imperfections and gaps and inconclusive deductions and lays the blame for failure of most projects on non-utilization of evaluation findings and the unquestioned reliance on positivist paradigms (Kaul, 2017). This theory places emphasis on other evaluation concerns and agitates for project monitoring to go beyond simplistic monitoring parameters so as to include aspects such as political and contextual elements. This theory fundamentally recognizes project evaluation feedback and provision of multiple reports in appropriate forms and languages as being crucial to the needs and aspirations of stakeholders. The theory recognizes monitoring of projects reconstructs multiple socially-constructed realities; exemplifies evaluation to be influenced by value systems, what to evaluate and selection of evaluation models to be used as well as the evaluation methodology.

2.4 Outcomes Theory

International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Project Management
ISSN 2518-2838(Online) 2520-9108
Vol.5, Issue 1, pp 79 - 103, 2020

Outcomes theory was developed by Paul Duignan in 2008 as a conceptual basis for thinking and working with outcome systems in projects. The outcomes theory grounds this study on matters concerning project performance. Outcomes system identifies, prioritizes, measures or hold parties to account for the results generated by interventions. Outcomes theory systems are related to concepts such as strategic plans, management by results, results chains and results-based management systems. This theory is relevant in this study as the achievement of results, accountability systems, evidence-based practice systems are concerned. Outcomes theory envisages interactions between interventions against project performance (Kaul, 2017).

This theory indicates a sub-set of interventions within which projects can operate and bring results. The theory links interrelated facets desired in field of Project Management such as the organizational development, evaluation, policy analysis, project economics. Inter linkage between some of these facets is expected to increase efficiency and performance parameters. Continuous application of this theory means that it is hard for those building systems to gain quick access to generic principles without orienting their functions to principles. It specifies structural features of well-constructed systems that help stakeholders to construct sound and sustainable project results and outcomes. Within this theory, there exists models critical hence useful in predicting project results.

2.5 Conceptual Framework for the Study

Interrelationships amongst variables of this study are conceptualized in Figure 1:

