

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING AND THE
MANAGEMENT OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL ALLIANCE (CSA)
PROJECT IN AJUMAKO-ENYAN-ESSIAM DISTRICT

KARIKARI KWAKU AMOAH

2013

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING AND THE
MANAGEMENT OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL ALLIANCE (CSA)
PROJECT IN AJUMAKO-ENYAN-ESSIAM DISTRICT

BY

KARIKARI KWAKU AMOAH

THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
OF THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF CAPE
COAST IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
AWARD OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN DEVELOPMENT
STUDIES

JANUARY 2013

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Name:

Signature:.....

Date:.....

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Name:

Signature:.....

Date.....

Co-supervisor's Name:

Signature:.....

Date.....

ABSTRACT

This is a case study of how community members were involved in the planning and management of the Community School Alliance (CSA) project in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District (AEED). The main objective was to evaluate the nature and importance of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA project in AEED.

The design of the study was evaluative, descriptive and cross sectional in nature. In all, four partnership school communities, namely Aworodo, Bisiase, Essiam and Fawomanye, were studied to find out how the communities were involved in the CSA project. The main stakeholders of the project were the CSA, the District Education Office (DEO), and the communities. The lottery method of simple random sampling technique was used to select 100 community members. Purposive sampling was also adopted to select three staff from the CSA, DEO and the AEEDA. In total, a sample of 185 was used for the study. Structured questionnaire, interview schedules and focus group discussion guides were used to collect data from the respondents of the study.

Findings from the study indicated that the utilization of local resources, training and supervision as well as the use of existing community based group and institutions helped in the successful implementation and maintenance of the community based projects, in all four communities.

It is, therefore, recommended that communities should be encouraged to identify their own project so as to take advantage of the strong relationship between project identification and implementation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincerest appreciation goes to my supervisors, Prof. C.K. Brown and Dr. Patrick Agbesinyale, for the immense support, care and direction. My thanks also go to all the lecturers at the Institute of Development Studies and my course mates who encouraged and supported me.

I also want to use this opportunity to thank the community members in the project communities as well as the staff of the District Education Office and District Assembly for the support. I got immense support from the staff of the Community School Alliance Project (CSA). My gratitude also goes to my parents, siblings, wife and children for the encouragement and support. Any errors, omissions, defects or misrepresentations remain exclusively mine.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, my wife, children and my siblings

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xiii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background to the study	1
Statement of the problem	6
Objectives of the study	8
Research questions	8
Scope of the study	9
Significance of the study	9
Operational definition of terms	10
Organisation of the thesis	10

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction	12
--------------	----

The concept of participation	12
Theory of participatory development	18
Ladder of participation	20
Participatory development approach	22
Obstacles to participation	29
Structural obstacles	30
Administrative obstacles	31
Social obstacles	33
Community participation	35
Factors that affect community participation	37
Importance of community participation	40
Weaknesses of community participation	46
Community participation in the project cycle	48
Community participation in Ghana	51
Project planning and management	54
The Community Schools Alliance (CSA) project	55
Concept of sustainable development	59
Protection and carrying capacity: Environmental aspects	62
Empowerment and poverty problems: Social aspects	63
Economic liability to the environment: Economic aspects	63
Conceptual framework for the linkage between community participation in project planning and sustainable development	64

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction	67
Research design	67
Study area	68
Study population	70
Sampling procedures and sample size	71
Sources of data	73
Instrumentation	74
Pre-test	74
Ethical procedure	75
Fieldwork	75
Field challenges	78
Data processing and analysis	79

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction	80
Background characteristics of respondents	80
Length of stay of community members in the communities	83
Community members' knowledge of the QUIPS programme	84
Nature of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED	85
Reasons for community contribution	88
The approach used in the CSA project	89

The involvement of community-based stakeholders in the CSA Project	92
Level of involvement of the various community-based stakeholders	94
Contribution of the community towards the CSA	95
Factors that affect community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED	96
How community participation promotes effective project planning and management	101

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction	104
Summary	104
Conclusions	108
Recommendations	109
Areas for further study	109
REFERENCES	111

APPENDICES

A	Questionnaire for District Education Office Staff	122
B	Questionnaire for District Assembly Staff	128
C	Questionnaire for Staff of the CSA Project	135
D	Interview Schedule for Teachers	140
E	Interview Schedule for Community Members	146
F	Focus Group Discussion Guide for SMC and PTA	153

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Adult population of the beneficiary communities	71
2	Distribution of community members	72
3	Sampling distribution of respondents for the study	73
4	Composition of focus group discussion groups	77
5	Sex distribution of respondents	81
6	Age-sex distribution of community members	82
7	Length of stay in the community by sex of the community members	83
8	Community members' knowledge of the QUIPS programme	84
9	Resources contributed by PSCs in support of the CSA Project	87
10	Reasons for community contribution to the project	88
11	Community members' knowledge on the approach used by the CSA	90
12	Community members' knowledge of the Community School Alliance project	91
13	The involvement of community-based stakeholders in the CSA Project	93
14	Level of involvement of the various community-based Stakeholders	94
15	Contribution of the community towards the projects	96
16	Factors that positively affected community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project	97

17	Factors that negatively affected community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project	98
18	Strengths of community participation	99
19	Weaknesses of community participation	101

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Shifts in participation from 1950s to 21st Century	19
2	Ladder of participation	22
3	The three rings of sustainable development	62
4	Conceptual framework for the linkage between communities	
	Participation in project planning and sustainable development	65

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AEED	Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CSA	Community School Alliance
C-SIP	Community School Improvement
DA	District Assembly,
DEO	District Education Office
DGEO	District Girls Education Officer
DTO	District Training Officer
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GES	Ghana Education Service
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service,
IDS	Institute for Development Studies
IEC	Information Education Communication
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
PLA	Participatory Learning and Action
PME	Performance Monitoring and Evaluation.
PNDC	Provision National Defense Councils
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PSC	Partnership School Community
PTA	Parents Teachers Association
QUIPS	Quality Improvement in Primary Schools
SHEP	School Health Education Programme

SMC	School Management Committee
SPSS	Statistical Product and Service Solutions
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WCARRD	World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development
WSDB	Water and Sanitation Development Board

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

People today have an urge- an impatient urge- to participate in the events and processes that shape their lives. And that impatience brings many dangers and opportunities (UNDP 1993). In order for pro-poor development to become a reality, poor people themselves must not only be involved as respondents, but must also have access to the information generated, a role in its analysis and in identifying the practical implications for change (Chambers & Mayoux, 2005). The need for stakeholder ownership is now well established within the donor community. This is based on the fact that people are the central theme of projects. They are the actors, the beneficiaries or the victims. The essence of people's involvement in the development process is enhanced through their participation in the financing of projects. This generates a sense of ownership and awareness to share responsibility for the future organisation and management of project investment (Barbisa, 1995; Oakley, 1991).

Ownership of a project by stakeholders involves ensuring the widest possible participation of those who are supposed to be the beneficiaries of the project. The essence of ownership is that the recipients drive the process. That is, they drive the planning, designing, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of

the project. Initiating and organising for development means that the people should participate in all facets of the project cycle. Projects are implemented by people and for people. Even where they are not the actors, they may become the beneficiaries or the victims. It is, therefore, essential to include them in the planning process.

Projects are the building blocks of a development plan. Projects must be started or identified and prepared; and there is the need to undertake feasibility studies to ascertain the viability and the sustainability of projects before implementation. At the implementation stage, projects must be monitored and evaluated to ensure that they are on course and set goals are being attained.

Effective project planning and management has been a problem for developing countries for decades. Development projects on water and sanitation, health, agriculture and education, provided for communities, were based on what urban-based planners felt were the needs of these people. The popular thinking among the urban-based planners was that rural people were poor, backward, and primitive and believed in tradition. Based on the above, these planners viewed them as old fashioned and, for that matter, they lacked the ability to think and develop their communities (Chambers, 1994).

As a result, it was common for community members to wake up to see facilities like bore holes, market centres, health post, schools and toilets (Kumasi Ventilated Improvement Pit), constructed behind their windows by governmental and non-governmental organisations for them. The concomitant effect of this approach to development was that such projects were not sustainable. Rather, in

the view of Chambers (1983), urban-based professionals and officials not only do not know the rural reality; worse, they do not know that they do not know.

This top-down approach made it difficult for community members to identify themselves with such projects leading to their unwillingness to contribute materially and non-materially to their maintenance and management. Also, such projects were wrongly sited and, therefore, the supposed beneficiaries felt reluctant to patronise them. Again, some of the technologies were not user-friendly and were also inimical to the physical environment.

In brief, urban-based planners prescribed inappropriate antidotes to community problems, which, therefore, affected the planning and management of development projects at the community level. The limited successes achieved by these development initiatives, based on the top-down approach, were attributed to the failure to involve beneficiaries in the design and implementation of these projects and programmes (Cernea, 1991; Egerton University, 2000).

Though it is impossible to pinpoint changes in development thinking with any historical accuracy, there is no doubt that the mid-1970s saw a start of a fundamental shift away from the domination of the top-down approach to development thinking and intervention towards a systematic search for alternatives. The past twenty years witnessed a searching re-examination of the nature and purpose of development, and this re-examination has correspondingly influenced practice. The literature, which has recorded this re-examination, is prodigious, and many academics have immersed themselves in the new theoretical and conceptual horizon that has been provided. The re-examination

threw up a whole new form of analysis-dependency theory that has steadily influenced the different dimensions of development interventions. The work of Hague (1977) was instrumental in giving structure to this re-thinking and this has been further developed by successive researchers such as Pearse and Stiefel (1979), Galjart (1981), Bhasin (1985), Verhagen (1985) and Oakley (1991). The central theme for this search for a development alternative was that development has become capital-centred; it had by-passed or even marginalised people in its concern to build and construct. The counter-argument stated that, although physical development was important, it must be approached in such a way that people had both a central role and some control over it (Oakley, 1991).

While it is possible to show that many of these capital-centred efforts have improved the lives of some rural people, in most Third World countries, the majority has benefited a little or has even become worse off. Schumacher (1973) and (Economic Commission of Latin America, 1973) has argued that development did not start with these physical goods but “with people and their education, organisation, and discipline”. In other words, people should be central to any kind of development process. This capital-oriented development helped to improve the material livelihood of some and to develop their talents, skills and abilities, but it has not been successful in promoting people’s involvement in the development process (Oakley, 1991).

The failures of the top-down approach led to the emergence of a new paradigm to development often called participatory development. This approach begins with the assumption that “sustainable development ultimately depends on

enhancing people's capacities as individuals and as groups to improve their own lives and to take greater control over their own destinies" (Nyerere, 1968). The participatory development strategy encourages the involvement of beneficiaries in the design and implementation of community development projects. This makes the beneficiary communities directly involved in their development.

According to Ellison (1997), it is rare to find a development strategy these days which does not refer to community participation. A body of evidence confirms that community participation in the initiation, planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation leads to sustainable development. Policies of many developing countries, governments and donors have emphasised on the need to increase the access of the beneficiaries to development services. For communities to continue developing there is the need to pay more attention to strategies that will encourage and empower the beneficiaries to manage, maintain and sustain their development, in the absence of development partners. Hence, active participation in sustainable development ensures that those who are affected by the changes are the ones determining the changes. The result according to Evans (1997) is the enjoyment and sharing of the benefits and products generated by the change. Participation is not exclusive, ensuring equitable input, self-determination and empowerment of both genders and all races and cultural groups.

The essence of people's involvement in the development process is enhanced through their participation in the financing of projects. This generates a sense of ownership and awareness to share responsibility for the future organisation and management of project investment (Oakley, 1991; Barbisa,

1995). How this is best achieved is often based on the approach and strategy used in implementing the projects. It is, therefore, necessary to reinforce the concern by highlighting the role that community participation can play in planning and managing developmental projects like the Community Schools Alliance projects in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District (AEED).

The Community Schools Alliance (CSA) was formed to encourage policy formulators to work with school boards, municipal and district councils to develop a better system for making decisions about school projects in various communities. The Alliance aims at promoting districts and municipal councils to have a more meaningful role in those decisions. It provides opportunity for school boards and municipalities to work together to develop policies addressing issues such as planning for declining enrolments, a review of funding to rural and small community schools and establishing a working relationship between municipalities and school boards that provides transparency and accountability (CSA, 2004).

Statement of the problem

The community participation approach to development encourages the involvement of all the stakeholders in the design and implementation of projects. Before the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) government's introduction of the decentralisation policy in Ghana, power and authority as well as the distribution of resources were centralised in the national capital. The community participation approach came into being as a result of the emergence of

the participatory development approach. Fowler (1998) indicates that community participation ensures that beneficiaries are involved in their own development so that they would not only have a say in their development but also be able to take charge and control of the management of such projects in their communities. According to the strongest advocates of participatory development, 'normal' development is characterised by biases which are disempowering (Peet & Watts, 1996).

Ever since the introduction of the community participation approach to project planning and management, the expected gains seem to be fizzling into a grand illusion. Community participation has become a tool to manipulate local people to "rubber-stamp" preconceived ideas of the urban elite and international institutions. Community members have been compelled to forgo their economic activities and attend long meetings which, at the end of the day, have little or no impact on the predetermined stands of these facilitating agencies.

It is clear that development partners leave out the beneficiaries in the planning and management of projects and, for that matter; there is minimal involvement of community members in the planning and management of community development projects. The absence of such coordination between the various stakeholders has made it very difficult for development projects to be well managed in the absence of the facilitating agency.

Chambers (1983) and Hirschmann (2003) intimated that 'putting the last first' was the only way to achieve rural development. This study seeks to evaluate the nature and importance of community participation in the planning and

management of the Community Schools Alliance (CSA) Project in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District (AEED).

Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study is to evaluate the nature and importance of community participation in the planning and management of the Community Schools Alliance (CSA) Project in the AEED.

Specifically, the study is intended to:

1. Examine the nature of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED;
2. Determine the factors that affect community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED;
3. Evaluate how community participation promotes effective project planning and management; and
4. Recommend strategies that will improve the functioning of the CSA Project.

Research questions

The research considers the following questions:

1. What is the nature of community participation in project planning and management in the CSA Project in the AEED?
2. What factors affect community participation in project planning and management in the CSA Project in the AEED?

3. How does community participation promote effective project planning and management?

Scope of the study

The study centred on community participation in the planning and management of the Community School Alliance Project in Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District. The study was restricted to the four Partnership School Communities (PSCs) of the Community School Alliance (CSA) Project in the district, namely: Besease, Aworodo, Fawomwnye and Esiam.

Significance of the study

Most NGOs and even governmental organisations in the district have implemented projects which are now white elephants. Examples of such projects include a KVIP project in Enyan Denkyira, a market at Nyamebekyere and a guest house in Enyan Kwanyarko. Though there had been studies on project planning in NGOs and community development, studies on the planning and management in the CSA Project are yet to be done. The study, therefore, looked at the peculiar nature of project planning and management in the CSA Project and also adds new knowledge to existing literature in order to enhance the planning and management processes in community development in the A.E.E.D.

The study also looked at the community participation approach to development and this will serve as a learning material for community

development workers, District Assemblies and NGOs. This will no doubt enhance the value of community project to last longer and benefit the people greatly.

Operational definition of terms

Community: The lowest level of aggregation at which people are organised for a common effort or goal.

Participation: A process in which beneficiary or client groups influence the direction and execution of a development project with the view to enhancing their well being in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance or other values they cherish.

Planning: It is an advanced and conscious way of allocating scarce resources to achieve desirable goals.

Project Planning: An activity or a set of related activities which are implemented as an identifiable whole.

Management: It refers to utilising resources efficiently and effectively to achieve the desired outputs.

Organisation of the thesis

The thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter One looks at the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, scope of the study, significance of the study and the operational definition of terms as well as organisation of the thesis.

Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature on the concepts and subject matter of the study. An overview of the Community School Alliance Project and the conceptual framework for the study are also found in this chapter. The third chapter deals with the methodology of the study. It includes the research design, study area, study population, sampling procedures and sample size, sources of data, instrumentation, pre-test, the fieldwork, field challenges, and data processing and analysis.

Chapter Four covers the results and discussion of the study. It focuses on the background characteristics of respondents, nature of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project, the factors that affect community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project, and how community participation promotes effective project planning and management. Chapter Five provides the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature on the concept of participation and the theory of participatory development. It also consists of community participation, factors that affect community participation, importance of community participation, weaknesses of community participation, and community participation in project cycle. The chapter also looked at community participation in Ghana, project planning and management, the Community Schools Alliance Project (CSA), concept of sustainable development and finally the conceptual framework for the study.

The concept of participation

The concept of participation does not have a universal definition. However, it can be understood on the basis of different ideologies which reflect the goals that participation might achieve (Chilisa and Preece, 2005). Participation can be understood as instrumental or transformative in the achievement of an agenda or programme. On one hand, participation is regarded as instrumental whereby it increases the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of formal development programmes (Mayo & Craig, 1995). The broad goals of

development are valid but institutional practices are not working. However, this can be improved by direct involvement of the beneficiaries. On the other hand, participation is seen as part of a more transformative agenda which might be anti-developmental (Esteva & Prekash, 1998). Thus, development itself is flawed, and only by valorising other non-hegemonic voices that meaningful social change occurs.

According to Cohen and Uphoff (1977), participation can be interpreted as sensitising people to make them more responsive to development programmes and to encourage local initiatives and self-help; involving people as much as possible actively in the decision-making process which regards their development; organising group action to give to hitherto excluded disadvantaged people control over resources, access to services and/or bargaining power; promoting the involvement of people in the planning and implementation of development efforts as well as in the sharing of their benefits; and in more general, descriptive terms; the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions which enhance their well-being, e.g. their income, security or self-esteem.

Much as the various definitions of participation vary in focus and levels of community development there are some key principles that they have in common. They all agree that participation is: Not sought through coercion; human-centred; involvement of people in decision-making; and collective sharing of the fruit of development interventions (Oakley & Marsden, 1984; Kropp, 1984).

Participation has been categorised in three broad forms as contribution, organisation and empowerment (Oakley, 1991). Participation as contribution is the dominant interpretation. Participation in development projects in the Third World is seen as voluntary or other forms of contribution by rural people to predetermined programmes and projects. Health, water supply, education, forestry, environment, infrastructural and natural resource conservation projects, for example, predominantly stress rural people's contributions.

There has been a long argument in the development literature and practice that organisation is a fundamental instrument of participation. Few would dispute the contention but would disagree on the nature and evolution of the organisation. The distinction lies between the origin of the organisational form which will serve as the vehicle for participation; either such organisations are externally conceived and introduced such as co-operatives, farmers' associations, irrigation management committees, school management committees or they emerge themselves as a result of participation. In this respect, Vehagen's (1985) work interestingly shows how even formal organisations, such as co-operatives, can emerge as a result of a participatory process.

Increasingly in the past thirty years, the notion that participation is an exercise of empowering rural people has gained wider support. In 1979, the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD) emphasised the importance of a transfer of power as implicit, in participation. Since then, 'empowering' has become an accepted term in the development lexicon. It is, however, a term that is difficult to define and it gives rise to

alternative explanations. Some see empowering as the development of skills and abilities to enable rural people to manage better, have a say in, or negotiate with, existing development delivery system. It is also seen as more fundamental and essentially concerned with enabling rural people to decide upon and to take the actions which they believe are essential to their development. Whatever the disagreements in perspective, the relationship between participation and power is now widely recognised.

It is not possible to treat the above as discrete and inseparable categories. A development project might ostensibly contain elements of all three, although this is highly unlikely. A broad and recognisable distinction could be drawn, however, between participation as contribution and the others. Certainly, organisation is a fundamental ingredient of a process of empowerment. Similarly, it is often a prerequisite to local people's contribution. Practice however, suggests that we can identify a dominant line of action in projects which promote participation; and contribution, organisation and empowering are those lines (Mohan & Stokke, 2000; Oakley, 1991).

