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Community Participation and Local Governance in Rural Development in Chikun LGA, Kaduna State, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

In Chikun Local Government Area (LGA) of Kaduna State, persistent rural development challenges such as low community involvement in development initiatives, limited awareness of local projects, and moderate trust in local governance have constrained the sustainability and effectiveness of development efforts. This study examines community participation and the effectiveness of local governance in fostering sustainable rural development in Chikun Local Government Area (LGA), Kaduna State. Using a descriptive research design, data were collected through structured questionnaires administered to 394 respondents selected from Gwagwada, Kakau, and Rido wards, with the sample determined using Taro Yamane's formula. Findings revealed that participation in development initiatives is generally low, with only 23% actively involved despite high willingness among residents. Awareness of local projects is limited, meeting attendance is irregular, and trust in local governance remains moderate. Key barriers include lack of awareness, financial constraints, low trust, political interference, and limited skills. Residents identified awareness campaigns, government support, capacity building, transparency, and more direct engagement platforms as strategies to improve participation. The study also found that insecurity, particularly banditry and kidnapping, as well as settler-indigene tensions, weaken trust and discourage community involvement. Strengthening communication, enhancing institutional support, and promoting inclusive decision-making are therefore essential to improving accountability and ensuring more sustainable rural development outcomes in Chikun LGA.

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1 Introduction

Community participation and local governance are widely recognized as essential components of sustainable rural development. Scholars emphasize that when community members take part in planning, implementing, and monitoring development initiatives, projects are more likely to reflect local priorities, improve resource allocation, and enhance social cohesion (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2021; Onodugo & Amujiri, 2015). Globally, the shift toward participatory governance has been driven by evidence showing that inclusive decision-making strengthens transparency, accountability, and long-term project sustainability, especially in rural areas where government presence and institutional capacity are often limited (African Development Bank (AfDB), 2020; Okeke & Adebayo, 2022). In many developing countries, including Nigeria, inadequate participation remains a major challenge to effective rural development, as weak communication channels, limited awareness, and low trust in local governance structures often prevent meaningful community involvement, resulting in poorly designed or unsustainable projects (Bello & Musa, 2021; Ugwuanyi & Ogbuene, 2017). Effective local governance is therefore critical because it provides the institutional framework through which community voices can influence development processes and outcomes

(Adebayo & Uthman, 2017), and strengthening participatory structures has become a key priority for enhancing rural development performance.

Across Africa, rural communities continue to face issues such as inadequate infrastructure, limited access to social services, and low civic engagement, challenges frequently linked to weak governance structures, insufficient funding, and limited community awareness (AfDB, 2020). Countries such as Nigeria, Ethiopia, and Kenya increasingly promote participatory approaches to ensure rural populations contribute to planning and implementing development projects, including those related to water supply, agriculture, transportation, and healthcare. In Nigeria, local government councils are responsible for initiating and managing development interventions; however, corruption, bureaucratic delays, inadequate funding, and limited technical capacity often undermine their effectiveness (Obisanya, 2024; Azumah, 2021). These structural limitations contribute to persistent development gaps, particularly in rural and peri-urban localities.

In Chikun LGA of Kaduna State, these governance challenges are compounded by a low level of community awareness and participation in development processes (Shittu, 2016; Ugwuanyi & Ogbuene, 2017). Many residents remain uninformed about ongoing projects or

avenues for contributing to decision-making, leading to poorly aligned interventions, underutilized resources, and infrastructure that is often incomplete or poorly maintained (Azumah, 2021; Onodugo & Amujiri, 2015). Importantly, the political economy of local governance in northern Nigeria adds a further layer of complexity. Chikun LGA has experienced prolonged settler-indigene tensions, recurring communal violence, population displacement, and heightened security-governance challenges following the post-2020 farmer-herder crisis. These dynamics significantly shape community trust, participation patterns, and access to development opportunities, as insecurity disrupts social cohesion and weakens local governance mechanisms.

Despite ongoing efforts to promote rural development in the area, community participation in Chikun LGA remains notably limited. Challenges such as inadequate awareness of development initiatives, financial constraints, low trust in governance structures, and exclusion from decision-making processes continue to undermine the sustainability and overall effectiveness of development projects. These issues constrain socio-economic progress and reduce the likelihood that community needs will be adequately addressed. Against this background, this study examines how residents participate in development initiatives, the barriers that hinder their engagement, and the overall effectiveness of local governance structures. By situating these issues within the broader political and security context of northern Nigeria, the study aims to identify practical strategies to strengthen participatory governance and improve the inclusiveness, accountability, and effectiveness of rural development initiatives in Chikun LGA and other conflict-affected regions.