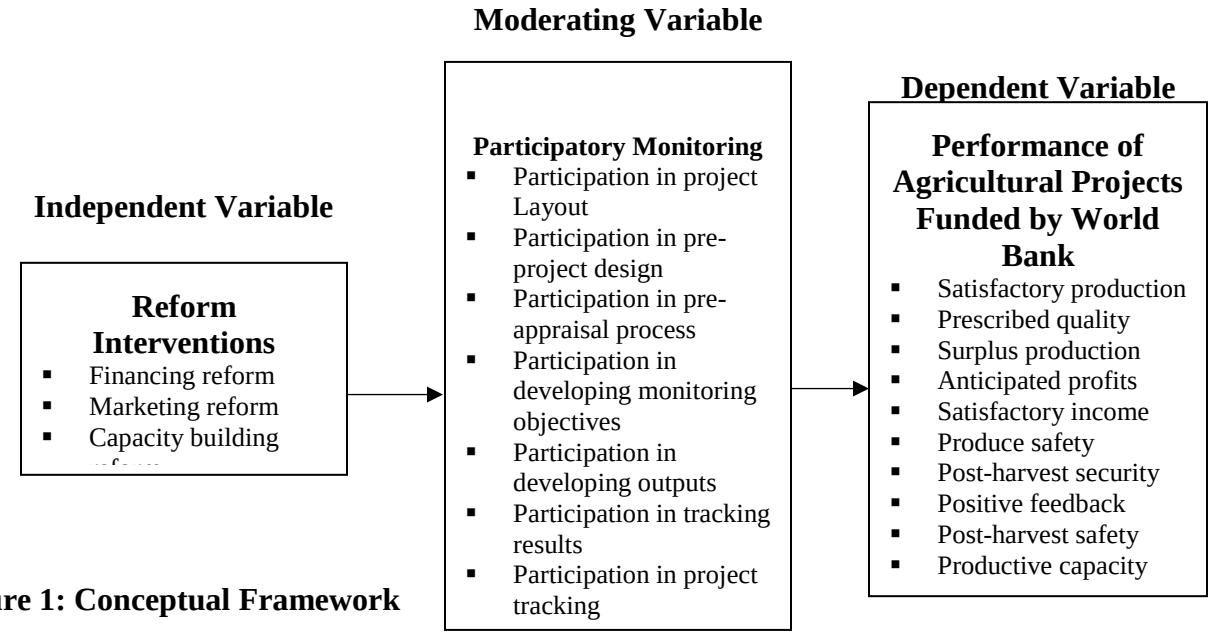


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

2.6 Research Gaps from Reviewed Literature

Despite availability of extensive rhetoric on the application of participatory monitoring as a practice. The validity of claims that participatory monitoring influences performance of projects is not well articulated. Whereas many development agencies continue to deploy various facets of participatory monitoring in wider project results measurement, the exact contribution of

participatory processes on project performance is not quantified. (K. Kusters, L. Buck, M. de Graaf and P. Minang, 2018).

Again, despite massive investment in participatory monitoring, majority of projects in the development arena (51%) post unsatisfactory results (De Vries, 2018). There lacks documented empirical evidence on the role played by participatory monitoring on the interplay between reforms and project performance especially in the field of Agriculture. Some scholars such as Otieno & Kennedy, (2016) and De Vries, (2018) have examined linear relationships between reform interventions against performance of projects and demonstrated substantial empirical evidence, it appears, few studies have dared examine participatory monitoring as a moderator variable. Again, most used research designs that sharply differ with the one adopted. Most studies did not bring out the mediating role of participatory monitoring in project performance. This study therefore sought to bridge gaps in past research and unpack complexities surrounding participation as a concept.

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study adopted descriptive survey design using mixed methods research approach. This means quantitative and qualitative data collection were done in a single field visit. This design helped the researcher to collect the two data sets separately then mix them during analysis (Mckim, 2017). A structured questionnaire with 60-Likert-type questions was used to collect the primary quantitative data while standardized interviews and focus group discussions were used to collect qualitative data.

Descriptive survey design was ideal since it helped researcher to undertake correlation between study variables so to explore the multiple issues and triangulate data in detail (Almalki, 2016). Target population was 800 farmers while the study sample was 268 respondents determined using the simplified Yamane, (1967) formula for proportions. Reliability of the questionnaire was 0. 825 determined using Cronbach Alpha coefficient.

3.1 Sample Size

The sample size for this study was determined using the simplified Yamane, (1967) formula for proportions, which is expressed as shown:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where;

n=Sample Size**,**

N=Target Population and

e=Allowable Error (error term)

Substituting in the Equation;

Target population being 815, assuming 95% confidence level (thus allowable error of 0.05) then we find:

$$n = \frac{815}{1+815(0.05)^2} = 268.31$$. This is rounded-off at = 268 respondents

4.0 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The Demographic characteristics of respondents were examined in the context of gender, age, highest level of education, level of literacy, primary farming occupation, the type of project support and number of years supported by the project. Study findings are as shown:

4.1 Questionnaire Response Rate

Out of all the 268 questionnaires that were administered, 255 were filled and returned. This represents a response rate of 95.14%.

Table1: Questionnaire Response Rate

Cluster	Sample Size (n)	No Returned	Response Rate (%)
Cherangany	38	36	94
Endebess	37	34	92
Central	34	34	97
Kaplamai	33	31	90
Kiminini	43	40	93
Kwanza	38	37	94
Saboti	40	38	96
County Staff	3	3	100
PMU Officials	2	2	100
Total	**268**	**255**	**95.14**

4.2 Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Distribution of respondents by gender is presented as shown:

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	93	36.3
Male	142	55.9
Missing Response	20	7.8
Total	**255**	**100**

The gender of the respondents was 93(36.3%) female while 142(55.9%) were male.