The practice of participation does not occur in a vacuum. On the contrary, it is susceptible, in both negative and positive ways, to a range of influences. A number of studies are emerging which suggest problems with the practice of participation or, more fundamentally, serious obstacles which can frustrate attempts at participatory development (Lister, 1998). Looking at the evidence, Oakley (1991) states that the obstacles can be examined under the following sub headings: structural, administrative and social obstacles.

The political environment in a particular country can, in some circumstances, be supportive of the process of participation and vice versa. Where the prevailing ideology does not encourage openness, and decision-making are strictly controlled, the prevailing political environment will not be conducive to genuine participation (Oakley, 1991). Furthermore, centralised political systems that lay less emphasis upon local mechanisms for administration and decision-making can greatly reduce the potential for authentic participation (Little & Mirless, 1974). More specifically, the existing legal system within a country can seriously frustrate efforts to promote participation. This can function in two ways (Oakley, 1991).

Centralised governments encourage centralised administrative structures which, by their very nature, are major obstacles to people's participation. These administrative structures retain control over decision-making, resource allocation and the information and knowledge which rural people will require if they are to play an effective part in development activities. Administrators in such structures tend to have a negative attitude towards the whole notion of people's participation, which is often manifested as arrogance and disbelief that rural people can ever assume responsibility for administrative matters. The result is that administrative procedures often become a minefield and an effective deterrent to rural people seeking direct involvement in or assistance from local administration. For people whose struggle for livelihood demands most of their time, such procedures cannot be afforded (Oakley, 1991). Korten (1980), however, sees the main obstacle to participation within the external donor agency where centralised

decision-making, inappropriate attitudes and skills of project staff and frequent transfers of personnel render the implementation of a demanding and subtle process such as participation extremely difficult.

Probably the most frequent and powerful social obstacle to the participation of rural people in development projects is a mentality of dependence which is deeply and historically ingrained in their lives. In many Third World countries rural people for generations have been dominated by and dependent upon local elite groups (Mohan & Strokke, 2000). In practice this has meant that the rural people have become accustomed to leaving decisions and initiatives to their “leaders”. The lack of leadership and organisational skills, and the consequent inexperience in running projects or organisations, leaves most rural people incapable of responding to the demands of participation. This state of affairs has been reinforced in many instances by hand outs and actions which have not encouraged them to take initiatives themselves. These result in a widespread marginalisation of rural people from the activities of rural development, which in turn, leads to the lack of confidence and ultimately to a psychology of despair, according to Oltheten (1999). In this context, therefore, the very notion of participation is far removed from reality and is almost unintelligible to rural people who have never before been invited to share in the activities and benefits previously dominated by others (Oakley, 1991).

The important issue to stress here is that participation, whatever form or direction it might take, cannot be regarded simply as some kind of physical or tangible input into a development project. Any form of participation occurs within

a particular context and will be influenced by the economic and social forces that mould that context (Nelson & Wright, 1995). Furthermore, simply to proclaim a commitment to participation will not ensure its unchanged passage. Inevitably the deliberate encouragement of a process of participation will be a “new idea” and contrary to their accustomed role in development, or on the part of official or other interest who may regard it as a threat to their position. In either case, participation will not be an effortless procedure (Narayan et al, 2000).

Theory of participatory development

Cornwall (2002) specifically called attention to the shift in how participants were viewed from being merely a beneficiary, people became consumers, and with the last shift, they became citizens. What one has also come across is that participatory development has moved from project initiatives to the public sphere of policies. First, mostly NGOs worked with participatory methods in small communities. When these methods became institutionalised in the 1990s, policies have taken grip of participatory methods as well. The scale of participation thus moved from micro to macro. Another change that can be observed is that participation first only took place in appraisal, and later extended to the implementation phase, and monitoring and evaluation phase of the project/policy cycle. Another modification as indicated in Figure 1 was that participation was no longer confined to consultation, but the degree of control increased to participation in decision-making (Cornwall & Gaventa, 2001).

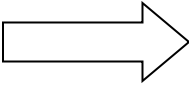
<i>Feature</i>	<i>From</i>		<i>To</i>
Type of participant	Beneficiary		Citizen
Type of development	Project		Policy
Scale	Micro		Macro
Phase	Appraisal		Implementation
Degree of control	Consultation		Decision-making

Figure 1: Shifts in participation from 1950s to 21st Century

Source: Adapted from Gaventa (1993)

Shifts in discourses on participation were not linear. The rhetoric heard in the 1970s did not surface in practice until the 1990s when participation was given more ground in participatory methods and participation became an important aspect in governance. The shifts, as presented by Gaventa, did not go smoothly, nor is it that we only have participation taken from the right side of the figure, but overall ‘...meanings deepened as spaces and practices of participation broadened’ (Fisher, 2001).

The Oxford definition showed the emptiness and vagueness of the concept. Is participation transitive or intransitive, moral or immoral; is it voluntary or forced, direct or indirect? The chronological overview revealed that due to the vagueness of the concept, many interpretations can be made. White (1981, p. 102) makes an interesting comparison:

The word participation is kaleidoscopic; it changes its colour and shape at the will of the hands in which it is held. And just like the momentary image in the kaleidoscope, it

can be very fragile and elusive, changing from one moment to another. The kaleidoscope analogy fits because participation is a complex and dynamic phenomenon, seen from the 'eye of the beholder', and shaped by the 'hand of the power-holder.

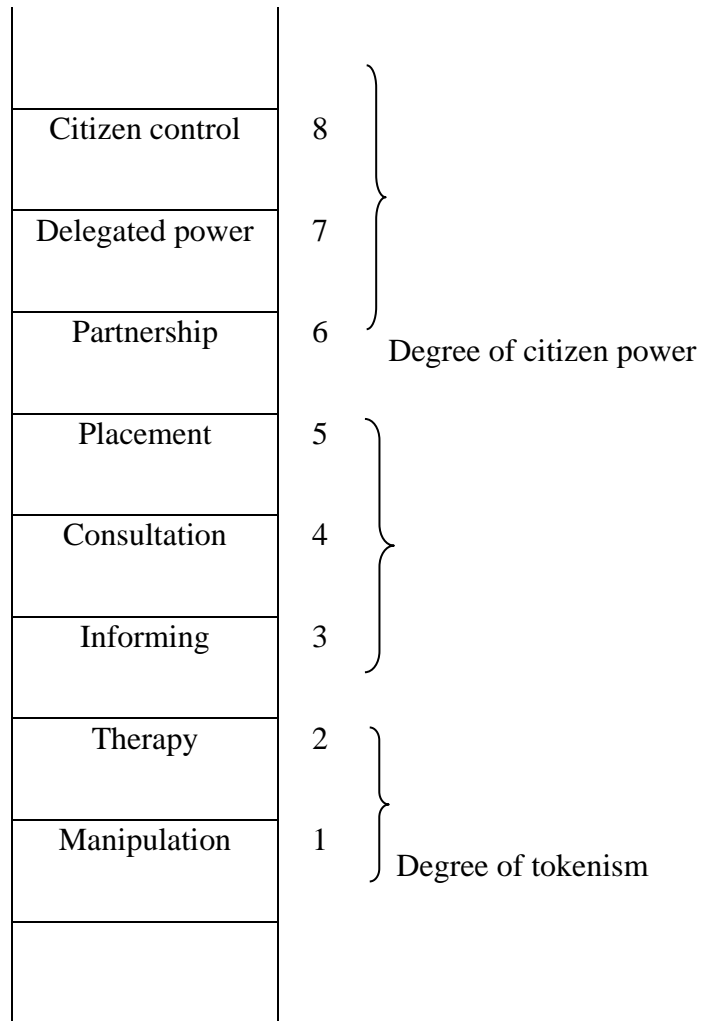
Ladder of participation

In 1969, Arnstein (1969) developed the 'ladder of participation' to describe various forms of participation. Figure 2 shows how eight broad categories or levels of participation were formulated. Each rung of the ladder corresponds with the extent of citizen's power in determining the end product. The eight rungs are subdivided into three groupings. The top of the ladder is a symbol of full or genuine participation as she calls it. The two bottom rungs of the ladder represent non-participation. People are allowed to participate, but it does not give them any opportunity to change programs to their own needs and as a result maintains the status quo in power relations. At the manipulation rung, people are included into committees merely to 'educate' them or to engineer their support (Arnstein, 1969).

A signature or merely their presence is used to prove and spread the word that people have 'participated'. It is an illusory form of participation (Rahman, 1984). For the second rung, powerlessness is regarded as an illness that needs to be 'cured' by therapy. Instead of curing the causes of their powerlessness, experts try to cure the symptoms (Arnstein, 1969). The next grouping encompasses three

degrees of tokenism, which allow the participants to be heard, to have a voice. The third rung is 'informing', which means that citizens are informed of their rights, responsibilities and options. The comment Arnstein makes is that most often this is a one way flow, without dialogue or power negotiation. With consultation, participants are explicitly asked to express their opinions, which Arnstein considers the next step toward full participation (Arnstein, 1969).

Nevertheless, participation is still window-dressing if citizens' opinions are not included in policy formulation (Paul, 1987). At the level of placation, citizens gain some degree of influence though it is still a form of tokenism as traditional power-holders continue to have the right to decide (Arnstein, 1969). It is the illusion of a voice without the voice itself. Citizen power is the highest grouping in Arnstein's model where degrees of decision making power increase. There is a redistribution of power in order to include citizens that were formerly excluded from the political and economic processes. At rung six, partnership, power is redistributed through negotiation. Planning and decision-making responsibilities are shared. The next step towards full participation is when citizens are delegated power and have the authority to make decisions over a particular plan or programme. Arnstein's final level of participation is when citizens are fully in charge of policy and managerial aspects of the project (Arnstein, 1969).



Degrees of non-participation

Figure 2: Ladder of participation

Source: Arnstein (1969)

Participatory development approach

The participatory development approach came into being as a result of the growing awareness that various approaches to rural development such as community development, integrated rural development and basic needs, did not result in substantial rural poverty alleviation (Simon, Duncan, Mc Gregory,

Nsiah-Gyabaah & Thompson, 2003). Even subsequent efforts made in some countries such as rural works, concessional credit, rural employment programmes did not improve the plight of the poor on a sustained basis. Economic growth was insufficiently combined with equity or just distribution of benefits. Participatory development arose as a reaction to this realisation of failure, popularised particularly by Conway and Chambers (1992), and more recently by Korten (1996).

Furthermore, international governmental and non-governmental agencies realised more and more that the main reason for many unsuccessful development projects was (and still is) the lack of active, effective and lasting participation of the intended beneficiaries (Liberatore & George, 1983). Consequently, Peter-de-Schweini et al, (2009) states that several agencies started to promote the participation of people, in particular disadvantaged women and men, in development through various programmes, mostly on a pilot basis.

Fukuda-Parr, Lopes & Malik (2002) commented that the conventional development paradigm, which was based on the premise that poor countries can be propelled along a development path by knowledge and capital emanating from the rich, has been replaced by a new emphasis on the need for more balanced relationships between aid donors and recipients and the importance of local knowledge for development. This new approach (participatory approach), according to Richards (1995), gives priority to partnerships and emphasises participation, not just by government agencies but also by non-governmental

organisations, civil society and most especially the beneficiaries as the best way to achieve sustainable development.

According Andah (1986), the participatory approach to development is particularly useful in providing feedback to policy-makers. He intimates that participatory groups constitute a grassroots "receiving system" that allows development agencies to reduce the unit delivery or transaction costs of their services. Schuurman (1993), comments that when the beneficiaries have access to resources and share fully in the benefits of their efforts, the poor become more receptive to new technologies and services, and achieve higher levels of production and income. The poor's contribution to project planning and implementation represent savings that reduce project costs. They also contribute knowledge of local conditions, facilitating the diagnosis of environmental, social and institutional constraints, as well as the search for solutions.

Andah (1986) continues that participatory development leads to increased self-reliance among the poor and the establishment of a network of self-sustaining rural organisations. This carries important benefits: the greater efficiency of development services stimulates economic growth in rural areas and broadens domestic markets, thus favouring balanced national development. Politically, the participatory approaches provide opportunities for the poor to contribute constructively to development.

In contemporary development debates participatory local planning has assumed central importance, following the recognition that decentralised government is a necessary framework for sustainable rural development efforts

and good local governance (World Bank, 1994). The ultimate creation of functionally robust decentralised structures largely depends on how effectively participatory local planning is institutionalised (Peet & Watts 1996; Makumbe, 1996). In other words, participatory local planning is seen as an essential precondition for successfully executing plans and programmes for poverty alleviation. The importance of participatory local planning in development management and implementation is widely recognised.

In the continental context, for instance, the African Charter on Popular Participation was legislated in 1990 as the climax event during the United Nations Conference on Popular Participation held in Arusha, Tanzania. This charter realises that nations cannot be built without the popular support and the full participation of their people and that people's involvement or participation results in the democratisation of the development process (Makumbe, 1996; Wunsch & Olowu, 2000). The spirit of the African Charter on Popular Participation resonates with the underlying theme of the Human Development Report, which was coincidentally inaugurated in the very same year (Selman, 1996; UNDP, 1993). Likewise, the underlying thrust of the African Charter on Popular Participation is to champion a human-oriented view of development. It recognises that African people have been greatly marginalised in the process of their own development, as quoted in Makumbe (1996). The marginalising of the participation of the people in the formulation of public policies has been exacerbated by the persistent socio-economic crisis which Africa faced throughout the 1980s, with the consequential ever-growing concern and preoccupation by governments with

short-term crisis management. Participatory local planning basically asks development planners, practitioners and researchers to give up what they have up till now erroneously considered their fundamental prerogatives: to define problems and to solve them (Mikkelsen, 1995). The need to reorient grassroots development strategy is largely based on the perception that, for a project to be sustainable it must address those problems and aspirations which are identified by the poor themselves and it must have a management structure in which they have confidence. The appeal of participatory local planning can, therefore, be summed up as follows: no development programme, however grand, can succeed unless the local people are willing to accept it and make an effort to participate (Makumbe, 1996). This involvement of the local people throughout all the important junctures of the project cycle makes it possible to utilise their knowledge about local conditions to solve local problems more efficiently and effectively. Development problems should not be defined by experts in isolation but should be based on dialogue with the affected parties (Mikkelsen, 1995).

Participatory local planning has two different objectives. It either takes the form of transformational or instrumental participation. Participatory local planning thus becomes the driving force for determining people-based development processes and enlisting the willingness of the people in undertaking sacrifices and expending their social energies on its execution. In this form participation largely serves as a means to achieve efficiency in project management. It is a management strategy through which the state attempts to mobilise local resources.

The former is perceived as an objective in and of itself. It takes the stand that people have a fundamental right to participate fully and effectively in making the decisions which affect their lives at all levels and at all times (Makumbe, 1996; Mikkelsen, 1995). Taken in this light, participation entails empowerment and the promotion of social justice, equity and democracy. When participation is purely instrumental, the participation of the beneficiaries of the proposed development intervention is construed as an operational barrier. Their non-participation is viewed, therefore, as a technical, educational, administrative or financial barrier needing to be corrected. When participation is viewed as transformational, the non-participation of the beneficiaries is a structural barrier. The problem of nonparticipation in this case becomes a social conflict that has to be resolved through compromise on conflicting policies or removal of departicipatory social structures or political reforms. The concept of empowerment espoused in this paper follows Ugbomeh (2001), who says that a person is empowered: When the person grows in the subjective sense of feeling able to do things hitherto out of reach, when a person develops the ability to do things which were not previously within the persons competence, and when doors of opportunity, which were hitherto closed, swing open to allow access to information, influence and opportunity.

Information, Education, and Planning (IEP) Stage of Participation

Education has always played a crucial role in the society as it disseminates knowledge, provides necessary skills, and helps in forming attitudes (Rahman,

1994). It is evident that providing adequate and timely information, educating people about the development initiatives, and outlining a plan of action is critical in generating a process of participation. Differences and similarities between functionary and beneficiary perceptions of effective community participation resulted with a series of elements that need to be considered at this stage of participation.

Adnan et al. (1992) mention that in assessing the quality of participation in development projects, a key question is, were project documents available to the local people? He also explained that people should be in a position to see and know what is happening, including how decisions are made at all stages of the project. Such information must also be available in a timely manner, so that people have a chance to be informed before decisions are made, and can try to influence them, if necessary, to protect their own interest. However, they should have assistance to interpret documents to local people given that the vast majority of the coastal population is illiterate.

Implementation, Coordination, and Monitoring (ICM) Stage of Participation

Once local people are well informed about the development projects, they are in a better position to plan activities by themselves to implement a project (Mathbor, 1998). Close supervision of their work and having a monitoring system in place will enhance the effectiveness of a development project. This system takes place through identifying honest, sincere, dedicated leaders, involving them in all stages of the development project, and maintaining sustained interaction

throughout the project period. Criteria set by organizations for including local people as beneficiaries of the project failed to safeguard the interests of the poorer people. It is also evident that local people were only involved at the implementation level of the development project, and not the designing and planning stages.

Adnan et al. (1992) note that people must have a meaningful choice, rather than being constrained or compelled to accept options that have been determined by others. The authors also state that in particular, local people must have the right to say no to things that they feel are against their interests or ineffective, as well as to propose alternatives they believe are better. The interests of people should be considered at the planning stage of a project rather than including local people only at the implementation stage. Lack of an ongoing interaction between functionaries and beneficiaries created mistrust between the parties concerned.

Obstacles to participation

The practice of participation does not occur in a vacuum. On the contrary, it is susceptible, in both negative and positive ways, to a range of influences. A number of studies are emerging which suggest problems with the practice of participation or, more fundamentally, serious obstacles which can frustrate attempts at participatory development. In others, it is clearly recognised that such problems cannot be isolated in the manner of other project inputs and, correspondingly, there are no instant remedies. Looking at the evidence, Oakley

(1991) state that the obstacles can be examined under the following sub headings: structural, administrative and social obstacles.

Structural obstacles

The political environment in a particular country can, in some circumstances, be supportive of the process of participation. Equally, in different circumstances, it can constitute a fundamental obstacle. In countries where the prevailing ideology does not encourage openness or citizens' comments but prefers to maintain the direction and decision-making concerning state affairs in strictly controlled hands, the prevailing political environment will not be conducive to genuine participation (Cornwall & Gaventa, 2000; Oakley, 1991).

Furthermore, centralised political systems that lay less emphasis upon local mechanisms for administration and decision-making can greatly reduce the potential for authentic participation. Structural obstacles also include the tensions which can arise between the mechanisms promoted locally by the state in order to achieve a centrally planned objective and the spontaneous, informal development efforts at grass-roots level within development projects whose participants are excluded from these mechanisms. Similar tensions can arise between the policy of the state and development projects which seek to organise rural people in order to influence this policy in terms of redistribution of political and economic power.

In many instances, there may be direct political influence on the direction of development projects or attempts to co-opt such projects for party political reasons (Chambers & Mayoux, 2005). It can be seen, therefore, that the nature of the political environment within a particular state will have a strong influence on

the potential for meaningful local-level participation. More specifically, the existing legal system within a country can seriously frustrate efforts to promote participation. This can function in two ways (Oakley, 1991).

On the one hand, the legal system often has inherent bias both in the way it is conducted and in the way in which it maintains the status quo. On the other hand, many rural people are unaware of their legal rights and of the services legally available to them. Many legal systems do not overtly seek to impart this information to the people, who, thus, remain largely ignorant and excluded from the effects of laws which are supposed to benefit them. In other instances, the legal systems act as a direct constraint on the rural people's involvement in development activities. This is particularly the case in terms of legislation which governs the right of legal associations of different categories of rural workers. Legislation which gives sweeping powers to government to disperse unlawful assemblies can act as a powerful deterrent to the formation of organisation by rural people (Oakley, 1991).