1.1 Theoretical Framework

This study adopts Arnstein's (1969) "Ladder of Citizen Participation" as its theoretical framework. Arnstein's model conceptualizes participation as a hierarchy ranging from non-participation (manipulation, therapy) to tokenism (informing, consultation, placation) and finally to full citizen power (partnership, delegated power, citizen control). The model remains influential because it highlights the extent to which citizens can influence decision-making, making it a useful tool for assessing the depth and effectiveness of community involvement in rural development initiatives in Chikun LGA.

However, Arnstein's ladder has been criticized for being too simple. It assumes participation follows clear steps, but in reality, it is influenced by complex political and security issues. In northern Nigeria, where insecurity and settler-indigene tensions affect daily life, participation cannot be neatly arranged in levels. The

model also does not fully reflect modern ways in which communities and governments work together. Despite these weaknesses, Arnstein's ladder is still useful in this study because it helps show whether participation in Chikun LGA is genuine or only symbolic.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Study Area

Chikun Local Government Area (LGA) is located in Kaduna State, northwestern Nigeria, and comprises a mix of urban and rural settlements within the state's central zone. The LGA lies between latitudes 10°30'N and 10°58'N and longitudes 7°20'E and 7°50'E, an area characterized by gently undulating terrain that influences drainage patterns, settlement distribution, and accessibility (Kaduna State Government, 2020). Chikun forms part of the Northern Guinea Savanna ecological zone, with landforms and soils typical of the savanna belt, which shape agricultural activities and rural livelihoods. The study focuses on three wards, Gwagwada, Kakau, and Rido, selected to represent diverse rural communities within the LGA in terms of population distribution, land use, and exposure to development challenges (National Population Commission, 2006; Kaduna State Bureau of Statistics, 2021).

Chikun LGA lies in the tropical savanna (Aw) climate zone, with 1,000–1,500 mm of rainfall yearly, a rainy season from April to October, and a dry season from November to March (NiMet, 2020). Temperatures are highest around March–April and coolest during the harmattan. Most streams are seasonal, causing water shortages for households and farming (Areola *et al.*, 2016). The area sits on sedimentary materials such as sand and gravel, which influence drainage and groundwater (Offodile, 2002). Ferruginous tropical soils typical of the Northern Guinea Savanna support crops like maize and sorghum, while vegetation consists of scattered trees such as *Isoberlinia doka*, *Daniellia oliveri*, and *Parkia biglobosa*. However, farming expansion, fuelwood collection, and population pressure have led to deforestation and land degradation (Federal Ministry of Environment, 2018).

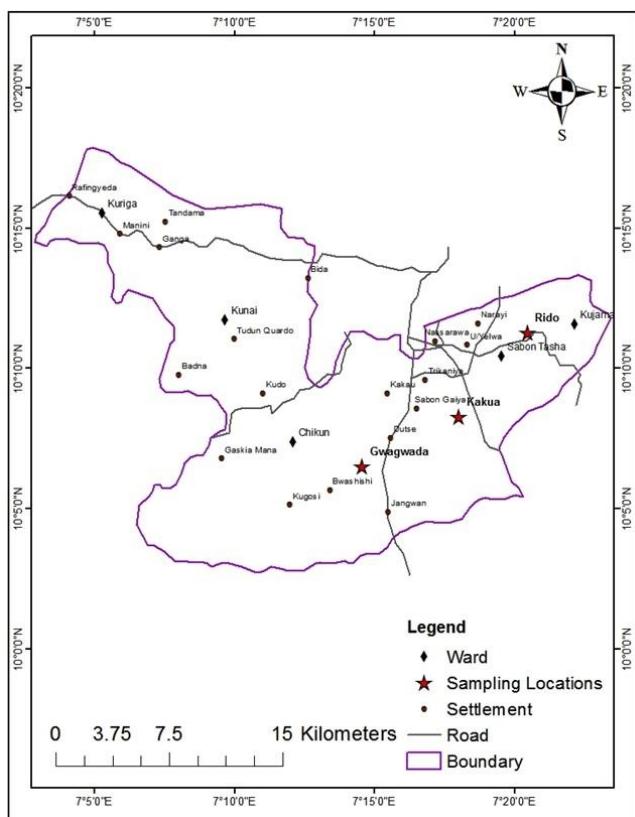


Figure 1: Chikun LGA Showing Sampling Locations

Source: KADGIS, 2025

2.2 Data Sources

The study used both primary and secondary data. Primary data were collected through structured questionnaires administered to residents across the selected wards. Secondary data were sourced from government publications, National Population Commission (NPC) records, Kaduna State Bureau of Statistics reports, and relevant academic literature on governance, participation, and rural development.