4.3 Distribution of Respondents by Age

Distribution of respondent by age was as shown in Table 3

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20-25 Years	15	5.9
26-30 Years	0	0
31-35 Years	45	17.6
36-40 Years	57	22.5
Above 40 Years	138	53.9
Total	**255**	**100**

From the findings 15(5.9%) of respondents were between 20-25 years, 45(17.6%) were 31-35 years, 57(22.5%) were 36-40 years while 138(53.9%) were found to be over 40 years.

4.4 Distribution of Respondents by Highest Level of Education

The distribution of respondents according to highest level of education was as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents by Highest Level of Education

Highest Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
No formal education	12	4.9
Primary school level	120	47.1
Secondary school level	105	41.2
Certificate level	15	5.9
Diploma level	3	1
Total	**255**	**100**

From findings, 12(4.9%) of respondents did not possess formal education. 120(47.1%) had primary level while 105(41.2%) had secondary level. 15(5.9%) had attained certificate level while 3(1%) had diploma.

4.5 Distribution of Respondents by Level of Literacy

Distribution of respondents by levels of literacy was as shown in Table 5:

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by Level of Literacy

Level of Literacy	Frequency	Percentage
Can Read	5	2
Can Write	10	3.9
Can Read and Write	215	84.3
Cannot Read and Write	23	8.8
Missing Response	2	1
Total	**255**	**100**

It was established 5(2%) could read, 10(3.9%) could write, 215(84.3%) could read & write, 23(8.8%) could not read and write and 2(1%) did not respond to this question.

4.6 Distribution of Respondents by Primary Farming Occupation

The distribution of respondents by primary farming occupation was as shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Distribution of Respondents by Primary Farming Occupation

Farming Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Maize farmer	110	43.1
Livestock farmer	40	15.7
Crop farmer	13	4.9
Livestock marketer	55	21.6
Horticultural trader	15	5.9
Banana farmer	22	8.8
Total	**255**	**100**

From findings, it was established that 110(43.1%) of the respondents were maize farmers, 40(15.7%) were livestock farmers, 13(4.9%) were crop farmers, 55(21.6%) were livestock marketers, 15(5.9%) horticultural traders and 22(8.8%) were banana farmers.

4.7 Distribution of Respondents by Type of Project Support

The distribution of respondents by type of project support was as shown in Table 7

Table 7: Distribution of Respondents by Type of Project Support

Type of Project	Frequency	Percentage
KAPAP	153	59.8
KASLMP	100	39.2
Missing Response	2	1
Total	**255**	**100**

4.8 Distribution of Respondents by Number of Years Supported

Distribution of respondents by the number of years supported was as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Distribution of Respondents by Number of Years Supported

Number of Years Supported	Frequency	Percentage
Below 1 year	3	0.01
Between 2-5 years	240	94.1
Between 5-8 years	12	4.9
Total	**255**	**100**

From the findings, it was established 3(0.01%) of respondents had been supported for less than one year, 240(94.1%) of respondents had been supported for 2-5 years, and 12(4.9%) had been supported for 5-8 years. From the findings, 3(0.01%) of respondents had been supported for less than one year, 240(94.1%) had been supported for 2-5 years, and 12(4.9%) had been supported for 5-8 years. Out of 268 questionnaires, 255 were filled and returned, representing response rate

of 95.14%. Gender of respondents was almost evenly distributed with 93(36.3%) female while 142(55.9%) male. On distribution of respondents by age, 15(5.9%) were between 20-25 years, 45(17.6%) were 31-35 years, 57(22.5%) were 36-40 years while 138(53.9%) were over 40 years. On level of education, 12(4.9%) did not possess formal education, 120(47.1%) had primary qualification while 105(41.2%) had secondary level of education. 15(5.9%) had certificate level while 3(1%) had diploma. On literacy 5(2%) could read, 10(3.9%) could write, 215(84.3%) could read and write while 23(8.8%) could not read and write. On primary farming occupation, 110(43.1%) were maize farmers, 40(15.7%) livestock farmers, 13(4.9%) crop farmers, 55(21.6%) were livestock marketers, 15(5.9%) horticultural traders and 22(8.8%) were banana farmers. On type of project support, 153(59.8%) were KAPAP, 100(39.2%) were KASLMP. On number of years supported 3(0.01%) were supported for less than one year, 240(94.1%) had been supported for 2-5 years, and 12(4.9%) had been supported for 5-8 years.