Administrative obstacles

Centralised governments encourage centralised administrative structures which, by their very nature, are major obstacles to people's participation. These administrative structures retain control over decision-making, resource allocation and the information and knowledge which rural people will require if they are to play an effective part in development activities. Administrators in such structures tend to have a negative attitude towards the whole notion of people's participation, which is often manifested as arrogance and disbelief that rural

people can ever assume responsibility for administrative matters. The result is that administrative procedures often become a minefield and an effective deterrent to rural people seeking direct involvement in or assistance from local administration. For people whose struggle for livelihood demands most of their time, such procedures cannot be afforded (Oakley, 1991).

Similarly, the planning of development programmes and projects is often centralised and planning procedures discourage local involvement. Government planners are invariably a professional group who do not concede their practice to the local level. Most rural development planning takes place in ministries in urban areas and there is rarely any genuine desire to devolve this responsibility to the local level. Planning information and data are often complex in nature and rarely presented in a way intelligible to most rural people. The costs, both in terms of finance and time, of encouraging effective local participation in planning are substantial and few governments are prepared to undertake such a commitment. Indeed, it could be argued that, in most Third World countries, administrative structures are invariably centralised and, by definition, essentially anti-participatory (Oakley, 1991).

Korten (1981), however, sees the main obstacle to participation within the external donor agency where centralised decision-making, inappropriate attitudes and skills of project staff and frequent transfers of personnel render the implementation of a demanding and subtle process such as participation extremely difficult.

Social obstacles

Probably the most frequent and powerful social obstacle to the participation of rural people in development projects is a mentality of dependence which is deeply and historically ingrained in their lives. In many Third World countries rural people for generations have been dominated by and dependent upon local elite groups. In practice this has meant that the rural people have become accustomed to leaving decisions and initiatives to their “leaders”. The lack of leadership and organisational skills, and the consequent inexperience in running projects or organisations, leaves most rural people incapable of responding to the demands of participation. This state of affairs has been reinforced in many instances by hand outs and actions which have not encouraged them to take initiatives themselves. These result in a widespread marginalisation of rural people from the activities of rural development, which in turn, leads to the lack of confidence and ultimately to a psychology of despair (Oakley, 1991).

This dependent mentality is further reinforced by the fact that mere “survival” is for most rural people their greatest challenge and consumes much of their energies, leaving them precious little time to “participate”. Many rural people, therefore, tend to accept the status quo and their position in a framework in which economic and social arrangements maintain the control of the few and the exclusion of the majority. In this context, therefore, the very notion of participation is far removed from reality and is almost unintelligible to rural people who have never before been invited to share in the activities and benefits previously dominated by others (Oakley, 1991).

For most females in the Third World, the male-dominated culture and society in which they live are the most formidable obstacles that they face in efforts to be included in development activities. Despite the advances of the past decade and the proliferation of projects directed exclusively at them, rural women confront an extra hurdle before they can join men in gaining greater access to development resources. This consists of existing cultural values, which assign women to prescribed roles and do not encourage their prominence in local activities. Recognition of the fundamental socio-cultural obstacle which women face has given rise to two contrasting strategies: one prepares women through education to challenge and overcome these obstacles, while the other directs resources at women in the hope that their increasing economic power will lead to an inevitable change. The latter strategy is more predominant and according to United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM, 2009), initial results are encouraging. Indeed, UNIFEM would argue that the two strategies are inseparable, and that efforts to develop the resource base of poor women will inevitably lead to their re-negotiating or even challenging the social and cultural practices which hinder their involvement in development.

The important issue to stress here is that participation, whatever form or direction it might take, cannot be regarded simply as some kind of physical or tangible input into a development project. Any form of participation occurs within a particular context and will be influenced by the economic and social forces that mould that context. Furthermore, simply to proclaim a commitment to participation will not ensure its unchanged passage. Inevitably the deliberate

encouragement of a process of participation will be a “new idea” and contrary to their accustomed role in development, or on the part of official or other interest who may regard it as a threat to their position. In either case, participation will not be an effortless procedure (Oakley, 1991; World Bank, 1988).

Community participation

Most definitions of “community” relate it to the notion of deprivation and disadvantage. The weakness of this notion is that deprived and marginalised communities are not homogenous. A community can be seen as the lowest level of aggregation at which people are organised for a common effort or goal (White, 1981). This effort or goal could be towards the mobilisation of local resources as well as collaboration with an external body with a view to finding an antidote to a problem.

Community participation is an essential element of the development process. People are essential because they are the subjects and objects of development. Useful indicators of community participation are consultation; a financial contribution by the community; self-help projects by groups of beneficiaries; self-help projects involving the whole community; community specialised workers; collective commitment to behaviour change; endogenous development; autonomous community projects; and approaches to self-sufficiency (White, 1981; Chambers, 1997). Therefore, in defining community participation sharing of power and of scarce resources; deliberated effort by communities to control their own destinies; and improving their living conditions

and opening up new opportunities from below should be highlighted (Boakye-Yiadom, 1995).

While involving the community is essential, care must be taken to ensure that community participation is not confused with over-burdening the people. In this regard, community participation should be voluntary. It should not be forced otherwise it would not be different from a tax (Chambers, 1974). Similarly, community participation in project planning and management is a voluntary and democratic involvement of beneficiary communities in decision-making with regard to: problem analysis; setting of goals; formulating policies; planning; managing and evaluating economic and social development programmes; and sharing the benefits thereof (Makumbe, 1996; Oakley, 1991).

Community participation has two different objectives. It either takes the form of transformational or instrumental participation. The latter is a way of achieving certain specific targets. Community, thus, becomes the driving force for determining people-based development processes and enlisting the willingness of the people in undertaking sacrifices and expending their social energies on its execution. On the contrary, the former is perceived as an objective in and of itself. It takes the stand that people have a fundamental right to participate fully and effectively in making the decisions which affect their lives at all levels and at all times (Makumbe, 1996; Mikkelsen, 1995).

Factors that affect community participation

Chambers (1997) has identified five key factors to be considered in making community participation work. These are motivation; community leadership; learning approaches; facilitators; and resources.

Motivation for parties to cooperate must exist if interaction and involvement are to be sustained. Participation of individuals, groups, governments and donors in a project can be explained by intrinsic and extrinsic factors. For members of a community, the interest in participating in a project is to solve local problems, a chance to make the community a better place to live and to work with people who share their ideals (Mikkelsen, 1995).

Also, the local government's willingness to participate in a project is a function of whether the project falls within its perspective or medium-term development plan. Similarly, donors and organisation will want to know whether there is any tangible benefit before they commit their scarce resources to a project. For instance, a housing project must be able to envisage a more efficient coverage of communities in terms of basic services, using a participatory strategy (Chambers, 1994).

The organisational and leadership capabilities of a community must be considered if it is to play a participatory role in planning and management of project. Definitely, a more fragmented and acephalous community will not be able to wield power or influence. The more organised the community, the more equipped it is for participation in development. Leadership studies have shown that communities have formal and informal organisations and their effectiveness

is positively correlated to the dynamism of the leadership. Communities riddled with chieftaincy disputes or which have passive unit committees have problems with mobilising themselves for development activities (Chambers, 1994). For sustain success to be achieved in community development effort, there is the need for extension policy that would formally accommodate the participation of local leaders in all community development initiatives of both governmental and non-governmental agencies (Ozor & Nwankwo, 2008).

Community involvement in social development is a recent phenomenon. It has, as a result, not been easy using it. In the process of using it, some lessons have been learned the hard way. Initiating a new approach means that service agencies and other stakeholders must be willing to innovate and also learn from past experience. This means initiating a feedback mechanism to ensure that mistakes and lessons are learned. Too often in the past, successes were played up by the agency while failures were written down by academic researchers and little was fed back to the community. A new learning approach would attempt to provide feedback on experiences to all parties (Chambers, 1994).

Experience in the field has shown that the successes of a community-based project could depend on the facilitating mechanism involved. This refers to project staff that try to put together material and human resources for project formulation and implementation (Village AiD, 1996). Participatory techniques, dynamism and human relation skills of the facilitators may contribute immensely in sustaining the interest of communities and other stakeholders (Chambers, 1994).

A community has many needs and wants but few options because of their limited access to funds and other resources. In many ways, their lack of resources and lack of skills to access the resources place them at a disadvantage. For basic services to reach communities there is the need to develop infrastructure and acquire specialised skills. For instance, for community members to take active part in primary schools, they may need basic skills in how to manage and account for funds, organise and facilitate SMC/PTA meetings and form sub-committees. There is, therefore, the need for external assistance to train the community leaders in managerial skills. This will invariably whip up their interest in the project and make sure that their efforts in the project are not wasted (Chambers, 1994).

Oakley (1991) enumerates some potential pitfalls to consider in implementing participatory projects. The first of these is that engaging the poor is often a far more difficult task than engaging the more powerful stakeholder groups. It is fairly easy to demonstrate to government officials, for instance, why their participation in a particular initiative would be valuable. It is not the same for the poor and, therefore, different techniques are required to achieve one's aim. For this reason, participatory approaches usually involve groups working on the ground or on paper. Examples of techniques used include: maps, flow diagrams, seasonal calendars and matrices. Visual techniques are a good way to engage the poor especially where local materials are used for the preparation of resources. Visual techniques also encourage creativity and the exchange of ideas.

A second thing to bear in mind is that for participatory techniques to work effectively, the implementing agency must itself be prepared to change and learn

to accept change. The main changes are: the agency should be prepared to accept a loss of power; the agency should be prepared to listen actively and not pay lip service; and the agency should be prepared to cede control to the community so that they own the project or initiative. All these are crucial, if community participation is to succeed (Vehagen 1985; Watterson 1965; World Bank 1988).

Importance of community participation

It would be wrong to assume that the arguments for greater people's participation in development are based purely on idealistic, humanitarian or egalitarian grounds. There are a number of substantive arguments for "participation" as an essential ingredient in development projects. Uphoff (1986), for example, suggests a number of reasons why governments might gain some net benefit from promoting community participation, despite the political cost: Project staff to tap on indigenous knowledge for project planning and implementation to meet the specific needs of the community; more accurate and representative information about the needs, priorities and capabilities of the local people; more reliable feedback on the impact of government initiatives and programmes; adaptation of programmes to meet local conditions so that scarce resources can be employed efficiently; lower cost of access to the public for agricultural extension programs, nutrition education, immunisation supervised credit, through local organisations and institutions; the tapping of local technical information that can otherwise be costly to obtain or to learn about the fact that rural people have more technical expertise than usually recognised; mobilisation

of local resources to augment or even substitute for central government resources; improved utilisation and maintenance of government facilities and services; co-operation in new programmes, which is more likely to occur when local organisations, having the confidence of rural people share responsibility for the innovation; the creation of a sense of ownership among the beneficiaries. This sense of ownership is critical in sustaining community-based projects. Chambers indicates that the reason is that people are prepared to give out their best if they see themselves as part of a project; and participation also gives the marginalised in the community the opportunity to also express their opinion about issues concerning them (Chambers, 2002). For instance, focus group discussion, which is one of the participatory techniques, creates the opportunity for those who do not have courage and chance to contribute in big community durbars to express their views among their peers (DFID, 2000; Uphoff, 1986).

There are other arguments which see community participation as extremely useful to the success of development projects. These are expressed in different terms. Oakley (1991) intimated that the importance of participation can be pulled together under these headings: efficiency, effectiveness, self-reliance, coverage, and sustainability.

Community participation implies a greater chance that resources available to development will be used more efficiently. Community participation can, for example, help minimise misunderstanding or possible disagreements and thus the time and energy, often spent by professional staff explaining or convincing people of a project's benefits, can be reduced. Community participation is also cost-

effective since, if rural people are taking responsibility for a project; fewer costly outside resources will be required and highly paid professional staff will not get tied down in the detail of project administration. Community participation, therefore, allows for more efficient use of the resources available to a project (Oakley, 1991).

Community participation will also make projects more effective as instruments of rural development. Community participation which allows these people to have a voice in determining objectives, support project administration and make their local knowledge, skills and resources available must result in a more effective project implementation. A major reason why many projects have not been effective in achieving objectives in the past is that local people were not involved. Effectiveness equals the successful completion of objectives, and participation can help to ensure this (David, Duncan, Nsiah & Thompson, 2003; Oakley, 1991).

This term covers a wide range of benefits which participation can bring. Essentially, self-reliance refers to the positive effects on rural people participating in development projects. Community participation helps to break the mentality of dependence which characterises much development work and, as a result, promotes self-awareness and confidence and causes rural people to examine their problems and to think positively about solutions (Oakley, 1991).

Most government and many agency-directed or supported development projects reach only a limited, and usually privileged, number of rural people. In many instances, delivery services have contact with only a fraction of the rural

population. Community participation will extend this coverage in that it will bring more rural people within the direct influence of development activities. Community participation will increase the numbers of rural people who potentially can benefit from development and could be the solution to broadening the mass appeal of such services (Oakley, 1991).

Experience suggests that externally motivated development projects frequently fail to sustain themselves once the initial level of project support or inputs either diminish or are withdrawn. Participation is seen as the antidote to this situation in that it can ensure that local people maintain the project's dynamics. Arguments which link sustainability with community participation are largely economic, namely: the maintenance of an acceptable flow of benefits from the project's investment after its completion. However, others touch on the issues of project ownership, political support and the maintenance of delivery systems (Oakley, 1991).

Ownership and Control

Rahman (1993) states, it is widely recognized that the development efforts of the last three decades have done little to improve rural poorer people's living conditions. But they had hardly shared in the benefits of development and have remained economically poor and underprivileged. As a result, they have had little participation in the development effort of their societies. Rahman however, indicated that a gulf exists between project documents and field reality. And that the elite people of the locality gained exclusive control of development projects

and resources. The criteria for selecting poorer people as project beneficiaries require revision to safeguard people's interests in the development project.

As suggested by Adnan et al. (1992), a key notion advocated in this context was that the communities need to "feel a sense of ownership," or "gain a sense of commitment" to the project rather than being alienated and kept at a distance. Farazi (1997) reported that one of the main reasons for the failure of the World Bank- sponsored embankment project in Bangladesh was that almost none of the parties (contractors, engineers, officials, local people, and politicians) involved in the project, or affected by the project, took any responsibility for its effective implementation. He described his experience of interviewing some of these parties: An engineer of the project said that it is not our money. The World Bank is too rich; why should we bother about how this money is spent? When the writer asked a villager in the affected area about the project, he said, you can see that the embankment is poorly constructed and it is also unfinished. I do not bother, because it is not my money.

A beneficiary suggested that local people should share the project costs; if not in money, at least in time and effort. This sharing of cost will give them a feeling of ownership and commit them to the project. Also, the legal framework set at the beginning for safeguarding the poorer people's interests and for protecting the local environment should be complied with, which will enhance poorer people's participation by establishing rights of ownership in the project. It was also acknowledged that "such participation will not be easy to ensure"

because more influential groups sometimes try to manipulate government programs to satisfy their own interests.

Feedback

This stage includes consultation with local people's knowledge and experiences, to assess their needs and evaluate outcomes of development projects, and to hold local people accountable for successes and failures. It is evident from findings that local people were consulted only after the project was conceptualized, designed, and planned by project proponents and funding agencies. It has been widely observed and accepted that indigenous knowledge plays a significant role in sustainable resource utilization and conservation. Failures of the government reforestation project in this study speak to a lack of consultation with local people's lived experiences and the project's negative impacts on communities and families in the regions.

Rahman (1994) suggested that since NGOs work in close contact with people at the grassroots level, they could tap these pools of indigenous knowledge and incorporate them into their program design and implementation strategies. Rahman (1994) further asserts the use of participatory action research (PAR) as a key tool for collecting indigenous knowledge and promoting social change in the communities. Robinson, Hoare, and Levy (1993) view participatory action research as an integrated approach involving the participation of community members in investigating social reality and building local skills and capacities for the purpose of increasing community autonomy through practices. In other words, participatory action research is a process in which the community sets the

research agenda, determines whom it will work with, ensures that skills are acquired by community trainees, and that research results are put to work in the service of local people. It relies on the experiences of the people, its values and cultures, and it builds human capacity within the community.

Weaknesses of community participation

Despite an apparent widespread recognition of the importance of participation in development, not everybody is convinced either that it is necessarily always a ‘good thing’ or that, to date, it has clear practical advantages for development projects. Many planners would argue that there are potential risks and cost implicit in greater people’s participation.

In the first place building consensus in the community, which represents a broad spectrum of interest, may be time consuming. It is also a ploy to use community members to “rubber stamp” projects which have been conceived and designed from outside by international “experts” (Ghai, 1988). In such cases, participation of communities in plan preparation may involve hastily organised meetings with “experts” and bureaucrats where they are briefed about the objectives and activities of the planned projects. In the implementation phase they are expected to carry out their pre-assigned roles.

Similarly, critics of community participation claim that imposition of outside agents on community members as facilitators is not different from the “top-down” approach which exponents of community participation attack. Much as this field staffs are known to respect the views of the people, it is unlikely that

they will refrain from seeking to have their own views adopted (Goetz, 1999). They often insist that the only form of participation acceptable to them is the one they have in their project proposals. Furthermore, project start-up delayed by negotiation with people; increases in staff required to support participation; the possibility that, when consulted, people might oppose a project; unpredictable participatory methodologies; and over-involvement of less experienced people are weaknesses of community participation (Oakley, 1991).

Midgeley, Hall, Hardiman & Narine (1986) refers to the 'emotionally appealing case for participation' but argues that it is important to entangle ethical issues with theoretical and practical considerations. A World Bank study suggested that governments might prefer rural people to participate only in project implementation since their involvement in project identification and assessment might give rise to increased expectations. Furthermore, there has been a tendency for some writers to be dismissive of many of the arguments for participation as being merely 'lofty sentiments' or 'popular faddishness' (World Bank, 1988).

There is an element of justification in these criticisms and it could also be argued that, in many projects, participation is more evident as an emotional commitment than a practical aspect of the project. Indeed, Uphoff (1986) refers to the state of "pseudo participation" and rightly argues that, in many projects, the participation is more illusory than real. GTZ (1991) points out that practices suggest that, undoubtedly, in many rural development projects, participation is stronger in rhetoric than in practical reality; that there is a good deal of lip-

service to the concept of participation but less commitment to the changes in direction and style that would be required to implement it.

Community participation in the project cycle

The involvement of beneficiaries and communities in the planning and management of projects is a day-to-day, week-to-week, month-to-month and even year-to-year process, which, in the long-run, forms a pattern or cycle. The various phases of the cycle can include the following activities: Problem identification and analysis; goal/objective setting; selection of alternative solutions; implementation; design of actions and strategies; monitoring; and evaluation (Buam, 1982).

A typical project cycle may begin with the identification of the problem that needs to be addressed. A problem may be described as the difference between the status-quo and the desired. An example could be the consumption of contaminated water by a community. As mentioned earlier, it is always advisable to involve community members in this process since community's perception of a problem may differ from that of the facilitator, who, in most cases, is an outsider.

Having gained insight into the cause and effect of the identified problem, the facilitator, with the participation of the beneficiaries, may detail out the goals and objectives of the project. This involves the description of the desired objective. The project goal may be explained in one or two sentences as overall direction of the project (Bryson & Bromiley, 1993).