A 2025 projected population of 580,000 (NPC, 2006) for Chikun LGA was adopted, derived by applying the Kaduna State intercensal annual growth rate to the 2006 National Population Census figure. This projection is consistent with demographic trends reported by the Kaduna State Bureau of Statistics and aligns with the observed population increase in peri-urban LGAs surrounding the Kaduna metropolis.

2.3 Data Collection

A multistage sampling procedure was used for the study. Gwagwada, Kakau, and Rido wards were purposively selected based on their rural nature and accessibility. Household lists obtained from community leaders and local offices were used to develop sampling frames, after which households were selected systematically. One adult resident (18 years and above) was randomly chosen from each selected household to serve as the respondent.

Data were collected using a structured questionnaire

with five sections. These covered respondents' demographic characteristics, level of community participation, effectiveness of local governance, barriers to participation, and strategies for improving participatory governance. The questionnaire was pre-tested through a pilot survey in a nearby ward, and minor revisions were made to improve clarity. Reliability testing using Cronbach's alpha showed acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha \geq 0.70$).

2.4 Sample Size Determination

The sample size was calculated using Taro Yamane's (1967) formula, given in Eqn. (1):

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

Where; n = Sample size, N = Population size (580,000 projected for 2025), 1 = Constant, $(e)^2$ = Margin error (0.05)

Substituting the values:

$$n = \frac{580,000}{1 + 580,000(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{580,000}{1 + 1450}$$

$$n = \frac{580,000}{1451}$$

$$n = 399.724$$

$$\approx 400$$

This resulted in a sample size of approximately 400 respondents, which is statistically adequate for generalizing findings to the wider population.

2.5 Data Analysis

The data were cleaned, coded, and analyzed using descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages. In addition, cross-tabulation was applied as the primary analytical technique to compare responses across wards, gender, age groups, education levels, and occupations. This method allowed for deeper spatial and socio-demographic interpretation of community participation patterns, governance effectiveness, and barriers to engagement in Chikun LGA. All results were presented in cross-tabulated tables to enhance clarity and support detailed comparison.

3 Results

3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents in Chikun LGA.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents by Ward

| Category | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|---------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 52 | 55 | 54 | 54 |
| Female | 48 | 45 | 46 | 46 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Age Group | | | | |
| 18–30 | 26 | 29 | 27 | 27 |
| 31–45 | 51 | 45 | 50 | 49 |
| 46–60 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 19 |
| 60+ | 5 | 7 | 3 | 5 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Education | | | | |
| No formal education | 14 | 17 | 13 | 15 |
| Primary | 25 | 22 | 22 | 23 |
| Secondary | 37 | 37 | 35 | 36 |
| Tertiary | 24 | 24 | 30 | 26 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Occupation | | | | |
| Farming | 45 | 38 | 41 | 41 |
| Trading/Business | 23 | 27 | 27 | 26 |
| Civil Service | 19 | 20 | 23 | 21 |
| Others | 13 | 15 | 9 | 12 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 1 reveals that the respondents across Gwagwada, Kakau, and Rido wards are fairly balanced in terms of gender, with slightly more males (54%) than females (46%). Most respondents are in the active age group of 31–45 years (49%), followed by youths aged 18–30 (27%), while only a few are above 60 years. The table also indicates that many respondents have at least a secondary education (36%), and a good number have a tertiary education (26%), showing a moderate level of literacy. Farming is the major occupation (41%), followed by trading (26%) and civil service (21%). Overall, the table reveals that the population is mainly youthful, moderately educated, and engaged in productive activities, which supports their ability to participate in rural development.

3.2 Level of Community Participation in Rural Development Initiatives

Table 2 shows that the largest group of respondents (36%) was interested but not involved in development projects, followed by 22% who were not aware. Only 23% were active members, and 19% contributed financially. This means many people want to participate but lack the information or opportunity. This agrees with Ugwuanyi and Ogbuene (2017), who noted that poor communication limits real involvement in rural Nigeria. It also supports Arnstein's (1969) Ladder, where communities remain at the tokenism level, interested but without real influence.