Table 9: Descriptive Analysis of Participatory Monitoring

Statements	SD F (%)	D F (%)	N F (%)	A F (%)	SA F (%)	Total F (%)	M	SD
a) Participated in project layout	33 (13)	52 (20)	26 (10)	108 (42)	36 (14)	255 (100)	3.24	1.294
b) Participated in the pre-project design,	26 (10)	79 (31)	28 (11)	74 (29)	48 (19)	255 (100)	3.16	1.324
c) Participated in the monitoring framework	28 (11)	54 (21)	38 (15)	74 (29)	61 (24)	255 (100)	3.32	1.343
d) Participated in project pre-appraisal process	23 (9)	79 (31)	20 (8)	77 (30)	56 (22)	255 (100)	3.52	0.962
e) Participated in project appraisal process	8 (3)	66 (26)	20 (8)	112 (44)	48 (19)	255 (100)	3.72	1.99
f) Participated in monitoring objectives	3 (1)	23 (9)	41 (16)	110 (43)	79 (31)	255 (100)	3.63	1.023
g) Participated in project monitoring approaches	5 (2)	46 (18)	46 (18)	128 (50)	31 (12)	255 (100)	2.32	1.406
h) Participated in developing outputs	15 (6)	15 (6)	48 (19)	122 (48)	54 (21)	255 (100)	3.65	1.023
i) Participated in developing outcomes	8 (3)	33 (13)	54 (21)	115 (45)	46 (18)	255 (100)	3.72	1.055
j) Participated in designing monitoring instruments	20 (8)	84 (33)	38 (15)	69 (27)	43 (17)	255 (100)	3.12	1.266
k) Participated in tracking project results	23 (9)	59 (23)	33 (13)	94 (37)	46 (18)	255 (100)	3.32	1.262
l) Participated in routine project activity tracking	38 (15)	54 (21)	28 (11)	77 (30)	59 (23)	255 (100)	3.25	1.410
Composite							**3.80**	**0.930**

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neutral, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 10: Descriptive Analysis of Financing Reform

Statements	SD F (%)	D F (%)	N F (%)	A F (%)	SA F (%)	Total F (%)	M	SD
a) Credit procedures	13 (5)	38 (15)	46 (18)	122 (49)	33 (13)	253 (99.7)	3.49	1.063
b) Collateral options	5 (2)	41 (16)	43 (17)	125 (49)	41 (16)	255 (100)	3.61	1.004
c) Credit structure	41 (16)	54 (21)	23 (9)	84 (33)	54 (21)	255 (100)	3.22	1.411
d) Credit regulations	5 (2)	33 (13)	18 (7)	133 (52)	66 (26)	255 (100)	3.87	1.012
e) Digitized credit	3 (1)	33 (13)	5 (2)	140 (55)	74 (29)	255 (100)	3.98	0.964
f) Credit flexibility	3 (2)	43 (13)	46 (7)	102 (52)	61 (26)	255 (100)	3.69	1.051
g) Repayment regulations	10 (4)	74 (30)	18 (7)	92 (37)	54 (22)	247 (96.9)	3.42	1.240
h) Interests rates	54 (21)	28 (11)	20 (8)	79 (31)	71 (28)	252 (98.8)	3.34	1.520
i) Credit institutions	0 (0)	26 (10)	36 (14)	125 (49)	69 (27)	255 (100)	3.93	0.902
j) Cost of credit	26 (10)	74 (29)	23 (9)	94 (37)	36 (14)	252 (98.8)	3.16	1.275
k) Knowledge on credit	15 (6)	99 (40)	38 (16)	56 (23)	38 (16)	247 (96.9)	3.01	1.229
l) Repayment capacity	43 (17)	82 (32)	33 (13)	46 (18)	51 (20)	255 (100)	2.92	1.412
Composite							**3.47**	**1.173**

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neutral, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 11: Descriptive Analysis of Marketing Reform