The objective tree may provide several solutions, which could be used to solve the identified problem. However, these solutions may vary in terms of cost, appropriateness, effectiveness and efficiency. In view of this, there is the need for specific criteria for the selection of the alternatives that can minimise cost for the achievement of the set goals and objectives of the beneficiary community. This may start with the needs/ resource assessment for the various alternatives. The process involves the collection of data on what is needed and available in the community. Outside resources may also be looked into. Technical personnel could be invited to assist community members in making informed choices and costing the alternative.

The implementation of a development project may be viewed as covering a whole range of activities and processes. It includes programming the implementation of the selected alternatives by breaking it down into various components, tasks and processes and also handling of damages and adjustment that arise during the process. Thus, project implementation can be broadly divided into three namely: designing of action strategies; monitoring; and evaluation.

After the need is properly identified and external resources have been assessed, an action program may be designed. The community, through a group of leaders, residents and facilitating agency governmental or non-governmental officials forms a coordinative structure which will fully assess the situation, evaluate the resources and design an action plan. These action strategies are then translated into specific and action-oriented steps. The structure then directs the implementation of these tasks by assigning various tasks and activities to

responsible groups within the community. It also solicits resources and allocates its use to each activity.

The term “monitoring” is used in different ways. Some definitions refer to monitoring as an ongoing control on implementation. Others describe it as a regular observation of the implementation progress. Both definitions show that monitoring is basically concerned with the steering of operations. Thus, monitoring implies determining whether budgets, resources, or targets set and assumptions made were realistic in the first place and whether circumstances have changed which could not reasonably be foreseen during project design. It also implies trying to identify the causes of slow progress, deviations from targets and seeking remedies.

In the case of community-centered projects, it is the responsibility of the coordinative structure which may oversee whether or not there is any deviation between performance and plans and whether or not plans have to be revised to meet unexpected occurrences.

Evaluation is the assessment of the intended and actual results of a project against project objectives. Evaluation should be an on-going activity and is especially needed when the project has been implemented for some time. A good evaluation provides the implementers and change agents with information that can be vital for attaining the project goals, and should include information on project processes.

Community-based projects need to consider the “surrounding social systems” when defining the scope and content of the evaluation. The elements of

these social systems include organisational characteristics, organisational routines and structure; characteristics of the individuals delivering service such as past experience and training incentives to change, values and attitudes; forces in the external environment such as the extent of community support; and characteristics of the programme, for example, size and age coverage (Peet & Watts, 1996). The above information may provide an insight into why a project achieves what it does (Chambers, 1994). This approach, which is also referred to as the process approach is an improvement on the classical outcome-oriented approach, which only looks at whether an intervention had produced significant changes without concentrating on how and why the intervention has worked. The process approach also allows beneficiary communities to have influence over what is to be studied, how, when and whose interest should be taken into account.

Community participation in Ghana

Akuoko-Frimpong (1986) and Ayee (1993) has shown the importance of the decentralised district assembly concept in the framework of development. Reiterating the essence of the participatory development approach, Andah (1986) agreed that local interests in possibilities of economic and social development should be encouraged. Nkum & Associates (1993) concluded that planning by the local people could be a major tool for community development as well as their personal development and the development of their country. Nkum & Associates (1993) and Ahwoi (1995) perceive community participation in the planning process at the district level as one of: village animation- this involves exchange of

ideas, letters and discussion among opinion leaders, assemblymen and participation groups on issues of development; village/area level planning- Village fora are organised to involve the wider community in the formulation and initiation of development plans; project assessment by the line agencies or sector departments including feasibility of projects and capacity of agents to implement; assessment of projects by sub-committees of the District Assembly; alternative sectoral programme by governmental and non-governmental organisations; detailed implementation design by line agencies and village opinion leaders; implementation of the project; and monitoring and evaluation, including environmental impact and social assessment.

Brown (1986) goes on to say that community participation at the district level should be an interchange between the people and the line agencies like the NGOs, Department of Social Welfare, Community Development and Rural Development. This gives emphasis to the need to blend the alternative development paradigm framework with other planning systems in development circles. This entails a blend of functions between the technocrats, on one hand, and the people or community on the other. None should displace or undermine the other. There should be teamwork and cooperation.

The importance of participation for the sustainability of projects has been well elaborated by Kendie (1994). He noted that many rural areas were offered water without any contribution either towards the capital outlay or maintenance cost. This resulted in project decay or collapse. Showing the effect of this, Kendie (1994, p. 1) noted: “Free or highly subsidised water policies have had negative

consequences for operational sustainability. In Ghana, for instance, this factor is partially responsible for the inadequate maintenance of existing water systems”.

Khan (1986) found that in India, 30% of the rural water systems were inoperative and abandoned two years after their commissioning. In a similar study, Little & Mirless (1974) showed the importance of participation for project sustainability. His study revealed that out of three thousand wells in Southern Ghana, 50% of the hand-pumps were inoperative. The success of CIDA water projects in the Upper Region of Ghana, showed a sustainability rate of 33% (O'Malley, 1990).

In their study and experience with the rural communities in the Central Region of Ghana, the Rural Water Division of Ghana Water and Sewerage Corporation saw the essence of community participation and incorporated it into their scheme (Lefevre 2000; Goldman & Abbott, 2004). Their rationale for community participation was, inter alia, to: ensure real community involvement and commitment that would induce in the beneficiary community a sense of ownership (with transfer of ownership formalised through the signing of contract); empower the community and, in particular, female members; build adequate local capacity that will enable Water and Sanitation Development Board (WSDB) members and its executive staff to plan, operate, maintain and manage their water and sanitation facilities; develop the concept of water for development through the adequate use of the running profit; improve people's hygiene practices through health and sanitation education; and educate people on the

interrelationship between water resources and environmental factors (BURGEAP Report, 1998).

Project planning and management

Gaventa (1993) defines a project as a specific activity with specific starting point and a specific ending point intended to accomplish specific objectives. Bryson & Bromiley (1993) defines a project as any activity that involves the use of scarce resources during a specific period for the purpose of producing a return.

From these definitions one can generally say that a project is an individual investment with specific goals or objectives (implies returns are expected), inputs, planned, and implemented as a coherent whole and it has specific boundaries in time and space and entails risks and uncertainties (Goldman & Abbott 2004). From the above, the most obvious characteristic of a project is that it has to achieve a particular purpose, and this is normally indicated in the project name (example: Guinea Worm Eradication Project and Community School Alliance Project). This characteristic distinguishes the project from the routine activities, which are part of an organisation's normal activities, such as monthly report writing and weekly staff meeting. Projects are expected to have positive impact on people's lives by changing their status quo to a desired situation. Managing change is clearly different and, at times, much harder than managing the status quo (Ben- David & Raz, 2004). It is for this reason that projects are established to effect such a change in a controlled manner.

Goebel (1998) intimated that projects can vary tremendously both in their subjects and in their sizes. A project can range from eradicating global poverty to digging of a primary school pit latrine. From the above definitions, the main characteristics of a project are that it: is an instrument of change; has a clearly identifiable start and finish time; has a specific aim; results in something being delivered; is unique; is the responsibility of a single person or body; involves cost resources and time; and uses a wide variety of resources and skills.

The Community Schools Alliance (CSA) project

The Community Schools Alliance (CSA) Project is the community mobilisation component of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) sponsored Quality Improvement In Primary Schools (QUIPS) programme, which was aimed at improving the effectiveness of primary education in Ghana. The QUIPS started in 1997 in Ghana as part of the American government's support of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education policy as enshrined in the 1992 Constitution of Ghana (CSA, 2004). The QUIPS programme was introduced in the AEED in 2002 and worked for a two-year period in four partnership communities, namely; Besease, Aworodo, Essiam and Fawomanye.

In support for the QUIPS, the CSA Project was devoted to strengthening the ability of Ghanaian parents and communities to improve the quality of education in their primary schools (CSA Facilitators Manual, 1999). The other organisations that assisted in the implementation of the QUIPS were the

Improving Learning through Partnership (ILP), which was in charge of the training of the teachers and then the Performance Monitoring and Evaluation (PME), which was in charge of the monitoring aspect of the programme.

The overall goal of the CSA was to facilitate the maximisation of community-based resources, both human and material, to rebuild an environment of shared mutual respect, responsibility and action among community members and their schools, government education officials and their district officials to meet the learning needs of Ghanaian children. This shared responsibility creates sustained interest and effort towards improved schooling for the children of Ghana (CSA, 2004).

In a bid to achieve this overall goal, the CSA Project worked through three strategic objectives: to increase community awareness, responsibility and advocacy for education; to strengthen community support organisations; and to enhance community participation in the design implementation/monitoring of school improvement efforts.

The three strategic objectives of the CSA Project were supposed to be achieved through 12 “best practice” objectives which were the focus of the CSA Project activities. The “best practices” are to: Build trust in the community (teacher and school system); respond to interest and concerns of the community; provide culturally sensitive approach to education; support quality education; support girl’s education (home and school); empower local people to act; define roles and responsibility of parents; strengthen school management structures; develop productive links to education/ government authorities; utilise grassroots

institutions in participatory planning; monitor school performance; and develop community leadership and ownership (CSA, 2004).

The CSA Project worked through participatory strategies and techniques. These intervention strategies include: baseline data collection, participatory rural appraisal/participatory learning and action; community school improvement plan; information education and communication campaign; micro grant project; institutional capacity building; and monitoring and evaluation.

The baseline data collection is the first start-up activity of CSA. Data are collected on the current performance based on the 12 “best practice” objectives in each Partnership School Community (PSC). The other CSA interventions are influenced by this baseline and other appraisal techniques, which are administered later. These data are synthesised and used to develop community profiles to assist in the monitoring and evaluation process.

Condy (1998) described Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) as a holistic data collection exercise about a whole community. The research process is put as far as possible into the hands of ordinary people. Although ‘experts’ (the community educators) are involved, their role is to facilitate, not take over, the investigation. It has very practical goals. The aim of the inquiry is to obtain a detailed understanding and analysis of a specific local context; then for local people to prioritise their needs based on this enhanced understanding. The outcome of this process is a community action plan, devised with a view to helping local communities solve their own problems through different local initiatives.

Participatory Rural Appraisal/Participatory Learning and Action (PRA/PLA) activities are conducted in each PSC as the key mobilisation and awareness creation activity in the CSA Project. The PRA/PLA protocol (guidelines for the PRA/PLA exercise) is, again, structured around the 12 “best practice” objectives. The discussions and issues raised during the PRA/PLA are synthesised into short-term development plans (Community School Improvement/Action Plans) by the community. These plans, which are widely discussed and endorsed by the community on the last day of the PRA/PLA exercise, are aimed at improving the quality of education at the local level. The C-SIPs are a direct product of the PRA/PLA and are to be regularly reviewed and updated as part of the process of the participation of partnership communities in support of education. The information, education and communication (IEC) campaign is aimed at achieving community support and participation in the achievement of the “best practice” objectives through the following strategies: Community performed drama and public forum; focus group discussion with the aid of story picture cards, calendars and newsletter (print media); video drama/public forum; and radio, television and newspaper reports (mass media).

The essence of the IEC is also to initiate community-based discussion, with view to ironing out schooling problems. The community draws up a new action plan or community school improvement plan (C-SIP) for implementation. School-related institutions, such as the SMCs and the PTAs, are given capacity building. Skills imparted include: the use of participatory planning methods, basic financial management; effective execution of meetings; and how to build effective

community-school relations. This training is based on an SMC resources handbook and an accompanying training guide, covering 41 topics developed by the CSA. The ten-day training programme is typically delivered in a 5-day, 3-day, and 2-day format over the two-year project cycle. Topics for each of the training session are selected, based on a self-appraisal exercise conducted by each SMC/PTA before the training. This self-appraisal helps to determine topics to be offered and what training format to adopt.

The CSA facilitates a participatory community discussion to design one or more projects related to PLA/PRA and C-SIP, which help link the community to the school and quality education. The micro grants are typically distributed in three installments for the implementation of the designed project.

CSA facilitators and animators provide an on-going programme support to the communities over the project cycle. Specifically, at the project level the facilitators participate in all programme interventions, using process indicators. These animators also report to the project office monthly, quarterly and half yearly.

Concept of sustainable development

The concept of sustainable development is widely used, but is seldom clearly defined. The Brundtland Report defined sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 1987). There is a need to be more specific since this definition is vague. Oakley (1998) identified the

following principles as contained in the Brundtland Report: Holistic planning and strategy making; preserving essential ecological processes; protecting both human heritage and biodiversity; fairness and opportunity between nations (people); developing sustainable productivity methods for future generations. The phrase sustainable development acquired further recognition as a focal point in the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil also known as the Earth Summit.

The Earth Summit managed to elevate sustainable development concepts internationally by drafting three non-binding agreements known as the Rio Declaration, Agenda 21, and the Statement of Forest Principles. Two principles from the Rio Declaration, which are especially relevant to this work, is the precautionary and subsidiarity principles. The precautionary principle: implies cost-effective measure should not be postponed because of scientific uncertainty, if there are threats of serious or irreversible damage. In other words, when in doubt about impact of development manage it according to the worst case scenario to protect the environment. The subsidiarity principle: refers to the processes of planning and decision-making should rest on the local community, encouraging local ownership of resources and responsibility for environmental problems (UNCED, 1992).

Sustainable development has been used widely due to the WCED's vague definition, which allows open interpretations of the term (Hall & Lew, 1998). On the other hand the very same ambiguity has jeopardized its practical implementation since almost any action could be justified under such a broad

definition (Smith, 1999). Still the vagueness of the definition may be necessary, since more explicit definitions could be too specific to use. Sustainable development should focus on the type of development instead of economic expansion (WCED, 1987).

Wackernagel and Rees (1996) argue that development has often emphasized economic growth while neglecting the ecological limitations and social welfare of the society. They claim progress ought to be redefined and measured in quality of life indicators such as access to education, food and health care compared to previous indicators centered around capital growth. Sustainable development would seem more sustainable if the term were changed to developing sustainability.

Sustainable development ideologies typically incorporate the integration of three key aspects, the environment, society, and economy. To achieve sustainable development all three aspects should develop together (Selman, 1996) as illustrated in Figure 3. The local context may determine which development path will be emphasised in the development process. In the case of CSA Projects, the social development path was of key concern. The decline in quality of education and the need for new social development strategy led to the planning and implementation of the CSA Project to reverse trends of falling standards of education.

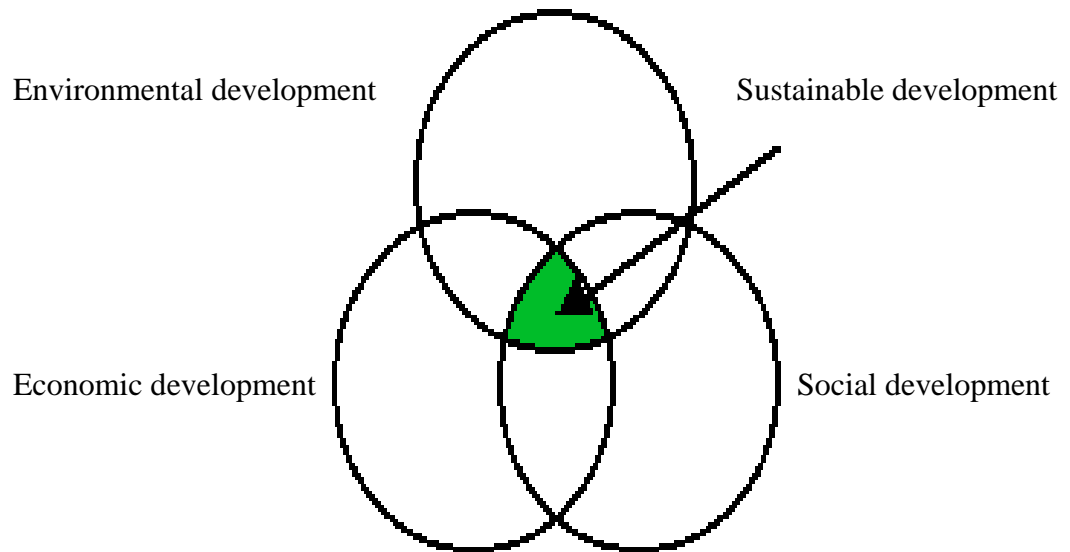


Figure 3: The three rings of sustainable development

Source: Selman (1996)

Accordingly, sustainable social development could be defined as development towards improving the quality of life (education, equality, freedom, health, and security) while staying within the limits of environmental carrying capacity (Bartelmus, 1994; Peet & Watts 1996; Wackernagel & Rees, 1996). Education is an important factor in social development, because it is related to individual empowerment (Mowforth & Munt, 1998).

Protection and carrying capacity: Environmental aspects

Environmental protection and carrying capacity are key components when referring to environmental development paths. Affirmation of natural resource scarcity and staying within the limits of the environment's carrying capacity are main themes related to environmental development. Still, the environment is typically valued as a resource that ought to be protected from extinction while

being ventured (Bartelmus, 1994). Therefore sustainable environmental development could be defined as optimizing carrying capacity while allowing long term extraction of resources (Sum & Hills, 1998; Wackernagel & Rees, 1996).

Empowerment and poverty problems: Social aspects

Sustainable social development could be defined a development towards (improving the quality of life) equality, freedom, health, security, education, etc. while staying within the limits of environmental carrying capacity (Bartelmus, 1994; Wackernagel & Rees, 1996). Education is an important factor in social development, because it is related to individual empowerment (Mowforth & Munt, 1998).

Poverty is often seen as a barrier to sustainable development and a major cause of environmental degradation. Starving communities' option may be limited and lead to overexploitation of natural resources, since it may be the only available resources for survival (WCED, 1987, Elliot, 1998). Poverty exemplifies this since people have no other option but to fish in over-fished waters, thus worsening the situation. People will continue this unsustainable practice until all the fish are extinct or economic alternatives are found.

Economic liability to the environment: Economic aspects

Economic development should incorporate ecological limits and be liable for its activities to be sustainable (Wackernagel & Rees, 1996; Sum & Hills, 1998). Sustainable economic development could be defined as 'acknowledging

natural capital scarcity, while producing a continual supply of goods and services' (Bartelmus, 1994, p. 34). In other words, economic activity that does not exhaust its resource base, so that it may continue to stay in business. In ecotourism the resource base is the natural surroundings.

Conceptual framework for the linkage between community participation in project planning and sustainable development

The conceptual framework depicts a functional relationship between four concepts, namely community; participation; the planning process; and sustainable development. The relationships have been captured in the framework displayed in Figure 4. Community participation means the involvement of the beneficiaries in the planning process of development. The involvement of all means the process should involve both men and women. Put differently, when both men and women (beneficiaries) are involved in the planning of a project, it invariably whips up their interest not only to participate in the project but also to ensure that their efforts, time and other resources, invested in the project, are not wasted. They, therefore, see the project as theirs and ensure that the project is sustained.

The assumption is that the knowledge of both men and women in the community as well as all other social partners concerned with the project should be tapped and utilised. The concern that this framework is addressing is the level at which the beneficiaries, and their resources are tapped and utilised. The framework is proposing that beneficiaries should be consulted right from the planning stage of the project. This will, in a way, build the capacity of the local

people to handle and sustain it. According to the framework, it is expedient for development planners to consult the project beneficiaries' right from the conception of the project. This will, in a way, encourage the beneficiaries to patronise the project and also make sure that their efforts are not wasted and, for that matter, do all that they can to sustain it.