Table 2: Participation in Rural Development Projects by Ward

| Participation Category | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|--------------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Active member | 23 | 24 | 22 | 23 |
| Financial contribution | 20 | 19 | 18 | 19 |
| Interested, not involved | 37 | 35 | 36 | 36 |
| Not aware | 20 | 22 | 24 | 22 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

The level of awareness of local development projects is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Awareness of Local Development Projects by Ward

| Awareness Category | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|--------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Fully aware | 29 | 27 | 27 | 27 |
| Partially aware | 33 | 35 | 34 | 34 |
| Not aware | 38 | 38 | 39 | 39 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 3 shows that most respondents (39%) were not aware of local development projects, while 34% were partially aware and only 27% were fully aware. This low awareness limits meaningful participation. Similar studies, such as Onodugo and Amujiri (2015), found that a lack of information is a major barrier to rural development. This places the community on the lower rung of Arnstein's Ladder, where information is limited, and participation is weak.

Table 4: Participation in Community Meetings by Ward

| Meeting Attendance | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|--------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Regularly | 26 | 23 | 22 | 22 |
| Occasionally | 37 | 37 | 37 | 37 |
| Rarely | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 |
| Never | 16 | 15 | 16 | 16 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 4 shows that the highest number of respondents (37%) attended community meetings occasionally, followed by 25% who rarely attended. Only 22% attended regularly, and 16% never attended. This means community meetings are not fully used as participation platforms. This agrees with Shittu (2016), who noted weak mobilization in rural areas. On Arnstein's Ladder, this reflects token participation, where people are consulted sometimes but lack strong involvement.



Table 5: Willingness to Participate in Future Development Projects by Ward

| Willingness Level | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|-------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Very willing | 36 | 36 | 36 | 36 |
| Somewhat willing | 32 | 33 | 33 | 32 |
| Not willing | 18 | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| Undecided | 14 | 14 | 14 | 15 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 5 shows that most respondents were very willing (36%) or somewhat willing (32%) to join future development projects. Only 17% were not willing, and 15% were undecided. This shows a high interest in participating if barriers are removed. Studies like Bello and Musa (2021) confirm that rural residents are willing when given the chance. This willingness suggests the community could move to the partnership level on Arnstein's Ladder if better structures for involvement are provided.

3.3 Effectiveness of Local Governance Structures in Facilitating Development

The effectiveness of local governance structures in facilitating development is presented in the tables below.

Table 6: Perception of Local Governance by Ward

| Governance Rating | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|-------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Very effective | 16 | 16 | 17 | 16 |
| Effective | 34 | 33 | 33 | 34 |
| Fair | 28 | 27 | 28 | 28 |
| Ineffective | 22 | 24 | 22 | 22 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 6 shows that most respondents (34%) rated local governance as effective, followed by 28% who rated it fair. Fewer respondents saw it as ineffective (22%), and only 16% felt it was very effective. This means people believe the local government is doing an average job. This agrees with Adebayo and Uthman (2017), who found that rural governance works but has many weaknesses. On Arnstein's Ladder, this reflects token participation, where citizens benefit from some actions but have limited decision-making influence.

Table 7: Satisfaction with Local Government Services by Ward

| Satisfaction Level | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|--------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Very satisfied | 18 | 19 | 18 | 18 |
| Satisfied | 35 | 35 | 36 | 35 |
| Neutral | 27 | 26 | 27 | 26 |
| Dissatisfied | 20 | 20 | 19 | 21 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 7 shows that the highest number of respondents (35%) were satisfied with local government services, followed by 26% who were neutral. About 21% were dissatisfied, while only 18% were very satisfied. This suggests service delivery is average, not excellent. This supports Obisanya (2024), who noted that many rural areas receive services, but they are often inadequate. On Arnstein's Ladder, this still reflects limited participation, where services exist but without strong community input.

Table 8: Trust in Local Government Officials by Ward

| Trust Level | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|----------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| High trust | 22 | 23 | 22 | 22 |
| Moderate trust | 36 | 36 | 36 | 36 |
| Low trust | 25 | 24 | 24 | 24 |
| No trust | 17 | 17 | 18 | 18 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 8 shows that most respondents (36%) had moderate trust in local government officials, followed by 24% with low trust. Only 22% had high trust, and 18% had no trust. This means trust in local leaders is generally weak. This agrees with Bello and Musa (2021), who found that poor communication reduces confidence in rural governance. On Arnstein's Ladder, this places the community at the lower rungs, where officials hold most of the power.