Statements	SD F (%)	D F (%)	N F (%)	A F (%)	SA F (%)	Total F (%)	M	SD
a) Market demographics	59 (23)	38 (15)	8 (3)	74 (29)	74 (29)	252 (98.8)	3.260	1.582
b) Market accessibility	10 (4)	110 (43)	10 (4)	51 (20)	71 (28)	252 (98.8)	3.250	1.373
c) Marketing regulations	8 (3)	94 (37)	20 (8)	71 (28)	56 (22)	250 (98)	3.300	1.270
d) Marketing architecture	61 (24)	87 (34)	5 (2)	31 (12)	69 (27)	252 (98.8)	2.840	1.589
e) Marketing Intelligence	0 (0)	10 (4)	3 (1)	89 (35)	145 (57)	247 (96.9)	4.490	0.723
f) Market composition	10 (4)	94 (37)	26 (10)	74 (29)	48 (19)	252 (98.8)	3.220	1.250
g) Marketing structures	46 (18)	94 (37)	15 (6)	61 (24)	36 (14)	252 (98.8)	2.790	1.372
h) Market digitization	18 (7)	59 (23)	33 (13)	82 (32)	61 (24)	252 (98.8)	3.430	1.279
i) Market space	28 (11)	117 (46)	23 (9)	36 (14)	48 (19)	252 (98.8)	2.840	1.345
j) Marketing groups	38 (15)	87 (34)	13 (5)	56 (22)	56 (22)	250 (98)	3.020	1.450
k) Marketing models	8 (3)	54 (21)	36 (14)	97 (38)	59 (23)	252 (98.8)	3.580	1.153
l) Marketing complexities	3 (1)	18 (7)	20 (8)	94 (37)	117 (46)	252 (98.8)	4.210	0.940
Composite							**3.350**	**1.280**

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neutral, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 12: Descriptive Analysis of Capacity Building Reform

Statements	SD F (%)	D F (%)	N F (%)	A F (%)	SA F (%)	Total F (%)	M	SD
a) Capacity building content	176 (69)	41 (16)	3 (1)	13 (5)	20 (8)	252 (98.8)	1.66	1.239
b) Capacity building regulations	3 (1)	10 (4)	13 (5)	115 (45)	115 (45)	255 (100)	4.29	0.820
c) Capacity building methods	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (2)	87 (34)	163 (64)	255 (100)	4.62	0.528
d) Capacity building approaches	0 (0)	8 (3)	10 (4)	130 (51)	107 (42)	255 (100)	4.32	0.695
e) Competence of instructors	43 (17)	82 (32)	41 (16)	56 (22)	33 (13)	255 (100)	2.82	1.313
f) Capacity building curriculum	0 (0)	5 (2)	8 (3)	140 (55)	97 (38)	250 (98)	4.32	0.636
g) Skilled manpower	99 (39)	71 (28)	13 (5)	46 (18)	26 (10)	255 (100)	2.32	1.406
h) Capacity building tools	3 (1)	5 (2)	8 (3)	110 (43)	128 (50)	252 (98.8)	4.40	0.741
i) Exhibitions and tours	3 (1)	3 (1)	5 (2)	128 (50)	117 (46)	255 (100)	4.39	0.680
j) Field days and field visits	8 (3)	8 (3)	10 (4)	107 (42)	122 (48)	255 (100)	4.29	0.913
k) Peer-to- peer learning sessions	5 (2)	18 (7)	13 (5)	71 (28)	148 (58)	255 (100)	4.33	0.995
l) Farmer alumni groups	10 (4)	38 (15)	23 (9)	84 (33)	99 (39)	255 (100)	3.88	1.200
Composite							**3.80**	**0.930**

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neutral, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 14: Descriptive Analysis on Performance of Agricultural Projects