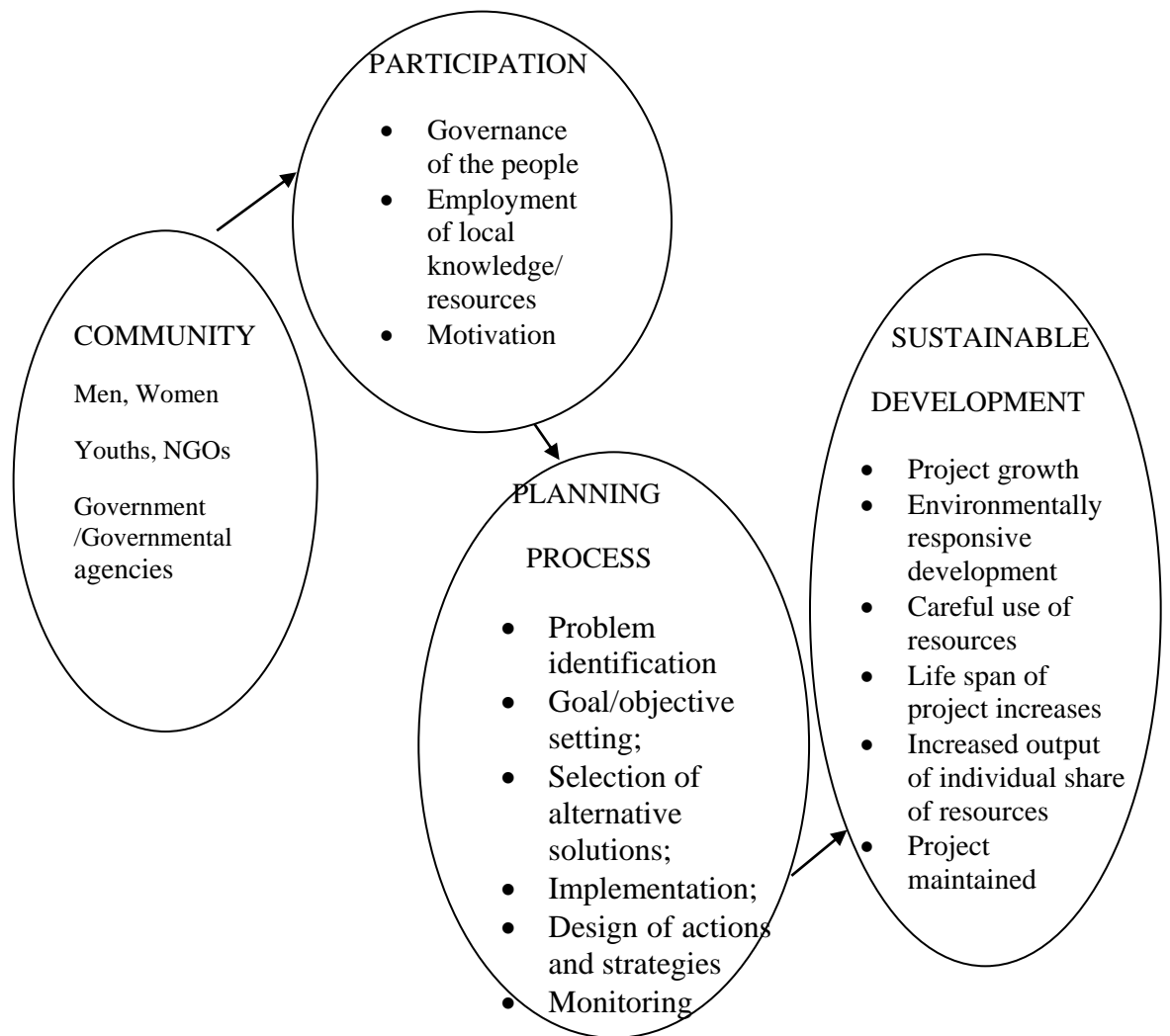


Figure 4: Conceptual framework for the linkage between community participation in project planning and sustainable development

Source: Author's construct (2006)

In other words, this framework is proposing that for a project to be sustainable, the insiders must be motivated and involved in the planning and implementation of the said project. It is their involvement in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the project which leads to its sustainability.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter constitutes a detailed presentation of the research design, study area, study population, sampling procedures and sample size, and sources of data. The chapter also looked at the instrumentation, pretest, fieldwork, field challenges, and data processing and analysis.

Research design

A study design is described as an in-depth description of how a study is carried out. It is an account on how data is collected, discussed, analysed and interpreted. This helps in the drawing of inferences and arriving at final conclusions based on the relationships between and among the variables of the study (Sarantakos, 1998).

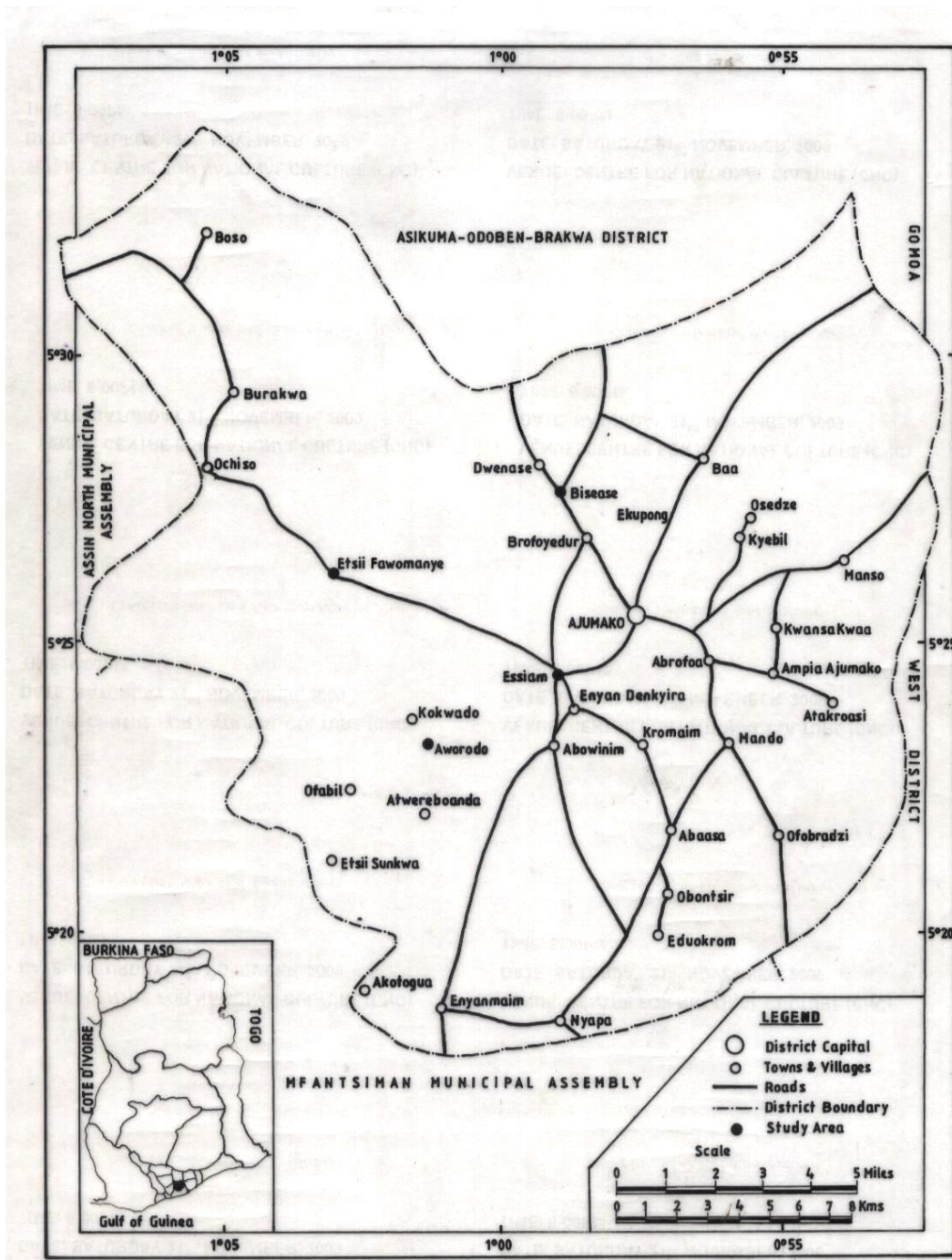
The design of the study is evaluative, descriptive and cross sectional in nature. It is also a case study because the study is concentrating on the Community School Alliance (CSA) Project in the AEED. Whereas evaluative research is used to monitor or measure an existing or concluded project, programme, product or event, a descriptive study attempts to describe systematically a problem or phenomenon in a study. A cross sectional research

takes a snap shot approach to the social world and gives the researcher the opportunity to conduct the study at one point in time. This approach is usually the simplest and less expensive method (Sarantakos, 1998).

Study area

The study was carried out in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District (AEED), one of the 17 districts in the Central Region of Ghana (Figure 5). The district is bounded on the north by the Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa district, on north-west and on the south-west by Assin North and South districts respectively. On the west the district is bounded by the Mfantiman district. The AEED is bounded by the Gomoa district on the south. The Agona District shares boundaries with the AEED on its eastern and north-eastern parts. The district covers a total land mass of 341.3 sq. km or five percent of the total landmass of the Central Region (6,826sq. km.). The district has a population of 91,965, comprising 42,395 males and 49,570 females (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002). They covered all four partnership school communities of the CSA Project in the district. The communities were Aworodo, Besease, Essiam and Etsii Fawomanye.

The District is predominantly made up of three Fanti-speaking groups, namely: the Ajumakos, the Enyans and the Bremans. Pockets of ethnic groups such as the Agonas, the Ekumfis, the Assins and the Etsiis also occupy it (AEED, 2004). There are five traditional paramountcies in the district. The Enyan-speaking people form the greatest proportion of the population and have three of the paramountcies at Ajumako, Breman and Essiam.



Source: Cartography Department, University of Cape Coast, September, 2009

Ajumako is the district capital where the offices of the local government administration are located. The district has 163 communities distributed in nine zones of Abaasa, Ajumako, Baa, Besease, Breman, Essiam, Enyan Maim, Etsii Sunkwa and Mando. There are 42 electoral areas and 90 unit committees and a constituency (AEED, 2004).

The District has benefited from a lot of developmental projects from both governmental and non-governmental organisations. The projects implemented by these organisations vary from classroom blocks to urinals (AEED, 2004). From the year 2000 to the close of 2004, about 96 of such projects had been implemented in the District. Both donors and beneficiaries were expected to contribute in different ways and at different levels of the projects. For instance, the USAID CSA Project expects the partnership school communities to contribute in the form of labour and time towards the successful implementation of the project. Some projects required the communities to pay a matching fund for project implementation while others insist on the community to contribute other resources like sand, water, stones, and communal labour. Still others insist on the community's attendance at meetings.

Study population

The study population was made up of all adults aged 18 years and above in Aworodo, Besease, Essiam and Etsii Fawomanye, as well as the staff of the District Assembly and the staff of the Ghana Education Service. The Community School Alliance project staff and the teachers in the partnership school

communities were also part of the study. Table 1 indicates the adult population in all four beneficiary communities in AEED.

Table 1: Adult population of the beneficiary communities

Community	Men		Women		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Aworodo	172	2.1	220	2.3	392	2.2
Besease	4,834	58.6	5,668	58.9	10,502	58.7
Essiam	2,651	32.1	3,151	32.7	5,802	32.5
Etsii Fawomanye	599	7.2	584	6.1	1,183	6.6
Total	8,256	100.0	9,623	100.0	17,879	100.0

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2002 * (2002 to 2007)

Sampling procedures and sample size

The study employed both probability and non probability sampling techniques to select the required number of respondents for the study. All the community members who were 18 years and above and had stayed in the four communities continuously during the period 2002 to 2007 were part of the study. This is because the CSA Project started from 2002 and ended in 2004. A sample of 185 respondents were drawn for the study out of which 100 were community members and 85 were key informants, including members of SMC, PTA, teachers, CSA staff, DEO staff, and District Assembly staff.

The quota sampling method was used because it employs the choosing of respondents according to their proportion in the entire population, moreover it considers all significant dimensions of the population and ensures that each dimension is represented in the sample and uses a very short period of time. One hundred (100) respondents were selected using the quota sampling from the four communities of Aworodo, Besease, Essiam and Etsii Fawomanye, as illustrated in Table 2. At a community wide meeting in all the four communities, all the community members who had stayed in the community between 2002 and 2004 and were above 18 years were made to pick numbered pieces of paper from a box. For instance in Essiam, the 869 community members were made to pick numbered pieces of paper from a box. Those who picked numbers 1 to 38 were then made part of the study. This method was then replicated in the rest of the communities to arrive at the sample size of 100 respondents out of the population of 2,263 from the four communities.

Table 2: Distribution of community members

Community	Number	Quota	%
Aworodo	45	2	2.0
Besease	1,213	54	54.0
Essiam	869	38	38.0
Etsii Fawomanye	136	6	6.0
Total	2,263	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2007

In addition to the community members, three members of staff each of the District Assembly, CSA, and District Education Office (DEO) were purposively selected, as well as 32 members each of the School Management Committee (SMC) members and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) executives in the various communities because they had up-to-date record and knowledge of the CSA Project. Three teachers who had been teaching in each of the four PSCs during the period of the CSA Project were also included in the sample to add up to 85. Table 3 indicates the sampling distribution of the respondents for the study.

Table 3: Sampling distribution of respondents for the study

Category	Number	%
Community members	100	54.1
SMC	32	17.3
PTA	32	17.3
Teachers	12	6.5
Community School Alliance staff	3	1.6
District Education Office staff	3	1.6
District Assembly staff	3	1.6
Total	185	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2007

Sources of data

Both secondary and primary sources of data were used for the study. The principal source of the primary data was the respondents of the study (fieldwork).

Concerning the secondary data, the libraries of the universities in Ghana were consulted for the necessary literature related to the topic. The offices of the AEED were also consulted for quarterly and annual reports of the Community Development Officer of the District. Finally, monthly and quarterly reports of the District Facilitators and other officers of the CSA Projects were used.

Instrumentation

A combination of data collection tools was employed to collect both qualitative and quantitative data for the study. These included structured questionnaires and interview schedules as well as a focus group discussion (FGD) guide. Questionnaires were administered to the staff of the AEED Assembly, DEO and the CSA Project. The questionnaires were made up of both open-ended and close-ended questions. Information was elicited from the community members and teachers, using an interview schedule, whilst the SMC and PTA executives were engaged in a focus group discussion.

Pre-test

To ensure that the research instruments used were suitable and comprehensive, a pilot study was carried out in Abandze in the Mfantseman District to test the schedules. Abandze was used because of the researcher's familiarity with the community, and its closeness to the study area. The community was also a partnership school community of the CSA Project. The result of the pilot study led to the reorganisation and redesign of some of the

questionnaires to ensure the right kind of responses. There were several changes in grammar, focus and number of questions.

Ethical procedure

The study took into consideration the ethical procedures involved in the conduct of research. In this regard, the respondents were accordingly notified of the purpose of the study and their consent sort to participate in the study through an introductory letter from the Institute for Development Studies (IDS) of the University of Cape Coast. Also, individual respondents freely agreed to participate in the research process by providing the needed date for the study at their own convenience. Again, the respondents' right of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality were taken into consideration during the research.

Fieldwork

The collection of primary data lasted for two months (April to June, 2007). During the survey, visits were made to all four project communities as well as the offices of the District Assembly, the District Education Office and the Community School Alliance project. In the first week, familiarisation visits were made to all four project communities.

After undertaking the familiarisation visits, three research assistants were recruited and trained for the survey. These research assistants were recruited on the basis of their educational background, proficiency in the local language and appreciation of surveys of this nature. A pleasant personality was considered

important since a less affable personality or proud person would not have the patience for the respondents. The research assistants were colleague students from IDS, University of Cape Coast, who were familiar with the study area. The training of the research assistants covered the operational definition of terms and concepts used. They were also taken through the design of the study as well as the sampling procedures, the relationship between the respondents and research assistants, the need to talk to the right people and how to deal with difficult respondents. This exercise took the team two days.

The administration of the instruments started just after the training of the research assistants. Questionnaires were distributed to the staff of the District Assembly, District Education Office and the Community School Alliance Project. A whole week was devoted to the distribution of the questionnaires. One research assistant was given the responsibility of distributing the questionnaires. While the distribution was going on, the two other team members started with the administration of the interview schedule at the community level. This exercise covered the community members and the teachers. It took the research team three weeks to accomplish this exercise. Two focus group discussion (FGD) sessions were held in each community, one for the members of SMC and the other for the PTA executives (Table 4).

Table 4: Composition of focus group discussion groups

Place	Group	Composition		Total
		Male	Female	
	PTA	5	3	8
Aworodo	SMC	4	4	8
	PTA	4	4	8
Besease	SMC	5	3	8
	PTA	4	4	8
Essiam	SMC	6	2	8
	PTA	5	3	8
Fawomanye	SMC	7	1	8
Total		40	24	64

Source: Field Survey, 2007

Each focus group consisted of eight members, made up of men and women. The research team members created a relaxed and friendly environment so that each person in the group felt comfortable and relaxed to express himself/herself during the discussion. Each person in the group was given the opportunity to share his/her views with the entire group. In all, eight focus group discussion sessions were held in the four communities. Each meeting lasted for about one and half hours. The final week was used for the collection of the questionnaires and mopping up. Whilst one team member was collecting the questionnaires, the others were visiting the communities and completing the interviews. The fieldwork ended on 27th June, 2007.

Field challenges

The survey started with a great deal of enthusiasm, interest and hope. This glimmer of hope was cemented in several places and with majority of the respondents. There were, however, challenges worth taking note of. First and foremost, setting the time for the FGDs was a big challenge for both researchers and the community members, especially in Essiam. Almost all the members of the SMC and PTA executives were Ahmadis and the only time the team could get them was just after their dawn prayers, since most of them were farmers and would go to the farm before sunrise. Also, those who were to fill the questionnaires could not go by the time they gave to the data collection team for the collection of the instruments. Some respondents were also not willing to be interviewed. Also, after a two days' work in Besease, the belongings of the team members as well as the filled interview schedules were stolen.

Team members had to devise strategies to mitigate the above stated challenges. Concerning the focus group discussion at Essiam, team members had to wake up very early in the morning to meet the group members just after the dawn prayers. The few things that the team could not get from the discussions were later elicited from the chairpersons of the groups. In some cases, team members had to refresh some of the respondents even before the start of the discussion. The team had to extend their stay in Besease in order to make up the required number of respondents. Team members felt satisfied overcoming all these challenges and making the study a success.

Data processing and analysis

Data gathered from the fieldwork were inspected and reorganised to allow for easy analysis by the computer. The data collection instruments were coded and given serial numbers for easy identification for scoring. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) (Version 12) and Microsoft excel were employed in the analysis of the quantitative data. Frequency tables were used to summarise the data and this made possible the presentation of percentages of the various variables that influenced the phenomenon identified.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The results and discussion of the study is presented in this chapter. It covers the background characteristics of the respondents, the nature of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project, factors that affect community participation; and how community participation promotes effective project planning and management.

Background characteristics of respondents

The background characteristics of the respondents included the sex, age and duration of stay in the community. As indicated in Table 5, there were 185 respondents, consisting of 40.1 percent parents, 17.3 percent SMC members, 17.3 percent PTA members, and 14.0 percent opinion leaders. The rest were teachers (6.5%), District Girls Education Officer (1.6%), District Assembly Staff (1.6 %) and Staff of CSA (1.6 %). In all, there were 110 (59.9 %) males and 75 (40.1 %) females in the study.

Table 5: Sex distribution of respondents

Category	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Parents	36	32.7	38	50.7	74	40.1
SMC	22	20.0	10	13.3	32	17.3
PTA	20	18.2	12	16.0	32	17.3
Opinion leaders	18	16.4	8	10.7	26	14.0
Teachers	8	7.3	4	5.3	12	6.5
DEO	1	0.9	2	2.7	3	1.6
D/A	3	2.7	0	0	3	1.6
CSA	2	1.8	1	1.3	3	1.6
Total	110	100.0	75	100.0	185	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2007

Age-sex distribution of community members

The study also looked at the age and sex distribution of only the community members. This is because the researcher wanted to find out the age and sex of community members who participated in the communal labour activities during the project. Out of the 100 community members, 8 percent were in the 21-30 age-groups, 23 percent were in the 31-40 age-group, 23 percent were in the 41-50 age-group, 29 percent were in the 51-60 age-group, and 17 percent were over 60 years. This indicates that 75 percent of the community members

were between 31 and 60 years. The respondents were made up of 54 males and 46 females. Out of the number, 33.3 percent males and 23.9 percent females were in the 51 to 60 years age group while 18.5 percent and 28.3 percent males and females respectively were in the 41 to 50 age group.