Table 9: Perceived Responsiveness of Local Government by Ward

| Responsiveness | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|-------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Very responsive | 19 | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| Responsive | 34 | 34 | 35 | 34 |
| Fairly responsive | 29 | 27 | 27 | 27 |
| Unresponsive | 19 | 22 | 21 | 22 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 9 shows that the largest group (34%) rated the local government as responsive, followed by 27% who called it fairly responsive. Meanwhile, 22% saw it as unresponsive, and only 17% felt it was very responsive. This shows the government responds sometimes, but not consistently. This supports AfDB (2020), which noted that rural councils often respond slowly due to weak capacity. On Arnstein's Ladder, this reflects mid-level participation, where citizens are heard but still lack strong influence.

3.4 Barriers Preventing Active Community Involvement

The barriers preventing active community involvement in the area are presented in the tables below.

Table 10: Barriers to Participation by Ward

| Barrier | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|-----------------------------|--------------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| Lack of awareness | 28 | 27 | 29 | 27 |
| Financial constraints | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 |
| Low trust in local projects | 20 | 21 | 19 | 21 |
| Political interference | 14 | 15 | 16 | 14 |
| Limited skills/knowledge | 14 | 13 | 12 | 14 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 10 shows that the biggest barrier was lack of awareness (27%), followed by financial constraints (24%). Other barriers were low trust (21%), political interference (14%), and limited skills (14%). This means people mainly fail to participate because they are not informed or cannot afford it. This agrees with studies showing poor communication limits participation, and on Arnstein's Ladder, these barriers keep people at the lower levels of involvement.

Table 11: Main Source of Information by Ward

| Information Source | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|--------------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Community meetings | 32 | 36 | 33 | 33 |
| Local govt announcements | 26 | 27 | 28 | 27 |
| Word of mouth | 25 | 25 | 23 | 25 |
| Media | 17 | 12 | 16 | 15 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 11 shows that most respondents got information from community meetings (33%), followed by local government announcements (27%). Others relied on word of mouth (25%) and media (15%). This means local, face-to-face communication is the main information source. This supports studies that rural areas depend on direct communication. On Arnstein's Ladder, this shows information flow is still top-down.

Table 12: Perceived Importance of Participation by Ward

| Importance Category | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|---------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Very important | 43 | 42 | 39 | 42 |
| Important | 36 | 37 | 36 | 37 |
| Somewhat important | 14 | 13 | 18 | 15 |
| Not important | 7 | 8 | 6 | 6 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 12 shows that most respondents believed participation is very important (42%) or important (37%). Only a few saw it as somewhat important (15%) or not important (6%). This means people clearly value participation. This supports studies showing

communities want to be involved. On Arnstein's Ladder, this shows strong readiness for higher levels of participation.

Table 13: Willingness to Overcome Barriers by Ward

| Willingness Category | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|----------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Very willing | 35 | 34 | 33 | 34 |
| Somewhat willing | 31 | 31 | 30 | 30 |
| Not willing | 20 | 19 | 21 | 20 |
| Undecided | 14 | 16 | 16 | 16 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 13 shows that most respondents were very willing (34%) or somewhat willing (30%) to overcome participation barriers. Fewer were not willing (20%) or undecided (16%). This means people want to participate more if obstacles are removed. This supports studies showing high willingness but limited opportunities. On Arnstein's Ladder, this indicates potential for moving toward partnership if proper support is provided.

3.5 Strategies to Strengthen Participatory Governance for Sustainable Rural Development

The strategies to strengthen participatory governance for sustainable rural development in the area are presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Recommended Strategies by Ward

| Strategy | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Awareness campaigns | 31 | 31 | 33 | 32 |
| Govt. support for community projects | 25 | 26 | 24 | 25 |
| Capacity building/Training | 22 | 21 | 20 | 21 |
| Transparent project management | 22 | 22 | 23 | 22 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 14 shows that the most recommended strategy was awareness campaigns (32%), followed by government support for community projects (25%). Other strategies suggested were transparent project management (22%) and capacity building (21%). This means people believe better information and stronger government backing are key to improving participation. This supports studies showing that awareness and support systems improve rural involvement. On Arnstein's Ladder, better awareness helps communities move from low information levels to more meaningful participation.