Statements	SD F (%)	D F (%)	N F (%)	A F (%)	SA F (%)	Total F (%)	M	SD
a) Satisfactory production	0 (0)	5 (2)	36 (14)	99 (39)	110 (43)	250 (100)	4.26	0.777
b) Prescribed produce quality	0 (0)	10 (4)	20 (8)	148 (58)	71 (28)	250 (100)	4.12	0.722
c) Surplus production	3 (1)	5 (2)	33 (13)	122 (48)	87 (34)	250 (100)	4.14	0.799
a) Anticipated profits	0 (0)	13 (5)	33 (13)	158 (62)	46 (18)	250 (100)	3.95	0.723
b) Satisfactory income	0 (0)	8 (3)	41 (16)	130 (51)	71 (28)	250 (100)	4.06	0.757
c) Produce safety	0 (0)	51 (20)	15 (6)	110 (43)	71 (28)	247 (99.7)	3.81	1.074
d) Post-harvest security	3 (1)	5 (2)	31 (12)	143 (56)	69 (27)	250 (100)	4.08	0.755
e) Productive capacity	0 (0)	10 (4)	48 (19)	128 (50)	64 (25)	250 (100)	3.98	0.786
f) Positive feedback	0 (0)	8 (3)	31 (12)	130 (51)	82 (32)	250 (100)	4.14	0.746
g) Stable produce prices	43 (17)	74 (29)	33 (13)	36 (14)	59 (23)	245 (99.7)	2.97	1.461
h) Encouraged farmers	3 (1)	13 (5)	26 (10)	130 (51)	77 (30)	247 (99.8)	4.07	0.845
i) Post-harvest safety	26 (10)	46 (18)	51 (20)	69 (27)	59 (23)	250 (100)	3.36	1.302
Total							**3.36**	**1.302**

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neutral, A=Agree,
SA=Strongly Agree, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

4.10 Inferential Analysis

This was undertaken through a 2-step regression model (stepwise regression)

Step One: Reform Interventions and Performance of Agricultural Projects

The first step was to determine relationship between joint (combined) reforms against the performance of agricultural projects. The findings are shown in Table 15:

International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Project Management
ISSN 2518-2838(Online) 2520-9108
Vol.5, Issue 1, pp 79 - 103, 2020

Table 15: First Step: Regression of Combined Reform Interventions

Variables Entered

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
3	Financing Reform Marketing Reform Capacity Building Reform	None.	Enter

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform and Capacity Building Reform

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error
3	0.774[a]	0.226	0.221	4.740

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform and Capacity Building Reform

Anova[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2342.200	5	117.280	F (1,246) = 41.387***,	0.053[b]
	Residual	.000	0			
	Total	2342.800	5			

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform and Capacity Building Reform

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.713	4.740	0.71	0.222	0.057.
	Financing Reform	0.045	0.088	0.16	0.192	
	Marketing Reform	0.257	0.136	1.888	0.000	
	Capacity Building Reform	0.618	0.038	1.70	0.003	

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform and Capacity Building Reform

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

It was found that joint (combined) reform interventions explained 22.6% variation in the performance of agricultural projects since the coefficient of determination (R2) was 0.226. The

adjusted R2 was 0.221 meaning joint reform interventions explained 22.1% of the variation in performance of agricultural projects while 77.9% in the variation of project performance was explained by other variables (factors).

Step Two: Introduction of the Moderator Variable (Participatory Monitoring) Against Performance of Agricultural Projects

The second step in stepwise regression entailed the introduction of a moderator variable (participatory monitoring) together with joint reforms against project performance.

Table 16: Second Step: Regression of Combined Reform Interventions with the Introduction of the Moderator Variable.

Variables Entered

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
4	Financing Reform Marketing Reform Capacity Building Reform Participatory Monitoring	None.	Enter

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform, Capacity Building Reform and Participatory Monitoring

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error
4	0.712[a]	0.5069	0.5069	4.740

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform, Capacity Building Reform and Participatory Monitoring

Anova[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2342.200	5	117.280	F (1,246) = 41.387***,	0.053[b]
	Residual	.000	0			
	Total	2342.200	5			

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform, Capacity Building Reform and Participatory Monitoring