The mean age of community members was 47.1 years (males- 49.1years; females- 44.8 years). This implies that most of the community members who took part in the study were in the active working age-group and, therefore, their participation in decision making, communal labour and resource mobilisation towards the project was essential. Table 6 indicates the age-sex distribution of community members.

Table 6: Age-sex distribution of community members

Age (years)	Male		Sex Female		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
21-30	3	5.6	5	10.9	8	8.0
31-40	11	20.4	12	26.0	23	23.0
41-50	10	18.5	13	28.3	23	23.0
51-60	18	33.3	11	23.9	29	29.0
61+	12	22.2	5	10.9	17	17.0
Total	54	100.0	46	100.0	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2007

Length of stay of community members in the communities

Community members were asked to indicate how long they had stayed in their various communities. Out of the 100 community members, 22 percent (males- 22.2 % and females- 21.7 %) had stayed there between five to six years, while 78 percent (males-77.8 % and females-78.3 %) had spent seven years and more of their lives in the community. The mean length of stay for the males and females was 6.7 years each. This indicates that all the respondents were in the communities during the implementation of the project. Table 7 shows the length of stay in the community by sex of the community members.

Table 7: Length of stay in the community by sex of the community members

Length of stay (in years)	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
5-6	12	22.2	10	21.7	22	22.0
7 and above	42	77.8	36	78.3	78	78.0
Total	54	100.0	46	100.0	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2007

Community members' knowledge of the QUIPS programme

As part of the study, it was important to establish whether community members had any knowledge of the QUIPS programme. Community members were, therefore, made to tell what they knew about the QUIPS programme. The

results in Table 8 show that 55 percent thought that the programme was about ensuring good academic performance, 31 percent said it was about infrastructural development and 12 percent stated that the programme concentrated on the improvement of the school through collaboration with the project communities. Only one person talked about training and the fact that the project concentrated on the training of community leaders on different topics as to how to perform their roles to make the school a befitting one. All the above were aspects of the programme.

Table 8: Community members’ knowledge of the QUIPS programme

Views of community members on QUIPS	Number	Percent
Ensuring academic performance	55	55.0
Infrastructural development	31	31.0
Improvement in the school through partnership	12	12.0
Training	1	1.0
Don’t know	1	1.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2007

The other respondents were also asked to indicate the purpose of the QUIPS programme. The District Training Officer said the project was to support the educational reforms (Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education) (fCUBE) and to help SMC/PTA to become more effective. The School Health Education Programme Coordinator and the District Girls’ Education Officer reiterated that the programme was implemented by the Ghana Education Service and the USAID to strengthen basic education in the country.

For the teachers, the QUIPS programme was about the general improvement in primary schools (58.3 %) and the training of teachers and the construction of classroom blocks (41.7 5%). The rest also stated that the programme concentrated on the training of teachers and the construction of classroom blocks.

The School Management Committee members and the executives of Parent Teacher Association also testified that the programme concentrated on the improvement in the education of pupils through the participation of the major stakeholders of education both at the community and the district levels. The District Assembly staff also indicated that the programme was a collaboration between the Government and the USAID in support for the fCUBE programme. The budget officer went on to say that the programme provided funds for the construction of classroom blocks.

Nature of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED

On community participation, the study showed that the local people in the various communities were made to decide on the kind of project that they wanted in their various community schools, apart from the construction of the classroom blocks. The community was also given the chance to participate in the identification, planning as well as the implementation of these projects. The local communities, which were involved in the projects, together wrote their own proposals and forwarded them to the offices of the CSA Project through the district facilitator. The decision on what to use the micro grant for, and the

purchasing and utilisation of the materials were left in the hands of the local people themselves.

The community-based organisation such as the chief and elders, religious groups, PTA executives, and the SMC members as well as the unit committee and the assembly persons in the various communities saw to the writing of the proposals, the purchasing and utilisation of materials for micro grant project. This indicates the strengthening and empowerment of school management structures as well as developing community leadership and ownership which are also part of the CSA best practices. This corroborates Oakley's (1991) interpretation of community participation as a process of empowerment.

The communities did not only participate in the design and writing of the proposals, the purchasing and utilisation of materials but also mobilised resources in support of the CSA Project. The projects that were undertaken included the construction of urinals and toilets, teachers' tables and chairs, nursery blocks and the provision of teaching and learning materials. Table 9 indicates the resources that the communities contributed in support of the CSA Project. The communities contributed resources such as money, sand, stones wood and technical assistance. The results of the study indicate that, out of the 100 community members, 82 percent helped in the mobilisation of raw materials. Another 82 percent out of 100 respondents provided communal labour, whilst 52 percent contributed financially. Clearly, the immense contribution of resources by the community is an indication of the extent of their involvement in the CSA Project.

Table 9: Resources contributed by PSCs in support of the CSA Project

Contribution	Number	Percent
Raw materials	82	35.3
Communal labour	82	35.3
Money	52	22.4
Technical assistance	16	7.0
Total	232*	100.0

* More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Survey, 2007

Similarly, the SMC and the PTA executives confirmed that the communities provided all the resources stated in Table 9. The SMCs and PTAs in Essiam and Besease stated that they organised various fund-raising activities in the communities as well as in the Ahmadiya Mission and Methodist Church of Ghana respectively. In Fawomanye, both the SMC and PTA executives stated that funds were raised through the collection of levies from community members. The assembly member in Aworodo, confirmed that the SMC and PTA executives spearheaded the mobilisation of resources as the unit committee had totally collapsed. With regard to contribution towards the project, community members formed small groups to participate in communal labour activities in all four communities. The contribution of resources of the communities towards the project is in line with the best practices of the CSA Project of empowering local people to act; utilising grassroots institutions in participatory planning; and developing community leadership and ownership (CSA, 2004).

The CSA district facilitator stated that, as part of the project design, all the communities were made to contribute resources to support the project. However, larger communities, like Besease and Essiam, relied on the support of the PTA and local management of the Methodist Education Unit in Besease and the Ahmadiya Education Unit in Essiam.

Reasons for community contribution

The community members gave reasons for their contribution towards the CSA Project as indicated in Table 10. The results show that 41 percent of the community members saw their contribution as their love for quality education, while 29 percent said it was in support of the development of the school in the community. Again, 20 percent of the community members said it was their matching fund for the CSA Project in their communities. In this regard, community members’ contribution to their own development is a major reason for the achievement of project participation and sustainable development (Oakley, 1991).

Table 10: Reasons for community contribution to the project

Reasons	Number	Percent
Love for quality education	41	41
Community school development	29	29
Matching fund	20	20
Support for QUIPS/CSA	8	8
Don’t know	2	2
Total	100	100

Source: Field Survey, 2007

The teachers in all four communities said that the community members contributed all the stated resources in support of the project. SMC and PTA executives confirmed that they mobilised those resources in support of the project because they had been pre-informed that they needed to contribute resources to the project. This was confirmed by the staff of the GES as well as those from the District Assembly. The CSA Regional Facilitator noted that every PSC was expected to contribute resources towards the successful implementation of the project. The regional facilitator confirmed that the communities in AEED contributed resources as expected of them.

The approach used in the CSA Project

Unlike other projects, the CSA Project was focused on the involvement of the local people as part of the project design. As such, the local people had a major role in the project. This part of the study finds out whether the community members knew the kind of design or approach used in the CSA Project. The study revealed that out of the 48 responses 56 percent of the community members said the project used the community participation approach, 23 percent said it used the stakeholder participation approach, while 21 percent said the project used democratic approach (Table 11). It means that the CSA Project was sensitive to community involvement as an approach to community development as indicated by majority (56.0%) of the respondents in the study.

Table 11: Community members’ knowledge on the approach used by the CSA

Approach	Number	Percent
Community participation	27	56.0
Stakeholder participation	11	23.0
Democracy	10	21.0
Total	48*	100.0

*Only 48 of the respondents responded to this item.

Source: Field Survey, 2007

With regard to other stakeholders like teachers, 50 percent said the project applied the community participation approach, while 33.3 percent noted that the CSA Project ensured that all the stakeholders of education, both in the community as well as at the district level, were part of the decision making process throughout the project. The SMC members, PTA executives and the District Assembly staff confirmed that the approach involved all the stakeholders of education in the district. The District Facilitator indicated that the project was designed with the communities at the centre and everything revolved around the community members and the stakeholders of education in the District.

Role of community members in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED

The study was also interested in ascertaining the role of community members in the planning and management of the CSA Project. In this regard the

study measured the role of the community in the project based on their knowledge of the project, involvement of community-based stakeholders in the project, level of involvement of various community-based stakeholders in the project, and contributions of the community members towards the CSA Project.

With regard to community members' knowledge of the CSA Project, the study revealed that out of the 100 respondents, 68 percent of the community members stated that the project was about sensitising parents on their roles and responsibilities regarding their children's education, while 23 percent stated that the project was about creating good community-school relationship (Table 12).

Table 12: Community members' knowledge of the Community School Alliance project

Views of community	Number	Percent
Sensitisation of community members on		
their roles in education of children	68	68.0
Community-school relationship	23	23.0
Improving academic performance	4	4.0
Don't know	3	3.0
Training	2	2.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2007

Similarly, the Schools Health Education Programme (SHEP) coordinator and the District Girls Education Officer (DGEO) supported the fact that the CSA Project was about sensitising parents on their roles and responsibilities regarding

their children's education. The District Training Officer, on the other hand, said that the project was about helping SMC/PTAs and other stakeholders to be active for efficient and effective educational delivery in the communities. The SMC members also said that the CSA Project was about capacity building of stakeholders for education as well as assisting the schools with infrastructural projects to ensure effective and efficient teaching and learning.

From the point of view of the District Assembly staff, the CSA Project was mainly for the improvement of primary schools and the programme concentrated on putting up classrooms for the various schools as they were expecting the communities to contribute in terms of labour, raw materials and money to support the project. This is indicative of the fact that the project took the involvement of stakeholders at both the community and the district levels seriously. This is because, after a number of years, community members could tell what the project was about.

The involvement of community-based stakeholders in the CSA Project

All the community-based stakeholders in education, such as chief and elders, religious groups, PTA, SMC, unit committee, assembly person, and the entire community, were involved in the CSA Project. Consequently, out of the total number of responses (441), 20.6 percent mentioned the SMC as the most prominent of all the stakeholders of education who participated in the CSA Project, while 20 percent indicated that the community members were also involved in the project (Table 13).

Table 13: The involvement of community-based stakeholders in the CSA Project

Community based institutions/stakeholders	Number	Percent
SMC	91	20.6
Community members	88	20.0
PTA	86	19.5
Chief and elders	55	12.5
Religious Groups	48	10.9
Unit Committee members	39	8.8
Assemblypersons	34	7.7
Total	441*	100.0

*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Survey, 2007

The responses indicate that all the stakeholders of education, identified in the communities where the CSA Project was implemented, were actively involved in the project. The figures also indicate that, though all the stakeholders were involved, their level of involvement was different and at different points of the project cycle. The different levels of involvement at different times of the projects were due to the differences in the technical know-how, roles of the stakeholders and the voluntary and democratic nature of the community participation in the implementation of the project.

This resonates with the assertion of Oakley (1991) that community participation is a voluntary and democratic involvement of all beneficiary community in decision making regarding problem analysis, setting goals,

formulating policies, planning, managing and evaluating economic and social development programmes and sharing the benefits thereof.

Level of involvement of the various community-based stakeholders

The community members were asked to indicate the level of involvement of the various community-based stakeholders in the CSA Project. With regard to the various levels of the involvement of the stakeholders in decision-making processes in planning and management of the project, the study made the following revelations. Out of the 100 respondents, the study indicated that community members rated the level of involvement of the SMC/PTA (93.0%), chief and elders (92.0%), and the religious groups (86%). This shows that the stakeholders such as SMC/PTA, chief and elders as well as religious groups were rated as highly involved in the CSA Project compared to the other stakeholders (Table 14).

Table 14: Level of involvement of the various community-based stakeholders

Stakeholders	Percent	Total
SMC/PTA	93.0	100
Chief and elders	92.0	100
Religious groups	86.0	100
Unit committee/Assembly person	39.0	100
Other stakeholders	12.0	100

Source: Field Survey, 2007

According to the teachers and the SMC/PTA executives, the various religious groups in all four communities played active roles in the projects. For instance, in Besease, the Methodist Church organised several fund raising activities as well as communal labour in their schools. In Essiam, the Ahmadiya Mission also took responsibility to raise funds and participate in several programmes in the school in order to ensure the success and sustainability of the CSA Project. This Confirms Cohen and Uphoff (1977) assertion that participation in rural development should take into consideration the people's involvement in every facet of the project cycle. This level of involvement of the stakeholders at different levels of the project planning and management results in its sustainability as indicated in the conceptual framework (Figure 3).

Contribution of the community towards the CSA Projects

As part of the CSA Project design, the communities were supposed to make some contributions towards the success of the project. The participation of the community in the project was measured in terms of their contribution in the form of land, labour, materials, money and ideas (decision making). Community contribution was rated from poor to good. It was revealed in the study that out the 100 respondents, 66 percent and 19 percent rated community contribution towards the project as good and poor respectively (Table 15).

Table 15: Contribution of the community towards the projects

Responses	Number	Percent
Good	66	66.0
Poor	19	19.0
Fair	9	9.0
Don't know	6	6.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2007

This implies that the CSA Project did not just make room for the involvement of community members but also empowered the community leadership and members to see the need to mobilise resources towards the project for ownership and sustainability purposes as a standard practice of the CSA Project.

Factors that affect community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED

The factors that affected community participation in the planning and management of the projects were determined from two angles. These were the factors that affected the project positively and negatively. Table 16 shows the factors that positively affected the planning and management of the projects.

Table 16: Factors that positively affected community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project

Factor	Number	Percent
Resource mobilisation	90	94.0
Training	4	4.0
Supervision	2	2.0
Total	96*	100.0

* 96 respondents responded to the item.

Source: Field Survey, 2007

Consequently, it was revealed in the study that out of the 96 respondents, resource mobilisation (94.0%), training (4.0%) and supervision (2.0%) were identified as factors that positively affected community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project. Clearly, resource mobilisation was identified as the major factor that positively affected community participation in the planning and management of the project in district.

On the other hand, the factors which retarded the planning and management of the projects, as indicated in Table 17, were lack of commitment on the part of some parents (58.3 %), discrimination against community members whose relatives were not part of the community leadership (16.7%), lack of skilled personnel (16.7%), and differences in remuneration for the skilled personnel who were employed to work on the project (8.3%). It is important to note that lack of commitment on the part of some parents greatly affected community participation in the CSA Project in the District.

The SMC members in Besease indicated that the project really brought stress on the community members. They said that community members had to forgo their farming activities because of the project activities; some had to go to their farms early so that they could also make time for the project. According to the SMC and the PTA executives, it got to a point where the community members were complaining bitterly about lots of time spent on the project to the detriment of their farming activities.

Table 17: Factors that negatively affected community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project

Factors	Number	Percent
Lack of commitment by some parents	5	58.3
Discrimination	2	16.7
Lack of skilled personnel	2	16.7
Differences in remuneration	1	8.3
Total	12*	100.0

*Only 12 responded to this item.

Source: Field Survey, 2007

However, community members from Fawomanye and Aworodo did not see any disadvantages with the community participation approach.

The strengths of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED were identified as: respect for the views of the people (50%); people become responsible for their development (35%); rapid development (11%) and equality (2%) (Table 18). Concerning the issue of respect

for the view of the people, the community members stated that, with community participation, the views of the local people were respected and they were also allowed to decide on what to do for their school and community. They were given the option to take initiatives to help in the schools' development.

Table 18: Strengths of community participation

Factor	Number	Percent
Respect for the views of the people	29	50.0
People become responsible for their development	20	35.0
Rapid development	6	11.0
Equality	1	2.0
Don't know	1	2.0
Total	57*	100.0

*Only 57 responded to this item.

Source: Field Survey, 2007

This, according to the SMC/PTA executives, encouraged the community members to have a hand in the development of their children's education. In addition, suggestions and decisions made by the community members at meetings were not disregarded.

Furthermore, 35 percent of the community members said, with community participation, people became responsible for their development when consulted during the planning and implementation of the project. Indeed, as the conceptual framework for the linkage between community participation and project planning and sustainable development (Figure 5) depicts, when development planners and

implementers involve the project beneficiaries right from the conception of the project to the end, it enhances project sustainability. Hence, community members said that because they were involved in the planning and implementation of the project, it became very important to see to its maintenance and sustainability. Furthermore, the technology used was not inimical to the environment and, as such, community members did not see the technology used as foreign. The technology was friendly to the people and it was very easy to replicate it in other sectors of community development in the district and country as a whole.

In addition, 11 percent of the community members stated that community participation was a tool for rapid development. Because people's views were taken and all stakeholders were represented on the various committees, all the stakeholders of the project participated in their numbers. This actually enhanced the delivery of the project. Within some few months, community members had used their resources in the form of communal labour and other local resources to put up structures, and also implemented decisions that they took at their various meetings. In other words, community participation brought about efficiency in the use of resources.

More so, the community members mentioned time and lack of skilled labour as the weaknesses of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in AEED (Table 19). With regard to the first issue in relation to time, the majority (77%) of the community members stated that community participation was time consuming. This was corroborated by the

SMC and PTA executives that the community members had to spend their time either at meetings or communal labour days, irrespective of the season.

Table 19: Weaknesses of community participation

Factors	Number	percent
Time consuming	10	77.0
Lack of skilled labour	2	15.0
Don't know	1	8.0
Total	13*	100.0

*Only 13 community members responded to this item.

Source: Field Survey, 2007

The SMC and PTA executives further stated that, in all four communities, the issue of lack of skilled labour was a problem. According to the SMC and the PTA members, most of the community members, who attended communal labour, idled about and this delayed the process.

How community participation promotes effective project planning and management

Community participation promotes a high sense of ownership of management of arrangement that tends to foster a high degree of commitment and rule compliance. Similarly, the involvement of stakeholders in the planning and management of the CSA Project resulted in the community empowerment which promoted community ownership, participation and management of the project. For instance, all the classroom blocks that the communities had as a result of their involvement in the project were in good shape and well maintained. The SMC

members at Besease in a focus group discussion stated that they had purchased padlocks and replaced the door locks of the classrooms. They also mentioned that they held constant meetings as well as read financial reports to parents and other stakeholders of the school to ensure the sustainability of the project.

Similarly, community participation increases human capacity and strengthens technical capabilities. In this regard, the involvement of the stakeholders in the CSA Project enhanced the capacity and technical competency of the community members. At Aworodo, for instance, the community had constructed a canteen, nursery block and a pit latrine for the school, while the people of Essiam had gone ahead to put up teachers quarters, a urinal and a toilet facility for the school. It was further realized that the SMC and PTA were responsible for the maintenance of the projects. The district assembly occasionally assisted these communities in the maintenance of these projects.

Furthermore, community involvement in decision making promotes resource mobilization and stewardship particularly when stakeholders play an important role in the planning and management processes. For example, the involvement of the key stakeholders in the decision making process of the CSA Project resulted in the contribution of raw materials (82%), communal labour (82%), money (52%) and technical assistance (16%) towards the success of the project.