**Table 15: Preferred Mode of Engagement by Ward**

| Mode of Engagement | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|--------------------|--------------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| Community meetings | 35 | 33 | 34 | 34 |
| FGDs | 25 | 29 | 25 | 26 |
| Workshops/training | 22 | 21 | 20 | 21 |
| Suggestion boxes | 18 | 17 | 21 | 19 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 15 shows that most respondents preferred community meetings (34%) as their main mode of engagement, followed by FGDs (26%). Others preferred workshops (21%) and suggestion boxes (19%). This means people favour face-to-face interaction for expressing their views. This agrees with studies noting that rural communities rely heavily on direct communication. On Arnstein's Ladder, this preference supports moving toward higher involvement when engagement is interactive and open.

Table 16: Level of Community Willingness to Participate

| Willingness | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Very willing | 38 | 39 | 36 | 38 |
| Somewhat willing | 35 | 33 | 33 | 34 |
| Not willing | 18 | 17 | 17 | 18 |
| Undecided | 9 | 11 | 14 | 10 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 16 shows that most respondents were very willing to participate (38%), followed by 34% who were somewhat willing. Only 18% were not willing, and 10% were undecided. This means community members are ready to participate more actively in development projects. This supports findings that rural residents show a high interest when included. On Arnstein's Ladder, this strong willingness indicates readiness to move toward partnership-level participation if the right structures exist.

Table 17: Perceived Role of Government in Strengthening Participation

| Role of Government | Gwagwada (%) | Kakau (%) | Rido (%) | Total (%) |
|---------------------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Provide funding | 32 | 33 | 30 | 31 |
| Support capacity building | 28 | 26 | 27 | 27 |
| Facilitate transparency | 23 | 23 | 23 | 23 |
| Encourage community initiatives | 17 | 18 | 20 | 19 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 17 shows that the top roles expected from the government were to provide funding (31%), followed by supporting capacity building (27%). Other important roles were facilitating transparency (23%) and encouraging community initiatives (19%). This means communities expect financial support and clearer processes to improve participation. This aligns with studies showing that stronger institutions help improve rural governance. On Arnstein's Ladder, these roles would help communities shift from token involvement toward more shared decision-making.

4 Discussions

The findings of this study reveal that community participation in Gwagwada, Kakau, & Rido wards remains generally low, primarily due to limited awareness of development initiatives, irregular attendance at community meetings, and only moderate trust in local government officials, despite a high willingness to participate. This pattern aligns with previous studies in rural Nigeria, which highlight that inadequate information flow and weak mobilization mechanisms constrain effective community involvement in development processes (Onodugo & Amujiri, 2015; Ugwuanyi & Ogbuene, 2017; Bello & Musa, 2021). Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation further explains this situation, as most observed engagement reflects tokenism, where communities are informed or consulted but have limited influence over decision-making. Additionally, insecurity in Chikun LGA, particularly banditry, kidnapping, and communal violence, discourages public gatherings and weakens trust in governance structures, a trend also noted in Kaduna State and other conflict-affected areas of northern Nigeria (African Development Bank, 2020; Obisanya, 2024). Persistent settler-indigene tensions further reduce cooperation and participation, as some groups feel marginalized or excluded from development initiatives (Shittu, 2016; Azumah, 2021). Overall, while residents demonstrate strong willingness to participate, insecurity, social divisions, and weak governance practices remain major obstacles to translating this willingness into active and sustained engagement.

5 Conclusion

This study shows that community participation in rural development across Gwagwada, Kakau, and Rido remains low to moderate, largely due to limited awareness, irregular engagement, weak trust in local officials, and broader contextual issues such as insecurity and settler-indigene tensions. Although most residents demonstrated strong willingness to participate, actual involvement in projects, meetings, and decision-making

processes remains restricted, placing the communities on the lower levels of Arnstein's participation ladder. The findings also highlight that while governance structures exist, they are not sufficiently inclusive or transparent to encourage active and meaningful involvement. Insecurity, especially banditry and fear of kidnapping, has significantly disrupted participation, while social divisions have further weakened trust and cooperation among community members.

To strengthen participatory governance in Chikun LGA, local authorities and community leaders should prioritize effective awareness campaigns, consistent information-sharing, and regular community meetings to improve access to development information. Government support should focus on funding, capacity building, and transparent project management to rebuild

trust and promote inclusiveness, especially in communities affected by insecurity. Addressing safety concerns through improved security presence and community-based security initiatives will help restore confidence and allow residents to engage more freely in development activities. Finally, inclusive platforms that bridge settler-indigene divides, such as joint committees and dialogue forums, should be encouraged to promote unity, ensure fair representation, and support long-term sustainable rural development.

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