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.713	4.740	0.71	0.222	0.057.
	Financing Reform		0.088	0.16	0.192	
	Marketing Reform		0.136	1.888	0.000	
	Participatory Monitoring					
	Capacity Building Reform		0.038	1.70	0.003	

Predictors: (Constant), Financing Reform, Marketing Reform, Capacity Building Reform and Participatory Monitoring

Dependent Variable: Performance of Agricultural Projects

The introduction of a moderator variable (participatory monitoring) in the second model increased the value of R^2 from 0.221 (22.1%) to 0.5069 (50.69%). Adjusted R^2 was also equivalent to 0.5069, implying that with the introduction of a moderator variable, both the R^2 and the adjusted R increased to 0.5069 which was 50.69% increase. This means the introduction of the moderator variable was responsible for extra 28.59% variation in performance of agricultural projects. Based on these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternate hypothesis accepted. This confirms that indeed, the strength of the relationship between reform interventions and the performance of agricultural projects was moderated by participatory monitoring.

5.0 SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The summary of study findings, recommendations for policy and practice are discussed:

5.1 Summary of Findings

It was established that participatory monitoring possessed the moderator traits in the relationship between combined reform interventions and performance of agricultural projects funded by the World Bank in Trans-Nzoia county. When the combined reforms were examined separately with project performance, the value of R^2 was 0.221 (22.1%). When participatory monitoring was introduced as a moderator variable, the value of R^2 increased to 0.5069 (50.69%). This implies that with the introduction of the moderator variable, the R^2 increased by 28.59%, meaning participatory monitoring alone was responsible for 28.59% variation in performance of

agricultural projects. This therefore quantifies the exact contribution of participatory monitoring in this interplay.

5.2 Recommendations for Policy

This study has huge implications on policy formulation; considering that Government of Kenya is keen on ensuring that development projects are delivered in the confines of time, cost, available resources and client satisfaction, this study therefore provides the needed empirical evidence to support policy formulation in the field of agriculture and rural development. Since participatory monitoring has been found to impact project performance, this practice will therefore be inculcated in the policy framework going forward, but with empirical evidence. Policy development incorporating participatory processes has therefore been laid bare. Policy makers would therefore make informed policies grounded on research therefore leading to evidence-based policy formulation.

5.3 Recommendations for Practice

The research findings from this study indicate that project performance is influenced by various reform interventions and moderated by participatory monitoring. A finding in this study therefore informs the practice of monitoring and evaluation and the project management discipline in general. These findings mean that henceforth, public and private project implementation entities need to embrace participatory monitoring as a concept in order to realize maximum value-for-money in project work. Again, the study recommends that stakeholders should participate in critical activities such as the project layout, project re-design, developing project outputs and outcomes and in developing project monitoring instruments and routine results measurement.

Findings from this study will change the future of project management by providing quantifiable data and empirical research that would become key reference material for practitioners involved in project execution and management. The study provides further insight on how participatory monitoring can be inculcated in wider result measurement architecture and calls for participation in pre-feasibility, feasibility and ex-ante and ex-post monitoring in order to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in project delivery.

REFERENCES

1) A. Bara, G Mugano (2016): Financial Reforms and Finance-Growth Relationship in Southern African Development Community (SADC) Cape town, South Africa.
2) A. Kaul (2017): Demystifying" Concept of Participation" in Participatory M&E.
3) A. Shams (2017): Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation Practice in Traditional Pakistan: Role and Practice of Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation, Karachi, Pakistan.
4) C.A McKim (2017): The Value of Mixed Methods Research: A Mixed Methods Study-Journal of Mixed Methods Research.
5) D. Christopoulos and P. McAdam (2017): Do Financial Reforms help Stabilize Inequality? Journal of International Money and Finance,
6) F. Jessa and F.M Uys (2019): A systemic and Public Value Approach to Integrated Public Sector Reforms: A case for South African Municipalities, South Africa.