In addition, community participation ensures buy-in from stakeholders at both community and district levels which improves compliance and reduces cost. In focus group discussion stakeholders such PTA, SMC, chief and elders,

religious groups, district assembly, and district education office stated that the technical assistance for the construction of the six classroom blocks in the partnership school communities were provided by the district assembly. The district education office also provided school management training for SMC, PTA and community members.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The preceding chapters highlighted the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, scope of the study, significance of the study, operational definition of terms and organization of the study. It also reviewed relevant literature on the concept and theory of participatory development, community participation, factors that affect community participation, the CSA, and the concept of sustainable development. The methodology, discussions and analysis of the findings of the study were also presented. In the following chapter, the summary, conclusions and recommendations as well as areas for further studies are presented.

Summary

The study examined community participation in project planning and management using the CSA in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District as a case study. Generally, the study set out to evaluate the nature and importance of community participation in the planning and management of the Community Schools Alliance (CSA) Project in the AEED. The study specifically examined the nature of community participation, the role of community members,

determined the factors that affect community participation, evaluated how community participation promotes effective project planning and management; and made recommendations on strategies that will improve the functioning of the CSA Project.

Evaluative, descriptive and cross sectional research designs were adopted in conducting the study. The study population was made up of all adults aged 18 years and above as well as the staff of the District Assembly, the Ghana Education Service and the CSA. Simple random and purposive sampling methods were used to select 185 respondents. The sample was selected from seven different strata of the population for the purposes of getting a cross sectional view of all the people. The sample included 100 community members; 12 teachers; 28 Parents Teachers Association executives; 36 School Management Committee members; three staff from the District Assembly, Ghana Education Service and the CSA.

Six sets of questionnaires were used in a field survey to solicit data from the seven different categories of respondents in the sample. Personal observation and data from secondary sources were also used. The computer software used for the analysis was the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS). Data was presented in tables and analysed using frequencies and percentages.

The main findings of the study are summarised based on the objectives of the study. With regard to the nature of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED, the study revealed that the entire community had the opportunity to participate in the identification, planning

and the implementation of the CSA. In this regard, the community-based organization such as the chief and elders, religious groups, PTA executives, and the SMC members as well as the unit committee and the assembly persons were actively involved in the project. It was also recognized in the study that the community participated in the CSA Project by contributing resources such as land, labour, materials, artisans, money and ideas to the project. To this effect, the community members contributed financially (52%), mobilised raw materials and communal labour (82%) and provided technical assistance (16%). In addition, the study revealed the reasons for the contribution of resources towards the CSA Project as their love for quality education (41%), support for the development of schools in the community (29%) and as the community's matching fund (20%). Consequently, the CSA Project was sensitive to community participation as an approach to community development. This was indicated by majority (56.0%) of the respondents.

Furthermore, as to the role of community members in the planning and management of the CSA Project in the AEED, it was observed in the study that community members (68%) had the knowledge that the CSA Project was about sensitizing parents on their roles and responsibilities regarding their children's education. Also, with regard to the involvement of community based institution and stakeholders, the study revealed the involvement of key stakeholders such as the SMC (20.6%), community members (20%) and PTA (19.5%). As to the level of involvement of the various community-based stakeholders, the study showed that stakeholders such as SMC/PTA (93.0%), chief and elders (92.0%), as well as

religious groups (86%) were rated as highly involved in the CSA Project. Moreover, in rating the contribution of community stakeholders in the CSA Project, the majority (66%) of the respondents rated the contribution of community stakeholders as good.

In addition, in determining the factors that affected community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project, the study revealed both positive and negative factors. The majority (94%) of the respondents identified resource mobilization as the major factor that positively affected community participation in the planning and management of the project. Also, respect for the views of the people was identified by the majority (50%) of the respondents as the strength of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project. This therefore had a positive influence on the project. However, the majority (58.3%) identified lack of commitment on the part of some parents as a key factor that retarded the planning and management of the projects. Similarly, time constraints (77%) were recognised as a major weakness of community participation in the planning and management of the CSA Project. This also had a negative influence on the project.

Community participation promotes effective project planning and management by enhancing community empowerment, ownership, participation and management in project. It also increases human capacity, strengthens technical competence, resource mobilization and stewardship as well as improves compliance and reduces cost.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of the study.

1. The community had the opportunity to participate in the identification, planning and the implementation as well as the management of the CSA Project at the community level.
2. The community participated in the CSA Project by contributing resources such as land, labour, materials, artisans, money and ideas to the project.
3. The reasons for the contribution of resources towards the CSA Project were for the love for quality education, support for the development of schools in the community and as the community's matching fund.
4. The CSA Project was sensitive to community participation as an approach to community development.
5. Resource mobilization and respect for the views of the people was identified as major factors that positively affected community participation in the planning and management of the project while lack of commitment on the part of some parents and time constraints were recognised as factors that retarded the planning and management of the CSA Project.
6. Community participation in the CSA Project promoted effective project planning and management by enhancing community empowerment, ownership, increased human capacity, strengthened technical competence and resource mobilization and stewardship. It also improved compliance and reduced the cost of the project.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations were made:

1. Community members should be encouraged to comprehensively participate in all facets of the project life cycle in order to ensure project sustainability.
2. The planning and management of all development projects by policy makers, development partners, and government should create room for the interest and involvement of beneficiaries.
3. Communities should be encouraged to contribute human, material and financial resources towards the planning, implementation and management of community based projects.
4. Even though project drawings and designs and costing may be done by experts or consultants, the community should be informed or educated on all such details so that they would appreciate what each project entails.

Areas for further study

It would be essential to look at the following:

1. Forms of community participation to adopt in different circumstances and for different projects.
2. The link between the various stages of the project cycle, since this study concentrated on the planning and management of projects at the community level.

3. Community participation in the management of basic school: The case of the CSA.

REFERENCES

- Ahwoi, K. (1995, March/ April). Ministerial policies: Why the PNDC and NDC government opted for the decentralisation policy. *The Local Government Information Digest*, 8(2), 26-31.
- Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam (2004). *District Assembly Newsletter*, 1, p.4.
- Akuoku-Frimpong, H. (1986). The need for an effective decentralised framework to promote development from below. In C. K. Brown (Ed.), *Rural development in Ghana*, (pp. 295-304). Accra: Ghana Universities Press
- Andah, K. (1986). Strategies for rural development, In C. K. Brown (Ed.), *Rural development in Ghana*, (pp. 305-313). Accra: Ghana Universities Press
- Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *JAIP*, 35(4), 216-224.
- Ayee, J. (1993). *Decentralization and local government under the PNDC in Ghana*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- Barbisa, T., Zyl, J. V., Parker, A. N., & Sonn, L. (1995). *Decentralised rural development and enhanced community participation: A case study of North-East Brazil*. Washington D.C.: World Bank
- Bartelmus, P. (1994). Green account for national strategy of sustainable development: A case of Papua New Guinea. *Ambio*, 23(8), 509-514.
- Ben-David, D., & Raz, T. (2004). *An integrated approach for risk response to development in project planning*. Tel Aviv: University Israel Press.
- Barshin, K. (1985). *Towards empowerment*. Rome: FAO
- Boakye, Y. (1995). Public participation in environmental management. *The Local Government Information Digest*, March/April, 8(2), 20-25.

- Brown, C. K. (1983). *Report on the people's participation project: Ghana workshop on performance monitoring and on-going evaluation*. Rome: FAO
- Brown, C. K. (1986). *Guidelines for the establishment of a participatory management information system for the people participatory project*. Rome: FAO.
- Brown, C. K. (1986). *Rural development in Ghana*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- Bryson, J. M., & Bromiley, P. (1993). *Strategic management*. New York: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Buam, W. C (1982). *The project cycle*. Washington D.C.: World Bank
- BURGEAP (1998). Report r.2221/a4654/195531, June, p.37
- Cernea, M. (1991). *Putting people first: Sociological variables in rural development*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Chambers, R. (1974). *Managing rural development: Ideas and experiences from East Africa*. Uppsala: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies.
- Chambers, R. (1983). *Rural development: Putting the last first*. Harlow Essex: Longman.
- Chambers, R. (1997). *Whose reality counts? Putting the first last*. Harlow Essex: Longman Press.
- Chambers, R. (2002). The devils in the theory: A critical assessment of Robert Chambers' work on participatory development. *Third World Quarterly*, 23(1), 101-107.

- Chambers, R., & Mayoux, L. (2005). *Reversing the paradigm: Quantification and participatory methods*. Manchester: University of Manchester Press.
- Chilisa, B., & Preece, J. (2005). *Research methods for adult educators in Africa*. Cape Town: UNESCO/Pearson Publications.
- Cohen, J. M., & Uphoff, N. (1977). *Rural development participation: Concept and measures of project design, implementation and evaluation*. New York: Cornell University.
- Condy, A. (1998). *Social development*. London: Department for International Development.
- Conway, D., & Chambers, R. (1992). *Sustainable livelihood approach to poverty reduction*. Retrieved on www.cefims.ac.uk/cedep_app/124
- Cornwall, A., & Gaventa, J. (2000). From users and choosers to makers and shapers: Repositioning participation in social policy. *IDS Bulletin*, 31(4), 50-62
- Cornwall, A., & Gaventa, J. (2001). *Bridging the gap: Citizenship, participation and accountability*. New York: World Bank.
- Cornwall, A. (2002). Locating citizen participation. *IDS Bulletin*, 33(2), 1-10.
- Conyers, D., & Hills, P. (1984). *An introduction to development planning in the Third World*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- David, S., Duncan, F. M., Nsiah, K., & Thompson, D. A. (2003). *Development in practice*. New York: Taylor & Francis Ltd
- DFID (2000). *Realizing human rights for poor people*. London: DFID

- Economic Commission for Latin America (1973). Popular participation in development. *Community Development Journal*, 8(2), 77-93.
- Egerton University (2000). *Egerton PRA field handbook for participatory rural appraisal practitioners* (3rd ed.). Njoro: Egerton University
- Ellision, N. (1997). Beyond universalism and particularism: Rethinking contemporary welfare theory. *Critical Social Policy*, 19(1), 57-83.
- Esteva, G., & Prakash, M. (1998). *Grassroots post modernism: Remaking the soil of cultures*. London: Zed Books.
- Evans, P. (1997). *Development strategies across the public private divide: State society synergy, government and social capital in development*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Fisher, F. (2001). *Building bridges through participatory planning*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Fowler, A. (1998). Authentic NGDO partnership in the new policy agenda for international aid: Dead end or light ahead? *Development and Change*, 29, 137-159.
- Fukuda-Parr, S., Lopes, C., & Malik, K. (2002). *Overview of capacity for development: New solutions to old problems*. New York: Earthscan Publications.
- Galjart, B. (1981). Participatory development projects: Some conclusions from research. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 21(2), 142-159.
- Gaventa, J. (1993). The powerful, the powerless and the experts: Knowledge struggles in an information age. In P. Peter, H. Budd, and J. Ted (Ed.),

Participatory research in North America, (pp. 57-64). Amherst, MA:
Bergin and Hadley

Ghai, D. (1988). *Participation in development: Some perspectives from grassroots experiences*. Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD).

Ghana Statistical Service (2002). *2000 national population and housing census: Summary report of final result*. Accra: Ghana Statistical Service

Goebel, A. (1998). Process, perception and power: notes from “participatory” research in a Zimbabwean resettlement area. *Development and Change*, 29, 277-305.

Goetz, R. J. (1999). *Accounts and accountability: Theoretical implications for the right-to-information movement in India: Strengthening participation in local governance*. Brighton: IDS.

Goldman, I., & Abbott, J. (2004). *Decentralisation and community-based planning: Participatory learning and action notes 49*. London: International Institute for Environment and Development.

GTZ (1991). *Where there is no participation*. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit: Eschborn.

Hague, W. (1977). Towards a theory of rural development. *Development Dialogue*, 2, 7-137.

Hall, M. & Lew, A. (1998) *Sustainable tourism: A geographical perspective*. New York: Addison Wesley Longman Ltd.

- Hirschmann, D. (2003). Keeping the last in mind: Incorporating chamber in consulting. *Development Practices*, 13(5), 487-500
- Isaac, T. M., & Richard, F. (2000). *Local democracy and development: People campaign for decentralised planning in Kerala*. New Delhi: Leftword.
- Kendie, S. B. (1994). *Willingness to pay more for rural water services in Ghana and Togo*. Cape Coast: Centre for Development Studies.
- Khan, N. S., & Bhasin, K. (1986). *Sharing one earth*. Rome: FAO.
- Kirk, R. E. (1995). *Experimental design*. Brooks: Pacific Groove.
- Korten, D. (1980). Community organisation in rural development: A learning process approach. *Public Administration Review*, 12, 493-503,
- Korten, D. (1996). *A guide for full projects on adaptive strategies*. Lahore: IDRC
- Kropp, E. (1984). *Regional rural development: Guiding principles*. New York: Sage
- Lefevre, P., Kolsteren, P., De Wael, M., Byekwaso, F., & Beghin, I. (2000). *Comprehensive participatory planning and evaluation*. Antwerp: Sage
- Liberatore, M. J., & George, J. T. (1983). *Practice of management science in rural and development project management*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Little, I. M. S., & Mirless, J. A. (1974). *Project appraisal and planning for developing countries*. London: Heinemann Educational.
- Lister, R. (1998). Citizen in action: Citizenship and community development in Northern Ireland context. *Community Development*, 33(3), 226-235
- Makumbe, J. (1996). *Participatory development: The case of Zimbabwe*. Harare: University of Zimbabwe Publications.

- Mayo, M., & Craig, G. (1995). *Community Empowerment: A reader in participation and development*. London: Zed books.
- Midgley, T, Hall, A, Hardiman, M. & Dhanpaul N. (1986). *Community participation, social development and the state*. London: Methuen.
- Mikkelsen, B. (1995). *Methods for development work and research: A guide for practitioners*. New Delhi: Sage.
- Mohan, G., & Stokke, K. (2000). Participatory development: The danger of localism. *Third World Quarterly*, 21(2), 247-268.
- Mowforth, S., & Munt, I. (1998). *Tourism and sustainability: Development, globalization and new tourism in the third world*. New York: Rutledge.
- Narayan, D., Patel, R., Scjafft K., Rademacher, A., & Koch-Schulte, S (2000). *Voices of the poor: can anyone hear us?* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nelson, N., & Wright, S. (1995). *Power and participatory development: Theory and practice*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.
- Nkum, J., & Associates (1993). *Report on training and village level planning for district assembly members in West Gonja and Nanumba Districts Programme of Action*. PN 86. 2518. 01. 100
- Nyerere, J. (1968). *Freedom and socialism*. Dar es Salaam: Oxford University Press.
- Oakley, P. (1988). *The monitoring and evaluation of participation in rural development*. Rome: FAO.

- Oakley, P. (1991). *Projects with people*. Geneva: International Labour Organisation Office.
- Oakley, P., & Marsden, D. (1984). *Approaches to participation in rural development*. Geneva: ILO.
- O'Malley, K. (1990). An action plan. *Community Development Journal*, 29(3), 28-32.
- Oltheten, T. M. P. (1999). *Participatory approaches to planning for community forestry: A synthesis report, forests, trees and people programme*. Forestry Department Working Paper No. 2
- Ozor, N., & Nwankwo, N. (2008). *Community participation*. Nsukka: University of Nigeria
- Paul, S. (1987). *Community participation in development projects*. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Pearse, A., & Stiefel, M. (1979). *Inquiry into participation*. Geneva: UNRISD.
- Peet, R., & Watts, M. (1996). *Liberation ecologies: Environment, development, social movements*. New York: Rutledge.
- Peter-de-Schweini, B., Ansong D., Manortey, S., Amuasi, J., Boakye, I., Crookston, B. T., & Aldir, S. (2009). Evaluating international collaboration: Differential perception of participating in a community based poverty reduction project in Ghana. *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethic*, 21(4), 53-67.
- Rahman, A. (1983). *Sri Lanka's grass-root participation in the Philippines*. WEP Working Paper. Geneva: ILO.

- Rahman, A. (1984). *Participation and organization of the rural poor*. WEP Working Paper. Geneva: ILO.
- Richards, P. (1995). *Participatory rural appraisal: A quick and dirty critique*. London: IIED.
- Sarantakos, S. (1998). *Social research*. Sydney: McMillan
- Schumacher, E. F. (1973). *Small is beautiful*. London: Abacus.
- Schuurman, F. (1993). *Beyond the impasse: New directions in development theory*. London: Zed Books.
- Selman, B. (1996). *Third world*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Simon, D., Duncan F., Mc Gregory, M., Nsiah-Gyabaah K., & Thompson, D. A. (2003). *Development in practice: Poverty elimination, north-south research collaboration and the politics of participatory development*. Chicago: Taylor & Francis Ltd
- Smith, V. (1999). *The earthscan reader in sustainable Tourism*. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.
- Ubgomeh, G. (2001). Empowering women in agricultural education. *Community Development Journal*, 36(4), 289-302.
- UNIFEM (2009). *Annual report*. Retrieved from www.unifem.org
- United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) (1992) *Agenda 21: The United Nations programme of action from Rio*. New York: United Nations.
- United Nations Development Programme (1993). *Human development report*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Uphoff, N. (1986). Approaches to participation in agriculture and rural development. In M. Bamberger (Ed.), *Readings in community participation*, (pp. 425-426). Washington D.C.: Economic Development Institute of the World Bank.
- Vehagen, K. (1985). *The promotion of small farmer cooperative action and organisation*. Amsterdam: Royal Tropical Institute.
- Vehagen, K. (1987). *Self-help promotion: A challenge to the nongovernmental organisation community*. Netherlands: CEBEMO/ Royal Tropical Institute.
- Village AiD (1996). *Beyond participatory rural appraisal: A new approach to village-led development*. Unpublished business plan. Village AiD.
- Wackernagel, M., & Rees, W. (1996). *Ecological footprint and sustainable development*. Canada: New Society Publishers.
- Waterson, A. (1965). *Development planning: Lessons of experience*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Universities Press.
- White, A. (1981). *Community participation in water and sanitation: Concept, strategies and methods*. Netherlands: IRC Rijswijk.
- Wildavski, A. (1973). If planning is everything, maybe it is nothing. *Policy Science*, 4, 127-153.
- World Bank (1994). *The World Bank and participation (forth draft)*. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- World Bank (1998). *Rural development: The World Bank experience*. Washington D.C.: World Bank.

World Commission on Environment and Development WCED (1987). *Our common future*. Oxford University Press: Oxford, England

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICE STAFF

This research is being carried out to assess the extent of Community Participation in the planning and management of the Community Schools Alliance Project in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District.

Your answers will go a long way to augment this study. This is for pure academic work and you will not be held accountable for your responses. There is complete anonymity for respondents.

SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

1. Sex Male [] Female []
2. Age
3. Position at the District Education Office?.....
4. How long have you held this position (in years)? []

SECTION B: AWARENESS OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL ALLIANCE PROJECT

5. Have you ever heard of the QUIPS? Yes [] No []
6. If yes, what was it about?
- Which year did the programme start in this district?.....
7. Have you ever heard about the Community School Alliance Project?
 Yes [] No []
8. If yes, what was the Project about?

SECTION C: THE NATURE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE
CSA PROJECT

9. Did the project involve groups in the Community/ District?

Yes [] No []

10. Which community/ district groups were involved in the Community

School Alliance project?.....

11. What was the level of involvement of the stakeholders stated in Q 12, in
the Community School Alliance Project?

Use this scale below to complete the table

i. not encouraging 2- encouraging 3- very encouraging

Name of the Stakeholder	Planning process				
	a. Identificat ion	b. Preparation	c. Appraisal	d. Impl ntatio n	e. M&E

12. What were the contributions of the following community/ district groups? i.

Financial ii. Communal labour iii. Decision making

iv. Provision of raw materials v. skilled labour vi. Other (specify)

NAME OF GROUP	TYPE OF CONTRIBUTION					
	Financial	Communal labour	Decision making	Provision of raw materials	skilled labour	Other
District Education Oversight Committee						
DEO						
District Assembly						
SMC						
P T A						
Unit Committee						
Community						
Chief and Elders						
Other specify						

13. Which approach was used for the implementation of the project?

.....

14. What was the role of the district education office in the implementation of the project?.....

15. Specifically what role did you play as an officer in the projects listed in Q 14?
.....

SECTION D: THE FACTORS THAT AFFECT COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

16. What factors affected the CSA project positively?.....

17. In what ways did these factors promote the Community School Alliance project?.....

18. Were there issues that hindered the progress of the implementation of the project?
Yes [] No []

19. What were some of the hindrances to the CSA project?.....

20. How did these hindrances affect the implementation of the project?.....

21. Can anything be done to remedy this situation next time? Yes [] No []

22. What can be done to remedy the situation?.....

SECTION E: THE STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

23. What was the approach that the CSA project employed in the project?.....

24. Do you like the Community Participation approach to development projects?

Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 25 why?.....

- b. If no Q 25, why?.....
25. Have you observed some advantages about the community participation approach to community development? Yes [] No []
26. If yes to Q 27, what are the strengths
27. Do you see any disadvantages with this approach? Yes [] No []
28. State the disadvantages of the approach?.....

SECTION F: COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT (SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT)

29. What did the school gain from the project?

Community/ school	Classroom block	Urinal	TLMs	School uniforms	Sports equipments	Other
Aworodo						
Fawomanye						
Besease						
Essiam						

30. What is the state of the project that the CSA helped the community with?

a. Good [] b. Bad []

31. Who is seeing to the maintenance of the Community School Alliance project?

Yes [] No []

32. What has the District Assembly done about the project?

.....

33. Has your office done anything to maintain the project? Yes [] No []

34. What has been the contribution of the District Education Office to the maintenance of the project?

35. Has the project been able to sustain the interest of the community to initiate their own project? Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 32 how?

36. Has any project been undertaken by the community as a result of the Community School Alliance (CSA) project? Yes [] No []

a. If yes o Q 34, what are some of these projects?

SECTION G: RECOMMENDATION

37. What can be done to make the Community School Alliance Project more participatory?.....

Thank you

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DISTRICT ASSEMBLY STAFF

This research is being carried out to assess the extent of Community Participation in the planning and management of the Community Schools Alliance Project in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District.

Your answers will go a long way to augment this study. This is for pure academic work and you will not be held accountable for your responses. There is complete anonymity for respondents.

SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

- 1. Sex Male [] Female []
- 2. Age
- 3. Office.....
- 4. How long have held this office (in this district)?[]

SECTION B

AWARENESS OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS ALLIANCE PROJECT

- 5. Have you ever heard of QUIPS? Yes [] No []
- 6. If yes, what was it about?.....
- 7. Which year did the programme start in this District?
- 8. Have you ever heard about the Community School Alliance project?Yes [] No []
 - a. If yes, what was the Community School Alliance project about?
.....

SECTION C: THE NATURE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE CSA PROJECT

9. Did the project involve stakeholders/groups in the Community/ District?

Yes [] No []

10. Which stakeholders/groups were involved in the Community School Alliance project?.....

11. What was the level of involvement of these stakeholders/groups in the CSA Project? Use the scale below to complete the table

1- Not encouraging 2-Encouraging 3- Very encouraging

Name of the Stakeholder	Planning process				
	a. Identification	b. Preparation	c. Appraisal	d. Implantation	e. M & E

12. What were the contributions of the following Community/ District groups?

Use the responses below to fill the table below.

- i- Financial contribution
- ii - Communal labour
- iii - Decision Making
- iv- Raw Materials
- v. skilled labour
- vi. Other (specify)

NAME OF GROUP	TYPE OF CONTRIBUTION					
	Financial	Communal labour	Decision Making	Raw Materials	skilled labour	Other (specify)
District Education Oversight Committee						
District Education Office						
District Assembly						
SMC						
P TA						
Unit Committee						
Community						
Chief and Elders						
Other specify						

13. Did the District Assembly take part in the Community School Alliance project?
Yes [] No []

14. What role did the District Assembly play in the Community School Alliance projects?

SECTION D: THE FACTORS THAT AFFECT COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

15. What were the factors that positively affected community participation in CSA project?

16. In what ways did these issues promote the Community School Alliance project?.....

17. Were there issues that hindered the progress of the implementation of the project?
Yes [] No []

18. What are some of these hindrances to the CSA project?
.....

19. How did these hindrances affect the implementation of the project?
.....

20. What can be done to remedy the situation?
.....

SECTION E: THE STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

21. What was the approach to the implementation of CSA project?
.....

22. Do you like the Community Participation approach to development projects?

Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 23, state the reasons?

.....

23. Do you like the Community School Alliance approach to development project?

Yes [] No []

24. What can you say about the approach of the CSA project?

.....

25. Have you observed any strength about the Community Participation approach of CSA to community development? Yes [] No []

26. What are some of the strengths you have observed about the Community Participation approach to development as employed by the Community School Alliance project?.....

27. Do you see any weaknesses with this approach? Yes [] No []

28. What are some of the weaknesses of the approach?.....

SECTION F: COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT (SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT)

29. What did the communities gain from the QUIPS/ CSA?

Community/ school	Classroom block	Urinal	TLMs	School uniforms	Sporting equipments	Other
Aworodo						
Fawomanye						
Besease						
Essiam						

30.What is the state of these ‘projects’ today?

Project	Aworodo		Fawomanye		Besease		Aworodo	
	Good	Bad	Good	Bad	Good	Bad	Good	Bad
Classroom								
Jerseys								
Urinal								
TLMs								
School uniforms								
Sporting equipments								
Other.....								

31.Is anyone seeing to the maintenance of the Community School Alliance project?

Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 31, who is seeing to the maintenance of the project?

.....

b. If no to Q 31, why?

.....

32.Has the District done anything to maintain the project from the time the

Community School Alliance project came to an end? Yes [] No []

33.What has the District as whole done about the project ever since it ended?

.....

34. Have the CBOs who were involved in the project done anything to maintain the project? Yes [] No []

35. If yes what has been the contribution of the Community Based Organisations in the maintenance of the project?

.....

36. Has people's interest in participatory development been sustained as a result CSA project to initiate their own project? Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q38, explain?.....

37. Has the District /Assembly undertaken any project in the community to sustain the CSA? Yes [] No []

38. What are some of these projects?

.....

SECTION G: RECOMMENDATION

39. Can anything be done to make the project more participatory? Yes [] No []

40. What do you think can be done to make the community school alliance project more participatory?

.....

Thank you

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STAFF OF THE CSA PROJECT

This research is being carried out to assess the extent of Community Participation in the planning and management of the Community Schools Alliance Project in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District.

Your answers will go a long way to augment this study. This is for pure academic work and you will not be held accountable for your responses. There is complete anonymity for respondents.

SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

- 1. Sex Male [] Female []
- 2. Position or rank in the organisation

SECTION B: THE NATURE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE CSA PROJECT

- 3. What was the nature of community participation in the Community School Alliance project?
- 4. What was the role of your office in the project?
- 5. How will you rate the contribution of the communities in the AEED towards the project? a. Not encouraging [] b. encouraging [] c. Very encouraging []

No.	Name of community	Rating	Reason
A	Aworodo		
B	Fawomanye		
C	Bisease		
D	Essiam		

6. Which Community/ District groups were involved in the project?

.....

7. What was the level of involvement of these stakeholders in the Community School Alliance Project in terms of the following

Use the scale below to complete the table

Not encouraging -1 Encouraging -2 Very encouraging -3

Name of the Stakeholder	Project planning process				
	a. Identification	b. Preparation	c. Appraisal	d. Implantation	e. M& E

8. What were the contributions of the following Community/ District groups in terms of the following?

a. Financial b. Communal labour c. Decision Making d. Raw Materials

NAME OF GROUP	TYPE OF CONTRIBUTION					
	Financial	Communal labour	Decision Making	Raw materials	Skilled labour	Other (specify)
District Education Oversight Committee						
District Education Office						
District Assembly						
SMC						
PTA						
Unit Committee						
Community						
Chief and Elders						
Others (specify)						

SECTION C: THE FACTORS THAT AFFECTED COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

- 9. What issues affected the CSA project positively?
- 10. In what ways did these issues promote the Community School Alliance project?.....
- 11. Were there issues that hindered the progress of the implementation of the project? Yes [] No []
- 12. What are some of these hindrances to the CSA Project in AEED?
.....
- 13. How did these hindrances affect the implementation of the project?
.....
- 14. What was done to remedy this situation?
.....

SECTION D: THE STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

- 15. What was the approach of the CSA project?
- 16. What can you say about the Community Participation approach to development projects?
- 17. Do you like the Community School Alliance approach to development project? Yes [] No []
- 18. Did you observe some strength about the community participation approach to community development? Yes [] No []

19. What are some of the strengths you have observed about the community participation approach to development as employed by the Community School Alliance project?.....
20. Do you see any weaknesses with this approach? Yes [] No []
21. What are some of the weaknesses of the approach?.....

SECTION E: COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT (SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT)

22. Is someone responsible for the maintenance of the Community School Alliance project? Yes [] No []
23. Who is seeing to the maintenance of the project?.....
24. Have you visited the project communities in AEED from the time the Community School Alliance project ended? Yes [] No []
25. What is the current state of the project?.....
26. Has community been able to initiate their own project after the end of the CSA project? Yes [] No []
27. If yes to Q 26, how?
28. Is there any project that has been undertaken as a result of the Community School Alliance (CSA) project? Yes [] No []
29. If yes to Q 28 what are some of these projects?.....

SECTION F: RECOMMENDATIONS

30. What can be done to make the project more participatory?

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

This research is being carried out to assess the extent of Community Participation in the planning and management of the Community Schools Alliance Project in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District.

Your answers will go a long way to augment this study. This is for pure academic work and you will not be held accountable for your responses. There is complete anonymity for respondents.

SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

1. Position or rank in the Community/School []
2. Sex Male [] Female []
3. Age []
4. How long have you been teaching in this community?
 - a. 1 year [] b. 2 years [] c. 3 years []
 - d. 4 years [] e. 5 years [] f. 5 years []
 - g. 6 years [] h. 7 years +[]

SECTION B: AWARENESS OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL ALLIANCE PROJECT

5. Have you heard of QUIPS? Yes [] No []
6. If yes, what was QUIPS about?.....
7. Which year did the programme start in this Community?
8. Have you heard of the Community School Alliance project? Yes [] No []
9. If yes, what was CSA about.....

SECTION C: THE NATURE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE
CSA PROJECT

10. Did the project involve groups in the Community/ District? Yes [] No []

11. Which Community/ District groups were involved in the project?.....

12. What was the level of involvement of these stakeholders in the Community
School Alliance Project?

Use the scale below to complete the table

1- Not encouraging 2- Encouraging 3- Very encouraging

Name of the Stakeholder	Planning process				
	a. Identification	b. Preparation	c. Appraisal	d. Implementation	e. M & E

13. What were the contributions of the following community/ district groups to the
project? Use the options provided to fill the table below

- i. Financial ii. Communal Labour iii. Decision Making iv. Raw Materials
v. Skilled labour vi. Other (Specify) (*tick the appropriate option*)

NAME OF GROUP	TYPE OF CONTRIBUTION					
	Financial	Communal labour	Decision making	Raw materials	Skilled labour	Other (specify)
DEOC						
District Education Office						
District Assembly						
SMC						
PTA						
Unit Committee						
Community						
Chief and Elders						
Others Specify						

14. Did you participate in the CSA project as a teacher? Yes [] no []

15. How was the community involved in the CSA project?

16. Has any project been implemented in this community/school in the past six years? Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 16, how many.....

17. Did you as an individual take part in these projects? Yes [] No. []

18. Specifically mention and state your role in the projects? For question Q 18, use the following (a) Financial contribution (b) Provision of materials (c) Communal labour (d) Provision of technical assistance

No.	Name of the Project	What was your role?
a.		
b.		
c.		
d.		
e.		
f.		

SECTION D: THE FACTORS THAT AFFECTS COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

19. What factors promoted the implementation of the CSA Project?

.....

20. In what ways did these factors promote the CSA project?

.....

21. Were there issues that hindered the implementation process of the CSA project? Yes [] No []

22. If yes in question 21, what are some of these hindrances?

.....

23. How did these hindrances affect the implementation of the project?

.....

24. What can be done to remedy this situation next time?

.....

SECTION E: THE STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

25. Do you like the Community Participation approach to development projects?

Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 25, why?.....

b. If no Q 25, why?.....

26. Have you observed any strength with the Community Participation approach?

Yes [] No []

a. If yes Q 26, what are some of the strengths you have observed.....

b. If no to Q 26, what are the weaknesses you have observed?.....

SECTION F: COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT (SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT)

27. What did you gain from the project as a teacher?.....

28. How did the above mentioned help you as a teacher?.....

29. What did the school gain from the project?

a. Classroom block [] b. Jerseys [] c. Urinal [] d. Teaching

learning materials [] e. School uniforms [] f. Sporting equipments

g. Other (specify).....

30. What is the state of the things that the CSA helped the community with?

a. Good [] b. Bad []

31. Is anyone seeing to its maintenance? Yes [] No []

32. Who is seeing to the maintenance of the project?.....

33. Is the community maintaining the project? Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 33, how is the community maintaining the project?.....

34. What has the Community as whole done.....

35. Are the Community Based Organisations who were involved in the project doing anything to maintain the project? Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 35, what has been the contribution of the Community Based Organisations in the maintenance of the project?.....

36. Has the project been able to sustain the interest of the community to initiate their own project? Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 36, how?.....

b. If no to Q 36, why?.....

SECTION G: RECOMMENDATION

37. What can be done to make the CSA project more participatory?

.....

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COMMUNITY MEMBERS

This research is being carried out to assess the extent of Community Participation in the planning and management of the Community Schools Alliance Project in the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District.

Your answers will go a long way to augment this study. This is for pure academic work and you will not be held accountable for your responses. There is complete anonymity for respondents.

1. Name of Community.....

SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

2. Position or rank in the Community

- a. Opinion leader [] b. Parent [] c. Artisan []
- d. Other specify.....

3. Sex Male [] Female []

4. Age

5. How long have you been in this community? []

- a. 1 year [] b. 2 years [] c. 3 years [] d. 4 years []
- e. 5 years [] f. 5 years [] g. 6 years [] h. 7 years +[]

SECTION B: AWARENESS OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS ALLIANCE PROJECT

6. Have you ever heard of QUIPS? Yes [] No []

a. If yes, what was it about?.....

Which year did the programme begin in this Community?

7. Have you ever heard about the Community School Alliance Project?

Yes [] No []

8. If yes, what was the Community School Alliance Project about?

.....

SECTION C: THE NATURE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE CSA PROJECT

9. Did the project take into consideration the involvement of groups in the community? Yes [] No []

a. If yes Q 10, which groups were involved?.....

10. What was the level of involvement of these stakeholders in the Community School Alliance Project? Use the scale below to complete the table

1-Not encouraging 2- Encouraging 3-Very encouraging

Name of Stakeholder	Planning process				
	a. Identification	b. Preparation	c. Appraisal	d. Implantation	e. M & E

11. What were the contributions of the following community/ district groups?

Use the scale below to complete the table

- a. Financial b. Communal labour c. Decision Making d. Raw Materials
 e. Skilled labour f. Other specify

NAME OF GROUP	TYPE OF CONTRIBUTION					
	Financial	Communal labour	Decision Making	Raw Materials	Skilled labour	Other (specify)
District Assembly						
SMC						
PTA						
Unit Committee						
Community						
Chief and Elders						
Other (specify).						

12. How did you as an individual take part in the CSA project?

- a. financial contribution [] b. provision of raw materials [] c. Communal labour []
 d. provision of technical assistance [] e. Other.....

13. Specifically what role did the community play in the project?

No.	Contribution	What was your role? (Tick appropriately)
A	Financial contribution	
B	Provision of raw materials	
C	Communal labour	
D	Provision of technical assistance	
E	Other (specify)	

14. Why did the community make this contribution(s)?.....

15. How did you mobilise the contribution(s).....

16. Did you find any difficulty performing the role stated above as a community?

Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 14, state the difficulty.....

SECTION D: THE FACTORS THAT AFFECT COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

17. What factors helped the implementation of the CSA Project?

18. In what ways did these factors help the Community School Alliance Project?....

19. What factors retarded the implementation of the CSA Project?.....

20. In what ways did these factors affect the implementation of the CSA project?

.....

21. Can anything be done to remedy this situation next time? Yes [] No []

22. If yes, what can be done to remedy the situation?

SECTION E: THE STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

23. What approach was employed in the CSA project?

24. Do you like this approach to development projects? Yes [] No []

a. If yes to Q 25, why?.....

b. If no to Q 25, why?.....

Have you observed some advantages about the Community Participation approach to community development? Yes [] No []

25. What are some of the weaknesses of the approach?

.....

SECTION F: COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT (SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT)

26. What did the school gain CSA from the project?

a. Classroom block [] b. Jerseys [] c. Urinal []

d. Teaching learning materials [] e. School uniforms [] f. Sporting equipments []

g. Other (specify).....

27. What is the state of the projects that the CSA helped the community with?

a. Good [] b. Bad []

Project	State / Condition	
	Good	Bad
Classroom		
Jerseys		
Urinal		
TLMs		
School uniforms		
Sporting equipments		
Other.....		

28. Who is seeing to the maintenance of the project? Tick as apply

- a. School Management Committee [] b. Parents Teachers Association []
c. Community Chief and Elders [] d. District Education Office [] e. District
Assembly [] f. Other (specify).....

29. What has the above mentioned groups as a whole done to maintain the project?

.....

30. Has the project been able to sustain the interest of the community to initiate their own project? Yes [] No []

31. List the projects and initiators in the box below.

	Name of the project	Name of the initiator
A		
B		
C		
D		
E		

SECTION G: RECOMMENDATION

32. What can be done to make the project more participatory?

.....

Thank you

APENDIX F

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR SMC AND PTA

EXECUTIVES

1. Name of Community
2. Position or rank on the SMC/PTA executives
3. How long have you been in this community?
4. How long have you served on the SMC/PTA?
5. What was the QUIPs Programme about?
6. Which year did the programme start in this Community?
7. Have you heard about the CSA Project?
8. What was the CSA Project about?
9. Which groups were involved in the CSA project? And how was the level of involvement of these groups in the CSA Project?
10. How did the involvement of these groups help the project?
 - a. How did you as a community take part in the CSA projects?
 - b. Specifically what role did the SMC/PTA play in the CSA project?
11. Why did SMC/PTA make these contributions?
 - a. How did you mobilise the contribution?
 - b. How difficult was it?

What were the factors that positively affected the CSA project?

How?
12. What issues that hindered the progress of the implementation of the project?
 - a. How did these hindrances affect the implementation of the project?

- b. What can be done to remedy the situation?
- 13. How was the CSA project implemented in the community?
 - a. Do you like the approach used?
 - b. Why?
- 14. How did you as a SMC/PTA benefit from the project?
- 15. What are strengths of the community participation approach?
- 16. What are the weaknesses of the community participation approach?
- 17. What did the school gain from the project?
- 18. What is the state of the projects that the CSA helped the community with?
- 19. Who is seeing to the maintenance of the project?
 - a. What has been done to maintain the project?
- 20. What do you think can be done to make the CSA Project more participatory?