7) F. Onyilo,and A. Adong (2019): Agricultural Cooperative Marketing and Credit Policy Reform in Uganda: Opportunity for Poverty Reduction-Journal of Food, Agriculture & Nutrition, Kampala, Uganda.
8) Guijt I. (2019): Socio-Economic Methodologies for Natural Resources Research. Best Practice Guidelines for Participatory Monitoring & Evaluation Methodologies for Natural Resources.
9) H. Darani, M.R Kohansal & M. Ghorbani)2017): An Integrated Hydro-Economic Modeling to Evaluate Marketing Reform Policies of Agricultural Products
10) J. Schoonenboom, RB Johnson (2017): How to Construct a Mixed Methods Research Design
11) J. Bisena and R. Kumar (2018): Agricultural Marketing Reforms and e-National Agricultural Market (e-NAM), New Delhi, India.
12) K. Kusters, L. Buck, M. de Graaf, & P. Minang (2018): Participatory Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation of Multi-stakeholder Platforms in Integrated Landscape Initiatives. Sage Publications.
13) K. Kathuria, K. Singh and K.K Raina (2019): Agriculture Marketing Reforms in India, Relationship between Awareness and Attitude of Commission Agents in the APMC Reform. Punjab, India; Journal of Pharmacognosy.
14) L.A Ika and J. Donnelly (2017): Success Conditions for International Development Capacity Building Projects-in the International Journal of Project Management,
15) M. Baloch, A. Saeed, I. Ahmed, J. Oláh, J. Popp and D Máté (2018): The Role of Domestic Financial Reforms and the Internationalization of Non-Financial Transnational Firms: Evidence from Chinese Markets.
16) M. Hamdaoui and S. Maktouf (2020): Financial Reforms and Banking System Vulnerability: Role of Regulatory Frameworks-Structural Change and Economic Dynamics.
17) M. Reich, A.S Yazbeck, P. Berman and R. Bitran (2019): Lessons from the 20 years of Capacity Building for Health Systems Thinking.
18) M. Ojoyi (2017): Building Climate Resilience in Tanzania: Institutional Reform and Capacity Development
19) N. Rushford, D. Webster, L. Loiselle and P. Fehr (2016): Becoming Dementia-Friendly: Learning through Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation.
20) O. Otieno and J. Kennedy (2016): Perceived Effect of Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation on the Local Authority Service Delivery Action Planning (LASDAP) process in Bondo Sub-County, Kenya.

21) P. Thapa, P. and Ngwenya, B. Kaufmann (2017): The Concept of Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation; A tool for Making Farmer Groups Function Better-Appropriate Technology.
22) P. Shannon-Baker (2016): Making Paradigms Meaningful in Mixed Methods Research-Journal of Mixed Methods Research.
23) P. Bowles and G. White (2019): Political Economy of China's Financial Reforms: Finance in Late Development.

24) P.O Demetriades, P.L Rousseau (2016): The Changing Face of International Financial Development -Economics Letters, Rome, Italy.
25) S. De Vries (2018): Enhancing Participatory Democracy in Municipal Affairs through the Ward Committee System: Participatory M&E Approach.
26) S. Almalki (2016): Integrating Quantitative & Qualitative Data in Mixed Methods Research, Challenges and Benefits.
27) S.O Keya, W.O Kosura, A. Okeyo Mwai and T.K Kirina (2019): Prospects for Food Security in Kenya: Evidence from Five Counties, Nairobi, Kenya.
28) S. Pavithra, C.P Gracy & R. Saxena (2018): Innovations in Agricultural Marketing: A case Study of e-tendering system in Karnataka, India-Agricultural Economics.
29) T. Hart and L. Bank (2018): Urgent Interventions Needed to Build Capacity in District Land Reforms, Cape town, South Africa.
30) U. Matthiesen, (2017): Transformational pathways and Institutional Capacity Building: A case of German-Polish Twin City Governance& Institutional Capacity Program. Berlin, Germany.
31) World Bank (2019): Complexity of Managing Reform Interventions in the Context of Developing Economies, New York, USA.
32) Y. Dai, S Lin, H Zou (2019): Domestic Financial Reforms and Crisis Recoveries-International Journal of Finance
33) Z. Ismail (2019): The Public Sector Reform and Capacity Building in Small Island Developing States.